

GLOSSARY

Advanced English Grammar, Second Edition

ability

Ability is a **modal** meaning that is expressed via *can* or *could*. It refers to the physical, intellectual or perceptual capacity (and, hence, the **possibility**) to do something. Ability is usually associated with an **animate Subject referent**, but not necessarily: *The city's metro can transport up to 15,000 people per hour* can be said to convey ability, for example. (AEG Ch. 5)

abstract noun

An **abstract noun** denotes an entity that has no physical shape and that can therefore not be perceived by any of the senses: *happiness, friendship, love*. Nouns like *unicorn, dragon* or *fairy* represent imaginary creatures, but they are **concrete nouns**, not abstract nouns. (AEG Ch. 3)

Accomplishment

A situation is said to be an **Accomplishment** if it (i) requires input of energy (it is **dynamic**), (ii) has **duration** (it has a temporal contour) and (iii) has an intended or **inherent endpoint** beyond which the situation cannot continue: *He ran the NY marathon in 2018*. (AEG Ch. 4)

Achievement

A situation is said to be an **Achievement** if it (i) requires input of energy (it is **dynamic**), (ii) is perceived as having no **duration** (it has no inherent temporal contour) and (iii) has an intended or **inherent endpoint** beyond which the situation cannot continue: *He reached the finish line at 2.43*. (AEG Ch. 4)

active voice, see passive voice

2 GLOSSARY

Activity

A situation is said to be an **Activity** if it (i) requires input of energy (it is **dynamic**), (ii) has **duration** (it has a temporal contour) and (iii) does not include an intended or **inherent endpoint** beyond which the situation cannot continue: *He is jogging*. (AEG Ch. 4)

actualization, actualize

We use the term **actualization** to refer to a situation taking place. If a situation is said to **actualize** or to **have actualized**, it means that it is happening/happened/has happened. (AEG Ch. 4)

actualize, see **actualization, actualize**

adjective phrase (AdjP)

An **adjective phrase** is a **constituent** whose **head** is an adjective: [*funny*], *the [black] cat*, [*really strange*] colours, *a [very tall] building*, where the AdjPs are in brackets and the heads of the AdjPs are underlined. Adjectives provide additional information about a noun, often providing descriptive information, and occur either directly before the head noun (*the black cat*), in which case the adjective is used **attributively**, or after a **linking verb** (*He seemed happy*, *John became anxious*), in which case it is used **predicatively**. (AEG Ch. 1)

adjective, see **adjective phrase**

Adjunct

An **Adjunct** is a syntactically optional **constituent** that can be realized by a range of different **forms** (**NP**, **AdvP**, **PrepP**, **clause**). The claim that it is syntactically optional means that if it is left out the **sentence** is still **grammatical**. Needless to say, if a constituent is left out, the message communicated will no longer be the same. It is thus important to distinguish the syntactic effect from the semantic effect that the omission of a constituent has. An Adjunct often gives information concerning the circumstances of the situation represented by the clause, that is, for example, the where, when or why of a situation: *I met him on campus at 3 p.m. because there was assembly*. (AEG Ch. 1)

adverb of degree, see **adverb phrase**

adverb of frequency, see **adverb phrase**

adverb of manner, see **adverb phrase**

adverb phrase (AdvP)

An **adverb phrase** is a **constituent** whose **head** is an adverb: *He is [very] kind*; *He was dancing [very slowly]*, where the AdvPs are in brackets and the heads of the AdvPs are underlined. *Very* in [*very slowly*] is also an AdvP: [*[very] slowly*]. It functions as **prehead** to the adverb head *slowly* within the larger AdvP. An **AdvP** can be used to qualify the situation referred to by the verb: *He danced [gracefully]*. The adverb in this case is often an **adverb of manner**. **Adverbs of frequency** (*He comes [often]*) exist as well. An AdvP can also modify an adjective: *It was [extremely] hot* (*extremely*, an **adverb of degree**, modifies the adjective *hot*) or another adverb: *They eat out [quite] frequently* (*quite*, an adverb of degree, modifies the adverb *frequently*). AdvPs can also be used (often **sentence-initially**) as **sentence adverbs**: *Obviously, he has had enough of this* (= It is obvious that he has had enough of this); *Frankly, I've had enough of him* (= I'm being frank when I say that. . .) (AEG Ch. 1)

adverb, see adverb phrase (AEG Ch. 1)

adverbial clause

An **adverbial clause** is a **subclause** functioning as an **Adjunct**: *I'll do it [when I arrive]*. An adverbial clause has the same role as an **AdvP** when it functions as an Adjunct: *I'll do it [immediately]*. (AEG Ch. 1)

adverbial

An **adverbial** is a formal category. The term captures the fact that slots that are typically filled by **AdvPs** can also be filled by other forms. In *I meet her [every week at the gym]*, for instance, *every week* is an **NP** and *at the gym* is a **PrepP**. These forms function as **Adjuncts**, a function that can also be performed by an AdvP: *I [often/regularly] meet her*. The **subclause** in *I'll meet her [after she's finished work]* likewise functions as an adverbial Adjunct. **Adverbial** denotes any **constituent** (including AdvPs) that fulfills this role. (AEG Ch. 4)

agent

Agent is a **semantic role**; it refers to a doer or an instigator. In an **active sentence**, a **constituent** having the semantic role of agent regularly functions as **Subject**: *William baked a cake*. In a **passive sentence**, the agent is often not expressed: *My bike was stolen*. When it is, it is expressed via a *by*-phrase: *It was stolen by a kid in the neighbourhood*. (AEG Ch. 2)

anaphor, anaphora

In its broadest sense, the term **anaphora** can be used to refer to any expression whose interpretation depends on what occurs before it or after it. In a narrower

4 GLOSSARY

sense (the more common meaning, and the way it is used in AEG), it refers only to the former case: an **anaphor** (or **anaphoric expression**) inherits its reference from a referent earlier in the **discourse**. In *I'll ask Ingrid – she'll know the answer*, *she* is an anaphor. Its referent is interpretable only by looking back to the **antecedent** *Ingrid*. Anaphors can also be placeholders for **AdjPs** (*She's busy but her partner is less so*), **AdvPs** (*If you look in the library you'll find the book there*) and **VPs** (*I didn't need to lock the door as she had already done so*). Anaphors contribute considerably to the overall **cohesion** of a text. (AEG Ch. 3, Ch. 6)

anaphoric reference, see anaphor

animate noun

An **animate noun** is a noun that has animate reference (that is, the referent is alive and sentient), be it human (*a girl, people, politicians*) or non-human (*deer, mouse, kangaroo*). The **personal pronouns** *he, she* and *it* are sensitive to animacy: only *he* and *she* – and not *it* – have animate reference. As such, they can often be used even when the referent is an animal. The personal pronoun *they*, in contrast, is not sensitive to animacy. (AEG Ch. 3)

antecedent

The **antecedent** is any expression in a **clause** to which another expression 'refers back'. In **relative clauses**, for example, the **relative pronoun** (in bold in the following examples) has an antecedent (underlined): *I'm impressed by the amount of work **that** you have achieved in such a short period of time*; *Is this the book **which** you are looking for?*; *Betty Birner, **whose** work you may have heard of, offers a convincing account of information packaging*. Another example is **personal pronouns**, which often have antecedents as well: *John is running late*; ***he**'ll be here at 7.00*. A less common, but useful, term is **postcedent**, an expression in a clause to which another expression 'refers forward': *As soon as **she** gets up, my mother has a cup of tea*. (AEG Ch. 3)

anterior(ity)

Informally speaking, **anteriority** refers to a relationship of 'before-ness' – a situation is said to be **anterior** to a point in **time** when it is located before it. The **tense marker** *have*, used with the **perfect tenses**, expresses anteriority. The **adverbial** *before* likewise signals a relationship of anteriority. (AEG Ch. 4)

appositive clause

An **appositive clause** is a postmodifying **clause** that renders explicit the content of the noun (usually an **abstract noun** like *belief* or *fact*) that it follows.

On the surface, it looks like a **relative clause**, but it does not share the same properties – it can only be introduced by *that*, for example, and not *which*: *I don't appreciate the **notion** that (*which) children should be seen and not heard.* (AEG Ch. 1)

aspect

Aspect is a category that refers to the way in which the temporal contour of a situation is represented by a speaker. In English, there is one main aspectual distinction: that between **progressive** (sometimes called **continuous**) **aspect** and **non-progressive aspect**. When the speaker uses non-progressive aspect, she refers to a situation as a single, unanalyzable whole: *She answered the phone.* Regardless of the **time** the situation takes up, the speaker presents the situation in its entirety (beginning – middle – end). When progressive aspect is used, the speaker gives a view from the inside: *She was answering the phone when I walked in.* This 'view from the inside' – particularly salient with **Achievements** and **Accomplishments** – results in a vision of the situation whereby its beginning and end are out of focus: we refer to this as **ongoingness**. The speaker is interested only in the 'middle' of the situation. (AEG Ch. 4)

aspect markers

Progressive aspect is built by adding **aspect markers** to the **verb base**. The aspect markers in English are a form of the verb *be* and the ending -ING appended to the verb base. In AEG the form resulting from V + -ING is called the **-ing participle**. The -ing participle is sometimes called a present participle. (AEG Ch. 4)

attributive

When an adjective is used **attributively** or in **attributive position**, it features within the **NP**, usually before the noun: *a bumpy flight, an utter fool, a warm welcome.* Only occasionally are attributive adjectives post-nominal (*the people responsible, the students concerned*). Certain invariable, set phrases such as *the president elect* or *the attorney general* can be said to have a post-nominal attributive adjective. Most adjectives can be used attributively, but some cannot: *the boy is asleep*, but **the asleep boy*. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 3)

auxiliary verb

Auxiliary verbs and **lexical verbs** are often defined in semantic terms. Lexical verbs (an **open class** to which new members can be added) are said to have specific content and to refer to either actions (*eat, work, sleep, play*) or states (*love, consider, know, understand*). Auxiliaries (a **closed class** to which no new members can be added) are said to convey grammatical meaning of secondary

6 GLOSSARY

importance. While this may be a useful working definition, we argue in AEG that the difference is mainly syntactic. There are three properties shared by all auxiliaries and that lexical verbs do not possess: (i) negation (*I am not working/I *work not*), (ii) **Subject-auxiliary inversion** (*Are you working?/*Work you?*) and (iii) **ellipsis** (*Yes, I am/*Yes, I work*). Lexical verbs require **do-insertion** via the use of a **periphrastic auxiliary** *do* when the **finite** form of a lexical verb does not include, but requires, an auxiliary: *Do you like him?* (cf. **Like you him?*); *I don't like him* (cf. **I like him not*); *Yes, I do* (**Yes, I like*). (AEG Ch. 2)

bare infinitive

A **bare infinitive** is an infinitive (that is, the **non-finite** base form of a verb) that is used without the infinitive marker *to*: *I would rather stay at home*. A **non-finite clause** that is **headed** by a bare infinitive is called a **bare infinitive clause**: *They made me do it*. Compare to **to-infinitive**. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 4)

bare infinitive clause, see bare infinitive

beneficiary

Beneficiary is a **semantic role**; it refers to the one for whose benefit something is done. In an **active sentence**, a **constituent** having the semantic role of beneficiary regularly functions as **IO** and takes the **form** of an **NP** (*William baked me a cake*) or a *for*-PrepP (*William baked a cake for me*). Beneficiaries are not very common in **passive** sentences; when they occur, they function as **Subject**: *I was baked a cake*. (AEG Ch. 2)

case

Case refers to the different forms a word can take depending on its **function** in a **clause** or in a **phrase**. The pairs *I/me*, *he/him*, *she/her*, *we/us* and *they/them* are the different forms the **personal pronouns** take depending on whether they function as, respectively, **Subject** or (**Direct** or **Indirect**) **Object/Object of a Preposition**. Different subjective and objective forms are limited to personal pronouns in English. The **genitive** (or possessive) is an example of a case as well: *the boy's book*, *his book*. (AEG Ch. 3)

cataphor, cataphora

Cataphora refers to any expression whose interpretation depends on what occurs after it. In other words, a **cataphor** (or **cataphoric expression**) inherits its reference from a referent in the **discourse** that is yet to come. In *Though he was sceptical, my client agreed to sign the contract, he* is a cataphor. Its referent is interpretable only by anticipating and looking forward to the **NP postcedent**

my client. A cataphor can also be a placeholder for a complete **clause**: *Listen to this: Sarah has been promoted!* Cataphors contribute considerably to the overall **cohesion** of a text. (AEG Ch. 3, Ch. 6)

cataphoric reference, see cataphor

category, see part of speech

causative meaning

In AEG, **causative meaning** is addressed in the discussion of the meanings of *have*, *make* and *get*. When the **Subject referent** ‘causes’ another participant in a situation to **actualize** a situation, the verb is said to have causative meaning: *The teacher had the students investigate the use of the passive in a newspaper article; Her dad got her to register for the exam; She made me laugh.* (AEG Ch. 2)

central determiner

The articles (*a(n)* and *the*), the **possessives** (*his*, *my*, *our*) and the demonstratives (*this/these*, *that/those*) are **central determiners**: they cannot be used together, which explains why **NPs** such as **the my books* or **his those books* are impossible. Central determiners also include *some*, *any*, *no*, *either*, *neither*, *each* and **determinative genitives** (*Bram’s birthday*). They can be preceded by predeterminers (*all the students*, *half the cake*, *double the price*, *what a story*) and postdeterminers (*the two students*, *the second student*). (AEG Ch. 3)

central modal auxiliaries

There are nine **central modal auxiliaries**: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will* and *would*. They share the formal characteristics typical of auxiliaries (**direct not-negation**, **Subject-auxiliary inversion** and **ellipsis**). The central modal auxiliaries do not have a special inflected third-person singular form (**she cans*, **he musts*), do not have non-finite forms such as **to can* or **musting* and are not followed by the infinitive marker *to* (*He should work harder*). Not all verbs that express modal meaning are auxiliaries; some of them are **lexical verbs** (see **lexical modal verbs**), and others (namely, *ought to* and *need*), although they possess the formal characteristics of auxiliaries, have additional constraints on their use (see **marginal modal verbs**). (AEG Ch. 5)

classifying genitive

In a **classifying genitive**, the noun marked by the genitive *’s* does not have the syntactic role of a **determiner**. Rather, it identifies the class to which the **head** of the **genitive NP** belongs: (*some*) *goat’s milk*, *a women’s college* and *my*

8 GLOSSARY

favourite children's book refer to milk from goats, a college for women and a book for children. (AEG Ch. 3)

clause

A **clause** is composed of a **Subject** and a **Predicate** (= verb (+ **complement(s)**) (+ **Adjunct(s)**)). Note that in an **imperative** clause, the Subject is usually not expressed. Clauses can be combined by means of a **coordinating conjunction**: *I saw Mary this morning, but John just missed her*. Clauses that are introduced by a **subordinating conjunction** are called **subclauses**: *I saw Mary this morning, although John just missed her*. Another term for subclause is **subordinate clause**. Note too that clauses can be **finite** (*He phoned me. . .*) or **non-finite** (*. . . after speaking to her*). A non-finite clause is necessarily a subclause, but a subclause can be finite or non-finite. (AEG Ch. 1)

clause type

There are four main **clause types** in English: **declarative** (the **Subject** features before the verb: *They arrived late*), **interrogative** (characterized by **Subject-auxiliary inversion**: *Why did they arrive late?*), **exclamative** (featuring a **wh-word** like *what* or *how*, but without Subject-auxiliary inversion: *What an interesting question that is!*) and **imperative** (where the Subject is usually not expressed: *Come here! Don't do that!*). (AEG Ch. 1)

cleft sentence, see *it*-cleft and *wh*-cleft

closed class, see auxiliary verb

closed interrogative, see *yes-no* interrogative clause

cohesion

Effective spoken and written **discourse** is cohesive. **Cohesion** refers to the effective means by which discourse is organized. There is a very large range of cohesive devices that contribute to what could be called 'linguistic connectedness' in and across **clauses** and sentences. The speaker uses them (unconsciously) to make sure that her message will be expressed as clearly as possible and in this way facilitate comprehension by the hearer; the hearer (unconsciously) assumes that these markers will be present and uses them when processing the utterance. Cohesion makes use of both **grammatical** and **lexical markers** to ensure that the discourse as a whole sticks together. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 6)

collective noun

A **collective noun** is a noun that is morphologically singular but that has plural reference: *family, the BBC, staff, the Senate*. Put differently, collective nouns are

notionally plural. Although some use the term to refer to nouns representing specific groups of entities, often animals (*a gaggle of geese*, *a school of fish*, *a herd of cattle*), we do not use the term in this way in AEG. Compare to **individuating noun**. (AEG Ch. 3)

common noun, see proper noun

complement, see complementation

complementation

Lexical verbs sometimes require (or ‘select’) **constituents** other than the obligatory **Subject** in order to be used **grammatically**. We refer to this requirement by means of the label **complementation**. Put differently, certain verbs (namely, **transitive** and **ditransitive verbs**) cannot be used in a grammatical way unless they are used with (or **complemented by**) constituents in addition to the Subject: *I like you*, *I like to travel*, but not **I like*. Other verbs disallow **complements** of any kind: *He yawned*; *She died*; but **He yawned something*; **She died someone*. Complements are also called arguments. The former term captures a formal requirement; the latter is a semantic requirement. (AEG Ch. 2)

composition of a sentence with a modal verb

In the context of **modality**, the term **composition** is used to refer to the fact that a **sentence** with a modal verb (or a **modal sentence**) consists of two parts, **M** and **P**. It expresses the modal meaning of **possibility** or **necessity** (we refer to this as the modal situation, **M**). When the modal meaning (**M**) is abstracted away, what is left of the sentence is called the **proposition (P)**. (AEG Ch. 5)

compound

A **compound** is the result of the process called **compounding**. Informally, a compound is a word created as the result of two (or even more) words combining. Examples include *kickstart* (verb-verb), *blue-green* (adjective-adjective), *upgrade* (adverb-verb) and *blackbird* (adjective-noun). In AEG we are mainly interested in noun-noun compounds such as *classroom* or *class clown*. A compound such as ‘*classroom*’ is said to have **left stress** (or **early stress**) whereas *class ‘clown*’ is said to have **right stress** (or **late stress**). (AEG Ch. 1)

compounding, see compound

concession

A **concessive clause** (one expressing **concession**) is a **clause** that establishes a contrast between two situations, that is, between what is actually the case and what might otherwise be expected to be the case: *Although I ate an hour*

10 GLOSSARY

ago, I'm really hungry (= I am in fact hungry, but since I ate an hour ago, the opposite (not being hungry) is what one would ordinarily expect). As shown in this example, the concessive clause can be a **subclause** introduced by *though* or *although*, but concessive meaning can also be expressed by *may* when it is **coordinated** with a *but* clause: *She may be old, but she can still run fast* (= She can in fact run fast, but since she is old, the opposite (not running fast) is what one would ordinarily expect). This latter case is an unusual example of **epistemic possibility** in that the situation is presented not only as being possible, but also as actually being the case. (AEG Ch. 5, Ch. 6)

concessive, see concession

concrete noun

A **concrete noun** denotes an entity that can be perceived by one of the five senses: *rain, dog, food* and *tomato* (which can be seen), but also *flavour, noise, odour* and *shiver*. (AEG Ch. 3)

conditional clause, see conditional sentence

conditional sentence

A **conditional sentence** typically contains an *if-clause*; the **actualization** of the **embedding clause** is represented as dependent on (or conditioned by) the situation in the *if-clause*: *If it rains, we'll cancel the picnic*. A sentence with an **embedded unless clause** (*I will design a few slides unless you have already taken care of this*) is likewise a conditional sentence, as are sentences that use an inverted **subclause** with a **modal past** or a **modal past perfect**: *Were she to accept their final bid, the sale might still go through*; *Had he worked harder, he might have passed the exam*. *Should* in an inverted subclause can be found as well: *Should you have any further questions, please contact the retailer directly*. The subclause that expresses the condition is called a **conditional clause**. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch 5)

conjunction, see coordinating conjunction and subordinating conjunction

constant polarity

In AEG **constant polarity** is used in the context of **interrogative tags** appended to a **clause**. If both the clause and the tag are affirmative, we say that there is constant polarity: *So, she's an expert, is she?* **Reverse polarity** (affirmative clause – negative tag or negative clause – affirmative tag) is far more common: *He's Italian, isn't he?*; *She doesn't like him, does she?* (AEG Ch. 2)

constituent

Constituents, also called **phrases**, are the building blocks in a sentence; they are the (potentially larger) units that the combination of words create. In the **sentence** *The black cat was running in the garden*, for instance, the words *the*, *black* and *cat* form the constituent *the black cat*. They can be identified by using constituency tests. Substitution is a kind of constituency test. For example, an **NP** can often be replaced by a single **pronoun**: *the old man who lives across the street from me* > *he*. Constituents in a **clause** have both a **form** and a **function**. (AEG Ch. 1)

continuative perfect

The **continuative perfect** refers to the use of a **perfect tense** that represents a situation as continuing up to, and potentially including, the **reference time** (**R**). Take for example the continuative present perfect: the situation is located in the **pre-present time-sphere** and continues up to the **moment of speech** (**S**): *Peter has lived in Berlin since 2018*. Continuative past perfects (*Peter had lived in Berlin for years at that point*) or future perfects (*Peter will have lived in Berlin for five years by then*) are possible as well. In these cases, however, the situations are not located in the pre-present time-sphere. They are **anterior** to **Rs** that do not coincide with the moment of speech. (AEG Ch. 4)

continuous, see aspect

coordinated clause

A **coordinated clause** is part of a complex **sentence** in which two **clauses** enter into a relationship of **coordination** rather than **subordination**. Whereas subordination involves a hierarchic relationship between an **embedding clause** (*He did it because I told him to*) and an **embedded clause** (*. . . because I told him to* > *He did it because I told him to. . .*), two coordinated clauses are on a par: *I told him to do it and he did it*. (AEG Ch. 1)

coordinating conjunction

The three main **coordinating conjunctions** in English are *and*, *or* and *but*. Other coordinating conjunctions include *for*, *nor*, *yet* and *so*. They usually bring together **constituents** of the same type: *black and white*; *heads or tails*; *tired but happy*. They coordinate **clauses** as well (*I walked in and he stood up*), but only clauses of the same hierarchical level: a coordinating conjunction never contains a **subclause**. In *He stood up when I walked in*, the *when*-clause is **embedded** (or **subordinated**) rather than **coordinated**. (AEG Ch. 1)

12 GLOSSARY

coordinator, see coordinating conjunction

copula

Copula (copular verb) is a synonym of a **linking verb**; it is a verb that links the **Subject** with a **Subject Complement**, which **predicates** something of the **Subject referent**, that is, it qualifies or identifies the Subject referent. Although the main copular verb in English is the verb *be*, copular verbs or linking verbs can be of different types. With the exception of *be*, all of them are **lexical verbs**. These include (i) verbs of being (*prove*), (ii) verbs of becoming (*get*, *grow*, *turn*), (iii) verbs of remaining (*stay*, *keep*) and (iv) verbs of impression (*look*, *feel*, *seem*): *The experiment was/proved successful*; *More and more people stay active as they grow/get older*. Note that some of these verbs have uses that are not copular: *He kept the book*; *They turned the corner* (where *the book* and *the corner* are **DOs**). (AEG Ch.1)

copular verb, see copula

coreference

Two or more elements are **coreferential** when they have the same referent. *John* and *he* are all coreferential in *John works in IT. He lives in Birmingham*. **Relative pronouns** are coreferential with their **antecedents**: in *the house that they bought*, the relative pronoun *that* is coreferential with its antecedent *house*. **Anaphors** and **cataphors** are interpreted as such thanks to coreference.

correlative coordinators

Correlative coordinators consist of two parts, one before each joined **constituent**. They include *either* . . . *or*, *neither* . . . *nor*, *both* . . . *and*, *not only* . . . *but also*, and *whether* . . . *or*: *Either you take it or you leave it*; *This is not only important but also necessary*. (AEG Ch. 1)

countable noun

A **countable noun** is a noun that can occur in both the singular and the plural: *bot-tle(s)*, *shirt(s)*, *polar bear(s)*, *flower(s)*; *mouse (mice)*, *sheep (sheep)*. (AEG Ch. 3)

counterfactual situation

A situation is said to be **counterfactual** if it is represented as not being the case (*I wish you were here* = you are not here) or as not having been the case (*I wish I had worked harder for the exam* = I did not work hard enough for the exam). Conversely, if the **counterfactual clause** contains a negative marker (*I wish you weren't so fussy*; *I wish you hadn't said that*), then it means that the situation represented is or was the case: *you are fussy*; *you did say that*. Note that *He*

didn't come also refers to a situation that is not the case: *not* makes it clear that the situation did not **actualize**. However, counterfactuality is typically used to refer to verbal forms that bring about this meaning (typically a **modal past** (*were*) or a **modal past perfect** (*had worked*)). (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 4, Ch. 5)

counterfactual clause

A **counterfactual clause** is a **subclause** that refers to a situation that is not the case or that did not **actualize**: *If you were good at maths, you would be able to help me solve this problem* (= you are not good at maths); *If she had practised more, she would have passed her driving test* (= she didn't practise enough). The **embedding clause** in which the **conditional clause** is **embedded** is likewise represented as contrary to fact. A counterfactual clause can be negative, in which case the situation is represented as being (or as having been) the case: *If you weren't my best friend* (= you are my best friend), *I would never have known*. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 4, Ch. 5)

declarative clause, declarative, see clause type

defining relative clause, see restrictive relative clause

definite article

The is the **definite article**. It serves to establish definite reference, that is, it represents the referent as one that the speaker deems can be identified by the hearer. The definite article can be used both **generically** (*The dog is a four-legged mammal*) and **non-generically** (*The dog needs to be taken for a walk*). (AEG Ch. 3)

deictic centre, see deictic marker

deictic marker

A **deictic marker** is a word that takes the speaker as the perspective when considering an item, a **time**, a place or a situation. In other words, the speaker is the **deictic centre**. As such, the reference of deictic markers depends wholly on the context of speech in which they are used: the referent of *I* depends on the speaker uttering *I*; the area referred to by *here* or *there* depends on the physical location of the speaker at the moment she utters these adverbs. **Demonstrative determiners and pronouns** (*this, that, these, those*), **personal pronouns** (*I, you, he, they*. . .) and **adverbs** like *here* and *there* illustrate the category of deictic markers. **Tense** is a kind of deictic marker as well. (AEG Ch. 3)

14 GLOSSARY

demonstrative determiner

This, these, that and *those* are **demonstrative determiners**. Accordingly, they are followed by a **head** noun: *Do you like these flowers?* These same forms can also function independently (that is, without a noun head) as **demonstrative pronouns**, in which case they constitute the head of the NP: *Do you like these?* (AEG Ch. 3)

demonstrative pronouns, see demonstrative determiner

descriptive grammar

A **descriptive grammar** describes the linguistic system of a language objectively. In other words, it sticks to the facts and does not seek to say whether one form is more or less correct than another. Linguists today are interested in describing linguistic systems, and most pedagogical grammars of English – including AEG – are committed to describing to learners how the language actually works rather than participating in a debate about whether one form is more correct than another. Nonetheless, learners can benefit from an awareness that some ‘**prescriptively** correct’ forms maintain a certain currency in formal contexts. While the term ‘descriptive’ suggests that nothing more is at stake than *describing* the facts, a descriptive grammar in the field of linguistics also attempts to *explain* the facts. Deciding where linguistic description ends and where it becomes a more abstract, linguistic theory is a matter of debate. In AEG we include a lot of linguistic concepts taken from various theories in order to explain certain mechanisms of the language. In this way we attempt show what it is that a speaker of a language knows, in one form or another, when she speaks English. (AEG Ch. 1)

determinative genitive

A genitive that establishes definite reference is called a **determinative genitive**: *My daughter's eyes are swollen from allergies*. This means that its function is similar to that of the possessive determiners or to the definite article when it establishes definite reference. (AEG Ch. 3)

determiner

A **determiner** is a **part of speech** that precedes a noun: it is a **prehead** that is not a modifying adjective. Determiners include the **definite article** (*the book*) and **indefinite article** (*a book*), **possessive determiners** (*his book(s)*), **demonstrative determiners** (*this/that book, these/those books*), quantifying determiners (also called **indefinite determiners**; see also **quantifiers**) (*some/both/a few/many/a lot of books; every/each book*) and numbers (*seven books*).

They also include interrogative determiners (*which book?/whose book?*) and a **relative determiner** (*the book whose cover is torn*). (AEG Ch. 3)

direct *not*-negation

Clause-level **direct *not*-negation** is **linguistically expressed** through the negative word *not*. If the clause features an **auxiliary**, direct *not*-negation is achieved through the simple addition of *not* after the auxiliary (*He was not amused*) or the **short negative** form (*He hasn't replied yet*). The first auxiliary is marked for negation if there is more than one: *He may not have been amused*. If the clause features a **lexical verb**, ***do*-insertion** is required when a present **tense** or past tense is used with non-progressive **aspect**. In this case a form of the auxiliary *do* is added, either in its short negative form or followed by *not*: *She doesn't (does not) want a new house*; *She didn't (did not) write this reply*. The base form of the lexical verb (the **verb base**) follows. (AEG Ch. 2)

Direct Object

The **Direct Object (DO)** can be identified by asking who or what is 'affected' by the main verb in the **clause**: *The committee rejected the project proposal*. It is often realized as an **NP**, but **finite** and **non-finite clauses** can also function as DOs: *I can't believe that you think such a thing*; *She really enjoys reading mystery novels*. Other **constituents** can function as DOs, though less commonly: *I recommend under the bed as a potential hiding place (PrepP)*. (AEG Ch. 1)

discourse

Looking at how **discourse** works requires us to telescope out from more local grammatical phenomena (**tenses** and **time-spheres**, **relative clauses**, **modal verbs**) and to adopt a broader perspective on how **clauses** and larger pieces of spoken and written language fit together. Take, for example, a **sentence** like *Even though she's turning 70, she's still very energetic*. *Even though* points to a specific relation, of contrast in this case, between the propositions expressed in each of the clauses. Take another example: *This explains why the former solution is preferable*. The hearer is forced to look elsewhere in the discourse if he is to understand what 'this' and 'the former solution' refer to. Otherwise, the (perfectly **grammatical**) **sentence** cannot be understood in a meaningful way. We take grammar 'beyond the sentence' as an effective and accessible working definition of discourse, bearing in mind that the discourse relations may also hold between clauses in a complex sentence. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 6)

discourse topic

The **discourse topic** is what a given stretch of language – usually longer than a single **sentence** – is 'about'. Take the following: *Kathleen's job brings her great*

16 GLOSSARY

satisfaction. She comes home every evening feeling good. The first sentence establishes ‘Kathleen’ job’ as the discourse topic. ‘Kathleen’s job’ also happens to be the topic, and the grammatical **Subject**, of the sentence. In the second sentence, the sentence topic (and the grammatical Subject) is not Kathleen’s job, but Kathleen herself (= ‘She’). However, the discourse topic remains the same – we are still talking about Kathleen’s job. The same cannot be said in the following (similar) stretch: *Kathleen’s job brings her great satisfaction. She comes home every evening on the 503 bus.* Compared to the first example, this latter stretch of language is incoherent because no effort has been made to maintain the discourse topic. (AEG Ch. 6)

discourse-oriented modality

We say that the **modality** is **discourse-oriented** when the modal meaning originates in the **discourse** participants (the speaker in **declarative sentences** (*You must come and visit me* = ‘I (the speaker) would like you to come and visit me’) and the hearer in interrogative sentences (*Need I say more?* = ‘Would you (the hearer) like me to say more?’)) rather than in the **Subject referent**. In *Sue can speak Russian* and *Can Sue speak Russian?*, for instance, the modal meaning of **ability** bears on the Subject referent (Sue) rather than on the speaker or hearer. (AEG Ch. 5)

distal demonstratives

That (singular) and *those* (plural) are **distal demonstratives**. They refer to items that the speaker conceives as being removed from the **deictic centre**, that is, from the speaker’s here and now. The notion of distance is very often spatial (*Do you like those trousers over there?*) or temporal (*Those were the days*, where the speaker is likely to be talking about the 60s or last year rather than last week). It can be a more subjective, emotional distance as well: *That journalist will stop at nothing*. In a stretch of **discourse**, distal demonstratives are often associated with **anaphoric reference**. In *What do you think of that?*, the referent associated with ‘that’ has occurred earlier in the discourse. (AEG Ch. 3)

distributional properties

When we refer to the **distributional properties** of a **part of speech** or a phrase we are referring to the place it can occupy in a **clause** or the position it can have with respect to other elements. When adjectives are used **attributively**, for example, they regularly occur after the **determiner** (if there is one) and before the **head noun**: *a red car* (cf. **red a car*, **a car red*). Additionally, certain adjectives can only occur in **predicative** position: *The baby is asleep*, but **an asleep baby*. Put differently, there are constraints on their distribution or they have specific distributional properties. (AEG Ch. 1)

ditransitive verb

A **ditransitive verb** is a verb that requires both a **DO** and an **IO** in order to be used in a **grammatical** way: *The president handed the veteran a medal* vs. **The president handed* – **The president handed the veteran* – **The president handed a medal*. Verbs that are always ditransitive do not form a very large class in English, but there are many **transitive** verbs that can be used ditransitively: *She bought a book* > *She bought me a book*. *He read a story* > *He read them a story*. (AEG Ch. 2)

do-insertion

Do-insertion enables the processes of negation, inversion and **ellipsis** to take place in the absence of an **auxiliary**. *Do*-insertion can be used not only to satisfy a syntactic requirement, but also in affirmative **declarative clauses**, where it fulfils a variety of discursive functions: *I do hate this weather*. The use of *do* in this example is said to be **emphatic**. It can also have a **concessive** or contrastive use: *I've never read the book, but I did see the movie when it came out*. (AEG Ch. 2)

double genitive

A double genitive is an **NP** construction where possession is marked by both the preposition *of* and a noun marked with the genitive 's (or a **possessive pronoun**): *friends of Billy's*, *an idea of Mary's*, *that dog of hers*.

duration

A situation is durative (or has **duration**) if it is perceived as taking up **time**. All **situation types**, with the exception of **Achievements**, are durative, or 'plus (+) duration'. The opposite of durative is **punctual**. The situation type referred to as an Achievement is punctual – it is perceived as not taking up time (it is 'minus (-) duration'). (AEG Ch. 4)

durative, see duration

dynamicity

When looking at different **situation types**, **dynamicity** is a parameter related to energy input. **Achievements**, **Accomplishments** and **Activities** are said to be **dynamic**. These situation types are perceived as having the potential to 'be happening' (rather than simply 'be the case') as well as the potential to change: they are 'plus (+) dynamic'. **States** are said to be 'minus (-) dynamic' – they are static states or conditions that 'are the case' and that do not change. (AEG Ch. 4)

18 GLOSSARY

echo question

An **echo question** is an **interrogative** with a **wh-constituent** that is not fronted but that occurs in the position it would ordinarily occupy were it not a **wh-constituent**. In this case it is said to figure *in situ*: *He said it was a disaster. – He said what?!; Jim gave Sarah red roses. – He gave who red roses?!* Although they are called echo ‘questions’, the above examples do not take the form of an **interrogative clause**. An echo question either requests (literally) that the speaker repeat the **clause** or is used to express surprise. (AEG Ch. 2)

ellipsis

The term **ellipsis** can cover a wide range of phenomena. In AEG we use the term to refer to what others sometimes call VP-ellipsis. Ellipsis occurs when, following an **auxiliary** (this includes *do* in the case of **do-insertion**), a **VP** is left unexpressed, usually because the immediate context of the utterance is such that the VP is easily retrievable: *Have you seen him? – Yes, I have* (= I have seen him). Examples of ellipsis include **short answers** (*Yes, I can*), **short interrogatives** (*Have you?*) and **interrogative tags** (*She is working too hard, isn’t she?*). It is widely used in English and contributes considerably to the overall **cohesion** of a text. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 6)

embedded clause

Embedded clause is a synonym of **subclause** or **subordinate clause**. The term ‘embedded’ here stems from the fact that it is part of a **main clause** that functions as an **embedding clause**. An embedded clause can be an **adverbial clause**, in which case it functions as an **Adjunct**: *I did it because he told me to*. In this case, it is **grammatically optional**. It can also function as a **DO**: *He said he’d do it immediately; I wonder if/whether he will do it*. Here, the embedded clause is grammatically obligatory. Embedded clauses having **functions** other than DO are possible, but rarer: *Why he said that is not altogether clear* (where the embedded clause functions as **Subject**). A **relative clause** is also an embedded clause, as in *The dress that I’m wearing was designed by Natalie*. Here, the embedded clause functions optionally as a **posthead**. (AEG Ch. 1)

embedding clause

We use **embedding clause** to refer to a **main clause** that contains an **embedded clause** (or **subclause**): *He said he’d do it immediately; I wonder if/whether he will do it*. In each example, the underlined clause is an embedding clause which contains an embedded clause (in bold). Not all main clauses are embedding clauses: *I like it here*. (AEG Ch. 1)

emphatic, see *do-insertion*

epistemic modality

Epistemic modality reflects the speaker's judgment of the likelihood that the **proposition** in an utterance is true. Put differently, when making use of epistemic modality, the speaker indicates the extent to which she believes a situation is likely to be true (or, more specifically, the extent to which it is possible or necessary). The speaker may express epistemic **possibility** (*John may be at home*), epistemic **necessity** (*John must be at home*) or epistemic **impossibility** (*John can't be at home*). (AEG Ch. 4, Ch. 5)

epistemic stance

When the speaker uses an expression of **epistemic stance**, she shows her commitment towards the status of the information that is expressed in the **clause**. When a speaker responds to the question *Did you like the film?* by saying *Actually, no, I didn't*, the marker of epistemic stance actually enables her to do more than simply say 'no'. She also indicates to the hearer that she realizes this answer might be unexpected. (Perhaps the speaker's knowledge includes the hearer having previously expressed that speaker would like the film.) Epistemic markers can indicate speaker doubt (*actually*) or speaker certainty (*no doubt*) and can also signal to the hearer that the source of the information is somebody/something other than the speaker, called **hearsay**: *allegedly*. (AEG Ch. 6)

event time (E), see moment of speech

exclamation

Exclamation is a functional concept that signals that the **clause** communicates emotion. This is often done by using an **exclamative clause** (a clause that starts with a **wh-constituent** (*what* or *how*) and has no **Subject-auxiliary inversion** (*What a talented student he is!*) or clauses like *Wow, is linguistics interesting!* or *Gosh, wasn't that amazing!*, in which there is Subject-auxiliary inversion, but without the force of a question. (AEG Ch. 2)

exclamative clause, exclamative, see clause type

experiencer

Experiencer is a **semantic role**; it refers to an **animate** referent experiencing something. In an **active** sentence, a **constituent** having the semantic role of experiencer regularly functions as **Subject**: *We could smell something burning*. Even though experiencers are less commonly expressed in **passive sentences**, they do occur: *This song has been heard by millions of people*. (AEG Ch. 2)

20 GLOSSARY

experiential reading

A **perfect tense** is said to be **experiential** when it expresses the idea that ‘in a period starting before the **reference time** and leading up to it, the **Subject referent** has experienced something *at least once*’: *Have you ever tasted lobster? They’ve lived abroad before.* (AEG Ch. 4)

expressions of similarity

Expressions of similarity are short **clauses** consisting of a similarity marker (*so, neither, nor*) followed by an inverted **Subject** and **auxiliary** with an **ellipted VP**. The same **predicative** relation is expressed as in a preceding clause: *Billy skipped a class – So did Sue; Billy hasn’t skipped a single class – Neither has Sue.* In the former case a **positive expression of similarity** is used, in the latter a **negative expression of similarity**. (AEG Ch. 2)

extralinguistic

When we qualify something as **extralinguistic**, it means that it results from the context of speech or from the general knowledge that speakers have of the way things are rather than from linguistically expressed information that explicitly features in a **sentence**. For instance, even though *furniture* is **uncountable**, our extralinguistic knowledge tells us that in the real world, items of furniture can be counted. In *Jim opened the letter that he received*, the relationship of **anteriority**, locating the situation of receiving before that of opening, is not linguistically marked (in which case we would use *had received*). Rather, it is our extralinguistic knowledge tells us that receiving a letter necessarily precedes opening it.

extraposition

Extraposition is a grammatical construction in which an element (usually a **subclause** functioning as **Subject**) is not found in the ordinary position a Subject occupies (that is, clause-initial position). Instead, the subclause Subject features at the end of the **clause** and is taken up by *It* in Subject position. In other words, a **sentence** such as

That they left early is unfortunate

is ‘repackaged’ as

It is unfortunate that they left early

Extraposition often results in a sentence that is easier for the hearer to process and, as such, is usually preferred to a sentence without extraposition. In fact, when the extraposed element is a **DO**, extraposition is obligatory:

He finds it strange that we’re not married

But **He finds that we’re not married strange*

The term ‘extraposition’ covers a wide range of phenomena. In AEG we use the term to refer to what others sometimes call ‘*it*-extraposition’. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 6)

finite clause

A **finite clause** contains a **VP** with a **finite verb**, that is, a verb that is marked for **tense**: *He is a very generous person*; *Do you eat mussels?* **Imperative clauses** (*Sit down!*) and **subjunctive clauses** (*It's vital that she answer him*) are finite clauses as well. (AEG Ch. 1)

finite verb, see finite clause

form (or form of a constituent)

The **form of a constituent** is determined by its **head**, which is the essential element of that **constituent**. For example, in *the black cat*, the head of the constituent is *cat*, which is a noun. The constituent *the black cat* is therefore referred to as a **noun phrase** (or **NP**). Similarly, *really big* is an **adjective phrase** (or **AdjP**), and *quite frequently* is an **adverb phrase** (or **AdvP**). (AEG Ch. 1)

formal agreement

There is **formal agreement** when the singular or plural form of the verb is determined by the morphological number of the **head** of the **Subject NP**: *Her paper is interesting*; *Her papers are interesting*. A non-NP **Subject** such as a **clause** (*Seeing him makes me happy*) always triggers a singular verb. (AEG Ch. 3)

formal criteria

Formal criteria are characteristics of a particular grammatical concept that relate to its **form**. For instance, the formal criteria which enable us to identify a word as a noun are that it can be **inflected** for plural (provided it is **countable**) and that it can be used in the **genitive**. An adjective is a word that can be used either **attributively** as a **prehead** or **predicatively** and can often be inflected in the comparative and superlative form: *hot* > *hotter* > *hottest*. A phrase is identified as an **NP** if the **head** is a noun: this is a formal criterion of an NP. (AEG Ch. 1)

free indirect speech

Free indirect speech refers to cases in which the narrator steps back and looks at situations from the perspective of one of the participants in the narrative. This translates into a very specific **form** with somewhat amalgamated features: *She had known him for a long time – he was not going to like this*. Although free indirect speech features in a self-standing **clause** (that is, it is not a **subclause** – hence the use of the term *free*), the **tenses** are those that would typically be used in a subclause **embedded** in **main clause** with *(s)he said/thought/knew/* etc.: *She knew he was not going to like this*. (AEG Ch. 4)

22 GLOSSARY

function (or function of a constituent)

A **constituent** performs a specific **function**, either at the clausal level (often determined by the **complements** a verb takes) or at the phrasal level (in relation to the **head** of a phrase). In the **sentence** *A couple of my friends went to Australia last month*, the NP *a couple of my friends* fulfils the function of **Subject** at the level of the **clause**. In the sentence *My keys are on the table*, the NP *the table* is the **Object of the Preposition** *on*. This latter function is at the level of the phrase. In AEG we use the following labels to refer to the functions performed by constituents: **Subject**, **Direct Object**, **Indirect Object**, **Prepositional Object**, **Subject Complement**, **Object Complement**, **Adjunct**, and **Object of a Preposition**. (AEG Ch. 1)

generic reference

NPs with **generic reference** refer to a class as a whole or to an entire class: *Belgian beer is sold all over the world*; *The telephone was invented in 1874*; *Children enjoy playing outdoors*; *A cat can live for up to 20 years*. (AEG Ch. 3)

genitive of measure

A **genitive of measure** is a genitive form that is used to indicate distance, **duration** or value: *This is my two cents' worth*; *It's a mile's walk to the campus*; *In a month or two's time, we'll know more*. (AEG Ch. 3)

genitive, see determinative genitive, classifying genitive, genitive of measure, elliptic genitive and double genitive

gerund, see *-ing* participle

grammatical

A structure is **grammatical** (or **well-formed**) when, **descriptively** (rather than **prescriptively**) speaking, it derives from the rules underlying the language. Otherwise, it is **ungrammatical**. Linguists use the sign * to show that a given example is ungrammatical (or **ill-formed**): *the man whose wife is pregnant* is grammatical; **the man whose the wife is pregnant* is ungrammatical. (AEG Ch. 1)

grammatical markers of cohesion (grammatical discourse markers)

Grammatical markers of cohesion include different kinds of nominal reference (primarily **anaphoric** and **cataphoric** reference) and **ellipsis**. Spoken or written **discourse** that does not flow (or is 'disfluent') often results when these markers are not used optimally. Grammatical markers of cohesion conspire

with **lexical markers of cohesion** to establish logical links with what occurs before and after a **clause**. (AEG Ch. 6)

head

The **head** or **headword** of a phrase is the most important word in a phrase. It determines the syntactic category of the phrase it heads: the head of an **NP** is a noun; the head of **VP** is a verb; the head of an **AdjP** is an adjective, the head of a **PrepP** is a preposition and the head of an **AdvP** is an adverb. (AEG Ch. 1)

headword, see head

hypothetical clause

A **hypothetical clause** is a **clause** that represents a situation as hypothetical. In AEG, the term hypothetical clause is used to refer to *if*-clauses that represent a present or future situation as possible: *If it rains tomorrow, we'll cancel the match; If I caught a student cheating, the sanctions would be severe.* (AEG Ch. 4, Ch. 5)

imperative clause, imperative, see clause type

impersonal passive

An **impersonal passive** is a **passive** sentence in which the **Subject** position is filled by *it*, which is a placeholder for the notional subject featuring in end position. In other words, there is **extraposition** in sentences of this type: *It is often argued that memory decreases with age.* (AEG Ch. 2)

impossibility, see negative possibility

inanimate noun

An **inanimate noun** has inanimate reference: *table, jacket, joy*. Its referent is not alive. The **personal pronouns** *he, she* and *it* are sensitive to animacy: only *it* – and not *he* and *she* – has inanimate reference. Animals, though **animate**, can often be referred to by *it*. The personal pronoun *they*, in contrast, is not sensitive to animacy. (AEG Ch. 3)

indefinite article

A(n) is an **indefinite article**. The form *an* is used when the **head** noun has an initial vowel sound: *an apple, an FBI agent*, but *a European country*. The **zero article** (represented by Ø) – that is, the absence of any **determiner** – can likewise be considered a kind of indefinite article. The indefinite article makes it clear that the speaker does not assume that the hearer can identify the referent

24 GLOSSARY

of the NP. It can be used both **generically** (*A dog will always remain a loyal friend*) and **non-generically** (*Our neighbours have a loud dog*). (AEG Ch. 3)

indefinite determiner

Some use the term **indefinite pronoun** or **indefinite determiner** to refer to **quantifiers**. This terminology can be useful in the sense that it differentiates between **pronouns** and **determiners**, whereas ‘quantifier’ leaves it vague whether there is a **head** following or not. On the other hand, while the majority of quantifiers have indefinite meaning, some of them do not (*both, all, each*). (AEG Ch. 3)

indefinite perfect

The **indefinite perfect** refers to the use of a **perfect tense** that represents a situation as lying completely before the **reference time (R)**. In other words, it does not continue up to, or include, R. Take for example the indefinite present perfect: the situation is located in the **pre-present time-sphere** and lies completely before the **moment of speech (S)**: *I have found a job in Berlin*. Indefinite past perfects (*I had already found a job in Berlin at that point*) or future perfects (*I hope I will have found a job in Berlin by then*) are possible as well. In these cases, however, the situations are not located in the pre-present time-sphere. They are **anterior** to Rs that do not coincide with the moment of speech. (AEG Ch. 4)

indefinite pronoun see indefinite determiner

independent genitive

An **independent genitive** is a genitive without a **head** noun: *The cup over there is my dad's*; *Have you visited St Paul's?*; *You can buy vegan sausage at the butcher's*. (AEG Ch. 3)

Indirect Object

An **Indirect Object (IO)** can be identified by looking first for the **Subject** and the **DO**, and then asking *to/for whom?* or, sometimes, *to/for what?* Generally speaking, it is not possible to have an IO without a DO. IOs can be realized as **NPs** (*They threw their grandkids a party*) or **PrepPs**, headed by *to* or *for* (*I gave it to her*; *He bought it for me*). (AEG Ch. 1)

individuating noun

An **individuating noun** has a singular, **countable** referent: *plate, postcard, bag, student*. When it combines with a plural marker it has plural reference. Compare to **collective noun**. (AEG Ch. 3)

infinitive clause, see *to*-infinitive

inflection

Inflection refers to the way the base form of a word (or **lexeme**) can change (often in the form of an ending added to the base form) to convey different kinds of grammatical information. In English, inflection affects nouns, verbs, adjective and certain adverbs. Here are some examples:

- the plural of (regular) **countable** nouns is signalled by inflection: (/s/ - /z/ - /ɪz/), *dog* > *dogs*; *cat* > *cats*; *ostrich* > *ostriches*;
- the **genitive** of nouns is signalled by the same inflection: (/s/ - /z/ - /ɪz/), *dog* > *dog's*; *cat* > *cat's*; *ostrich* > *ostrich's*;
- the third-person singular (**non-progressive**) present **tense** of **lexical verbs** is signalled by the same inflection as well: (/s/ - /z/ - /ɪz/), *you think* vs. *he thinks*; *I swim* vs. *she swims*; *they reach* vs. *it reaches* – note, too, *she is*, *he has*, *she does*;
- the past **tense** of (regular) verbs is signalled by inflection: (/t/ - /d/ - /ɪd/), *work* > *worked*; *sag* > *sagged*; *visit* > *visited*;
- the comparative and superlative of short adjectives and adverbs is signalled by inflection, *-er* and *-est*, respectively: *hot* > *hotter* > *hottest*; *fast* > *faster* > *fastest*.

Grammatical information is conveyed as much by the absence of inflection as by the presence of it: the (non-progressive) present **tense**, unless it has a third-person **Subject**, is signalled by the lack of any overt inflection. Likewise, the singular form a countable noun is signalled by the lack of any overt inflection.

Grammatical information can also be conveyed by way of **periphrastic forms**. These include, for example, the future **tense** (*I am* > *I will be*) and the comparative and superlative of longer adjectives and adverbs (*intelligent* > *more intelligent* > *most intelligent*; *quickly* > *more quickly* > *most quickly*). (AEG Ch. 3, Ch. 4)

information interrogative clause

An **information interrogative clause** is so called because it is asking for missing information (rather than inquiring into whether a state of affairs is the case (*yes*) or not (*no*), as in a **yes-no interrogative**). It is also referred to as a **wh-interrogative** because many interrogative elements in English begin with the letters *wh*. The answer provides the information that the speaker is missing – *yes* or *no* is not a possible answer. This type of **interrogative** can also be called a **partial interrogative** (the scope of the interrogation is limited to part

26 GLOSSARY

of the **clause**) or an **open interrogative** (any number of answers are possible): *Where do you live? How are you doing? What's the problem?* (AEG Ch. 2)

information packaging

Speakers have a rich grammatical repertoire at their disposal. **Information packaging** refers to the different ways in which the (basically) same **propositional** content of a **clause** can be organized based on how a speaker wants to present the information. The **passive voice** (*My bike was stolen* (cf. *Someone stole my bike*)), **it-clefts** (*It is sleep that I need* (cf. *I need sleep*)), **wh-clefts** (*What I need is sleep* (cf. *I need sleep*)) and **extraposition** (*It's interesting that you think that* (cf. *That you think that is interesting*)) are all examples of specific ways of packaging information. (AEG Ch. 6)

-ing clause

An **-ing clause** is a **non-finite subclause** that is **headed** by an **-ing participle**. An *ing*-clause can function as **Subject** (*Raising a teenager is a challenge*), a **DO** (*I hate getting up at 6 am*) or an **Adjunct** (*Watching the sunset, I was suddenly overcome with awe.*)

-ing participle

The **-ing participle** is a **non-finite** form of the verb that takes the **inflection** *-ing*. It can function as a verb (*They are swimming*), but also as a nominal element (*She enjoys swimming*) or as an adjective (*a swimming child*). Some use the term **gerund** when referring to the nominal use of the *-ing* form and **present participle** to refer to the verbal use or use as an adjective. In AEG we use *-ing* participle as a cover term for all uses. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 2, Ch. 4)

inherent endpoint

When looking at different **situation types**, **inherent endpoint** is a parameter referring to a point in a situation beyond which the situation cannot continue. Whereas *drink wine* does not have an inherent endpoint, *drink a glass of wine* does: once the quantity of wine in the glass has been drunk, the situation as it is represented in the **clause** (that of drinking a glass of wine) is exhausted. If a situation is represented in a clause as having an inherent endpoint, it does not necessarily mean that that endpoint is represented as having been reached: *He is drinking a glass of wine*. **Achievements** and **Accomplishments** have an inherent endpoint. **Activities** and **States** do not. (AEG Ch. 4)

interjection

Interjections are relatively short units that express some sort of emotion: *Wow! Damn! Oh my!* They are independent, stand-alone elements that are not integrated into a **clause**. (AEG Ch. 1)

interrogative clause, interrogative

An **interrogative clause** (or **interrogative**) is a form – it is the **clause type** typically used to ask a question. The word order usually exhibits inversion (with an **auxiliary** preceding the **Subject**: *Where are you from? Is she Belgian?*) when the clause is not **embedded** (*Tell me where you are from; I wonder if she is Belgian*). An important exception is when (in an **information interrogative**) the **wh-constituent** functions as Subject: *Who's coming? What's happening?* (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 2)

interrogative tag

An **interrogative tag** (also called a **question tag** or a **tag question**) is a short, elliptical **interrogative clause** immediately following an affirmative or negative **declarative clause**: *He's Italian, isn't he?; She doesn't like him, does she?* The tag uses the same **auxiliary** as in the **clause** to which it is appended, with obligatory **do-insertion** if the clause does not have an auxiliary. The **Subject** is always a **personal pronoun** or *there* – full NPs are not found in interrogative tags. See also **constant polarity**. (AEG Ch. 2)

interrogative, see interrogative clause

intransitive verb

An **intransitive verb** is a **lexical verb** that does not allow a **DO**: *He left (unexpectedly). She yawned (a lot)*. The bracketed items are **Adjuncts**, which are optional **constituents**. Some **transitive verbs** can be used intransitively: *He's reading a book* vs. *He's reading*; *She's eating her breakfast* vs. *She's eating*. (AEG Ch. 2)

inversion, see Subject-auxiliary inversion

irrealis mode, see past subjunctive

it-cleft

An **it-cleft** is a grammatical construction in which a **constituent** is highlighted by placing it after *It* plus a **finite** form of the verb *be* (*It is. . . It was. . .*). The rest of the **clause** follows the **subordinator** *that*: *It is sleep that I need*. This means that the highlighted constituent does not feature in its normal place with respect to the other constituents: *I need sleep*. Instead of *that*, *who* sometimes introduces the rest of the **sentence**: *It is Marie who arrived late*. Other less common configurations are possible as well: *It's John with whom I'm in love*. (AEG Ch. 6)

left stress, see compound

lexeme

Lexeme refers to the basic form of a word, to which **inflectional** suffixes can be added. In other words, while *work*, *works*, *working*, and *worked*

28 GLOSSARY

are different **word forms**, they are all instances of the single lexeme *work*. (AEG Ch. 1)

lexical markers of cohesion (lexical discourse markers)

Lexical markers of cohesion include different lexical items or expressions whose meaning itself contributes to **cohesion**. These include not only connectors of contrast (*although*), cause (*because*), consequence (*as a result*) and addition (*furthermore*), but also temporal connectors (*as soon as*). Spoken or written **discourse** that does not flow (or is 'disfluent') often results when these markers are not used optimally. Lexical markers of cohesion conspire with **grammatical markers of cohesion** to establish logical links with what occurs before and after a **clause**. (AEG Ch. 6)

lexical modal verbs

Have to and *need to* are **lexical modal verbs** (as opposed to modal auxiliaries). Some refer to them as **semi-modal verbs**. While they express **modal** meaning (that is, they do not represent situations as facts), they are unlike the **central modal auxiliaries** in that they are **lexical verbs** that require **do-insertion** in negative and inverted contexts. (AEG Ch. 5)

lexical semantics, see semantics

lexical verb, see auxiliary verb

light verb

A **light verb** such as *do*, *give*, *have*, *make* or *take* is a verb whose meaning is interpreted as a function of the **NP** that follows it (*have a break*, *take a shower*, *give a hand*, *do the twist*, *make a wish*). Light verbs contribute very little semantic content of their own. (AEG Ch. 2)

limited duration

Limited duration refers to several ways in which **progressive aspect** interacts with different **situation types**. To cite one example that brings *duration* to the foreground: a situation with a **punctual** (so, non-durative) verb such as *snap one's fingers* can combine with progressive aspect, but will be interpreted as a series of repeated situations: the **Subject referent** of *She was snapping her fingers* will be understood as having snapped her fingers several times. It is the duration conveyed via progressive aspect that results in the repetitive reading. The following is an example that shows how the progressive can represent a situation as *limited* in time: *My car has broken down, so I'm walking to work this week*. In this example, the impact of the progressive is that of representing the habit as temporary. (AEG Ch. 4)

limiting relative clause, see restrictive relative clause

linguistically expressed

If a specific meaning is **linguistically expressed**, it means that it is signalled either through the lexical meaning or the grammatical meaning of an item that features in the sentence. In *John read the book I gave him*, there is no marker that makes the temporal relation between the situation in the **main clause** and that in the (relative) **subclause** explicit (although our knowledge of the world is such that the hearer will know that the giving precedes (or is **anterior** to) the reading). In contrast, the past perfect linguistically expresses anteriority in *John read the book I had given him*, as does the **subordinating conjunction** *after* in *John read the book after I gave it to him*. (AEG Ch.4)

linking verb, see copula

locate a situation in time, see tense

main clause

We use **main clause** to refer either to a simple **clause** with no **embedded clause(s)** or to an **embedding clause** containing one or several embedded clauses. *He said he'd do it immediately* is a main clause which is also an embedding clause; *he'd do it immediately* is an embedded clause. *I like you* is an example of a (simple) main clause that does not contain an embedded clause. *He said he'd do it immediately because he likes her* is a main clause; it is an embedding clause which contains the embedded clause *he'd do it immediately because he likes her*. *He'd do it immediately because he likes her* is itself an embedding clause (but not a main clause) which contains the embedded clause *because he likes her*. (AEG Ch.1)

mandative subjunctive, see subjunctive

marginal modal

The verb *need* is a **marginal modal**; while it shares all of the formal characteristics of the **central modal auxiliaries** (namely, no **inflection** for person and number, no **non-finite** forms, **direct not-negation**, **Subject-auxiliary inversion** and **ellipsis**), it can only be used in **non-assertive contexts**. *Ought to* is also a marginal modal because, unlike the central modal auxiliaries, it is followed by *to* rather than a **bare infinitive**. (AEG Ch. 5)

mere possibility

We use the term **mere possibility** to refer to cases in which the **modal auxiliary** *can* or *may* (*could* or *might* when there is past time reference) expresses

30 GLOSSARY

non-epistemic possibility meaning that is not **ability** and not **permission**. In cases like these, the speaker is saying that a situation is possible or that it is possible for the **Subject referent** to do something: *Winters can be cold in Sweden; You can find a selection of sandwiches at the snack bar*. **Periphrastic forms** such as *be to* or *be possible to* occasionally express mere possibility as well: *Ancient ruins are to be seen throughout the city*. (AEG Ch. 5)

middle voice

Verbs that are used in the **middle voice** combine features of transitivity and intransitivity: *The door opened*. From a formal perspective, the verb *open* is like an **intransitive verb** in that it does not take a **complement**; from a semantic perspective, it is like a **transitive verb** because the **theme** is expressed, though it is not in the form of a **DO**. (AEG Ch. 2)

modal, see modality

modal auxiliaries, see central modal auxiliaries

modal past

A **modal past** is a past **tense** that does not communicate its unmarked temporal information (that is, location of a situation in the **past time-sphere**). Instead, it represents a situation as non-factual (hence the term *modal past*), that is, **hypothetical** or **counterfactual**, the **time** reference being present or future: *If I submitted an application by November, it would be assessed before the end of the year* has hypothetical, future time reference (= I may or may not submit an application); *If she had a job, she'd be busier* has counterfactual, present time reference (= she doesn't have a job). (AEG Ch. 5)

modal past perfect

A **modal past perfect** is a past perfect that does not communicate its unmarked temporal information (that is, **anteriority** with respect to another situation in the **past time-sphere**). Instead, it represents a situation as non-factual (hence the term *modal past perfect*): *If only she hadn't insisted so much*. Here, the past perfect refers to a past **counterfactual situation** (= but she did insist); it does not refer to a situation that is **anterior** to another past situation. (AEG Ch. 5)

modal sentence

We use modal sentence as a shortcut to refer to any sentence with a modal verb.

modality

Modality is a concept that refers to the meaning expressed by a large array of forms that do not represent situation as facts. In AEG the focus is on **modal**

auxiliaries and **modal lexical verbs**, the **modal past** and the **modal past perfect**, and the **subjunctive**, but adverbs such as *perhaps* or *maybe* and adjectives (*it is likely*, *it is impossible*) can likewise represent situations as less than factual. The non-factual situations referred to by modal verbs are often tied up with the notions of **possibility** (*You can leave* (= it is possible for you to leave)) and **necessity** (*You must leave* (= it is necessary for you to leave)). **Hypothetical** and **counterfactual situations** also fall within the domain of modality. (AEG Ch. 5)

moment of speech (S)

The **moment of speech (S)** refers the speaker's 'now'; it is usually the time at which the speaker is communicating, but occasionally it is the time of perception by the hearer. For example, the speaker is obviously not at the library when she tapes the note 'I'm at the library' on her office door. Rather, she accommodates the hearer by adopting the hearer's 'now', which is yet to come. **E** stands for **event time** (in AEG we refer to an event as a situation). It refers to the time of the situation referred to in a **clause**. **R (reference time)** refers to the point in time or the vantage point from which a situation is perceived. For instance, in the case of the present **perfect**, S and R coincide: the speaker looks at a situation located in the **pre-present** from the point of view of S. In the case of the past **tense**, the speaker looks at a situation located in the past time-sphere from a vantage point (R) which lies in the past time-sphere. (AEG Ch. 4)

morphology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the structure of words. More specifically, it recognizes units of meaning smaller than the level of the word – meaning conveyed by what we call, for example, the past **tense marker** /t/ – /d/ – /ɪd/ or the plural marker /s/ – /z/ – /ɪz/. The subbranch of morphology dealing with the meaning of grammatical markers such as these is called **inflectional morphology**: inflectional morphemes are used to build different forms of one **lexeme**. The subbranch dealing with the meaning and properties of prefixes such as *un-* or suffixes such as *-ness* (*un* + *happi* + *ness*) is called **derivational morphology**: derivational morphemes are used to build new lexemes from existing ones. The mechanisms underlying the process of nominal **compounding** (*building permit*, *school teacher*) are also of interest to morphologists. (AEG Ch. 1)

narrative present

When the speaker uses a present **tense** to tell a story that has **past time reference**, she uses the **narrative present**: *So the other day I'm sitting in a café and*

32 GLOSSARY

working on my computer when all of a sudden somebody I don't know comes up to me and says he knows me. (AEG Ch. 4)

necessity, see modality

negation, see direct *not*-negation

negative expression of similarity, see expressions of similarity

negative possibility

When the negative marker is used in a sentence with a **possibility modal**, we say that the **sentence** expresses a **negative possibility** if the negation bears not on the modal verb (M) but on the **proposition** (P) (see **scope of negation**), as in *The teacher may not accept your proposal* (= it is possible that she will not accept your proposal). Conversely, a modal sentence expresses **impossibility** when the negation bears on the modal verb (M) rather than on the proposition (P): *Unaccompanied children may not enter* (= it is not possible (or 'impossible') for unaccompanied children to enter). (AEG Ch. 5)

non-assertive context

A **non-assertive context** is one that is negative or interrogative in tone: *I can't explain the problem; Can you give me a hand?* In contrast, *Can't you find someone to replace her?* is assertive because it is affirmative and declarative in tone (= I'm sure you can find someone to replace her – compare to *Can't you find anyone to replace her?*, which is non-assertive because the tone remains negative.) The **modal auxiliary need** is only used in non-assertive contexts: *Need I do it? She needn't do it*, but **She need do it*. The quantifier *any* is restricted to non-assertive contexts as well: *Do you have any? I don't have any*, but **I have any*. (AEG Ch. 3, Ch. 5)

non-epistemic modality

Non-epistemic modality (also called **root modality**) is concerned with the **actualization** of situations (or, more specifically, the **possibility** or **necessity** of a situation to actualize). The speaker may represent a situation as necessary (*Tickets must be purchased online*) or as possible (*Winters can be cold in New York*). She may say that the **Subject referent** has (or does not have) the **ability** to do something (*Sue can (or cannot) speak Swedish*) or the **permission** to do something (*You may (or may not) park here*), or that it is necessary for someone to do something (*You must/should/need to get in touch with him*). (AEG Ch. 5)

non-finite clause

A **non-finite clause** contains a **VP** with a **non-finite verb**, that is, a verb that is not marked for **tense**: *Remember to fill up the car; My friends made me do*

it; Do you resent being told what to do?; Seen from Earth, Mars looks like a star. (AEG Ch. 1)

non-finite verb, see non-finite clause

non-generic non-specific NP

A **non-generic non-specific NP** is an NP that refers to a potential, arbitrary instantiation of the **head** noun: *Would you mind putting these glasses on a tray?; If we buy a car, I want the seats to be made of leather.* (AEG Ch. 3)

non-generic reference

An **NP** with **non-generic reference** does not refer to a class as a whole (compare to **generic reference**). Rather, it refers to an individual member or individual members of the entire class of like items: *Would you mind putting the/some glasses on a/the tray?* (AEG Ch. 3)

non-generic specific NP

A **non-generic specific NP** is an NP that refers to a specific instantiation of the **head** noun: *Would you mind putting the glasses on a tray? I had soup at 11 a.m.* (AEG Ch. 3)

non-restrictive relative clause

A **non-restrictive relative clause** is a **relative clause** that provides additional information about the **head** noun but does not restrict or narrow down the referent(s) of the **NP**. In *He informed the manager, who apologized for the incident*, the relative clause does not serve to indicate which manager. Rather, it gives additional information (in this case, about what the manager did after being informed). (AEG Ch. 3)

non-specific, see non-generic non-specific

noun phrase (NP)

A **noun phrase** is a **constituent** whose **head** is a noun (*[happiness], [the black cat], [the destruction of the city], [the furniture you bought])* or a pronoun (*[he], [that], [hers], [everyone present], [nothing to be alarmed by])*). The NPs here are in brackets, and the heads of the NPs are underlined. Nouns refer to, for example, people, objects, places, actions or ideas and are either **concrete** or **abstract**. From a **distributional** perspective, they co-occur with **determiners** and adjectives (both of which precede the **head** noun in the NP (see **prehead**)) and with **relative clauses** and **PrepPs** (which follow the head noun in the NP (see **posthead**)). (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 3)

noun, see noun phrase

34 GLOSSARY

Object Complement

An **Object Complement (OC)** ascribes a property to the **DO**. It can be an **NP** (*They called him a liar*) or an **AdjP** (*Let's paint the room dark purple*). *Make*, *name*, *consider* and *elect* are examples of verbs that are often (but not always) used with an OC: *That makes me angry*; *They named her Sarah*; *I consider him the best candidate*; *They elected her president*. A **clause** can sometimes function as an OC as well: *I call that stretching things too far*. (AEG Ch. 1)

Object of a Preposition

An **Object of a Preposition** is the syntactically obligatory **constituent**, usually taking the **form** of an **NP**, that directly follows a preposition in a **PrepP**: *on the table*, *since last week*, *right under his nose*. Other forms are occasionally found as well: *I'm interested in where I can buy some postcards*. Object of a Preposition is a **function** that relates to the phrasal level rather than the clausal level. That is, it refers to a function within a phrase. (AEG Ch. 1)

ongoingness, see aspect

open class, see lexical verb

open interrogative, see information interrogative clause

part of speech

Part of speech is the term we use to refer to a class, or **category**, of words (or **word class**) which share certain **formal** and **distributional properties**. In English, the parts of speech are noun (*cat*), verb (*learn*), adverb (*carefully*), adjective (*simple*), preposition (*up*), **determiner** (*the*) and **conjunction** (*and*, *because*). Some consider the **pronoun** (*he*) to be a separate part of speech; we include it in the category *noun*. **Interjections** (*Darn!*) are syntactically independent items. They constitute a fairly heterogeneous category that it is hard to capture in terms of the standard syntactic functions we discuss in AEG.

partial interrogative, see information interrogative clause

particle verb

A **particle verb** is a multi-word verb that consists of a verb and a particle: *Look up the meaning on the Internet* (*Look it up*); *He put down his pen* (*He put it down*). At first sight, particle verbs bear a strong resemblance to **prepositional verbs**: *Please look into this problem*. However, there are clear formal distinctions between the two types of verb. A particle verb takes a **DO complement**. (A particle verb can be **intransitive** as well, as in *Please, come in*.) A preposi-

tional verb is a single-unit verb that takes a **PO** as complement – the **PrepP** *into this problem* in the example above. (A prepositional verb can be **transitive** too, in which case it takes a **DO** as well: *I think I can talk him into it.*) And while the **NP** following the particle can feature before the particle (*Look the meaning up on the Internet*), it is not possible for the **NP** in the **PrepP** functioning as **PO** to feature before the preposition: **Please look this problem into.* (AEG Ch. 2)

partitive

Partitive use or partitive meaning implies that there is reference to one, several or all members of a set or to a subpart or all of an amount: *a friend of hers* (= one of her friends), *some friends of hers* (= some of her friends), *all of the cake*. Partitive constructions can also be found in **non-restrictive relative clauses**: *The girls, all of whom were underage, were arrested*; *Margaret Atwood has published some 20 novels, two of which have been awarded the Booker Prize.* (AEG Ch. 3)

passive markers, see passive voice

passive voice

Most **transitive** and **ditransitive verbs** (but not **intransitive verbs**) can be used in the **passive voice**. Whereas the **active voice** is signalled by the absence of any specific markers, the passive voice is signalled by **passive markers**, which are the **auxiliary** *be*, combined with the **past participle** (verb + -EN) of the verb. The passive and the active voice are often represented as a transformational mechanism, whereby an active **sentence** can be converted into a passive sentence. In AEG we acknowledge that it can be helpful to spell out the formal link between active and passive **clauses**. That said, we have emphasized that the use of either voice stems from the way in which the speaker chooses to represent information (see **information packaging**): when the passive voice is used, it is the **theme**, the **recipient** or the **beneficiary** that features in **Subject** position (rather than the **agent** or **experiencer**, which features in Subject position in the active voice). (AEG Ch. 2)

past form, see past time reference

past future tense

Past future is a tense that represents a situation (**E**) as being **posterior** to a **reference time** (**R**) that is located in the **past time-sphere**: *They said they would be late*. Like the future perfect and the **past future perfect**, the past future does not, on its own, locate the situation in a specific **time-sphere**. (AEG Ch. 4)

past future perfect tense

36 GLOSSARY

The **past future perfect tense** is **tense** that represents a situation (E) as **anterior** (through the use of *have*) to a **reference time (R)** that is itself **posterior** (through the use of *would*) to a past moment in time: (*They said*) *they would have finished by then*. Like the future perfect and the **past future**, the past future perfect does not, on its own, locate the situation in a specific **time-sphere**. (AEG Ch. 4)

past participle

The **past participle** of a verb is a **non-finite** form of the verb that takes the **inflection** -EN. The shape of this inflection is -ed for regular verbs (*I have worked* (< work + -EN) but is unpredictable for many irregular verbs (*the criminal was caught* (< catch + -EN). The past participle is used to build the **perfect tenses** (*has tried*, *had tried*, *will have tried*, *would have tried*) and to build a **passive** form (*He has been fired*) of the verb. It is used as the **head** verb in a **non-finite clause** (*Seen from Earth, Mars looks like a star*) and can also be used as an adjective (*a cooked meal*). The past participle is often called an -ed participle. As just observed, while the inflection often takes the form -ed, this is not always the case. (AEG Ch. 4)

past subjunctive

The label **past subjunctive** or **irrealis mode** is sometimes used to capture the meaning of *were* when it expresses **counterfactual** meaning. This form is used in a **subclause**, for instance, following the **subordinating conjunction** *if* or with **Subject-auxiliary inversion**: *If I were I rich/Were I rich, I would retire at 30*. In AEG this form is considered to be a **modal past**. (AEG Ch. 5)

past time reference

Past time reference refers to the location of a situation in the past **time-sphere**. The past **tense** usually has past time reference and locates a situation in the past time-sphere, but not always. For example, in **counterfactual sentences** (*If I knew how to swim. . .*), the **past form** *knew* has present time reference: *if I knew how to swim now*. This highlights the usefulness of keeping distinct the notion of past time reference and that of past form. The past form of many **modals** can, but often does not, have past time reference: *I could swim when I was a kid* vs. *Could you teach me (= now, or sometime in the future) how to swim?* (AEG Ch. 5)

past time-sphere, see time-spheres

perfect infinitive

A **perfect infinitive** is a form of the infinitive that expresses a relation of **anteriority**; it consists of *have* followed by a **past participle** (verb + -EN): *He seems to have forgotten/to have been working too hard; He seemed to have forgotten/to have been working too hard*. As these examples show, a perfect infinitive can be marked with **progressive aspect**. The examples also highlight that the situation represented with a perfect infinitive can be located in different **time-spheres**. In AEG, we treat perfect infinitives mostly in **modal** sentences: *He may have forgotten; She might have been working*. (AEG Ch. 4)

perfect tense

A **perfect tense** is a verb form that consists of the **auxiliary** *have* followed by a **past participle** (verb + -EN). Perfect tenses express **anteriority** with respect to a **reference time (R)**. There are four perfect tenses in English: the present perfect, past perfect, future perfect and **past future perfect**. By way of example, the present perfect is used to **locate a situation** in the **pre-present time-sphere**, that is, in a period of **time** starting before now and leading up to now: *I have resigned from the committee*. The reference time in this case is the **moment of speech**. (AEG Ch. 2)

performative verb

When a speaker uses a **performative verb**, she simultaneously performs the action that the verb represents simply by uttering the **clause**: *I acknowledge the facts; I confess that I was wrong*. By simply saying these **sentences**, the speaker brings about the **actualization** of acknowledging or confessing. (AEG Ch. 4)

periphrastic do

Periphrastic do is used in contexts in which **lexical verbs** require **do-insertion**, that is, in **clauses** in which there is inversion (*Did he raise any objections?*) or negation (*The reviewer didn't formulate any serious objections*) or in contexts in which there is **ellipsis** (*No, he didn't*). In cases like these, *do* is a device that does not carry meaning but it is called upon to fulfil a syntactic or formal requirement.

periphrastic form

A **periphrastic form** is a form that carries the same meaning as another form, but via separate words rather than an **inflection**. For instance, as *must* cannot have **past time reference** in a main clause, we say that *had to* is the periphrastic form used to express the **modal** meaning of **necessity** with past time reference: *Sadly, we had to (*must) put down our cat yesterday. The murder of the woman* (as opposed to *the woman's murder*) is another example of periphrastic form.

38 GLOSSARY

Do can likewise be used as a periphrastic form (see **periphrastic do**). (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 5)

permission

Permission is a **modal** meaning that is expressed via *can*, *could*, *may* or *might*. The **periphrastic forms** *be allowed to* and *be permitted to* express permission as well. When a speaker grants permission, it results in the hearer's being allowed to do something. In other words, the granting of permission makes a situation possible. Refusing permission removes that **possibility**. Asking for permission is in essence an inquiry as to whether a situation is possible. (AEG Ch. 5)

personal pronoun, see pronoun

positive expression of similarity, see expressions of similarity

possessive determiners

My, *your*, *her*, *his*, *its*, *our* and *their* are **possessive determiners**; they are followed by a **head** noun in an **NP**. In contrast, *mine*, *yours*, *hers*, *his*, *ours*, *theirs* are **possessive pronouns**; they constitute the head of the **NP**. Some grammars consider possessive determiners like *my* and *your* to be dependent (or weak) **pronouns**: they cannot be used without a noun head. They then analyse *mine*, *yours* and so on as the independent (or strong) forms of these same pronouns insofar as they can occur alone as noun heads. In AEG we classify forms like *my* and *your* as **determiners** and concentrate on their determinative function. (AEG Ch. 3)

possessive pronouns, see possessive determiners

possibility, see modality

post-present time-sphere, see time-sphere

postcedent, see antecedent

posterior(ity)

Informally speaking, **posteriority** refers to a relationship of 'after-ness' – a situation is said to **posterior** to a point in **time** when it is located after it. The **tense marker** *will*, used with the future **tense** and the future perfect, and the tense marker *would*, used with the **future past**, express **posteriority**. (AEG Ch. 4)

posthead

A **posthead** is an item that occurs after the **head** of a phrase. In the **NP** *a hat that is red*, the **relative clause** *that is red* is a posthead to the head (noun) *hat*;

in the AdjP *dependent on her dad*, the **PrepP** *on her dad* is a posthead to the head (adjective) *dependent*. (AEG Ch. 1)

pragmatics

Pragmatics is the branch of linguistics that studies the ways in which the use of language is context-dependent. As such, it deals more intimately with a speaker's intended meaning in actual communicative situations rather than the mere literal interpretation of what she says. When a speaker says *The window is open*, what she may mean is that she wants the hearer to close it, though in terms of her words, she has simply made a statement. Similarly, when a hearer hears *Do you have the time?*, he knows that he is not expected to simply respond *Yes, I do*. Pragmatics studies the mechanisms that enable speakers and hearers to communicate and infer more than what is expressed literally. (AEG Ch. 1)

pre-present time-sphere, see time-spheres

Predicate

A **Predicate** is what is left of a **clause** when the **Subject** is removed. It consists of a verb and its **complements** (if any), and **Adjuncts** (if any): *He likes to go the movies on Friday evenings*. (AEG Ch. 1)

predicative

When adjectives are related to an **NP** through the verb *be* or another **linking verb** (*seem, look, appear*), we say that their function is **predicative** (that is, 'part of the **Predicate**'): *The visit was heart-warming; Her presentation was impressive*. Most adjectives can be used predicatively, but some cannot: *the main reason*, but **The reason is main*. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 3)

prehead

A **prehead** is an item that occurs before the **head** of a phrase. In the **NP** *a red hat*, the **determiner** *a* and the adjective *red* are preheads; so is the adverb *remarkably* in the **AdvP** *remarkably clear*. (AEG Ch. 1)

preposed (near-)negative adverb

A **clause** with a **preposed (near-)negative adverb** is one in which a negative **adverbial** (*never, not once*) or an adverb that is negative in meaning (*seldom, rarely* (= 'not often')) features in **sentence**-initial position for emphasis. This position triggers **Subject-auxiliary inversion**: *Never had I seen anything like it; In no way do I condone such practices*. (AEG Ch. 2)

preposition stranding

Preposition stranding occurs when an NP which is the **Object of a Preposition** does not occur after the preposition in the **PrepP** but, rather, earlier in the **sentence**. This is commonly found in **relative clauses**. As a result, one has the impression that the preposition has been left behind or ‘stranded’: *This is the book I’m most interested in*. Compare this to *This is the book in which I’m most interested*, where the Object of the Preposition *in* (here, the **relative pronoun** *which*) follows the preposition. When the preposition is not stranded, the resulting clause sounds more formal. In addition to relative clauses, prepositions can be stranded in **interrogative clauses** (*Who is he talking to?*), in **passive constructions** (*Our dog was run over*) and in certain infinitival constructions with *to* (*She’s an interesting person to talk to*). (AEG Ch. 3)

preposition, see prepositional phrase

Prepositional Complement

A **Prepositional Complement (PC)** is a syntactically obligatory **constituent** taking the **form** of a **PrepP**. Unlike a **PO**, it is not related to a **prepositional verb**. It cannot be left out without resulting in an **ungrammatical sentence** or a sentence that has a significantly different meaning: *He lives in Lille* vs. *He lives!* (= He’s alive!). *Here* and *there* function as PCs in a sentence like *Put it here/there*, although they are not PrepPs. This makes sense when we consider that *here* and *there* can be easily paraphrased with a PrepP: *Put it there* (= on the table, under the chair, next to the desk). (AEG Ch. 1)

Prepositional Object

A **Prepositional Object** is a type of **complement**. More specifically, it is a **PrepP** the **head** of which belongs to a **prepositional verb**. The bracketed PrepPs in the following examples function as Prepositional Objects, and the prepositional verbs are underlined: *I’m waiting [for the bus]*; *She often listens [to music]*; *Look [at that painting]*. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 2)

prepositional particle verb

A **prepositional particle verb** is a verb that combines the use of both a particle and a preposition. It can be **intransitive** (*I can’t put up with this noise*) or **transitive** (*Who put you up to this?*). When a prepositional particle verb is transitive, the particle almost always features after the DO: *Who put the boys up to this?* rather than *?Who put up the boys to this?* This is not the case in sentences with a transitive **particle verb**, where the (non-pronominal) DO can feature before or after the particle: *Who looked the word up?* *Who looked up the word?* (AEG Ch. 2)

prepositional phrase (PrepP)

A **prepositional phrase** is a **constituent** whose **head** is a preposition: [under the stairs], [of the city], where the PrepPs are in brackets and the heads of the PrepPs are underlined. PrepPs always have a **posthead**, called the **Object of a Preposition**. This is usually an NP: *under the stairs*; *of the city*. Non-NP objects can be found as well: *Let's wait until after the party*, where the Object of the Preposition *until* is a PrepP. At the level of the phrase, a PrepP itself can be a posthead to a noun (*the cupboard [under the stairs]*, *the destruction [of the city]*), an adverb (*independently [of her]*) or an adjective (*afraid [of snakes]*). At the clausal level, a PrepP can function as a **PO** (*I was looking [for a pen]*; *They never listen [to their teacher]*), as an **IO** (*I sent a letter [to the editor]*; *I bought a present [for my sister]*), as a **PC** (*They live [in Brussels]*; *Mary put it [behind the desk]*) or as an **Adjunct** (*They're playing [in the garden]*; *They called me [at 9am]*). (AEG Ch. 1)

prepositional verb

A **prepositional verb** is a verb that is **complemented by** a **PrepP**. The **function** of this PrepP is **PO**: *I ran into my French teacher yesterday*; *Henry takes after his uncle*. If the prepositional verb is **transitive**, it is further complemented by a **DO** directly after the verb: *You've read too much into his text message*. (AEG Ch. 2)

prescriptive grammar

A **prescriptive grammar** seeks to arbitrate on which of two or more competing forms in a language – that is, two or more **grammatically** different ways of expressing the same thing – is the correct one. Its stance is often 'say (or write) it this way, not this way'; in other words, it **prescribes**. Given that vast areas of grammar are subject to no variation, a prescriptive grammar in the end addresses only a very small part of the grammar of a language. One example is the use of *who* vs. *whom*: although *who* has now all but taken over the uses of *whom*, a prescriptive grammar might very well maintain that *whom* (and only *whom*) is correct in a **sentence** of the type *This is my sister, whom I think you've already met*. (AEG Ch. 1)

present participle, see *-ing* participle

present time-sphere, see time-spheres

primary auxiliaries

The **primary auxiliaries** are *be*, *have* and *do*:

- the auxiliary *be* (in conjunction with the **-ing participle** (verb + -ING) of a verb) is the marker for **progressive aspect**: *We are working hard on the manuscript*;

42 GLOSSARY

- the auxiliary *be* (in conjunction with the **past participle** (verb + -EN) of a verb) is also the usual marker for the **passive voice**: *The second edition will be published in less than a year's time*;
- the auxiliary *have* (in conjunction with the past participle of a verb) is the marker for the **perfect tenses**: *We have finished the first draft*;
- **periphrastic do** is used in contexts in which **lexical verbs** require **do-insertion**, that is, in **clauses** in which there is inversion (*Did he raise any objections?*) or negation (*The reviewer didn't formulate any serious objections*) or in contexts in which there is **ellipsis** (*No, he didn't*).

Syntactically speaking, *be* always behaves as an auxiliary (although it can be used on its own as a **copular verb** (or **linking verb**): *They are students*). *Have* and *do* can be lexical verbs as well as auxiliaries: *I have a headache*; *She's doing her homework*. (AEG Ch. 2)

productive process

If we say a word formation process constitutes a **productive process**, this means that speakers can create new combinations spontaneously when the need arises. The use of prefixes and suffixes in derivational **morphology**, for example, is productive. **Compounding** is a productive process as well. (AEG Ch. 1)

progressive aspect, see aspect

progressive marker

The **progressive marker** consists of a form of the verb *be* and the **-ing participle** of a verb: *She was answering the phone when I walked in*; *A new bridge is being built*; *They might be coming*. (AEG Ch. 4)

progressive of affect

The **progressive of affect** is a special use of the progressive that serves to express a positive or negative emotion about a situation that is repeated. The progressive of affect necessarily combines with an adverb that expresses repetition or frequency: *You are endlessly shouting*; *She is always thinking of others first*. (AEG Ch. 4)

pronoun

Pronouns (*I, you, he, she, it* and *they* are called **personal pronouns**) constitute a subclass of the **category** 'noun'. There are **demonstrative**, **relative**, **interrogative** and **indefinite pronouns** as well. While informally we might define 'pro-nouns' as placeholders for nouns, a more accurate definition is that pronouns are on a par with **NPs**: we can replace the NP **constituents**

in *[My parents] have sold [their house]* with pronouns, giving us *[They] have sold [it]* – *they* and *it* fill the NP position. They are not on a par with the nouns *parents* and *house*. We stick to the traditional label ‘pronoun’, although it would be more accurate to refer to them as ‘pro-NPs’. (AEG Ch. 1)

proper noun

A **proper noun** is a (proper) name whose referent is a specific person, place or thing: *Henry, New York, St Alban's, Lake Michigan*. All other nouns are **common nouns**: *happiness, rain, dogs, love*. (AEG Ch. 3)

proposition

We use the term **proposition** to refer to the basic meaning of a **clause** irrespective of, for example, the temporal location, the **aspectual** choice or its voice (**active** versus **passive**): *The cat chases/was chasing the mouse* and *The mouse is being chased/was chased by the cat* all share the same propositional content. In AEG, we also use ‘proposition’ to refer to the semantic content of a modal sentence without the expression of modality: in *He can swim well*, the proposition is {*he – swim well*} to which is added the modal meaning of permission.

proximal agreement

Proximal agreement comes to the fore when the **Subject NP** is complex, that is, when it contains more than one NP. Proximal agreement means that the number of the verb is determined by the NP that is closest to the verb. For instance, when *none, either* or *neither* – which are grammatically singular forms – are followed by a plural noun in an *of-PrepP* that functions as (notional) Subject, a singular verb shows **formal agreement**, whereas a plural verb shows proximal agreement.

Neither of my parents is coming. (formal agreement with singular *neither*)

Neither of my parents are coming. (proximal agreement with plural *parents*)

Proximal agreement of this kind has often been deemed incorrect by **prescriptive** grammarians, but both forms are found and are acceptable.

There is likewise proximal agreement in **sentences** with *there*: again, the verb agrees with the NP that is closest to the verb: *The flat is very spacious. There is a study and two bedrooms./There are two bedrooms and a study.* (AEG Ch. 3)

proximal demonstratives

This (singular) and *these* (plural) are **proximal demonstratives**. They refer to items that the speaker conceives as being close to her. The notion of proximity is very often spatial (*Do you like this dress?* (speaker is holding a dress and showing it to the hearer) or temporal (*This week has been very busy*). In a

44 GLOSSARY

stretch of **discourse**, proximal demonstratives are often associated with **cataphoric reference**. In *Listen to this*, the referent associated with 'this' occurs later in the discourse. (AEG Ch. 3)

punctual, see duration

quantifier

Quantifiers are **determiners** that give information about the quantity of the **head** noun in the **NP**, be it in terms of number (for **countables** in the plural: *(a) few students*, *many votes*, *some reservations*, *both children*, *all employees*, *each year*, *every customer*) or amount (for **uncountables**: *(a) little patience*, *a lot of money*, *some information*, *any food*, (not) *much time*). Many quantifiers can also be used as **pronouns** (*He gave me some*; *I don't want any*). The terms **indefinite determiner** and **indefinite pronoun** are sometimes used to refer to quantifiers. (AEG Ch. 3)

question tag, see interrogative tag

recipient

Recipient is a **semantic role**; it refers to the receiver in a transfer of ownership or possession (*I offered her a book*), although the notion of transfer can have a broader meaning as well (*He gave me a scornful look*). In an **active sentence**, a **constituent** having the semantic role of recipient regularly functions as **IO** and takes the **form** of an **NP** (*I told Ida a story about a polar bear*) or a *to*-PrepP (*I told the story to Ida*). In a **passive sentence**, a constituent having the semantic role of recipient regularly functions as **Subject**: *Ida was told a story*. In this case, it is always an NP – a recipient realized as a **PrepP** cannot function as Subject. (AEG Ch. 2)

reference time (R), see moment of speech

referential agreement

There is **referential agreement** when the number (singular or plural) of the verb is determined by the referent of the **Subject NP** rather than by the morphological number of the Subject NP. **Collective nouns** often trigger referential agreement, although this is far more common in European varieties of English than in North American varieties: *The staff work from 8 till 5*; *The committee were divided on the question*. (AEG Ch. 3)

relative clause

A **relative clause** is a post-modifying clausal adjective that is usually part of an **NP**: *I like the dress you're wearing*; *The dress, which she'd bought years before, still*

fit her. Relative clauses can also be **sentential**, referring back to a **clause**: *He's not going to come, which is a huge relief*. In this case, the relative clause is not part of an NP and does not have a post-modifying function. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 3)

relative clause with partitive meaning

A **relative clause with partitive meaning** is used to refer to one, several or all members of a set or to refer to a subpart or all of an amount. The **relative pronoun** *which* or *whom* refers to the set or amount. This type of relative clause is introduced by a **quantifier** or a numeral followed by the preposition *of*: *both of which. . ., all of whom. . ., two of which. . ., some of whom. . .* (AEG Ch. 3)

relative determiner

Whose can be a **relative determiner**. **Prescriptive** approaches to grammar often stipulate that the **antecedent** must be human. In fact, its antecedent can be **animate** or **inanimate**: *Have you ever known anyone whose life has been disrupted by serious disease?; What's the title of that movie whose director was arrested last week?* (AEG Ch. 3)

relative pronoun

Relative clauses are usually introduced by a **relative pronoun** (*that, which, who, whom*): *the book that they wrote, the women who you're talking about*. The form of the relative pronoun is determined by (i) the nature of the relative clause (**restrictive** or **non-restrictive**), (ii) the nature of the **antecedent** (**animate** or **inanimate**) and (iii) the syntactic **function** of the pronoun in the relative clause. The relative pronoun is often not expressed (it is a 'zero' relative pronoun) in **restrictive relative clauses** when its function is not that of **Subject**: *the book they wrote, the women you're talking about*. In **non-restrictive relative clauses** (*the book, which I've already read. . .*), and in restrictive relative clauses where the relative pronoun functions as Subject (*the book which/that is on the table. . .*), the relative pronoun is always expressed. (AEG Ch. 3)

repetitive perfect

The **repetitive perfect** refers to the use of a **perfect tense** that represents a number of sub-situations that lie before the **reference time (R)**. Take for example the repetitive **present** perfect: the situation (itself made up of sub-situations) is located in the **pre-present time-sphere** and continues up to the **moment of speech (S)**: *Peter has been to Berlin a couple of times*. Repetitive past perfects (*Peter had been to Berlin a couple of times before that*) or future perfects (*Peter will have been to Berlin a couple of times by then*) are possible as well. In these cases, however, the situations are not located in the pre-present time-sphere. They are **anterior** to Rs that do not coincide with the moment of speech. (AEG Ch. 4)

46 GLOSSARY

response, see *yes-no* interrogative clause

restrictive relative clause

A **restrictive** (or **defining**, or **limiting**) **relative clause** is a **relative clause** that narrows down the referent of the **head** noun in the sense that the addition of the modifier restricts the number of potential referents in the real world. In other words, a restrictive relative clause can answer the question *which one?* or *which ones?*: *I'd like to speak to the manager who helped me out last week.* (AEG Ch. 3)

reverse polarity, see constant polarity

right stress, see compound

root modality, see non-epistemic modality

scope of negation

The term **scope of negation** is used to refer to the part of the **sentence** that the negation bears on. For instance, in *Unaccompanied children may not enter*, the scope of negation is on *may* (or on **M**: It is not possible for you to enter) whereas in *The teacher may not accept your proposal*, the scope of the negation is on 'accept your proposal' (or on **P**: it is possible that she will not accept your proposal). (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 3, Ch. 5)

semantic roles

Semantic roles capture the ways in which **NP** referents participate in a situation centred around the main verb in a **clause**. Clauses refer to situations as they are perceived by speakers. For each proposition expressed through a clause, there are a number of participants involved. Semantic roles capture what this involvement means for the different participants. In *I sent it to her*, for instance, the three NPs enter into different interconnecting relationships: there is a sender (**agent**), a receiver (**recipient**) and an object sent (**theme**). (AEG Ch. 2)

semantics

Semantics is the branch of linguistics that deals with meaning. **Sentence semantics** looks at the meaning of **clauses** and **sentences** and the relationships between them. It looks at, for example, notions such as presupposition: when a speaker says *I no longer smoke*, the hearer understands implicitly that the speaker used to smoke. **Lexical semantics** analyses the meanings of words and relations between, for example, synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms and hyponyms (the latter two referring, respectively, to general terms ('vegetable') and to the specific terms they include ('rutabaga', 'cabbage', 'spinach')). Some approaches to semantics are informed by the fields of logic and philosophy. (AEG Ch. 1)

semi-modal verbs, see lexical modal verbs

sentence

A **sentence** is a concept that refers to the strings of words that, in writing, end with a full stop, an exclamation mark or a question mark. A sentence may consist of one **clause** (a **Subject** and a **Predicate**) or several clauses. The latter may be **coordinated** (*I'm taking a train at 6, so I should be home by 7*), or one may be **subordinate** to the other (*I hope he'll come*). A clause is not always a sentence (a **subclause**, for example, is not), and a sentence may consist of more than one clause, but does not necessarily. (AEG Ch. 1)

sentence adverb, see adverb phrase

sentence semantics, see semantics

sentential relative clause

A **sentential relative clause** is a **non-restrictive relative clause** that takes a complete clause as its **antecedent**: *Hardly any students accepted the invitation, which is surprising*. It is not part of an **NP** and does not have a post-modifying function. Rather, it serves to comment on the clause it refers back to. (AEG Ch. 3)

short answer

A **short answer** is a **declarative clause** consisting of a **Subject** and an **auxiliary** in which the **VP** has been **ellipted**: *I do; They have; He can*. A short answer does not necessarily answer a question. It can also be used to express agreement or disagreement: *This food is good. – Yes, it is./No, it isn't*. (AEG Ch. 2)

short interrogative

A **short interrogative** is an **interrogative clause** consisting of an inverted **Subject** and **auxiliary** in which the **VP** has been **ellipted**: *Do you really? Have they? Can he?* **Interrogative tags** are a specific kind of short interrogative. (AEG Ch. 2)

short negative

A **short negative** is special form an **auxiliary** can take when it is marked for negation. It is marked by *-n't*: *isn't, doesn't, wasn't, haven't, hadn't, shouldn't, wouldn't*. The written and spoken forms of some short negatives are unpredictable: *can't, shan't, don't, won't, Mayn't* and *mightn't* are comparatively uncommon. There is no short negative form for *am* in standard English. (AEG Ch. 2)

situation type

Situation type is a term that captures the different kinds of 'states of affairs' that may be represented by a speaker in a **clause**. The 'plus' and 'minus' combi-

48 GLOSSARY

nations of the parameters **duration**, **dynamicity** and **inherent endpoint** result in four different **situation types**: **Accomplishment**, **Achievement**, **Activity** and **State**. The effect of **progressive aspect** is intimately linked with the situation type that it interacts with. (AEG Ch. 4)

specific, see non-generic specific

State

A situation is said to be a **State** if it (i) has **duration** (it has a temporal contour), (ii) does not require input of energy (it is not **dynamic**) and (iii) does not include an intended or **inherent endpoint** beyond which the situation cannot continue: *He likes training for marathons*. (AEG Ch. 4)

stative situation

A **stative situation** is any non-**State** situation that is presented as recurring regularly in an unlimited way. For example, a stative situation can refer to a series of repeated **Accomplishments** (*The tree loses its leaves in autumn every year*) or **Achievements** (*The tree's leaves die in autumn every year*). In this way, there is reference to a situation that is represented as characteristic of a period of **time** without there being any inherent temporal boundaries to it. An **Activity** can be conceived as stative as well: *The beautiful autumn colours dazzle passers-by every year*. We do not use the term 'stative situation' to refer to States insofar as it would be redundant: any State is, by its essence, already a stative situation. (AEG Ch. 4)

subclause, see embedded clause

Subject

Unless it is an **imperative clause** (*Listen!*), every **sentence** has a **Subject**: *You must listen*. The Subject can be identified by turning a **declarative clause** into an **interrogative clause**: this results in inversion, meaning that the **finite verb** will feature before the Subject. The Subject of a sentence is usually an **NP**, but **finite** and **non-finite clauses** can function as Subjects as well: *That you think such a thing bothers me*; *Reading mystery novels gives me great pleasure*. Other **constituents** can function as Subject, though less commonly: *Under the bed isn't a good place to sleep* (**PrepP**). (AEG Ch. 1)

Subject-aux inversion, see Subject-auxiliary inversion

Subject Complement

A **Subject Complement (SC)** follows a **linking verb** (or **copular verb**) such as *be*, *become*, *seem*, *appear*, *look* or *taste*. An SC ascribes a property to the

Subject or serves to identify the **Subject referent**. It can be realized as an NP (*My mother is a doctor*) or an AdjP (*That doctor is highly qualified*). SCs are distinct from **DOs**: a DO represents a participant in the situation in addition to the Subject (*My mother married a doctor* (mother ≠ doctor)). An SC does not introduce a new participant, since it serves to ascribe a property to the Subject: *My mother is a doctor* (mother = doctor) or to identify the Subject referent: *My brother-in-law is the person sitting next to James*. (AEG Ch. 1)

Subject raising

Subject raising occurs when the **Subject** of a **subclause** is moved (or ‘raised’) to a syntactically higher **main clause** in which the subclause is **embedded**. It thus becomes the Subject of the main clause. In AEG, Subject raising is addressed in the discussion of the **passive**: *My colleagues say James has been promoted* > *James is said to have been promoted*. (AEG Ch. 2)

Subject referent

While the term **Subject** refers to a **function** at the clausal level, **Subject referent** refers to the extralinguistic entity corresponding to the linguistic expression. In *My neighbor has given birth to a little boy*, the NP *My neighbour* functions as the grammatical Subject. The Subject referent is the woman the speaker is talking about and can point to.

Subject-auxiliary inversion (Subject-aux inversion)

When **Subject** and **auxiliary** exchange positions in the **clause**, we refer to this process as **Subject-auxiliary inversion**. As it is only auxiliaries that can invert with a Subject, **do-insertion** is required when the clause does not contain an auxiliary. As in the case of **direct not-negation**, **periphrastic auxiliary do** is used in such a context: *Did you go to the movies last night?* (cf. **Went you to the movies last night?*). (AEG Ch. 2)

subjunctive

The **subjunctive** is a form of the verb that represents a situation as possible or desirable. The subjunctive is realized as the base form of the verb and is mainly used after verbs, nouns and adjectives that indicate that the speaker wants a situation to be brought about (*request*, *require/requirement*, *essential*, *necessary*: *The president demanded that his secretary work overtime*; *It is a requirement/It is necessary that the company make an official bid*). This use of the subjunctive is called the **mandative subjunctive**. The subjunctive form is also used in a number of fixed expressions: *So be it*; *Suffice it to say*. (AEG Ch. 5)

subordinate clause, see embedded clause

50 GLOSSARY

subordinating conjunction

Subordinating conjunctions (or **subordinators**) always introduce **clauses** and link them to another clause. More specifically, they serve to **subordinate** or to embed a **subclause** in a **main clause** or an **embedding clause**. *If, whether* and *that* are common subordinators. Others include *after, although, as much as, as long as, as soon as, because, before, in order that, since, though, unless, until, when, whenever, and while*. (AEG Ch. 1)

subordinator, see subordinating conjunction

syntax

Syntax is the branch of linguistics that deals primarily with the order and combination of elements, either words within **constituents** or constituents in **clauses**, and the rules that underlie all possible structures of a language. Many syntacticians are interested in the knowledge that speakers have of what is and is not possible in their native language (called ‘competence’) rather than the actual forms the utterance can take (called ‘performance’). (AEG Ch. 1)

tag question, see interrogative tag

tense

Tense is a linguistic category. It refers to the **inflections** or **periphrastic forms** taken by verbs to **locate situations in time**. Tense, unlike **time**, is a linguistic notion. Time (for example, the time we call the **present time-sphere**) and a corresponding tense (for example, the present tense) very often correspond, but there is not an absolute one-to-one correspondence between time and tense: *I’m going to Greece next summer* (= a present tense locating a situation in the **post-present time-sphere**).

tense marker

A **tense marker** is an **inflection** or a **periphrastic form** that gives information about the **time** (present, future, past) at which a situation referred to by a verb form is located and/or about the temporal relation between situations. In *He said he had done it the day before*, the form *had not done* not only **locates a situation in time**, but also indicates that the situation of ‘doing’ is **anterior** to that referred to by *He said*. In *He said he would do it soon*, *would* makes it clear that ‘doing’ is **posterior** to ‘saying’. (AEG Ch. 4)

tense simplification

Tense simplification is concept that is sometimes used to refer to cases in which what is perceived as a more complex verb form (for instance, the past

perfect tense) is interchangeable with and replaced by a less complex verb form (the past **tense**), as in *He told me they had got married/got married when they were 25*. Tense simplification is not obligatory in contexts like these, but it is very common when the temporal relation of **anteriority** is obvious or unambiguous. On the other hand, it is sometimes impossible when it would result in a different interpretation of the temporal relation between two situations: *When they arrived, we had drunk all the champagne* does not communicate the same scenario as *When they arrived, we drank all the champagne*. (AEG Ch. 4)

that-clause

A **that-clause** is a **finite subclause**, the function of which is usually that of **DO**: *He said that he'd be arriving after the others*. In this case, the **subordinating conjunction** *that* often does not surface: *He said he'd be arriving after the others*. Less frequently, *that*-clauses function as **Subject**: *That he arrived after the others isn't really a problem*.

theme

Theme is a **semantic role**; it refers to the person or thing undergoing the activity denoted by the verb. In an **active sentence**, a **constituent** having the semantic role of theme regularly functions as **DO**: *William baked a cake*. In a **passive sentence**, a constituent having the semantic role of theme regularly functions as **Subject**: *A cake was baked (by William)*. (AEG Ch. 2)

time

Time is an **extralinguistic** notion. It is a dynamic notion – what is ‘now’ for an individual becomes part of the past the following moment. Time refers to an individual’s perception of the indefinite and boundless progression of events and states in the past, present and future. Situations can be located in at the speaker’s subjective ‘now’ (**moment of speech**), before the moment of speech or after the moment of speech. In a similar way, there are temporal relations between situations. A situation may be **anterior** to, simultaneous with, or **posterior** to another situation. Time and temporal relations can be expressed by **tense**, but tense is not the only marker that can make these relations explicit. Compare (i) *John left before Susan arrived* and (ii) *John had left before Susan arrived*. While the verb form *left* in (i) locates the situation of leaving in the past, it does not linguistically express the temporal relation of anteriority between John’s leaving and Susan’s arrival (compare to *had left* in (ii), where **anteriority** is encoded via the past perfect tense). The **subordinating conjunction** *before* makes the temporal relation explicit.

52 GLOSSARY

time-spheres

There are four **time-spheres**. The **past time-sphere** is reserved for situations located before the **moment of speech** in a period of **time** that is perceived as completely disconnected from the present, even if the situation is located in the recent past. (In other words, the ‘distance’ between the past time situation and the (present) moment of speech is perceived in the same way in both *I saw him five minutes ago* and *Tools were first invented 3 million years ago*.) The remaining time-spheres are all part of the ‘non-past’. The **pre-present time-sphere** is reserved for situations located before the moment of speech in a period of time that is not perceived as disconnected from the present. It does not necessarily refer to a situation that is chronologically more recent than a situation in the past time-sphere, however. The **post-present time-sphere** is reserved for situations that are located after ‘now’. The **present time-sphere** refers to the time that coincides with the ‘now’ of the speaker. Consequently, the moment of speech coincides with the speaker’s ‘now’. (AEG Ch. 3, Ch. 4)

to-infinitive

A **to-infinitive** is an infinitive (that is, the **non-finite** base form of a verb) that is used with the infinitive marker *to*: *I would like to stay at home*. A **non-finite clause** that includes in its **Predicate** a *to*-infinitive is called a **to-infinitive clause**. Compare to **bare infinitive**. (AEG Ch. 2, Ch. 4)

to-infinitive clause, see *to*-infinitive

topic continuity

Topic continuity is a mechanism that contributes to the cohesion of a stretch of discourse. It ensures that the topic of the discourse features in Subject position.

total interrogative, see *yes-no* interrogative clause

transitive verb

A **transitive verb** is a verb that is **complemented by a DO**. Some verbs cannot be used in a **grammatical** way unless they are complemented by a DO: *He threw himself on the sofa* vs. **He threw*; *You must face the facts* vs. **You must face*. Note that some transitive verbs can be used **intransitively**: *He’s reading a book* vs. *He’s reading*; *She’s eating her breakfast* vs. *She’s eating*. Many can also be used **ditransitively**: *I bought a book* vs. *I bought my sister a book*. (AEG Ch. 2)

uncountable nouns

Nouns that do not fit into the basic singular ~ plural dichotomy are **uncountable nouns**: *sugar, beer, isolation, advice, information*. The notion of singular versus plural is irrelevant to uncountable nouns. By default, however, they are

treated as singular nouns. When functioning as **Subject**, for example, an **NP** with an uncountable **head** noun combines with a singular verb: *All my luggage was lost.* (AEG Ch. 3)

ungrammatical, see grammatical

unit noun, see unitizer

unitizer

A **unitizer** (or **unit noun**) is a **countable noun** which can be used to form a complex **NP** with an **uncountable** noun, in essence rendering the uncountable noun countable: *a bar (two bars) of soap, a blade (several blades) of grass. Piece* is a common unitizer: *a piece of furniture, a piece of advice, a piece of information.* (AEG Ch. 3)

verb base

When a verb form is not marked by any **inflection**, we refer to it as the **verb base**: *sing* or *work*, as opposed to *sings, sang* and *singing*, or *works, worked* and *working*. The verb base corresponds to the (**non-progressive**) present **tense** (except for the third-person singular form (*sings, works*)), the infinitive, the **imperative** and the **subjunctive**. (AEG Ch. 4)

verb of cognition

A **verb of cognition** refers to a state of the mind: *know, admire, please, understand.* (AEG Ch. 4)

verb of communication

A **verb of communication** is a verb that refers a way of saying something: *talk, say, report, inform.* (AEG Ch. 4)

verb of the senses

A **verb of the senses** refers to one of the five basic sensations: *feel, hear, listen to, see, watch, smell, taste.* (AEG Ch. 4)

verb phrase (VP)

A **verb phrase** is a **constituent** whose **head** is a verb: *Tom's train [has arrived]; They [broke the window]; The teacher [told them a story]*, where the VPs are in brackets and the heads of the VPs are underlined. It is composed of the verb and all its **complements** except the **Subject** and can be **finite** (as in the example above) or **non-finite**: *I [regret [quitting the course]]*. Here, *regret quitting the course* is a **VP** headed by *regret* whereas *quitting the course* is a non-finite VP headed by *quitting*. (AEG Ch. 1, Ch. 4)

verb, see verb phrase

54 GLOSSARY

verb of stance

Verbs of stance are state verbs that refer to a way of standing or being placed: *sit, stand, lie, hang*. (AEG Ch. 4)

volition

Volition is the term that is used to capture a range of meanings that encompass willingness, determination and intention. Volition is often conveyed via *will* and *would*. As do most analyses, we include volitional *will* and *would* in our discussion of **modality**. However, volition is less directly connected to **necessity** and **possibility** than other modal meanings. (AEG Ch. 5)

well-formed, see grammatical

wh-cleft

A **wh-cleft** is a grammatical construction in which a **constituent** is highlighted by putting focus on the end of the **sentence**. This is achieved by starting the sentence with a **wh-clause** (usually beginning with *what*, though other **wh-words**, such as *who* or *where*, are found as well): *What I need is sleep* (cf. *I need sleep*); *Where I went was to the bank* (cf. *I went to the bank*). (AEG Ch. 6)

wh-constituent

A **wh-constituent** is a **constituent** that starts with a **wh-word**: *which book, what course, who*. Recall that *how* is a *wh-word* as well, so *how quickly* is also a *wh-constituent*. (AEG Ch.2)

wh-interrogative, see information interrogative clause

wh-word, see *wh-constituent*

word class, see part of speech

word form, see lexeme

yes-no interrogative clause

A **yes-no interrogative (clause)** is an interrogative to which *yes* or *no* is the only possible answer. Any other reaction on the part of the hearer ('Of course', 'I don't think so') are **responses**, but not answers. This **clause type** can also be referred to as a **total interrogative** (the scope of the interrogation is the entire **clause** rather than just one part of it) or a **closed interrogative** (the number of answers is limited to two): *Do you live here? Was everything all right? Is there a problem?* (AEG Ch. 2)

zero article, see indefinite article