EIGHT

ADJUNCTS, DISJUNCTS, CONJUNCTS

8.1
Units realizing adverbial functions

The functions of the adverbial are realized by:

(1) Adverb phrases, *ie* phrases with adverbs as head or sole realization:

Peter was playing *as well as he could*
We'll stay *there*

(2) Noun phrases (less common):

Peter was playing *last week*

(3) Prepositional phrases:

Peter was playing *with great skill*

(4) Finite verb clauses:

Peter was playing *although he was very tired*

(5) Non-finite verb clauses, in which the verb is

(a) infinitive:

Peter was playing *to win*

(b) *-ing* participle:

Wishing to encourage him, they praised Tom

(c) *-ed* participle:

If urged by our friends, we'll stay

(6) Verbless clauses:

Peter was playing, *unaware of the danger*

8.2
Classes of adverbials: adjuncts, disjuncts, conjuncts

Adverbials may be *integrated* to some extent into the structure of the

clause or they may be *peripheral* to it. If integrated, they are termed ADJUNCTS. If peripheral, they are termed DISJUNCTS and CONJUNCTS, the distinction between the two being that conjuncts have primarily a connective function.

An adverbial is integrated to some extent in clause structure if it is affected by such clausal processes as negation and interrogation. For example, it is an adjunct if

either (1) it cannot appear initially in a negative declarative clause:

**Quickly* they didn't leave for home

or (2) it can be the focus of a question or of clause negation:

Does he write to his parents *because he wants to* (or does he write to them *because he needs money*)?
We didn't go to Chicago *on Monday*, (but we did go there *on Tuesday*)

In contrast, a disjunct or a conjunct is not affected by either of these clausal processes. For example, the disjunct *to my regret* can appear initially in a negative declarative clause:

To my regret, they didn't leave for home

and cannot be the focus of a question or of clause negation:

*Does he write to his parents, *to my regret*, (or does he write to them, *to my relief*)?
*We didn't go to Chicago, *to my regret*, (but we did go there, *to my relief*)

Items can belong to more than one class. For example, *naturally* is an adjunct in

They aren't walking *naturally* ('in a natural manner')

and a disjunct in

Naturally, they are walking ('of course')

8.3
Definitions of positional terms

We distinguish four positions of adverbials for the declarative form of the clause:

Initial position (*ie* before the subject)
Medial position:
M1: (a) immediately before the first auxiliary or lexical *be*, or (b) between two auxiliaries or an auxiliary and lexical *be*.

M2: (a) immediately before the lexical verb, or (b) in the case of lexical *be*, before the complement.

Final position: (a) after an intransitive verb, or (b) after any object or complement.

If there are no auxiliaries present, *M1* and *M2* positions are neutralized:

They sometimes watch television

If the subject is ellipted, initial and medial positions are neutralized:

I've been waiting outside his door the whole day and *yet* haven't seen him

Final position includes any position after the stated clause elements, *eg:*

I paid *immediately* for the book
I paid for the book *immediately*

Adjuncts

8.4

Syntactic features of adjuncts

Certain syntactic features are general to adjuncts.

(1) They can come within the scope of predication pro-forms or predication ellipsis (10.29 *ff*). For example, in

John *greatly* admires Bob, and so *does* Mary

the pro-form in the second clause includes the adjunct of the first clause, so that the sentence means the same as

John *greatly* admires Bob, and Mary *greatly* admires Bob

(2) They can be the focus of limiter adverbials such as *only* (8.8 *ff*):

They only want the car *for an* HOUR ('for an hour and not for longer')

(3) They can be the focus of additive adverbials such as *also* (8.8 *ff*):

They will also meet *AFTERWARDS* ('afterwards in addition to some other time')

(4) They can be the focus of a cleft sentence (14.15 *f*):

It was *when we were in Paris* that I first saw John

8.5

Adverb phrases as adjuncts

Adverb phrases as adjuncts can often

(1) constitute a comparative construction

John writes *more clearly than his brother does*

(2) have premodifying *however* to form the opening of a dependent adverbial clause:

However strongly you feel about it, you should be careful what you say

(3) have premodifying *how*, a pro-form for intensifiers in questions or exclamations:

How often does she wash her hair?
How cautiously he drives!

(4) have premodifying *so* followed by subject-operator inversion and a correlative clause:

So monotonously did he speak that everyone left

8.6
Subclassification of adjuncts

It is convenient to discuss adjuncts under classes that are essentially semantic. *Fig* 8:1 gives the classes and their subclasses.

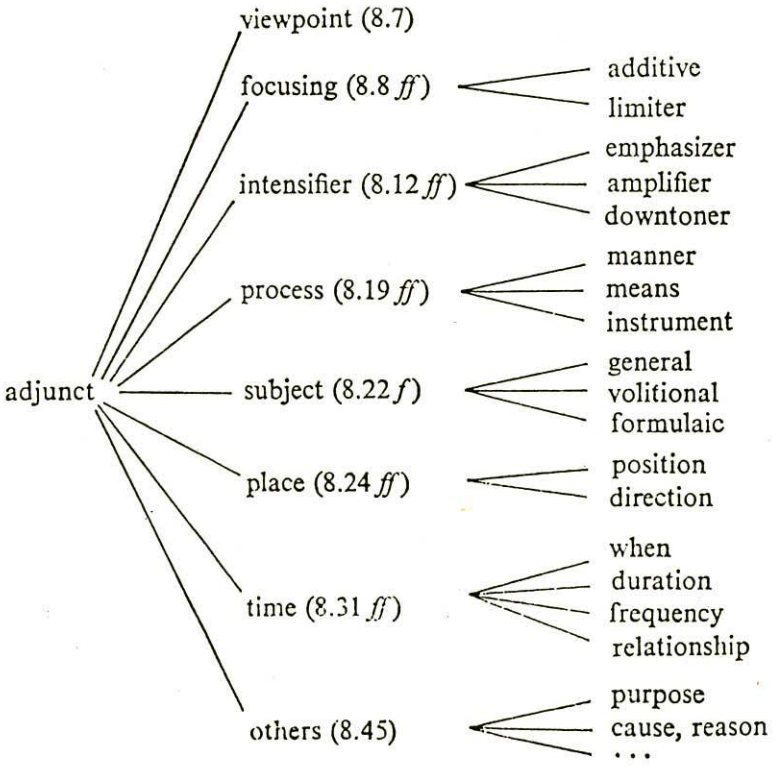


Fig 8:1 Adjuncts

8.7

Viewpoint adjuncts

Viewpoint adjuncts can be roughly paraphrased by 'if we consider what we are saying from a [adjective phrase] point of view' or 'if we consider what we are saying from the point of view of [noun phrase]'.

Adverbs functioning as viewpoint adjuncts are most commonly derived from adjectives by the addition of a *-ly* suffix:

Geographically, ethnically, and linguistically, these islands are closer to the mainland than to their neighbouring islands

To tap a private telephone line is not *technically* a very difficult operation

Viewpoint adjuncts derived from nouns by the addition of the suffix *-wise* (especially AmE) are considered informal:

Program-wise, the new thing on TV last night was the first instalment of a new science series

All *-ly* viewpoint adjuncts have a corresponding participle clause with *speaking, eg: visually ~ visually speaking,* and a corresponding prepositional phrase with the frame *from a* [adjective phrase] *point of view, eg: morally ~ from a moral point of view.* Other examples of viewpoint adjuncts:

Many of these people have suffered, *economically speaking,* because of their political affiliations

As far as mathematics is concerned, he was a complete failure

Looked at politically, it was not an easy problem

Viewpoint adjuncts, whatever their structure, are usually in initial position.

Focusing adjuncts

8.8

Focusing adjuncts indicate that what is being communicated is limited to a part that is focused – LIMITER ADJUNCTS – or that a focused part is an addition – ADDITIVE ADJUNCTS. Most focusing adjuncts are adverbs.

LIMITERS

(a) EXCLUSIVES restrict what is said to the part focused *eg: alone, just, merely, only, purely, simply*

(b) PARTICULARIZERS restrict what is said particularly or mainly to the part focused *eg: chiefly, especially, mainly, mostly; in particular*

ADDITIVES

also, either, even, neither, nor, too; as well as, in addition

Examples of their use with an indication of the part that is focused:

You can get a B grade *JUST for that answer*
The workers, IN PARTICULAR, are dissatisfied with the government
We bought *some beer AS WELL*

Focusing adjuncts cannot be modified: **very only, *extremely also.* Most of them cannot be coordinated: **just and exactly, *equally and likewise.* But we have one cliché coordination:

He is doing it *PURELY AND SIMPLY for your benefit*

Position and focus
8.9
Sentences such as

John *only* phoned Mary today
John *also* phoned Mary today

are ambiguous, the meaning varying with the intonation we give the sentence. In more formal English varying positions can distinguish most of the meanings, with a nucleus on the focused part in speech:

|John ŏNly| |phoned MÀry today| = Only JOHN phoned Mary today
(Nobody but John phoned Mary today)
|John only phoned MAry today| = John phoned only MÀry today
(John phoned Mary today but nobody else)

|John only phoned Mary toDÀY| = John phoned Mary {only toDÀY / toDÀY only}

(John phoned Mary today but not at any other time)
|John ALso phoned Mary today| = JÓHN, ÀLso, phoned Mary today
(John as well as somebody else phoned Mary today)
|John also phoned MÀry today| = John phoned also MÀry today
(John phoned Mary as well as somebody else today)

|John also phoned Mary toDÀY| = John phoned Mary {also toDÀY / toDÀY also}

(John phoned Mary today as well as at some other time(s))

In speech, a nucleus on the lexical verb gives an unambiguous interpretation when *only* and *also* are before the lexical verb:

|John only PHONed Mary today| (John did nothing else with respect to Mary but phone her)
|John also PHONed Mary today| (John phoned Mary today in addition to something else he did with respect to Mary today)

But in the written form, this position remains ambiguous, since (for example) *only* can have as its focus *phoned* (did nothing else but phone), *Mary* (phoned nobody but Mary), or *today* (on no other day). However, in practice the context usually makes it clear which interpretation is required.

8.10
Positions of focusing adjuncts

Most limiters can either precede or follow the part on which they are focused, though it is more usual for them to precede. *Just, merely, purely,* and *simply* must normally precede:

You can get a B grade JUST/MERELY/PURELY/SIMPLY *for that answer*

On the other hand, *alone* must normally follow the part on which it is focused, *eg: You can get a B grade for that answer ALONE.*

The following additives normally precede a focused part in the predicate but follow a focused subject: *again, also, equally, similarly, in addition.* On the other hand, *too* and *as well* normally follow a focused part, wherever in the clause it may be, while *even* normally precedes:

I know your family has expressed its support. *We TOO/AS WELL* will do what we can for you.
Yesterday the Robinsons were here with their new baby. They brought *their other children TOO/AS WELL.*
My father won't give me the money. He won't *EVEN lend* it to me.

Neither and *nor* are restricted to initial position and non-assertive *either* (7.35) to final position:

They won't help him, but *NEITHER/NOR* will they *harm* him
They won't help him, but they won't *harm* him *EITHER*

8.11
Focusing adjuncts in correlative constructions and cleft sentences

With certain limiters – *just, simply,* and most commonly *only* and *merely* – there can be subject-operator inversion when they follow an initial *not* in a correlative construction. Besides the normal

He *not only* protested: he (also) refused to pay his taxes

we can also have

Not only did he protest: he (also) refused to pay his taxes

The focus can be on the subject or predicate or on some part of either of them. The second correlative clause, which often has (*but*) *also,* may be

implied rather than expressed. *Not only* (and less commonly *not* plus one of the other limiters) can appear initially in this construction without subject-operator inversion, with focus on the subject:

NOT ONLY he protested: . . .

In a non-correlative construction, *not even* can also occur initially, but only with normal subject-verb order. The focus is on the subject:

NOT EVEN John protested

If the focus of *even* is to be on the predication (or part of it), *not even* must follow the operator:

John may *NOT EVEN have been protesting*

Focusing adjuncts can appear within the focal clause of a cleft sentence:

It was *only/also* John who protested

We should distinguish the cleft sentence from the correlative structure which it resembles but from which it differs prosodically:

It was *not* that John protested; it was *merely* that he was rude
It's *not just* that he's young; it's *surely* that he's inexperienced

The adverbials are here functioning within the superordinate clauses in which the *that*-clauses are complement. Limiters, additives and some disjuncts (*eg: possibly, probably*) occur in this correlative structure.

Intensifiers

8.12

Intensifiers can be divided into three semantic classes: emphasizers, amplifiers, downtoners. Intensifiers are not limited to indicating an increase in intensity; they indicate a point on the intensity scale which may be high or low. Emphasizers have a general heightening effect; amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm; downtoners have a lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm. The three classes are shown with their subclasses:

- INTENSIFIERS
  - EMPHASIZERS (*eg: definitely*)
  - AMPLIFIERS
    - maximizers (*eg: completely*)
    - boosters (*eg: very much*)
  - DOWNTONERS
    - compromisers (*eg: kind of*)
    - diminishers (*eg: partly*)
    - minimizers (*eg: hardly*)
    - approximators (*eg: almost*

Most of the common intensifiers are adverbs, but there are also some noun phrases and a few prepositional phrases.

8.13
Emphasizers
Common emphasizers include:

[A] *actually, certainly, clearly, definitely, indeed, obviously, plainly, really, surely, for certain, for sure, of course*

[B] *frankly, honestly, literally, simply; fairly* (BrE), *just*

Examples of the use of emphasizers:

I *honestly* don't know what he wants
He *actually* sat next to her
I *just* can't understand it
They *literally* tore his arguments to pieces
I *simply* don't believe it

While emphasizers in Group A seem to be free to co-occur with any verb or predication, those in Group B tend to be restricted. For example, *honestly* tends to co-occur with verbs expressing attitude or cognition:

They *honestly* admire her courage
He *honestly* believes their accusation

Most emphasizers normally precede the item they emphasize (medial positions for verb phrases) but *for certain* and *for sure* are exceptional in being postposed.

Note
[*a*] Certain emphasizers appear in restricted environments:
(1) *always* when preceded by *can* or *could* in a positive declarative clause:

You *can always* sleep on the FLŎOR ('You can certainly . . .')

(2) *well* when preceded by *can, could, may,* or *might* in a positive declarative clause:

It *may well* be true that he beat her
('It may indeed be true . . .')

[*b*] *Indeed* can be postposed:

I appreciate your help *indeed*

This is more common after a complement of *be* which is realized by an adjective (particularly if modified by another intensifier) or a degree noun:

He was very tired *indeed* ('He was extremely tired')
It was a sacrifice *indeed* ('It was a great sacrifice')

Amplifiers
8.14
Amplifiers are divided into (a) MAXIMIZERS, which can denote the upper

extreme of the scale, and (b) BOOSTERS, which denote a high point on the scale. Boosters are very much an open class, and new expressions are frequently created to replace older ones whose impact has grown stale.

Most amplifiers can be contrasted in alternative negation with *to some extent:*

He didn't ignore me *completely*, but he did ignore me *to some extent*

Some common amplifiers are given below, with examples of their use.

MAXIMIZERS

absolutely, altogether, completely, entirely, fully, quite, thoroughly, utterly; in all respects; most

eg I can *perfectly* see why you are anxious about it
We *absolutely* refuse to listen to your grumbling
He *quite* forgot about her birthday
I *entirely* agree with you

BOOSTERS

badly, deeply, greatly, heartily, much, so, violently, well; a great deal, a good deal, a lot, by far; exclamatory *how; more*

eg They like her *very much*
I *so* wanted to see her ('I wanted to see her so much')
I can *well* understand your problem

M2 (8.3) and final positions are open to most adverbs that are amplifiers; noun phrases and prepositional phrases are restricted to final position. In positive declarative clauses, final position is preferred for maximizers, but *M2* position is preferred for boosters, including maximizers when used as boosters, *ie* when they denote a high point on the scale rather than the upper extreme. Hence, the effect of the maximizer *completely* in *M2* position in *He completely denied it* is close to that of the booster *strongly* in *He strongly denied it.* On the other hand, when *completely* is final, as in *He denied it completely*, the intention seems to be closer to *He denied all of it.*

In negative, interrogative and imperative clauses, final position is normal in all cases.

Note

[*a*] There is a prescriptive tradition inhibiting the use of *very* or the comparative with *completely* and *perfectly* and with their respective adjective forms.

[*b*] The adverbs *extremely, most,* and (when no comparative clause follows) *more* are restricted to final position.

[*c*] Some adverbs as boosters occasionally appear in *M1* position (8.3) usually when they are themselves intensified or before an emphatic auxiliary:

I *very much* would prefer to see you tomorrow
I *so* did want to meet them
I *well* can understand your problem

But *M2* position, *eg: I would very much prefer to see you tomorrow*, is normal.

8.15
CO-OCCURRENCE RESTRICTIONS ON AMPLIFIERS

Amplifiers co-occur only with gradable verbs, whereas emphasizers can co-occur with non-gradable verbs such as *drink* or *judge:*

He *really* drinks beer
He will *definitely* judge us

When amplifiers co-occur with non-gradable verbs they function as other types of adjunct:

He drinks beer *a lot* ('often')
He will judge us *severely* ('in a severe manner')

However, a non-gradable verb can become gradable when the main concern is with the result of a process. For example, if the perfective particle *up* is added to *drink* or the perfective aspect of the verb is used, we can add an amplifier such as *completely:*

He *completely* drank up his beer
He has *completely* drunk his beer

Similarly, while *judge* is non-gradable, *misjudge* is gradable, since the latter is concerned with the result of the judging:

*He *badly judged* the situation
He *badly misjudged* the situation

Certain amplifiers tend to co-occur predominantly with certain verbs for example:

entirely + agree	completely + forget
badly + need, want	greatly + admire, enjoy

Amplifiers may occur with a semantic class of verbs, for example *greatly* with verbs having a favourable implication and *utterly* with verbs having an unfavourable implication. Some, such as *deeply*, occur with the class of 'emotive' verbs:

They wounded him *deeply* (emotional wounding)
They wounded him *badly* (physical wounding)

Note

[*a*] If *badly* is used with *judge*, it is interpreted as a process adjunct (perhaps expressing a blend of process with result) and must be put in final position:

He judged the situation *badly* ('in a way that was bad and with bad results')

The gradable/non-gradable distinction between *judge* and *misjudge* is found in other morphologically related verbs, *eg:*

NON-GRADABLE: calculate, estimate, rate, represent, behave, manage
GRADABLE: miscalculate, overestimate, underestimate, overrate, underrate, misrepresent, misbehave, mismanage

[*b*] *Much* is largely used as a non-assertive (7.35), unless premodified or in the compared forms. With some attitudinal verbs, unpremodified *much* can be used, but only in *M2* position (8.3):

We would have *much* preferred/appreciated her taking that position
They will *much* admire/regret your methods

Downtoners

8.16

Downtoners have a lowering effect on the force of the verb. They can be divided into four groups:

COMPROMISERS have only a slight lowering effect

DIMINISHERS / MINIMIZERS } scale downwards considerably

APPROXIMATORS serve to express an approximation to the force of the verb

COMPROMISERS

kind of/*sort of* (informal, esp AmE), *quite*/*rather* (esp BrE), *more or less*

eg I *kind of* like him (informal, esp AmE)
I *quite* enjoyed the party, but I've been to better ones (esp BrE)

DIMINISHERS

partly, slightly, somewhat; in part, to some extent; a little

eg The incident *somewhat* influenced his actions in later life
We know them *slightly*

MINIMIZERS

a bit; negatives (7.36): *barely, hardly, little, scarcely*; non-assertives (7.35): *in the least, in the slightest, at all*

eg I didn't enjoy it *in the least*
A: Do you like her? B: *A bit.*

APPROXIMATORS

almost, nearly, as good as, all but

eg I *almost* resigned

Noun phrases are quite common as non-assertive minimizers, *eg:* 'I didn't sleep *a wink* last night'; 'I don't owe you *a thing*'.

Most downtoners favour *M2* position (8.3) but can also occur finally, *eg:* 'He *more or less* agrees with you', 'He agrees with you *more or less*'. Some are restricted to *M2: quite, rather, as good as, all but; eg* 'I *quite* like him'. Others tend to be restricted either to *M2* or to *M1(b)*, the position between two auxiliaries: *barely, hardly, scarcely, practically, virtually;* hence we may have 'He could *hardly* be described as an expert'. A few are restricted to *M2* in a positive clause, but can precede a negative phrase in *M1: kind of, sort of, almost, nearly; eg* 'I *almost* didn't meet him'. A few others favour final position – *a bit, at all* – or are restricted to it – *enough, a little; eg* 'I didn't enjoy it *at all*', 'He hasn't worked *enough*'. A few can appear initially: *in part, in some respects, to some extent; eg* '*To some extent* he prefers working at home'.

8.17

Approximators imply a denial of the truth-value of what is denoted by the verb. Hence we can say, with the approximator *almost*,

I *almost* resigned, but in fact I didn't resign

The negative minimizers partially deny the truth-value of what is said:

I can *scarcely* ignore his views; in fact I can't ignore his views

The second clause converts the partial denial in the first clause into a full denial.

Compromisers reduce the force of the verb. If we say

I *kind of* like him (informal, esp AmE)

we do not deny liking him, but we seem to be deprecating what we are saying, 'I might go as far as to say I like him'.

Diminishers are not usually the focus of negation, but when they are, the effect is to push the scaling towards the top:

They didn't praise him *SLIGHTly* ('They praised him a lot')

On the other hand, the effect of negation on those minimizers that accept negation is to deny the truth-value of what is denoted by the verb:

We don't like it *a BIT* ('We don't like it')

Four of the minimizers – *barely, hardly, little, scarcely* – are themselves negative and cannot be negated.

Note

Certain minimizers appear in restricted environments:

(1) *possibly* and *conceivably* when they co-occur with *can* or *could* in a non-assertive clause:

They *can't possibly/conceivably* leave now ('They can't under any circumstances leave now')

(2) *never* is a negative minimizer in

You will *never* catch the train tonight ('It is utterly impossible that you will catch the train tonight')

In questions, *ever* can replace *never* as minimizer:

Will he *ever/never* go to bed tonight?

8.18

Homonyms of intensifiers: quantifiers, time *frequency* adjuncts, time *duration* adjuncts

Many items that are intensifiers are also used to denote a measure of quantity or of time duration or time frequency: all the minimizers; the compromisers *enough, sufficiently;* the boosters *much, a lot, a good deal, a great deal;* the diminishers *a little, least, somewhat, to some extent.* We can therefore contrast several uses of (say) *a lot:*

I like them *a lot* ('to a great extent' – booster intensifier)
I paid him *a lot* for his work ('a large amount' – quantifier)
I see him *a lot* ('often' – time *frequency* adjunct)
I slept *a lot* last night ('a long time' – time *duration* adjunct)

Some of the quantifiers must be analysed as direct objects, because they can be made the subject of the passive form of the sentence:

They paid *a lot* for these pictures ↔ *A lot* was paid (by them) for these pictures

Process adjuncts

8.19

Process adjuncts define in some way the process denoted by the verb. They can be divided into at least three semantic subclasses:

MANNER MEANS INSTRUMENT

Common pro-forms for process adjuncts are *in that way, that way* (informal), *like that.*

Process adjuncts co-occur with dynamic verbs, but not with stative verbs (3.35):

He likes them / He owns it } { *skilfully / *awkwardly

Process adjuncts favour final position, since they usually receive the information focus. Indeed, no other position is likely if the process adjunct is obligatory for the verb:

{They live *frugally* / *They *frugally* live

{They treated his friend *badly* / *They *badly* treated his friend

Since the passive is often used when the need is felt to focus attention on the verb, process adjuncts are commonly placed in *M2* position (8.3) rather than finally when the verb is in the passive:

Tear gas was *indiscriminately* sprayed on the protesters

Process adjuncts realized by units other than adverb phrases often occur initially, that position being preferred if the focus of information is required on another part of the sentence:

By pressing this button you can stop the machine

8.20
Manner adjuncts

Examples of the use of manner adjuncts:

They sprayed tear gas *indiscriminately* on the protesters
She replied to questions *with great courtesy*
He spoke *in a way that reminded me of his father*
He always writes *in a carefree manner*
They walked (*in*) *single file*
You should write *as I tell you to*

Manner adjuncts are realized mostly by adverb phrases and prepositional phrases (6.31), but also by noun phrases and clauses (11.33).

Noun phrases with *way*, *manner*, and *style* as head tend to have the definite article:

She cooks chicken { *the* way I like / in { *the* / *a* } way I like }

As the above example illustrates, we can regard such noun phrases as having omitted the preposition *in* (*cf* 6.25*f*, 8.21).

An adverb manner adjunct can usually be paraphrased by *in a . . . manner* or *in a . . . way* with its adjective base in the vacant position. Where an adverb form exists, it is usually preferred over a corresponding prepositional phrase with *manner* or *way*. Hence, 'He always writes *carelessly*' is more usual than 'He always writes *in a careless manner/way*'.

Adverbs as heads of manner phrase adjuncts are an open class. The main method of forming manner adverbs is by adding a *-ly* suffix to an adjective. Three minor methods are by adding *-wise*, *-style*, or *-fashion* to a noun, *eg: snake-wise, cowboy-style, peasant-fashion*. With these forms the prepositional paraphrase would include postmodification: *in the manner of a snake, in the style of cowboys, in the fashion of peasants*.

Note

Some adjuncts express a blend of manner with some other meaning.

(1) Manner with result and intensification:

The soldiers wounded him *badly* ('in such a way and to such an extent that it resulted in his being in a bad condition')

(2) Manner with time *duration:*

He was walking *slowly* ('in such a way that each step took a long time')

Such items are more fully time adjuncts when they appear initially or medially:

Suddenly, I felt free again ('it suddenly happened')
My brother *quickly* despised his school ('My brother soon came to despise')

(3) Manner with time *when:*

Put it together *again* ('in the way that it was before')

8.21
Means and instrument adjuncts

Examples of the use of means adjuncts:

He decided to treat the patient *surgically*
I go to school *by car*
He gained entry into the building *by means of a bribe to the guard*

Examples of the use of instrument adjuncts:

He examined the specimen *microscopically*
You can cut the bread *with that knife*
The injured horse was humanely killed *with a rifle bullet*

Most means and instrument adjuncts are prepositional phrases (6.31 *f*), but some are adverb phrases and others are noun phrases without an article. We can consider the noun phrases as related to prepositional phrases (8.20):

He sent it (*by*) *air mail* Fly $\left(\left\{\begin{matrix}with\\by\end{matrix}\right\}\right)$ *Air France*

He travelled to Washington (*by*) *first class*

Note

Adverbs as means and instrument adjuncts cannot be modified. Hence, *microscopically* in 'He examined the specimen *very microscopically*' can only be a manner adjunct ('in microscopic detail'), although without the premodifier *very* it can be a means or instrument adjunct ('by means of a microscope' or 'with a microscope').

Subject adjuncts

8.22

Subject adjuncts relate to the referent of the subject in an active clause (or the agent in a passive clause) as well as to the process or state denoted by the verb. All are either adverb or prepositional phrases. Three groups can

be distinguished: general, volitional, and formulaic. The last group will be separately discussed in 8.23.

General subject adjuncts:

Resentfully, the workers have stood by their leaders ('The workers have stood by their leaders and were resentful about it')
With great unease, they elected him as their leader ('They were very uneasy when they . . .')

Volitional subject adjuncts:

He left his proposals vague *on purpose* ('It was his purpose to . . .')
He *deliberately* misled us ('He was being deliberate when he . . .')

Common volitional subject adjuncts: *deliberately*, *(un)intentionally*, *purposely*, *reluctantly*, *voluntarily*, *wilfully*, *(un)willingly*; *on purpose*, *with reluctance*

The subject adjuncts show their relationship to the subject by the paraphrase they allow. For example, we must provide a different paraphrase for the subject adjunct *bitterly* from its homonyms as manner adjunct and booster intensifier:

Bitterly, he buried his children ('He was bitter when he . . .')
He spoke *bitterly* about their attitude ('He spoke in a bitter way . . .')
He *bitterly* regretted their departure ('He very much regretted . . .')

Volitional subject adjuncts differ from other subject adjuncts in that

(1) they express the subject's intention or willingness, or the reverse

(2) they can often occur with intensive verbs:

He is *deliberately* being a nuisance

(3) they can more easily appear before clause negation:

Intentionally, he didn't write to them about it

Subject adjuncts require an animate subject:

Joan *resentfully* packed their luggage
*The water *resentfully* boiled

However, in the passive form it is the agent (whether present or not) that must be animate:

Their luggage was *resentfully* packed (by Joan)

Subject adjuncts tend to occur initially or medially, but *M2* position (8.3) is probably preferred.

8.23

Formulaic adjuncts

Except for *please*, formulaic adjuncts tend to be restricted to *M2* position (8.3). They are a small group of adverbs used as markers of courtesy. All except *please* are modifiable by *very*. The most common are exemplified below:

He *kindly* offered me a ride ('He was kind enough to . . .')
We *cordially* invite you to our party ('We express our cordiality to you by inviting . . .')
She announced that she will *graciously* consent to our request ('. . . she will be gracious enough to . . .')
He *humbly* offered his apologies ('He was humble enough to offer . . .')
Take a seat *please* ('Please me by taking . . .')

Kindly and *please* are the only formulaic adjuncts to appear freely before imperatives. *Kindly* is restricted to initial position in imperatives:

Kindly leave the room

Please, however, is mobile:

Please leave the room Open the door *please*

Unlike the other formulaic adjuncts, *please* is normally limited to sentences having the function of a command, or containing a reported command, or constituting a request:

Will you *please* leave the room?
You will *please* leave the room
I wonder whether you would mind leaving the room *please*
I asked him whether he would *please* leave the room
May I *please* have my book back?

Please and (to a lesser extent) *kindly* are very commonly used to tone down the abruptness of a command.

Place adjuncts

8.24

Place adjuncts denote static position and also direction, movement, and passage, here brought together under the general term 'direction'. Most place adjuncts are prepositional phrases (6.7 *ff*), but clauses (11.22), adverb phrases and noun phrases are frequently used:

He lives *in a small village*
The church was built *where there had once been an office block*
They are not *there*
She works *a long way from here*

} position

He ran *past the sentry*
They followed him *wherever he went*
I took the papers *from the desk*
He threw it *ten yards*
} direction

Position adjuncts can normally be evoked as a response to a *where* question:

A: Where is he staying? B: *In a hotel.*

The appropriate question for direction adjuncts is *where* plus the relevant directional particle, except that for 'direction towards' the particle *to* is commonly omitted:

A: *Where* are you going (*to*)? B: (*To*) *the park.*
A: *Where* have you come *from?* B: (*From*) *the supermarket.*

Adverbs commonly used for both position and direction: *above, along, anywhere, around, away, back, below, by, down, east* (and other compass points), *elsewhere, everywhere, far, here, home, in, locally, near, off, opposite, out, over, past, round, somewhere, there, through, under, up, within.*

A few adverbs denote direction only: *aside, backward(s), downward(s), forward(s), inward(s), left, outward(s), right, sideways, upward(s).*

Where in its various uses is a place adjunct; *here* and *there* are pro-forms for place adjuncts.

Note

[*a*] For *here, above,* and *below* as signals in discourse reference, see 10.38.
[*b*] *Anywhere* and (normally) *far* are non-assertive (7.35).

8.25
Co-occurrence restrictions on place adjuncts

Direction adjuncts are used only with verbs of motion or with other dynamic verbs (3.35) that allow a directional meaning:

He jumped *over the fence*
She was whispering softly *into the microphone*

On the other hand, position adjuncts can be used with most verbs, including stative verbs (3.35).

Position adjuncts are used as predicative adjuncts with the intensive verb *be:*

Your sister is *in the next room*
The house you want is *on the other side of the street*

Some direction adjuncts are also used with *be,* but with a resultative meaning, indicating the state of having reached the destination (6.8).

Some place adjuncts are obligatory, providing verb complementation to verbs other than *be:*

We don't *live here* They *put* the cat *out*
I'll *get below* You should *set* that dish *in the middle*

Place adjuncts are used also non-literally in phrasal verbs (12.2*f*):

The light *is on* ('is shining')
When John heard what happened, he *blew up* ('became very angry')
They *turned down* the suggestion ('rejected')

Up, in particular, is used as an intensifier or perfectively:

You must *drink up* quickly ('finish drinking')
They *closed up* the factory ('closed completely')

For the transferred or abstract use of place prepositions, see 6.20.

8.26
Position and direction adjuncts in the same clause
Position and direction adjuncts can co-occur, with the position adjunct normally following the direction adjunct in final position:

The children are running *around* (A_1) *upstairs* (A_2)

The position adjunct can be put in initially to avoid giving it end-focus (14.11):

Upstairs the children are running *around*

A prepositional phrase may be put in that position, as in

In the park some of the children are walking *to the lake*

to prevent it from being interpreted as a postmodifier of a previous noun phrase. There are other ways of avoiding such an interpretation, *eg:*

Some of the children are *in the park* and walking *to the lake*

Two position adjuncts or two direction adjuncts can be coordinated:

We can wait for you *here or in the car*
They went *up the hill and into the station*

But a position and a direction adjunct normally cannot be coordinated. Hence in

The baby was crawling *upstairs and into his parents' bedroom*

upstairs can be interpreted only as a direction adjunct since it is coordinated with a phrase that has only a directional function.

8.27
Hierarchical relationship
Two position adjuncts can co-occur:

Many people eat *in restaurants* (A_1) *in London* (A_2)

Only the adjunct denoting the larger place can be moved to initial position:

In London many people eat *in restaurants*
**In restaurants* many people eat *in London*

Initial position may be preferred in the case of a prepositional phrase that can also be interpreted as postmodifier of a previous noun phrase, as possibly with (*restaurants*) *in London* (*cf* 8.26).

Two direction adjuncts can also co-occur:

He came *to London from Rome*
He went *from Rome to London*

The normal order of these direction adjuncts accords with the interpretation of the verb. *Come* concerns arrival, and therefore the destination (*to London*) is normally mentioned before the point of departure (*from Rome*), whereas *go* concerns departure and therefore the reverse order is normal.

The normal order of juxtaposed direction adjuncts otherwise follows the same order as the events described:

They drove *down the hill* (A_1) *to the village* (A_2)

Similarly, only the adjunct relating to the earlier event can be transposed to initial position:

And then *from Alexandria* the party proceeded *to Cairo*

8.28
Positions of place adjuncts
Both types of place adjunct favour final position:

position { I'll meet you *downstairs*
         { You'll find the sugar *where the coffee is*

direction { I'll go *downstairs*
          { We're moving some new furniture *into the kitchen*

Position adjuncts, particularly prepositional phrases, often appear initially. They may be put there to avoid end-focus (14.11), or to avoid misinterpretation (8.26), or to avoid a clustering of adjuncts at final position, though it is not usually possible to isolate any one reason.

Outside, children were jumping and skipping

Here . . . be and *There . . . be* with a personal pronoun as subject and the verb in the simple present are commonly used to draw attention to the presence of somebody or something:

Here I am/*Here* it is/*There* she is/*There* you are

Speakers sometimes put position adjuncts (especially *here*, *there*, and compounds with *-where*) in *M2* and more rarely in *M1* (8.3):

Life is *everywhere* so frustrating
We are *here* enjoying a different kind of existence

Place adjuncts can take the position between verb and object if the object is long:

They {moved *into* / found *in*} *the kitchen* every conceivable kind of furniture

Some direction adjuncts are put initially to convey a dramatic impact. They normally co-occur with a verb in the simple present or simple past:

Away he goes — *On* they marched

If the subject is not a pronoun but a noun (and therefore has greater information value), subject-verb inversion is normal when any place adjunct is initial (14.12):

Away goes the servant — *On the very top of the hill* lives a hermit

Here + *be* and *there* + *be* with the verb in the simple present are common in speech:

Here are the tools — *There's* your brother

Direction adjuncts are put in initial position virtually only in literary English and in children's literature. A few exceptions occur in informal speech, mainly with *go*, *come*, and *get* in either the imperative with the retained subject *you* or in the simple present:

{In (the bath) / Over (the fence) / Under (the bridge)} you {come / go / get}

{On / Under / Round} you go — There they {go / come} Here he comes — Here {I / we} go

Note

[*a*] There are some idiomatic expressions with *here* and *there:*

Here / *There* *you are* = This is for you
Here we are = We've arrived at the expected place
There you are = That supports or proves what I've said

[*b*] Certain direction adjuncts are commonly used as imperatives, with an implied verb of motion:

Out(side)!, In(side)!, (Over) Here!, (Over) There!, (Right) Back!, Down!, Off!, Up!, Under!, Left!, Right!, Away!
Up the stairs!, Out of the house!, To bed!

This applies also to some other adjuncts, *eg: Quickly!, Slowly!, Carefully!*

8.29

Position adjuncts in relation to subject and object

Position adjuncts normally indicate where the referent of the subject and (if present) of the object are located, and usually the place is the same for both referents:

I met John *on a bus* (John and I were on the bus)

But sometimes the places can be different:

I saw John *on a bus* (John was on the bus but I need not have been)

With verbs of placing, the reference is always to the place of the object and normally that will differ from the place of the subject (*cf* 8.44, and complex transitive complementation, 12.26*f*):

I *have/keep/put/park/shelter* my car *in a garage*

With certain verbs of saying, arranging, expecting, position adjuncts are resultative and are like predicative adjuncts of the direct object (*cf* 12.14 Note):

I want *my car IN THE GARAGE* ('to be in the garage')
They plan *a meeting AT MY HOUSE* ('that there should be a meeting at my house')
They offered *a barbecue NEARBY* ('to have a barbecue nearby')
I like *my dinner IN THE KITCHEN* ('to have my dinner in the kitchen')

The position adjunct may sometimes refer to the object in a conditional relationship:

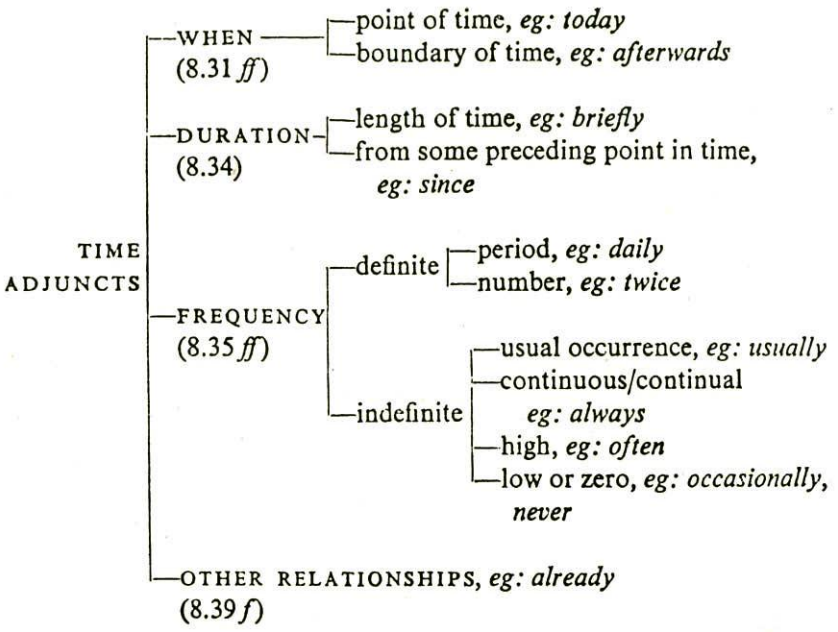
I only like *barbecues ON THE BEACH* ('if they are held on the beach')

Time adjuncts

8.30

Time adjuncts that are clauses (11.21) or prepositional phrases (6.21 *ff*) or noun phrases (6.25*f*) are discussed elsewhere.

Time adjuncts can be divided into four main semantic classes:



Time *when* adjuncts

8.31

Most time *when* adverbs can serve as a response to a *when* question:

A: When did he arrive? B: { *Last night.* / *While you were at the library.* }

When in its various uses is in part pro-form for the time adjuncts. For *then* as a pro-form for these time adjuncts, see 10.5, 10.28.

Time *when* adjuncts can be divided into

[A] those denoting a point of time

[B] those denoting a boundary of time, *ie* a point of time but also implying the point from which that time is measured

Common adverbs in these two groups include:

Group A

again ('on another occasion'), *just* ('at this very moment'), *late* ('at a late time'), *now* ('at this time'), *nowadays* ('at the present time'), *presently* ('at the present time', esp AmE), *then* ('at that time'), *today*

Group B

afterwards, before, eventually ('in the end'), *formerly, just* ('a very short time ago'), *lately* ('a short time ago'), *momentarily*

('in a moment', AmE), *previously* ('before'), *presently* ('soon'), *recently* ('a short time ago'), *since* ('after that'), *soon*, *then* ('after that')

Examples of the use of time *when* adjuncts:

Group A

I was in New York *last year* and am *now* living in Baltimore
I'm *just* finishing my homework
I was awarded my Bachelor of Arts degree *in 1970*
I'll tell you all the news *when I get back home*

Group B

I haven't any time at the moment but I'll see you *soon*
Take a drink and *then* go to bed
Will you be there *after lunch?*
He owed me a lot of money and wouldn't pay me back until I got my lawyer to write to him. He has paid me back in full *since then*
She left him *after he struck her*

Most time *when* adjuncts in Group A normally occur finally, but *just* is restricted to *M2* position (8.3), *eg: I've just heard that you are leaving us. Nowadays* and *presently* commonly occur initially, *eg: Nowadays, many teenagers have long hair.* Those in Group B commonly occur initially or at *M2* position.

Note

[*a*] *Earlier* and *later* are synonymous with *before* (*that*) and *afterwards* respectively:

He remembered the many insults that he had *earlier* experienced
He handed in his resignation, and *later* regretted his hasty action

[*b*] *Presently* is synonymous with *soon* where there is a modal auxiliary or (for some speakers) when the verb is in the past:

They { will *presently* call on him / *presently* called on him }

(Some find *presently* unacceptable when it co-occurs with a verb in the past.)

On the other hand, when the verb is in the present, it is synonymous with *at present* (esp AmE):

They are *presently* staying with him

8.32

Most adverbs in Group B are used as correlatives to denote temporal sequence; as such they tend to occur initially or medially:

First they petitioned the Governor, but heard nothing from him. *Then* they wrote to the President, and received a polite but vague reply from some official. They *next* organized a peaceful demonstration. And *finally* they picketed all Federal buildings in the city.

8.33

Time *when* adjuncts can be in a hierarchical relationship:

I'll see you *at nine* (A_1) *on Monday* (A_2)

The order of final adjuncts depends in part on information focus, but the tendency is for the superordinate adjunct (the one denoting the more extended period) to come last. However, the order may be reversed if the other adjunct is considerably longer:

I was in New York *last year* (A_1) *before the first snow fell* (A_2)

Only the superordinate adjunct can occur initially (8.27, 8.36):

On Monday I'll see you *at nine*
**At nine* I'll see you *on Monday*

8.34

Time *duration* adjuncts

Time *duration* adjuncts can be divided into two groups:

[A] those denoting length of time
[B] those denoting duration from some preceding point of time

Time *duration* adjuncts in Group A can serve as a response to a (*for*) *how long* question:

A: How long are you staying (for)? B: {*(For) About a month.* / *Till I can get my car repaired.*}

Adverbs in Group B cannot serve as a response to such a question though prepositional phrases and clauses can do so:

A: (For) How long have you been collecting stamps?
B: **Since*/**Recently*/*Since last month*/*Since I was a child*

Those in Group B co-occur with perfect aspect (*cf* 11.49):

His studies {haven't been / *weren't} improving *lately*/*recently*/*since*

Common adverbs in the two groups include:

Group A
always, long, momentarily ('for a moment'), *permanently, temporarily*

Group B
lately/*recently* ('during a recent period')
since ('from some time in the past')

Examples of the use of time *duration* adjuncts:

Group A
I have *always* lived here
I'll be in California *for the summer*
Was it noisy *the whole night?*
There was no trouble *while we were there*

Group B
He insulted me last year and I haven't spoken to him *since*
Things haven't become any better *lately*
I have been waiting for the books to be delivered *ever since I came to this apartment*

Time *duration* adjuncts are normally positioned finally, except for three adverbs normally positioned at *M2* (8.3): *momentarily, permanently, temporarily.*

Note

[*a*] When *lately* and *recently* are time *when* adjuncts (8.31), they can co-occur with simple past as well:

He *lately/recently* moved into a new apartment

Since requires perfect aspect even when it is a time *when* adjunct:

He {has since moved / *since moved} into a new apartment

[*b*] Uninflected *long* is normally a non-assertive form (7.35) and positioned finally, but it can be an assertive form when it co-occurs with certain verbs and is then usually positioned at *M2*. The verbs seem to be mainly verbs of belief or assumption (11.58), attitudinal verbs, and some verbs of speaking:

I have *long* admired his style of writing
He has *long* thought of retiring at the age of 55

[*c*] *Since when* and *until* (or *till*) *when* are used to form questions:

A: *Since when* have you known him? B: Since he joined our club.
A: *Until when* are you staying? B: Until next Monday.
These are the normal positions for *since* and *until/till*, postposition being unacceptable for *since* and *until*: **When have you known him since?*, **When are you staying until?*, and the less common position for *till*: *?When are you staying till?* In this respect, they contrast with *how long . . . for; for* is normally postposed, the initial position being a formal variant.

Time *frequency* adjuncts

8.35

Most time *frequency* adjuncts can serve as a response to a *how often* question:

A: How often do you wash your car? B: {*Every Sunday.* / *Whenever I find a spare half-hour.*}

Time *frequency* adjuncts are usually adverb phrases or noun phrases, and they can be divided semantically into two major subclasses:

[I] those naming explicitly the times by which the frequency is measured: DEFINITE FREQUENCY
[II] those not doing so: INDEFINITE FREQUENCY

Each of these subclasses can in turn be subdivided. In each case we list common adverbs.

[I] DEFINITE FREQUENCY

[A] PERIOD FREQUENCY
Committee meetings take place *weekly*
If so desired, rent can be paid *per week* instead of *per month*
common adverbs: *hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, annually*

[B] NUMBER FREQUENCY
I have been in Singapore *ÒNCE* (only)
He *again* demanded a refund ('for a second time')
common adverbs: *again, once* ('one time only'), *twice, etc;* otherwise phrases, *eg: three times, on five occasions*

[II] INDEFINITE FREQUENCY

[C] USUAL OCCURRENCE
We *normally* don't go to bed before midnight
As usual, nobody asked anything at the end of the lecture
common adverbs: *commonly, generally, invariably, normally, usually*

[D] CONTINUOUS/CONTINUAL FREQUENCY
Does she *always* dress well?
He is *continually* complaining about the noise
common adverbs: *always, constantly, continually, continuously*

[E] HIGH FREQUENCY
I have *often* told them to relax more
Have you been drunk *many times?*
common adverbs: *frequently, often, regularly, repeatedly*

[F] LOW OR ZERO FREQUENCY
I *sometimes* think she doesn't know what she's talking about
I have been in his office *on several occasions*
common adverbs: *infrequently, occasionally, rarely, seldom, sometimes; never, ever* ('at any time')

Time *frequency* adjuncts in Groups A and B normally occur finally. Those in Groups C–F are normally positioned at *M2*, but are often found

at *M1* (8.3). Phrases (apart from those consisting of an adverb or a premodified adverb) are normally initial for Group C (*eg: as usual, as a rule, for the most part*) and final for Groups D–E (*eg: at all times, many times, now and again*).

Note

We should add to Groups E and F items that are used as intensifiers (8.18):

[E] *much, a lot, a good deal, a great deal* (all equivalent to *often* or *very often*)
[F] *a little* ('very occasionally'), *little* ('hardly at any time'),
less ('less frequently'), *least* ('least frequently'),
a bit ('occasionally'); *barely, hardly, scarcely*
eg I don't see him *very much* ('very often')
I go there *very little* ('very infrequently')

As frequency adjuncts, *hardly* and *scarcely* tend to co-occur with non-assertive *ever* ('at any time'):

I *hardly/scarcely* ever go there

8.36

Adjuncts of definite frequency in Group A denote the period of time by which the frequency is measured, while those in [B] express the measurement in number of times. Items from each group can co-occur, normally with the item from [B] coming first:

You should take the medicine *twice* [B] *daily* [A]

Those in [A] can also co-occur with each other in a hierarchical relationship:

She felt his pulse *hourly* [A] *each day* [A]

The order of the adjuncts in final position depends in part on information focus, but only the one denoting the longer period can occur initially (*cf* 8.27, 8.33):

Each day she felt his pulse *hourly*

Those in [B] can likewise co-occur with each other in a hierarchical relationship with a momentary verb (3.35):

I hit him *twice on two occasions* ('two times on each of two occasions')

As here, the superordinate adjunct tends to follow the subordinate adjunct; but it can be initial:

On two occasions I hit him *twice*

Adjuncts in [B] can often be the response to the question *How many times?:*

A: How many times did you hit him? B: *Twice.*

8.37

Adjuncts of indefinite frequency in Group C denote usual occurrence. They differ from most of the other adjuncts of indefinite frequency in that they can precede the clausal negative, in which case they indicate that it is normal for something *not* to occur:

Generally/Normally/Usually, he doesn't take medicine

Those in [E] and [F] that precede negation express a high or low frequency. It is not contradictory to assert that it is frequent (or infrequent) for something to occur and at the same time that it is frequent (or infrequent) for it not to occur:

[*Often* / *Occasionally*] he doesn't take medicine, but [*often* / *occasionally*] he does (take medicine)

We can see from this example that *often* does not necessarily imply the majority of times, and the same is true for *frequently*. However, except for *invariably*, those in [C] do imply the majority of times; they also allow for exceptions, so that we can say:

Generally/Normally/Usually, he doesn't take medicine, but *sometimes* he does (take medicine)

Frequency adjuncts in [D] normally cannot precede negation:

*He {*always* / *constantly*} doesn't pay his debts on time

Instead we use *never*, *not . . . ever*, or *not . . . at all:*

He {*never* pays / doesn*'t ever* pay} his debts on time

He didn*'t* drink whisky *at all*

8.38

TIME *FREQUENCY* ADJUNCTS AND QUANTIFIERS

If the subject is generic (4.18), many adjuncts of indefinite frequency, particularly when positioned initially or medially, are equivalent to certain predeterminers (4.7 *ff*) or to certain quantifiers (4.13 *ff*) in the noun phrase of the subject. For example, in

Sailors drink rum *often* ('on many occasions')

often refers to the frequency of the drinking of rum. However,

{Often sailors / Sailors often} drink rum ('it often happens that . . .')

is very similar to

Many sailors drink rum

Other examples:

Universities *sometimes* have linguistics departments
=*Some* universities have linguistics departments

Students *occasionally* fail this course
=*A few* students fail this course

Officers *never* get drunk while on duty
=*No* officers get drunk while on duty

If the direct object is generic, the adjunct may be equivalent to a predeterminer or quantifier in the noun phrase of the direct object:

I *often* find spelling mistakes in students' essays
=I find *many* spelling mistakes in students' essays

Other time relationships

8.39

Adjuncts included here express some relationship in time other than those specified in 8.31–38. One group consists of adjuncts concerned with the sequence within the clause of two time relationships, and they co-occur with time *when* adjuncts. Many of the same items are also used as correlatives to denote temporal sequence between clauses or between sentences (8.32):

These techniques were *originally* used in the Second World War
It wasn't until last night that I was *finally* introduced to her
She broke her leg *for the first time* when she was ten

Adverb phrases normally appear in *M2* (8.3) and other phrases in final position. Common adverbs in this group include *afterwards, eventually, finally, first, later, next, originally, subsequently, then.*

8.40

Another group consists of adjuncts that are similar to time *duration* adjuncts in that they express duration up to or before a given or implied time; they are related by assertive/non-assertive contrasts (7.35):

assertive forms: *already, still, by now*
non-assertive forms: *yet, any more, any longer*
negative forms: *no more, no longer*

They have finished their work *by now*
We haven't *yet* eaten
He would stay *no longer*

Most of these adjuncts occur either in *M2* position (8.3) or finally, but *already* is normally in *M2* position.

The three items *yet*, *already*, and *still* are in particular closely related. In contrast to non-assertive *yet*, *already* and *still* cannot lie within the scope of clause negation (7.40) except in questions. *Still*, unlike *already*, can precede negation. We therefore have the following possibilities:

DECLARATIVE POSITIVE
I *already* like him ('I have by this time come to like him')
*I *yet* like him
I *still* like him ('I continue to like him')

DECLARATIVE NEGATIVE (adverb preceding negation)
*I *already* haven't spoken to him
*I *yet* haven't spoken to him
I *still* haven't spoken to him ('I haven't spoken to him so far')

DECLARATIVE NEGATIVE (adverb following negation)
*He can't *already* drive
He can't drive *yet* ('He can't drive up to this time')
?He can't *still* drive ('He can't continue to drive')

INTERROGATIVE POSITIVE
Have you *already* seen him? (That was quick)
Have you seen him *yet?* (You've been here ages)
Do you *still* see him? ('Do you continue to see him?')

INTERROGATIVE NEGATIVE
Haven't you seen him *already?* } ('Haven't you by this time seen him?')
Haven't you seen him *yet?* }
Don't you *still* see him? ('Don't you continue to see him?')

Note

[*a*] The difference between *already* and *yet* in questions is that *already* expects an affirmative answer whereas *yet* leaves open whether the answer is negative or positive (*7.46f*).

[*b*] *Yet* can be assertive in certain contexts where it is similar in meaning to *still:*

I have *yet* to find out what he wants ('I have still to . . .')
I can see him *yet* ('I can *still* see him')
There's plenty of time *yet* ('There's plenty of time *still*')

[*c*] *Still* often blends concessive and temporal meanings (*cf* 8.53). For example, in

It's very late and he's *still* working ('He's continuing *even so* to work')

8.41
Relative positions of time adjuncts

Adjuncts from the three major subclasses that can co-occur in final position – time *when*, time *duration*, and time *frequency* – tend to occur in the order

time *duration* (D) – time *frequency* (F) – time *when* (W)

The following sentences exemplify the normal order (but *cf* 8.46):

I was there *for a day or so* (D) *every year* (F) *during my childhood* (W)
I'm paying my rent *monthly* (F) *this year* (W)
Our electricity was cut off *briefly* (D) *today* (W)

8.42
Coordination

Time adjuncts in the same subclass can be coordinated:

TIME *WHEN*	
today and tomorrow	now or later
TIME *DURATION*	
permanently or temporarily	for the week or (for the) month
TIME *FREQUENCY*	
once or twice	each day and (each) night

Note

Now and then and *now and again* are common coordinated expressions used for time *frequency* ('from time to time', 'occasionally'). Similarly, *again and again* and *over and over* are used to denote frequent repetition and not just two repetitions (5.33).

8.43
Time adjuncts and time reference

Time adjuncts play a part in specifying the time reference of the verb phrase. Thus, *now* determines that the reference in

He is playing *now*

is present, and *tomorrow* that it is future in

He is playing *tomorrow*

Some time adjuncts cannot co-occur with particular forms of the verb phrase. Thus, *tomorrow* does not co-occur with the simple past:

*He played *tomorrow*

For further discussion of this topic, see 3.30.

Note

An apparent exception is with those verbs of saying, arranging, expecting, or wanting whose object has future reference. In such cases, though the expressed verb is in the past, there may be a time adjunct with future reference to the object:

She wanted the book *tomorrow* (= She wanted to have the book tomorrow)

The adjunct can co-occur with another that has past reference to the verb:

As far back as March, they predicted a crisis *next month* (*ie* their prediction of a crisis next month was made as far back as March).

8.44

Time adjuncts as predicative adjuncts with *be*

Time adjuncts can co-occur with all verbs, including *be:*

It's much warmer *now*

Many of them can also be used as predicative adjuncts with *be:*

TIME *WHEN*
The meeting will be *tomorrow*

TIME *DURATION*
The show is *from nine till twelve*

TIME *FREQUENCY*
Interviews are *every hour*

Be in such cases is equivalent to 'take place', and the subject must be eventive. For example in

The opera will be *tonight*

the opera is interpreted as 'the performance of the opera'.

The reference of the time adjunct may be to the object (*cf* 8.29). There are two types of such references:

(1) The verbs denote the placing or movement of the object, and a place adjunct is present indicating the resulting place of the action. The time adjuncts denote time *duration.*

They threw him in prison *for life* ('He will be in prison for life')

(2) The verbs are of saying, arranging, expecting, or wanting where the object has future reference. The adjuncts denote time *when*, time *duration*, and time *frequency.*

TIME *WHEN* (*cf* 8.43 Note)

TIME *DURATION*
They offered us the house *for the summer* ('that we could use the house for the summer')

TIME *FREQUENCY*
I suggest an informal discussion *occasionally* ('that there should be an informal discussion occasionally')

8.45

Other classes of adjuncts

Some classes of adjuncts are realized by prepositional phrases or clauses and either rarely or not at all by adverb phrases. For example, there are

adjuncts expressing purpose (6.28, 11.31), but there are few adverbs used in this way. (See Note below.) Other classes of adjuncts are realized by prepositional phrases only; for example, adjuncts expressing source or origin (6.30), as in

He took the book *from me*

Note

Perhaps *symbolically* ('for a symbolic purpose', 'as a symbol') and *experimentally* ('for an experimental purpose', 'as an experiment') in the following sentences are instances of adverbs used to denote purpose:

They *symbolically* buried the car as a protest against pollution
The teacher *experimentally* called the students by their first names

8.46
Relative positions of adjuncts

Where adjuncts cluster in final position, the normal order is

process – place – time

This order is exemplified in

He was working *with his shears* (process) *in the garden* (place) *the whole morning* (time).

Three other general principles apply to relative order whether within a class or between classes:

(1) The normal relative order can be changed to suit the desire for end-focus (14.2)

(2) A clause normally comes after other structures, since otherwise these would be interpreted as adjuncts of the clause:

We stood talking *for a very long time* (A_1) *where the fire had been* (A_2)

(3) Longer adjuncts tend to follow shorter adjuncts:

I was studying *earlier* (A_1) *in the university library* (A_2)

This principle often coincides with (1) and (2).

Adjuncts that can occur initially are often put in that position for reasons of information focus, but also to avoid having too many adjuncts in final position. We might, therefore, have moved the time adjunct in the first example of this section to initial position:

The whole morning he was working *with his shears in the garden*

It is not usual for more than one adjunct to be in initial position, but time and place adjuncts sometimes co-occur there:

In London, after the war, damaged buildings were quickly demolished and replaced by new ones

Viewpoint adjuncts also co-occur with other adjuncts in initial position:

Economically, in this century our country has suffered many crises

Disjuncts

8.47

Most disjuncts are prepositional phrases (6.38 *ff*) or clauses (11.23 *ff*). Disjuncts can be divided into two main classes: STYLE DISJUNCTS (by far the smaller class) and ATTITUDINAL DISJUNCTS. Style disjuncts convey the speaker's comment on the form of what he is saying, defining in some way under what conditions he is speaking. Attitudinal disjuncts, on the other hand, comment on the content of the communication.

Style disjuncts

8.48

Examples of the use of style disjuncts:

Seriously, do you intend to resign?
Personally, I don't approve of her
Strictly speaking, nobody is allowed in here
There are twelve people present, *to be precise*
If I may say so, that dress doesn't suit you

The adverb phrase as style disjunct implies a verb of speaking of which the subject is the *I* of the speaker. Thus, *very frankly* in

Very frankly, I am tired

is equivalent to *I tell you very frankly.* In a question, *eg*

Very frankly, is he tired?

the disjunct may be ambiguous. Here, *very frankly* corresponds to *I ask you very frankly* or to the more probable *Tell me very frankly.*

Common adverbs as style disjuncts include: *bluntly, briefly, candidly, confidentially, frankly, generally, honestly, personally, seriously.*

Style disjuncts normally appear initially.

8.49

For some adverb phrases as style disjuncts, we have a series corresponding to them in other structures. For example, in place of *frankly* in

Frankly, he hasn't a chance

we could put:

prepositional phrase – *in all frankness*
infinitive clause – *to be frank, to speak frankly, to put it frankly*
-ing participle clause – *frankly speaking, putting it frankly*
-ed participle clause – *put frankly*
finite verb clause – *if I may be frank, if I can speak frankly, if I can put it frankly*

For all of the adverbs listed in 8.48, corresponding particle constructions with *speaking* are available as style disjuncts, *eg: seriously ~ seriously speaking*. Many have infinitive clauses of the form *to be* plus the stem adjective, *eg: bluntly ~ to be blunt*. Those allowing such infinitive clauses have a corresponding finite clause with *if*, *eg: if I may be blunt*.

Note

[*a*] The style disjunct *generally* is to be distinguished from the time *frequency* adjunct *generally*, synonymous with *usually* (8.35). The style disjunct is exemplified in

The committee interviewed the two writers. *Generally*, the writers were against censorship.

[*b*] The style disjunct *personally* is to be distinguished from the intensifier *personally*, which is synonymous with the appropriate reflexive form of the pronoun:

I *personally/myself* have never been to New York

These are both to be distinguished from the adjunct *personally:*

He signed the document *personally* ('in person')

Attitudinal disjuncts

8.50

Attitudinal disjuncts convey the speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying (*cf* 6.45, 11.45*f*). They can generally appear only in declarative clauses:

Obviously, nobody expected us to be here today
Understandably, they were all annoyed when they read the letter
He is *wisely* staying at home today
They arrived, *to our surprise*, before we did
Of course, nobody imagines that he will repay what he borrowed
To be sure, we have heard many such promises before
Even more important, he has control over the finances of the party
They are not going to buy the house, *which is not surprising in view of its exorbitant price*
What is even more remarkable, he manages to inspire confidence in the most suspicious people

Many of the adverb phrases are paraphrasable by constructions in which the adjective base is subject complement, expressing an attribute

of the subject. The subject is the content of the original sentence or (the more usual form) anticipatory *it* with the original sentence postposed:

Unfortunately, Bob rejected the offer
= { That Bob rejected the offer *was unfortunate*
  { *It was unfortunate* that Bob rejected the offer

Other such paraphrases are sometimes possible, *eg*
Rightly, Bob rejected the offer
= *It was right* for Bob to reject the offer

And similar paraphrases, including some using the verb base, are possible for many prepositional phrases:

To our regret, Bob rejected the offer
= *We regretted* that Bob rejected the offer

Common adverbs as attitudinal disjuncts are given below in semantic groups.

Group I: speaker's comment on the extent to which he believes that what he is saying is true.

(a) These express primarily a subjective view on the truth of what is said, usually the view of the speaker:

Certainly, they have no right to be there ('I am certain that . . .')
He has *probably* left by now ('I consider it probable that . . .')

Those expressing conviction: *admittedly, certainly, definitely, indeed, surely, undeniably, undoubtedly, unquestionably*
Those expressing some degree of doubt: *quite (etc) likely, maybe* (informal), *perhaps, possibly, presumably, reportedly, supposedly*

(b) These present degrees of conviction as open to objective evidence:

Obviously, they have no right to be there ('It is obvious to me and to everybody else that . . .')

Those expressing conviction: *clearly, evidently, obviously, plainly*
Those expressing some degree of doubt: *apparently*

(c) These refer to the reality or lack of reality in what is said:

Those asserting the reality of what is said: *actually, really*
Those expressing a contrast with reality: *only apparently, ideally, nominally, officially, superficially, technically, theoretically*
Those expressing that what is being said is true in principle: *basically, essentially, fundamentally*

Group II: comment other than on the truth-value of what is said.

(a) These convey the attitude of the speaker without any necessary implication that the judgment applies to the subject of the sentence or indeed to the speaker. Thus,

Fortunately, John returned the book yesterday

might imply that John was fortunate in doing so (perhaps he would have needed to pay a large fine otherwise) or that someone else (possibly, but not necessarily, the speaker) was fortunate as a result of John's action.

annoyingly, curiously, fortunately, funnily enough (*enough* usual in BrE, obligatory in AmE), *happily* (formal), *hopefully* (esp AmE), *luckily, naturally, not unnaturally, preferably, strangely, surprisingly, understandably, unfortunately, unhappily* (formal), *unluckily*

(b) These convey the speaker's attitude, with an implication that the judgment applies to the subject of the sentence. Thus,

Wisely, John returned the book yesterday

implies that the speaker considers the action as wise and he also considers John wise for doing the action.

rightly, wrongly, foolishly, wisely

Adverbs with an *-ing* participle base, *eg: surprisingly*, are the most productive class of adverbs as attitudinal disjuncts.

While attitudinal disjuncts can appear in almost any position, the normal position for most is initial. However, some adverb phrases in [Ia], *eg: probably, possibly*, and all in [IIb], *eg: rightly*, normally occur at *M2* (8.3).

8.51

The semantic distinction between adverbs in Groups I (*eg: certainly, clearly*) and II (*eg: fortunately, wisely*) is reflected in the fact that it is possible to use putative *should* (3.50) in the correspondences of Group II. If *should* is inserted in correspondences of Group I, it conveys obligation and alters the meaning of the sentence radically.

Group I

Clearly, he is behaving well

= *It is clear* that he is behaving well

≠ *It is clear that* he *should* be behaving well ('ought to be behaving well')

Group II

Fortunately, he is behaving well

$= It\ is\ fortunate\ that\ he \begin{Bmatrix} is \\ should\ be \end{Bmatrix}$ behaving well

Putative *should* is excluded from Group I correspondences, where the factual basis of what is said is asserted or questioned, whereas it is admitted in Group II correspondences, where an opinion is expressed.

Note

[*a*] *Surely* is commonly used to invite agreement from the person or persons addressed.

[*b*] *Naturally* and *not unnaturally* are paraphrasable by 'as might have been expected' or 'of course'. They do not correspond to *it is natural* or *it is not unnatural.*

8.52

The difference in meaning between Subgroups IIa (*eg: surprisingly*) and IIb (*eg: rightly*) is reflected in the fact that only in IIb can we make a paraphrase that relates to the subject of the clause:

Subgroup IIa

Surprisingly, John returned the money

$=$ *It was surprising* that John should have returned the money

$\neq$ **John was surprising* to return the money

Subgroup IIb

Rightly, John returned the money

$=$ *It was right* that John should have returned the money

$=$ *John was right* to return the money

The predication applies to the agent in a passive sentence, whether the latter is present or recoverable or indefinite. Hence, we can have the following paraphrases:

Rightly, the money was returned (by John/someone)

$=$ *John/someone was right* to return the money

Conjuncts

8.53

Most conjuncts are adverb phrases or prepositional phrases. For distinctions between conjuncts and conjunctions, see 9.10 *ff.*

Examples of the use of conjuncts are given below, followed by a list of common conjuncts, which are grouped according to their subclasses with references to the sections in Chapter 10 where their role is discussed:

I'd like you to do two things for me. *First*, phone the office and tell them I'll be late. *Secondly*, order a taxi to be here in about half an hour.

You can tell him from me that I'm not going to put up with his complaints any longer. *What's more*, I'm going to tell him that myself when I see him tomorrow.

I see that you've given him an excellent report. You're satisfied with his work *then*, are you?

I took him to the zoo early this morning and then we went to see a circus. *All in all*, he's had a very good time today.

It was a very difficult examination. *Nevertheless*, he passed it with distinction.

He doesn't need any money from us. *On the contrary*, we should be going to him for a loan.

ENUMERATIVE (10.10): *first, second, third . . .; first(ly), secondly, thirdly . . .; one, two, three* (especially in learned and technical use); *a, b, c* (especially in learned and technical use); *for one thing . . . (and) for another (thing); for a start* (informal); *to begin with, to start with; in the first place, in the second place; next, then; finally, last, lastly; to conclude* (formal)

REINFORCING (10.11): *also, furthermore, moreover, then* (informal, especially spoken), *in addition, above all, what is more*

EQUATIVE (10.11): *equally, likewise, similarly, in the same way*

TRANSITIONAL (10.13): *by the way, incidentally*

SUMMATIVE (10.14): *then, (all) in all, in conclusion, to sum up*

APPOSITION (10.15, *cf.* also 9.48): *namely* (often abbreviated to *viz* in formal written English), *in other words, for example* (often abbreviated to *e.g.* or *eg*), *for instance, that is* (often abbreviated to *i.e.* or *ie* in specialized written English), *that is to say*

RESULT (10.16): *consequently, hence* (formal), *so* (informal), *therefore, thus* (formal), *as a result*, [*somehow* ('for some reason or other')]

INFERENTIAL (10.17): *else, otherwise, then, in other words, in that case*

REFORMULATORY (10.18): *better, rather, in other words*

REPLACIVE (10.18): *alternatively, rather, on the other hand*

ANTITHETIC (10.20): *instead* (blend of antithetic with replacive), *then, on the contrary, in contrast, by comparison, (on the one hand . . .) on the other hand*

CONCESSIVE (10.21 *ff*): *anyhow* (informal), *anyway* (informal), *besides* (blend of reinforcing with concessive), *else, however, neverthe-*

less, still, though, yet, in any case, at any rate, in spite of that, after all, on the other hand, all the same

TEMPORAL TRANSITION (10.5): *meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime*

Note

[*a*] *Somehow* has been listed with result conjuncts because it is closest to them semantically. It differs from all other conjuncts in not indicating a relationship between its clause and what precedes:

Somehow I don't trust him ('for some reason or other')

Somehow is used when the reason is not made explicit in the preceding context.

[*b*] *On the other* is an alternative form of *on the other hand* when it is correlative to *on the one hand.*

8.54
Positions of conjuncts

The normal position for most conjuncts is initial. In that position they are usually separated from what follows by a tone unit boundary in speech or a comma in writing. In other positions, they may be in an independent tone unit or enclosed in commas to prevent confusion with homonyms or contribute towards indicating information focus.

Some conjuncts are restricted, or virtually restricted, to initial position: *again, also, altogether, besides, better, else, equally, further, hence, likewise, more, only, overall, similarly, so, still, then* (antithetic), *yet.*

Medial positions are rare for most conjuncts, and final position rarer still. Those that readily occur finally include *anyhow, anyway, otherwise,* and (commonly) *though.* The last two frequently appear medially.

Virtually all conjuncts can appear with questions, most of them initially:

Anyway, do you know the answer?
Will you *therefore* resign?

Note

So, yet, only, and *else* are distinguished by the punctuation convention that allows them to be separated from the previous clause by a comma where other conjuncts would require a more major mark of punctuation (App III.2), *eg: They thought he wasn't coming, so they left without him.* Compare: *They thought he wasn't coming; therefore they left without him,* where at least a semi-colon is required between the two clauses. (Notice that *else* is normally, though not necessarily, preceded by the coordinator *or, eg: They must be satisfied, or else they would have complained by now.*)

So, yet, and *else* usually occur without intonation or punctuation separation from what follows. However, when *so* signals a general inference from the previous linguistic context and might be paraphrased by 'it follows from what has been said', it is often marked by punctuation and intonation separation:

So, you think you know best (informal)

For *so* and *yet* in relation to coordinators, see 9.10–15.

8.55
Conjuncts as correlatives

Sometimes the logical relationship between a subordinate clause and the following superordinate clause is emphasized by adding a conjunct to the latter:

Though he is poor, *yet* he is satisfied with his situation

The sentences with the subordinator alone and the conjunct *yet* alone are similar in meaning:

Though he is poor, he is satisfied with his situation
He is poor, *yet* he is satisfied with his situation

The major difference is that the second states his poverty as a fact, whereas in the first his poverty is presupposed as given information (*cf* 14.4).

The conjuncts that reinforce particular subordinators (11.7) are shown below. It is more usual to reinforce condition and concession subordinators than cause and time subordinators.

condition: if . . . then
concession: although/(even) though/ while/granted (that)/ even if . . . yet/still/however/ nevertheless/nonetheless/ notwithstanding/anyway/ anyhow
cause: because/seeing (that) . . . therefore/hence/accordingly/ consequently
time: while . . . meanwhile/meantime

Correlations with concession and cause are chiefly found in formal use.

Note
Certain other expressions with concessive force may correlate with a concessive conjunct, for example, *true*, *clearly*, or *certainly*, *cf* 10.22.

8.56
Conjunctions for clauses with conjuncts

A clause containing a conjunct may be linked to a preceding clause by one of the coordinators (*and*, *or*, *but*). The following conjuncts seem to be limited to the specified coordinators:

and so *or* + *else/again* (replacive)

but + *however/then* (antithetic)/*though*
and/but + *besides/still/yet/nevertheless*

Two of these conjuncts – *however* and *though* – cannot follow the conjunction immediately. That is to say, if *but* is the coordinator, *however* and *though* cannot be initial, although either can be if there is no preceding conjunction. We can therefore have:

9.13

ELLIPSIS OF SUBJECT

The coordinators allow ellipsis of the subject of the clause they introduce if the subject is co-referential with that of the preceding linked clause:

I may see you tomorrow *or* (I) may phone later in the day

However, this does not apply to other conjunctions, including *for* and *so that*, or to conjuncts other than *yet*, *so*, or *then* ('after that'):

*He did not want it, *for* was obstinate
They didn't like it, *yet* (they) said nothing

Note

A subordinator does not allow ellipsis even when its clause is linked by a coordinator:

*She didn't tell him the bad news *because* he was tired *and because* looked unwell

If the second subordinator in the above sentence is omitted, ellipsis is normal:

She didn't tell him the bad news *because* he was tired and looked unwell

Conjuncts otherwise not allowing ellipsis will do so if preceded by a coordinator:

*He went to bed early, *nevertheless* felt tired
He went to bed early, and nevertheless (he) felt tired

9.14

LINKING OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

As well as linking two main clauses, *and* and *or* can link subordinate clauses:

I wonder *whether* you should speak to him personally about the matter *or whether* it is better to write to him

Such linking is not possible for conjuncts or for the other conjunctions except *but*. *But*, however, is restricted to linking a maximum of two clauses, and, even so, can link only certain types of subordinate clauses:

He said *that* John would take them by car *but that* they might be late

9.15

LINKING OF MORE THAN TWO CLAUSES

Unlike *but*, and unlike the subordinators and the conjuncts, *and* and *or* can link more than two clauses, and all but the final instance of these two conjunctions can be omitted. Thus

John might take them by car, Mary might go with them by bus, *or* I might order a taxi for them

is interpreted as

John might take them by car, *or* Mary might go with them by bus, *or* I might order a taxi for them

9.16

SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS OF COORDINATION BY *AND*

And denotes a relationship between the contents of clauses. We can usually make the relationship explicit by adding an adverbial. We illustrate this with parenthesized items in most of the following examples.

(1) The event in the second clause is a consequence or result of the event in the first:

He heard an explosion *and* he (therefore) phoned the police

(2) The event in the second clause is chronologically sequent to the event in the first:

She washed the dishes *and* (then) she dried them

(3) The second clause introduces a contrast. *And* could be replaced by *but* when this implication is present:

Robert is secretive *and* (in contrast) David is candid

(4) The second clause is a comment on the first:

They disliked John – *and* that's not surprising

(5) The second clause introduces an element of surprise in view of the content of the first:

He tried hard *and* (yet) he failed

Here too, *but* could replace *and*.

(6) The first clause is a condition of the second:

Give me some money *and* (then) I'll help you escape

The implication is shown by the paraphrase:

Give me some money. If you do, (then) I'll help you escape

For the conditional implication to apply, it is usual that

(a) The second clause has a modal auxiliary
(b) The verb of the first clause is an imperative or contains a modal auxiliary.

(7) The second clause makes a point similar to the first:

A trade agreement should be no problem, *and* (similarly) a cultural exchange could be arranged

(8) The second clause is a 'pure' addition to the first:

He has long hair *and* (also) he wears jeans.

9.17

SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS OF COORDINATION BY *OR*

(1) Usually *or* is EXCLUSIVE, expressing the idea that only one of the possibilities can be realized:

> You can sleep on the couch, *or* you can go to a hotel, *or* you can go back to London tonight

When the content of the sentence allows the realization of more than one alternative, we can exclude the combination by adding *either*:

> You can *either* boil an egg, *or* you can make some cheese sandwiches

Even so, a third clause can be added which explicitly allows both alternatives:

> You can *either* boil an egg, *or* you can make some cheese sandwiches, *or* you can do both

Some speakers avoid a sentence such as the last, because of prescriptive teaching that insists that *either* should accompany only two alternatives.

(2) Sometimes *or* is understood as INCLUSIVE, allowing the realization of a combination of the alternatives, and we can explicitly include the third possibility by a third clause:

> You can boil an egg, *or* you can make some cheese sandwiches, *or* you can do both

(3) The alternative expressed by *or* may be a restatement or a correction of what is said in the first conjoin:

> He began his educational career, *or*, in other words, he started to attend the local kindergarten
> They are enjoying themselves, *or* at least they appear to be enjoying themselves

(4) *Or* may imply a negative condition. Thus,

> Give me some money *or* I'll shoot

can be paraphrased by

> Give me some money. *If you don't*, I'll shoot.

This use of *or* is the negative of one use of *and* (9.16), but (unlike *and*) it does not require an imperative or modal auxiliary in the first clause:

> They liked the apartment *or* they wouldn't have stayed so long

9.18

SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS OF COORDINATION BY *BUT*

But denotes a contrast.

(1) The contrast may be because what is said in the second conjoin is unexpected in view of what is said in the first conjoin:

John is poor, *but* he is happy
He didn't want their help, *but* he had to accept it

(2) The contrast may be a restatement in affirmative terms of what has been said or implied negatively in the first conjoin (9.20):

John didn't waste his time in the week before the exam, *but* studied hard every evening

With this relationship, it is normal to ellipt the repeated subject in the second clause.

With the first type of contrast, we can insert in the *but* clause concessive conjuncts such as *yet*; with the second type, we can insert the antithetic conjunct *on the contrary* (*cf* 10.20).

9.19

Either . . . or, both . . . and, neither . . . nor

There are three common correlative pairs: *either . . . or*, where *either* anticipates the alternative introduced by *or* (9.17); *both . . . and*, where *both* anticipates the addition introduced by *and;* and *neither . . . nor*, where *neither* negates the first clause and anticipates the additional negation introduced by *nor*. Thus, two clauses with *neither* in the first and *nor* in the second are the equivalent of two negative clauses conjoined by *and:*

David *neither* loves Joan *nor* wants to marry her
= David does *not* love Joan and does *not* want to marry her

The position of the anticipatory element – *either, both, neither* – generally indicates the scope of the alternative, addition, or additional negation respectively, while the second element – *or, and, nor* – generally introduces a truncated clause that has corresponding scope:

He $\begin{bmatrix} either \\ both \\ neither \end{bmatrix}$ has long hair $\begin{bmatrix} or \\ and \\ nor \end{bmatrix}$ wears jeans

I can $\begin{bmatrix} either \\ both \\ neither \end{bmatrix}$ knit $\begin{bmatrix} or \\ and \\ nor \end{bmatrix}$ sew

He smoked [*either* / *both* / *neither*] cigars [*or* / *and* / *nor*] cigarettes

You can write [*either* / *both* / *neither*] elegantly [*or* / *and* / *nor*] clearly

But, unlike *both*, anticipatory *either* and *neither* can be placed before the lexical verb even when the scope does not include the whole of the predication:

He [*either* / *neither*] smoked cigars [*or* / *nor*] cigarettes

You can [*either* / *neither*] write elegantly [*or* / *nor*] clearly

When *either* and *neither* are in the position before the lexical verb, the correlative clause introduced by *or* and *nor* can be a full clause, but in that case *nor* is followed by subject-operator inversion:

You can [*either* / *neither*] write elegantly, [*or you can* / *nor can you*] write clearly

Either differs from the other two anticipatory elements in that it can be positioned initially when the scope extends over the whole clause or over part of it. In such cases, the clause introduced by *or* is a full clause:

Either John sleeps on the couch, *or* you must book a hotel room for him
Either you can write elegantly, *or* you can write clearly
Either Bob damaged the furniture *or* Peter did

Where, as in the last example, the predicates are identical, a near-equivalent but less common construction has phrasal coordination in the subject:

Either Bob *or* Peter damaged the furniture

With *both* and *neither*, on the other hand, it is usual to have phrasal coordination in the subject (*cf* 9.42):

[*Both* / *Neither*] Bob [*and* / *nor*] Peter damaged the furniture

9.20
Other correlatives

Nor and (less commonly) *neither* correlate with an actual or implied negative in the previous clause. In this use, they are roughly interchangeable, and can be linked to preceding sentences by the conjunctions

and or *but*, a possibility which excludes them from the class of coordinators (9.12). Both conjuncts require subject-operator inversion:

He did *not* want to ask them for help; (but) *nor* could he do without their help
We owe *no* money, (and) *neither* do they

A clause introduced by either of these conjuncts can be separated from the previous clause by a heavier mark of punctuation than the comma.

Common anticipatory correlatives with *but* are *not* (and enclitic *-n't*) and *not only:*

He did*n't* come to help, *but* to hinder us
They *not only* broke into his office and stole his books, *but* they (*also*) tore up his manuscripts

A more dramatic effect is achieved by positioning *not only* initially, with consequent subject-operator inversion:

Not only did they break into his office and steal his books, *but* they *also* tore up his manuscripts

Note
In a formal and mannered style, *nor* is occasionally found after an affirmative clause:

It was hoped that all would be agreeable to that proposal. *Nor* was this hope disappointed.

Ellipsis in coordinated clauses

9.21

ELLIPSIS OF SUBJECT (AND AUXILIARIES)

Identical subjects of coordinated clauses are ellipted:

Peter ate a cheese sandwich and (Peter) drank a glass of beer

If the subjects and the auxiliaries are identical, ellipsis of both is normal:

Mary has washed the dishes, (Mary has) dried them, and (Mary has) put them in the cupboard

As is usual for ellipsis in coordination, the realized items are in the first clause and the ellipsis is in subsequent clauses.

Note
In subordinate clauses, ellipsis of subject alone or of subject with auxiliaries is generally not allowed (but *cf* 9.3 *f*):

Jack was looking well although *he had* slept little
*Jack was looking well although (had) slept little

9.22

ELLIPSIS OF AUXILIARY ONLY

If the subjects of coordinated clauses are different, there may be ellipsis of an identical auxiliary:

John *should* clean the shed and Peter (should) mow the lawn

If there is more than one auxiliary, it is normal for all to be ellipted:

John *must have been* playing football and Mary (must have been) doing her homework

ELLIPSIS OF PREDICATE OR PREDICATION

9.23

Ellipsis of first part of predicate or predication

The first part of the predicate or of the predication may be ellipted, and the subject may be ellipted as well. For pro-forms, see 10.29 *ff.*

(1) Verb phrase only or (less commonly) lexical verb only:

Yesterday John *was given* a railway set, and Sue (was given) a doll

I *work* in a factory, and my brother (works) on a farm

She will *work* today, and (she) may (work) tomorrow

If the clause contains an object with an object complement, the subject must be ellipted as well:

His suggestions made John happy, but (his suggestions made) Mary angry

**His suggestions made* John happy, but *his suggestions* Mary angry

(2) Verb phrase plus subject complement:

John *was the winner* in 1971, and Bob (was the winner) in 1972

It's cold in December in England, but (it's cold) in July in New Zealand

(3) Verb phrase/lexical verb plus direct object:

Peter *is playing football* for his school and Paul (is playing football) for his club

Joan will *cook the meals* today and Barbara may (cook the meals) tomorrow

John will *meet my family* tonight and (John) will (meet my family) again tomorrow

In certain contexts there can be ambiguity as to whether the subject and verb are ellipted or the verb and object are ellipted. For example, the sentence

Bob will interview some candidates this morning and Peter this afternoon

can be interpreted as having either of these two kinds of ellipsis:

Bob will interview some candidates this morning and (Bob will interview) Peter this afternoon
Bob *will interview some candidates* this morning and Peter (will interview some candidates) this afternoon

9.24
Auxiliaries in predication ellipsis
The ellipted form of the auxiliary or lexical verb sometimes varies from that of the realized form when one is 3rd person singular present and the other is not:

I *work* in a factory and my brother (work*s*) on a farm

In general, most co-occurrences of auxiliaries are allowed, for example:

His friends already *belong* to the club and he will (*belong* to the club) soon [present and modal]
John may be *questioning* our motives, but Peter hasn't (*questioned* our motives) [progressive and perfect]
I *saw* your parents last week, but (I) haven't (*seen* your parents) since [past and perfect]

One major exception is that an ellipted passive does not co-occur with any of the other forms:

Paul *denied* the charge, but the charge wasn't *denied* by his friends
*Paul *denied* the charge, but the charge wasn't by his friends

9.25
Ellipsis of whole of predication
If the predication is ellipted completely, it is usual to have the predication realized in the first clause and ellipted in subsequent clauses:

George will *take the course* and Bob might (take the course) too
They can *pay the full fee*, and (they) certainly should (pay the full fee), but (they) probably won't (pay the full fee)

However, it is also possible to have the predication ellipted in the first clause, in which case it is realized in some subsequent clause:

George will (take the course), and Bob might, *take the course*

When the predication is ellipted in the first clause and the subject is

ellipted in a subsequent clause, we have COMPLEX ELLIPSIS (*ie* ellipsis with both previous and subsequent realizations):

John could have been (watching television), but (John) wasn't, *watching television*
They no doubt can (pay the full fee), and (they) certainly should (pay the full fee), but (they) probably won't, *pay the full fee*
They can (pay the full fee) and (they) should *pay the full fee*, but (they) won't (pay the full fee)

Note

The co-occurrence of auxiliaries with predication ellipsis is the same as when only the first part of the predication is ellipted (9.24), provided that the realized predication is in the first clause. However, if the realized predication is in the last clause, then only auxiliaries that take the same head of the verb phrase will normally co-occur. Occasionally one or more of the auxiliaries is also ellipted:

They could (have saved more), and (they) should, *have saved more*

9.26

Ellipsis of direct object or subject complement

If the direct object alone is ellipted, the realized items must be in the last clause:

John likes (Mary), and Peter hates, *Mary*
George opened (the door) and (George) closed *the door*

Similarly, if the subject complement alone is ellipted, and the verb in the last clause is other than *be*, the realized items must be in the last clause:

George was (angry), and Bob certainly seemed, *angry*
George has been (the chairman), and (George) obviously could again become, *the chairman*

But it would be more common to have the pro-form *so* (10.36) in the second clause than to have any ellipsis:

George was angry, and Bob certainly seemed *so*

When the verb in the last clause is *be*, the realized items can be either in the first clause or in the last clause:

Bob seemed *angry*, and George certainly was (angry)
John has recently become (a very hardworking student), and his brother always was, *a very hardworking student*

9.27

Ellipsis of adverbial

It is often more satisfactory to say that the scope of the adverbial is extended to subsequent clauses than to say that it is ellipted. This is

particularly so when the adverbial is positioned initially. For example, *unfortunately* in

Unfortunately, John is not at home and Sally is too busy to see you

appears to apply to a combination of the circumstances described in the two clauses rather than separately to each circumstance.

Conjuncts (8.53 *ff*), disjuncts (8.47 *ff*), and adjuncts of viewpoint (8.7), time (8.30 *ff*), and place (8.24 *ff*) commonly have extended scope:

If John is a member, *then* we should call on him and (we should) ask him to take us along [conjunct]
To my surprise, they didn't appoint him, and they didn't even interview him [disjunct]
Theoretically, I have no objections to his proposal and neither have any of my colleagues [viewpoint adjunct]
This afternoon Mary intends to take the children to the beach, but I am going to wash my car [time adjunct]
In our school, students and teachers get on well together, but this harmony is comparatively recent [place adjunct]

Initial position of these adverbials is usually interpreted as implying an extension of scope to subsequent coordinated (or for that matter, subordinated) clauses.

If the adverbials are in the middle of the clause or at the end of any but the last clause, they are generally interpreted as applying only to the clause in which they actually appear:

Joan is *perhaps* shopping and the children are at school
Joan is shopping, *perhaps*, and the children are at school
Joan is shopping, and the children are *perhaps* at school

However, if there is an ellipsis that links the two clauses more closely, the scope of the adverbial is extended to the second clause:

Mary is *perhaps* inside the supermarket and John outside

Process adjuncts (8.19 *ff*) are occasionally ellipted, with the realized items present in the last clause:

Bill drinks (sparingly), and Peter smokes, *sparingly*

If there is no comma or intonation break, the adjunct applies only to the second clause:

Mary spoke and John answered *rudely*

9.28
Ellipsis of head of noun phrase and of prepositional complement

The head of a noun phrase can be ellipted:

We wanted fried *fish*, but they gave us boiled (fish)
She wore the red *dress*, but the blue (dress) suits her better

This type of ellipsis is not limited to coordination:

He prefers Dutch *cheese* to Danish (cheese)

The complement of a prepositional phrase can be ellipted, with the realized complement in the second clause:

Bob is bored with (music), but Peter enjoys, *music*

9.29

Intonation and punctuation marking of ellipsis

The point where ellipsis has taken place is often marked in speech by an intonation break, that is to say, it co-occurs with the end of an intonation unit (App II.7).

When the ellipsis is in the second and subsequent clauses there is no intonation or punctuation marking for the ellipsis of the subject, or of the subject and immediately following elements:

Peter cooks his own meals and (Peter) washes his own clothes

It appears that a 'gap' is not felt when the ellipsis immediately follows the coordinator. In contrast, intonation marking is usually present in other cases of ellipsis, though punctuation marking is frequently absent:

John likes Mary, and Peter (likes) Susan
The men were drinking and the women (were) listening to music

When the ellipsis is in the first clause, there is usually intonation or punctuation marking both at the point of ellipsis and at the corresponding point in the fully realized clause:

Gerald likes (Sylvia), but Peter hates, Sylvia
He looked (tired), and (he) indeed was, tired
They can (be disciplined), (they) should (be disciplined), and (they) will be, disciplined

However, intonation and punctuation marking may be absent if the ellipsis results in the linking of two lexical verbs:

John found (a valuable stamp) and sold a valuable stamp

If the first verb can be interpreted as either transitive with ellipsis of the object or as intransitive, the presence of intonation or punctuation marking after the first verb suggests that it is intransitive and that there is therefore no ellipsis. Thus

Joan writes, and sings ballads

suggests that Joan writes various things and not necessarily ballads.

9.30

Semantic effect of ellipsis in coordinated clauses

Often the effect of ellipsis is no more than to suggest a closer connection between the content of the clauses, but sometimes the effect is to indicate that there is a combined process rather than two separate processes (*cf* 9.41*f*). Thus

Did Peter tell lies and hurt his friends?

implies that Peter's telling lies had the result that he hurt his friends. The sentence is one question, and may be answered by *yes* or *no*. There is no such implication in

Did Peter tell lies, and did he hurt his friends?

where Peter's telling lies and his hurting his friends are regarded as two separate processes and there are two separate questions. Sometimes, intonation may also be a factor. For example,

Shall we take the car or go by BÚS?

will probably be regarded as one question and could be answered by *No, let's go by taxi*. On the other hand,

Shall we take the CÁR or go by BÙS?
Shall we take the CÁR or shall we go by BÙS?

would both be regarded as alternative questions (7.54*f*), requiring as an answer a choice between taking the car or going by bus.

The combinatory effect is common when the coordinated clauses are direct or indirect questions or subordinate to another clause, or when negation is involved.

Phrasal coordination

9.31

And and *or* are the main coordinators for phrasal coordination. *But* is used only to link adjective phrases and adverb phrases:

A very long *but* unusually interesting journey
He wrote to them politely *but* firmly

Although we have suggested that there is ellipsis of the rest of the clause when the verb phrases or parts of them are directly linked, we do not posit ellipsis of the rest of the clause when other phrases are directly conjoined by *and* and *or*. For example,

Peter and John played football

is not regarded as elliptical for

Peter played football and John played football

though, of course, the two sentences can be synonymous. Instead we regard *Peter and John* as a coordinated plural phrase functioning as subject of the sentence, analogous to *the boys* or the pro-form *they*. This type of coordination is phrasal coordination.

Note

Most subordinators cannot be used to link phrases, but two – *if* and *though* – are used quite freely to link adjective phrases and adverb phrases, as is the conjunct *yet:*

A very pleasant *if* talkative child
A shabby *though* comfortable armchair
A simple *yet* devout prayer
He looked at me kindly *if* somewhat sceptically
He spoke firmly *though* pleasantly
He drove quickly *yet* safely

Noun phrases

9.32

Noun phrases are commonly conjoined (13.37):

Peter and John were there
I write articles on current affairs for *newspapers and magazines*

If *I* (or its case variant) realizes one of the conjoins, conventions of politeness require that *I* should always appear last, and it is also common for *you* to be put first:

you or I; you or they; my friend and me; you, John, and me

9.33

Within the noun phrase there may be ellipsis of the head. For example, in

Old and young men were invited

the subject is elliptical for *old men and young men.*

In contrast, there is no ellipsis, for the normal interpretation, in

Honest and clever students always succeed

where the same students are both honest and clever. *Honest and clever* are therefore conjoined adjectives. Similarly, there is no ellipsis of the noun head with appositional coordination (7.21), as in

I like teaching *a studious or hard-working undergraduate*

If merely two adjectives are conjoined, the coordinator *and* can be omitted with non-elliptical premodifying adjectives only. Contrast

*Old, young men were invited
Honest, clever students always succeed

The head of the noun phrase is very occasionally ellipted in the second conjoin when an adjective is present (*cf* 9.28):

The strong nations and the weak (nations)

9.34

Ellipsis of a noun phrase head can occur with modifiers other than adjectives. For example, with postmodifying prepositional phrases:

He has *workers from Ireland and* (*workers*) *from France* in his factory

and with numerals:

I think there were *two* (*Prime Ministers*) *or three Prime Ministers* who were assassinated, but I forget which

But phrasal coordination with numerals may express approximation, in which case there is no ellipsis: *one or two reasons, a bottle or two, ten or eleven students, three or four hundred people.*

There is a similar set of coordinate expressions of approximation with a pro-form in the second conjoin:

They waited ten *or so* years
He had a dollar *or so* to spend } [units of measurement]

He's drunk brandy *or something*
He's drunk *or something*
He coughed *or something* } [nouns/adjectives/verbs]

He went to New Orleans *or* { *somewhere* / *some place* (esp AmE) } [place adjunct]

He left at ten *or some such time* [time adjunct]

For non-coordinate means of expressing approximation, see 5.26 *f*, 8.16 *f*.

9.35

As pro-forms, demonstratives can be linked to each other or to other determiners in the noun phrase, but the singular forms of the demonstratives are normally not linked to their corresponding plurals:

this (book) and that book	these (chairs) and those chairs
that (reason) or some other reason	these (students) or other students

A noun phrase can be linked to a pro-form in the second conjoin:

his friends and mine	that method and the other
her idea and John's	your proposals and others

Note

Possessive pronouns are not normally linked, except *his* followed by *her*:

his or her friends *but* *our and their work

9.36
An article realized in the first conjoin of a noun phrase is often ellipted in the second conjoin:

a boy or (a) girl the boys and (the) girls

When premodifiers are present, there can also be ellipsis of the head of the noun phrase in the first conjoin:

the old (men) and (the) young men

Other determiners can also be ellipted in the second conjoin:

my brother or (my) sister other boys and (other) girls

9.37
It is normal for a premodifier realized in the first conjoin of a noun phrase to be ellipted in subsequent conjoins:

young boys and (young) girls

If we ellipt the premodifier, we must ellipt an accompanying determiner:

the young men and (the young) women

Hence,

the young men and the women

does not have ellipsis of the premodifier *young* in the second conjoin.

Similarly, a postmodifier is commonly ellipted, but it must be realized in the last conjoin and ellipted in previous conjoins:

boys (studying at this school) and girls studying at this school
cows (kept on our farm), bulls (kept on our farm), and pigs kept on our farm

If a determiner is present in the first conjoin, it can be either ellipted or retained in subsequent conjoins without affecting the ellipsis of the postmodifier:

the boys (studying at this school) and (the) girls studying at this school

Ellipsis can occur even if the determiners in the conjoins differ:

many boys (studying at this school) and some girls studying at this school

We can prevent the postmodifier from applying to the first conjoin by reversing the order of the conjoins:

some girls studying at this school and many boys

It is also possible to combine ellipsis of premodifier and postmodifier. For example, in place of

the older boys studying at this school and the older girls studying at this school

we can have

the older boys and the older girls studying at this school

with ellipsis of the postmodifier in the first conjoin; or

the older boys and older girls studying at this school

with the additional ellipsis of the determiner in the second conjoin; or

the older boys and girls studying at this school

with ellipsis of the premodifier as well. As we have seen before, separate determiners in the two conjoins do not allow the interpretation that there is ellipsis of any premodifier, and therefore

the older boys and the girls studying at this school

does not have ellipsis of the premodifier *older* in the second conjoin.

9.38

And and *or* can link more than two noun phrases (*cf* 9.15), and all but the final instance of the conjunctions can be omitted:

We thanked John, Peter, and Robert ('. . . John and Peter and Robert')
They will employ John, Peter, or Robert ('. . . John or Peter or Robert')

The same applies to the coordination of other units:

He was tall, dark and handsome
You can spend your vacation at a hotel, in a cottage by the sea, or at a summer camp

9.39

Units other than noun phrases

(1) Prepositional phrases:

The attacks *in June and in July* failed
He climbed *up the wall and over the wall*

If the two or more prepositions are identical, then those subsequent to the first can be ellipted:

John complained *to Mary and Peter*

There are further possibilities of ellipsis:

He climbed *up and over the wall*
He climbed *up the wall and over*

(2) Other adverbials and dependent clauses:

You can wash it *manually or by using a machine*
They can call *this week or whenever they wish*

If two or more conjunctions are identical, those subsequent to the first can be ellipted:

If I can find the letter and (if) you are interested in it, I'll let you have it

On the other hand, if two clauses are identical except for their conjunctions, one of the clauses can be ellipted, normally the first, so that two conjunctions are linked:

I am prepared to meet them *when (they like) and where they like*

Sometimes the second clause is ellipted:

They will be arriving *before the show begins or after (the show begins)*

With relative clauses introduced by a preposition and *whom*, ellipsis of the rest of the first clause is not uncommon:

I want to know *by whom (it was ordered) and for whom it was ordered*

(3) Adjectives:

Adjectives can be conjoined when they are predicative:

She is *young and beautiful*

or attributive (*cf* 9.33):

His *clear and forceful* delivery impressed the audience

There can be ellipsis of a premodifier or of complementation:

very cheap and (very) gaudy
I am loath (to do it) and afraid to do it

Note

[*a*] In philosophical and mathematical discourse, *if and only if* (abbreviated *iff*) is a common combination with ellipsis of the first clause.

[*b*] *If and when* is a stereotyped expression conveying a strong possibility that the condition in the clause will be realized:

If and when he buys the car, I'll try to persuade him to buy the insurance from me

Other institutionalized conjoinings of conjunctions are *as and when, unless and until.*

9.40

Order in Phrasal Coordination

The relatively fixed order for subclasses of adjectives in premodification does not apply to coordinated strings, whether or not a coordinator is present. But the order of conjoined words can be influenced by a tendency for the shorter word to come first, *eg: big and ugly, cup and saucer.* There are also stereotyped coordinations where the conjoins are in virtually irreversible order, *eg: odds and ends; bread and butter; law and order; by hook or by crook; through thick and thin; knife, fork, and spoon.*

Combinatory and segregatory coordination

9.41

When conjoined phrases function in the clause, they may involve combinatory or segregatory coordination (*cf* 7.21*f*, 9.30). The distinction applies to various types of conjoined phrases, but is perhaps clearest with noun phrases. When the coordination is segregatory, we can paraphrase the original sentence with two or more coordinated clauses. For example,

John and Mary have a cold

is equivalent to

John has a cold and Mary has a cold

But no analogous paraphrase is available for the combinatory coordination in

John and Mary make a pleasant couple

Other examples of combinatory coordination:

He gave all his books to *Tom and Alice*
Mary and Susan are sisters

Among adjectives involving combinatory coordination, colour adjectives in particular allow a 'particoloured' interpretation:

Our flag is *red, white, and blue* ('partly red, partly white, and partly blue')

In

He painted the cars *black and white*

there is a combined process if each car is painted black and white, and separate processes if some cars are painted black and others white.

Note

[*a*] The distinction applies also to plural or collective noun phrases. Hence we find combined process in *They look alike* and separate process in *The children have a cold,*

while there is ambiguity in *They are married* (to each other or each to another person).

[*b*] For singular concord with some subjects involving combinatory coordination, see 7.22.

9.42

Certain markers explicitly indicate that the coordination is segregatory: *both, each, neither . . . nor, respective* (formal), *respectively* (formal).

While *John and Mary have won a prize* is ambiguous, we are left in no doubt that two prizes were won in

John and Mary each have won a prize
John and Mary have *each* won a prize
John and Mary have won a prize *each*
Both John and Mary have won a prize
John and Mary both have won a prize
John and Mary have *both* won a prize

Similarly, while *John and Mary didn't win a prize* is ambiguous, the sentence *Neither John nor Mary won a prize* makes it clear that two prizes are involved.

Respective is used as a premodifier in a plural noun phrase to indicate separate processes. For example, *John and Bob visited their respective uncles* can only mean that John visited his uncle or uncles and that Bob visited his uncle or uncles. Separate processes are similarly indicated if the subject is a plural noun phrase: *The boys visited their respective uncles.* The related noun phrases can even be in different clauses or in different sentences:

Bob and I have had some serious trouble at school lately. *Our respective parents* are going to see the principal about the complaints.

Respectively is used to indicate which constituents go with which in the separate processes, the order of one linked set corresponding to the order of the other linked set. For example:

John, Peter, and Robert play football, basketball, and baseball *respectively*
= John plays football, Peter plays basketball, and Robert plays baseball

John and Peter are going to Paris and to Amsterdam *respectively*
= John is going to Paris and Peter is going to Amsterdam

9.43

Coordination of identical items

Identical items may be conjoined an indefinite number of times. With

comparatives of adjectives and adverbs susceptible of intensification or gradability, the effect is to express a continuing increase in degree (5.33):

He felt *more and more angry* = He felt increasingly angry
He drove *slower and slower* = He drove increasingly slowly

With verbs and the absolute forms of adverbs, the effect of coordination of identical items is to express a continuing or repetitive process:

They *knocked and knocked* (= They knocked repeatedly)
He talked *on and on and on* (= He talked on continuously)

If a noun is repeated once, the effect may be to suggest that different types can be distinguished:

There are *teachers and teachers* (= There are good and bad teachers)

9.44
Structures relating to coordination

There are several QUASI-COORDINATORS, most of which are related to comparative forms (11.37 *ff*):

as well as, as much as, rather than, more than

They sometimes resemble coordinators:

He publishes *as well as* prints his own books
He was pitied *rather than* disliked

But they can also have a prepositional or subordinating role, as in

As well as printing the books, he publishes them
Rather than cause trouble, I'm going to forget the whole affair

In subject position they do not normally bring about plural concord unless the first noun phrase is plural:

John, *as much as* his brothers, was responsible for the loss

In this respect, they resemble prepositions such as *with* or *in addition to:*

John, *with* his brothers, was responsible for the loss

Non-restrictive relative clauses have been considered as semantically equivalent to coordinate clauses. Such an assignment seems reasonable when the relative clause has the superordinate clause as its antecedent (13.12). Thus,

John didn't go to the show, *which is a pity*

is semantically equivalent to

John didn't go to the show, *and that is a pity*

Apposition

9.45

Apposition resembles coordination in linking units having grammatical affinity. But, in addition, for units to be *appositives*, they must normally be identical in reference or else the reference of one must be included in the reference of the other. For example, in

A neighbour, Fred Brick, is on the telephone

a neighbour is identified as Fred Brick. The relationship underlying apposition is therefore an intensive relationship (7.6):

Fred Brick is *a neighbour*

In many cases the co-reference and grammatical similarity will permit the omission of either appositive unit with a resultant acceptable and synonymous sentence:

A neighbour is on the telephone
Fred Brick is on the telephone

This is true even where, as commonly, the appositives are discontinuous:

An unusual present awaited him, *a book on ethics*
~ *An unusual present* awaited him
~ *A book on ethics* awaited him

In some of the attribution examples (9.54), where an additional clause element is present in one of the units, it is not possible to meet the condition:

Norman Jones, at that time a student, wrote several novels

Nor is it possible in other instances where the apposition is only partial:

The reason he gave, that he didn't notice the other car, was unconvincing

where *The reason he gave was unconvincing* is not synonymous with *That he didn't notice the other car was unconvincing.* The two appositives need not have the same grammatical form to meet this condition. Thus, in the following sentence one of the appositives is a noun phrase, the other a non-finite clause:

Playing football on Sunday, his favourite exercise, kept him fit

9.46

Non-restrictive and restrictive apposition

Apposition may be NON-RESTRICTIVE or RESTRICTIVE (*cf* 13.3). The appositives in non-restrictive apposition are in different information units, and the two appositives have different information value, one of

them being subordinate in the distribution of information. Non-restrictive apposition is indicated in speech by separate tone units for the appositives and in writing by commas or more weighty punctuation, with one of the appositives marked as parenthetic. For example, the apposition is non-restrictive in

Mr Campbell, the lawyer, was here last night

while it is restrictive in

Mr Campbell the lawyer was here last night (*ie* Mr Campbell the lawyer as opposed to any other Mr Campbell we know)

9.47
More than two units

Occasionally there may be more than two units in apposition, as in

They returned to *their birthplace, their place of residence, the country of which they were citizens*

There may also be a hierarchy of appositional relationships, indicated in the following sentence by the various types of bracketing:

We now find { a new type of student: [the revolutionary – ⟨(the radical bent on changing the system) and (the anarchist bent on destroying it)⟩]}

9.48
Indicators of apposition

A number of expressions explicitly indicate apposition. They can be inserted between appositives, for example *namely* in

The passenger plane of the 1980s, namely *the supersonic jet*, will transform relations between peoples of the world

The indicators express certain semantic relationships between the appositives and therefore cannot be used for all cases of apposition. Common indicators are listed below, those marking the same or similar relationship being grouped together.

that is to say, that is, ie (formal and written); *namely, viz* (formal and written); *to wit* (formal, especially legal); *in other words; or, or rather, or better; and; as follows; for example, for instance, eg* (formal and written), *say, including, included, such as; especially, particularly, in particular, notably, chiefly, mainly, mostly; of*

Some of these indicators either precede or (less commonly) follow the second appositive:

The President of the United States, *in other words* Richard Nixon, was on television last night

The President of the United States, Richard Nixon *in other words*, was on television last night

But others can only precede the second appositive: *namely, and, or (rather/better), as follows, including, such as, of,* and the abbreviated forms, *ie, viz,* and *eg:*

Many professions, *such as* the legal profession, have established their own codes of professional conduct

Included can only follow the second appositive:

Many people, my sister *included*, won't forgive him for that

Non-restrictive apposition

9.49

Apposition is typically exemplified by noun phrases in non-restrictive apposition. The semantic relationships between the appositives are displayed below, with one or two representative indicators of relation.

- EQUIVALENCE (*ie, in other words*)
  - appellation (*namely; who/which* + BE)
  - designation (*who/which* + BE)
  - identification (*namely*)
  - reformulation (*or*)
- ATTRIBUTION (*who/which* + BE)
- INCLUSION
  - exemplification (*for example*)
  - particularization (*especially*)

9.50

Appellation

With appellation, there is unique reference between the two appositives. Both appositive noun phrases are commonly definite and the second is typically a proper noun, but need not be:

The company commander, (that is to say) *Captain Madison*, assembled his men and announced their mission

The second appositive can be replaced by a corresponding relative clause:

The company commander, who was Captain Madison, assembled his men and announced their mission

It is more specific than the first, and hence the use of *namely*, an indicator that introduces a more specific appositive:

The passenger plane of the 1980s, (namely) *the supersonic jet*, will transform relations between peoples of the world

The second appositive is often a finite clause:

He told them *the good news:* (namely) *taxes are to be reduced*

9.51
Designation

With designation, there is also unique reference, but the second appositive is less specific than the first. Both appositives are commonly definite noun phrases:

Captain Madison, (that is to say) *the company commander*, assembled his men and announced their mission

Replacement of the second appositive by a corresponding relative clause is again possible.

9.52
Identification

With identification, there is no unique equivalence. The second appositive is more specific, identifying what is given in the first, which is typically an indefinite noun phrase:

A company commander, (namely) *Captain Madison*, assembled his men and announced their mission

Unlike the two previous types of equivalence apposition, replacement of the second appositive by a corresponding relative clause is not possible. A similar relationship obtains if the first appositive is, or contains, a pronoun referring to the second appositive:

We – (that is to say) *John and I* – intend to resign

Note

[*a*] There are obvious affinities between the second example of identification apposition and substitution constructions (restricted to informal spoken English) containing a pronoun and an appended noun phrase to which the pronoun refers (14.38):

He's a complete idiot, *that brother of yours*
It went on far too long, *your game*

On a somewhat similar construction in familiar or dialectal use – *He's a complete idiot, John is* – see 14.38.

There are also similarities between non-restrictive apposition and extraposed constructions with anticipatory *it* (14.25 *f*):

It was good *to see you again*

[*b*] We sometimes have the converse of the substitution referred to in Note *a:* anticipatory substitution. In this type of construction (also restricted to informal spoken

English), a noun phrase is positioned initially, marked off by intonation or punctuation from what follows, and a pronoun substitutes for it in the relevant position within the sentence:

Your friend John, I saw *him* here last night
That play, it was terrible

[c] There are appositives other than noun phrases that in general resemble identification apposition, *eg*

They *summoned help – called the police*
They bought it *cheaply, for three dollars*

9.53
Reformulation

Reformulation is a rewording in the second appositive of the content of the first.

If the reformulation is based on linguistic knowledge, the second appositive is a synonymous expression:

a terminological inexactitude, in other words a lie
sound units of the language, technically phonemes

An example with appositive adjectives:

He drew a *triacontahedral*, or *thirty-sided*, figure

A synonymous word or phrase may replace the first formulation in order to avoid misinterpretation or provide a more familiar or a more technical term.

In addition to the markers it shares with other types of reformulation, this type admits a large range of expressions that specifically mark linguistic reformulation, *eg:*

(*more*) *simply, to put it simply, in more technical terms, technically* (*speaking*)

Apposition involving linguistic reformulation includes translations from foreign languages:

savoir (*know* in English)

If the reformulation is based on knowledge about the external world, the second appositive is a co-referential expression:

Fred – or Ginger as he is usually called
The United States of America, or America for short

The reformulation may be a correction of what was said. The correction may be due to an attempt at greater accuracy and precision in formulation:

His party controls *London, Greater London* that is to say

Examples with appositives other than noun phrases:

She is *happier, very much happier*, than he is
Thirdly and *lastly*, they would not accept his promise

9.54
Attribution

Attribution involves predication rather than equivalence. We can replace the second appositive by a corresponding relative clause. The second appositive is commonly an indefinite noun phrase:

The house, an imposing building, dominated the street

But it can be definite:

Many soldiers, the cream of the battalion, died in the attack

Certain kinds of construction are found only in attributive apposition:

(1) An article is absent from the second appositive:

Robinson, leader of the Democratic group on the committee, refused to answer questions

This type is common in newspapers and magazines.

(2) An adverbial that is a clause constituent is added to the second appositive:

Your brother, obviously an expert on English grammar, is highly praised in the book I am reading

(3) The second appositive has an internal structure of subject and either complement or adjunct. The participle *being* can be inserted between the two constituents of the appositive:

Jones and Peters, both (being) of unknown address, were charged with the murder of Williamson
At the entrance there are *two pillars, one (being) on each side*

Note

An attribution appositive is to be distinguished from a verbless adverbial clause (11.5) of which the following are examples:

An even-tempered man, Paul nevertheless became extremely angry when he heard the news ('Though he was an even-tempered man')
The heir to a fortune, his friend did not need to pass examinations ('Since he was the heir to a fortune')

These constructions differ from identification appositives (9.52) in that when they occur initially the subject of the sentence is not marked off from the predicate by intonation or punctuation separation.

9.55
Inclusion

Inclusion applies to cases of apposition where the reference of the first appositive is not identical with that of the second, but instead includes it. There are two types of inclusion: exemplification and particularization.

In exemplification, the second appositive exemplifies the more general term in the first appositive:

His excuses, say *the breakdown of his car*, never seemed plausible

The explicit indicators of exemplification apposition are those in the group headed by *for example* in 9.48. Sometimes there may be ambiguity between exemplification and identification (9.52) if no indicator is present:

Famous men (*De Gaulle, Churchill, Roosevelt*) have visited this university

The two types of relationship are distinguished by the explicit indicators.

Unlike exemplification, particularization requires an explicit indicator:

The children liked *the animals*, PARTICULARLY *the monkeys*

The explicit indicators of particularization apposition are those in the group headed by *especially* in 9.48.

We should perhaps include here instances where a numeral or quantifier in the second appositive indicates the particularization (*cf* 9.54):

The two men, ONE *a Dane*, were awarded medals
The soldiers, SOME *drunk*, started fighting each other

Restrictive apposition

9.56

Strict restrictive apposition of noun phrases can take three forms of which the first is the most common:

(1) The first appositive is the more general expression and is preceded by a definite determiner (and possibly premodifier):

that famous critic Paul Jones	the number three
the novel *Great Expectations*	my good friend Bob

(2) The second appositive is preceded by a determiner, always *the*, and is more general than the first, as in *Paul Jones the critic*.

(3) Type 3 is like (1) but with omission of the determiner (esp AmE):

Critic Paul Jones	Democratic leader Robinson

For titles with personal names, such as *Professor Brown*, see 4.25 for geographical names, see 4.27.

9.57

An important use of the first form of restrictive apposition is found with citations and names of books, films, etc:

the term 'heavy water' the novel *Crime and Punishment*
the word 'if'

The first appositive is often absent:

'If' is a conjunction
'John and Mary' is a coordinated noun phrase
I'm reading *Crime and Punishment*

In such cases, we may assume an ellipsis of some general phrase such as 'the expression' or 'the citation form', or of an appropriate term in the case of titles, such as 'the book'. The singular number concord with 'John and Mary' can only be explained if we assume the ellipsis of a singular first appositive. (For further examples see 7.21.)

9.58

Restrictive apposition is common with such general noun phrases as *the fact, the idea, the view:*

The fact that he wouldn't betray his friends is very much to his credit
I don't agree with *the view that there is no advantage in being patient*
The question whether to confess or not troubled him
Your duty to report the accident takes precedence over everything else

With participle clauses, and sometimes with *wh*-clauses, *of* is used as an indicator:

The thought of playing against them arouses all my aggressive instincts
He didn't accept *the idea of working while he was studying*
His account of what he had done that year did not satisfy his colleague

Bibliographical note

Some recent contributions to coordination in general: Gleitman (1965); Hudson (1970); Karlsen (1959); Lakoff, R. (1971); Stockwell *et al* (1973), Ch 6. On the distinctions between coordinators, subordinators, and conjuncts, see Greenbaum (1969).

TEN
SENTENCE CONNECTION

Factors in sentence connection

10.1

There are many factors that interact in pointing to links between sentences. We illustrate this by examining a single paragraph. For ease of reference, the sentences are numbered.

> [i] We sometimes thoughtlessly criticize a government announcement which refers to 'male persons over the age of eighteen years'. [ii] What ridiculous jargon, we think; why couldn't this pompous official have used the word 'man'! [iii] But the official may be forced into a jargon by the lack of precision of ordinary words. [iv] 'Man' may seem to be exactly the same as 'male person over the age of eighteen years', but would the latter be our automatic interpretation if the word 'man' had been used? [v] We often use it of even younger males of sixteen or seventeen, and it can be applied to a school-boy of ten ('the team is a man short'). [vi] It may simply mean 'brave person', as when we tell a little boy of four to 'stop crying and be a man'. [vii] Or it may mean 'human being', without regard to sex, as in a phrase like 'not fit for man or beast'. [viii] It may even mean a wooden disc – as in the game of draughts.

We shall refer to three factors that enter into sentence connection in the above paragraph: implication in the semantic content, lexical equivalence, and syntactic devices.

In speech, there are also prosodic features of connection (14.2*ff*, App II.9, 11), which are ignored in the present treatment.

10.2

A reader searches for semantic relationships implied between sentences that are next to each other. For example, he finds that sentences [vi], [vii], and [viii] present a series of alternatives linked to the joint content of [v], but only in [vii] do we find the coordinator *or* marking the alternatives.

10.3

We can expect successive sentences to show some relationship through their vocabulary, some equivalence in the lexical items. The simplest form for such lexical equivalence is through the repetition of words or phrases. For example *man*, which first appears in [ii], recurs twice in [iv], and once in [v], [vi], and [vii].

Lexical equivalents are often synonyms or near-synonyms. Of course, the whole point of the paragraph is the degree of closeness in meaning between 'male persons over the age of eighteen years' – [i] and [iv] – and 'man'.

However, the lexical equivalents need not be synonyms. A more general term may be used as the equivalent of a more specific term (*human being* [vii] ~ *man* or *woman*). Or the relationship may be established in the context (*a government announcement* in [i] ~ *this pompous official* in [ii]). Or (to go outside the present illustration) it may depend on factual knowledge or pre-suppositions that the speaker assumes that his audience shares with him (*Paris* ~ *the capital of France*; *the youth* ~ *the nation's most precious asset*).

Furthermore, lexical connection between sentences may involve antonyms. For example, the connection between the following two sentences is largely dependent on the antithesis between *men* and *women:*

> Discrimination is undoubtedly practised against *women* in the field of scientific research. We don't find *men* complaining that they are not being interviewed for positions that they are clearly qualified to fill.

Finally, lexical items belonging to a particular set of items tend to co-occur. For example, *birth* and *baby:*

> We heard that the *birth* was easy. The *baby* is smaller than expected, but is in good health.

10.4

Our illustrative paragraph also contains syntactic devices for sentence connection. As we have said, *man* appears in five of the sentences. But 'man' as a word is also referred to by the pronoun *it* – twice in [v] and once in each of [vi], [vii], and [viii]. Thus *man* and its equivalents, lexical or syntactic, form a motif running through the paragraph.

In what follows we shall be primarily concerned with syntactic devices that help to connect sentences.

Time relaters

10.5

Time-relationships between sentences can be signalled by temporal adjec-

tives or adverbials or by tense, aspect and modality in verbs. Once a time-reference has been established, certain adjectives and adverbials may order subsequent information in relation to it. There are three major divisions of time-relationship:

(1) previous to given time-reference:

ADJECTIVES: *earlier, former, preceding, previous*

eg He handed in a good essay. His *previous* essays were all poor. ('previous to that good essay')

ADVERBIALS: *already, as yet, before, earlier, first, formerly, previously, so far, yet*; phrases with pro-forms: *before that, before then, until now*

eg I shall explain to you what happened. But *first* I must give you a cup of tea. ('before explaining what happened')

(2) simultaneous with given time-reference:

ADJECTIVES: *contemporary, simultaneous*

eg The death of the president was reported this afternoon on Cairo radio. A *simultaneous* announcement was broadcast from Baghdad. ('simultaneous with the report of the death of the president on Cairo radio')

ADVERBIALS: *at present, at this point, meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, now, presently* (esp AmE), *simultaneously, then,* relative *when*

eg Several of the conspirators have been arrested but their leader is as yet unknown. *Meanwhile* the police are continuing their investigations into the political sympathies of the group. ('at the same time as the arrests are being made')

(3) subsequent to given time-reference:

ADJECTIVES: *following, later, next*

eg I saw him on Friday and he seemed to be in perfect health. The *following* day he died. ('following the Friday just mentioned')

ADVERBIALS: *afterwards, again* ('after that'), *immediately, later next, since, then, after that*

eg The manager went to a board meeting this morning. He was *then* due to catch a train to London. ('after the board meeting')

Words with temporal significance do not always have a connective function. Thus, somebody may say

John's *previous* wife died last year

without any prior mention of John's subsequent or present wife.

10.6

The ordinals constitute a temporal series of adjectives: *first, second, third* . . ., with *next* as a substitute for any of the middle terms when moving up the series, and *final* or *last* as a substitute for the term for the end of the series. There is a corresponding series of adjuncts with *first* (also *at first* and, less commonly, *firstly*) as the beginning of the set; *next, then, later, afterwards,* as interchangeable middle terms; and *finally, lastly,* or *eventually* as markers of the end of the set.

10.7

Tense, aspect, and modality are discussed in 3.26 *ff*. Here we merely illustrate two features of the more obvious time-relationships signalled by these features of the verb phrase:

He *telephoned* the police. There *had been* an explosion. [1]
Alice *turned on* the radio. John *was taking* a shower. [2]

The past perfect of the verb in one sentence and the simple past in the other fix the temporal sequence of the information conveyed in the two sentences of [1]. The past perfect form allows the two sentences to appear in reverse sequence without any obscurity. In [2] the verb forms indicate that the action described in the first sentence took place during that described in the second sentence.

10.8

Place relaters

Words denoting place-relationship can play a part in sentence connection:

He examined the car. The *front* was slightly damaged. ('front *of the car*')

A few place adverbs, *here, there,* and relative *where,* are pro-forms, *eg:*

All my friends have been to Paris at least once. I am going *there* next summer for the first time. ('to Paris')

Logical connecters

10.9

And

The possible relationships between sentences linked by *and* are in general

the same as those between clauses linked by *and* (9.16). *And* can link its sentence with a unit comprising several sentences, as in the following example, where *that* does not refer merely to the preceding sentence:

> It was a convention where the expected things were said, the predictable things were done. It was a convention where the middle class and the middle aged sat. It was a convention where there were few blacks and fewer beards. *And* that remains the Republican problem.

10.10
Enumeration

Enumerative conjuncts (8.53) indicate a listing of what is being said. Other listing conjuncts are also used in the set, as *furthermore* in

> He attacked the senator viciously, but he was never called before the committee. *First*, he was not an important enough figure. *Furthermore*, his criticism of the senator was public knowledge. *Finally*, there was no case for suggesting he was secretly infiltrating the government.

The addition of *far more importantly* in the following indicates that the statements are listed in ascending order of importance:

> Tom Brown is well known in this city. He has been a member of the city council for many years. *Secondly, and far more importantly*, he is a football player of national reputation.

There are several climactic additive conjuncts that mark the end of an ascending order: *above all, on top of it all, last but not least.*

We can indicate a descending order at the beginning of the series by such expressions as *first and foremost*, and *first and most important(ly)*. *Most important(ly)* and *most important(ly) of all* can occur either at the beginning or at the end of a series; they mark by their position whether the series is in ascending or descending order of importance.

It is obvious that *first(ly)*, *second(ly)*, *third(ly)*, etc, mark particular positions in a series. *To begin with, to start with*, and (informally) *for a start* can occur initially in a series, *next* and *then* only medially, and *last(ly)*, *finally*, and (rather formally) *to conclude* only in final position. Reasons for what has been said can be linked by the correlatives *for one thing . . . (and) for another (thing)*, though the first of the pair can be used alone if the intention is to offer only one reason.

The enumeration may be expressed in ways that are more integrated within the structure of the sentence, as in the following formulaic expressions that are typical of formal spoken English:

> I want to begin by saying . . . I will conclude by saying . . .

The introductory expression may be related more closely to the preceding lexical content, as in *One reason is . . . the other reason is . . .* We might even have a main clause that serves as a link in the enumeration, *eg: There is still another thing* or *I want to make one final point.*

Noun phrases alone can be used for enumeration as well as the fuller forms, *eg: another thing, one final point.*

Addition

10.11

The addition relationship is often conveyed by the two subclasses of additive conjuncts, reinforcing and equative conjuncts (8.53):

This food is very good and it's probably something that people wouldn't get at home. *Also*, it's not difficult to cook and it's quick to prepare.

There has been no progress in the negotiations between the union and the employers. The union is determined to get more than the employers have proposed. *Equally*, the employers have absolutely no intention of increasing their final offer.

10.12

Additive adjuncts (8.8 *ff*) specify that part of the sentence is an addition to what has been previously mentioned or implied:

The children read the play. They acted it *too.*

He didn't explain what the letter signified. *Neither/Nor* did she.

Either, neither, and *nor* (9.20) differ from the others in requiring the two sentences they link to be negative but no other negative appears in the sentence containing *neither* or *nor. Too,* on the other hand, generally requires both to be positive. Thus, in the following sentences, *either, neither,* and *nor* are admissible (as are other additive adjuncts, such as *also*), but not *too:*

A: The children didn't read the play. B: *They didn't act it *too.*
A: The children didn't read the play. B: They *also* didn't act it.
A: The children didn't read the play. B: They didn't act it *either.*
A: The children didn't read the play. B: *Neither/Nor* did they act it.

10.13

Transition

Now introduces a new stage in the sequence of thought:

We have settled that at last. *Now,* what was the other thing we wanted to discuss?

As for (in BrE also *as to*) introduces a related topic:

Mary has several close friends. *As for* John, he is always surrounded by friends.

Certain other expressions mark a transition, but they can also begin discussion: *with reference to, with respect to, with regard to* (all formal).

Incidentally and *by the way* add explicitly that what is being said is a digression:

The airlines charge half-price for students. *Incidentally,* I have already bought my ticket to New York.

Certain other expressions are commonly used for marking a transition to a new stage: *Let us now turn to . . .* (formal), *Regarding . . .* (formal), *To turn to . . .*; or to introduce a digression: *Talking/Speaking of . . ., That reminds me, . . .*

10.14
Summation

The final part of a unit may be a generalization or summing-up of what preceded. Summative conjuncts (8.53) and style disjuncts such as *in brief* (8.48*f*) can be used to indicate this:

The techniques discussed are valuable. Sensible stress is laid upon preparatory and follow-up work. Each chapter is supported by a well-selected bibliography. *In all,* this is an interesting and clearly written textbook that should prove extremely useful to geography teachers.

Integrated expressions include *I will sum up by saying, I shall conclude by saying.*

10.15
Apposition

Indicators of an apposition (9.48) can be used to refer back to previous sentences:

It is important that young children should see things and not merely read about them. *For example,* it is a valuable educational experience to take them on a trip to a farm.

Integrated indications of certain types of apposition include *Another way of putting it is . . ., An example would be . . .*

10.16
Result

Several result conjuncts (8.53) indicate that a sentence expresses the consequence or result of what was said before.

They don't often use it over the weekend. *So* you can borrow it if you want to.
They refused to pay the higher rent when an increase was announced. *As a result*, they were evicted from their house.

Integrated indications include *The result (of that) is . . ., The consequence (of that) was . . .*

10.17
Inference
An inference from what is implicit in the preceding sentence or sentences can be indicated by an inferential conjunct (8.53):

A: I'm afraid there isn't much I can help you with.
B: *In other words*, you don't want to be bothered.
A: He says he wants to marry Susan.
B: *In that case*, he shouldn't be quarrelling with her all the time.

Other markers of inference include *If so, If not, That implies . . ., You can conclude from that . . .*

10.18
***Or:* Reformulation and replacement**
Or introduces a reformulation (a type of apposition, 9.53) or replacement. It can be followed by conjuncts that have the same function, or they alone can be used.

Examples of reformulatory conjuncts (8.53):

They are enjoying themselves. (*Or*) *Rather*, they appear to be enjoying themselves.
You say you took the book without his permission. (*Or*) *In other words*, you stole it.

Integrated markers of reformulation include *A better way of putting it is . . ., It would be better to say . . .*

Examples of replacive conjuncts (8.53):

I might do it. *Or again*, I might not.
In order to buy the car, I may draw on my savings, though I am reluctant to do so. (*Or*) *On the other hand*, I might approach my parents for a loan.

Integrated markers of replacement include *The alternative is . . ., It might be better if . . .*

10.19
But
The relationships between sentences linked by *but* are the same as those

between clauses linked by *but* (9.18), though the contrast may be with a preceding unit consisting of more than one sentence:

> More than one marriage had its beginnings in the Princess Theatre; more than one courtship was extended and perpetuated there. And it would be fair to say that a number of lives were shaped, to a degree, by the figures and fashions and personalities that flashed upon the screen. *But* years have a way of doing strange things to people, times and events and now the old Princess is little more than a misty memory.

10.20
Contrast

A contrast can be indicated by antithetic conjuncts (8.53). *On the contrary* emphasizes that the opposite is true:

> I didn't ask her to leave. *On the contrary*, I tried to persuade her to stay.

The other conjuncts introduce a comparison or contrast, without entailing a denial of the validity of what preceded:

> He's rather foolish, I'm afraid. *By comparison*, she's a genius.
> A cut of one quarter in the total wages bill would bring only a five per cent saving in the ship's final cost. *By contrast*, the price difference between British and Japanese tankers is now as much as 25 per cent.

On the other hand often indicates contrast, especially when it is the second of a correlative pair with *on the one hand:*

> *On the one hand*, you don't want to be too aggressive. *On the other hand*, you shouldn't be too timid.

Instead involves a contrast, though it also indicates a replacement. The conjunct is illustrated in

> He doesn't study at all. *Instead*, he sits and day-dreams.

and the adjunct in

> He wanted a fishing-rod for his birthday. His father bought him a book *instead*. ('instead of a fishing-rod')

Concession
10.21

Concessive conjuncts (8.53) signal the unexpected, surprising nature of what is being said in view of what was said before:

He has been in office for only a few months. He has, *however*, achieved more than any of his predecessors.
The term papers were very brief. *Still*, they were better than I expected.
I didn't invite your friend Bill to the party. *Besides*, he wouldn't have come.

Most of the concessive conjuncts can be paraphrased by a concessive subordinate clause introduced by *though* or *although*; for example, with the first pair of sentences above: *Though he has been in office for only a few months, he has achieved more than any of his predecessors. Besides, anyhow* (informal), and *anyway* (informal) indicate that an addition is being made to a process of reasoning, but they are at the same time concessive. With *besides* the additive implication is particularly prominent: it could be paraphrased: 'if you don't find that point convincing, here's another point.' *At any rate* may be roughly paraphrased as 'whatever happens' or 'regardless', and *after all* as 'this at least must be conceded'. When *else* (following the conjunction *or*) is a concessive conjunct, it is equivalent to 'even if not'.

Even is a concessive adjunct, but it is also additive:

Even John was there (John was there (surprisingly) in addition to others)
John will *even* sing a song if you ask him (John will sing a song in addition to other things he will do)

10.22

Certain disjuncts that assert the truth of their sentence are often used to express some notion of concession, roughly equivalent to 'this at least is true'. They include the attitudinal disjuncts *actually, admittedly, certainly, really, in (actual) fact, of course* (8.50), and the style disjunct *strictly speaking*. Sometimes the reservation is about a preceding sentence:

I wasn't called up by the army. *Actually*, I volunteered.

But the reservation may relate to what follows, and in such a case *but* or a concessive conjunct is often found in the next sentence:

Of course, the book has some entertaining passages about the private lives of film stars. *But* on the whole it is extremely boring.

Integrated markers of this relationship include *I admit . . ., It is true that . . .*

10.23

Several attitudinal disjuncts suggest that the context of the sentence to which they are related may not be true in reality *eg: nominally, officially,*

technically, theoretically (8.50). A following sentence, which may then indicate what is said to be the real truth, may be marked for this purpose by *actually, really, in (actual) fact*, or *in reality*. For example:

*of*FIcially, he is in charge. *A*Ctually, his secretary does all the work.

Integrated markers of this relationship include *The official position was . . ., The theory was . . .*

10.24
For
The conjunction *for* (formal and usually literary) indicates that what is said is the reason for mentioning what has been said previously:

The vast majority of the competitors will be well content just to walk around at their own pace, stopping for rest or refreshment as required. *For* it is a long day's walk, and there is much to be said for enjoying the scenery at the same time.

Substitution

10.25
Like ellipsis (9.1), substitution is a device for abbreviating and for avoiding repetition. Most of the substitutes or PRO-FORMS within sentences are also used across sentences. They are normally unstressed. Hence, though a nucleus is commonly on the last word of a clause, it would not be usual to have a nucleus on a pro-form (App II.7). Contrast:

John upset a large beautiful vase. It fell and hurt BÒB.
A large beautiful vase fell on Bob's head. It was very heavy and HÙRT him.

Pro-forms for noun phrases and their constituents

10.26
The most obvious pro-forms for noun phrases are the 3rd person pronouns:

John and Mary stole a toy from my son. *Their* mother told *them* to return the toy, but *they* said it was *theirs*.
Dr Solway took *the student's* blood pressure that day. *He* also examined *his* lungs and heart.

It will be noticed that *he* substitutes for *Dr Solway* and *his* for *the student's*. We interpret the appropriate substitutions from the content of the sentences. For example, we can change the second sentence to transfer the substitutions:

Dr Solway took *the student's* blood pressure that day. *He* had felt sick during the night and came for *his* help as soon as the clinic opened.

In the second sentence, *he* now substitutes for *the student*, and *his* for *Dr Solway's*. Where the reference of the pronoun is felt to be ambiguous, the full form or a lexical equivalent can, of course, be used.

The plurals of the 1st and 2nd person pronouns sometimes have as their antecedent a noun phrase and can then be considered pro-forms:

John and I have finished our work. Can *we* start *our* lunch now?

A somewhat different situation exists when the 'antecedent' noun phrase does not include the pronoun appearing in the next sentence:

You and John seem to be finished. Shall *we* have lunch now?

We here substitutes for an implied *you and John and I:* see further 4.82. The singulars of the 1st and 2nd person pronouns are never pro-forms for noun phrases: they merely replace themselves.

10.27

One can be a pro-form for a noun phrase head or for an indefinite noun phrase (4.96). Certain other items can be pro-forms for noun phrases, in particular *all, any, both, each, either, neither, some, none.* They can be regarded as elliptical, since they can be expanded by *of* with some appropriate prepositional complement:

The boys applied for a scholarship. *Each* (*of them*) was able to present excellent references.

You told me there were *three pictures by Van Gogh* in the exhibition. But I didn't see *any* (*of his pictures*).

My friends intend to make a career in business. *None* (*of my friends*) want to go to university.

There is an equivalent expansion which converts the pro-forms into determiners or predeterminers. This affects *all, both, each, either, neither,* as in *all the boys, each boy.*

The same is a pro-form for a noun phrase. The phrase it replaces must be identical with the antecedent, but (except in dialect or archaic use) the two phrases are usually not co-referential:

A: Can I have *a cup of black coffee with sugar*, please?
B: Give me *the same*, please.

10.28

Pro-forms for adverbials

Some time relaters (10.5) can be pro-forms for time adjuncts, principally

then (='at that time'), but also *that* when it functions as subject and when the verb is intensive:

We saw John *at eight on Monday evening*. We told him *then* that we would be coming to the party.
A: I'm meeting George for a drink *this evening*.
B: *That* would be the best time to raise the subject.

Some place relaters (10.8) can be pro-forms for place adjuncts, principally *here* (='at/to this place'), and *there* (='at/to that place'), but also *that* (='that place') and *it* (='that place') when they function as subject and when the verb is intensive:

Look *in the top drawer*. You'll probably find it *there*.
They sat *right in front of the stage*. *That/It/There* was where the noise was greatest.

The most common pro-forms for process adjuncts (8.19 *ff*) are *in that way, that way* (informal) and *like that:*

She plays the piano *with great concentration and with great energy*.
I'm afraid she doesn't study *like that*. ('with great concentration . . .')
Always be frank and open to your colleagues. That way you'll win their trust and confidence. ('by always being frank . . .')

Pro-forms for predicate and predication
10.29

AUXILIARIES AS PRO-FORMS

Do is a pro-form for the predicate and carries tense and person distinctions:

A: John drives a car. B: I think BÒB *does* TÒO (=drives a car).

When functioning as operator for negation, interrogation, or emphasis (3.25), *do* can be considered as allowing ellipsis of the predication:

A: John drives a car. B: Bob doesn't (drive a car).

But it is convenient to treat cases of ellipsis together with the pro-form *do*.

Other operators and auxiliaries allow ellipsis of the predication, but can also be treated together with the pro-forms:

A: John can drive a car. B: I think BÒB *can* (drive a car) TOO.
A: Was the entire building destroyed? B: Yes, it *was* (destroyed).
A: Have they seen the play? B: No, they *haven't* (seen the play).
A: I'm hungry. B: *Are* you (hungry)?

There can be combinations of operator and auxiliaries with such ellipsis:

A: Has the show started? B: It *may have* (started).

A: Should she have been taking that medicine? B: Yes, she *should* (*have* (*been* (taking the medicine))).

A: I've paid for the tickets. B: You *shouldn't have* (paid for the tickets).

and of an operator with lexical *be* or (especially for BrE) lexical *have:*

A: Mary's in Chicago. B: She *can't be* (in Chicago).

A: I wonder if you have a pen with you. B: I *may* (*have* (a pen with me)).

Note

[*a*] The rules of co-occurrence of auxiliaries are the same for both coordinated clauses and coordinated sentences (9.24).

[*b*] There is also ellipsis with imperative *do* and *don't:*

A: Can I have a piece of cake? B: Please *do* (have a piece of cake).

10.30
Complex pro-forms

The substitute may be a COMPLEX PRO-FORM: a combination of one or more auxiliaries with the pro-forms *so*, *that*, or *it*.

The patterns of combination are exemplified below for declarative sentences. For patterns (i) and (ii), lexical *be*, passive *be*, or (especially for BrE, see Note *a* below) lexical *have* may combine with the pro-form *so*.

(i) *so do* type: *so* + auxiliary [+ subject]

A: John drives a car. B: *So does* BÒB.

A: Mary will enter the competition. B: *So will* JOAN.

A: Susan is obstinate. B: *So is* SArah.

A: My car was washed this morning. B: *So was* MÌNE.

(ii) *so . . . do* type: *so* [+ subject] + auxiliary

A: Look! That man seems lost. B: *So* he *DÒES.*

A: I've found the reference. B: *So* you *HÀVE.*

(iii) *do so* type: [subject +] (auxiliary +) *do* + *so*

A: Have you sent your donation? B: I *did so* yesterday.

Peter can join our group. I'm not sure whether DÀvid *can do so.*

(iv) *do that* type: [subject +] (auxiliary +) *do* + *that*

A: Do you know who broke the television set? B: I heard JÒHN *did that.*

A: Sam called the meeting. B: No, I think PÈter *may have done that.*

(v) *do it* type: [subject +] (auxiliary +) *do* + *it*

A: Your brother said he was going to send a letter of protest to the President. B: He *did it* last week.

A: Gerald has told your father what you said. B: He *shouldn't have done it.*

In BrE many allow also the possibility of adding *do* alone to (a) a modal, or (b) perfect *have:*

(a) A: Will you be attending the meeting this evening?
B: I *MÀY do.*
(b) I didn't touch the television set. But PÈRCY *might have done.*

Note

[*a*] Lexical *have* admits the two pro-form phrases *so have* and *so . . . have* in addition to *have* alone:

A: John has a cold. B: { Yes, and Ì *have* TÒO. / Yes, and *so have* Ì. / Yes, *so* he *HÀS.*

This use of *have* is much more common in BrE than in AmE, where it is formal as well as restricted in use (*cf* 3.19). The pro-forms *do, so do,* and *so . . . do* are also used in BrE, but are more common in AmE:

A: John has a cold. B: { Yes, and Ì *do* TÒO. / Yes, and *so do* Ì. / Yes, *so* he *DÒES.*

[*b*] *So* is used as a synonym for *true,* but in that use it is not a pro-form:

A: Joan has very many friends. B: That isn't *so.*

10.31

PRO-FORMS IN RELATION TO VERB CLASSES

All lexical verbs allow substitution by *do* or other auxiliaries and by the complex pro-form types *so do* and *so . . . do.* But several of the verb classes established in 3.35 do not allow the full range of substitutions. For example, verbs of bodily sensation such as *feel* admit only the auxiliaries and the types *so do,* and *so . . . do:*

A: John *feels* much better.

B: { I KNÒW *he does* (=I know he feels much better). / Yes, and *so do* Ì. / Yes, *so* he *DÒES.*

But we cannot substitute for them the other three types – *do so, do that,* and *do it:*

A: John *feels* much better.

B: * { I KNÒW he *does so.* / Yes, he *DÒES that.* / Yes, he *DÒES it.*

Only activity and momentary verbs (3.35) – with other parts of the predication, if any – can be replaced by the full range of pro-forms:

A: John *abandoned* his car during the snowstorm. [activity verb]

B: { I wonder WHY he *did* ({ *so* / *that* / *it* }).
   { Yes, and *so did* Ì.
   { Yes, *so* he *DÌD*. There it is.

A: Bob *kicked* the door several times. [momentary verb]

B: { He ÀLways *does* ({ *so* / *that* / *it* }) when he wants to attract attention.
   { Yes, and *so did* PÈter.
   { Yes, *so* he *DÌD*. I can see the marks.

10.32

PRO-FORMS IN RELATION TO ADVERBIALS

The pro-forms need not cover a time or place adjunct in the antecedent predicate:

A: John paid for the tickets tonight.
B: Yes, he *did so* LAST week TÒO. ('paid for the tickets')

The pro-forms exclude a conjunct or disjunct (8.2) that may be present in the antecedent predicate. In this respect we can contrast the adjunct *usually* with the disjunct *wisely:*

A: Bob *usually* walks to work.
B: *Does* he? (. . . *usually walk to work*)
A: Bob *wisely* walks to work.
B: *Does* he? (. . . *walk to work*)

10.33

CO-REFERENTIALITY OF SUBJECTS

The *so do* type is used only if the subject of the clause is *not* co-referential with that of the antecedent clause:

A: *John* buys his drinks at the local supermarket.
B: *So do WE.*

On the other hand, the *so . . . do* type is used regardless of whether the subjects of the clauses are co-referential or not, though it is more common for them to be co-referential:

A: *John* buys his drinks at the local supermarket.
B: { So *he DÒES:* I'd forgotten.
   { *So lots of Òther people do*, I imagine.

The other substitution types are used whether or not the subject is co-referential with that of the antecedent clause.

Note
In some contexts, *so* may be ambiguous between the pro-form *so* and the result conjunct *so* (= therefore). For the latter, see 10.16.

10.34
OPERATOR IN PRO-FORMS

The *do so, do that,* and *do it* pro-forms require an additional *do* as operator:

A: Do they buy their drinks at the local supermarket?
B: Yes, but WE *don't do so.*
A: John swims a lot. B: *Does* BOB *do that?*
A: Bill didn't damage his father's car. B: Oh, but he *DID do it.*

Contrast other constructions where the pro-form contains or is an operator:

A: Some people can drive. B: Yes, but PETER *can't.*
A: Arnold has joined the club. B: But *has* his WIFE *done so?*

10.35
EXCLUSION OF PRO-FORM TYPES FROM CERTAIN CLAUSES

There are severe restrictions on the occurrence of auxiliaries as pro-forms in non-finite clauses:

A: Peter hunts rabbits. B: { *Yes, I have noticed him *doing*. / *Yes, I have watched him *do*. / *I know. He wanted me *to do* too.

Instead, we must use one of the complex pro-forms allowed by the particular verbs:

A: Peter hunts rabbits. B: { Yes, I have noticed him *doing so*. / Yes, I have watched him *do that*. / I know. He wanted me *to do it*, too.

An alternative to the pro-forms with the *to*-infinitive clause is ellipsis of the infinitive clause, *to* alone being retained:

A: Peter hunts rabbits. B: I know. He wanted me *to*, also.

Neither the *so . . . do* nor the *so do* type can function in an imperative clause:

A: It's time to wash the dishes. B: { **So* (you) *do*. / **So do* (you). / (You) *Do so*.

Pro-forms other than those from the *so do* and *so . . . do* types are commonly used in questions and in negative sentences. Where the negative sentence adds to what has been negated previously, *either* is commonly appended, or *neither/nor* placed initially (with obligatory subject-operator inversion) to achieve negation (8.10, 9.20):

A: Bob can't drive a car. B: No, { JOHN *can't do that* EITHER. / Neither / Nor } *can* JÒHN *do that.*

10.36

THE PRO-FORMS *NOT* AND *SO*

Not can be a negative pro-form for the predicate:

A: Bill would have taken the book.
B: Yes, but *not* TÒM. (=Tom would not have taken the book)
A: Bob will take it for you.
B: No, *not* HÌM. (=He will not take it for me)

In very formal speech the subjective case of the pronoun would be used instead of the objective case if the pronoun is the subject in the clause that is being replaced:

A: John is a coward. B: Yes, but not I. (=I am not a coward)

Not can also be a pro-form for the subject and part of the predicate:

A: John wanted to pay for the tickets.
B: True, but *not* for the dinner. (=but John did not want to pay for the dinner)

Not in *why not* and *if not* is a negative pro-form for the whole clause, while *so* is the pro-form for the equivalent of the whole clause in the case of *if so*, and (less commonly) *why so:*

A: I don't want to go in.
B: Why *not?* (=Why don't you want to go in?)

So is used as a pro-form for a direct object clause:

Oxford is likely to win the next boat race. All my friends say *so.*
(=that Oxford is likely to win the next boat race)

Not can often serve as the negative of *so* in this use:

Many people believe that there will be another world war before the end of the century. My father thinks *so*, but I believe *not.*
(My father thinks *that there will be another . . .*, but I believe *that there will not be another . . .*)

In this use, *not* is restricted mainly to verbs of belief or assumption (*cf* 11.58), while *so* extends also to some verbs of speaking. Verbs that commonly allow both *so* and *not* as pro-forms for the direct object clause include: *assume, believe, expect, fancy, guess, hope, imagine, presume, suppose, think, understand.*

So is also commonly used as a pro-form for a subject complement with the intensive verbs *become, appear, seem*; the last two also allow *not* as a pro-form:

A: I didn't think she was exceptionally shy.
B: She wasn't at one time, but she has become *so* recently. (= become *exceptionally shy* recently)
A: Are they ready? B: It appears *not*. (= It appears *that they are not ready*)

Where transferred negation is possible (*cf* 11.58), it is preferred in informal use: *I don't think so.* The pro-form *not* is occasionally used with the verbs *say* and *tell*, but the use of the pro-form *so* with these verbs is much more frequent. Not all verbs of speaking allow even *so*. For example, we cannot say **He asked so.*

So in this use can take initial position with several verbs, particularly *say* (and also *believe* and *understand*, especially with *I* or *we* as subject):

So all my friends say *So* I understand

Note
Tell requires the presence of an indirect object before the pro-form (*cf* 12.31):
I told you so *I told so

Discourse reference

10.37

There are a number of signals marking the identity between what is being said and what has been said before. They have been brought together here because they have in common a 'deictic' reference, that is to say, they point back (ANAPHORIC) or forward (CATAPHORIC) in discourse.

10.38

Sentence/clause reference
Common signals for sentence or clause reference:

anaphoric and cataphoric: *here, it, this*
anaphoric only: *that, the foregoing* (formal)
cataphoric only: *as follows, the following, thus*

ANAPHORIC EXAMPLES

Many years ago their wives quarrelled over some trivial matter, now long forgotten. But one word led to another and the

quarrel developed into a permanent rupture between them. *That*'s why the two men never visit each other's houses.

Many students never improve. They get no advice and therefore they keep repeating the same mistakes. *It*'s a terrible shame.

Students want to be shown connections between facts instead of spending their time memorizing dates and formulas. Reflecting *this*, the university is moving away from large survey courses and breaking down academic fences in order to show subjects relating to one another.

CATAPHORIC EXAMPLES

This should interest you, if you're still keen on boxing. The world heavyweight championship is going to be held in Chicago next June, so you should be able to watch it live.

Here is the news. A diplomat was kidnapped last night in London . . . (radio announcement)

It never should have happened. She went out and left the baby unattended.

My arguments are *as follows* . . .

Above and *below* are used in formal written discourse to indicate where units of varying length and illustrations are to be found: *the arguments given below* (perhaps referring to several sentences), *the diagrams below illustrate* . . . There is no determinable limit to the distance between them and the place they refer to. *The above* is used with anaphoric reference (but **the below* has no corresponding use):

The above illustrates what we mean by . . .

Note

The non-restrictive relative clause with sentential antecedent (13.12) is sometimes made into a separate orthographic sentence:

She has borrowed a history book. Which suggests that her teacher is having some influence on her.

Noun-phrase reference

10.39

Certain determiners can be used to signal that a noun phrase is referentially equivalent to a previous noun phrase: *the, this, these, that, those.* The noun phrases may have identical heads, but may be co-referential without the heads being identical:

He bought *a battered, old black van* in 1970. What a lot of money he earned with *that vehicle.*

Students are free to select *optional courses from any field that touches on American studies. These options* are very popular.

The co-reference of two noun phrases may be emphasized by use of *identical, same, selfsame* (formal), *very:*

He spoke to a meeting of *striking workers* that evening. *Those same workers* had previously refused to listen to his speeches.

These determiners and adjectives can be used to indicate identity of type rather than co-reference:

He bought *a Jaguar XJ6.* I ordered *that same car* the previous year.

Such (5.27) is used specifically to indicate identity of type:

They regularly get *The Daily Courier.* I wouldn't read *such a paper.*

Like plus *that* or *those* is also used anaphorically for identity of type, and postmodifies the noun-phrase head:

They regularly take *The Daily Courier.* I wouldn't read *a paper like that.*

Like this and (informally) *this way* are used cataphorically:

He told it $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{like this}\\ \textit{this way}\end{matrix}\right\}$: George was running down the road and . . .

10.40

The demonstratives can be used as pro-forms for noun phrases:

I hear that you dislike his latest novel. I read *his first novel. That* was very boring, too.

Normally, demonstratives replace noun phrases with a human referent only in intensive clauses with a nominal complement:

Will you try and help me find *Peter Williams? That*'s the man I was telling you about.

10.41

Former and *latter* (both mainly formal written English) are used anaphorically to single out one of two previous noun phrases:

Bob and John were at the meeting. *The former* brought his wife with him. ('Bob')

If *the latter* were used instead, the reference would be to *John.* These two terms can also be used as reference signals when they premodify:

Bill Singer and Tom Patterson were charged with being drunk and disorderly. *The latter student* had two previous convictions on such charges.

Similarly, when there are more than two previous noun phrases that might be referred to, the ordinals *first, second*, etc, and *last* can be used anaphorically to single out one of several phrases.

The ordinals and *former* and *latter* can also refer back to clausal units as well as noun phrases:

He explained that he had lost a lot of money and that he had also quarrelled with his wife. *The former* seemed to have upset him more than *the latter.*

10.42

So and (rather informally) *that* can have anaphoric reference when they are intensifiers premodifying an adjective:

There were two thousand people in the theatre. I didn't expect it to be *so/(all) that* full.

Such is used more commonly than *so* or *that* when the adjective is in a noun phrase (*cf* 5.27):

. . . I didn't expect *such* a large audience.

10.43

Comparison

The most obvious comparison signal is found in adjectives and adverbs, whether in the inflected forms or in the periphrastic forms with *more, most, as, less, least.* If the basis of comparison (5.32) is not made explicit in the clause, it can often be inferred from the previous context:

Mary used to listen to records most of the time. Sally was a *more hardworking* student. (*than Mary was*)

There were ten boys in the class. Bob was by far *the best.* (*of the ten boys in the class*)

Likewise, we must often look at the previous context for the basis of similarity or difference:

John was the victim of a confidence trick. Bill was tricked *in the same way.* (*as John was tricked*)

Tom had to be sent home. However, the *other* boys had behaved well. (*the boys other than Tom*)

Ellipsis in dialogue

10.44

Ellipsis in dialogue may take place under three conditions, which can occur in various combinations:

(1) REPETITION: the second speaker repeats what is said by the first.
(2) EXPANSION: the second speaker adds to what is said by the first.
(3) REPLACEMENT: the second speaker replaces what is said by the first with new material.

There is usually a choice in repetition between ellipsis, substitution, and the full form. We show the choice, giving optional items in parentheses and alternatives in braces. The categorization is not intended to be exhaustive, but to give typical examples of ellipsis.

Note
Ellipsis in coordinated clauses is dealt with in detail in 9.21 *ff*, and much of what is discussed there applies to ellipsis across sentences. Ellipsis of predicate and predication has been discussed in the relevant sections in this chapter (10.29 *ff*). Moreover, other instances of what could be considered ellipsis have been referred to in the course of this chapter, *eg* 10.8, 10.27, 10.43. Some of the examples that we give for dialogue could, of course, equally occur in sentences spoken or written by the same person.

10.45
Question and response

The usual function of a question in discourse is to request the listener to respond verbally with information that the questioner seeks. The link between question and response is often reinforced by ellipsis in the response, thereby avoiding repetition of material from the question and focusing attention on what is new.

(1) REPETITION

A: Have you spoken to the doctor?

B: (Yes,) *I have* ({ spoken to { the doctor / him } / done so }).

(2) EXPANSION

A: Will they lose the game?
B: *Probably* (they will (lose (the game)))

(3) REPLACEMENT

This most commonly occurs with *wh*-questions (7.52 *f*), where the Q-element is normally replaced in the response:

A. Who told your father? B: *Mary* ({ told { my father / him } / did (so) }).

COMBINATIONS include expansion and replacement:

A: When did he lose the key?

B: *Probably* (he { lost { the key / it } / did so }) *last night.*

Where the response is merely repetition, *yes* alone is used as a substitute for repetition. *No* alone is a substitute for negation of repetition.

Neither ellipsis nor substitution need be factors in the connection between a question and the response to it. For example:

A: Can I help you, madam?

B: Well, I'm looking for a pair of white gloves.

10.46

Statement and question

Questions are usually prompted by what was said before, though they may be stimulated by the situational context.

(1) REPETITION

A: I'm studying grammar. B: *ÁRE you* (studying grammar)?

(2) EXPANSION

A: Peter will be there.

B: *Are you SÚRE* ({ (that) { Peter / he } will (be there) / of that })?

(3) REPLACEMENT

A: It cost me twenty-five dollars.

B: *HÓW much* (did it cost (you))?

COMBINATIONS include repetition and replacement:

A: John told me what you did.

B: *WHÓ told you* ({ what I did / that })?

10.47

Statement and statement

(1) REPETITION

A: He's studying Latin.

B: (He's studying) *LÁTin!* He doesn't know his *ÓWN* language.

(2) EXPANSION

A: He won't play.

B: *I'd like to know why* ({ he won't (play) / not }).

(3) REPLACEMENT

A: They want the key now.

B: *No,* (they want {the key / it}) *tonight.*

COMBINATIONS include repetition, expansion, and replacement:

A: They paid fifty dollars for it.

B: *Oh no, they paid more* ((than {fifty dollars / that}) (for it)).

10.48

Structural parallelism

If two or more sentences have identical or very similar structure, this parallelism connects the sentences, the connection being further reinforced by lexical equivalences and implications of semantic relationship (usually of contrast):

John put his career before his family. Bill put his family before his career.

Devices of structural parallelism are particularly common in mannered style. The parallel between sentences is more transparent (and hence the connection is more strongly indicated) if the word order is not the normal one, even if otherwise there is little structural similarity:

My paintings the visitors admired. *My sculptures* they disliked.

An apparent similarity in structure is sufficient to suggest an affinity between sentences:

My paintings the visitors admired. *My sculptures* irritated them.

The impression of a link between the two initial noun phrases (the first a direct object and the second a subject) is reinforced by the use of *my* in both phrases and the lexical set to which both *painting* and *sculpture* belong. The two sentences are further linked by semantic parallelism and by the pro-form *them* in the second sentence.

The last example above illustrates a combination of several devices: syntactic parallelism, semantic parallelism, lexical relationships, and substitution by a pro-form. The example serves to remind us of a point which we made at the beginning of the chapter, but which may have been obscured by our attention to devices in isolation: several devices – some of them perhaps syntactic – may be interacting to form links between sentences.

Bibliographical note

Some recent contributions on sentence connection in general: Crymes (1968), Karlsen (1959). On conjuncts and disjuncts, see Greenbaum (1969).