# APPENDIX II. REVISION OF BASIC GRAMMATICAL TERMS \& CONCEPTS 

Revision of Basic Grammatical Terms \& Concepts

## (1) What are Parts of Speech?

Syntax, or the arrangement of words in the sentence, is determined primarily by word functions, otherwise called Parts of Speech. So Parts of Speech are really the functions of words, phrases, or whole clauses within the larger context of the sentence. We can use words (or groups of words) in different ways:

## Function

Nouns name things
Pronouns stand instead of nouns
Adjectives describe (modify) nouns

## Questions they answer

(What? Who?)
(What? Who?)
(Which? What kind?) [resemblance]
name actions or states of being; apart from naming actions, they carry in them the meaning of time:

A verb is that which, in addition to its proper meaning, carries with it the notion of time ... It is a sign of something said of something else (Aristotle).

Adverbs modify/ describe verbs (How? Where? When? Why? etc.)
Conjunctions join similar grammatical items (words, phrases, clauses, etc.)
Prepositions show relative 'positions' of things in space and time [contiguity]
Interjections expressions of feelings and attitudes interjected, or 'thrown into' the midst of a clause (they are our 'raisins in the cake')

Word-meanings in all languages have ways of doing these eight 'jobs' and, depending on what they do in the sentence, they will function as one or another part of speech:

Parts of Speech are the functions of words in the sentence.

Some words may have only one function (for example, and as a conjunction). Others may be used in different ways (for example, fancy, which is a noun in the phrase 'flights of fancy', a verb in 'Fancy that!' and an adjective in 'a fancy hat'). Some other examples:

> A characteristic feature (noun)

To feature in a film, etc. (verb)
A feature film (adjective)
Ann came in early (adverb)

She is an early bird! (adjective)
The divide between the rich and the poor is growing wider (nouns)
The poor people get poorer, whereas the rich elite get richer (adjectives)
Figure of speech (noun)
It is difficult to figure out his meaning (verb)
Figure skating (adjective)
The killer bicycles away (verb)
Barack Obama gave a 'get-down-to-business' speech (adjective)
Most of these are examples of single words doing different 'jobs.' However, groups of words can also 'team up' and work together as one unit, fulfilling one function (Re: the 'Barack Obama' speech example, where 4 words are used as one adjective, to describe the kind of speech he gave). Groups of words working together as one part of speech are called phrases or clauses. ${ }^{1}$ What are they? We already know that both are groups of words. The difference between them is structural: phrases do not have their own subject-predicate patterns, whereas clauses do.

## (2) What is a Sentence?

A sentence is not just any group of words, such as 'beyond high mountains and deep blue seas,' for example; it's a group of words that says something about something. For example, 'I breathe' is a sentence, because it says something about me.

A sentence, then, has 2 parts: what we speak about (its Subject) and what we say about the Subject (the Predicate, or the verb together with all the words that go with it). In the examples below, the Subjects are in bold, and the Predicates are underlined:

Every word of language is a generalisation.
Every sentence (thought) is a generalisation.
(3) Basic Sentence Pattern (S/V/C). In English, most declarative sentences follow the S/V/C pattern: the Subject + its modifiers (what we speak about) fill the first slot / the Finite Verb and its modifiers fill the second slot / and Compliment (optional) takes the third slot (S/V/C).

[^0]Linguists usually refer to the third sentence component as Object (S/V/O). We will call it Compliment, because objects are not the only things that can fill that third slot:

1. Zero Compliment: I breathe. I think.
2. Predicate Adjective (PA): Life is interesting. Work is hard.
3. Predicate Noun (PN): Life is hope. Knowledge is Power.
4. Direct/ Indirect Object (DO/IO): Peter fries fish for his friend.

Together, the Verb and the Compliment make up the Predicate, or what we say about the Subject. The 'heart' of the predicate is the finite verb, ${ }^{2}$ which may be separated from its Subject by modifiers (other words, phrases, or even clauses). It is important that the Subject-Verb Agreement is maintained despite the intervening words: without the Subject-Verb Agreement the sentence becomes ungrammatical (as in 'Mary, a girl in my class, am clever'). Another example:

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    s /V / C (PN)
Ignorance / is / the mother of devotion. (Robert Burton)
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## Reminder:

Subject is what we speak about and Predicate is what we say about the subject (V/C).

The subject of the sentence is the thing we talk about with all its modifiers, e.g.:
The definition of experience is knowledge acquired too late.
The predicate is made up of the finite verb (expressing action performed or received by its subject), together with all the words that go with that verb:

The definition of experience is knowledge acquired too late.
(4) Four types of sentence structure:
$\Rightarrow$ Simple: one S/V/C pattern: All great truths begin as blasphemies.

$\Rightarrow$ Compound: two or more $\mathrm{S} / \mathrm{V} / \mathrm{C}$ patterns (simple sentences), joined by a conjunction:

You can twist perceptions, but reality won't budge.

[^1], but

$\Rightarrow$ Complex: one main clause plus one or more dependent clause(s):
Everything you can imagine is real.

$\Rightarrow$ Compound-complex: at least two main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses:

But I forget what I to say so wanted And fleshless thought dissolves in other shadows...

(5) What is the Difference between Phrases and Subordinate Clauses? Both are groups of words that function as one part of speech (a noun, an adjective, or an adverb). In order to understand and diagram sentence structure correctly, we must be able to recognize clauses and differentiate them from phrases, which are not shown in our schematic clause diagrams.

The difference between them is structural: clauses have their own S/V/C pattern; phrases do not:

It is a mark of an educated mind to be able to entertain a thought without accepting it
(Aristotle)
N.B.: The phrase 'without accepting it' is an adverb modifying the infinitive verb 'to entertain' within the framework of the larger phrase 'to be able to entertain a thought without accepting it' which names that thing that the 'mark' is. Neither of these phrases has an S/V/C pattern.

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\begin{array}{llllllll}
/ \mathrm{S}_{1} / & / \mathrm{S}_{2} / & / \mathrm{V}_{2.1} / & / \mathrm{C}_{2.1} / & / \mathrm{V}_{2.2} / & / \mathrm{C}_{2.2} / & / \mathrm{V}_{1} / & / \mathrm{C}_{1} /
\end{array}
$$

A man, who has made a mistake and doesn't see it, is making another mistake.

Here the clause who has made a mistake and doesn't see it is an Adjective describing the noun 'man' in the main clause.

## (6) The Difference between the Main and Subordinate Clauses:

Subordinate clauses may function in three ways within the sentence mosaic:
$\Rightarrow$ Noun clauses name something/somebody in the main clause, i.e.:
The most incomprehensible thing about the world is that it is comprehensible (Einstein)
$\Rightarrow$ Adjective clauses modify (describe) nouns in the main clause, for example:
The person who knows how to laugh at himself will never cease to be amused.
$\Rightarrow$ Adverb clauses describe actions in the main clause, i.e.,
'We don't see things as they are. We see things as we are.' (Anais Nin)
Main clauses have no such function; they are generalizations, correlating what they speak about with what they say about it (the Subject with its Verb and all the words that go with it):
$\Rightarrow$ 'I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand.' (Confucius)
(7) What is the Finite Verb? The finite verb is a verb that has a Subject which defines its form (number and person). Subject-Verb Agreement (conjugation, 'tie' between them) is what makes a sentence. Examples of some common verb conjugations (= the 'tying together' of the Subject and its Verb):

|  | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural | Sing. | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Number <br> Person | I am | We are | I do | We do | I have | We have |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | You are | You are | You do | You do | You <br> have | You <br> have |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | He/she/it <br> is | They <br> are | He/she/it <br> does | They do | He has | They <br> have |

Table 1 Verb conjugation
(8) What is the Infinitive Verb? Infinitive verbs have no Subjects (or doers; they are just names of actions, as listed in dictionaries). Since they only name actions or states of being, they function as nouns, names of actions /states of being. They are usually preceded by the particle 'to' when used in sentences, except after modal verbs (can, must, may, might, could, should, would, etc.). Example (infinitives are in italics):

A diplomat is someone who can tell you to go to hell and make you happy to be on your way.
(9) What are Modal Verbs? Modal verbs do not express concrete actions; their meanings are abstract - they express our attitudes (what we think or feel about a situation), i.e., 'They should not have gone' or 'They might get angry.'

Our attitudes and opinions may concern:
Ability to do something - can / be able / manage
He can be very persuasive.
We were able to breathe under water.
He manages* to resist the temptation every time.
Advisability of something - should/ ought to
We should go now, it's getting late.
He ought to know better than take silly risks.
Obligation /necessity
We must follow the law here.
They have to follow the rules.
I need* to see the doctor / Need we go there? / He need not wait.
*Need can be used as an ordinary verb, meaning 'must have': I need a new car, need to
etc.
Possibility/ likelihood - could / can / might / may
He could be there.
He may not come.
They might not come.
Permission
You may sit down now.
You can go now.

Requests - can / could / will / would
Can you sit down, please?
Could you do it for me?
Will you keep quiet, please?
Would you please leave now?
(10) What are the Auxiliary Verbs? Auxiliary means 'helping'; auxiliary verbs are verbs like DO, BE, and HAVE. Apart from their 'concrete' meanings, they also help us form:

1. Negatives: I do not see how we can do it.
2. Questions: Does he want to go?
3. Complex verb tenses, indicating continuing or completed aspects of the action: to be waiting / to have waited / to have been waiting
(11) Compounding. Compounding means joining two or more similar items by conjunctions 'and,' 'or,' 'but,' 'either ... or,' and 'neither ... nor.' These conjunctions are often used to join equal grammatical constructions - subject and subject, object and object, adjective and adjective, verb and verb, etc. Whatever grammatical construction appears before one of these words should also appear after it.
(12) Ellipsis. Ellipsis is simply the omission of understood words in a sentence (also called omission or reduction). For example,

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[\text { You ] Help! [me] or } \quad[\mathrm{You}] \text { Put your thinking cap on [your head]! }
$$

(13) English Verb Tenses: Sentence analysis involves identifying the S/V/C patterns in sentences, and trying to figure out how all the words relate to each other / what 'jobs' they do. This means that we must be good at recognizing verbs, even when they are made up of several words (as in the complex tenses). Please review the structures and grammatical meanings of the various tenses of English verbs:

## 1. Simple

a. Present Simple: regular, habitual actions; 2 forms: the base form and the '-$s^{\prime}$-form (after $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singular subjects)
b. Past Simple: regular \& irregular verbs, expressing non-specific actions in the past
c. Future Simple: Auxilliary BE forms (will/shall) + base form of the verb; refer to any future actions.
2. Continuous: BE + Present Participle (-ing-form of the verb), i.e., I am working, You are working, He is working, etc.; I was working, We were working, etc.; I will be working, We shall be working, etc.; Continuous tenses express continuing actions at a point in time (Present, Past, or future)
3. Perfect Tenses relate two actions; the result (effect) of the first action is present (felt) at the time of the other action, i.e., I have seen this man before, We had expected this to happen, They will have arrived at 4 pm , etc.; The general 'formula' for the Perfect tenses:

## HAVE + Past Participle

4. Perfect Continuous: a 'cross' between the Perfect and Continuous tenses: they refer to completed actions at a point in time, but emphasize their duration (the time that they took happening), i.e., 'We have been waiting for you,' etc.

The general 'formula' for the Perfect Continuous tenses:
HAVE + BEEN + Present Participle
(14) Passive Voice of the Verb: The Direct Object of the verb's action becomes the grammatical Subject of the Verb:

| Simple: | BE + Past Participle | We will be told to leave <br> We are told to leave <br> We were told to leave |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Continuous: | BE + being + Past Participle | We are being told to leave <br> We were being taken for fools! |
| Perfect: | HAVE + BEEN + Past Participle | We will have been taken for fools <br> We have been told to go <br> We had been taken for fools! |

The Future Continuous verbs are rarely used in the Passive; Perfect Continuous constructions, likewise, become too clumsy to be used in the Passive Voice.

The Passive is used when the doer (subject) of the action is either not known or is unimportant/ irrelevant: the focus shifts to the action per se. For example,

A car is stolen every minute in big cities.
Water is added to the mixture, etc.

## (15) Etymology of 'recursion'

## Recursion

1. A programming method in which a routine calls itself. Recursion is an extremely powerful concept, but it can strain a computer's memory resources. Some programming languages, such as LISP and Prolog, are specifically designed to use recursive methods.

## Mathematics:

1. An expression, such as a polynomial, each term of which is determined by application of a formula to preceding terms
2. A formula that generates the successive terms of a recursion

Etymology:
Late Latin recursiō, recursiōn-, a running back, from Latin recursus, past participle of recurrere, to run back

## Recur

1. To happen, come up, or show up again or repeatedly.
2. To return to one's attention or memory.
3. To return in thought or discourse.
4. To have recourse: recur to the use of force.


## Etymology:

Latin recurrere: re-, re- + currere, to re-run


[^0]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Re}$ : notes below

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Finite Verb is a verb defined by its Subject (it has the Subject's number and person, because it about its Subject: I am, You are, He is, We are, They are, etc.)

