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Verantwoordelijke uitgevers:

Bernard De Clerck

An Baeyens

Sonia Vandepitte

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART ONE: INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR	1
1. Introduction: what is grammar?	1
2. Levels of Grammatical Analysis	3
2.1 Discourse	3
2.2 Sentence	4
2.3 Clause	5
2.4 Phrase	6
2.5 Word	6
2.6 Morpheme	6
3. Categories in Grammatical Analysis: form, function, meaning	7
3.1 Form (or Formal) Categories	7
3.2 Function (or Functional) Categories	8
3.3 Meaning (or Semantic) Categories	9
4. Grammatical Analysis at Sentence Level	9
5. Grammatical Analysis at Clause Level	11
5.1 Formal Types of Subclauses	11
5.1.1 <i>Finite Subclauses</i>	11
5.1.2 <i>Non-finite Subclauses</i>	11
5.1.3 <i>Verbless Subclauses</i>	12
5.2 Formal Structure of the Clause	12
5.3 Functional Structure of the Clause	12
5.3.1 <i>Verb/Predicator</i>	13
5.3.2 <i>Subject</i>	13
5.3.3 <i>Objects</i>	15
5.3.4 <i>Complements</i>	17
5.3.5 <i>Adverbials</i>	18
5.3.6 <i>Coordinators/Subordinators</i>	20

6. Grammatical Analysis at Phrase Level	20
6.1 Introduction	20
6.2 Formal Types of Phrase (or: Phrase Categories)	21
6.3 Functional Structure of the Phrase	22
6.3.1 <i>Introduction</i>	22
6.3.2 <i>Noun Phrases</i>	22
6.3.3 <i>Adjective Phrases and Adverb Phrases</i>	24
6.3.4 <i>Prepositional phrases</i>	25
7. Grammar at Word Level	26
7.1 Open-Class Items	26
7.1.1 <i>Nouns</i>	26
7.1.2 <i>Verbs</i>	27
7.1.3 <i>Adjectives</i>	31
7.1.4 <i>Adverbs</i>	31
7.2 Closed-Class Items	32
7.2.1 <i>Determiners</i>	32
7.2.2 <i>Pronouns</i>	32
7.2.3 <i>Prepositions</i>	33
7.2.4 <i>Particles</i>	33
7.2.5 <i>Conjunctions</i>	33
7.2.6 <i>Interjections</i>	34

PART TWO: THE VERB PHRASE	35
1. Introduction: form and structure of the VP	35
2. Grammatical Categories of the Verb: number, person, tense, aspect, voice and mood	39
2.1 Introduction	39
2.2 Tense and Time	39
2.3 Aspect	41
2.3.1 <i>Semantic Aspect</i>	41
2.3.2 <i>Grammatical Aspect</i>	43
2.3.3 <i>Interaction between Semantic and Grammatical Aspect</i>	44
2.4 Voice	46
2.5 Mood	47
2.5.1 <i>Verb Mood</i>	47
2.5.2 <i>Sentence Mood</i>	49
3. Present Tenses	50
3.1 Simple Present	50
3.2 Present Progressive	55
3.3 Present Perfect	59
3.4 Present Perfect Progressive	63
4. Past Tenses	68
4.1 Simple Past	68
4.2 Past Progressive	78
4.3 Past Perfect	81
4.4 Past Perfect Progressive	84
APPENDIX: IRREGULAR VERBS	87

PART ONE
INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

1. Introduction: what is grammar?

In a broad sense 'grammar' can refer to any set of language-related rules, pertaining to different domains of the language (rules on how to form words, rules on how pronounce certain sounds in context, rules on how to build sentences, rules on how to use these sentences in communication, etc.). These sets of rules are studied and described in different disciplines:

PHONOLOGY describes how the language system combines (abstract) features into phonemes and phonemes into words.

e.g. English vs. Russian: onset syllables as examples of different possibilities and language-specific rules

kniga 'book', vnuk 'grandson', tkanj 'fabric', ptitsa 'bird', etc.

zdr-, zbr-, zbl-, zgr-, zgl-, zgn-, vzv-, vgl-, vzb-, fkl-, ftr-, vbr-, sxv-, vsk, etc.

or 4: fspl-, fstr-, fskr-, vzdr-, vzgl-, etc.

PHONETICS describes how the speaker produces the fixed set of meaningful speech sounds and all their combinations. (cf. the PHONETICS course)

e.g. the context-dependent pronunciation of plural –s: [s] (in 'cats'), [z] (in 'cabs'), or as [ɪz] (in 'buses')

MORPHOLOGY studies the relationships between words and morphemes (i.e. word formation processes)

- inflectional morphology:

i.e. the study of how words can take different guises to show grammatical meanings:

e.g. the plural is shown by adding a suffix -s (book-s)

- derivational morphology = word formation = lexical morphology

i.e. the study of how new words are formed from existing words:

e.g. you can form a noun from a verb by adding a suffix –ion: *communicat-ion*, *interact-ion*, etc.; or a verb from a noun by adding –ize: *catastroph-ize*; or merge existing words into new ones: *chillax*, *wurfing*, *bromance*, etc.

LEXICOLOGY operates at word level only, which is concerned with LEXICAL ITEMS, mainly words.

LEXICOLOGY is the study of their history, meaning(s) and usage.

LEXICOGRAPHY lists and describes LEXICAL ITEMS in dictionaries.

(cf. the VOCABULARY course)

SYNTAX (i.e. 'grammar' in its narrow, traditional sense): usually relates to the levels of and relationships between: sentence - clause - phrase - word. It involves the study and description of the structure of sentences, i.e. the way in which parts of a sentence are internally organized and arranged, and the way they relate to one another.¹

PRAGMATICS focuses on discourse and on the communicative aspects of language which is broken down into utterances. An utterance is considered to be a sentence that expresses a speech act, with the speaker having a particular purpose in mind. When 'performing' a speech act we are trying to achieve something, the most common types of which are illustrated in the table below:

(communic.) FUNCTION	examples
statements	I like sweets.
commands (or orders)	Tell him the truth!
exclamations	How very clever (she is)! Lucky you!
questions	Do you speak Russian at all?
requests	Could you close the door (please)?
offers	(Would you have) some more tea?
suggestions	Let's go for a drink, shall we? Why don't we go for a drink?

Note also that in many of these cases the literal interpretation is overruled by the actual conversational implicature of the utterance itself. In such cases 'default' responses (i.e. responses fed by a literal interpretation) do not constitute instances of 'correct' language from a pragmatic point of view. Examples are presented in (1) and (2).

¹ Related definitions include 'the way words combine to form sentences'(Huddleston & Pullum 2002); 'the way in which words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within [...] sentences' (Crystal 1987); 'the ways in which words [...] are arranged to show connections of meaning within a sentence' (Matthews 1981)

- (1) Excuse me, can you tell me what time it is?
- *Yes, I can. I am the proud owner of a Rolex.
- It's 14.15 sharp.
- (2) You're an hour late!
- *That's correct.
- I'm really sorry. I got stuck in traffic.

Summing up, grammar can either refer to the complete set of operative rules within a language system, which comprises different levels and different disciplines. In a more narrow sense grammar mainly refers to syntax (i.e. the structural make up of sentences and their components). Most of this course will deal with grammar in a narrow sense, i.e. with syntax.

2. Levels of Grammatical Analysis

Depending on the scope of one's definition, grammatical analysis can be carried out on different levels, units or ranks. From a broad perspective, the largest unit of analysis is that of discourse which can be broken down into ever smaller **units**, each of which can be analysed grammatically in its own right. We will distinguish six levels:

- Discourse
- Sentence
- Clause
- Phrase
- Word
- Morpheme

From top to bottom we can say that discourse consists of sentences, sentences consist of clauses, clauses consist of words and words consist of morphemes. From the bottom to the top we can say that morphemes are immediate constituents of words, words are immediate constituents of phrases, etc.

2.1 Discourse

This is the highest level of grammatical analysis (= beyond the sentence), alternatively called the **text level**. Definitions given under the word **discourse** in

- *LDEL*: '(3) [U] connected language in speech or writing;
- *Random House Dictionary of English*: '(3) any unit of connected speech or writing longer than a sentence'.

Sentences in a paragraph (and paragraphs in a text) display features of **cohesion**, as in:

(1) Ralph was dreaming. He had fallen asleep after what seemed hours of tossing and turning noisily among the dried leaves. (W. Golding, *Lord of the Flies*, p. 94)

- the personal pronoun *he* refers back to *Ralph*;
- the past perfect form *had fallen asleep* refers to an earlier past than that referred to by the past progressive form *was dreaming*;
- the lexical elements *dream*, *fall asleep* and *toss and turn* belong to the same semantic field.

Cohesion can also take the form of **ellipsis**, in which case elements are simply left out (instead of being repeated or replaced by synonyms or words referring back in the text), cf.:

(2) 'What's your name?'

'Ralph.' (W. Golding, *Lord of the Flies*, p. 8)

(3) 'How many of us are there?'

'I don't know.' (W. Golding, *Lord of the Flies*, p. 14)

In both cases the speaker answering the initial question omits elements expressed by the first speaker. More explicit versions of these answers would have been: *My name is Ralph* and *I don't know how many of us there are*, respectively.

Cohesion in English tends to be very similar to that found in Dutch, the same mechanisms being drawn upon in both languages. Also, most forms of cohesion operating across sentence boundaries are to be found within the sentence too.

The English grammar course will largely concentrate on the sentence (in line with the narrow definition), which is to be our highest level or unit of grammatical analysis. As for discourse, this will be of more immediate interest to us in the PRECIS WRITING course.

2.2 Sentence (zin)

Definition given in *LDELC* under the word **sentence**:

'(in grammar) a group of words that forms a statement, command, exclamation, or question, usu. contains a subject and a verb, and (in written English) begins with a capital letter and ends with one of the marks .!?'

The following are all sentences:

Birds sing.

Sing the song again.

How well he sings!

Who sang at the concert last night?

A more elaborate definition from the *Random House Dictionary of English*:

‘a structurally independent grammatical unit of one or more words, in speech often preceded and followed by pauses and in writing begun with a capital letter and ended with a period or other end punctuation, typically consisting of a subject and a predicate containing a finite verb and expressing a statement, question, request, command, or exclamation, as *Summer is here*, or *Who is it?* or *Stop!*’

2.3 Clause (deelzin)

All the above are examples of so-called **simple** sentences, i.e. sentences consisting of just one clause. Sentences can also consist of several clauses, however:

- (4) All animals are equal / but some animals are more equal than others. (G. Orwell, *Animal Farm*, p.114)

Although both clauses making up this sentence are **main clauses**, their order is fixed. The second clause could even have appeared as a separate sentence displaying cohesion with the first:

- (5) All animals are equal. But some animals are more equal than others.

or:

- (6) All animals are equal. Some animals are more equal than others, however.

The fact that both clauses can stand on their own - as independent sentences - proves that they are main clauses. What makes them different is that the first clause/sentence can be used at the beginning of a text, whereas the second cannot. The latter is textually dependent on the former and simply has to follow as it contains an element linking it to the preceding sentence, namely *but* and *however* in (5) and (6) respectively.

Now consider yet another version of Orwell’s famous sentence:

(7) Although all animals are equal, some animals are more equal than others.

Here the two clauses relate to each other in a very different way: the first clause could not stand on its own as it is structurally dependent on the second, whereas the second clause could easily be a sentence in its own right even if the first were missing. The first clause is, therefore, a **subordinate** clause or **subclause** (cf. the subordinating conjunction *although*).

2.4 Phrase (woordgroep)

This can be defined as a group of words belonging together which fulfils a syntactic function in the clause, cf.

(8) All that year / the animals / worked / like slaves. (G. Orwell, *ibid.*,p.53.)

FORM: NP / NP / VP / PrepP

FUNCTION: (A_t: Time Adverbial) / (S: Subject) / (V: Verb) / (A_m: Manner adverbial)

As the VP *worked* shows, some phrases consist of not more than one word: still, such a one-word phrase can easily be expanded into a group of words => *must have worked*.

2.5 Word (woord)

The unit below the phrase is the **word**. Words are listed as separate entries in a lexicon or dictionary and can therefore also be called **lexical items**. Most words or lexical items are **simple**: *cat, bright, quite, reject*, etc. Some are made up of several elements, e.g. *fruitcake, backyard, close-up*, and are therefore called **compound** nouns or compounds. A small number look like phrases, e.g. *mother-in-law, tug-of-war*, or even like short clauses, *forget-me-not, hand-me-down*, etc.

2.6 Morpheme (morfeem)

This is the smallest meaningful unit of grammar. A distinction should be made between **free** morphemes, which can occur freely as separate words, and **bound** morphemes, which cannot. The above compounds, for example, are combinations of free morphemes.

Typical examples of bound morphemes are prefixes and suffixes, as in uninteresting, presuppose, actually. Also included here are plural endings of nouns (cats), third person singular endings of verbs (spends) and past tense endings (walked).

NOTE

Do not confuse morphemes and phonemes, i.e. a **morpheme** is a grammatical category and pertains to word formation processes, a **phoneme** is the smallest unit of phonology, i.e. it refers to distinctive features in phonetics. E.g. the plural form *cats* consists of two morphemes (*cat* and plural *s*) and of four phonemes /kæts/ (cf. the BASICS and PHONETICS courses).

3. Categories in Grammatical Analysis: form, function, meaning

Grammatical analysis can operate with three basic sets of categories, viz. FORM, FUNCTION and MEANING, although the last of the three is not always considered to be part of grammar proper.

3.1 Form (or Formal) Categories

These comprise elements into which a sentence can be broken down at various levels, largely on formal grounds, e.g.:

I	wonder	what	I	am	doing	here.
---	--------	------	---	----	-------	-------

1)	(declarative) SENTENCE						
2)	main clause			s u b c l a u s e			
3)	NP	VP	NP	NP	VP		AdvP
4)	personal pronoun	lex. verb	relative/ interrog. pronoun	personal pronoun	auxiliary operator	/ lex. verb / -ing form	adverb

1) sentence level, 2) clause level, 3) phrase level, 4) word level

Each level has a different set of formal labels, e.g.

- 1) Sentence level: simple, compound, complex, complex compound, compound complex
- 2) Clause level: main clause, subclause, finite or non-finite, etc.
- 3) Phrase level: noun phrase, adjective phrase, prepositional phrase, adverb phrase, etc.
- 4) Word level: noun, lexical verb, (modal) auxiliary, demonstrative determiner, personal pronoun, etc.

Each level and each of these labels will be discussed in greater depth in sections 4 to 8.

3.2 Function (or Functional) Categories

Apart from a formal categorization, sentence elements can also be characterized in terms of the role they play within the sentence. As such, functional categories define the syntactic functions of sentence elements, by describing the connections they have in relation to other elements in the sentence. Again, such an analysis can be carried out on different levels, each of which is associated with a specific set of functional labels. In the sentence below, functional labels are expressed on clause and subclause level:

I	wonder	what	I	am doing	here
---	--------	------	---	----------	------

S	V	Od (Direct) Object			
		Od (direct) object	S subject	V verb	A adverbial

In the next example functions on phrase level are also included:

That	man	knows	what	you	did	last	summer
------	-----	-------	------	-----	-----	------	--------

S	V	o _d (direct) object					
		o _d (direct) object	S subject	V verb	A adverbial		
Det.	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head	Premod.	Head

Examples of labels on each level include:

- On sentence or clause level: Subject, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Prepositional Object, Complement to the Subject, Complement to the Object, Adverbial Adjunct, Adverbial Disjunct, Adverbial Conjunct, etc.
- On phrase level: Determiner, Premodifier, Head, Postmodifier

NOTE

The distinction between formal and functional analysis is crucial! As we are dealing with a different set of labels, it is important to use the right set for the right type of analysis (on the right level). In the example below for instance, *mine* can be given to labels, depending on the perspective that is adopted.

- (1) That car over there is mine.

- From a formal point of view, *mine* is a possessive pronoun.
- From a functional point of view, however, the only right label to use is Complement to the Subject.

In sections 4-8, each of these functional labels will be discussed in greater detail.

3.3 Meaning (or Semantic) Categories

Semantic categories ascribe semantic (or meaning) elements to formal and functional categories. Adverbials, for instance, as a functional category can be subcategorized according to the meaning that is expressed into adverbials of time, place, instrument, manner, etc. In the example on top of the page, *last summer* is an Adverbial of time. Similarly, pronouns and determiners (which are formal labels) can be subcategorized as demonstrative, possessive, reflexive, interrogative, etc. *Mine* in (1) above is a *possessive* pronoun, while *that* is a *demonstrative* determiner (as opposed to *my* in *my car*, for instance, which would be a *possessive* determiner).

Semantic labels can also be used to refer to the different roles that are played by the components in the sentence. In the example below, for instance, *Mary* functions as the Subject, but from a semantic perspective *Mary* is also the entity that performs the action, i.e. the Agent. *John* undergoes the action, which, in semantic terms is labelled as Patient.

- (1) Mary kissed John.

4. Grammatical Analysis at Sentence Level

Grammatical analysis at sentence level is concerned with distinguishing **three basic types of sentence structure**. The labels that are used are **formal** in nature.

Sentences which consist of only one clause, i.e. just a main clause, are called **simple** sentences:

- (1) I m hungry.
- (2) The growing speculation comes despite the rejection by Sinn Féin, the IRA's political wing, of the Downing Street Declaration at last Sunday's conference in Donegal.

The criterion is not length but the overall number of subject-verb combinations, optionally followed by complements, objects, etc. The complexity of the second sentence is at the phrase level (cf. below) rather than at the sentence level: there is only one verb-subject combination, so it is still 'simple'. Occasionally a simple sentence does not contain a verb at all. Verbless simple sentences include examples such as:

- (3) Free at last.
- (4) Over here, mate.
- (5) How dreadful!
- (6) Everything all right?

Compound sentences consist of at least two main clauses, which may or may not be connected by a coordinating conjunction:

- (7) Jill is hungry / **and** so is Brian.
- (8) A masked man entered the shop,/ grabbed a bottle of whisky,/ stuffed it into a bag and drove off in a blue sportscar.

Complex sentences, on the other hand, consist of a main clause (or superordinate clause) and one or more subclauses:

- (9) At the Royal Bank we believe [you should have a choice of mortgages].
- (10) We also believe [you should be free [to choose [where you buy your buildings insurance]]].

Some sentences are both **compound and complex**:

- (11) There may be a few showers in eastern Scotland at first, but these will clear away [to leave a mainly bright day].
- (12) Three RUC officers, three soldiers and 38 civilians were injured [when two missiles landed in the security complex / and another fell short].

Sentence (11) is **compound complex**: it consists of two compound clauses, the second of which also contains a subclause

Sentence (12), however, is **complex compound**: in this case there is a main clause and a subclause, the latter of which contains two compound clauses.

5. Grammatical Analysis at Clause Level

The formal constituents of the sentence are CLAUSES. While main clauses can stand on their own and be used as independent sentences, subclauses function as elements of other clauses or even as elements of phrases.

5.1 Formal Types of Subclauses

5.1.1 Finite Subclauses

Finite subclauses are characterized by a subject-verb combination in which the first (and possibly only) verbal element in the VP is finite. This finite verbal element is a **conjugated form of the verb**. It agrees in person and number with the subject and also carries the feature of (present or past) tense.

- (1) While the debate continues, (the facts point in one direction.)
= adverbial clause
- (2) (I definitely saw Adrian,) who just ignored us.
= relative clause
- (3) (Estonians worried) that, as one legislator put it, the ferry's fate would brand Estonia itself as a "sinking nation".
= that-clause, containing an adverbial clause

5.1.2 Non-finite Subclauses

Non-finite subclauses function in much the same way as finite ones but the first (and often only) verbal element in the VP is non-finite (i.e. it is an infinitive, *-ing* form or past participle form). Moreover, non-finite clauses often have no subject of their own.

- (4) I want to break free.
= to-infinitive clause
- (5) All she did was smile at him.
= bare infinitive clause

(6) The arms smuggler was arrested while crossing the border.
= -ing clause

(7) Alice hurried back to the spot covered with confusion.
= -ed clause

5.1.3 Verbless Subclauses

Verbless subclauses lack the verbal element, invariably a form of the copula verb *to be*:

(8) If in doubt, call us at once.

(9) Stephen stood back, his eyes full of tears.

5.2 Formal Structure of the Clause

The formal structure of the clause is sometimes represented by means of a block diagram such as the one below (cf. also 3.1 above):

Clause					
(conj)	NP	VP	NP	PrepP	
				Prep	NP
(that)	John	has sent	flowers	to	Sarah

The immediate constituents of clauses are phrases.

A phrase is named according to its main word (except PrepP/PP):

Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Verb Phrase, Prepositional Phrase

5.3 Functional Structure of the Clause

Clauses also have a functional structure. Again a diagram will show how the various elements relate to each other (cf. also 3.2. above)

Clause					
(sub)ordinator	S (Subject)	V (Verb)	O _d (Direct Object)	O _i (Indirect Object)	
(that)	John	has sent	flowers	to	Sarah

The **functional** categories to which clause elements can belong are the following (names of **formal** categories appear in brackets):

5.3.1 *Verb/Predicator (VP)*

- (1) John has been eating my porridge.
[finite][-ed] [-ing]
has: auxiliary verb, finite form (= operator)
been: auxiliary verb, past participle
eating: lexical (i.e. main) verb, present participle

5.3.2 *Subject (NP or subclause)*

- (2) John has been eating my porridge. (NP)
(3) Analysing English sentences can be quite exciting. (non-finite subclause)
(4) It appears that a number of people have been taken ill. (finite subclause)
(it = provisional subject ...that-clause = real subject)

Formal/structural features

- It occurs with all types of verbs.
- Subject pronouns have nominative case (*he*, not *him*).
- The Subject determines the number of the VP.
- The Subject typically precedes the VP, except in constructions with inversion (e.g. questions).

NOTE

In many cases the Subject is an NP, but not always, see (3) and (4) above and (5) below, where the Subject is realized as an AvP.

- (5) Tomorrow will be the best day of the week.

Semantic/functional features

In an active clause, the Subject represents the most important participant in the event/ the process denoted by the verb. In a material process, it is mostly the 'doer':

- (6) They've elected Harry.

In a mental process, it is the one who 'senses' the mental activity:

(7) She liked the present very much.

Or, it is the phenomenon that causes the sensing:

(8) The present pleased her very much.

In a copula construction, it is the entity to whom/which a characteristic, or an identity, is assigned:

(9) Harry will be the next leader of the school.

(10) Jane is competent enough to do the job.

Special types of subject

* **empty Subject**, realized by a dummy pronoun *it*: is used to fill the Subject slot in those cases where there's no clear agent, hence 'empty' Subject.

(11) It's getting hot in here.

* **anticipatory Subject** *there*: grammatical Subject (Sgramm.)

(12) There's a spider in the bath. [a spider] = notional Subject S-not

* **provisional Subject**: (Sprov.)

(14) It's a pity [that you can't come].

It: provisional Subject

[that you can't come] = Subject

(15) [That you can't come] is a pity.

Provisional Subjects are used to respect principles of information structuring in language. One of those principles (i.e. the principle of end weight) posits that longer constituents tend to come at the end of a sentence. If the Subject is a long constituent, esp. a subclause, it tends to be postponed, i.e. placed after rather than before the Verb, as in the example above, to make the sentence easier to process from a cognitive point of view. A sentence like (15) is not grammatically wrong, but at least stylistically strange.

5.3.3 Objects

1. **Direct Object** - Od or DO (NP or subclause) (after a transitive verb)

- (16) John has been eating my porridge.
(17) What did you say?
(18) I don't know if that is the right approach.

Formal features

Object pronouns: accusative case (*him* not *he*).

The Object can be promoted to become the Subject in a passive construction.

- (19) Your teammates will support you.
> You'll be supported by your teammates.

Verbs that take a Direct Object are transitive verbs; these can be mono-transitive (e.g. to bake X), ditransitive (e.g. to give X to Y), complex transitive (to call X Y).

Semantic features

The DO generally denotes the entity that undergoes/ is affected/is created by the event denoted by the verb

- (20) He threw the ball over the fence.
(21) He painted the door green.
(22) He baked Mary a cake.

Special types

* **empty DO**, realized by a dummy pronoun *it*:

- (23) Take *it* easy.

* **provisional DO**: DO_{prov}.

- (24) We found *it* necessary to postpone the meeting.
[to postpone the meeting] = DO

2. Indirect Object - Oi or IO(NP, PrepP or subclause) (after a ditransitive verb)

- (25) She gave me the keys. / She gave the keys to me.
(26) She bought us a present. / She bought a present for us.
(27) Show this to whoever is interested.

Formal features

- It occurs in ditransitive clauses.
- Position: realised without a preposition the IO comes before the DO, with a preposition it follows the DO:

- (28) He gave me a kiss.
(29) He gave a kiss to me.

Semantic features

The IO generally denotes the participant who receives something or the participant who benefits from the action denoted by the verb

- (30) He gave me some flowers.
(31) He bought me some flowers.

3. Prepositional Object (PrepP, prepositional clause)

The PO occurs in clauses with prepositional verbs (to look for, to look after, to wait for, to take care of, to supply with, to appeal to X for Y, etc.). The preposition belongs together with the NP it precedes and forms the PO.

- (32) I was looking for my keys / after my elderly aunt.
(33) I waited for Susan to arrive.
(34) She strongly objected to me/my treating her like a child.
(35) We appealed to her for help. (two POs)

NOTE

In the case of phrasal verbs, the particle and the verb form one unit. In the example below, for instance, *off* belongs to *took* and *his hat* is not a PO, but a DO. See section 7 for more information on how to distinguish between prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs.

- (35) [He] [took off] [his hat].

4. **By-agent** (PrepP): corresponds to the subject of an active sentence

(36) Charles was robbed by a tourist.

(37) The tree was struck by lightning.

The by-agent is not really an object in the strict sense of the word as it is a structurally optional element in the clause (cf. the section on the PASSIVE). It can therefore be referred to, quite simply, as the **agent**.

5.3.4 *Complements (NP, AdjP, PrepP, subclause)*

1. **Complement of the Subject** (= C_s or subject complement)

(38) Mary is my wife.

(NP)

(39) The supermarket was ablaze / on fire.

(AdjP / PrepP)

(40) He seemed rather upset.

(AdjP)

(41) The idea was to have him removed.

(subclause)

Features

- The C_s characterizes the Subject.

- It immediately follows the VP.

- The main verb has to be a **copula verb**.

E.g. *Be, seem, appear, become, turn, remain, stay, become, etc.*

2. **Complement of the Object** (= C_o or object complement)

(42) They appointed John chairman.

(NP)

(43) We painted the door light green.

(AdjP)

(44) I considered him to be the best man for the job.

(subclause)

Features:

- The C_o characterizes the Object.

- It immediately follows the Object.

- The main verb has to be a complex transitive verb: *make, find, consider, name, appoint, etc.*

Without a DO, there cannot be a Co!

5.3.5 Adverbials (*AdvP, PrepP, NP, subclause*)

Adverbials are extremely varied in form and can occur almost anywhere in the clause/sentence. Their number also varies:

(45) She danced passionately with him whenever she could.
(AdvP) (PrepP) (subclause)

(46) Next week we'll be lying on a sandy beach in Florida.
(NP) (PrepP)

1. Functional Subcategories

– **Adjunct:** modifies a verb, a clause or the whole sentence. Adjuncts provide more information on the circumstances relating to the clause.

(47) Brian came unexpectedly.

(48) Without waiting for an answer, I slammed the door and ran down the stairs.

– **Conjunct:** logical connector between sentences
addition (*in addition, furthermore*), enumeration (*first, secondly, finally*), contrast (*on the one/other hand*), summary (*all in all, in short, on the whole*) etc.

(49) (We missed the train to Dover). As a result, we were too late for the ferry.

(50) (Pam dislikes Italian food.) She does like Italian wine, though.

– **Disjunct:** reflects the speaker's attitude to what he/she is saying, i.e. they express the speaker's feelings, evaluation, or comments on truth value of the utterance.

1) *Fact-evaluating disjuncts* are used to express the speaker's evaluation, in emotional terms, of an event or situation that is taken to be a fact, as in

(51) Fortunately, no lives were lost in the fire.

(52) Sadly, they never met again after the war.

2) *Modal disjuncts*: are used to express the speaker's views on the likelihood of the truth value of the proposition;

(53) Apparently, they never received your letter.

(54) Obviously, he must have misunderstood you.

(55) She may possibly be at home.

3) *Style disjuncts*: the speaker's comment on how the message is worded or how the utterance is to be interpreted.

(56) To put it gently, she hates your guts.

(57) Frankly, my dear, I don't give a damn.

2. Semantic Subcategories (cf. BASICS)

- place (position; direction)

(58) He bought his car in London.

- time (time-when; duration; frequency)

(59) Will you still love me tomorrow?

- degree

(60) I was raining very hard.

(61) He needed to go badly.

- manner, instrument

(62) He was murdered with a Colt 9mm.

- purpose, reason, result

(63) She just did it to annoy me.

- comparison, concession, etc.

(64) Despite the heavy rain, the road was still accessible.

- focus

restrictive: alone, exclusively, just, merely, only, solely; chiefly, especially, mainly, notably, primarily, specifically

additive: also, equally, even, likewise, similarly, too.

(65) He only wanted to talk to me.

(66) He was mainly interested in real estate.

- viewpoint

(67) Scientifically, the project was a huge success.

(68) How are you doing, moneywise?

5.3.6 Coordinators/Subordinators

1. **Coordinators** are elements like *and*, *but* and *or* which can link clauses (and also phrases and words) at various levels.
2. **Subordinators** are elements like *that*, *if*, *because*, *provided that*, etc. They can only introduce subclauses.

6. Grammatical Analysis at Phrase Level

6.1 Introduction

The formal constituents of the clause are PHRASES (cf. 2.4 above)

- PHRASES IN CLAUSES

How to identify phrases in clauses? 2 types of tests:

(1) movement tests

A phrase can be moved to another position > it behaves as a unit in grammatical structure.

(1) /The opposition/ demands /a better government.

(2) /A better government/is demanded/ by the opposition./

(2) substitution tests

Replace one expression by another, especially a single word (often a pronoun), to see how it fits in the structure. If the result is still grammatical, the phrases boundaries are correct.

Compare the examples below:

- (3) /The opposition/ demands /a better government.
- (4) /It/ demands/ something/
- (5) /I /really /like /the new GOOSE album that was released yesterday.
- (6) *I/really/like/it that was released yesterday/ (phrases boundaries are too short)
- (7) I /really/like/it.

- NOTE: PHRASES IN PHRASES

Embedding: when one phrase occurs within another phrase, it is embedded = included
 > an embedded phrase is part of the structure of another phrase.

In these cases, the next larger unit is not the clause, but the larger phrase it is part of.

E.g. (by (the opposition))
 (the girl (with (the hat)))

In ambiguous expressions differences in meaning can be shown by different phrase structures, e.g. a difference in terms of embeddings. The semantic ambiguity of the sentence below, for instance, can be explicated by showing different phrase structures

- (8) They passed the table with the two men.
 (They) (passed) (the table) (with (the two men)).
 (They) (passed) (the table (with (the two men))).

Clauses, too, can be embedded in a phrase:

- (9) (information [that had already been published])
- (10) This is (much easier [than I had expected]).

6.2 Formal Types of Phrase (or: Phrase Categories)

These formal labels are based on the nature of the Head (i.e. the most important word) in the phrase. Phrases with a noun as its Head are Noun Phrases, etc.:

NP (Noun Phrase):	Sarah's sister; these flowers; somebody else
GenP (Genitive Phrase):	Sarah's; my next door neighbour's (special type of NP)
VP (Verb Phrase):	leaves; will be leaving; having left
PrepP (Prepositional Phrase):	to Sarah's sister; without any doubt
AdjP (Adjective Phrase):	very beautiful; sincere; unnecessarily complex
AdvP (Adverb Phrase):	unusually slowly; clearly enough; probably

6.3 Functional Structure of the Phrase

6.3.1 Introduction

A functional description of the phrase lists all functions that are expressed by the different components in the phrase, i.e. their syntactic ROLE within the phrase. A distinction can be made between Determiner, Head, Premodifier and Postmodifier.

Noun phrases consist of up to four elements, while most other phrases (AdjPs, AdvPs) consist of three elements at most:

Determiner	Premodifier	HEAD	Postmodifier	= phrase
thirteen		years		= NP
that the this week's	incredibly noisy	woman	behind the counter	= NP
	old	chap	living next door	= NP
	tragic	events	who keeps pestering us	= NP
		someone		= NP
	very	charming	indeed	= AdjP
	quite	often	in a lifetime	= AdvP
	once		= AdvP	

It is thus quite common for a postmodifying PrepP or a postmodifying clause (e.g. a relative clause) to be part of another NP.

6.3.2 Noun Phrases

- Head word:

noun: (a popular assumption)

pronoun: Have (you) got (everything)?

other words used as Head words of NPs:

adjectives: ((the bold) and (the beautiful))

numerals: (George (the second))

adverbs: (the inside (of (the earth)))

verbs: (the give-and-take (of (interaction)))

prepositions: (the ins-and-outs (of (psychology)))

Apart from the Head, other syntactic functions in the NP are:

- various types of Determiners:

(11) the tie, a tie, my tie; my brother's tie, almost every tie; almost all those cards, over thirty ties, both persons

- various types of Modifiers:

Premodifiers

(12) many very angry farmers, his recently published article, its entertainment value, a young children's edition, an away match, an after-dinner cigar

Postmodifiers

(13) the only day suitable, the students involved, the painting next to the door, houses this side of the lake, the book I lent you, the person to do the job

Special type: noun complement clauses

(14) evidence that the fire was deliberately lit

(15) our assumption that she told us the truth

(16) his confidence that he would get the job

Special type: apposition

An **apposition** is a special type of Postmodifier and is often considered to be a reduced relative clause:

(17) Hugh Grant, my next-door neighbour, is cuckoo. (i.e. who is my next-door neighbour)

(18) May I introduce you to Sam Dolittle, the famous author of *The Leisurely Way of Life*?

Similarly, a GenP (i.e. a special type of NP) can be the Determiner element of another NP, or an AdjP can act as a Premodifier within an NP, cf.

(19) (My sister-in-law's) (amazingly accurate) memory /is unparalleled.

(GenP = Determiner)(AdjP = Premodifier)

6.3.3 Adjective Phrases and Adverb Phrases

Apart from the Head, other syntactic functions in the AjP are:

various types of Modifiers:

Premodifiers

Postmodifiers

including certain types of subclauses

AjPs and AvPs do not have Determiner as a syntactic function.

- Premodifiers

AjP

(20) She is (quite incredibly generous).

(21) It surely isn't (that important).

(22) The nail was (two inches long).

AvP

(23) They had sung (quite remarkably well).

(24) The bigger it is, (the sooner) it disintegrates.

(25) She can run (much faster than me).

(26) We arrived (three hours late).

- Postmodifiers

AjP

(27) The view was (beautiful beyond description).

(28) That's a (better than average) result.

(29) He's now (the fattest he's ever been).

(30) I thought you were (old enough to know better)

(31) Are you really fond of hairy spiders? (PrepP)

(32) I'm sure that Susan is a weight watcher. (that-clause)

(33) Brian looked eager to get into the Guinness Book of Records. (infinitive clause)

AvP

- (34) (Later in the day) the situation had improved.
- (35) They had behaved (badly in the extreme).
- (36) You didn't express yourself (clearly enough).
- (37) (Fortunately for me), he was still there.
- (38) There were some people who reacted (differently than you did).
- (39) She works (harder than he does).

6.3.4 Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases are to be analysed as combinations of a preposition and a noun phrase. The latter is called a **Prepositional Complement** and can be analysed as an ordinary NP again:

after	an endless dispute between management and staff				
prep.	NP = Prepositional Complement				
	an	endless	dispute	between management and staff	
	Det.	premod.	HEAD	Postmodifier = PrepP	
			between	management and staff	
			prep.	NP = Prepositional Complement	
			management	and	staff
			HEAD	&	HEAD

Note that PP may also contain modifiers:

- (40) He seemed (completely in control of the situation).
- (41) I was feeling (very much out of sorts).
- (42) It happened (ten minutes after the accident).
- (43) They had arrived (shortly after midnight).
- (45) He had blood (all over his shirt).

7. Grammar at Word Level

Phrases are made up of words, the level at which grammar and lexicology overlap. Words are listed alphabetically in dictionaries - or lexicons, hence the use of the term lexical item to refer to a word as a dictionary entry. For the purpose of grammatical analysis, words are categorized in terms of word classes.

7.1 Open-Class Items (= 'lexical' words)

7.1.1 Nouns

- | | | | | |
|---|---------------|-----------------------------|-----|-------------------------------|
| - | common nouns: | car, idea, sample | | |
| - | proper nouns: | Susan, London, Africa | | |
| - | ± concrete: | piano, water | vs. | courage, revolution |
| - | ± animate: | cat, crocodile | vs. | bridge, stone |
| - | ± human: | doctor, waitress | vs. | pig, nightingale |
| - | ± countable: | bottle/bottles, loaf/loaves | vs. | milk/*milks,
bread/*breads |

NOTE

1) ± countable => cross-linguistic differences between languages

French:

meubles 'furniture': non-countable, plural form

contenu 'contents': non-countable, singular form

une information 'an item of information': countable (singular and plural)

⇔

English

furniture: non-countable, singular form

contents: non-countable, plural form

information/*one information: non-countable (no singular/plural contrast)

2) many nouns can be used with 2 interpretations:

- | | | |
|-----|---------------------------------------|-----|
| (1) | I can't see a single grey hair. | c |
| (2) | He has brown hair. | n-c |
| (3) | She's written five papers already. | c |
| (4) | We haven't got much paper left. | n-c |
| (5) | The word has two different spellings. | c |
| (6) | They should be taught spelling. | n-c |

- | | | |
|------|----------------------------------|-----|
| (7) | Several improvements were made. | c |
| (8) | There's been little improvement. | n-c |
| (9) | All previous studies are flawed. | c |
| (10) | The question needs more study. | n-c |

7.1.2 Verbs

7.1.2.1 Lexical/main/full verbs

E.g. eat, refuse, kick

Based on properties of the verb, a distinction can be made between:

- | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|---------------|-----|---------------|
| - | event/dynamic vs. stative: | work, play | vs. | know, belong |
| - | ± transitive: | kill, buy | vs. | remain, exist |
| - | ± regular: | listen, offer | vs. | see, go |
| - | ± finite: | takes, took | vs. | taking, taken |

(see discussion on the tenses)

Reference should also be made to those verbs which consist of more than one word, i.e. the multi-word verbs. They are units of a verb and one or more other orthographic word(s) that form an idiomatic unit. Three classes:

Phrasal verbs

verb + adverbial particle

= lexical verbs which are followed by an adverbial particle, with which they form a semantic and a grammatical unit

- (11) He / looked up / the word / in a dictionary.

Other examples include:

- | | | |
|------|----------|--|
| (12) | blow up | The terrorists tried to blow up the railroad station. |
| (13) | bring up | My mother brought up that little matter of my prison record again. |
| (14) | bring up | It isn't easy to bring up children nowadays. |
| (15) | call off | They called off this afternoon's meeting |
| (16) | do over | Do this homework over. |
| (17) | fill out | Fill out this application form and mail it in. |
| (18) | fill up | She filled up the grocery cart with free food. |
| (19) | find out | My sister found out that her husband had been planning a surprise party. |

See <http://www.learn-english-today.com/phrasal-verbs/phrasal-verb-list.htm> for a list of frequent phrasal verbs.

Prepositional verbs

verb + preposition

= lexical verbs which are followed by a preposition, with which they form a semantic unit

- (20) He / commented / on my essay.
- (21) He / stared / at the girl.
- (22) She / finally /decided/ on the blue car.
- (23) I /don't believe/ in ghosts.

NOTE

A number of criteria can be used to distinguish phrasal and prepositional verbs.

1) Word order test

'particle + NP' can be reversed

- (24) She took off the label.
- (25) She took the label off.

'preposition + NP' cannot be reversed

- (26) He referred to the book.
- (27) *He referred the book to.

2) Intonation test

Phrasal verb: stress is on the particle:

- (28) He took OFF the label.

Prepositional verb: stress is on the verb:

- (29) He REFERRED to the book.

3) Test with the unstressed personal pronoun

Phrasal verb: particle cannot be followed by unstressed personal pronoun.

- (30) *She took off it.

Prepositional verb: preposition can be followed by unstressed personal pronoun.

- (31) He referred to it.

4) Coordination test

An adverbial particle cannot be repeated in coordinated phrases, a preposition can:

(32) *Did she take off the red label or off the yellow one?

(33) Did he refer to the book or to the article?

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

verb + adverbial particle + preposition

= lexical verbs which are followed by both an adverbial particle and a preposition, with which they form a semantic unit

(34) They weren't able to come up with a plan to defuse the situation.

(35) Don't look up to people that look down on you.

Other examples include:

catch up with (somebody), come up with (an idea), cut down on (smoking), do away with (old-fashioned ideas), look down on (somebody), look up to (somebody), put up with (someone's behaviour), walk out on (somebody), etc.

Another special class of lexical verbs is that of the **copulas** or **linking verbs**. There are two main types:

- Stative copulas: *appear, seem; smell, sound, look, feel, taste; lie, stand; remain, keep, stay.*

(36) It seems unreal, but it is true.

(37) Feels like heaven.

(38) It sounds awful.

(39) This coconut shower cream smells great.

(40) You look stunning!

(41) She stood perplexed

- Resulting copulas: *become, get, go, grow, turn.*

(42) What have I become, my sweetest friend? (Hurt, NIN)

(43) It turned cold, but the air remained still.

(44) She went berserk.

(45) It's getting hot in here.

7.1.2.2 Primary Auxiliaries

BE: used to form the progressive and the passive

(46) I am just sitting on the dock of the bay, watching the tides roll away.

(47) He was bitten by a scorpion and died instantaneously.

NOTE

Get can also be used as auxiliary of the passive.

(48) Freckles got caught by the Others.

HAVE: used to form the perfective

(49) The boat has just left the island.

DO:

1) negation

(50) It works.

It doesn't work.

2) interrogatives

(51) It works.

Does it work?

3) tag questions and short replies

(52) A: "It works, doesn't it?"

B: "Yes, it does."

4) emphatic affirmation

(53) A: "Why didn't you tell me?"

B: "But I DID tell you!"

7.1.2.3 Modal Auxiliaries (See E1SB)

Closed set: shall - should; will - would; may - might; can - could; must; need; ought to; used to; dare.

7.1.3 Adjectives (PEU 12 ff.)

- attributive (premodifying a noun):
a nice young lady
- predicative (complement of subject/object NP):
She's nice. / I found the room empty.
- ± gradable:
small, happy vs. dead, pregnant
- ± participial:
interesting, tired vs. bad, tasty

7.1.4 Adverbs (PEU 21 ff.)

= words that modify one or more other words, i.e.

- an adjective: very nice
- another adverb: very nicely
- a verb: to do nicely
- a quantifier/numeral: only some/two
- a preposition: just after the war
- a clause/sentence: fortunately, he agreed

NOTE

1) Some adverbs occur in questions and look very much like interrogative pronouns and interrogative determiners. However, they should be labelled as **interrogative adverbs** as they do not constitute (part of) a NP:

- How fast was the car? => interrogative adverb modifying an adjective
- When did he arrive? => interrogative adverb modifying a verb

2) **Adverb particles** in phrasal verbs make up a subclass of their own: get up, take off, close down, look ahead. It could be argued that they are closed-class items in fact, just like prepositions, with which they are often identical in form. (PEU 20)

7.2 Closed-Class Items (= 'grammatical' or 'function' words)

7.2.1 Determiners = words used in initial position in NP

Items in the class of determiners do not occur on their own and are always part of a NP.

- articles: *the* (definite), *a(n)* (indefinite), zero (indefinite)
- possessive: *my car, your car, his car, ...*
- demonstrative: *this car, these cars, that car, those cars*
- interrogative: *what car, which car, whose car?*
- relative: *the man, whose car was stolen*
- quantifiers/indefinite determiners: *some cars, any car, much money, few cars, no cars, ...*
- numerals:
 - cardinal numerals: *one, two, three, ...*
 - ordinal numerals: *first, second, third, ...*

7.2.2 Pronouns = words that can function as NPs in their own right

- personal: *I, you, he, she, ...*
I was made for loving you, baby, you were made for loving me.
- possessive: *mine, yours, his, hers, ...*
You could be mine, but you are way out of line.
- reflexive: *myself, yourself, themselves, ...*
Don't ask me, ask yourself.
- reciprocal: *each other, one another*
We should respect one another.
- demonstrative: *this, these, that, those*
Look at that!
Those were the days, my friends.
- interrogative: *who, which, what?*
And who might you be?
What do you think you are doing?
- relative: *who, which, that, what*
The man that has just left is my dad.
- quantifiers: *someone, anybody, nothing, ...*
Nobody move! Put your hands in the air and give me all your money.

7.2.3 Prepositions

= Words which are followed by a prepositional Complement (either a NP, a wh-clause, another PP or nominal form of the verb ing -form)

Cannot be followed by an infinitive or a that-clause: *on, in, by, with, through, despite, apart from, except for*, etc.

7.2.4 Particles

- To of the infinitive
- The negator not
- Adverbial particles of phrasal verbs

Back up (somebody), blow up (a building), break off (relations), bring about (a change), bring up (children), draw up (a contract), fill out (a form), find out (a secret), give up (all hope), make up (a story), turn off (the light), etc.

NOTE WITH 'TO'

'To' can be a preposition, part of a preposition, or the to-particle of a to-infinitive. This has important consequences for the form of what follows after it. Check how your dictionary indicates all these uses.

He told her secret to...	(his parents) TO= PREPOSITION
We object to ...	(the terms of the contract) TO = PREPOSITION
In addition to ...	(his health problems, he's also got financial issues to deal with): TO part of a complex preposition
I have decided to...	(go on a holiday) TO= 'TO' PARTICLE of THE INFINITIVE

7.2.5 Conjunctions

= words which have a linking function

1. coordinating conjunctions

= used to connect words or combinations of words at various levels: *and, but, or*

2. subordinating conjunctions

= only used to introduce subclauses: *although, since, as, when, provided that, ...*

7.2.6 *Interjections*

= exclamatory words which stand a little apart from the rest of the sentence or the discourse:

oh, hello, ouch, Jesus, please, ...

PART TWO THE VERB PHRASE

1. Introduction: form and structure of the VP

The main topic of this part of the grammar course is the VERB PHRASE (or VP), a term which refers to a particular **form** category. The corresponding function label referring to the verbal element of the clause is, quite simply, VERB (or V).²

The verb function is the central or pivotal one in the clause, therefore the verb phrase should be studied in great detail. Verb phrases may consist of one, two or even more verbs. One of those verbs will always be the main, lexical or full verb, the others function as primary or modal auxiliaries and one can even have a combination of different auxiliaries. In (1) below, *go*, *watch* and *go* are the only verbs in the three verb phrases and they automatically function as the main verb. In (2), *be* and *are* are the only elements in the first two verb phrases, but the third Verb Phrase consists of the modal auxiliary *will* and the full verb *end up*. The more elaborate verb phrase in (3) contains four verbs in total: the modal auxiliary *may* (aux 1), the perfect auxiliary *have* (aux 2), the progressive auxiliary *been* (aux 3) and the full verb *questioning*.

Note also that *be* in (2) is a full verb (copula) whereas in (3) it is an auxiliary. In rare cases, one can even attest no less than five verbs in the same verb phrase, as illustrated in (4) with an additional auxiliary of the passive (*being*).

- (1) There goes my hero, watch him as he goes. (Foo Fighters)
- (2) Be nice to nerds. Chances are you 'll end up as one of their employees. (Bill Gates)
- (3) The policeman may have been questioning suspects without permission.
aux1 aux2 aux3 main verb
- (4) By the end of the week, we will have been being beaten several times.

Generalizing, we may represent the internal structure of the verb phrase as follows:

Tense	(MOD)	(PERF)	(PROG)	(PASS)	lexical/main verb
--------------	-------	--------	--------	--------	-------------------

² Similar examples of almost complete overlap between form and function are:

- subordinating / coordinating conjunction (= form labels)
- Subordinator / Coordinator (= function labels)
- determiner / Determiner (= form **and** function label)

The grammatical categories in brackets are optional, i.e. none of them need be realized (as in our first example above), or just one can be selected, or any combination of two, or even all four can be selected simultaneously (as in our fourth example). The table below illustrates the various possibilities in this respect:

tense	(MOD) aux1	=	(PERF) aux2	=	(PROG) aux3	=	=(PASS) aux4	lexical or main verb
present	<i>may</i>		have		been		being	questioned
present	<i>may</i>		have		been			question-ing
present			<i>has</i>		been			question-ing
present					<i>is</i>			question-ing
present								<i>question-s</i>
past	<i>might</i>		have		been		being	questioned
past	<i>might</i>		have		been			question-ing
past			had		been			question-ing
past					<i>was</i>			question-ing
past								<i>question-ed</i>

The first auxiliary in a verb phrase is called the **operator**. The operator carries the features present/past (tense), singular/plural (number) and 1st/2nd/3rd person. If there is no operator, it is the lexical verb which carries these features. This means that only the **first** element in a verb phrase can be **finite**, all the other verbal elements being **non-finite**. The operator is in fact the verbal element which precedes the subject in corresponding yes/no questions:

- (5) Is the policeman questioning suspects?
- (6) Has the policeman been questioning suspects?
- (7) Might the policeman have been questioning suspects?

In the absence of an operator the auxiliary *do* is introduced to function as such in the same position:

- (8) Does the policeman often question suspects?

The ultimate form of the lexical verb is entirely conditioned by the *immediately* preceding auxiliary. If **aux1** (i.e. any modal auxiliary (MOD)) precedes, the main verb will be an **infinitive**, usually a bare infinitive:

- (9) The policeman may/might/will/would/can/could etc. question suspects.

The same form is used when the auxiliary *do* is present:

- (10) *Does* the policeman often question suspects?
- (11) The policeman often *DOES* question suspects.
- (12) The policeman *does* not often question suspects.

If the immediately preceding auxiliary is **aux2**, i.e. *have* (PERF), the lexical verb will be a past participle or **-ed form**:

- (13) The policeman *has* (not) often questioned suspects.

If the immediately preceding auxiliary is **aux3**, i.e. *be* (PROG), the lexical verb will be a present participle or **-ing form**:

- (14) The policeman is questioning suspects.

If the immediately preceding auxiliary is **aux4**, i.e. *be* (PASS), the lexical verb will be a past participle or **-ed form** on the subsequent main verb:

- (15) Suspects were questioned by the policeman.

NOTE 1

In order to identify the kinds of auxiliaries attested in long Verb Phrases, one needs to look at what follows the auxiliary: the form of the next verb tells you what the function of the preceding one is since each auxiliary selects a particular form:

Perfect: *have* + past participle

Continuous: *be* + ing-form

Passive: *be* + past participle

In the example below, for instance, *have* is the auxiliary of the perfect (since it is followed by the past participle of *been*), *been* is auxiliary of the progressive (since it is followed by the ing-form *being*) and *being* is the auxiliary of the passive (since it is followed by the –ed form *beaten*).

- (16) We will have been being beaten twice by the end of the week.

NOTE 2: *have*, *be* and *do* and most modals (and their negative forms) can be contracted:

Be:

I'm, He's, You're, I'm not, you're not (*aren't*), he isn't, he wasn't, you weren't

Note that *aren't* for the 1st. p. sg. is only used in the interrogative:

(17) Aren't I the popular one? (a cynical Ace Ventura after being spit in the face).

Have:

I've, he's, we've, they've, I haven't, he hasn't, etc. (present)

I'd, he'd, they'd, I hadn't, he hadn't, etc. (past)

To avoid any possible confusion between third person contracted *be* ('s) and third person contracted *have* ('s), 's *got* will be used.

(18) He's a foster child (ambiguous) vs. He's got a foster child.

Do:

Don't, doesn't, didn't

Modals:

Shall'll, will'll, shan't, can't, couldn't, wouldn't, mustn't, needn't, etc.

Note that *may not* is hardly ever contracted in PDE.

NOTE 3

Gerunds and present participles are identical form (*ing*-form), but there are important differences: gerunds behave more like abstract verbal nouns. In compound nouns, the stress is on the first part, as in (19) below. They can also occur as the head of an NP as in (20) and (21)

(19) 'running shoes = shoes for running

'building blocks, 'training day, 'walking stick, etc.

(20) These are the people responsible for the killing.

(21) Swimming is good for you.

Present participles are closer to adjectives in terms of syntactic behaviour. In (22) the stress is on the second part of the phrase and the meaning is different as well.

(22) running 'children= children that are running.

crying babies, a fascinating woman, etc.

2. Grammatical Categories of the Verb: number, person, tense, aspect, voice and mood

2.1 Introduction

Verb phrases can be categorized in different ways on the basis of a number of different variables: number, person, time, tense, aspect and mood. As such, the sentences in (23) and (24) can be categorized as follows:

(23) The difference between men and boys is the price of their toys. (Harley Davidson)

- Number: singular
- Person: third
- Tense: present
- Aspect: non-progressive, non-perfect
- Voice: active
- Mood: indicative

(24) I'm an acquired taste. Don't like me? Acquire some taste. (Unknown female)

- Number: singular
- Person: second
- Tense: present
- Aspect: non-progressive, non-perfect
- Voice: active
- Mood: imperative

Number can be singular or plural, person can be first, second or third, depending on the subject of the clause the VP is used in. In the next paragraphs, the other categories will be elaborated on in greater detail

2.2 Tense and Time

Time is an almost universal concept, a human invention which helps to structure the world and the events surrounding us as either belonging to the past, the present or the future. It is a purely semantic notion which situates events (E) in a certain chronological order with the moment of speaking (S= speech time) as a reference point:

Present time: S=E

Past time: E<S

Future time: S<E

Tense is a purely formal or grammatical category: it is a feature which is visibly present in **all** finite verb phrases. It is a linguistic device; a grammatical, morpho-syntactic category of the verb used to indicate these time relationships and to locate the situation at some point or period in time:

- (25) He works as an auditor with PWC. (located in the present as ongoing)
- (26) He worked as an auditor with PWC. (located in the past)
- (27) He will work as an auditor with PWC. (located in the future)

Unlike other languages, the English language only has two tenses: present tense (marked for instance by means of a third person singular –s) and past tense (e.g. the –ed form of the simple past). It does not have a future tense (i.e. a particular form/conjugation of the verb that refers to the future, as opposed to Spanish and French, for instance), though it has various forms to refer to future time (will + infinitive; going to + infinitive; etc.).

Apart from tense, speech time (S) and reference point (R) are also crucial to situate the event (E) in time. In (28) below, one needs both (S) and (R) in order to situate the event described by the VP:

- (28) *By the end of the week I will have finished.*
S<E<R

Note also that there is no one-to-one relationship between tense and time: the present tense may refer to present, future and past, as shown below:

- (29) Today is Monday 24th. (present)
- (30) The film starts at 20.45. (future)
- (31) Newspaper headline: Pit bull kills three-year old. (past)

Similarly, the past tense does not necessarily express past time. In (32) and (33), reference is made to future and present time respectively.

- (32) Would you fill in this form as soon as possible, please? (future)
- (33) I wanted to ask you a question. (present)

2.3 Aspect

Aspect indicates how the verbal action is experienced or regarded: it is both a **semantic** and a **grammatical** category.

2.3.1 Semantic Aspect (or inherent aspect)

Semantic aspect refers to the nature of Aktionsart expressed by the verb. The most important distinction to be made here is that between stative and dynamic events described by the verb.

2.3.1.1 Stative VPs

Stative VPs refer to states, i.e. situations that do not involve change. Each stage of a state (of: stative situation) is identical to the preceding stage. Nothing “happens”, they are just homogeneous states of being. In sentences (34) and (35), for instance, no actual change or progress can be attested. The situation that is described is not subject to change(s).

(34) Jules resembles Matthew McConaughey.

(35) Apart from fast, Usain Bolt is also very tall.

(36) Otto-Jan Han knows a lot.

Stative verbs can be subdivided into verbs of being, verbs of having, verbs of involuntary perception, verbs of emotion and verbs of cognition, examples of which are provided below.

Verbs of being

e.g. *appear, be, look, remain, seem, sound, taste, cost, resemble* (i.e. be like), *weigh*, etc.

(37) A: "This looks terribly expensive!"

B: "You're re right; it costs about € 200."

(38) Six times twenty equals one hundred and twenty.

(39) GCSE stands for 'General Certificate of Secondary Education'.

Verbs of having (ownership)

e.g. *have, belong to, comprise, consist of, contain, hold, owe, own, possess*

(40) He now owns nearly half of the town.

- (41) The committee comprises women of widely different views, who all get on very well together.
- (42) We require Parliamentary approval.

Verbs of involuntary perception

see, hear, feel, taste, smell

- (43) Do you see anything odd?
- (44) That smells nice!

Verbs of emotion

appreciate, despise, hate, like, love, please, resent, wish, etc.

- (45) It pleases me to hear that your father is much better.
- (46) I appreciate your help.
- (47) He resents her inquisitiveness.

Verbs of cognition

assume, believe, forget, imagine, intend, know, mean, recognize, remember, suppose, think, understand, etc.

- (48) He now understands the situation.
- (49) I suppose you don't want to come with us?
- (50) Oh yes, I remember the fun we had in September.

2.3.1.2 Dynamic VPs

Dynamic VPs refer to dynamic situations. Dynamic situations involve change: each successive stage of the event is different from the preceding stage. In (37), for instance, different sorts of action are taking place which lead to change and progression (e.g. distances being crossed, pages being turned, the creation of a piece of art).

- (51) After I had read another chapter in my Franzen novel, I ran for about five miles in the park past a man who was painting the autumn trees.

Dynamic VPs can be further subdivided into **atelic** (no inherent end-point) and **telic** situations.

Atelic situations (including activities and processes) include intransitive uses of *run*, *walk*, *swim*, *paint*, etc., but also *drive a car*, *push a cart*, *ride a bike* (which are transitive, but still atelic), as illustrated in the examples below.

(52) He is swimming while she is painting.

(53) Each day he would drive his car, just because he liked it and with no specific goal in mind.

Telic accomplishments have a built-in end point and extend over a period of time. They include transitive uses of paint a picture, write a poem, swim 3kms, etc.:

(54) He painted a picture of his wife in less than four days

(55) He ran the 100 meters in a staggering 9.58.

Telic achievements are momentary and have no duration. They include verbs VPs like recognise NP, spot NP, find NP, lose NP, reach NP, etc.

(56) I didn't recognise you at first.

(57) Never allow anything you cannot walk out on in thirty seconds flat if you spot the heat around the corner. (Robert de Niro in Heat)

2.3.2 Grammatical Aspect (point of view aspect)

Grammatical aspect concerns the temporal structure of the event and how it is portrayed in the extralinguistic world. The most important distinctions include continuous/progressive vs. non-continuous/progressive and perfect vs. non-perfect uses. The **progressive** aspect basically refers to activity 'in progress'; it implies limited duration and incompleteness. **Non-progressive** aspect is used for states (whether permanent or not) or permanent habits. It can also be used to refer to dynamic situations that are not permanent: these are 'events' that are seen as complete." Notice the contrast in the examples below:

(58) Where's John? He's working late. (action in progress, limited duration)

(59) John always works late. (permanent habit, almost a state)

(60) When I arrived, he was shaving his armpits. Weird moment. (complete event versus activity in progress)

(61) President John F. Kennedy was shot in Dallas, Texas November 22, 1963. (specific moment)

Perfect aspect indicates that an action/state took place at some non-specified point in time before the speaker's point of reference. (The speaker's point of reference may be speech time (with the present perfect), or some other point on the time-scale (e.g. in the past, with the past perfect). In some cases, the situation may continue up to and even beyond that point of reference: this is the so-called continuative perfect.

(62) The taxi has arrived. (here it is, ready for you to hop in)

(63) I have lived here since 2007. (and I still live here)

(64) A cure hasn't been found yet. (so more people may die)

2.3.3 *Interaction between Semantic and Grammatical Aspect*

In some cases, the semantic features of the verb (and its semantic aspect) are incompatible with the notions expressed by grammatical aspect. Progressive grammatical aspect, for instance, implies that the event has dynamism and that is of limited duration, which makes it hard to combine with momentary achievements, as shown in (65) or with permanent states, expressed by stative verbs, as in (66) to (68).

(65) Yesterday I *was finding/found an old photograph of my grandmother when she was young.

(66) That woman over there *is being/is my sister.

(67) The combination of drugs and alcohol *is equalling/equals trouble.

(68) I *am knowing/know what you did last summer.

NOTES

With an iterative (i.e. repetitive meaning) achievements can occur in combination with a progressive. In this case, the successive nature of the events is compatible with limited duration.

(67) Going through these shoe boxes turns out to be a trip down memory lane. Everywhere I look, I am finding old pictures of my grandmother!

In some cases, stative verbs do occur in the progressive:

1) with verbs of emotion to express a temporary state one finds oneself in, mostly of limited duration. The progressive clearly implies the limited duration of the state (and would not be used if that implication is inappropriate, as in 'I love you').

(68) Thanks for the surprise party! I'm loving every second of it.

2) with verbs of cognition to indicate a gradual process. (69) is ungrammatical since a name is not something you gradually forget (either you know someone's name or you don't). (70) is grammatical since there are many aspects of a language one can gradually forget (its vocabulary, syntactic rules, etc.)

(69) *I'm forgetting your name.

(70) I 'm gradually forgetting all the French I learnt in secondary school.

3) Some stative verbs that get a dynamic interpretation in progressive uses also display a change in meaning:

to see: from perception to appointment: in the sense of 'have an appointment with', 'visit', 'to be dating: recurrent appointments'

(71) He has been seeing his psychiatrist on a regular basis, but he's still depressed.

(72) The Johnsons are seeing Ghent today.

(73) Are you seeing anyone at the moment?

In some combinations with an adverbial particle, progressive uses are possible too:

(74) He 's seeing his parents off at the airport as we speak.

to be: from state to behaviour

(75) He is a funny fellow. (state)

(76) He's just being funny. (behaviour)

(77) He is the host of the show. (state)

(78) Reginald is being the perfect host. (behaviour)

to have: from possession to consumption/action, i.e. in the sense of 'experience', 'consume', or in the construction 'have + verbal noun' (e.g. a swim, a smoke):

(79) They have a dog and three cats (stative)

vs. The dog is having the cat for dinner. (dynamic)

- (80) The children are having a lot of fun.
 (81) He's clearly having a good time!
 (82) Come at 12.30 then, while I'm having a sandwich.
 (83) The girls are having a drink.

to feel, to taste, to smell : from involuntary to voluntary perception:

- (84) The dog was smelling a lamppost. ('sniff at')
 (85) She was feeling the materials to compare their softness. ('touch')
 (86) I'm just tasting to see if there's enough sugar in it. ('test the taste')

to think, used with of and about:

- (87) Are you thinking of enrolling for this course?
 (88) What are you thinking about?

2.4 Voice

There are basically two 'voices', viz. active and passive. Compare:

- (89) Horatio Caine / arrested / the killer.
 S V DO
 The killer / was arrested /by Horatio Caine.
 S V by-Agent

The DO of the active clause becomes the S of the passive one, the S of the active clause becomes the by-Agent in the passive one, realized as a by-phrase.

Formation: auxiliary *be* + *past participle*. *Get* can also be used, as in (90)

- (90) I got stung by a sweet honey bee, I never thought it would happen to me. (Elvis Presley, *I got stung*)

Combinations of voice, aspect and tense lead to the following 8 passive combinations

Tense	Aspect			
	-perf. -progr.	-perf. +progr.	+perf. -progr.	+perf. +progr.
present	I am beaten	I am being beaten	I have been beaten	I have been being beaten
past	I was beaten	I was being beaten	I had been beaten	I had been being beaten

2.5 Mood

2.5.1 Verb Mood

If we just look at the form of the verb, (not at other clause features), we can only distinguish 3 moods: **indicative**, **imperative** and **subjunctive**.³ Each of them has specific features (e.g. third person –s for the indicative, stem of the verb for the imperatives (or *be* and *have*), absence of third person –s for the subjunctive).

1) Indicative

(91) He lives in Queens.

2) Imperative

(92) Live the dream!

3) Subjunctive

(93) Long live the King!

The indicative is used for statements and questions, with different forms and tense distinctions.

(94) I/he/they live/lives/live/lived in Queens.

The imperative takes the stem form of the verb. The imperatives of the verbs *be* and *have* are *be* and *have* respectively. Tense distinctions do not exist:

³ Sometimes infinitive is distinguished as a separate mood as well.

- (95) All rise!
- (96) Be quiet!
- (97) Have another biscuit.

The imperative mood is used to express wishes, hopes and desires, ranging over a wide variety of meanings in different contexts:

- (98) Present arms! (Command)
- (99) Do not enter. (Prohibition)
- (100) Do not read beauty magazines, they will only make you feel ugly. (Advice)
- (101) Move closer, move your body real close. (Request)
- (102) Enjoy your meal. (Good wish)
- (103) Get a life! (Imprecation)
- (104) Say that again and I'll kill you. (Condition)

The **subjunctive** has present and past forms. Present subjunctive is characterized by the absence of -s in the 3rd p. sg.:

- (105) I suggest that he leave.
- (106) I beg that he return the money.

The present subjunctive of the verb *be* is *be*, the past subjunctive is *were*.

- (107) I insist you be more careful.
- (108) If I were a rich man, I'd buy a B&B in France or Italy, or both.

In simple sentences it is restricted in contemporary English to a few idiomatic expressions:

- (109) Long live the Queen!
- (110) (God) bless you!
- (111) Love, thy will be done.
- (112) Heaven forbid!
- (113) Be that as it may, I still won't do it.
- (114) So be it.

The past subjunctive does not occur in simple sentences.

(115) *Long lived the Queen!

Apart from formulaic expressions, a distinction can be made between **mandative** subjunctives and **volitional** subjunctives. The first category is used to issue directives, as in (115) and (116). It often occurs with verbs like *demand*, *request*, *insist*, *beg*, *ask*, *suggest*, etc.

(115) I demand that you be quiet!

(116) She requested that he be released from prison.

Volitional subjunctive are used to express wishes

(117) I wish you were here.

2.5.2 Sentence Mood

So far, reference has been made to verb mood only. However, if features of the entire sentence are taken into account (e.g. word order, syntactic properties and semantic meaning), five 'sentence' moods (so not 'verb' moods) can be distinguished: the **declarative**, the **interrogative**, the **subjunctive**, the **imperative** and the **exclamative**. Declaratives are mainly (though not always) used for informative statements (118), interrogative sentences are used to ask questions (119) (but again not always) – uses of subjunctive and imperative were mentioned above – and exclamative mood is used to express exclamations (120).

(118) Hippo milk is pink.

(119) Is that a gun in your pocket?

(120) What a shame you couldn't make it!

3. Present Tenses

'Present tenses' is an umbrella term for the simple present, the present progressive, the present perfect and the present perfect progressive. They can all be related to the **present moment of speaking** in some way or other.

3.1 Simple Present (present, present simple)

3.1.1 Form

The form of the Simple Present only changes after third person singular when –s is added to the base form (e.g. *I only read poetry => He only reads poetry*). In some cases –es is added:

- verbs ending in – o

to go	goes
to do	does
to echo	echoes

- **verbs ending in -ch, -s, -sh, -x or -z** (i.e. verbs ending in a sibilant sound (alveolar or palato-alveolar fricatives and affricates), except when the last letter is a silent <e>: /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/

to pass	passes
to push	pushes
to watch	watches
to fix	fixes
to buzz	buzzes

- verbs ending in –y

When a verb ends in -y immediately preceded by a consonant, the -y is changed to -ie before the ending s is added.

study	studies
fly	flies
carry	carries

However, when a verb ends in -y immediately preceded by a vowel, the -y is not changed before the ending s is added.

say	says
enjoy	enjoys
buy	buys

- Positive form: - I like it.
Negative form: - I **do not** like it. / I don't like it.
Interrogative form: - **Do** you like it?
Negative-interrogative form: - **Don't** you like it?

A note on pronunciation:

3rd person singular:	/s/	keeps <u>s</u> , walks <u>s</u> , coughs <u>s</u> , stuffs <u>s</u> , stops <u>s</u>	(after voiceless consonants)
Bare inf + -s	/z/	drives <u>s</u> , calls <u>s</u> , swims <u>s</u> , breathes <u>s</u> , breeds <u>s</u>	(after voiced consonants)
	/z/	sees <u>s</u> , boos <u>s</u> , plays <u>s</u> , enjoys <u>s</u>	(after vowel sounds)
Bare inf + - (e)s:	/ɪz/	kisses <u>s</u> , loses <u>s</u> , watches <u>s</u> , judges <u>s</u>	(after sibilants)

3.1.2 Use

The SIMPLE PRESENT is normally used to refer to:

1. Present STATES

The Simple Present is typically used when referring to **permanent** (or relatively permanent) states. Many of the relational verbs occurring in such sentences have no progressive form:

- (1) You still owe me £ 50.
- (2) This box contains 20 chocolates.
- cf. There are 20 chocolates in this box.
- (3) My heart belongs to Daddy.
- (4) Article n° 15 refers/relates to accidents caused by fire.
- (5) It says on p.8 that Greater London consists of 32 boroughs.
- (6) What does he do for a living? He fixes computers.

Another type of present state is involved in the expression of **general likes and dislikes** and **mental states**:

(7) I prefer skiing to mountaineering.

cf. Skiing is my favourite pastime.

(8) I love her very much.

cf. I'm in love with her.

2. HABITUAL actions/events in the present

The Simple Present can also be used to express a habit. A habit, it should be recalled, is a state consisting of a series of repeated events, as is often signalled by the presence of an adverbial of frequency such as *always, regularly, normally, usually, once a week*, etc.

(9) They visit us *every week*.

cf. They are regular visitors.

(10) I *often* go to church on Sundays.

cf. I am a churchgoer.

(12) He *usually* orders a Martini. Shaken, not stirred.

(13) He *always* flies business class.

3. ETERNAL/GENERAL TRUTHS

These include generic statements, such as dictionary definitions, descriptions of animals, plants, etc. given in encyclopaedias, proverbs, etc.

(14) Water boils at 100° C.

(15) The sun rises in the east.

(16) Lions hunt by night.

cf. Lions are nocturnal in their habits.

(18) The early bird catches the worm.

(19) Dogs have owners, cats have staff.

4. Present, INSTANTANEOUS (and successive) one-moment actions

a) e.g. in radio and television commentaries, instructions and demonstrations and stage directions

Events occurring in the present as instantaneous, successive one-moment actions tend in a chronologically ordered sequence, usually take a Simple Present.

(20) Keegan passes the ball to Lyons. Lyons heads it straight into the goal. Goalkeeper Morrison makes a desperate dash, but ... it's too late: GOAL!

This use is typical of sports reporting and in fact of reporting on the spot in general. **Momentary verbs** are very common in such contexts: e.g. *stop, hit, kick, pass, head*, etc.

A similar use is that of a speaker demonstrating what he or she is doing, e.g. when showing how a particular dish is to be prepared (= recipes):

(21) I take one pint of milk, pour it into a bowl and then add three or four spoonfuls of sugar.

b) in performative declarations

A different type of use in the present is described in performatives such as

(22) I (hereby) declare this meeting open.

(23) I name this ship Little Mermaid.

(24) We find the defendant guilty of premeditated murder and therefore sentence him to death.

(25) I promise I'll never do it again.

The verbs in (22)-(25) refer to the speech act performed by the speaker-subject of the sentence (cf. the 1st person singular form), hence also the term **performative verb**: by uttering the sentence, the speech act is actually performed (i.e. you can't do it without saying it).

c) expressions such as *here comes...*etc.

(26) Off you go!

(27) There you are!

(28) Here comes the sun. (George Harrison)

(29) Here's Johnny! (The Shining)

In addition to the uses which refer to present states, successive present acts or general habits and truths that invariably apply to the present, other uses of the Simple Present can be distinguished which do not refer to the present time:

5. PAST EVENTS in a DRAMATIC NARRATIVE STYLE

Sometimes the Simple Present is used to refer to past events in the so-called 'historic' or 'narrative present'. This (literary) device is used when giving a vivid account of events that happened in the past

(30) Queen Elizabeth decides to take her usual dose of sleeping pills, when suddenly a masked man enters her bedroom.

A related use is to be found in newspaper headlines referring to occurrences in the (recent) definite past or in jokes:

(31) Fire destroys Pentagon.

(32) Pope condemns the pill.

(33) Prince Harry plays naked billiards in Vegas.

(34) A horse walks into a bar and the bartender says: "Hey, why the long face?"

NOTE

The Simple Present tense is also frequently used with verbs of communication to refer to the (recent) past:

(35) Douglas tells me you're leaving?

(36) I hear Mary is getting married?

6. Planned/scheduled FUTURE EVENTS

The Simple Present can also be used to future actions or events when they are presented as having the same degree of certainty as present actions or events (i.e. as part of an unalterable or scheduled future):

(37) We leave Brussels at 6, arrive in Paris at 9 and meet our business partners at the Novotel at 10.

(38) Tomorrow is a holiday.

(39) The film starts at nine.

The same applies to Simple Present forms of *be* + to-inf which is used in particular to talk about plans and arrangements and things that must inexorably happen as a matter of fate.

(40) On his doctor's advice, he is to see a specialist next week.

(41) Leave me be. I must rest. Tomorrow, I am to meet my fate in the arena.

The Simple Present form *Be* + *about to* can be used to refer to (near) future. See also the expression of Future Time.

(42) You'd better hurry. The train is about to leave.

7. FUTURE EVENTS in TIME CLAUSES and in CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

(HYPOTHETICAL WORLD) (see also chapter 5)

(43) I'll tell them *when* they ask me.

(44) I'll tell them *if* they ask me.

Note that in these subclauses the form *will* is not allowed!!

3.2 Present Progressive (present continuous)

3.2.1 Form

(PRESENT) be + BASE + -ing

Positive form: - She's looking for help.

Negative form: - She isn't looking for help.

- She's not looking for help.

- Se is not looking for help.

Interrogative form: - Is she looking for help?

Negative-interrogative form: - Isn't she looking for help?

- Is she not looking for help?

SPELLING: cf. PEU 562

3.2.2 Use

The present progressive presents the event as **being in progress at the moment of speaking** – and often sets a **temporal frame** for other events in the present - and thus suggests **(limited) duration**, i.e. **temporariness**, and/or **incompleteness**. Depending on the context, different aspects of these uses may be highlighted and other shades of meaning may come into play.

1. Activity IN PROGRESS / action of LIMITED DURATION

Compare:

- (45) a. She is reading Byron's collected poetry (action in progress)
b. ⇔ She only reads poetry (permanent state)
- (46) a. He's fixing the computer. (action in progress, limited duration)
Hij is de computer aan het herstellen.
b. ⇔ He fixes computers for a living. (permanent state)
Hij herstelt computers als broodwinning.
- (47) a. I can see him now; he is walking up the road towards us. (action in progress)
b. ⇔ He always walks to work.
- (48) Mr Cheng is speaking Chinese *at the moment*, but he speaks English as well. (action in progress vs. state)

The activity being referred to as 'going on' at the moment of speaking may be one which is regularly interrupted:

- (48) I'm learning how to drive. He is cycling around Britain.
(49) She's taking salsa courses.

With one-moment actions the progressive indicates ongoing repetition:

- (50) The phone is ringing.
(51) Someone's knocking.
(52) The clock is ticking.

2. TEMPORARY habits/states/actions

The present progressive may express **temporary habits/states/actions**, as opposed to a more permanent ones, which are typically expressed by the Simple Present

Compare:

- (53) a. She smokes/drinks a lot. (Permanent habit)
b. She is smoking/drinking a lot these days. (Temporary habit)
- (54) a. She is staying with a friend till she finds a place of her own.
b. She never stays more than five minutes and then she's off.
- (55) a. I'm feeding the neighbour's cat this week while she's in hospital.
b. Tigers are most active at night and feed on larger mammals such as deer, antelope and wild pigs.
c. He is cycling to work while his car is being repaired.
d. He cycles to work.

3. ITERATION / REPETITION

With events of very short duration (i.e. telic achievements such as *find, spot, recognize*, etc.), the progressive is not normally possible. When it is, it suggests iteration:

- (56) a. *Gina is finding a quarter.
b. Gina is finding quarters wherever she looks.

Combined with such adverbs as *always, continually, forever*, etc. the present progressive may express **irritation, annoyance**, etc. on the part of the speaker. The emphasis is on the repeated 'action in progress', which is felt by the speaker to be irritating.

- (57) They are constantly kissing in public. It's disgusting.
(58) You are always calling me Janet instead of Jane. It's really getting on my nerves.
Oh, I'm terribly sorry, Janet. I won't do it again.

4. An INCREASING or DECREASING activity (i.e. an ongoing trend, tendency, etc.):

The present progressive may denote an increasing or decreasing activity:

- (59) More and more rich people are buying real estate in Dubai.

- (60) Belgian winters are getting colder because of climate change.
- (61) The situation is going from bad to worse and Belfius is not getting any healthier.

Usually this use combines with a comparative form in the same sentence (as in the above examples), though not necessarily, as is clear from the first part of the following example.

- (62) The word *movie* is gradually becoming common in Britain, following American practice. Interestingly, the word *film* is being used more frequently in American English, too, following British practice.

5. FUTURE time reference: be + ing-form

As is the case for the Simple Present, the Present Progressive can also be used to refer to the future. It presents the future activity as following from present arrangements.

- (63) They're giving a concert in Rome next week. Tickets are still available.
- (64) Want another drink? No, I 'm driving.

Be going + to inf also has future time reference. Unlike the progressive in the examples above, it does not refer to an arrangement, but expresses premeditated intention

- (65) What are your plans for this evening? I'm going to have dinner with friends but we haven't decided where we'd go. Do you know a good place around here?

See also section on the 'expression of future time' (E1SB).

NOTES

1) Remember that the progressive can also be used in combination with stative verbs with a change in meaning:

- (66) a. They have three dogs.
b. We are having steak for dinner.
- (67) a. She has three children.
b. She's having a baby.
- (68) a. Flim, flam, flum, I smell the fingerprints of scum. (Ace Ventura)
b. The dogs were smelling our luggage in search of drugs.

- (69) a. Deborah is British / tall / alive / pregnant/very rude.
 b. Deborah is being very naughty/rude.
 (= is behaving naughtily/rudely)

2) In some cases, the use of the progressive expresses greater involvement of the speaker (in combination with future time reference). (70) suggests more personal involvement, while (71) stresses the idea of 'immutability' (i.e. no change is possible).

(70) Hurry up, the train is leaving in five minutes.

(71) The train leaves at 6.15.

3.3 Present Perfect

3.3.1 Form

(PRESENT) have + BASE + -(e)d
 + irregular past participle

Positive form:	I've been there.	/aɪv/
	You've been there.	/ju:v/
	She/John's been there.	/ʃi:z/ /dʒɒnz/ /z/
	Nick's been there.	/nɪks/ /s/
Negative form:	Bruce's been there.	/'bru:sɪz//ə/ /ɪz/
	I haven't been there.	/'hævnt/
Interrogative form:	She hasn't been there.	/'hæznt/
	Have you been there?	/'hævjʊ:/ /'hævja/
Negative-interrogative form:	Has she been there?	/'hæʃ i:/
	Haven't you been there?	/'hævnt/

NOTE

Dutch has both *zijn* and *hebben* as operators in the Present Perfect (VTT), whereas English has HAVE **at all times**, e.g.

- (72) a. Hij heeft mij niet gezien.
 b. He hasn't seen me.

- (73) a. Hij is veel verdikt.
 b. He has put on quite a lot of weight.
- (74) a. Er is veel veranderd sinds zijn komst.
 b. A lot has changed since he arrived here.
- (75) a. Ik ben hier vroeger al geweest.
 b. I have been here before.

2.3.2 Use

The perfect aspect indicates that an **action/state takes place at some unspecified time before speech time** (or another point of reference, according to the tense). The action/state may also continue up to and possibly overlap with speech time (or the other point of reference). It indicates that a past event still has current relevance, which may take several forms:

1. The emphasis is on the PRESENT RESULT of a past action

The Present Perfect is used to stress the PRESENT result of a PAST event, as in

- (76) Oh no, I've lost the keys to my brother's new car. (He will not be amused)
- (77) I've woken up with a hickey after my bachelorette party (My husband-to-be will not be amused).
- (78) They have finally caught the terrorists. (No more killing)
- (79) The new Beaujolais has arrived. (Bring on the cheese!)
- (80) The Prime Minister has arrived.
 => He is here now.
 De eerste minister is aangekomen.
- (81) The next of kin have all been informed.
 => They all know now.
 Alle nabestaanden zijn op de hoogte (gebracht).

2. The activity or state is finished but the PERIOD OF TIME in which it took place is UNFINISHED

- (82) Have you seen the milkman today?
- (83) I haven't done anything yet this morning. (i.e. it is still morning)

Typical adverbials often reinforce the fact the period of time is not over yet or that there is no specific time in the past the event can be linked to (i.e. reference is made to an indefinite past): *never, ever, before (now), already, (not) yet, often, seldom, so far, already, still, in the (recent) past, never, recently, lately, etc.*

(84) Have you read Pride and Prejudice *yef*?

cf. Heb jij Pride and Prejudice (nu) al gelezen?

(85) He claims to have had 36 girlfriends so far.

This use (i.e. period of time is unfinished) is also the case when there is no definite past time reference, but when the meaning 'so far', 'up to now', etc. is implied:

(86) Have you (ever) been to America?

Ben je (ooit) al naar Amerika geweest?

(87) I have been to Paris twice.

(88) He has directed 17 films.

NOTES

1) In AmE the past simple can also be attested with these adverbs:

(89) We *already* saw the movie, but they didn't see it *yet*.

2) This use of the Present Perfect is not possible with someone who is no longer alive. Hence, a simple past must be used:

(90) My father's great-grandmother *?has been/went* to Rome twice.

3. The ACTIVITY OR STATE IS UNFINISHED at the moment of speaking

This use is especially frequent with Adverbials of duration in the form of *for* (period of time) and *since* (point in time) phrases. It is also found with such Adverbials as *all my/your life*, etc. when the Subject of the sentence is still alive at the moment of speaking:

(91) We have been friends *for 10 ten years now*, and still he hasn't called me *since* his birthday in March.

We zijn nu al tien jaar bevriend en nog steeds heeft hij me niet gebeld sinds zijn verjaardag in maart.

- (92) Wales has been united with England for seven hundred years.
- (93) The manor has stood on this spot for over two hundred years. [It is still there.]
- (94) I've known Hyacinth for twenty years
 since 1975.
 since she met (!) Richard.
- (95) I've been cheated by you since I don't know when, so I've made up my mind, this must come to an end. (Abba)
- (96) I've known her all my life. (Ik ken haar al mijn hele leven)
- (97) He has lived in this slum area all his life.

IMPORTANT NOTES

In (94) it should be observed that the tense in the subclause introduced by *since* should be a Simple Past, as it refers to a specific moment in the past. In Dutch, a Present Perfect may be used in the subclause, but not in English:

- (98) I haven't met Brian since we both graduated (in 2010).
 cf. Ik heb Brian niet meer gezien sinds we allebei zijn afgestudeerd (in 2010).

If the *since* clause, too, refers to a period lasting up to the present moment, however, both clauses require a Present Perfect. Note also the use of the Simple Present in Dutch instead of the Present Perfect.

- (99) I haven't met Brian since I've lived here.
 cf. Ik heb Brian niet meer gezien sinds ik hier woon.

Another expression requiring the use of the Present Perfect is *it/this is the first/second/umpteenth time*, in contrast with Dutch, which prefers a present form, cf.

- (100) Is this the first time you've come to Belgium?
 cf. Is dit de eerste keer dat u naar België komt?
- (101) It is the second time I've heard her sing.
 cf. Het is de tweede keer dat ik haar hoor zingen.

Make sure you use the right tense in the right language!

4. Very recent past

With adverbs like *just*, *recently*, *lately* the Present Perfect indicates that the action happened in the very recent past (and still has current relevance):

(102) They've just left!

(103) What have you done for me lately?

(104) We've just received your message.

We hebben net je bericht ontvangen.

NOTES

1) In American English one can also attest the Simple Past in such uses.

2) The notion of recent (and relevant) past may also trigger uses of the Present Perfect in news broadcasts and reports:

(105) Neil Armstrong (the first man on the moon) has died. [then they will usually shift to past tenses, e.g. He was born in ...]

3.4 Present Perfect Progressive

3.4.1 Form

(PRESENT) have + been + BASE + -ing

Positive form:	- I've been watching you.	/aɪvbɪn/
	- She's been watching me.	/'ʃi:zbɪn/
Negative form:	- I haven't been watching you.	/'hævntbɪn/
	- She hasn't been watching me.	/'hæszntbɪn/
Interrogative form:	- Has she been watching you?	/'hæzʃi:bɪn/
Negative-interrogative form:	- Hasn't she been watching you?	

3.4.2 Use

The Present Perfect Progressive is a combination of two aspects. It is used for relating events occurring in the PAST but whose **(limited) duration** or **incompleteness** is stressed, in order to set up a frame leading up to the PRESENT moment. As was the case for the Present Perfect simple, there is still **current relevance**, but in this case it is not only the result that is important but also the **ongoingness of the situation** itself. The difference between the Present Perfect simple and the Present Perfect Progressive is most clearly seen in contrastive pairs like:

(106) Someone has been eating my apple.

[+ PROG] => ACTIVITY

cf. Iemand heeft in mijn appel gebeten.

(107) Someone has eaten my apple.

[- PROG] => RESULT

cf. Iemand heeft mijn appel opgegeten.

Sentence (106) sets up a **temporal frame** in which the apple-eating NOW appears to have been an **incomplete** ACTIVITY or an ACTIVITY of **limited duration**, depending on the discourse. Sentence (107), on the other hand, refers to a **completed** event and thus states that the apple has NOW disappeared (= present RESULT). Depending on the context, the use of the Present Perfect Progressive may highlight several aspects of this meaning (i.e. duration, incompleteness or current effect):

1. (LIMITED) DURATION of PAST goings-on linked with the PRESENT

The Present Perfect Progressive is used when stating what the subject has been doing **for some time** - more or less uninterruptedly - until the moment of speaking, cf.

(108) I'm exhausted, I've been writing letters all evening.

cf. Ik heb de hele avond brieven zitten te schrijven.

cf. Ik zit hier nu al de hele avond brieven te schrijven.

There is a clear contrast with the Present Perfect simple, which stresses the idea of **result**:

(109) I have written an angry letter to the editor.

cf. Ik heb een boze lezersbrief geschreven.

The Present Perfect Progressive is very common in colloquial English with such verbs as *sit*, *lie*, *wait* and *stay*, cf.

(110) I've been sitting here *all afternoon*.

cf. Ik zit hier (*nu*) *al de hele middag*.

Sentence (110) includes the TIME marking adverbial *all afternoon*, which expresses **duration**. In certain cases, the use of the Present Perfect Progressive also underscores that the duration of the described events is felt to be (too) long:

(111) a. I've waited here since three o'clock.

b. I've been waiting here since three o'clock.

(112) I have been driving all night, my hand's wet on the wheel. There's a voice in my head that drives my heel. (The Golden Earring)

(113) I have been waiting for a girl like you to come into my life. (Foreigner)

(114) It's been raining since you left me, now I'm drowning in the flood, You see I've always been a fighter, but without you I give up. (John Bon Jovi)

2. PRESENT INCOMPLETENESS of PAST activities

The idea of **incompleteness** is conveyed by the Present Perfect Progressive in

(115) I've been reading your book. (=> I have not finished it yet)

cf. Ik heb (in) je boek zitten (te) lezen.

Again, a contrast should be made with the Present Perfect simple, which suggests completeness:

(116) I've read your book. (=> finished)

cf. Ik heb je boek (uit)gelezen.

(117) I've been learning (some) Russian since we last met
(and I've made some progress).

(118) I've learned all the irregular verbs since we last met
(and now I know them (all)).

In other words, the activity may be at a (temporary) standstill.

3. Additional EFFECTS in the PRESENT resulting from PAST goings-on

The additional effects may or may not be mentioned explicitly in the subsequent clause/sentence, cf.

(119) Wilma has been crying again. Look, she's got red eyes.

cf. Wilma is weer aan het huilen geweest. Kijk maar, haar ogen zien rood.

(120) You've been drinking!

cf. Je bent aan het drinken geweest!

Je hebt gedronken! (= Je bent dronken!)

(121) It's been snowing.

cf. Het heeft gesneeuwd. (= Kijk, er ligt sneeuw.)

(122) It has been raining again. Our crops will be destroyed.

In (123), the suggestion that follows is the result of a thinking process that is still ongoing. In these cases, the present perfect progressive is also used as it underscores both the result (the actual suggestion) and the thinking process (that might still be ongoing).

(123) You know, I have been thinking: why don't we get married?

NOTES

1) The difference between the Present Perfect Progressive and the Present Perfect simple is rather slight in a number of cases. Both (124) and (125) are acceptable, for instance:

(124) Charles has lived here for two months.

(125) Charles has been living here for two months.

Still, the progressive form is normally preferred for more temporary events, the simple form for more permanent ones, cf.

(126) I've been living in Sheila's flat for the last few days.

(127) I've lived in Liverpool all my life.

2) With verbs such as sit, stand, lie, the perfect non-progressive is very rarely used.

(128) ?I have sat here since noon.

(129) I've been sitting here since noon.

3) The passive form of the Present Perfect Continuous (*has/have + been + being + past participle*) is hardly ever used:

(130) He has been being driven around for three hours now.

=> They have been driving him around for three hours now.

4. Past Tenses

'Past tenses' is an umbrella term for the simple past, the past progressive, the past perfect and the past perfect progressive, i.e. all those forms where the VP has a past tense form as its first element.

4.1 Simple Past (past, preterite)

4.1.1 Form

4.1.1.1 Regular Verbs

	/t/	knock <u>e</u> d, walk <u>e</u> d	(after voiceless consonants)
stem + -(e)d:	/d/	bang <u>e</u> d, div <u>e</u> d, play <u>e</u> d, bo <u>o</u> d	(after voiced consonants and vowel sounds)
	/ɪd/	want <u>e</u> d, mend <u>e</u> d	(after /t/, /d/)

SPELLING NOTES (PEU 562; spelling p. 553 - 556)

NOTE

The same spelling rules apply to other forms such as *-ing*.

- (1) The final consonant is doubled after a stressed vowel sound spelled singly, i.e. as a single vowel letter (a, e, i, o, u)

There is no doubling when the above conditions are not fulfilled, hence: when the final consonant is not preceded by a vowel, when the preceding vowel is spelt with two letters, or when the stress is not on the final syllable. Compare:

- 'jam	=> 'jam <u>med</u>	vs.	'boom	=> 'bo <u>omed</u>
			'scream	=> 'screa <u>med</u>
- 'stop	=> 'stop <u>ped</u>	vs.	'stoop	=> 'stoop <u>ed</u>
			'gallop	=> 'gallop <u>ed</u>
			de'velop	=> de'velop <u>ed</u>
- ad'mit	=> ad'mitt <u>ed</u>	vs.	'benefit	=> 'benefit <u>ed</u>
- oc'cur	=> oc'curr <u>ed</u>	vs.	'offer	=> 'offer <u>ed</u>

Exceptions

a) Final <-l> is doubled regardless of the position of the stress (in BrE):

ˈtravel - ˈtravelling - ˈtravelled (AmE ˈtraveled)

ˈcancel - ˈcancelling - ˈcancelled

ˈsignal - ˈsignalling - ˈsignalled

b) Final <-p> is doubled in a few cases even when the last syllable is unstressed. This applies to the verbs *worship*, *handicap* and *kidnap*. Most verbs in <-p>, however, follow the general rule. Compare:

develop - developing - developed (general rule)

worship - worshipping - worshipped (exception) (AmE ˈworshiped)

c) Final <-c> becomes <-ck> :

panic - panicking - panicked

picnic - picnicking - picnicked

d) Some verbs in <-s> allow both spellings, regardless of stress

ˈfocus => ˈfocussed or ˈfocused

ˈbias => ˈbiased or ˈbiassed

(2) Consonant + y => -ied

<-y> turns into <-ie> when preceded by a consonant.

dry => dried

marry => married

vs.

play => played

obey => obeyed

Note: NO change here when *-ing* form is used!

(3) Deletion of final <-e>

Final silent <-e> is dropped before *-ing* and *-ed*:

skate - skating –skated

type - typing - typed

Exceptions to this rule are monosyllabic verbs in <-ye>, <-oe> and <-nge> /nʒ/: they do not lose the -e before ing. Compare:

dye - dyeing - dyed
hoe - hoeing - hoed
singe - singeing - singed

4.1.1.2 Irregular Verbs

A. A Bit of Background

The irregular verbs of English tell us about the history of the language and the human minds that have perpetuated it. The irregulars are defiantly quirky. Thousands of verbs monotonously take the -ed suffix for their past tense forms, but *ring* mutates into *rang*, not *ringed*, *catch* becomes *caught*, *hit* does not do anything, and *go* is replaced by an entirely different word, *went*.

Since irregulars are unpredictable, they have to be memorized one by one. There are tantalizing patterns among the irregulars: *ring-rang*, *sing-sang*, *spring-sprang*, *drink-drank*, *shrink-shrank*, *sink-sank*, *stink-stank*; *blow-blew* *grow-grew*, *know-knew*, *throw-threw*, *draw-drew*, *fly-flew*, *slay-slew*; *swear-swore*, *wear-wore*, *bear-bore*, *tear-tore*. However, they still resist being captured by a rule. Next to *sing-sang* we find not *cling-clang* but *cling-clung*, not *think-thank* but *think-thought*, not *blink-blank* but *blink-blinked*. In between *blow-blew* and *grow-grew* sits *glow-glowed*. *Wear-wore* may inspire *swear-swore*, but *tear-tore* does not inspire *stare-store* (which should be *stare-stared*).

This chaos is a legacy of the Indo-Europeans, the remarkable prehistoric tribe whose language took over most of Europe and South-Western Asia. Their language formed tenses using rules that regularly replaced one vowel with another. However, as pronunciation habits changed in their descendant tribes, the rules became opaque to children and eventually died; the irregular past tense forms are their fossils. So every time we use an irregular verb, we are continuing a game of Broken Telephone that has gone on for more than five thousand years.

Do irregular verbs have a future? At first glance, the prospects do not seem good. Old English had more than twice as many irregular verbs as we do today. As some of the verbs became less common, like *cleave-clove*, *abide-abode*, children failed to memorize their

irregular forms and applied the -ed rule instead. The irregular forms were doomed for these children's children and for all subsequent generations. In fact, recent research has shown that verbs evolve and homogenize at a rate inversely proportional to their prevalence in the English language, according to a formula developed by Harvard University mathematicians who have invoked evolutionary principles to study our language over the past 1,200 years, from "Beowulf" to "Canterbury Tales" to "Harry Potter." They have discovered that the "stem +suffix ed"-rule regularizes irregulars at a rate that is inversely proportional to the square root of their usage frequency: in other words, a verb used 100 times less frequently will evolve 10 times as fast. The number of irregular verbs is not only decreasing, it is not gaining new ones by immigration. Verbs like *to google* and *to skype* get a regular conjugation as do onomatopoeia like *to ping* and *to ding*.

However, many of the irregulars can sleep securely, for they have two things on their side. One is their sheer frequency in the language. The ten commonest verbs in English (*be, have, do, say, make, go, take, come, see, and get*) are all irregular, and about 70% of the time we use a verb, it is an irregular verb. In addition, children have a wondrous capacity for memorizing words; they pick up a new one every two hours, accumulating 60,000 by high school. Eighty irregulars are common enough that children use them before they learn to read, and these will stay in the language indefinitely.

Optimists might even say that there is one small opportunity for growth. Irregulars have to be memorized, but human memory distills out any pattern it can find in the memorized items. A century ago, some creative speaker must have been impressed by the pattern in *stick-stuck* and *strike-struck*, and that is how our youngest irregular, *snuck*, sneaked in.

See Pinker (1994) http://pinker.wjh.harvard.edu/articles/media/2000_03_landfall.html

See also: http://www.eurekalert.org/pub_releases/2007-10/hu-hsp100807.php

B. Overview

See:

- Syllabus appendix for a list of irregular verbs
- PEU 304,1 (p.282-284) for a list of common irregular verbs
- Van Dale EN or another reliable bilingual dictionary for Dutch equivalents
- LDELC for individual verbs

C. *Confusing Forms* (See PEU 304.2)

1) Strong and weak forms with different meanings

hang

- (1) a. Old photographs hung on the wall.
b. To be hanged, drawn and quartered was the penalty once ordained in England and other countries for treason. (i.e. to kill by hanging)

shine

- (2) a. The children's faces shone with excitement.
b. He shined his shoes every morning. (i.e. to polish)

bear

- (3) a. One morning in June, some 20 years ago, I was born a rich man's son. (i.e. to be born) I had everything that money could buy, but freedom, I had none. (David Hasselhoff. I have been looking for freedom)
b. She has borne four children, but she still has a very nice body. (i.e. to give birth to)

cost

- (4) a. It cost me a lot of money.
b. We first costed the project. (i.e. to estimate the price of)

bereave

- (5) a. Last year he was tragically bereaved of his brother. (used in context of death)
b. Is Hollywood really this bereft of ideas/inspiration? (more general use)

speed

- (6) a. The weeks sped by and soon it was time to face reality again. (i.e. to fly by, go fast)
b. The Ducati Panigale speeded up and vanished in a matter of seconds. (i.e. to accelerate)

weave

- (7) a. She wove a crown of flowers and put it on her head.
b. A friend of the band weaved in and out of the crowd, recording their performance on a video.

2) strong and weak forms without a shift in meaning

- (8) I really learned/learnt a lot, really learnt/learned a lot. Love is like a flame, it burns you when it's hot. (Nazareth)
- (9) The simple past and the past participle of the verb spell can be spelled/spelt in different ways.

3) *lie* (irregular) vs. *lie* (regular) vs. *lay* (irregular)

Irregular:	lie -lay - lain	liggen (= intransitive)
Regular:	lie- lied –lied	liegen
Irregular	lay - laid – laid	leggen (= transitive)

- (10) I said I liked it but I lied.
- (11) He laid her on the bed where she lay for hours.

NOTE

Similar confusion is found for:

Irregular:	rise - rose - risen	intransitive
Regular:	raise-raised – raised	transitive/causative

4.1.2 Use

The simple past tense is used to refer to **actions, events, states** which are **situated** by the speaker at **a given moment in the past**. This 'given moment' may either be explicitly stated or understood in the context. It is used to refer to the **definite past**. Normally, there are various clues that underscore the pastness of the situation, i.e. the use of explicit Time (or Place) Adverbials, as in (12) to (15). Pastness may also be distilled from discourse context or world knowledge, as in (16) to (20):

- (12) *Last Christmas*, I gave you my heart, but *the very next day*, you gave it away. (Wham!)
- (13) In *World War II* the average age of the combat soldier was 26, In *Vietnam* he was 19.
- (14) I know what you did *last summer*.
- (15) I met Ann yesterday and she told me you are getting married.
- (16) The Hundred Years' War between England and France lasted *from 1337 till 1453*.
- (17) George Washington was the first president of the U.S., but who was the second?

- (18) The film *Roman Holiday*, starring Audrey Hepburn and Gregory Peck, triggered a boost in Vespa sales all over the world.
- (19) I bought this water pipe *in Istanbul*, but haven't used it since.
- (20) My father once met *Grace Kelly*.

NOTE

Dutch often prefers a present perfect (VTT) where English has a simple past (OVT), as may appear from a comparison of (15), (19) and (20) with their Dutch translations:

- (15') Ik heb Ann gisteren gezien en ze zei me/heeft me gezegd dat je gaat trouwen.
- (19') Ik heb deze waterpijp in Istanbul gekocht maar sindsdien niet meer gebruikt.
- (20') Mijn vader heeft Grace Kelly ooit eens een keer ontmoet.

These uses will be elaborated on in the next paragraphs.

1. EVENTS in the definite PAST

When referring to (complete) EVENTS in the past, associated with a particular point in time. Place reference can also imply time reference:

- (21) The operation was performed *last month.*
in a local hospital.
- (22) We met (when we were) *on a cruise in the Mediterranean.*
- (23) When/Where did you *last* see her?
- (24) He died *in 1969.*
- (25) The Berlin Wall fell *in 1989.*

Typical time references: adverbials, i.e. adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, time NPs, adverbial clauses.

2. When referring to STATES (i.e. periods) in the past

- (26) Paganini was an Italian violin player of great fame.
- (27) Napoleon remained a prisoner for the rest of his life.
(= from 1815 to 1821)
- (28) I lived in London for two years. (e.g. from 1990 to 1992)
- cf. Ik heb twee jaar in Londen gewoond.

3. To refer to a SUCCESSION of events/states/actions (cf. storytelling, biographies)

(Almost) simultaneous actions:

(29) She looked at me and said: "I think I'd better go home".

(30) I took the left turn while Mike took the right.

Repeated actions:

(31) He tried ten times before he actually had a real go at it.

Sequence of actions:

(32) Silverman ran to the car, jumped in and raced off into the night.

(33) He came, he saw, he conquered.

See also:

(34) Prince William Arthur Philip Louis was born on 21 June 1982 at St Mary's Hospital, Paddington, in London. He was christened by the Archbishop of Canterbury at Buckingham Palace. Prince William began his education at Mrs Mynor's Nursery School in west London in September 1985, aged 3. In January 1987, William was enrolled at Wetherby School, also in London, and was a pupil there until July 1990. He spent five years at Ludgrove School from September 1990 until July 1995.

4. PAST HABIT

The Simple Past can be used to express a past habit, often with adjuncts like *always*, *often*, *sometimes*, *usually*, *never*, *occasionally*, *every week*, *twice a year*, *on Fridays*, etc.:

(35) As a teenager, he *usually* wore Dr. Martens.

(36) Before she got married in '98, she went to church *twice a week*.

(37) We went to school together *when we were boys*.

(38) Churchill smoked fat cigars.

cf. (38') Churchill was a cigar smoker.

(39) My maths teacher *often/always* asked difficult questions.

For past habits i.e. actions which happened regularly in the past, but no longer happen now, both *used to* and *would* can be used:

(40) They used to get paid every three months (but today this is different).

(41) We would get up early every Sunday to go to church (but we don't anymore).

For past states, only *used to* can be used!

(42) a. Lithuania used to be part of the Soviet Union.

b. *Lithuania would be part of the Soviet Union.

(43) a. I am not the man I used to be.

b. *I am not the man I would be.

(44) a. I used to be a lawyer.

b. * I would be a lawyer.

NOTE

In order to avoid the implication that someone has died when referring to the past one can use *used to*. This situates the property in the past and views it as subject to change, without suggesting that the subject has died.

(45) a. My girlfriend was a lawyer.

b. My girlfriend used to be a lawyer. (not any more)

(46) a. He drank a lot when he was young.

b. He used to drink a lot when he was young.

5. REPORTED SIMPLE PRESENT

The simple past is often the result of backshifting, as in indirect or reported speech, where a past verb of saying or thinking in the main clause normally causes the (original) simple present to become simple past:

(47) John said he was hungry.

(John said: "I am hungry.")

(48) Ann wondered if Tom ever paid any attention to details.

(Ann wondered: "Does Tom ever pay any attention to details?")

6. NON-PAST HYPOTHETICAL situations

(Contrary to reality, i.e. unreal or unlikely events/states):

- (49) I *would buy* a new sports car if I were rich enough.
(a) (b) (= subjunctive)

The speaker creates a **hypothetical world** where (49) would be the case. This is like an alternative NON-PAST to the real NON-PAST.

Other expressions in which the SIMPLE PAST tense refers to a **hypothetical state or event**:

- (50) It isn't as if he had no money.
(51) If only you behaved more sensibly!
(52) Suppose someone saw you.
(53) It's (about) time you stopped working.
(54) I'd rather you went by train.
(55) I wish I knew.

7. NON-PAST PRAGMATIC meaning: evasiveness, politeness, aloofness, tentativeness

As was the case for the Simple Present, tense and time do not necessarily overlap. Uses of the Simple Past can be attested which do not refer to past time. The uses below refer to present time but the use of the simple past forms conveys the idea of 'less commitment' and is aimed to express evasiveness, politeness, aloofness, tentativeness.

- (56) I thought I might come and see you later this evening.
cf. Ik dacht zo dat ik u misschien later op de avond eens kon opzoeken.
(57) Did you want to see me?
cf. Wenste u me te spreken? (formal)
cf. Wou je met me praten? (informal)
(58) What was your name again?
cf. Hoe heette u ook weer?

4.2 Past Progressive (or: Past Continuous)

4.2.1 Form

(PAST) be BASE + -ing

POSITIVE form: I was whistling in the dark. /wəz/: normally weak

NEGATIVE form: I wasn't whistling in the dark. /'wɒznt/: always strong

4.2.2 Use

The past progressive presents the event as **being in progress** at a certain moment in the **past** and often sets a temporal past frame for other events in the past. Like the present continuous, it also suggests **(limited) duration**, i.e. **temporariness**, and/or **incompleteness**. Depending on the context, different aspects of these uses may be highlighted and other shades of meaning may come into play:

1. Limited duration and/or incompleteness as a frame for other PAST events, i.e. BACKGROUND ACTIVITY having started before and probably continuing (or set to continue) after an event reported in the simple past.

(59) When I arrived Barbara was making tea.

(a) (b)

cf. Toen ik aankwam, was Barbara thee aan het zetten.

This is different in meaning from

(60) When I arrived Barbara made tea. (= succession of events)

(a) (b)

cf. Toen ik aankwam, zette Barbara thee.

The ongoing event can be expressed as taking in place at a point in the past or as an activity in progress between two points in time

(61) A: What were you doing when you heard the news?

B: I was getting ready to go to work.

- (62) A: What were you doing yesterday between 6.00 and 7.00 p.m.?
B: I was playing cards with friends.

2. Stressing "CASUAL" properties of events (= less definite / incomplete event)

- (63) I was talking to John the other day and he told me he ...
cf. Onlangs sprak ik (*nog / toevallig*) met Jan en ...
(64) We were (just) talking about you.
cf. We hadden het (net) *nog* over je.

3. TEMPORARY HABIT

- (65) We were seeing a lot of each other at the time.

4. PERSISTENT activity in the past + expression of ANNOYANCE

(+ adverbial of frequency):

- (66) Prunella was always/constantly nagging.
cf. Prunella was altijd aan het zeuren.

5. REPORTED PRESENT PROGRESSIVE

The past progressive is often the result of backshifting. A present progressive thus often becomes a past progressive in indirect speech when the verb in the main clause is a past form:

- (67) John told me he was considering a change of tactics."
(John told me: "I'm considering a change of tactics".)
(68) Susan complained that Tommy was always picking his nose.
(Susan complained: "Tommy is always picking his nose.")

6. HEDGING or MITIGATING effect (indirectness, tentativeness), which is somewhat similar to non-past pragmatic meaning as discussed in section 3.1.2, specific use 7.

- (69) I was thinking of inviting a few friends.
cf. Ik dacht zo dat we misschien enkele vrienden konden uitnodigen.
(70) I was wondering if you could help me.

7. ONE MOMENT ACTION: REPETITION IN THE PAST

(71) The phone was ringing.

8. ITERATION

(72) Gina was finding quarters wherever she looked (iteration)

9. TRENDS (INCREASING/DECREASING ACTIVITIES)

(73) His symptoms were becoming more pronounced each day.

10. FUTURE TIME REFERENCE IN THE PAST: Past arrangement which may or may not have taken place.

(74) He was busy packing for he was leaving that night.

(75) Nancy was flying to Paris that afternoon but the flight was cancelled.

NOTE

Stative verbs rarely take the past continuous either (cf. present continuous).

(76) a. *I'm knowing French. I know French.

b. *I was knowing French back then. I knew French back then.

(77) a. *Where were you being between 6 and 7 p.m.?

b. Where were you between 6 and 7 p.m.?

However, with dynamic interpretations or shifts in meaning, the past continuous is possible:

(78) I was having dinner when I heard the news.

(79) All of a sudden she scratched me although I was being friendly to her.

4.3 Past Perfect

4.3.1 Form

had + BASE + -ed	(regular verbs)
had + separate past participle	(irregular verbs)

POSITIVE form: Alice had visited the place before. /((h)əd/ in mid position

INTERROGATIVE form: Had you visited the place before? /hæd/ initially

NEGATIVE form: I hadn't been there before. /'hædnt/

IMPORTANT NOTE

Adjective vs. Past participle uses of strong verbs have a different spelling/pronunciation

bend

(80) a. The plastic began to fray after the knee had bent a few hundred thousand times, sometimes causing painful inflammation.

b. He wouldn't go to Wyvis Hall now if Adam invited him, if he went down on his bended knees.

bless

(81) a. The priest had blessed /blest/ the people.

b. I welcome you all to this blessed /blesid/ event.

shrink

(82) a. Glaciers have shrunk by some 60 percent since the early 1970s.

b. By the time he turned eighty, he was just a shrunken old man.

drink

(83) a. Before the police arrived, they had already drunk all the booze.

b. What shall we do with the drunken sailor? (but: The sailor was drunk.)

melt

(84) a. I just melted when I laid eyes on her for the first time.

b. Molten rock below the surface of the Earth is known as magma.

However, low temperature melting processes can also be expressed with adjectival *melted* (e.g. *melted* chocolate, *melted* butter).

prove

- (85) a. DNA tests had proved that blood from one of the detectives was on Wilson's clothes. (Note that proven can also be used as past participle.)
b. Why should I believe a proven liar?

shave

- (86) a. To become a member of that sect you had to have your head shaved.
b. He was a bullet-headed child whose shaven hair showed that he had recently been sent to the cleansing station as verminous.

sink

- (87) a. The boat had sunk in 32 meters of water.
b. Atlantis, the sunken kingdom has yet to reveal its secrets.

learn

- (88) a. Had you learnt /lɜ:nt/ your lessons?
b. He was a wise and learned /lɜ:nld / man.

4.3.2 Use

The basic function of the past perfect is again parallel with that of the present perfect, i.e. a past action/event/state is linked with a given moment in the later past (Past in the past.) It indicates that a given action started before (is anterior to) a certain moment in the past and either stopped before/at that moment or continued after it. The reference is thus to an earlier past (time sphere) than that associated with the simple past.

- (89) *After* they had lived in the country for 10 years, (a)
the couple decided to move back to town. (b)
cf. *Nadat* ze tien jaar op het platteland hadden gewoond (a)
besloten ze naar de stad terug te keren. (b)
cf. *First* they lived in the country for ten years, then they decided to move back to town.
(90) *When* they had known each other for ten months (a)
they got married. (b)
cf. Toen ze elkaar tien maanden kenden, trouwden ze.
cf. They had (already) known each other for ten months and (so) got married.

Compare the following pair of sentences:

(91) When the police arrived the burglars had run off.

(a) (b) (= had already run off)

cf. Toen de politie aankwam, waren de inbrekers op de vlucht geslagen.

(92) When the police arrived the burglars ran off.

(a) (b)

cf. Toen de politie aankwam, sloegen de inbrekers op de vlucht.

1. The past perfect is used to express ANTERIORITY to other past events/states

A) Actions/States completed before a given time in the past

With a time reference:

(93) We had lived there for seven years before we moved to the countryside.

For repeated actions:

(94) The new owners found that the timbers had been patched up several times.

To describe a state which existed before a past event:

(95) At the time of her trial last year Hinkley had been in prison for eight months.

B) In a sequence of actions

past perfect -> earlier action

past simple -> later action:

(96) a. When we got back (2) the babysitter had gone home (1).

vs. b. When we got back (1) the babysitter went home (2). (cf. sequence of actions)

If the subordinating conjunction AFTER is used, the past perfect is often redundant and it can therefore be replaced by a simple past, cf.

(97) I rang the fire brigade after I had failed to put out the fire. (= failed)

cf. Ik belde de brandweer op nadat ik er niet in geslaagd was het vuur te blussen.

(= emphatic)

cf. Ik belde de brandweer op toen ik er niet in slaagde het vuur te blussen.

(= less emphatic)

2. REPORTED PRESENT PERFECT / SIMPLE PAST

- (98) An army spokesman told reporters the bridge had collapsed.
(An army spokesman told reporters: "The bridge has collapsed.")
- (99) The detective said last Friday that several more bodies had been found earlier that week.
(The detective said (at a press conference) last Friday: "Several more bodies were found earlier this week.")

3. PAST HYPOTHETICAL EVENTS/STATES. Unfulfilled intentions

The speaker creates a hypothetical world, which is now associated with the PAST.

- (100) If the Nazis had developed the atom bomb, (a)
they might have won the war. (b)
(but we know NOW (= present) that they did not)
- cf. Als de nazi's de atoombom hadden ontwikkeld, (a)
(dan) hadden ze misschien de oorlog gewonnen. (b)
- (101) Had we arrived earlier, we would have been able to resuscitate the goldfish. (= more formal pattern)

More examples of what could be called an IMPOSSIBLE CONDITION:

- (102) Suppose the Nazis had developed the atom bomb.
- (103) I wish you hadn't told them.
- (104) If only she had listened to me!

4.4 Past Perfect Progressive (or: past perfect continuous)

4.4.1 Form

had been + BASE + -ing

- | | | |
|---------------------|--|--------------|
| POSITIVE form: | - Alice <u>had been working</u> hard all day. | /((h)əd bln/ |
| | - We <u>'d been staying</u> there for weeks. | /dbln/ |
| INTERROGATIVE form: | - <u>Had</u> you <u>been staying</u> there long? | /hæd/ |
| NEGATIVE form: | - I <u>hadn't been listening</u> at all. | /hædnt/ |

4.4.2 Use

The past perfect progressive expresses a combination of **ANTERIORITY** (past with respect to other past events/states) and **FRAME-setting** (PROG):

- (105) John had (just) been listening to a crime story on his car radio (a)
when the police stopped him at the next road junction. (b)
- cf. Jan had (net) zitten te luisteren naar een misdaadverhaal op zijn autoradio (a)
toen de politie hem aan het volgende kruispunt tegenhield. (b)
- (106) He had been living in his hide-out for several years (a)
when he was discovered. (b)
- cf. Hij woonde al verscheidene jaren in zijn schuilplaats (a)
toen/voor hij ontdekt werd. (b)

Additional shades of meaning include:

1. UNINTERRUPTEDNESS

(and the "resulting effect"), reinforced by adverbials such as: *all day (long), continuously, etc.*

- (107) No wonder he had terrible backache, he had been digging for hours on end.
cf. ..., hij had uren aan een stuk gespit.
..., hij had uren aan een stuk staan te spitten.
..., hij was uren aan het spitten geweest.
- (108) He had been drinking all day, so he was totally sloshed.

2. INCOMPLETENESS

- (108) I had been telling Bill a number of things (a)
when Dick arrived. (b)
- cf. Ik had Bill het een en ander verteld (a)
toen Dick eraan kwam. (b)

3. REPORTED PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE and PAST PROGRESSIVE

- (109) Mary told me she had been waiting for me.
(Mary told me: "I have been waiting for you.")

(110) Mary remembered I had been writing a novel in those days.

(Mary remembered: "He was writing a novel in those days.")

NOTE

Past perfect and past perfect progressive are often interchangeable, cf.

(111) He felt quite tired because he had been walking for hours.

(112) He was feeling tired, because he had walked for hours.

IRREGULAR VERBS

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Simple Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Translation</i>
arise	arose	arisen	
awake	awoke	awoken	
be	was, were	been	
bear	bore	borne	
beat	beat	beaten	
become	became	become	
begin	began	begun	
behold <lit>	beheld	beheld	
bend	bent	bent	
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted	
bid	bid, bade	bid, bidden	
bind	bound	bound	
bite	bit	bitten, (bit)	
bleed	bled	bled	
blow	blew	blown	
break	broke	broken	
breed	bred	bred	
bring	brought	brought	
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast	
browbeat	browbeat	browbeaten	
build	built	built	
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt	
burst	burst	burst	
bust <inf>	bust	bust	
buy	bought	bought	
cast	cast	cast	
catch	caught	caught	

choose	chose	chosen	
cleave	cleaved, clove, cleft	cleaved, cloven, cleft	
cling	clung	clung	
come	came	come	
cost	cost	cost	
creep	crept	crept	
cut	cut	cut	
deal	dealt	dealt	
deepfreeze	deepfroze	deepfrozen	
dig	dug	dug	
dive	dived, dove <Am>	dived	
do	did	done	
draw	drew	drawn	
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed	
drink	drank	drunk	
drive	drove	driven	
dwell	dwelled, dwelt	dwelled, dwelt	
eat	ate	eaten	
fall	fell	fallen	
feed	fed	fed	
feel	felt	felt	
fight	fought	fought	
find	found	found	
fit	fitted, fit <Am>	fitted, fit <Am>	
flee	fled	fled	
fling	flung	flung	
fly	flew	flown	
forbid	forbad(e)	forbidden, (forbid)	
forecast	forecast	forecast	
foresee	foresaw	foreseen	
foretell	foretold	foretold	

forget	forgot	forgotten, (forgot)	
forgive	forgave	forgiven	
freeze	froze	frozen	
get	got	got, gotten <Am>	
give	gave	given	
go	went	gone	
grind	ground	ground	
grow	grew	grown	
hamstring	hamstrung	hamstrung	
hang	hung,(hanged)	hung, (hanged)	
have	had	had	
hear	heard	heard	
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed	
hide	hid	hidden, (hid)	
hit	hit	hit	
hold	held	held	
hurt	hurt	hurt	
input	input, inputted	input, inputted	
keep	kept	kept	
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled	
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted	
know	knew	known	
lay	laid	laid	
lead	led	led	
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned	
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped	
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt	
leave	left	left	
lend	lent	lent	
let	let	let	
lie	lay	lain	
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted	

lose	lost	lost	
make	made	made	
mean	meant	meant	
meet	met	met	
miscast	miscast	miscast	
mishear	misheard	misheard	
mislead	misled	misled	
mistake	mistook	mistaken	
misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood	
mow	mowed	mown, mowed	
offset	offset	offset	
outbid	outbid	outbid	
outdo	outdid	outdone	
outgrow	outgrew	outgrown	
outrun	outran	outrun	
overcome	overcame	overcome	
overdo	overdid	overdone	
overeat	overate	overeaten	
overfeed	overfed	overfed	
overhear	overheard	overheard	
overrun	overran	overrun	
oversee	oversaw	overseen	
oversleep	overslept	overslept	
overtake	overtook	overtaken	
overthrow	overthrew	overthrown	
pay	paid	paid	
put	put	put	
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted	
read	read	read	
rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt	
recast	recast	recast	
redo	redid	redone	

remake	remade	remade	
rend	rent	rent	
reread	reread	reread	
rerun	reran	rerun	
resell	resold	resold	
reset	reset	reset	
restring	restrung	restrung	
retell	retold	retold	
rewind	rewound	rewound	
rewrite	rewrote	rewritten	
rid	rid, rided	rid, rided	
ride	rode	ridden	
ring	rang, rung	rung	
rise	rose	risen	
run	ran	run	
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed	
say	said	said	
see	saw	seen	
seek	sought	sought	
sell	sold	sold	
send	sent	sent	
set	set	set	
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed	
shake	shook	shaken	
shear	sheared	shorn, sheared	
shed	shed	shed	
shine	shone, (shined)	shone, (shined)	
shit <taboo>	shit, shat	shit	
shoot	shot	shot	
show	showed	shown, (showed)	
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk	
shut	shut	shut	

sing	sang, sung	sung	
sink	sank, sunk	sunk	
sit	sat	sat	
slay	slew	slain	
sleep	slept	slept	
slide	slid	slid	
sling	slung	slung	
slink	slunk	slunk	
slit	slit	slit	
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt	
sow	sowed	sown, sowed	
speak	spoke	spoken	
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded	
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt	
spend	spent	spent	
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt	
spin	spun, span	spun	
spit	spat, spit	spat, spit	
split	split	split	
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt	
spread	spread	spread	
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung	
stand	stood	stood	
steal	stole	stolen	
strew	strewed	strewed, strewn	
stick	stuck	stuck	
sting	stung	stung	
stink	stank, stunk	stunk	
stride	strode	stridden, strode	
strike	struck	struck	
string	strung	strung	
strive	strove, strived	striven, strived	

swear	swore	sworn	
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated	
sweep	swept	swept	
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled	
swim	swam, swum	swum	
swing	swung	swung	
take	took	taken	
teach	taught	taught	
tear	tore	torn	
tell	told	told	
think	thought	thought	
throw	threw	thrown	
thrust	thrust	thrust	
tread	trod	trodden, (trod)	
typeset	typeset	typeset	
unbend	unbent	unbent	
unbind	unbound	unbound	
undergo	underwent	undergone	
understand	understood	understood	
undertake	undertook	undertaken	
underwrite	underwrote	underwritten	
undo	undid	undone	
unmake	unmade	unmade	
unwind	unwound	unwound	
uphold	upheld	upheld	
upset	upset	upset	
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked	
wear	wore	worn	
weave	wove	woven	
wed	wed, wedded	wed, wedded	
weep	wept	wept	
wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted	

win	won	won	
wind	wound	wound	
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn	
withhold	withheld	withheld	
withstand	withstood	withstood	
wring	wrung	wrung	
write	wrote	written	