Introduction to Linguistics I

English Morphosyntax

I. Morphology

Words, morphemes, and allomorphs

Words can be decomposed into smaller meaningful elements that linguists call *morphemes*.

car-s
re-consider
over-general-iz-ation

A morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has meaning or a grammatical function.

Some morphemes can be realized in more than one way, i.e. a morpheme can have different forms in different environments. The variants of a morpheme are called *allomorphs***.** Examples:

1. dog-[z]
2. cat-[s]
3. bush-[əz]

The form of a morpheme is based on its pronunciation, i.e. the spelling is irrelevant.

Writer	[r]
Editor	[r]
Liar	[r]

Homophones are different morphemes that have the same morphological form.

Cats	[s]
Frank's	[s]
Walks	[s]

Classification of morphemes

- *Content* morpheme vs. *function* morpheme
  content: N, V, ADJ, ADV (open class)
  function: P, COMP, DET, PRO, bound morpheme (closed class)

- *Free* morphemes vs. *bound* morphemes
  cat
  walk-ed

  The expression to which a bound morpheme is attached is called the *stem,* e.g. in *believable* 'believe' is the stem, and in *unbelievable* 'believable' is the stem (cf. *root* and *base*).

- Affixes**:** *prefixes***,** *suffixes, infixes, circumfixes*

Prefix	Suffixes
un-happy	dog-s
de-compose	read-able

Borrowing and historical change can make morphology 'messy'.

1. 'Cranberry' morphemes
   cran-berry
   luke-warm

2. Latinate words
   inter-est (Lat. inter+esse)
   inter-change
   pre-dict (Lat. pre+dicere)
   pre-cut

Derivation vs. inflection

1. Derivational morphemes can change the category of a word.

free (ADJ)	>	freedom (N)	derivation
kill (V)	>	killer (N)	derivation
category (N)	>	categorize (V)	derivation
talk (V)	>	talked (V)	inflection

2. Derivational morphemes are less productive than inflectional morphemes (e.g. *–hood* occurs with half a dozen words in English while *–ed* is attached to almost every noun).

3. Derivational morphemes tend to have more concrete meanings than inflectional morphemes.

4. Derivational morphemes occur closer to the stem than inflectional morphemes.
   expect-ation-s

English has 8 inflectional suffixes:

3 person singular	waits
past tense	waited
progressive	waiting
past participle	eaten
plural	cars
possessive	Peter's
comparative	faster
superlative	fastest

Suppletion, Umlaut, Ablaut

Suppletion

am	is
go	went
good	well
we	us

Umlaut

foot	feet
mouse	mice
tooth	teeth

Ablaut

sing	sang	sung
sing	sang	sung
swim	swam	swum

Compounding

- Endocentric compounds include an element that designates the 'type' of the compound; this element is commonly called the 'head' of the compound. The other element functions like a modifier of the head.
- Exocentric compounds do not have a designated head.

Endocentric compounds (dvandva)	Exocentric compounds (bahuvrihi)
armchair	skinhead
dinner table	pickpocket
seasick	handout
word stress	afternoon
pain-free	underground

Word coinage

Borrowing

alcohol (Arabic)
essay (French)
kindergarten (German)
yogurt (Turkish)

Coinage

chirrup
blatant
glance

Eponyms

Sandwich
Pentium
Kodak
xerox

Blending

Smoke + fog	>	smoke
Motor + hotel	>	motel
Breakfast + lunch	>	brunch
Channel + tunnel	>	chunnel

Clipping

Bicycle	>	bike
Gasoline	>	gas
Telephone	>	phone
Advertisement	>	ad

Backformation

Established pattern			*Back formation*
to exhibit – exhibit-or	>>	editor	> to edit
printer – to print	>>	laser	> to lase
book – book-s	>>	pease (Sg)	> pea

Acronyms

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome	>	AIDS
North Atlantic Treaty Organization	>	NATO
Daio detecting and ranging	>	radar

Conversion

bridge	>	to bridge (cf. to mail, to mushroom, to data-bank)
command	>	a command (cf. a dump, a guess, a kiss)
open	>	to open (cf. to better, to dirty, to empty)

II. Overview of grammatical categories

Parts-of-speech (lexical categories)

- Nouns (N)
  - Inflection: number
  - Derivation: -ity, -ness, -ation
  - Distribution: accompanied by DET, A, P
- Verbs (V)
  - Inflection: tense, aspect, modality, person
  - Derivation: -en, -ize
  - Distribution: accompanied by AUX, MOD
- Adjectives (ADJ)
  - Inflection: comparative, superlative
  - Derivation: -ish
  - Distribution: attributive + predicative
- Adverbs (ADV)
  - Inflection: --
  - Derivation: -ly, -wise
  - Distribution: modify adjectives, verbs, clauses
- Pronouns (PRO)
  - Inflection: number, case, gender
  - Derivation: --
  - Distribution: nominal/clausal substitutes
- Determiner (DET)
  - Inflection: --
  - Derivation --
  - Distribution __ (ADJ) N,
- Preposition (P)
  - Inflection: --
  - Derivation --
  - Distribution right/straight __, take PROs in ACC
- Conjunction (COMP)
  - Inflection: --
  - Derivation --
  - Distribution introduce subordinate clauses
- Auxiliaries (AUX)
  - Inflection: true auxiliaries are inflected (e.g. *am, is, are*); modals are uninflected
  - Derivation --
  - Distribution: before verbs, can be negated without *do,* can be fronted in questions, can appear in tag questions

Phrasal categories

- Noun phrases (NP)
  - Peter
  - The dog
  - My neighbor's dog
- Verb phrase (VP)
  - Sleeps
  - Is sleeping
  - Saw the man
- Prepositional phrase (PP)
  - In the garden
  - At school
- Adjective phrase (AP)
  - very nice [shirt]
  - glad that she came
- Subordinate clause (CP)
  - If he is there
  - That she will come
- Clause/sentence (S)
  - Peter saw the dog.

Constituent tests

(i) simple rearrangement
(ii) replacement by pronouns (it, that, so)
(iii) answer to question (What/who...? X)
(iv) coordination (X and X)
(v) it-cleft (It is X that/who ...) + wh-cleft (What ...is X)

Example: He found [a picture of Mary]

(i) A picture of Mary, he found.
(ii) He found it.
(iii) What did he find? A picture of Mary.
(iv) He found a picture of Mary and a picture of John.
(v) It was a picture of Mary that he found. + What he found was a picture of Mary.

Phrase structure rules

NP → (DET) (AP) N/PRO (PP) (CP)
VP → (AUX) V (NP) (NP) (PP) (CP)
PP → P NP
AP → (ADV) ADJ (PP) (CP)
S → NP VP
S → S CP_{ADV}
CP → COMP S

Grammatical relations

Grammatical relations indicate the syntactic functions of phrasal categories in a sentence.

- Subject
  a. it usually functions as the actor or agent
  b. it usually precedes the verb
  c. it agrees with the verb in person
  d. it usually controls the omitted actor/agent of adverbial participles and coordinate clauses
  e. subject pronouns occur in nominative case

- Direct object
  a. it usually functions as the patient or undergoer
  b. it usually follows the verb
  c. it often controls the omitted actor/agent of infinitives
  d. object pronouns occur in accusative case

- Indirect object
  a. it functions as the recipient or benefactor
  b. it only occur in ditransitive clauses

- Adverbials
  a. they indicate time, place, cause, manner etc.
  b. several adverbials can occur in one clause
  c. they are typically expressed by adverbs, PPs, and ADV clauses

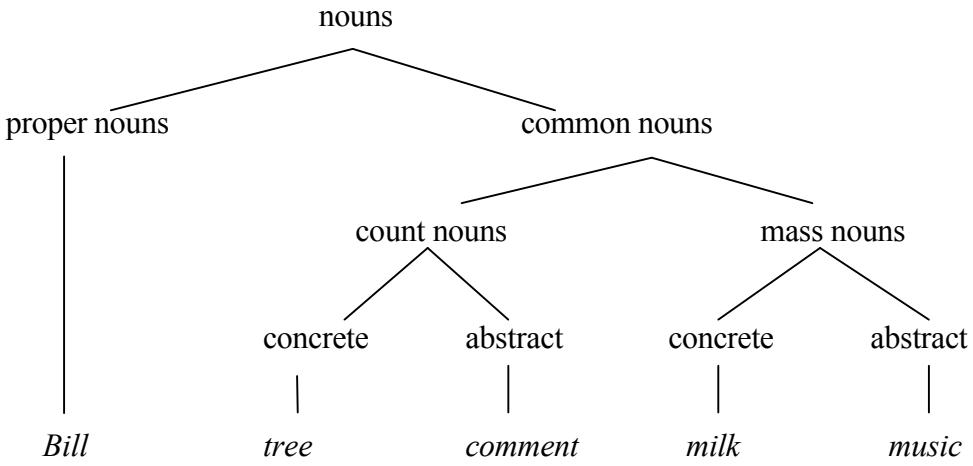
  Two subtypes of adverbials are distinguished: (1) optional adverbials (i.e. *adjuncts*) and obligatory adverbials (i.e. *complements*).

- Subject complement: The NP (or ADJ) after the copula

Attributes: Attributes are modifiers of a noun. They can be part of the subject, direct or indirect object, or an adverbial

III. Parts-of-speech

1. Nouns



- Proper names don't take a determiner
- Proper names and mass nouns don't pluralize
- Count nouns require a determiner
- Mass nouns do not take the indefinite determiner *a*

	Proper noun	Count noun	Mass noun
1.	*the Bill	The tree	The milk
2.	*three Bills	Three trees	*Three milks
3.	I met Bill	*I saw tree	I hate milk
4.	*a Bill	a tree	*a milk

Some nouns can be both count nouns and mass nouns.

(1) I want that cake.
(2) There is cake for desert.

(3) I had one beer.
(4) There is cat all over the driveway.

The grammatical features of the noun: (i) number, (ii) gender, (iii) case

1. Number

(1) cat-[s]
(2) dog-[z]

(3) hous-[əz]

Other plural forms

(1) oxen
(2) children
(3) sheep

Foreign plurals

(1) stimulus — stimuli
(2) corpus — corpora
(3) analysis — analyses
(4) phenomenon — phenomena

Nouns that only occur in the plural:

(1) jeans
(2) pants
(3) scissors
(4) binoculars

2. Gender

(1) the boy — he
(2) the girl — she

3. Case

In English, nouns distinguish only two cases: (i) common case, and (ii) genitive case. The genitive *–s* is a clitic.

(1) the queen's favorite game
the queen of England's favorite game

2. Determiners

Definite article:	*the*
Indefinite article:	*a* (and 'zero')
Demonstratives:	*this, that*
Possessives:	*my, your, his, her, our, their*
WH determiner:	*which, whose, whichever, whatever, whoever*
Negative determiner:	*no*
Quantifier:	*each, either, neither, some, any, enough*

The determiners are usually the first element in a noun phrase. However, there are a few words that may precede a determiner, e.g. *all, both, half, twice, double* ('premodifiers').

Definite article

The definite article indicates that the speaker thinks that the hearer is able to identify the referent based on contextual, situational, or general knowledge.

(1) Do you see *the* bird sitting on the lower branch?
(2) Fred brought a radio and a video-recorder, but he returned *the* radio.
(3) We came to an old house. When we got out of the car, someone closed *the* door.
(4) *the* Pope, *the* sun

Indefinite article

The indefinite article is used when the referent is not uniquely identifiable. Very often, the indefinite article occurs when a referent is first mentioned in discourse.

(1) I am just about to move into *a* new apartment.

Indefinite plural nouns and mass nouns (in singular) are expressed by 'zero'.

(2) There are apples on the table.
(3) There is milk on the table.

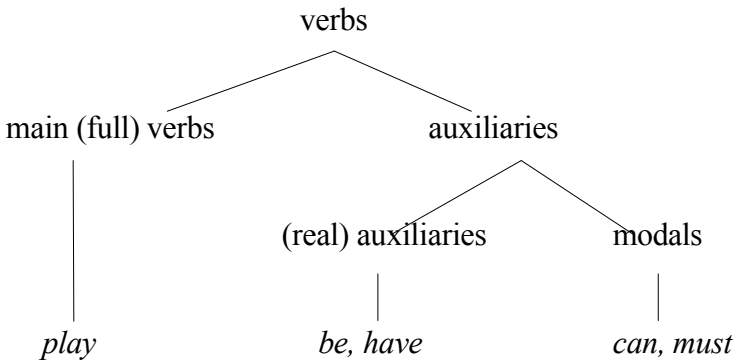
Generic reference

The, a, and 'zero' can indicate generic reference; 'zero' is by far the most frequent determiner of generic nouns.

(1) The car
(2) A car
(3) Cars

became an increasing necessity of life in the 20th century.

3. Verbs



Full verbs

1. base — present tense, infinitive

2. *–s* form — 3. person singular present tense
   allomorphs: want–[s]
   love–[z]
   kiss–[əz]

3. *–ing* form — progressive tense, gerund, participle

4. *–ed* form — past tense, past participle
   allomorphs: buzz–[d]
   pass–[t]
   patt–[əd]

Irregular verbs: drive–drove–driven
drink–drank–drunk
keep-kept-kept
eat–ate–eaten

Auxiliaries and modals

- They can be fronted in questions
  Is Peter coming?
  Could you see me?
- They are negated without *do:*
  I won't come.
  This cannot be right.

Modals

- They are followed by bare infinitives:
  She can come.
  I must go.
- They do not carry the 3 person singular marker *–s*:
  He must be there.
  Peter may be right.
- They do not function as infinitives or participles:
  *I am maying.
  *I have could.
- Their past tense forms can be used with present tense reference:
  I think he might be outside.
  Could you pass me the salt?

Auxiliaries

Be
Functions: *Be* is the AUX of the progressive and passive
Forms: *be, am, is, are, was, were, been, being*

Have
Function: *Have* is the AUX of the perfect
Form: *have, has, had, having*

Do
Function: *Do* 'supports' main verbs in negative sentences and questions
Form: *do, does, did, doing, done*

Semi-auxiliaries
Function: expression of future tense
Form: *be going to, be about to*

Modals

1. Central modals

   can, may, shall, will, must
   could, might, should, would,

2. Semi modals

   a. *used to, ought to, dare to, need to, have to*
   b. *be able to, be supposed to*
   c. *had better, would rather*

The past tense forms of the central modals express past tense reference in indirect speech (e.g. Peter said that you should leave). In other contexts, they are often used with present time reference.

- *Deontic* use of modals: express permission, obligation, volition
- *Epistemic* use of modals: express an inference or conclusion

(1) Peter can/must/should go now.
(2) Peter could/must/may be right about this.

Tense

Present tense:	works
Past tense:	worked
Present perfect:	has worked
Past perfect:	had worked
Future	will work
Future perfect	will have worked

Individual tense forms can serve multiple functions. The particular interpretation of a specific tense form is determined by the context and the meaning of the verb. Two basic verb types must be distinguished: (i) stative verbs (e.g. have) and (ii) dynamic verbs (e.g. go).

Functions of the present tense

- The present tense of stative verbs indicates states:
  (1) Bill is tall.
  He does not believe in hard work.

- The present tense of dynamic verbs indicates repeatedly occurring events or habits:
  (2) We go to Brussels every year.
  Bill smokes.

- The present tense of dynamic verbs can denote punctual events of the present:
  (3) I enclose a form of application.
  I apologize for my behavior.

- The present tense may indicate past time reference in narratives:
  (4) Just as we arrived, up comes Ben and slaps me on the back as if we're life long friends.

- The present tense can indicate future tense in certain types of adverbial clauses:
  (5) He'll do it if you pay him.
  I'll let you know as soon as I hear from her.

- The present tense is optionally used to refer to verbs of communication suggesting that the information is still valid:
  (6) Jack tells me that the position is still available.
  I hear that you need an assistant.

- The present tense is optionally used to express a future event that is certain to take place:
  (7) The plane leaves for Berlin at 8 o'clock tonight.

Functions of the past tense

- The past tense is used with reference to stative and dynamic events in the past.
  (1) The Normans invaded England in 1066.
  We spent our holidays in Spain.

- The past tense is used in counterfactual conditionals.
  (2) If you knew me you wouldn't say that.
  I wish I had a memory like yours.

Expression of future tense

Future time reference is expressed by various means.

- The simple auxiliary *will* (or *shall*):
  (1) She will be there.

- The periphrastic auxiliary *be going to.*
  (2) Martha is going to lend us her camera.

- The present progressive ("future arising from present arrangement, plan, or program").
  (3) I am going to be.
  I'm taking the children to the zoo.

- The simple present tense: (i) in subordinate clauses, (ii) certain events.
  (4) At this rate, the guest will be drunk before they leave.
  Tomorrow is Thursday.

- *Be about to* plus infinitive (immediate future).
  (5) The train is about to leave.

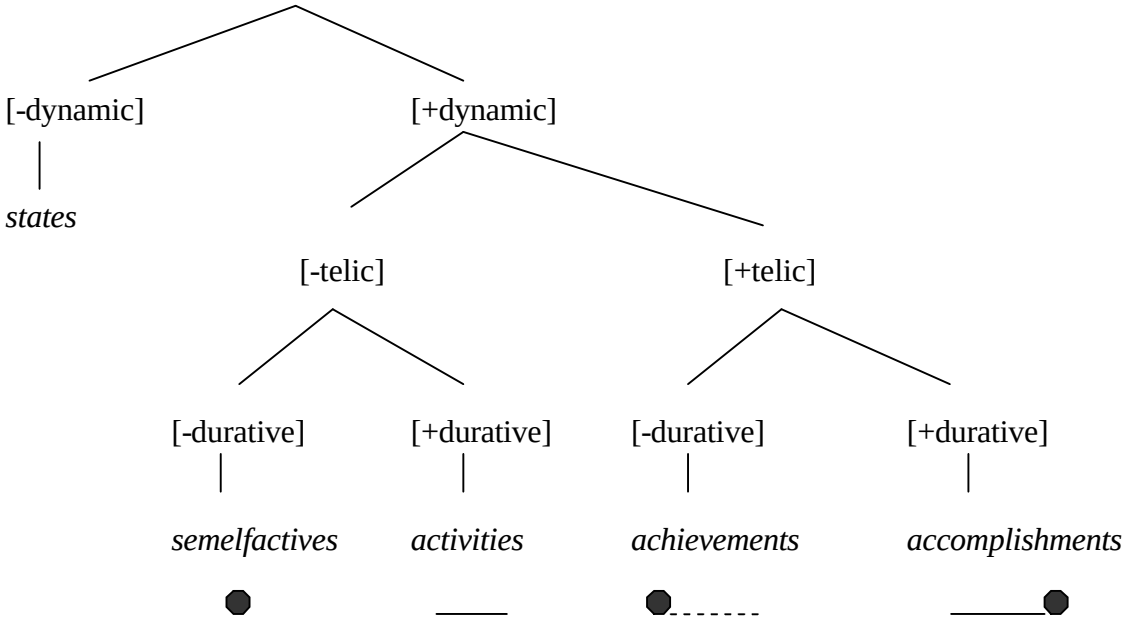
Aspect

Aspect indicates the way a situation is viewed or conceptualized: extended, completed, ongoing, etc. In Russian, every verb is marked as being either perfective (i.e. having clear boundaries) or imperfective (i.e. having fuzzy boundaries). English does not have a systematic aspect system like Russian, but the perfect and the progressive have aspectual meanings.

Aspect must be distinguished from the closely related category of *Aktionsart*. Aktionsart is a feature of individual verbs. The Aktionsart of the verb interacts closely with the grammatical marking of aspect.

The classification of situations/verbs

- dynamic vs. non-dynamic (i.e. non-stative vs. stative).
  (i) stative verbs do not occur in the progressive
  (ii) stative verbs do not occur in the imperative verb form
- durative vs. punctual
- telic vs. atelic (i.e. bounded vs. non-bounded)
- inchoative vs. resultative (focus on beginning/end)



(1)	She hated ice cream.	(State)
(2)	The gate banged.	(Semelfactive)
(3)	Your cat watched those birds.	(Activity)
(4)	The cease-fire began at noon yesterday.	(Achievement)
(5)	Her boss learned Japanese.	(Accomplishment)

Present perfect

- The present perfect denotes situations that begin in the past and lead up to the present.
  (1) We have lived in Amsterdam for five years.
  She has owned the house since her father died.
- The present perfect denotes situations that occurred in the past, but are still relevant to the present.
  (2) Have you seen the new production of King Lear?
  Chomsky has shown that grammar has a mental dimension.
  He has broken his arm.

- The present perfect occurs in sentences including *since* adverbials.
  (3) I have been working since Monday.
  II have been in trouble since I met you.

Past perfect

- The past perfect is optionally used to indicate a past time event that occurred earlier than some other past time event.
  (1) They had moved into the new house before the baby was born.

Future perfect

- The future perfect is used to indicate an event that occurred in the past seen from a future perspective.
  (2) By next week, they will have completed their contracts.

Progressive (or 'continuous')

- The progressive indicates that an event is in progress at a particular time. It is commonly used with dynamic verbs to indicate present time reference (the simple present tense form indicates permanence).
  (3) I am working.
  She is sleeping.
- The progressive is usually not used with stative verbs and with verbs expressing emotions or attitudes.
  (4) *I am liking your sister.
  *I am knowing English.
- If stative verbs are used in the progressive, they may assume a special interpretation. They might, for instance, turn a common state into a behavior with limited duration.
  (5) You are being obstinate.
  He was being silly.

Mood

The category mood indicates how the speaker judges the validity of the utterance. *Indicative* indicates certainty, and *subjunctive* indicates uncertainty. English has lost most of its subjunctive forms.

- The *present subjunctive* is expressed by the base form, i.e. the present tense form without the 3 person singular –s. Thus, the subjunctive is formally indistinguishable from the indicative present except for 3 person singular. In addition, *be* is used for all persons as the present subjunctive. The present subjunctive occurs in complement clauses of verbs indicating demand, recommendation, proposal, or intention (e.g. *insists, prefer, propose, recommend, is necessary)*.

(1) I insist that we reconsider the Council's decision.
(2) The employees demand that he resign.
(3) I suggest that you be President.

- The *past subjunctive* survives only in *were,* which occurs with all persons in the subjunctive. In all other forms the past subjunctive has the same form as the simple past tense. The past subjunctive occurs in counterfactual conditionals and in optative sentences.

  (1) If she were leaving you would have heard about it.
  (2) I wish I were you.

4. Adjectives

(1)	A blue ball	attributive
(2)	The ball is blue.	predicative

There are a few adjectives that serve only one of the two functions. For instance, *utter* is only used attributively, and *afraid* is only used predicatively.

(3) utter darkness
(4) I am afraid

Attributive use

Attributive adjectives usually precede the noun (e.g. *a blue ball*), but there are some adjectives that follow the noun.

(1) the City of London proper
(2) attorney general
(3) the soldiers present

Indefinite pronouns ending in *–body, –one, –thing,* or *–where* can be modified only by postnominal adjectives.

(4) I want to try on something larger.
(5) We're not going anywhere very exciting.

Adjectives ending in *able* and *–ible* can be postnominal when the noun is modified by another adjective in the superlative. The resulting structure includes a discontinuous AP.

(6) the best use possible
(7) the greatest insult imaginable
(8) the only actor suitable

Predicative use

Predicative adjectives occur in copular clauses.

(1) The house is big.
(2) I find him careless.
(3) She wiped the table clean

Predicative adjectives can take complements.

(4) I am glad that you are here.
(5) I am afraid that we will lose.

Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

Base	Comparative	Superlatives
happy	happier	happiest
tall	taller	tallest
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst

Participles can be used like adjectives, i.e. attributively and predicatively.

(1) the expected outcome
(2) The outcome is expected

6. Adverbs

1. simple adverbs: *very, just, only, well, back, down, near, out, here, there*
2. compound adverbs: *somehow, somewhere, therefore, yesterday, afterwards*
3. derivational adverbs: ADJ-*ly*

Syntactically, adverbs function as modifiers of (i) clauses, (ii) verbs, (iii) adjectives.

(1) Fortunately, we didn't miss the train.
(2) Peter walked slowly back to the car.
(3) That was extremely useful.

Comparative and superlative forms of adverbs

Base	Comparative	Superlatives
soon	sooner	soonest
comfortably	more comfortably	most comfortably
well	better	best

7. Pronouns

1. Personal pronouns
2. Possessive pronouns
3. Reflexive pronouns
4. Relative pronouns
5. Interrogative pronouns
6. Demonstrative pronouns
7. Indefinite pronouns

Personal pronouns

		Singular		Plural	
		Subject	Object	Subject	Object
1st		*I*	*me*	*we*	*us*
2nd		*you*	*you*	*you*	*you*
3rd	Masc	*he*	*him*	*they*	*them*
	Fem	*she*	*her*		
	Neut	*it*	*it*		

Grammatical features: number, gender, case
Function: indicate coreference with noun (phrase)

Usually, the coreferential N(P) precedes the pronoun (anaphoric relationship); but initial ADV-clauses may include a pronoun that anticipates a subsequent N(P) (cataphoric relationship):

(1) When **she** saw that Bill wasn't there, Sue left immediately.

In some constructions *it* is non-referential (expletive).

(1) It is raining.
(2) It is obvious that this doesn't make much sense.

Generic reference is commonly expressed by *we, you,* and *they.* In formal style, *one* is often used as a generic pronoun.

(1) We live in an age of moral dilemmas.
(2) You can always tell if someone is lying.
(3) They'll soon find a cure for cancer.

Possessive pronouns

		Pronoun		Determiner	
		Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st		*mine*	*ours*	*my*	*our*
2nd		*yours*	*yours*	*your*	*your*
3rd	Masc	*his*	*theirs*	*his*	*their*
	Fem	*hers*		*her*	
	Neut	*(its)*		*its*	

Reflexive pronouns

		Singular	Plural
1st		*myself*	*ourselves*
2nd		*yourself*	*yourselves*
3rd	Masc	*himself*	*themselves*
	Fem	*herself*	
	Neut	*itself*	

(1) Peter saw himself in the mirror.
(2) Peter saw him in the mirror.

Relative pronouns

	Subject	Object	Genitive
human	*who*	*whom*	*whose*
nonhuman	*which*		
nonhuman	*that*		
neutral	*'zero'*		

Interrogative pronouns and interrogative adverbs

Pronoun	Determiner	Adverb
who		*where*
whom		*when*
(whose)	*whose*	*how*
which (one)	*which*	
what	*what*	

Demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative determiners

Pronoun	Determiner	Adverb
this	*this*	*here*
that	*that*	*there*
these	*these*	
those	*those*	

(1) Here are five pictures. Now, compare this one to *that one*.
(2) *This* is my teacher, Mr Jones.

Indefinite pronouns and determiners

Universal	Pronoun	Determiner
Positive	*everyone*	*every/each*
	everybody	
	everything	
	all	*all*
	both	*both*
Negative	*no one*	*none/no*
	nobody	
	nothing	
	none	

Partitive	Pronoun	Determiner
Assertive	*someone*	*some*
	somebody	
	something	
	some	
Nonassertive	*anyone*	*any/either*
	anybody	
	anything	
	none	

- Assertive indefinites occur in positive declarative sentences. Nonassertive indefinites occur in interrogatives, negative, and conditional sentences.
- Indefinite adverbs: *everywhere, nowhere, anywhere, somewhere*

8. Prepositions

Simple prepositions:	*in, at, of, on, to, by, over, since, after, until, before, for, under, into, through, during, behind, above, below, with, concerning, along, between, from, underneath, about, despite*
Complex prepositions:	*because of, in front of, away from, by means of, on behalf of, due to, for the sake of, opposite to, next to, near to, on account of, except for, in spite of, notwithstanding, as to, as for, from … to, between … and*

Space:	*in, on, at, above, under, through*
Time:	*since, in, during, for, at, from … to*
Cause:	*because of, on account of, for*
Instrument:	*by, with*
Accompaniment:	*with, without*
Concession:	*despite, in spite of*
Exception:	*except for, excluding, apart from*
Addition:	*in addition, besides, as well as*

9. Conjunctions

Simple conjunctions:	*when, since, before, after, until, while, as, if, although, unless, but, and, for, whereas, once, because*
Complex conjunctions:	*so that, in case that, as long as, as soon as, even if, except that, both … and, either … or, neither … nor*

Coordinate conjunctions:	*and, but, for, both … and, either … or, neither … nor*
Subordinate conjunctions:	*if, when, since, until, before, after, although, because, as*

Time:	*when, since, after, before, until, as soon as*
Cause:	because, as, since
Condition:	*if, unless, in case that*
Concession:	*although*
Result:	*so that*
Contrast:	*but, whereas, while*
Purpose:	*in order to*

IV. Phrasal categories

1. Noun phrase

A noun phrase has four positions:
- the head
- the specifier
- premodifiers
- postmodifiers

The head is either a noun or a pronoun. The specifier is a determiner (or genitive noun). While most NPs require a specifier, there are NPs in which the specifier is absent. Some linguists assume that such NPs include a zero determiner.

(1) The book is blue.
(2) Blue books are expensive
(3) Milk is cheap.

Postmodifiers

- a finite relative clause
- a participle relative clause (*–ing* participle or *–ed* participle)
- an infinitival relative clause
- a prepositional phrase
- spatial particle
- adjective (especially when coordinated and appositive)

(1) The girl *who spoke to him*.
(2) At the station you will see a lady *carrying a large umbrella*.
(3) Any coins *found on this site* must be handed to the police.
(4) The next train *to arrive* was from New York.
(5) The road *to Bremen*
(6) The road *back* was dense with traffic.
(7) A man, *timid and hesitant*, approached the official.

Premodifiers

- adjective + participle (*–ing* or *–ed* participle)
- *–s* genitives

Meanings of the genitive

1. possessive genitive
Mr Johnson's coat — Mr Johnson owns a coat

2. genitive of attribute
The victim's outstanding courage — The victim was courageous

3. partitive genitive
the heart's two ventricles — The heart contains two ventricles

4. subjective genitive
The parent's consent — The parents consented

5. objective genitive
The prisoner's release — (…) released the prisoner

6. genitive of origin
mother's letter — the letter from mother

7. descriptive genitive
a doctor's degree — the degree is a doctorate

The genitive construction can often be paraphrased by an *of* PP (e.g. The car's trunk — the trunk of the car). However, the two constructions are not freely interchangeable. "In general, the closer the relation can be seen to literal possession, the more suitable is the genitive; by contrast, attribution and partition are usually more appropriately expressed by the *of* construction." Moreover, there is a strong preference for the genitive if the possessor is animate, human.

Apposition

Two or more noun phrases are in apposition when they have identity of reference. The appositives are usually juxtaposed (ex. 1), but they may also be separated (ex. 2). The appositives may occur without formal expression of their relationship (ex. 1-2) or they may be combined by a coordinate conjunction or expressions such as *that is* or *namely* (ex. 3-4).

(1) *A professional singer, someone trained in Paris*, had been engaged for the concert.
(2) *His birthday present* lay on the table, *a book on politics*.
(3) *My husband* and *co-author* is dissatisfied with the last chapter.
(4) *The outcome*, that is *her re-election*, was a complete surprise.

2. Prepositional phrase

Prepositional phrases can function as (1) adjuncts, (2) complements, (3) attributes.

(1) He is playing in the garden.
(2) He talked about his new car.
(3) The guy from Chicago wasn't there.

PP adverbials serve a wide variety of semantic functions (e.g. time and space).

- Space
  The walked down the hill.
- Time
  We took a walk after lunch.
- Cause
  We left because of the weather.
- Instrument
  I have difficulty eating with chopsticks.
- Concession
  We stayed despite the rain.
- Exception
  We left on Friday except for Peter, he stayed longer.
- Addition
  In addition to your argument, I would claim that …

Discontinuous PPs ("dangling prepositions")

- WH-questions
  What is she talking about?
- REL-clauses
  The book he was looking for.
- Passive of PP complements
  The car has been paid for.

3. Verb phrase

Valency:

a. intransitive verbs	sleep, sit, work	V
b. transitive verbs	hit, kiss, see	V NP
c. ditransitive verb	give, send, bring	V NP NP

Copular verbs: be (become, get, seem, look, appear)

Transitive verbs can take:

- a nominal object — He saw the man.
- a prepositional object — He talked about the book.
- a *that*-clause — He saw that she left.
- a *wh*-clause — He knows what he wants.
- a *to*-infinitive — He prefers to go by bus.
- a *to*-infinitive plus NP — He wants me to leave.
- a *ing* participle — He stopped smoking cigarettes.
- a *ing* participle plus NP — He saw him leaving.

Ditransitive verbs can take:

- two NPs — He gave Peter the book.
- an NP plus PP — He gave the book to Peter.
- an NP plus *that* clause — He told me that he would leave.
- a PP plus *that* clause — He mentioned to me that he was getting married.
- an NP plus *wh*-clause — He asked me what time it is.
- an NP plus *to*-infinitive — He persuaded Mark to see a doctor.

4. Adjective phrase

Two types of adjective phrases must be distinguished: (1) APs consisting of an ADJ and a modifying adverb (ex. 1), (2) APs consisting of a predicative ADJ and a complement clause (ex. 2-4).

(1) a very good answer, that is perfectly reasonable
(2) I am glad that you are here.
(3) It is important to be precise.
(4) She is not capable of looking after herself.

V. Grammatical relations

Grammatical relations indicate the syntactic function of a phrase in a sentence:

- **Subject**

  a. it usually functions as the actor or agent

  (1) The ball is rolling down the hill.
  (2) The ball was kicked against the wall.

  b. it agrees with the verb in person

  (1) She like-s bananas.
  (2) There are my shoes.

  c. it usually precedes the verb

  (1) Here comes the sun.
  (2) On the table are my glasses.

  d. it usually controls the omitted actor/agent of adverbial participles and coordinate clauses

  (1) Driving along the highway, Peter noticed a red light in the dark.
  (2) Peter convinced Mary to stay and __ left.

  e. subject pronouns occur in nominative case

  (1) Him be a doctor!

- **Direct object**

  a. it usually functions as the patient or undergoer

  (1) Bill likes Mary.

  b. it usually follows the verb

  (1) The guy who we met on the bus.

  c. it often controls the omitted actor/agent of infinitives

  (1) He told me to leave.
  (2) He promised me to leave.

  d. object pronouns occur in accusative case

- **Indirect object**

  a. it functions as the recipient or benefactor

  (1) He gave me the book.

  b. it occurs in ditransitive clauses

- **Adverbials**

  a. they indicate time, place, cause, manner etc.

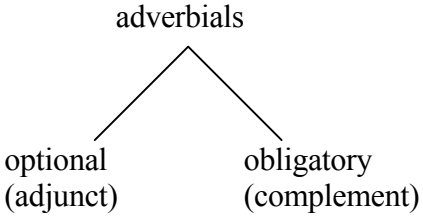
  (1) After dinner, we went to bed.

  b. several adverbials can occur in one clause

  (1) He worked (in the garden until ten o'clock).

  c. they are typically expressed by adverbs, PP adverbials, and adverbial clauses

  d.



  (1) Peter saw Mary on the bus.
  (2) Peter put the bananas in the fridge.

- **Subject complement**

  Subject complements are NPs and A(P)s following a copula

  (1) Peter is my friend.
  (2) Peter is very friendly.

- **Attribute**

  Attributes are modifiers of a noun. They can be part of the subject, direct or indirect object, or an adverbial

Thematic roles

Thematic roles describe the meaning of subject, object and adverbials:

Agent:	The initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition. '**David** cooked the soup.'
Patient:	The entity undergoing the effect of some action (e.g. change is state). 'The sun melted **the ice**.'
Theme:	The entity that is transferred in ditransitive constructions. 'Peter gave Mary **the ball**.'
Experiencer:	The entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action/state. '**Kevin** is ill.' '**Mary** saw the smoke.'
Beneficiary:	The entity for whose benefit the action was performed. 'Robert filled in the form **for his mother**.' 'They baked **me** a cake.'
Instrument:	The means by which an action is performed. 'They cleaned the wound **with a sponge**.' 'They signed the treaty **with the same pen**.'
Location:	The place in which something is situated or takes place. 'The monster was hiding **under the bed**.' '**London** is in England.'
Goal:	The entity towards which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. 'Sheila handed her license **to the policeman**.' 'Pat told **her** a joke.'
Source:	The entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. 'The plane came back **from London**.' 'We got the idea **from a French magazine**.'
Recipient:	A type of goal involved in actions that involve change of possession. 'He sold **me** this wreck.' 'He left his fortune **to the church**.'

Macro-roles and granularity

If we want to be as precise as possible, we have to assume that each verb assigns individual thematic roles. Thus *beat* would assign two roles: (1) a BEATER and (2) a BEATEN. This example shows that there are theta roles at different levels: very specific theta roles, which, in the extreme case, are verb-specific, and very general theta-roles, which, in the extreme case, distinguish only two types: a prototypical **actor** and a prototypical **undergoer**.

The theta hierarchy

Thematic roles are part of the verb's lexical meaning. However, many verbs may occur with various thematic roles as subject.

(1)	'Ursula broke the ice with a pickaxe.'	Agent
(2)	'The pickaxe broke the ice.'	Instrument
(3)	'The ice broke.'	Patient

Thus the relationship between theta-roles and syntactic roles is flexible, but it is not random. Theta hierarchy:

Agent > instrument/experiencer > patient > source/goal

The theta roles of verbs allow us to make certain predictions as to the linking between syntactic and semantic roles.

A verb describes a scene involving one or more participants. For instance, the verb 'break' describes a scene that involves 'the breaker', 'the object being broken', 'an instrument'. In addition, we know that the event must have taken place at a particular time. Thus, the meaning of 'break' entails the following semantic roles:

1. agent (the breaker)
2. patient (the element being broken)
3. instrument
4. Location
5. Time

Not all of these roles are overtly expressed in a sentence (if they are not overtly expressed, they are implied). The theta hierarchy states that the highest thematic role that is overtly expressed in the sentence functions as subject.

Passive

Active and passive sentences can be seen as constructions in which subject and object change their thematic roles: The undergoer of the active sentence is the actor in the passive sentence, and the actor of the active sentence is either omitted or expressed in a *by*-phrase:

(1) Peter threw the ball.
(2) The ball was thrown by Peter.

An alternative to the *be*-passive is the *get*-passive:

(3) I got hit by a car.

Unergative vs. unaccusative verbs

a. unergative verbs are intransitive verbs whose subject expresses an actor: *run, jump, sing, dance*
b. unaccusative verbs are intransitive verbs whose subject does not express an actor: *die, melt, explode, fell down, vanished*

Unergative verbs allow for the formation of pseudo passive sentences.

(1) The fence was jumped over by the force.
(2) *The bed was died in by George Washington.

VI. Sentence types

Basic sentences types:
1. declaratives
2. interrogatives
3. imperatives
4. exclamatives

Each sentence type is associated with a particular function:
1. declarative sentences convey information
2. interrogatives request information
3. imperatives instruct the hearer to do something
4. exclamatives express the speaker's emotional stance

Interrogatives

a. yes-no questions

(1) Has the boat left?
(2) Do you like bananas?
(3) The boat left?
(4) You like bananas?

The formation of yes-no questions involves SUBJ-AUX inversion.

Tag questions:

(5) Joan didn't recognize you, did she?
(6) Peter is swimming in the pond, isn't he?

b. wh-questions

(1)	Who is coming to the party?	SUBJ
(2)	What did you bring?	OBJ
(3)	What was she talking about?	OBL
(4)	Whose dog is that?	GEN-N
(5)	Which bike is yours?	DET-N
(6)	Where do you live?	ADV
(7)	When did you arrive?	ADV
(8)	How are you?	ADV

Like yes-no questions, wh-questions involve SUBJ-AUX inversion (except for SUBJ-questions).

Imperatives

(1) Jump!
(2) Be reasonable!
(3) Consider yourself lucky!

Features of the imperative:

1. usually no overt subject (but: *You be quiet!*)
2. no tense and aspect distinctions
3. no modals

Imperatives introduced by *let* plus first person plural *us* constitute a special sentence type of imperative sentence called *adhortative*:

(1) Let's go!
(2) Let's you and him fight!

Exclamatives

wh-exclamatives introduced by *what* or *how*

(1) What a wonderful time we've had!
(2) How quickly you eat!

Verb-first exclamatives

(1) Hasen't she grown!
(2) Boy, do you look annoyed!

VII. Particular clause types

Copular clauses

(1)	Peter is my friend.	(subject complement NP)
(2)	Peter is lazy.	(subject complement AP)
(3)	It is raining.	(nonreferential *it*)
(4)	There is Peter.	(locative *there*)
(5)	There was a man who lived in ….	(existential *there*)

Verb-particle constructions

a. Intransitive verb-particle construction (*off, up, out, back, away, down, in, on, around*)

(1) The ball touched *down*.
(2) Did it fell *off*?
(3) Mary showed *up*.
(4) They went *away*.

b. Transitive verb-particle constructions (same particles but transitive verbs)

(1) Mary put *down* the garbage can.
(2) Peter took *off* the hat.
(3) They picked him *up.*
(4) Mary send Bill *away.*

Transitive verb-particle constructions must be distinguished from transitive clauses including a prepositional object.

1. In verb-particle constructions, the order of particle and object is variable, but in prepositional phrases the particle/preposition always precedes the NP.

(1) Mary put down the garbage can.
(2) Mary put the garbage can down.
(3) Peter talked about his new book.
(4) *Peter talked his new book about.

2. If the direct object is a personal pronoun, the object has to precede the particle in the verb-particle construction.

(1) Put it *away*!
(2) *Put *away* it!
(3) He thought of it.

What determines the order of object and particle in the transitive verb-particle construction?

(1) Joe looked it up.
(2) Joe looked the number up.
(3) Joe looked the number of the ticket up.
(4) Joe looked the number that Mary had forgotten up.

Negative inversion

(1) *Not a word* would he say.
(2) *Never* will I make that mistake again.
(3) *Rarely* had Britain suffered so much criticism.
(4) *Only on Sunday's* do they eat with their children.

Locative inversion

(1) In a little white house lived two rabbits. (intransitive)
(2) *In a little white house found I two rabbits. (transitive)

Topicalization

(1) Most rap, I don't like.
(2) That stuff, I kind of enjoy.

Left- and right dislocation

(1) Well, my car, *it*'s an old Chevy.
(2) The BMWs, you can get airbacks in *them*.

(3) Could *it* be in the front yard, your bike?
(4) I don't like *him*, your new football coach.

Cleft-sentences

(1) It's *the best car* that I have ever seen.
(2) It was *Tom* who caused all the trouble.
(3) What I didn't notice was *any sense of hostility*.
(4) What Peter doesn't like is *dark beer*.

Comparative sentences

(1) Jane is as healthy as her sister.
(2) Jane is healthier than her sister.

Standard of comparison: 'health'
Basis of comparison (often implicit): 'her sister'

The basis of comparison is often shortened or omitted (i.e. elliptical)

(1) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan enjoys the theatre.
(2) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan enjoys it.
(3) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan does.
(4) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan.
(5) James enjoys the theatre more.

Resultative construction

(1) She wiped the table clean.
(2) He made me happy.
(3) Peter talked us dizzy.

VIII. Complex sentences

Subordination and coordination

Both coordination and subordination involve the linking of clauses, but while coordination involves two clauses of the same type, subordination involves a subordinate clause and a matrix (i.e. main) clause. Subordinate clauses function as (1) subject or object, (2) adverbial/adjunct, or (3) attribute in the matrix clause.

(1) Peter saw that Mary was talking to Bill.
(2) We've been waiting for you since the bus left Chicago.
(3) Can I get the one that Peter gave you.

Subordinate clauses can be finite or nonfinite (coordinate clauses are usually finite). Nonfinite subordinate clauses can be (1) infinitival constructions, (2) *–ing* participles, (3) *–ed* participles. In addition, there are so-called verbless clauses (4).

(1) Peter wants me to leave right now.
(2) Leaving her room, he tripped over the mat.
(3) Disgusted by they show, they left soon after they got there.
(4) Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in argument.

Coordination

Coordinate conjunctions: *and, or, but, for, so*

(1) John plays the guitar, and his sister plays the piano.
(2) I may see you tomorrow, or may phone late in the day.
(3) She felt ill, but my mother said nothing.
(4) Bill and Mary were tired, so they left early.
(5) Peter's argument was well-taken; for nobody, really nobody, has ever made such a claim.

Correlatives: *either ... or, both ... and, neither ... nor, not only ... but*

(1) Either the room is too small or the piano is too large.
(2) David both loves Joan and wants to marry her.
(3) Sally was neither happy nor sad.
(4) They not only broke into his office and stole his books, but (they also) tore up his manuscript.

Conjuncts: *yet, however, moreover, thus, though*

(1) We slept all night long; **however**, we were still tired when we got up.
(2) We slept all night long; we were still tired, **however**, when we got up.
(3) We slept all night long; we were still tired when we got up, **however**.

And can express a wide range of meanings.

(1)	I washed the dishes and (then) dried them.	Sequence
(2)	He heard an explosion and (therefore) phoned the police.	Consequence
(3)	Peter is secretive and (in contrast) David is open.	Contrast
(4)	She tried hard and (yet) she failed.	Concessive
(5)	Give me some money and (then) I'll do the shopping.	Condition
(6)	He has long hair and (also) he often wears jeans.	Addition

Or can be exclusive or inclusive.

(1)	You can sleep on the couch in the lounge or you can go to a hotel.	exclusive
(2)	You can boil an egg or you can make some sandwiches.	inclusive

Clausal and phrasal coordination

And, or and *but* can combine clausal and phrasal elements: *for* and *so* only combine clauses:

(1) Peter likes bananas and Mary likes apples.
(2) Peter likes bananas and apples.
(3) Peter was tired so he left.
(4) *Peter doesn't want apples so bananas.

1. coordination of Ss

(1) Yesterday the sun was very warm and the ice melted.

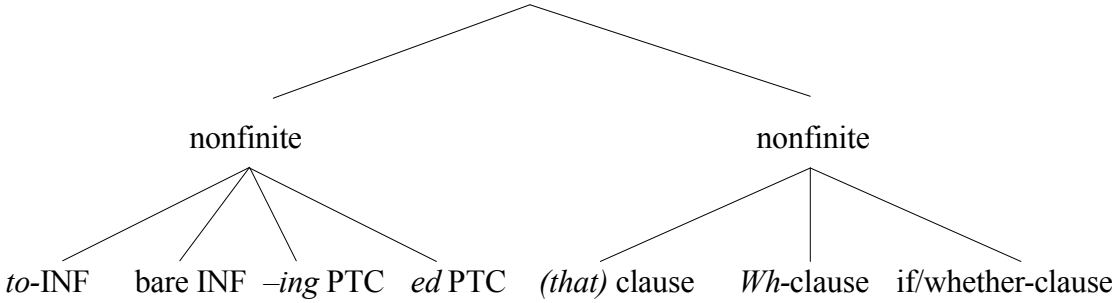
2. coordination of VPs (or elliptical Ss)

(1) Peter ate the fruit and drank the beer.

3. coordination of NPs

(1) Peter and Mary.

Nominal clauses



Finite nominal clauses

1. *that*-clauses

(1)	That Peter didn't come didn't bother us.	SUBJ
(2)	I noticed (that) somebody spoke English.	OBJ

Parenthetical matrix clauses

(1) That's wrong, I think.
(2) Suppose we do it this way.
(3) You're right, I guess .
(4) I bet you missed the bus, didn't you?
(5) You know, we've been here before.

2. *wh*-clauses

(1) Do you know who will be there.
(2) I'm not sure who has paid.
(3) I asked them what they want.
(4) The problem is who can we get to replace her.

3. *if/whether*-clauses

(1) I can't find out if the flight has been delayed.
(2) They didn't say whether it will rain or be sunny.

Nonfinite nominal clauses

Infinitival and participle nominal clauses

(1)	He likes to relax.	*To*-INF
(2)	He makes me go.	Bare INF
(3)	I don't know how to open the door.	*Wh*-INF
(4)	He enjoys selling computers.	*–ing* PTC

In subject function (restricted to the subject of *be*; otherwise always object).

(5) To be neutral in this conflict is out of question.

The subject can be expressed by a *for*-phrase.

(6) For your country to be neutral is out of question.
(7) I'm very eager for them to meet her.

NP-V-VP vs. NP-V-NP-VP

Both infinitival and participle complements can occur with or without an intervening object NP:

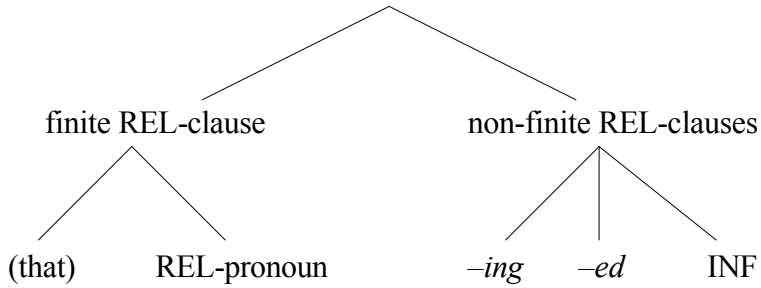
(1)	Peter wants to leave.	NP-V-INF
(2)	Peter wants Bill to leave.	NP-V-NP-INF
(3)	Peter stopped smoking.	NP-V-PTC
(4)	Peter saw me leaving.	NP-V-PTC

The mimimal distance principle

The semantic subject of the nonfinite verb is usually expressed by the NP in minimal distance to the verb, i.e. the subject in NP-V-VP constructions and the object in NP-V-NP-VP constructions. However, there are a few control verbs in which the nonfinite verb of NP-V-NP-VP constructions is 'controlled' by the subject:

(1) Peter told Mary to come.
(2) Peter promised Mary to come.

Relative clauses



Finite REL-clauses

a. external syntax (filler)

(1)	The *guy* we saw was Peter.	SUBJ
(2)	I know the *guy* you are talking about.	DO
(3)	He gave the man who had talked to us a dollar.	IO
(4)	Peter went into the room in which Mary was sleeping.	ADV
(5)	That's the picture I made.	SUBJ COMP

Restrictive REL-clauses restrict the referential scope of the head noun; non-restrictive REL-clauses provide additional information. Non-restrictive REL-clauses are generally introduced by a *wh*-word and separated by a comma/intonation break.

(5) Angela Hunt, who is (over there) in the corner, wants to meet you.

b. internal syntax (gap)

(1)	The man who slept.	SUBJ
(2)	The man I met.	DO
(3)	The man I gave the picture to.	IO
(4)	The man I went to.	ADV
(5)	The man whose dog chased the cat.	GEN

Nonfinite REL-clauses

In nonfinite REL-clauses, the subject is the only element that can be gapped or relativized.

1. *–ing* participles

    (1) A tile falling from a roof shattered into pieces at his feet.
    (2) He is talking to a girl resembling Joan.

2. *–ed* participles

    (1) The only car (being) repaired by the mechanic is mine.
    (2) Any coins found on this site must be handed to the police.

3. *to* infinitives

    (1) The next train to arrive was from New York.

The semantic subject of the infinitive is the head noun unless it is explicitly expressed by a *for* phrase.

(1) The man for John to consult is Wilson.
(2) It's time for you to go to bed.

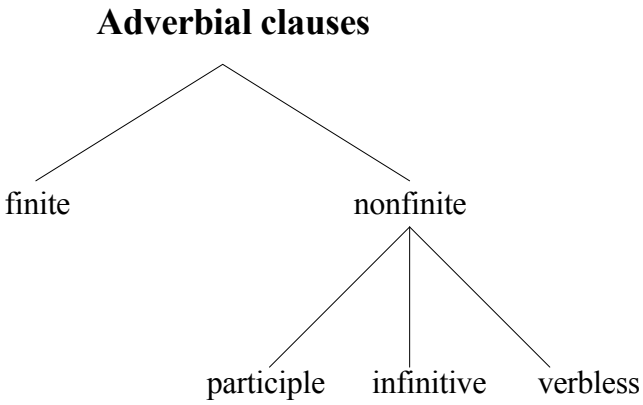
Sentential REL-clause

(1) He admires Mrs. Hewitt, which surprises me.
(2) He walks for an hour each morning, which would bore me.

Appositive clauses

Appositive clauses have features of both REL-clauses and NOM-clauses. Like REL-clauses, appositive clauses can be restrictive or non-restrictive, but they do not include a gap (or a relativized element). Moreover, appositive clauses only occur with abstract head nouns such as *fact, proposition, reply, remark, answer.* Many of these abstract head nouns are derived from complement-taking verbs.

(1) The belief that no one is infallible is well-founded.
(2) I agree with the old saying that absence makes a heart grow fonder.



Finite adverbial clauses

Criteria distinguishing ADV-clauses from COOR-clauses

1. cataphoric pronoun
   (1) When he_i came to Leipzig, $Peter_i$ met Mary. ADV
   (2) *He_i came to Leipzig, and $Peter_i$ met Mary. COOR

2. extraction
   (1) What did you tell her __ when you left? ADV
   (2) *What did you tell her __ and you left. COOR

3. ordering
   (1) Peter admitted that Mary was right [before he left]. ADV
   (2) [Before he left] Peter admitted that Mary was right. ADV
   (3) Peter admitted, [before he left], that Mary was right. ADV
   (4) Peter admitted that Mary was right [and (then he) left]. COOR
   (5) *[And he left] Peter admitted that Mary was right. COOR
   (6) *Peter admitted, [and he left], that Mary was right. COOR

4. tag question
   (1) *She went to bed when she was tired, wasn't she? ADV
   (2) She went to bed, but she wasn't tired, was she? COOR

5. gapping
   (1) *Bill played the guitar when John __ the piano. ADV
   (2) Bill played the guitar and John __ the piano. COOR

Semantic types

1. Temporal clauses

   when, after, since, while, until, before, as soon as, once, whenever

   (1) We left when it began to rain.
   (2) After he had closed the door, somebody unlocked it.
   (3) He was there before we arrived.

2. Causal clauses

   because, since, as

   (1) She watered the flowers because they were dry.
   (2) Since we live near the sea we often go sailing.
   (3) As Jane was the eldest she looked after the others.

3. Conditional clauses

   if, unless, given that, on condition that, provided that

   (1) If you put the baby down, she'll scream
   (2) Unless the strike has been called off, there will be no trains tomorrow.
   (3) Assuming that the movie starts at eight, shouldn't we be leaving now?
   (4) Had I known I would have written before.

   a. hypothetical conditional

   (5) If Colin is in London, he is undoubtedly staying in the Hilton.

   b. counterfactual conditional

   (6) If you had listened to me you wouldn't have made so many mistakes.

4. Concessive clauses

   although, though

   (1) Although he had just joined he was treated exactly like all others.

5. Concessive conditionals

even if, whether .. or

(1) Even if you dislike ancient monuments Warwick Castle is worth a visit.
(2) He's getting married whether or not he finds a job.

6. Clauses of contrast

while, whereas

(1) While I don't want to make a fuss I feel I must protest at your interference.

7. Result clauses

so that

(1) We paid him immediately so that he left contended.

8. Clauses of exception

but that, except that

(1) I would pay you now except that I don't have any money.
(2) Nothing would satisfy a child but that I place her on my lap. (informal)

Nonfinite adverbial clauses

1. Infinitival purpose clauses

(1) Students should take notes to make revisions earlier.
(2) They left the door open (in order for me) to hear the baby.

2. Participle clauses

(1) Driving home after work, I accidentally went through a red light. *–ing*
(2) Disgusted by the show they left. *–ed*

Absolutive participles must be distinguished from *free adjuncts.* Absolutive participles include their own semantic subject, whereas the semantic subject of free adjuncts is identical with the grammatical subject of the matrix clause.

(1) No further discussion arising the meeting was brought to a close. ABS
(2) Lunch finished the guest retired to the lounge. ABS
(3) Walking down the street he noticed Mary. Free ADJ
(4) Persuaded by my optimism he gladly joined our team. Free ADJ

Participle clauses can be introduced by a conjunction.

(1) While reading the newspaper Bill smoked a cigar.
(2) Before running outside you should check the weather.

Gerund is the traditional name for the *–ing* form when it serves as a verbal noun.

(1) Swimming is good exercise.
(2) Lisa's going topless upset her father.
(3) I enjoy watching cricket.

3. verbless clauses

Verbless clauses denote a state without including a verb. In a corresponding verbal clause, *be* would be the most common form in these structures.

(1) Alone in Peggy's room, Mrs Biggs switched on the vacuum cleaner.
(2) Although always helpful, he was not much liked.