





Block

3

Structure words

Block Introduction

UNIT 9
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Course Introduction
Language through Literature (BEGLA 137)
(CHOICE BASED CREDIT SYSTEM)
Credit weightage: 6 credits

Language Through Literature which has been adapted from BEGE-101 is aimed at providing a lucid account of how even the most common elements of language are used dexterously and aesthetically in literature/oratory to please, entertain, persuade, gratify and create aesthetic appeal. As a matter of fact, literature is nothing but a creative and imaginative use of language. This course will enable you to not only understand the various and dynamic ways in which writers/orators use language but also comprehend and appreciate literary/rhetorical pieces better and derive greater pleasure from them. This course will primarily deal with literal versus metaphorical meaning, literary and rhetorical devices and an understanding of the development of discourse.

This course seeks to equip you with awareness of some of the important aspects of English usage through the study of representative samples of literary works produced in English. The course is divided into 4 blocks of about 4 units each. Block 1 deals with extension of meaning, multiple meanings and overlap of meaning in the context of language acquisition process through four units/chapters. Block 2 has four units that deal with confusion of semantic and structural criteria and escaping wrong analogies including studying literary texts. Block 3 introduces and takes you to an understanding of structure words and acquaints you to all its facets and dimensions including auxiliaries and structure words in discourse with a purpose to make you aware of the role of conjunctions and linking adverbials in combining ideas/events together.

Block 4 aims to clarify certain areas of confusion relating to rhetorical devices with an emphasis on structure and style including use of repetition and questions. The course does not include much linguistic theory and deals with the structure of English in a practical way. The aim is to help the undergraduate student acquire a better understanding of how language operates and attain a reasonable level of accuracy in the use of the language, both in speech and in writing.

Follow all the units and enjoy your Course.

Block 3 Introduction

In continuity with the previous blocks, this block will enable you to not only understand the various and dynamic ways in which writers/orators use language but also comprehend and appreciate literary/rhetorical pieces better and derive greater pleasure from them. This block will primarily deal with literal versus metaphorical meaning, literary and rhetorical devices and an understanding of the development of discourse.

In the first Unit of this block, the discussion would make you distinguish structure words from content words (also called lexical words) and describe the special characteristics of structure words, and distinguish the respective roles of structure words and lexical words in English.

In Unit 10, you should be able to distinguish between auxiliaries and main verbs and then primary and modal auxiliaries. After going through the unit, you will be able to distinguish the various meanings and uses of the different auxiliaries, and also construct complex Verb phrases using permissible combinations of auxiliaries and main verbs.

In Unit 11 and 12, the aim is to make you aware of the function of some of the structure words in meaningful discourse. We shall deal mainly with personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns, determiners (including the definite article), and coordinating conjunctions. We shall also take up some adverbial expressions used for demonstrative reference or as linking devices.

UNIT 9 STRUCTURE WORDS-1

Structure

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Passage for Reading
University Days by James Thurber
- 9.3 Recognizing Structure Words
 - 9.3.1 Structure Words and Content Words
 - 9.3.2 Lexical Meaning and Structural Meaning
 - 9.3.3 Why Do We Need Structure Words?
- 9.4 Characteristics of Structure Words in Use
 - 9.4.1 Frequency of Occurrence
 - 9.4.2 Closed Class Membership
 - 9.4.3 Structure Words as Structural Markers
 - 9.4.4 Structure Words Provide the Grammatical Framework of a Sentence
- 9.5 A Note on 'Some Other Words': Determiners
- 9.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.7 Key Words
Answers

9.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- distinguish structure words from content words (also called lexical words),
- describe the special characteristics of structure words, and
- distinguish the respective roles of structure words and lexical words in English.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall discuss the structure words of English. In this unit, we shall define structure words and distinguish them from content words. In the subsequent units, we shall discuss three important types of structure words of English: articles, auxiliaries and prepositions.

9.2 PASSAGE FOR READING

Read the following passage carefully. In this passage, James Thurber describes his 'University Days':

University Days
James Thurber

- 1) I passed **all the** other courses that I took at my university, **but I could never** pass botany. **This was because** all botany students **had** to spend several hours a week in a laboratory looking **through** a microscope at plant cells, and I **could** never see **through** a microscope. I never once saw a cell **through** a microscope. **This used to** enrage my instructor. **He would** wander **around the** laboratory pleased with the progress all the students were making in drawing the involved and, so I am told, interesting structure of flower cells, until he came to me. I

would just be standing there. "I can't see anything," I would say. He would begin patiently enough, explaining how anybody **can** see **through** a microscope, but he would always end up in a fury, claiming that I could see through a microscope but just pretended that I couldn't. "It takes away from the beauty of flowers anyway," I used to tell him. "We are not concerned with beauty in this course," he would say. "We are concerned solely with what I may call the mechanics of flars". "Well," I'd say, "I can't see anything." "Try it just once again," he'd say, and I **would** put my eye to the microscope **and** see **nothing** at all, except now and again, a nebulous milky substance — a phenomenon of maladjustment. You were supposed to see vivid, restless clockwork of sharply defined plant cells. "I see what looks like a lot of milk," I would tell him. This, he claimed, was the result of my not having adjusted the microscope properly; so, **he would** readjust it for me, or rather, **for he, and I** would look again **and** see milk.

- 2) I finally took a deferred pass, as they called it, and waited a year and tried again. (You had to pass one of the biological sciences or you couldn't graduate.) The professor had come back from vacation brown as a berry, bright-eyed, and eager to explain cell-structure again to his classes. "Well," he said to me, cheerily, when we met in the first laboratory hour of the semester, "we're going to see cells this time, aren't we?" "Yes, sir," I said.

Students to right of me and to left of me and in front of me were seeing cells; what's more, they were quietly drawing pictures of them in their note-books. Of course, I didn't see anything.

- 3) "We'll try it," the professor said to me, grimly, "with every adjustment of the microscope known to man. As God is my witness, I'll arrange this glass so that you see cells through it or I'll give up teaching. In twenty-two years of botany, I..." He cut off abruptly for he was beginning to quiver all over, like Lionel Barry more, and he genuinely fished to hold onto his temper; his scenes with me had taken a great deal out of him.
- 4) So we tried it with every adjustment of the microscope known to man. With only one of them did I see anything but blackness or the familiar lacteal opacity, and that time I saw, to my pleasure and amazement, a variegated constellation of flecks, specks, and dots. These I hastily drew. The instructor, noting my activity, came back from an adjoining desk, a smile on his lips and his eyebrows high in hope. He looked at my cell drawing. "What's that?" he demanded, with a hint of squeal in his voice. "That's what I saw," I said. "You didn't, you didn't, you didn't," he screamed, losing control of his temper instantly, and he bent over and squinted into the microscope. His head snapped up. "That's your eye!" he shouted. "You've fixed the lens so that it reflects! You've drawn your eye!"

(Copyright c1933, 1961 James Thurber. From *My Life and Hard Times*, published by Harper & Row)

9.3 RECOGNIZING STRUCTURE WORDS

We have printed some words in the first paragraph of the passage in bold type. If you examine these words carefully you will find that these words are rather small as compared to the other words that occur in the passage. For example, in the first two sentences, the **words** in bold type are: **I, all, the, that, at, my, but, could, this, because, had, to, a, in, through, at, and**. All of them, except one, are one-syllable words. Some other words are also small but we have not printed them in bold type.

Flars/fla:z/flowers. The writer is trying to imitate the instructor's pronunciation.

Let us divide the words in bold type in the first paragraph into different parts of speech. We see that they can be divided into these categories:

Articles: the, a

Pronouns: I, that, my, this, he, me, anything, anybody, it, him, we, what, nothing, you, himself

Prepositions: at, in, through, around, with, of, to, from, except, like, for

Conjunctions: but, because, and, until, how, that, so, or

Auxiliaries: could, had to, used to, would, were, am, be, can, are, may

Some other words: all, this (when not a pronoun)

Words belonging to these parts of speech are called structure words.

9.3.1 Structure Words and Content Words

You will notice that our list does not contain the names of the more important parts of speech like noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. These four are the major parts of speech. Words belonging to these categories are not structure words: they are called **content words** or **lexical words**.

The difference between content words and **structure** words lies partly in the nature of their meaning and partly in the characteristics of their use. We shall discuss the differences in the nature of their meanings first.

9.3.2 Lexical Meaning and Structural Meaning

Let us look at some content words occurring in our passage:

Nouns: university, microscope, structure, fury, phenomenon, etc.

Verbs: pass, enrage, pretend, claim, adjust, etc.

Adjectives: nebulous, milky, vivid, restless, brown, etc.

Adverbs: patiently, always, sharply, cheerily, quietly, etc.

How do the meanings of these content words differ from the meanings of the structure words which were listed earlier? Look up both kinds of words in a dictionary. What do you find?

Dictionaries are of various types but you will find that content words are entered in all dictionaries. The dictionary gives you a description of the meaning in simple words. For example, one meaning of the noun *structure* is given as 'the way in which parts are formed into a whole'. The meanings of some other nouns (e.g., *microscope*) may include a picture. Meanings of verbs, adjectives and adverbs are generally given in the form of simple word-equivalents and definitions. Thus, *nebulous* is defined as 'not clear', 'cloudy', etc., *enrage* as 'to make very angry', and so on. This shows that content words have meanings which can be described, represented by a picture, carried by synonyms, etc. Such meanings are called **lexical meanings**. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs have lexical meanings. Respectively, their meanings refer to objects or things, actions, qualities of objects, and modes and manners of action. Whenever we want to say something, we use names of objects (nouns), words for actions (verbs), qualities (adjectives), modes and manners (adverbs), etc. These words carry the main items of meaning in a sentence. Without them we would not be

Structure Words

able to say anything about any person, thing, action, quality, etc. In other words, we would not be able to use language at all.

As for structure words, dictionaries do not really give you their meanings; what they do is to tell you how these words are used, for example, here is what the *Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English* has to say about some of the structure words from our list:

- I** used by a speaker or writer to refer to himself. Cf. *me*, object form, and *we*, *us*, plural forms.
- the** 1. used as a less specific form of *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* applied to person(s), thing(s), event(s), etc. already referred to or being discussed2. used when who or what is referred to is quite obvious. 3. used with a noun when it stands for something unique... 4..., etc. (Lists 14 uses)
- at** 1. (place and direction) (a) indicating the place in or near which something or somebody was, is or will be ... (b) towards; in the direction of. (c) indicating an attempt to get or reach something, (d) indicating distance (e) 2. (time and order) (a) indicating a point of time..... (b)..... ,and so on.
- and** ...1. connecting words, clauses, sentences....
- can** ...1. indicating ability or capacity to do something. 2. is used with verbs of perception in place of the simple tenses, which are less usual? Nothing is added to the meaning... 3. is used, colloquial style, to indicate permission... (4) etc. (lists 9 uses).

Why do dictionaries give 'meanings' for lexical words and 'uses' for structure words? The reason obviously is that lexical words have 'content', some substance of meaning which can also be represented in other ways, by other words or by pictures. Structure words do not have much content; as a result, they cannot generally be represented by other words. We can use the words 'cloudy' or 'not clear' for nebulous but we cannot use *a* for *the* or *at* for *in*, or *it* for *him*. This is because each of these small words, or structure words, has a definite use, or uses, which cannot be performed by another word. The function of *a* cannot be performed by *the*, the function of *of* cannot be performed by *may*, and so on.

9.3.3 Why Do We Need Structure Words?

Why does a language need structure words? Can it not do with content words only?

We can find the answer to this question if we take a normal sentence and remove all the structure words from it. Let us take these two sentences:

I could never see through a microscope.

I will never see a microscope.

If we remove the structure words from these sentences, we get

never see microscope

from both sentences. In fact, we can think of a number of sentences such that, by removing the structure words, we will get 'never see microscope'. For example:

You may never see the microscope.

She will never see through my microscope. etc.

It is obvious that these sentences all carry different meanings though the content words are the same in all of them. We can, therefore, say that the meaning of a sentence does not come from lexical words only: some meaning is also contributed by structure words. It is true that the meaning of lexical words is important in all the above sentences: they all talk about microscopes, for example. But the presence of structure words is also important. For example, it is the presence of the preposition *through* which tells us that in one sentence we are talking about seeing *through a* microscope, while in another sentence we are talking about seeing a *microscope*. Similarly, the presence of *could* in one sentence and of *will* in another shows that in one sentence we are talking about the past, in another about the future. The presence of *the* in one sentence and of *a* in another also makes a difference in meaning (*themicroscope vs. a microscope*) as we shall see in the next unit.

The kinds of meanings that structure words convey are clearly different from the meanings of lexical words. Lexical words denote objects, actions, qualities, etc.; structure words produce meanings like the time of action, relationships between objects, definite or indefinite object, etc. However, more important than the kinds of meaning is the way in which these meanings are conveyed. Lexical words convey their meanings by themselves, i.e., each lexical word contains its own meaning. (the meaning of chair, the object, comes from the word *chair*, the meaning of running, the action, comes from the word *run*, and so on.) The meaning of a structure word, on the other hand, comes from the association of the word with another word, or set of words. The meanings of the articles *a* and *the*, for example, are conveyed to us only when the article is attached to a noun; the meaning of a pronoun comes to us only when we know the noun it stands for; the meaning of a preposition comes to us only when we know the two entities which it relates, and so on. We would not be very wrong if we said that structure words have no meaning of their own: their meaning emerges only when they occur in combination with other words, i.e. in a sentence. This is the reason why some dictionaries do not list structure words, and also the reason why those dictionaries that do list them describe their uses rather than give their meanings.

We have thus identified two kinds of meaning: the meaning of lexical words and the meaning of structure words. We call the former 'lexical meaning' and the latter 'structural meaning'. The meaning of a sentence is a combination of these two kinds of meaning.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) We have identified all the structure words in the first paragraph of James Thurber's passage. You do the same for the remaining paragraphs. List the structure words under these heads: Articles, Pronouns, Auxiliaries, Conjunctions, Prepositions, others. List each structure word only once.

- 2) Make five good sentences using all the content words given below in each sentence. To do so, you will have to use a number of structure words. Use different structure words for different sentences. You can change the form of the content words but use each content word only once:

go	stand	' street	window
watch	man	people	

9.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF STRUCTURE WORDS IN USE

We have shown how structure words can be distinguished from lexical words on the basis of meaning. We shall now describe some characteristics of the use of structure words which also help us to distinguish them from lexical words.

9.4.1 Frequency of Occurrence

If you count the structure words that we have underlined in the first paragraph of James Thurber's passage, you will find that they constitute nearly half of the total number of words in the passage. Some of the structure words occur again and again. For example, the article *a* occurs 13 times and *the* 10 times. Similarly, other structure words like *all*, *this*, *he*, *it*, etc. also occur repeatedly. If you continue counting these words in the rest of the passage, you will find that the total occurrences of each structure words add up to quite a few. No lexical word occurs in the passage as many times, though some words like *microscope*, *look*, etc. do occur again and again. The higher frequency of structure words becomes more apparent as you increase the size of the passage. It has been calculated that, on an average, one-third or more of the words occurring in a text are structure words.

Another characteristic of structure word is that they occur with equal frequency in all kinds of styles and varieties of English. This characteristic is not found in the use of content words. The kind of content words that will occur in a particular passage is determined by various factors, e.g., the subject matter, the choice of style, the level of education of the person addressed, and so on. Content words that occur in a discussion on politics are unlikely to occur in a discussion on physics; the content words that one uses when talking informally to one's friends are different from the content words that one uses when delivering a formal lecture (even if their meanings are similar). Structure words, on the other hand, always remain the same. There are no substitutes for articles. Pronouns, prepositions, auxiliaries, etc. in English. Hence their frequency is the same in every style and every use except perhaps in such specialised cases as the language of telegrams where structure words are often dropped to save on cost.

9.4.2 Closed Class Membership

As we stated earlier, structure words belong to different parts of speech: some are articles, some pronouns, some prepositions, some auxiliaries, some conjunctions, and so on. It is to be noted that each of these categories contains only a few words. There are two articles, 25-30 pronouns, 60-70 prepositions, 35-40 conjunctions 15-16

auxiliaries and a few other words. The total number of structure words in English is not more than 200-250. This number is very small when compared to thousands and thousands of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Why is this so? Why are there only a few structure words but thousands upon thousands of lexical words? The answer is very simple. Lexical words denote objects, actions, qualities, etc. and there are thousands upon thousands of these in the world; structure words denote relations between these and there are only a few of these relations. The situation is somewhat similar to arithmetic: there are thousands and thousands of numbers but only a few relations (or operations, like addition, subtraction, multiplication and division) that exist between them.

It is this which leads to the open class membership of lexical words and closed class membership of structure words. New words are added to the class of nouns, verbs, etc. all the time because new objects are discovered, new kinds of actions, or combinations of actions, are seen or imagined; new qualities, or combinations of qualities, are experienced, and so on. However, no new words are added to the class of pronouns, articles, prepositions, auxiliaries, etc. because the functions these classes of words perform (e.g., the relations that prepositions show between objects denoted by nouns) always remain the same or vary only over long periods of time.

We thus notice that the class of structure words consists of a small number of words which occur very frequently. The class of lexical words, on the other hand, consists of a very large number of words which occur very infrequently.

9.4.3 Structure Words as Structural Markers

A characteristic of the use of structure words is that they always occur with content words belonging to the major parts of speech (nouns, verbs, etc.). Just as content words by themselves cannot form a sentence (remember 'Never see microscope!'), function words also cannot form a sentence by themselves (can you imagine a sentence like 'I all the that I my I could?') Structure words have to be combined with lexical words to make good sentences. There are certain definite ways ('rules') in which structure words combine with lexical words. For example, articles combine only with nouns, auxiliaries combine only with verbs, prepositions always precede nouns or noun phrases, conjunctions always join elements of the same type, etc. Because of these definite rules of combination, we can always use a structure word to tell the part of speech of its accompanying word. For example, wherever an article occurs we can be sure that the accompanying word will be a noun, since articles always occur with nouns, never with verbs, adverbs, etc. Similarly wherever an auxiliary occurs we can be sure that the accompanying word will be a verb, since auxiliaries occur only with verbs. In other words, articles are markers of, nouns and auxiliaries are markers of verbs. All structure words function as markers of some grammatical category or the other. In this capacity, they are called 'structural markers'.

What is the use of structural markers? How are structure words useful as structural markers?

A simple example will answer these questions. Look at the following message received by wire:

Ship sails today

This message contains only lexical words. In telegrams we save money by omitting the structure words, but this sometimes leads to problems, as in this case. What does the message mean? It may either mean 'The ship is sailing today' or it may be a command asking the addressee to ship the sails (send sails by ship) immediately. If the telegram is received by the addressee, who has the necessary background information, he will have no problem, but if it is received by a friend or a member of the family who doesn't know the background, he will not know how to interpret the telegram.

Now suppose we supply the structure words. The telegram will then be read either as

The ship sails today

or as

Ship *the* sails today

The meaning becomes quite clear in either case. What makes this possible? The structure word *the*. Whichever word it precedes is marked as the noun (*ship* or *sails*), the rest follows easily.

9.4.4 Structure Words Provide the Grammatical Framework of a Sentence

Structure words and inflections (endings on words like the present tense ending *-s*, the plural *-s* or *-es*, the past tense ending *-ed*, etc.) function as structural markers—they tell us the grammatical category of the word with which they occur. When we know the grammatical categories of all the words in a sentence we know its grammatical structure to a great extent. The grammatical structure of a sentence contains a number of positions in which content words occur, e.g., the subject position, the object position, the verb, etc. When the content words are filled in, we get the full meaning of the sentence. For example, look at the structure.



If we fill in the blanks with content words, we get the sentences

The *man* is *watching* a *word*.
The *country* is *fighting* a *war* etc.

Structure words therefore provide the basic structure, or the grammatical framework of a sentence. This framework, as we saw earlier, contributes its own meaning, which is called structural meaning. If we remove the structure words, the structural meaning is lost. We are only left with some items of lexical meaning with no structure and no relationship between them. On the other hand, if we remove the content words, we have only an empty framework, a structure without any substance.

9.5 A NOTE ON 'SOME OTHER WORDS'. DETERMINERS

In our list of the parts of speech of structure words, we have listed some words under the title 'some other words'. What words are these?

In James Thurber's passage some words (like *all, this, that*) occur again and again. These words do not belong to a single part of speech. Depending on how we use them they are either pronouns or adjectives. They are pronouns when they stand for nouns (e.g., *this* in '*This* used to enrage my instructor. '), and adjectives when they stand before a noun (e.g., *this* in '*We* are not concerned with beauty in *this* course').

Modern grammar tells us that when words like *all, this, that, these, those, one*, etc. stand before nouns (i.e. when they function as adjectives), they are markers of nouns. Hence they are like the articles *a, an, the*, which are also markers of nouns. Some pronouns (the possessive pronouns like *my, your, his*, etc.) also stand before nouns

and should also be called noun-markers. Modern grammar puts all noun-markers in a single category. The name given to this category is **Determiner**. Determiners are the class of structure words which include articles, possessive pronouns, demonstrative adjectives, numerals, etc., all of which function as noun-markers. In our next unit we shall discuss one type of determiner words: the articles.

9.6 LET US SUM UP

Let us now sum up our discussion. We have seen that

- i) Structure words are words belonging to the categories of articles, auxiliaries, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns. Words belonging to the categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are content words.
- ii) Content words have lexical meaning, or meaning which can be represented by other words, pictures, etc.; structure words have uses or functions which may be described but cannot be performed by other words.
- iii) Structure words have a high frequency of occurrence in all styles and varieties of English; the frequency of content words is much less and varies according to style, subject matter, etc.
- iv) Structure words form classes whose membership is closed. No new structure words are added to the language.
- v) Structure words function as structural markers. Structural markers help us to recognize the part of speech to which a word in a sentence belongs. This, in turn, helps us to understand the sentence correctly.
- vi) Structure words provide the grammatical structure of a sentence and contribute structural meaning; content words fill the structural positions and contribute lexical meaning.

9.7 KEY WORDS

Structure words: Words belonging to closed classes with a high frequency of occurrence.

Content words: Words belonging to open classes with a comparatively lower frequency of occurrence.

Closed class: A class of words that does not admit new members (e.g. articles, pronouns, prepositions, etc.).

Open class: A class of words that admits new members (e.g., nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.).

Structural meaning: The meaning contributed by structure words,

Lexical meaning: The meaning contributed by content (or lexical) words.

Structural marker: A word is said to function as a structural marker when it helps us identify the grammatical category of another word with which it occurs. Inflections also function as structural markers.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

1) Articles: a, the, an

Pronouns: I, it, you, one, his, he, me, we, why they, them, their, anything, him, my, these, that

Auxiliaries: had to, could, had, are, going to, were, did, 'll (shall/will),

Conjunctions: as, and, or, when, so that, for, so

Prepositions: of, from, as, to, in, through, like, onto, with, out of, but (=except), at

Others: first, this, every, that

2) The five sentences given below are examples. You can construct other good sentences;

- i) The man went to the window and watched the people standing in the street.
- ii) The man stood at the window and watched the people going in the street.
- iii) The people stood *and* watched the man going out of the window into the street.
- iv) The man went into the street and the people stood and watched him through the window.
- v) The man stood and watched the people going out of the window into the street.

UNIT 10 STRUCTURE WORDS- 2 AUXILIARIES

Structure

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Passage for Reading
- 10.3 Auxiliaries and Main Verbs
- 10.4 Primary Auxiliaries: *be, have, do*
- 10.5 Modal Auxiliaries and their Meanings
- 10.6 Types of Complex Verb Phrase
- 10.7 Auxiliaries as Operators
- 10.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.9 Key Words
Answers

10.0 OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this unit you should be able to

- distinguish between auxiliaries and main verbs,
- distinguish between primary and modal auxiliaries,
- distinguish the various meanings and uses of the different auxiliaries, and
- construct complex Verb phrases using permissible combinations of auxiliaries and main verbs.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous Unit, we introduced you to structure words. We stated there that 'structure words' are those which have little lexical meaning but which are essential to the meaning of the sentences, since the meanings of content words and establish relationships between them. We also stated characteristics of the structure words. We saw that they

- i) occur very frequently in all styles and varieties of English,
- ii) form small and closed classes of words,
- iii) function as structural markers, and
- iv) provide the grammatical framework of a sentence and contribute structural meaning.

We also discussed one type of structure words called the articles. We mentioned that articles the class of structure words called determiners. Determiners were described as noun-markers; 'determiners' is actually a shortened expression for 'determiners of nouns'.

In this unit, we shall discuss a class of words which can be called 'determiners of verbs' or 'verb'. Common term for such words is auxiliaries. It is fortunate that this commonly understood term is available to us, since now we can use the word 'determiners' for noun-determiners and the word 'auxiliary' for verb-determiners.

Auxiliaries are markers of verbs in the same sense in which determiners are markers of nouns. Whenever an auxiliary occurs, a main verb is sure to follow. Sometimes the main verb may not actually be said, but it is always understood from context. The

word *will* in the sentence 'He *will* leave tomorrow,' is an auxiliary; it is followed by the main verb *leave*. If I ask someone 'Will you come tomorrow?' and he answers 'I will,' there is no main verb in the answer, but we know there is a main verb and it is *come*. We know this from the question. We can therefore say that an auxiliary is always accompanied by a verb just as a determiner is always accompanied by a noun, and just as we can identify a word as a noun, if a determiner accompanies it, we can identify a word as a verb if an auxiliary accompanies it. In this sense determiners are noun-markers and auxiliaries are verb-markers.

Further, just as a structure consisting of one or more than one determiner and a noun (with or without an adjective in between) is called a noun phrase, a structure consisting of one or more than one auxiliary and a verb (with or without an adverb in between) is called a verb phrase. *A man* and *a tall man* are noun phrases, *is singing* and *is always singing* are verb phrases.

The words that occur as auxiliaries in English are the following. We place them in two groups. The reason for putting them in these two groups will become clear later.

Group I	BE, HAVE, DO
Group II	can, could, may, might, will, would, must, shall, should, dare, need, ought (to), used (to)

We have put the auxiliaries of Group I in capital letters and those of Group II in small letters in order to show the following difference between them: the auxiliaries of Group II are used in the form in which they are given; the auxiliaries of Group I have a number of different forms. BE has the forms *is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been*, HAVE has the forms *has, have, had, - DO* has the forms *do, does, did*.

10.2 PASSAGE FOR READING

Before we start a discussion on the auxiliaries, we give you a passage to read in which some of the auxiliaries to be discussed have been used. As you read the passage, underline the auxiliaries. You can later check whether you have underlined the correct words when you come to Check your Progress I. The passage has been taken from Robert Lynd's essay 'On Being Measured for a Suit of Clothes.'

From *On Being Measured for a Suit of Clothes*

Robert Lynd

"YOU ought to have some new clothes. You are getting shabby." Gradually the tone of command creeps in: "You must have new clothes. Do ask E. V. the name of his tailor." A week later italics make their appearance: "You must get a new suit." Italics quickly give way to small capitals: "You MUST get a new suit. Will you go and get measured this afternoon?" "No, no," I protest, "today is Friday. Nothing would persuade me to be measured for a new suit on Friday." "Well, then, on Monday." Luckily, Monday is usually the thirteenth or something equally impossible, and I have another good argument for postponement. A few days later there is an appeal to my better nature in the form of an outrageous falsehood: "You know you promised." This fails, as it deserves to fail, but at last there comes a morning when I find myself in a corner... "Will you go and get measured today, or shall I call for you in town and take you?" It is tyranny, but I know that I am beaten. "All right, but he's sure to want a deposit, and I haven't any money." "Give him a cheque." "If I'm so shabby as you say I am, he'd probably refuse it." "Well, call in at the butcher's and get him to cash a cheque on your way into town." "I don't know the butcher." "That doesn't matter. He probably knows you. He must often have seen you passing." "If I'm so shabby as you say I am, he would probably take me for a tramp." "Now you see what comes of

dressing so badly. You're frightened of your own butcher." "No, I'm not. I'm 'frightened of bringing disgrace on all of you by being arrested in a butcher's shop for trying to get money by false presences." "Oh, well, I'll come with you as far as the butcher's." "Don't know when I'll have time to go to the tailors. I promised to lunch with Jones today." "I'll ring up Mr. Jones and explain." "Oh, don't trouble. Besides, I'm not sure that he didn't say yesterday that he wouldn't be able to come," ..."Good-bye," I say sullenly, as I put on my coat, for I hate having my day ruined like this; "What did you say the tailor's name was?" "I think it was Turtle, or Tompkinson, or Tarbutt, or some name like that. Anyhow, you'll be able to find him quite easily. He's Alan's tailor." "What's his number?" I ask gloomily, for I know at least the name of the street. "I don't know his number, but Alan said his shop was at the wrong end of the street." "Which is the wrong end of the street?" "I don't know. Go and look at it and see." "But in what way is it the wrong end? Is it wrong morally or architecturally or socially? Does he mean that it's the end or the cheap end?" "Oh, the cheap, I'm sure." "Honestly, I think I ought to put off going till we've seen Alan again and got some information about his tailor."

(From Robert Lynd: *The Money Box*; published by Methuen & Co.)

In this passage the writer is being told by his wife that he should get a new suit of clothes. The writer is reluctant and makes many excuses. The dialogue between them contains a number of auxiliaries. Let us note a few of them:

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| ought to have | (I) will come... |
| must have | (written 'I'll come') |
| Do ask ... | do (not) know |
| must get | (written 'don't know') |
| Will (you) go. | (you) will be (able) |
| would persuade | (written '..... you'll be') |
| shall (I) call | |
| am beaten | |
| must (often) have seen..... | |
| would (probably) take..... | |

We have quoted the whole verb phrases in which the auxiliaries occur. The auxiliaries are in bold type. The accompanying words, which are not in bold type and are not in brackets, are the main verbs.

Check Your Progress 1

1 Go over Robert Lynd's passage once again and check if you have underlined all (and only) the auxiliaries; then check your answers with the answers given at the end of the unit.

2 Distinguish Group I and Group II auxiliaries in your answer to Exercise 1 above.

10.3 AUXILIARIES AND MAIN VERBS

How do you distinguish between an auxiliary and a main verb? First, you may note that a main verb can occur by itself in some other sentence where no auxiliary occurs with it. For example, in the first verb phrase we have quoted, *ought to have*, *have* is the main verb, *ought (to)* the auxiliary. *Have* can occur as a main verb without an auxiliary, as in *I haven't any money*. Similarly, the main verb of the verb phrase *would persuade* occurs by itself in the sentence *He persuaded me to come*. This shows that a main verb can occur without an auxiliary; an auxiliary, on the other hand, cannot occur without a main verb (either present or understood). Secondly, whenever a verb phrase contains more than one verb (remember that auxiliaries are also verbs), the last verb in the phrase is the main verb; all other verbs are auxiliaries. Thus, in the verb phrase *must (often) have seen* the last verb *seen* is the main verb; *must* and *have* are auxiliary verbs; *open* is not a verb and therefore does not count.

Why do auxiliaries occur with main verbs sometimes and not at other times? The answer to this question is as follows:

- a) Some auxiliaries occur with main verbs because certain constrictions are not possible without them. For example, the negative and interrogative forms of sentences with simple verb phrases always require the use of the auxiliary *Do*. The negative form of the sentence *She dances well* is *She doesn't dance well*, the interrogative form is *Does she dance well*?
- b) Most auxiliaries occur with main verbs when we wish to express certain kinds of meanings. Different auxiliaries express different kinds of meanings. As we shall see in the next section when we do not wish to express these meanings, we use the simple form of the verb. For example, I have *some new clothes* means what it says (that I actually am the owner of some new clothes); I *ought to have some new clothes*, on the other hand, means that I do not actually have new clothes and it is desirable that I should have some.

Check Your Progress 2

State if the verbs in bold type in each of the following sentences are used as auxiliaries or as main verbs:

- i) Do you have many friends in college?

- ii) My sister likes to read poetry.

- iii) God helps those who help themselves.

- iv) You ought to know your religion well.

- v) When did India become a Republic?

- vi) A snake-bitten patient should not sleep.

- vii) I noticed the difference.

- viii) It is not correct to say that the poor are getting poorer, though the rich may be getting richer.
-
- ix) Have you heard about the Ramakrishna Mission?
-
- x) This Mission has its branches in many cities and towns in India and abroad.
-

10.4 PRIMARY AUXILIARIES: *BE, HAVE, DO*

In Robert Lynd's passage, you must have noticed that some verbs occur very frequently both as auxiliaries and as main verbs. These verbs are our Group I verbs: be, have, do. Note the following examples:

Have as a main verb	: You ought to have some new clothes.
Have as an auxiliary	: He must have seen you passing.
Be as a main verb	: I am shabby.
Be as an auxiliary	: I am beaten.
Do as a main verb	: Do as you are told! (Not from the passage)
Do as an auxiliary	: Do ask EV the name of his tailor.

Be, Have and do are called Primary Verbs. When they occur as Auxiliaries, they are called Primary Auxiliaries.

Used as a main verb, *be* does not have any specific meaning: it is used in such constructions as *She is a teacher*, *She is sad*, etc. to relate a noun or adjective occurring in the predicate with the noun or pronoun in the subject. The main verb has the meaning 'to own', 'to experience', etc. (as in *I have two cars*, *I have a headache*) -, the main verb *do* has the meaning 'behave', 'carry out', etc. However, when used as auxiliaries, these verbs do not have any specific meaning of their own; they only help us to form certain types of verb phrases. Each type of verb phrase as a whole conveys a certain kind of meaning. For example, the auxiliary *be* is used with the present participle form of the main verb in the present or past tense (e.g., *She is / was singing*) to form a verb phrase which carries the meaning that the action denoted by the main verb is in progress and not yet finished. The auxiliary *be* is also used with the past participle form of the verb (as in: *He was defeated*) to form the passive verb phrase which is used when we wish to give greater importance to the action or event (of defeat) than to the performer of the action (namely, the person who defeated him). The auxiliary occurs with the past participle form of the main verb in the present or past tense (e.g., *She has/had left*) to form a verb phrase which carries the meaning that the action denoted by the main verb has (or had) been completed. The auxiliary *do*, as we have already seen, is used in questions and negative sentences and, like *be* and *have*, occurs in several forms (*do, does, did*) which carry the tense, number, person etc. of the verb. It also occurs when we wish to emphasize a request, as in *Do ask E. V. the name of his tailor*.

We thus see that primary auxiliaries are structure words which have little meaning of their own but are grammatically very important. Their use is essential for certain grammatical constructions and for conveying grammatical distinctions of tense, completion or non-completion of action, number, person, etc.

Check, Your Progress 3

Distinguish the uses of *be*, *have* and *do* as main verbs and auxiliaries in the following sentences:

- i) That building is a hotel. _____
- ii) Suchitra is learning French. _____
- iii) He's so shabby. _____
- iv) He is going to the tailor's to get a new suit made. _____
- v) He hasn't any new clothes. _____
- vi) His old clothes are worn-out. _____
- vii) He has decided to have a new suit. _____
- viii) When do you do your homework? _____
- ix) Did he do you any harm? _____
- x) Have you had Lunch? _____
- xi) His wife has just had a baby. _____
- xii) The house was being painted. _____
- xiii) I'm going now. _____
- Do come again. _____
- What are you doing? _____

10.5 MODAL AUXILIARIES AND THEIR MEANINGS

The auxiliaries of Group II, on the other hand, do not show distinctions of tense, number, person, etc. Their forms always remain the same. But each auxiliary in Group II helps to add some shade or the other of meaning to the sentence. The pairs *can-could*, *may-might*, *will-would* and *shall-should* are sometimes said to be present-past pairs but this is not correct: all it really means is that when the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, *could*, *might*, *would* and *should* are used as the past tense forms of *can*, *may*, *would* and *shall* in the subordinate clauses according to the principle of Sequence of Tenses. But *could*, *might*, *would* and *should* are used in many other places without referring to the past at all. They carry certain meanings which make them different from other auxiliaries.

The meanings of these auxiliaries are of a different type from the meanings of other words like nouns and verbs. While nouns denote objects, adjectives denote qualities, verbs denote actions, and so on, these auxiliaries generally show the attitudes or judgements of the speaker. For example, if the speaker says *It may rain tomorrow*, his use of *may* shows an attitude (or judgement) of possibility, since the sentence means that 'I think it is possible that it will rain tomorrow.' If he had instead said 'It will rain tomorrow' the meaning would have been, 'I am certain (or I predict) that it will rain tomorrow.' The use of *will* in this sentence shows an attitude of certainty, or prediction. All the auxiliaries of Group II show such attitudes on the part of the speaker. These attitudes affect the meaning of the sentence. The sentence does not say that something is true but only that it *may* be true, or it *must* be true, etc. Such changes in the meaning of the sentences are called modal changes; accordingly, the auxiliaries which cause these changes are called modal auxiliaries.

Let us now give you some of the meanings of the modal auxiliaries:

Can and Could

Can is used when you wish to say that someone is *free* and *able* to do something, e.g., *He can lift 200 lbs.* *Can* is used to express this ability in the present; *could* is used when we wish to express this ability in the past, e.g., *When I was young I could run a mile in six minutes.* But *could* expresses only general ability in the past. To express 'particular ability' in the past (i.e. ability to do something on a particular occasion) we use *be able to*, e.g., *I was able to score a century in the last match.* In this sentence *could* cannot be used. Ability in the future is also expressed with *be able to*.

Secondly, *can* is used to express permission in the present and *could* to express permission in the past. E.g., *You can go now.* *When I was a child I could sleep late on Sunday mornings.*

May and *might* also express possibility and permission, but they are different from *can* and *could*. *Can* expresses theoretical possibility, i.e. its use only tells us that something can happen, it does not say whether it will actually happen. *May* expresses the possibility that it may actually happen. Observe the difference between *I can leave tomorrow (if I want to)*, and *I may leave tomorrow*. The second sentence implies that I may actually not be here tomorrow; the first one doesn't.

May is used for seeking or granting permission in the formal style. *May I leave tomorrow?* and *You may leave tomorrow* are formal substitutes for *Can I leave tomorrow?* and *You can leave tomorrow*.

Might expresses a lesser degree of probability than *may*. *We might win* shows a lesser degree of confidence in our winning than *We may win*.

Might is used for seeking permission but not for granting it. You can ask '*Might I come in?*' showing a greater degree of hesitation and doubt than you would if you said *May I come in?*, but the other person cannot say *Yes you might-*, he must say *Yes, you may*.

There is another difference between *may* and *can*: *may* is more common when the permission is given by the speaker; *can*, when the permission comes from some rule or authority. Compare:

You may attend my lectures. (= I permit you).

You can attend the lectures but can't write the exam. (= Rules permit the former but not the latter.)

Will and Would, Shall and Should

Statements about the future cannot be true in the same sense as statements about the past and the present. We can say *It is true that he lied* or *It's true that he is lying*, but we can't say it's true *that he will lie*. Since the event is in the future, we can't be absolutely sure if it will happen or not. Hence, we prefer to say *It is likely or It is possible or It is certain that he will lie*. Hence, our statements about the future are coloured by our attitudes to a greater degree than our statements about the past or the present. *Will* and *shall*, which are often used when speaking of the future, carry many modal senses, e.g., prediction, willingness, intention, insistence, order, etc. Here are some examples:

I *will* (or *shall*) come with you as far as the butcher's. (willingness)

I *will* cash a cheque in town. (intention)

You *will* find him quite easily. (prediction)

Shall is used only with the first person subjects (*I, we*) to express determination and intention, or to make a prediction. Its use with second and third person subjects expresses a decision or determination on the part of the speaker with regard to the future of someone else:

You *shall* have whatever you want.

The enemy *shall* not pass.

Will you go and get measured this afternoon? (request)
Shall I call for you in town and take you? (offer)
You *shall* go today. (order)

Would and *should* are used as the past forms of *will* and *shall* in reported speech, but they also carry some modal meanings. E.g.,

He said that one day I *would* regret my actions. (prediction)
He *wouldn't* tell me the secret. (willingness)
He said he *would* come again after lunch. (intention)
He *would* have his own way. (insistence)
He *should* write to his mother more often. (duty or obligation)
He *should* be here today. (likelihood)

Would is also used for making polite requests:

Would you please sign here?

Must

Must expresses necessity, obligation, compulsion etc.:

You *must* have new clothes. (necessity)
I *must* write to him. (obligation)
You *must* repay the loan within a year. (obligation or compulsion)

Must is used when necessity or obligation is imposed by the speaker; when the obligation is imposed by an outside authority or rule, we use *have to*:

We *have to* leave tomorrow. (Such are the orders.)

When *must* imposes necessity, its opposite is expressed by *needn't*:

You *must* leave tomorrow → You *needn't* leave tomorrow.

Ought

Ought (to) also expresses necessity and obligation but the degree of necessity and obligation is much less than expressed by *must* and almost the same as expressed by *should*. In the passage from Robert Lynd, the writer is first told that he *ought to* have some new clothes: this is merely a suggestion expressed with some emphasis on desirability. When the writer ignores it, he is told 'You *must* have new clothes,' which, as Lynd says, has 'the tone of command.' The speaker uses *must* when he (*or she*) is prepared to exert enough force to bring about the desired effect; he uses *ought to* when he has no such intention.

Must and *ought* are also used to express a conclusion, or inference, from experience, evidence, etc. E.g.,

She *ought* to be there now.
You *must* be Mr. Yadagiri.

Dare, Need, Used (to)

The meanings of these auxiliaries do not fall strictly in the modal type except, to some extent, the meaning of *need*. We shall note below that the four auxiliaries *ought*, *dare*, *need* and *used* do not share the other features of modal auxiliaries and are therefore sometimes said to be marginal (i.e. not central or proper) auxiliaries.

Dare means 'to be brave, or rude, enough to' as in *I dare not go there/He daren't come*. *Need* means 'to have to' as in *We needn't go yet, it's too far, Need you try?* Both these auxiliaries occur only in negative and interrogative sentences.

Used (to) denotes a habit or a state that existed in the past, e.g., *I used to visit him on Saturdays/ I used to be interested in birds.* *Would* is also sometimes used in this sense. This sense of *used* must be distinguished from its sense in the sentence *am not used to boiled food*, where *used* is an adjective meaning 'accustomed.'

Check Your Progress 4

Insert appropriate modal auxiliaries in the blanks. The required meanings are given in brackets:

- i) I write as soon as I can. (intention)
- ii) You do as you are told. (strong obligation: tone of command)
- iii) We. go to Nainital next summer. (possibility that the event may actually happen)
- iv) Children..... be very noisy. (theoretical possibility)
- v) As a child,I. recite the whole of *Gita*. (general ability in the past)
- vi) We know the result in about a week. (prediction)
- vii) He be very annoyed with me to write a letter like that. (a necessary conclusion from evidence)
- viii) He was so weak he n't even raise his hand. (general ability in the past)
- ix) you help me?(willingness)
- x) You consult a specialist if you want to. (permission)
- xi) Children obey their parents. (duty and desirability)
- xii) He come tomorrow. (weak possibility)
- xiii) She said she write to me again. (intention)
- xiv) He smoke heavily. (habit in the past)
- xv) He n't come personally. (lack of necessity)
- xvi) How..... you talk to me like that! (to have courage)
- xvii) He said that he be late. (weak possibility)
- xviii) 'Might I come in? '. 'Yes, you ' (granting permission)
- xix) ' I order a coffee for you? ' (offer)
- xx) ' you mind opening the door?' (polite request)

10.6 TYPES OF COMPLEX VERB PHRASE

We stated above that auxiliaries are used with main verbs and in most cases add some element of meaning to the sentence. We also stated that more than one auxiliary may be combined with a main verb to produce a complex verb phrase. The combination of auxiliaries with main verbs follows certain rules, and you must know these rules so that you do not produce combinations which are ungrammatical.

We can introduce you to these rules by looking at the different types of verb phrases that are possible. We shall not be concerned here with simple verb phrases, which consist of only a main verb, e.g., He probably *knows* you. There are four basic types of complex verb phrases. The meanings these types convey are as follows:

Type A: modal + (to) infinitive form: the meaning depends on the modal auxiliary used.

1. *I will ring up.*
2. *He may come tomorrow.*

Type B: Verb + present participle: the meaning depends on the modal auxiliary used.

1. I have eaten.
2. He has resigned.

Type C: be + present participle: refers to action in progress, i.e., begun but not completed.

1. Arun is watching TV.

Type D: be + past participle: produces the passive voice. May be used in the present or the past tense. The passive voice is used when we wish to give greater prominence to the action than to the performer of the action.

1. He was placed first.

More complex verb phrase types are produced by combining these four basic types. For example, we may combine Type A (e.g. *will go*) with Type B (e.g. *have gone*) to produce Type AB (*will have gone*). Type AB can be combined with Type C (*be going*) to produce Type ABC (*will have been going*). Note that in *will have been going*, *will have* is Type A, *have been* is Type B, and *be (en) going* is Type C. We can similarly produce Types BC (*has been going*), BD (*has been told*), CD (*is being told*) and so on. In producing these complex phrases, you must remember to put Type A before Type B, Type B before Type C, and Type C before Type D. We cannot have a Type CB (*is having gone*), or a Type DC (*is been watching*) or similar other types which violate the A→B→C→D order. Also remember that no type can occur twice, e.g., Type BB (*has had been*) is not possible.

If you have followed the complex verb phrase types closely you will now understand that

- a) the verb occurs in the infinitive form after the modals (in Type A) except with *ought* and *red* which take *to* + infinitive,
- b) the verb occurs only in the past participle form after *have* (in Type B),
- c) the verb occurs either in the present participle form (Type C) or in the past participle form (Type D) after *be*. Type D is the passive voice; hence the past participle form occurs only if its active object has already occurred as subject. In all other cases it is the present participle form which occurs after *be*.

Check Your Progress 5

- 1 Identify the type of the complex verb phrase in each of the following sentences:
 - i) You ought to have some new clothes. _____
 - ii) He, must have seen you passing. _____
 - iii) I may be arrested *for* trying to get money by false pretences. _____
 - iv) He has been arrested by the police. _____
 - v) You are getting shabby. _____
 - vi) You should be working hard. _____
 - vii) He is being called. _____
 - viii) He should have been asked to work harder. _____
 - ix) He should have been working harder. _____
- 2 Put the bracketed verb in the correct form in the following sentences and identify the verb phrase type:
 - i) He is (sing). _____
 - ii) Arun may be (expel). _____

- iii) He has (accept) his mistake. _____
- iv) You ought (accept) your mistake. _____

- v) Arun has been (watch) the game for two hours. _____
- vi) This song has already been (sing) twice. _____
- vii) As a young man, I used (walk) seven miles a day. _____
- viii) He should have been (punish) for his carelessness. _____
- ix) I was (lead) to believe that the matter had (be) settled. _____
- x) This programme is (be) watched by millions of people all over the country. _____

10.7 AUXILIARIES AS OPERATORS

You have now seen the way auxiliaries combine in a complex verb phrase and also their meanings. Let us now look at a special feature of auxiliaries which distinguishes them from main verbs:

The first auxiliary of a complex verb phrase enjoys a special status. This is seen in the following:

- i) In questions of *Yes-No* type, it is moved in front of the subject of the sentence.
E.g.
You will go → Will you go?
I shall call for you → Shall I call for you?
- ii) In negative sentences, the negative element *not* is attached to the first auxiliary in the abbreviated form *n't*, e.g., You shouldn't have been working so hard.
- iii) Adverbs are always placed after the first auxiliary, e.g., He must *often* have seen you passing.
- iv) The first auxiliary can stand for the whole predicate in certain cases, e.g.,

Q: Must you leave today? A: Yes, I *must* (leave today). You ought to be more careful and so *ought* your driver (to be more careful).

The special status of the first auxiliary in a complex verb phrase is denoted by calling it the 'operator'. *Be*, *have* and *do* frequently function as operators; *be* and *have* also occur as non-operators (i.e. as second, third and fourth auxiliaries) in a verb phrase. Modals, on the other hand, always occur as operators (i.e. as the first auxiliary).

Main verbs never function as operators. E.g., we cannot put them in front of the subject to form a question: we cannot say *Goes he today?* To form *Yes-No* questions from simple verb phrases, we need to use the auxiliary *do*. Thus, we say *Does he go today?* Similarly, we cannot attach *not* in the abbreviated form to simple verbphrases. We cannot say *He goesn't today*, instead, we again use the auxiliary *do* and say *He doesn't go today*, and so on.

This characteristic of auxiliaries is so important that we can use it to distinguish auxiliaries from main verb. The best examples of this are the verbs *dare* and *need*. They sometimes occur as main verbs and sometimes as auxiliaries. How do we distinguish the two occurrences! We use the criteria stated above. For example:

'need' as main verb

Positive: This needs to be recorded.

Negative: This does not need to be recorded.

Questions: Does it need to be recorded?

'need' as auxiliary



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Positive: (Does not occur) Negative:
This needn't be recorded. Question:
Need it be recorded?

'dare' as main verb

Positive: He dared to disagree with me.
Negative: He did not dare to disagree with me.
Question: Did he dare to disagree with me?

'dare' as auxiliary

Positive: (Does not occur)
Negative: He daren't disagree with me.
Question: Dare he disagree with me?

Apart from *dare* and *need*, two other modal auxiliaries, *used* and *ought* also sometimes share the features of main verbs. For example, it is more common now to say 'He didn't use to come regularly' and 'Did he use to come regularly?' than to say, 'He didn't come regularly' and 'Used he to come regularly?' The forms 'You didn't ought to have done that' and 'Did we ought to have done it?' are not yet common and therefore should not be used, but they are beginning to be heard. This was the reason why we said above that *dare*, *need*, *ought* and *used* are considered to be marginal auxiliaries. In contrast, the other modal auxiliaries are said to be full auxiliaries and cannot function as main verbs.

Check Your Progress 6

Give the negative and question forms of the following sentences:

i) You called me.

ii) I can borrow his scooter.

iii) He will agree.

iv) You had a good breakfast.

v) You used to be frightened of him.

vi) You ought to have accepted the offer

vii) He might like it.

viii) You wanted me to come.

ix) He is talking sense.

x) Your uncle is waiting to see you.

xi) I have kept you waiting.

xii) I foresaw this problem.

xiii) You really think you can treat me as a boy.

xiv) You thought I'd be interested in it.

xv) It could have happened to anyone.

xvi) You must decide now.

10.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have told you the following main things:

- i) A complex verb phrase consists of one or more auxiliaries and a main verb.
- ii) Auxiliaries are of two types: primary and modal.
- iii) The verbs (be, have and do) which occur as primary auxiliaries also occur as main verbs and it is important to be able to distinguish these uses.
- iv) Primary auxiliaries have different forms according to tense, number, person. etc.
- v) Modal auxiliaries never change their forms for number and person. Some modals have forms which are used as past tense equivalents in reported speech.
- vi) Modal auxiliaries convey a special kind of meaning which reflects the speakers attitudes towards the action described. These attitudes can be of various kinds e.g..determination, necessity, possibility, desirability, etc.
- vii) There are four basic types of the complex verb phrase. These four types can be combined into more complex verb-phrase types according to some fixed rules to convey different kinds of meanings.

- viii) The first auxiliary of a complex verb phrase functions as operator and has a special status.
- ix) Primary auxiliaries occur both as operators and non-operators (except *do* which occurs only as an operator): modals only occur as operators. Main verbs do not occur as operators.
- x) Some modal auxiliaries (need, dare, used, ought) also function as main verbs. When they are main verbs, they cannot function as operators.

10.9 KEY WORDS

Verb-determiner/Verb-marker: Verb-determiners or verb-markers are words which help us identify verbs. They are commonly known as Auxiliaries.

Auxiliary verbs: A small and closed class of verbs that are used before a main verb to show tense, voice, mood, etc.

Main verbs: A large and open class of words denoting actions, states, events, etc.

Primary auxiliaries: Be, Have and Do when they occur as auxiliary verbs.

Modal auxiliaries: Can, could, may, might, will, would, must, shall, should, dare, need, ought (to), used (to). They are used with the main verb to express some special meanings like possibility, intention, necessity, etc.

Modal meaning: The meanings expressed by *modal* auxiliaries. They generally reflect the attitude of the speaker towards the action, state, etc. described by the main verb.

Verb phrase: A phrase consisting of either simply a main verb or one or more than one auxiliary and a main verb.

Simple verb phrase: A verb phrase which consists only of a main verb.

Complex Verb phrase: A verb phrase consisting of one or more than one auxiliary and a main verb.

Operator: The first auxiliary of a complex verb phrase.

Marginal auxiliaries: Dare, need, used, and ought are called marginal auxiliaries since they also share some features of main verb.

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 ought (to); are (getting); must: Do; must; **MUST**; will; would; be; will; shall; am; (he) would; do (n't know); does (n't); must (often) have; would: being; (I) will; Do (n't); (I) will; (I) will; do (n't); did (n't); would (n't): did; (you); will; do (n't); do (n't); Does; ought (to); (we) have
- 2 Group I auxiliaries are printed in bold type in the answers to Exercise I. The rest are Group II.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) do: (Auxiliary); have: MV (Main verb) ii) likes: MV iii) helps: MV; help: MV
- iv) ought to: Aux; know: MV v) did: Aux; become: MV vi) should: Aux; sleep: MV

Structure Words

vii) noticed: MV viii) is: MV; are: Aux; getting: MV; may: Aux; be: Aux; getting: MV ix) Have: Aux; heard: MV x) has: MV

Check Your Progress 3

i) is: MV ii) is: Aux iii) is: MV iv) is: Aux v) has: MV vi) are: MV vii) has: Aux have: MV viii) do': Aux; do²: MV ix) Did: Aux; do: MV x) Have: Aux; had: MV xi) has: Aux; had: MV xii) was: Aux; being: Aux xiii) am: Aux xiv) Do: Aux (xv) are: Aux; doing: MV

Check Your Progress 4

i) will/shall ii) must iii) may iv) can v) could vi) will/shall vii) must viii) could ix) will x) can/may xi) ought to/should xii) may/might xiii) would xiv) used to (xv) need xvi) dare xvii) might xviii) may xix) shall xx) Would

Check Your Progress 5

1 i) Type A ii) Type AB iii) Type AD iv) Type BD v) Type CD vi) Type AC vii) Type CD viii) Type ABD ix) Type ABC.

2 i) is singing: Type C ii) may be expelled: Type AD iii) has accepted: Type B iv) ought to accept: Type A v) has' been watching: Type BC vi) has been sung: Type BD vii) used to walk: Type A viii) should have been punished: Type ABD ix) was led: Type D; had been settled: Type BD x) is being watched: Type CD

Check Your Progress 6

- i) You didn't call me. Did you call me?
- ii) I can't borrow his scooter. Can I borrow his scooter?
- iii) He won't (will not) agree. Will he agree?
- iv) You *didn't have* (or hadn't) a good breakfast. Did you have a good breakfast?
- v) You didn't use to be frightened of him. Did you use to be frightened of him?
- vi) You ought not to have (or oughtn't to have) accepted the offer. Ought you to have accepted the offer?
- vii) He might not (or mightn't) like it. Might he like it?
- viii) You didn't want me to come. Did you want me to come?
- ix) He isn't talking sense. Is he talking sense?
- x) Your uncle isn't waiting to see you. Is your uncle waiting to see you?
- xi) I haven't kept you waiting. Have I kept you waiting?
- xii) I didn't foresee this problem. Did I foresee this problem?
- xiii) You don't really think ... Do you really think...?
- xiv) You didn't think Did you think ...?
- xv) It couldn't have happened to anyone. Could it have happened to anyone?
- xvi) You needn't decide now. Must you decide now?

UNIT 11 STRUCTURE WORDS IN DISCOURSE-1

Structure

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 What is Cohesion?
- 11.3 Definite Reference
 - 11.3.1 Personal Reference
 - 11.3.2 Demonstrative Reference
- 11.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.5 Key Words
- 11.6 Suggested Reading
- Answers

11.0 OBJECTIVES

The aim of this unit and the next is to make you aware of the function of some of the structure words in meaningful discourse. We shall deal mainly with personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns, determiners (including the definite article), and coordinating conjunctions. We shall also take up some adverbial expressions used for demonstrative reference or as linking devices.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

In Units 11-14, you looked at structure words and their function in a sentence. But you are aware that we do not communicate in isolated sentences. The sentences that we speak or write are meaningfully linked to each other. This meaningful unit is called a discourse. Discourse refers to anything that is spoken or written, of whatever length, which forms a unified whole. Its form can be that of prose or poetry, a dialogue or a monologue.

It is obvious that *all* the words and structures used in a particular text play a role in creating a meaningful discourse. But there are some words that play a crucial role in connecting sentences together. These words are some of the structure words that you have read about in the previous units. This linking of sentences is known as **cohesion**. In this unit and the next, we shall study some of the devices that bring about cohesion and the structure words that are required for it. Given below is a list of cohesive devices that we are going to discuss and the structure words that operate in them.

i) Definite Reference:

- a. Personal reference:
personal pronouns (I, we, you, he, she, it, they), possessive pronouns (mine, yours, etc.) and the determiners (my, your, etc.)
- b. Demonstrative reference: this/that, these/those, used either as pronouns or as determiners, the article the, and the adverbs here and there.

ii) Linkage :

- a. Coordinating conjunctions: and, or, but, neithernor, etc.
- b. Linking adverbials: for, so, yet, however, meanwhile, for example, etc.

11.2 WHAT IS COHESION?

Before we consider some of the devices of cohesion, let's think about what **cohesion** is. Look at the example below:

I know he said it.

This sentence, you will agree, is grammatically perfect. It is also perfectly intelligible in that you can understand what it means. But you know that the sentence is somehow incomplete and you cannot interpret it because you do not know who *he* is, and what he's supposed to have said. However, you are aware that *he* and *it* are meant to be linked with some other statement which has occurred before and which will indicate to you the identity of *he* and what was said, i.e. *it*. In other words, we have to recover their interpretation elsewhere from the text.

Now look at another example, which is part of an instruction for a recipe.

Boil the potatoes. After that peel *them*.

It is clear that *them* in the second sentence refers back to *the potatoes* in the first sentence. This cross-reference gives cohesion to the two sentences, so that we can interpret them as part of a discourse. The main thing to notice is that the two items *them* and *the potatoes* refer to the same thing, i.e. they are 'co-referential'.

11.3 DEFINITE REFERENCE

There are certain items in every language which have the property of reference, i.e. instead of having a meaning of their own, they make a reference to something else for their interpretation. This 'something else' can be within or outside the text. Look at the example below:

Upon my arrival on the island, I did all I could to win the friendship of Taratonga, its unofficial chief. I explained to her the reasons that had brought me to her little Pacific island...

(From Romain Gary; 'A Craving for Innocence' in *Romain Gary's Hissing Tales*)

Who does *my* and *her* refer to? Obviously they refer to the author, who is not identified in the text. However, *her* refers to *Taratonga*, who is mentioned within the text. Cohesion lies in continuity of reference within a text, and it is with this that we are concerned.

We have so far given you examples of reference which go back to the preceding text for their interpretation. There may be reference items which require the following text for their interpretation.

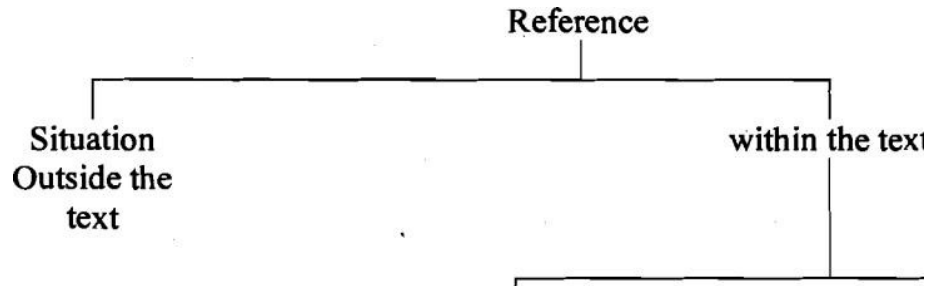
Example

The room was warm and clean, the curtains drawn, the two table lamps alight—hers and the one by the empty chair opposite. **Mary Maloney** was waiting for her husband to come home from work.

(From *Lamb to the Slaughter* by Robert Dahl. Reader's Digest Collection).

Here you will notice that *hers* refers to *Mary Maloney*, which occurs afterwards.

Reference can, therefore, be seen in terms of the following tree diagram :



In this unit, we are mainly concerned with reference within the text. In English, the structure words that refer to something else in a text are usually personal and possessive pronouns, and certain determiners. This is sometimes known as personal reference. Demonstrative reference is conveyed by demonstrative pronouns, certain determiners including the definite article, and certain adverbs.

11.3.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference involves the use of personal pronouns (I, we, you, he, she, it, they), possessive pronouns (**mine, yours,** etc.) and certain determiners (**my, your,** etc.). We give you a list of these items:

Number	First Person	Second Person	Third Person	
			Specific Human	Generalized Human
Singular	I, me, mine, my	you yours your	He, him,	Non- Human it, its
			his, she, her, hers	one, one's
Plural	we, us ours, our	you yours your	they, them, theirs, their	

There are certain points we need to remember about the use of structure words and their role in connecting sentences together.

There is a distinction to be made in the interpretation of the first and the second persons and the third person. The first and the second person forms do not *normally* refer to a referent in the text at all. They are generally interpreted by reference to the context of the situation. However, in direct speech, these items can be interpreted textually, by referring back to the preceding text or forward to the following text. The examples given below will make this clear:

'I'm not quite sure where I am', she said to Mrs. Wilkieson, as she lay in bed.
'Do you mind explaining?'

Mrs. Wilkieson explained tactfully.
'Oh yes!' said the Princess. 'I remember. And I had an accident in the mountains, didn't I? Didn't we meet a man who had gone mad, and who shot my horse *from* under me?'

'Yes, you met a man who had gone out of his mind.'

(From 'The Princess' by D. H. Lawrence in *The Princess and Other Stories*, Penguin Books)

In the first sentence, by referring to the later part of the text it can be inferred that *I'm* and *I* refer to *the Princess*. Similarly, in the sentence 'Do you mind explaining?', *you* refers to *Mrs. Wilkieson*. In the last sentence, 'Yes, you met a man...' *you* refers to *the Princess*.

While in the example given above, the first and the second person pronouns are interpreted by reference to items contained in the text, in the next two examples, these pronouns can be interpreted only by reference to the situation and not the text itself.

Rosemary Fell was not exactly beautiful. No *you* couldn't call her beautiful. Pretty? Well, if you took her to pieces.... But why be so cruel as to take anyone to pieces

(From Katherine Mansfield: *A Cup of Tea*)

The ghost that got into our house on the night of November 17, 1915, raised such a hullabaloo of misunderstandings that *I* am sorry *I* didn't just let it keep on walking, and go to bed

(From 'The Night the Ghost Got in' by James Thurber, from *Vintage Thurber*. Hamish Hamilton; London.)

Who do you think, "you," refer to in the two extracts given above? "You" evidently refer to the general reader. "Z" refers to the author or the person in whose words the story is narrated. In either case, there is no reference within the text, but we can gather the information about the identity of "you" and "Z" from the situation. You will discover in your reading that in general, the absence of any reference in the text for the first person and the second person pronouns does not lead to any sense of incompleteness. On the other hand, when the third person is used, it implies the presence of a referent somewhere in the text. In the absence of such a referent the text would appear incomplete. These are of course exceptions. For example, even the third person can refer to a person in the context of the situation. Consider the following conversation:

Question: Oh, *he's* come, has *he*?

Answer: Yes, *he's* waiting inside.

The nature of the reply shows that the identity of *he* is clear to the person addressed.

In the case of the first person plural *we*, the identity of the referents may be found in the text, i.e., it is a cohesive device, or it may be understood from the situation.

He turned to his companions with a cruel smile. 'We have got him,' he said, 'We have got the rhino.'

(From *The Kaziranga Trail* by Arup Das. Children's Book Trust, Delhi)

In the example above, *we* refers to *he* and *his companions* in the preceding text. However, consider a text like the following:

It is an extract from Anne Frank's Diary.

Since Saturday we've changed over, and have lunch at half-past eleven in the mornings, so we have to last out with one cupful of porridge; this saves us a meal. Vegetables are still very difficult to obtain: "we had rotten boiled lettuce this afternoon. Ordinary lettuce, spinach and boiled lettuce, there's nothing else. With these *we* eat rotten potatoes, so it's a delicious combination".

(From *The Diary of Anne Frank*, translated from the Dutch by B. M. Mooyaert)

Structure Words

There is nothing in the text that will tell you the identity of “we”. However, you can interpret the identity of “we” from the context of the situation. Who do you think we refers to? You must have guessed by now that we refers to Anne Frank and her family or her companions.

The third person pronoun *it* differs from all other personal pronouns in that *it* may refer not only to a particular person, animal or object, but also to a portion of the text. Consider the example given below:

“The Dormouse slowly opened *its* eyes.' 'I wasn't asleep' *he* said in a hoarse, feeble voice, 'I heard every word you fellows were saying.'

'Tell us a story!' said the March Hare. 'Yes, please do!' pleaded Alice. 'And be quick about *it* added the Hatter, “or you'll be asleep again before it's done.'

(From *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll. Collier Macmillan Publishers)

The first occurrences of *its* and *if* refer to the *Dormouse* in the preceding part of the text. But the next occurrence of *it* refers neither to an animal nor to an object, but to 'telling a story'. This use of *it* is known as extended reference.

The details given by us about personal pronouns apply equally well to the other two kinds of personal reference, namely the use of certain determiners (*my, your, etc.*) and possessive pronouns (*mine, yours, etc.*).

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Given below is an extract from a short story by R. K. Narayan. Pick out the structure words used for personal reference and indicate the grammatical category of each—personal pronoun or determined. Also indicate what each word refers to. We have analysed part of the extract for you. Analyse the rest of it in the same way.

One day the good journal announced a special offer of eight thousand rupees. It excited Rama Rao's vision of a future tenfold. He studied the puzzle. There were only four doubtful corners in it, and he might have to send in at least four entries. A large outlay was indicated. “You must give me five rupees this time,' he said to his wife, at which that good lady became speechless. He had become rather insensitive to such things these days, but even he could not help feeling the atrocious nature of his demand.

(From 'Out of Business' by R. K. Narayan, in *An Astrologer's Day and Other Stories*, Indian Thought Publications).

Glossary

- 'outlay :expenditure: investment
- in'sensitive: unfeeling
- atrocious: very bad

Structure Word used for Reference	Grammatical category	Refers to
1) It (line 1)	Personal pronoun	a special offer
2) He (line 2)	Personal pronoun	Rama Rao
3) it (line 3)	Personal pronoun	the puzzle
4) he (line3)		

11.3.2 Demonstrative Reference

We often point to things in our environment by using gestures. But we can also point by using words. Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing. It involves the use of demonstrative pronouns *this/that*, *these/those*, the determiners *this/that*, *these/those*, *the*, and the adverbs *here* and *there*.

Like personal reference, demonstrative reference can be to something within the text, or to the context of the situation. For example, read the extract given in Exercise 2 (under Check Your Progress I) again. Look at the last sentence carefully. What does *these* (a determiner) refer to in '*these* latter talk a great deal...'? Obviously, it points to '*certain other animals who have a large vocabulary, a fine command of language, and a ready and fluent delivery*, that is, to something within the text.

Now, look at this short dialogue:

- A** Put these in the box.
B I will, in a minute.

Here the reference made by the word *these* (a pronoun) is situational, and relates to the shared experience of A and B.

There are certain points that you need to remember about the items relating to demonstrative reference and their role in cohesion. These points are merely generalizations. In your reading, you are likely to come across other functions of these items. It may be a good idea to note them down.

- In general, *this*, *these* and *here* imply proximity or closeness to the speaker; *that*, *those* and *there* imply distance from the speaker. In a dialogue there is a tendency for the speaker to use *this* to refer to something he himself has said, and *that* to what someone else has said. This distinction is clearly related to that of 'near the speaker' versus 'not near'. What is said by the speaker is, textually speaking, near him; whereas what is said by someone else is not.

Examples

- i) A: Conditions are fairly good here. But there's been a great deal of discontent.
 B: *This* is what I can't understand.
- ii) A: The working conditions are fairly good here. But there's a great deal of discontent.
 B: Yes, *that's* what I can't understand.

- 'Closeness' or 'proximity' can also be interpreted in terms of time reference: *that* tends to be associated with past time reference and *this* with time-reference in the present and the future.

Examples

We went to the movies yesterday evening.
That was our first outing after several months. (reference to the past)

We are going to the movies this evening.
This'll be our first outing after several months. (reference to the future)

- You know that *this* and *that* go with or refer to countable singular or uncountable nouns; *these* and *those* go with or refer to countable plural nouns.

Example

"I suppose they are the jurors." She said *this* last word two or three times over to herself

(From *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll)

What does the determiner *this* go with? It goes with the countable singular noun **word**.

Now look at the next example:

The first witness was the Hatter. He came in with a teacup in one hand and a piece of bread-and-butter in the other hand. "I beg pardon, your Majesty," he began, "for bringing *these* in; but I hadn't quite finished my tea when I was sent for."

(From *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll)

The pronoun *these* in the example above refers to a *teacup* and a *piece of bread-and-butter*.

- The determiners *this/that, these/those* (e.g. *this* pen; *these* boys) may refer to any class of nouns without any restriction. However, demonstrative pronouns (e.g., Where are you taking it away? *That's* my pen), while they can refer to non-human objects without any restriction, are highly restrictive in their reference to human nouns. They can occur in sentences like the following:

Example 1

'Would you like to meet the artist who made these beautiful portraits? Come with me. Let me introduce you to him.'

'This is Mr. Hussain.'

Example 2

Who are these smart-looking people on horse-back'?

Oh, *those* are the President's guards.

- Demonstrative pronouns, like the personal pronoun *it*, can refer to an extended text. As mentioned earlier, an extended reference does not refer merely to persons or objects in a text, but to identifiable portions of a text. This applies only to the singular forms *this* and *that*.

Example

"..... "I wish they'd get the trial done," she thought, "and hand round the refreshments!" But there seemed to be no chance of *this*, so she began looking at everything about her to pass away the time.'

As you must have noticed, *this* here refers not to a particular object, but to the whole process of completing the trial and handing around the refreshments.

- Demonstrative adverbs *here* and *there*, as reference items, behave like *this* and *that*, respectively. *Here* indicates 'closeness' or proximity to the speaker, while *there* indicates distance.

Examples:

There's room next to me. Why don't you sit *here*? (close to the speaker)

There's no room next to me. But there's an empty seat at the next table. Why don't you sit *there*? (farther away from the speaker)

- Both *here* and *there* can also refer to an extended text. The reference in this case, however, is not to a *place* but means: 'in this matter' / 'in that matter' / 'in saying so'.

Example

'Of course it would be all the better,' said Alice:
'but it wouldn't be all the better his being punished.'
'You're wrong *there*, at any rate', said the Queen.

- One of the functions of the definite article *the* is to signal identity of reference with something that has gone before. There are a number of similarities and also some differences between the definite article and the other determiners. The other determiners contain within themselves some aspect of what they refer to. In the case of personal reference it is a person, and in the case demonstratives, it is nearness or distance from the speaker. The definite article *the*, on the other hand, has no content. The examples below will make it clear.

Singh was in his middle twenties.

We know that *his* is singular and masculine; hence in the passage above, it can only refer to Singh.

Now consider an example of *the*.
Boil and peel six potatoes. Then cut *the* potatoes.

The, here, has no content. Its cohesive function is that of signifying that the potatoes that are to be cut are the *six potatoes* referred to in the previous sentence.

Sometimes the lexical item is not repeated, but another word is used instead, which obviously refers to the same thing.

A dingo is a fine-looking animal. *The* head is blocky and *the* jaws powerful.
.....*The* almond eyes are keen.

The head obviously refers to the dingo's head, so do *the jaws* and *the almond eyes*.

Like *it*, *this* and *that*, *the* also often refers to an extended text.

Example

Udai: Where are we likely to spend our winter vacation?
Mother: Well, we thought we'd go to Nainital. There we can go for walks, take part in winter sports, go rowing on the lake and you can even buy those furry caps you wanted.

Udai agreed at once. In fact, *the prospect* seemed quite pleasing.

In the passage above *the prospect* not only refers to the winter vacation they will spend in Nainital, but also to all the activities they will have there.

- It is generally believed that *the* signifies an item in the text that has occurred before. However, you will find that most instances of *the* in a text are contained in the context of the situation, or even refer to a later item in the text.

Example:

It was easy to see just how *jar the buses* went. Up to *the dirt lane the road* was smooth, its centre black and dully shining.

(From *A House for Mr. Biswas*, by V. S. Naipaul)

As you must have noticed, *the buses*, *the dirt lane* and *the road* do not refer to anything that occurs before in the text. They refer to the situation in the outside world.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) What do the words printed in bold type refer to in the passage given below? Which are the words that refer back to an extended text?

'One of the jurors had a pencil that squeaked. This, of course, Alice could not stand, and she went round the court and got behind him, and very soon found an opportunity of taking it away. She did it so quickly that the poor little juror (it was Bill, the Lizard) could not make out at all what had become of it; so, after hunting all about for it, he was obliged to write with one finger for the rest of the day; and this was of very little use, as it left no mark on the slate.'

(From *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll)

- 2) Given below is an extract from a popular story, with some words missing. Read it through and try to get the gist of it. Answer the questions given after the extract. Then try to fill in the blanks with words indicating personal reference and demonstrative reference.

"My aunt will be down presently, Mr. Nuttel," said a self-possessed young lady of 15. In the meantime (i) must put up with (ii)

Framton Nuttel endeavoured to say the correct something to flatter (iii) niece without unduly discounting (iv) aunt. Privately (v) doubted whether (vi) formal visits on total strangers would help (vii) nerve cure which (viii) was supposed to be undergoing in (ix) rural retreat.

" . . . (x) 'I'll give (xi) letters to everyone (xii) know (xiii)..... , "..... (xiv) sister had said, "or else (xv) 'I'll bury yourself and not speak to a soul, and (xvi)..... nerves will be worse than ever from moping."

"Do (xvii) ... know many people around (xviii) ?" asked . (xix) niece when (xx) judged (xxi) had had sufficient silent communion.

"Hardly a soul," said Framton "..... (xxii) sister visited (xxiii) four years ago, and (xxiv) gave (xxv) letters of introduction."

"Then (xxvi) know practically nothing about (xxvii) aunt?" pursued (xxviii) young lady.

"Only (xxix)..... name and address."

[Extract taken from 'The Open Window' by Saki (H. H. Munro)]

Structure Words

Read the above extract carefully and answer the following questions. After you have checked your answers, fill in the blanks in the passage.

- 1) Who do you think are the speakers?

- 2) Why has Framton Nuttel come to this rural retreat?

- 3) Why has Framton Nuttel's sister given him letters of introduction?

11.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed the function of structure words in discourse. The structure words that we have discussed belong to the following grammatical categories: personal, possessive and demonstrative pronouns, certain determiners, including the definite articles and demonstrative adverbs. We have tried to show you the role of such words in cohesion, with an emphasis on personal and demonstrative reference.

11.5 KEY WORDS

- cohesion: sticking together
- discourse: anything spoken or written that forms a meaningful, unified whole.
- monologue: a speech by one person
- precede: come before
- proximity: nearness

11.6 SUGGESTED READING

Alice's Adventures in Wonderland by Lewis Carroll

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1.	Structure word used for Reference	Grammatical Category	Refers to
	4) he (1. 3)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao
	5) you (1. 14)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao's wife
	6) me (1. 4)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao
	7) he (1. 4)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao
	8) his (1. 4)	determiner	Rama Rao's
	9) he: (1. 5)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao
	10) he (1. 6)	personal pronoun	Rama Rao
	11) his (1. 6)	determiner	Rama Rao's

2.	Structure word used for Reference	Grammatical Category	Refers to
	1) I (1.1)	personal pronoun	the author (reference outside the text)
	2) them (1. 2)	personal pronoun	animals
	3) he (1. 3)	personal pronoun	The man (a particular person, Jim Baker)
	4) he (1. 3)	personal pronoun	-do -
	5) me (1.3)	personal pronoun	the author
	6) his (1. 6)	determiner	one man 's (Jim Baker's)
	7) they (1. 7)	personal pronoun	the beasts and the birds
	8) they (1 . 11)	personal pronoun	these latter (the animals with a large vocabulary, a fine command of language and a ready and fluent delivery)
	9) it (1. 11)	personal pronoun	talking a great deal
	10) they (1. 11)	personal pronoun	The animals with a large vocabulary, a fine command of language, and a ready and fluent delivery.
	1 1) their (1. 12)	determiner	-do -
	12) they (1. 12)	personal pronoun	-do -

Check Your Progress 2

Reference Word	Refers to	
1) 1 This (1. 1)	the squeaking of a pencil	extended reference
2 it (1.3)	the pencil	
3 it (1.3)	taking the pencil away	extended reference
4 it (1. 4)	the pencil	
5 it (1.5)	the pencil	

Structure Words

6 this (1. 6)

writing with one
finger

extended
reference

7 it (1. 6)

the writing

extended
reference

- 2) 1) a young lady of fifteen and Framton Nuttel.
2) for a nerve cure
3) because otherwise he would not speak to anyone, and his nerves would be worse than ever from moping.

i) you, ii) me, iii) the, iv) the, v) he, vi) these, vii) the, viii) he, ix) this, x) I, xi) you, xii) I, xiii) there, xiv) his, xv) you, xvi) your, xvii) you, xviii) here, xix) the, xx) she, xxi) they, xxii) my, xxiii) here, xxiv) she, xxv) me, xxvi) you, xxvii) my, xxviii) the, xxix) her.



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UNIT 12 STRUCTURE WORDS IN DISCOURSE-2

Structure

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12.0 OBJECTIVES

The aim of this unit is to make you aware of the role of conjunctions and linking adverbials in combining ideas/events together into a text.

After you complete this unit, you should be able to

- recognize the functions of these connectives (conjunctions and linking adverbials) in a text, and
- use them in your own writing.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed the function of structure words such as personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns, certain determiners, and demonstrative adverbs in bringing about cohesion in a text. The cohesive device we studied was cross-reference—personal and demonstrative reference.

In this unit we shall look at the role of linking words (also known as Linkages and Conjunctions) in binding sentences together meaningfully into a text. The connectives that we shall study are:

- 1) Coordinating conjunctions: and, or, but
- 2) Subordinating conjunctions: because, unless, while, though, although, if, etc.
- 3) Linking adverbs: yet, moreover, meanwhile, however, furthermore, etc.

12.2 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN REFERENCE AND LINKAGE AS COHESIVE DEVICES

Before we discuss the role of linkage as a cohesive device, let's try to differentiate between Reference and Linkage.

Reference, as you already know, is a device which indicates that 'the same person or object' is being referred to in different parts of a text, i.e. in the preceding or the

following text. Reference basically involves either a repeated reference to a person or object, or a repetition of a meaning (extended reference).

Linkage, on the other hand, is not a device to identify items in the preceding or the following text. It is primarily a way of signaling how one idea leads on to another. The words and phrases which have this connecting function are like signposts on a journey. They generally come at the beginning of a sentence.

We shall consider four types of cohesive relations in which the various connectives play a role. These include the **additive, adversative, causal** and **temporal** relations. There are other possible categories, but we shall consider only these. Before we discuss all of them in detail, let's have a quick look at what these terms imply.

Ravi was working very hard as he had to finish his project report.

And he was staying up late in the night every day. (additive)

Yet he never appeared tired (adversative). He, *therefore*, managed to complete his project on time (causal).

After he had handed in his project report, he had a good night's sleep. (temporal).

We are not very concerned if you cannot remember these terms. But, we would like you to be able to use the various connectives.

Check Your Progress 1

Write another little story of 5 lines, using connectives for all the four cohesive relations mentioned by us.

12.3 ADDITIVE RELATION

The additive items in English include the following coordinating conjunctions: and, and also, nor, and not, or...either.

They also include linking adverbials such as furthermore, moreover, additionally, besides, in addition, alternatively, incidentally, similarly, on the other hand, in other words, for example, etc.

An additive relation gives cohesion to a text, or rather, it creates additional text by giving more information related to the preceding text. It includes devices such as adding of information, giving alternatives, showing contrast, exemplification, apposition, etc.

Some of these devices may overlap with other cohesive relations. We shall, however, not go into the finer details. As we've mentioned earlier, we want you to concentrate on correct usage.

In the examples given below we discuss some of the ways in which cohesion has an additive relation.

- There is a total, or almost total, shift from one sentence to the next, and yet the two sentences are definitely part of a text.

Example:

‘But she fled upstairs nevertheless, with Sid and Mary at her heels. *And* her face grew white, too, and her lips trembled.’ (From Mark Twain: *Tom Sawyer*)

As you must have noticed, the first sentence refers to the activity of going up the stairs. The second is an emotional response. Yet, the two sentences are linked to each other by the conjunction *and*.

- In narrative fiction such a shift often occurs at the boundary of dialogue and narration. In fact, a conjunction like *and* serves to link a dialogue/ monologue with narration. For example :

‘Down, down, down. There was nothing else to do, so Alice soon began talking again. "Dinah'll miss me very much to-night, I should think!" (Dinah was the cat.) "I hope they'll remember her saucer of milk at tea-time. Dinah, my dear! I wish you were down here with me! There are no mice in the air, I'm afraid, but you might catch a bat, and that's very like a mouse, you know. But do cats eat bats, I wonder?" And here Alice began to get rather sleepy ’

- When *and* is used alone as a cohesive item as distinct from *and then*, etc., it often has the sense of ‘there is something more to be said’. Look at the example below:

‘Till at last it hung there in the sky over the world, blazing down, the size of the moon, a deep gloomy red. And now there could be only one explanation. The star was getting bigger because it was getting nearer. And nearer and NEARER and NEARER’.

(From: Ted Hughes: *The Iron man*)

- A slightly different use, and one in which the cohesive *and* comes closest to its coordinating function in sentence structure, is that which links the ‘sentences in a series’. We shall give you examples of the use of *and* within a sentence and in discourse. Try to notice the difference.

Use of *and* in sentences:

‘In the kitchen they had grits and grease and side meat and coffee for breakfast.’

(From: Carson Mc Cullers: *The Heart is a Lonely Hunter*)

GLOSSARY:

grits: coarsely ground grains of corn which are eaten as a dish in Southern United States; coarse oatmeal.

In the distance the houses were the houses in a Victorian print, small and precisely drawn and quiet; only one child a long way off.

(From: Graham Green: *The End of the Affair*)

Structure Words

Both these examples show the repetition of a conjunction in connecting items in a set. In the first example *and* links nouns, while in the second example it links adjectives.

As a 'cohesive device' *and* often links a series of questions. In *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, there is an excellent example of this, when Alice questions Humpty Dumpty about the meaning of Jabberwocky. Given below is an extract from the conversation.

"I see it now," Alice remarked thoughtfully: "and what are 'toves'?"

"Well, 'toves' are something like badgers—they're something like lizards—and they're something like corkscrews."

"They must be very curious-looking creatures."

"They are that," said Humpty Dumpty: "also they make their nests under sun-dials—also they live on cheese."

"And what's to 'gyre' and to 'gimble'?"

"To 'gyre' is to go round and round like a gyroscope. To 'gimble' is to make holes like a gimlet."

"And 'the wabe' is the grass-plot round a sun-dial, I suppose?," said Alice, surprised at her own ingenuity.'

(From Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking-glass*)

Glossary

Badger: a wild animal which has grey fur and a white head. Badgers live underground and usually come to feed at night.

'corkscrew: a device used for pulling corks out of bottles.

'curious-looking: unusual to look at.

'sun-dial: a device which uses the sun to show you what time it is.

'gyroscope: a device that contains a disc rotating on an axis that can turn freely in any direction.

'gimlet: a small sharp tool used for making small holes in wood.

- The negative form of the additive relation is expressed simply as *nor*.

Example:

A: I can't go to the movies tonight.

I have a project report to finish.

B: Nor can I.

Besides *nor*, there is another expression *and . . . not . . . either*.

Example:

'I couldn't send all the horses, you know, because two of them are wanted in the game. And I haven't sent the two messengers either. They're both gone to the town...!' (From Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*).

- A number of conjunctive expressions such as *further*, *also*, *besides* semantically link sentences together. The meaning they generally have is: 'there is yet another point to be taken in conjunction with the previous one'. Look at the following, sentences :

My husband says he does not know that girl **Further**, he denies ever having seen her or spoken to her.

The food is very good and it's probably something that people won't prepare at home. Also, it's easy to digest and pleasing to the eye.

I didn't invite your friend Rajiv to the party. **Besides**, he wouldn't have come.

The basic relationship between sentences linked by *or* is to express an **alternative**. This relationship is largely confined to questions, requests, permissions and predictions.

'Shall we try another figure of the Lobster Quadrille?', the Gryphon went on. 'Or would you like the Mock Turtle to sing you a song?'

(From Lewis Carroll :*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*)

If *or* is associated with statements, it often has the sense of 'an alternative suggestion', 'another possible opinion, explanation, etc., in place of the one just given.'

Examples :

'I might stay late at the office tonight, and catch up on my work. Or I might decide to relax for a change, and go to the movies.'

'Perhaps she missed her flight. Or else she's changed her mind and isn't coming.'

The form *alternatively* is perhaps a more emphatic way of expressing the '*or*' relation. For instance, in the example given below, there are: two questions, and then the alternative — which makes the (text more forceful).

'Are the Finance Minister's proposals adequate? Is the economy going to improve? Alternatively, are we heading for another crisis?'

- Under the heading, ADDITIVE we may include a related pattern, that of **semantic similarity**. Here the source of cohesion is the comparison of what is being said with what has gone before. Forms such as *similarly*, *likewise*, *in the same way* are used by the speaker to assert that a point is being reinforced or a new one added to the same effect.

'Treating children as responsible citizens brings out the best in them; they behave as such. In the same way if you treat them as delinquents they will soon begin to act as delinquents.'

Glossary

delinquent: a young person repeatedly committing minor crimes.

- Corresponding to the similarity relation is the negative comparison where the meaning is **dissimilarity**. This is often expressed by the following phrases:
on the other hand, *by contrast*, *as opposed to this*.

Examples:

'In order to buy the flat, I may draw on my savings. On the other hand, I might approach my parents for a loan.'

'Even the largest of whales, the Blue Whale, with a maximum length of about 100 feet and a weight of up to 130 tons, can attain 20 knots for about 10 minutes. **By contrast**, the common dolphin can keep up a speed of 20-22 knots for hours.'

- There are other types of relation which can be thought of as sub-categories of the additive. We give you examples of each:

Afterthought: incidentally, by the way.

Example:

'The airlines charge half-price for students. Incidentally, I'll be flying to Bombay this time, instead of going by train.'

Appositive relation: that is, I mean, in other words, to put it another way, for instance, for example.

'Imagine now that we have two identical twins and put them in different environments. We might send one, for example, to a university and the other to a factory where the work is boring. We would soon find differences in intelligence developing ...'

Check Your Progress 2

Given below are extracts from various texts. Fill in the gaps using the following words: *Furthermore, For example, Nor, Or, And.*

Extract 1

'Some scientists maintain that the anguish of animals is a regrettable but necessary price to pay for knowledge which has brought enormous benefits to mankind' the discovery of insulin — estimated to have saved the lives of more than 50 million diabetics — stemmed from animal experiment....

(From 'Animal Experiments: How Cruel, How Necessary'? *Reader's Digest*. January 1981).

Glossary

anguish: great pain and suffering

insulin a substance that most people produce naturally in their body and which controls the level of sugar in their blood. People with diabetes cannot produce insulin and have to take regular doses of it.

Extract 2

Centralized sewage facilities are non-existent in most West African cities. If any centralized sewage system is to be installed, it will require massive demolition and replanning of the city as a whole. This could prove politically explosive....., the financing of waste disposal is not attractive to politicians. A sports stadium is visible and politically, therefore, more satisfactory.

Extract 3

'Who in the world am I? Ah, that's the great puzzle!'she began thinking over all the children she knew that were of the same age as herself, to see if she could have been changed for any of them.

(From *Alice in Wonderland*)

Extract 4

Perhaps she missed her train she's changed her mind and isn't coming.

Extracts 5

He never forgave his parents for their neglect of him when he was a young child. There were frequent fits of rage and nightmares,could he wholly rid himself of feelings of guilt for his dreams of revenge on them.

12.4 ADVERSATIVE RELATION

The basic meaning of the adversative relation is 'contrary to expectation'. The expectation may arise from the content of what has already been said.

For example,

All the steps in the solution are correct. I've rechecked them. **Yet** the answer is incorrect.

There may also be contrary expectations in a communicative situation.

Example :

A : Why aren't you ready'? Aren't we going to the concert this evening'?

B : But I thought that was tomorrow.

The structural items that are frequently used in an adversative relation are the following.

yet, but, however, although, nevertheless, still, in spite of this, only, etc.

We have listed some points below about the adversative relationship which we would like you to be aware of:

- The conjunctive items *but, however, though, yet, only, still, nevertheless* are some of the **items** which signal the unexpected **nature** of what is being said in view of what was said before that.

An example with *but*:

Gabriel tried to cover his agitation by taking part in the dance with great energy. He avoided her eyes, for he had seen a sour expression on her face. *But* when they met in the long chain he was surprised to feel his hand firmly pressed.

(From: 'The Dead' in James Joyce: *The Dubliners*)

A point of difference that you will notice between *but* and *yet* is that *but* contains the element 'and' as one of its meaning components, whereas *yet* does not. For this reason, you will regularly find sentences beginning *and yet*, but never *and but*.

Look at the example of a text with *and yet*.

'The food was objectionable—yet Alvina got fat on it. The air was filthy—and yet never had her colour been so warm and fresh, her skin so soft.'

(From D. H. Lawrence: *The Lost Girl*)

An example with *however*:

"I'll whisper it," said the Messenger, putting his hands to his mouth in the shape of a trumpet and stooping so as to get close to the King's ear. Alice was sorry for this, as she wanted to hear the news too. However, instead of whispering, he simply shouted, at the top of his voice, "They're at it again!"

(From Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*)

An example with *though*:

"I like the Walrus best," said Alice: "because, you see, he was a little sorry for the poor oysters."

'He ate more than the Carpenter though,' said Tweedledee.

The word only occurs frequently in the adversative sense in spoken English, always in the initial position.

Example:

"I wish I could manage to be glad" the Queen said. "Only I never can remember the rule. You must be very happy, living in this wood, and being glad whenever you like!"

"Only it is so very lonely here!" Alice said in a melancholy voice; and, at the thought of her loneliness, two large tears came rolling down her cheeks.

(From Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*)

- Words like *but* and *however* also occur in a related though somewhat different sense, which we might call contrastive.

She's not good-looking. But she's got brains.
Rita has failed. However, she tried her best.

- Expressions such as *instead*, *rather*, *on the contrary*, *at least* also indicate contrast. Here again, the adversative relation comes very close to the negative comparison discussed in the additive type of relation.

On the contrary emphasizes that the opposite is true.

Example:

'We didn't ask her to leave. On the contrary, we tried to persuade her to stay.'

Instead not only involves a contrast, it also indicates a replacement.

'He doesn't work at all. Instead, he sits and day-dreams'. (contrast)

'Rohit wanted a tennis-racket for his birthday. His mother bought him a book instead.' (replacement)

In the sentence above, *instead* not only has a connective function, but also specifies the part of the sentence that has been replaced. For example, *instead* here can be expanded to *instead of a tennis-racket*.

You may have noticed that sentences which are linked with *on the contrary* and *instead* show a contrast between two alternative phenomena. However, *at least* may show a relationship between two different formulations of the same phenomenon:

For example :

"What a beautiful belt you've got on." Alice suddenly remarked "At least," she corrected herself on second thoughts, "a beautiful cravat, I should have said—no, a belt, I mean—I beg your pardon!"

(From Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*)

- Expressions such as *in fact*, *as a matter of fact*, *actually*, *to tell Jon) the truth* are often used in a contrastive relationship. The meaning is something like 'as against what the current state of the communication process would lead us to expect the fact of the matter is

For example,

"I wasn't called up by the army. **Actually**, I volunteered."

'The old belief that the universe never changes is quite wrong. Even before the invention of the telescope, astronomers noticed that bright stars suddenly appear in the sky, and then later disappear. These stars were called 'novae' because they were thought to be new. In fact, we now know that they are really old stars which are slowly dying.

Check Your Progress 3

Decide which of the conjunctions and sentence connectives you have studied so far would be most appropriate in each blank space in the sentences below:

- 1) Students are very keen to take part in political discussions and participate in the country's development. in many countries they have become the most vocal section of society.
- 2) Society now accepts the social responsibility of the university. some people still think that students should stand aside from the rest of society.
- 3) Earlier, a university education led to an overall development of the individual. now-a-days it is highly specialised.
- 4) The most common type of ghost is the poltergeist. This is a ghost which does not in fact appear. it makes noises and throws objects around despite this violent activity, the poltergeists in fact never hurt anyone.

12.5 CAUSAL RELATION

The causal relationship is used to describe the relationship between two or more events, when one event causes another event to happen. The causal relation is expressed by words such as *so*, *thus*, *hence*, *therefore*, *consequently*, *accordingly*; and a number of phrases like *as a result (of that)*, *in consequence (of that)*, *because of that*, etc. All these expressions can regularly combine with *And*.

It would be a good idea to be aware of certain points regarding the causal relationship.

- Under the heading of causal relations may be included the specific ones of result, reason and purpose. The Examples given below illustrate these specific instances of causal relation.

'They refused to pay a higher rent though the court ordered it. As a result they were evicted from their flat.' (Result)

'She was a good student, but in her last year at boarding school, as a result of criticizing her teachers during a debate, she had incurred their wrath. Consequently, she'd been denied several academic honours she was entitled to and had been harassed. ' (Result)

(From 'I'll Never Forget your Kindness' in *Reader's Digest*, March, 1988).

Glossary

incurred: brought upon herself

harassed: troubled

'In the last century, for example, English visitors were amazed at the beautiful fall colors of poison ivy and took some home. **Because** it is called "ivy", they planted it. Soon thereafter a British medical journal reported a new disease contracted only by women, who did the gardening (Reason)

(From Noel Vietmeyer: *Taking the Itch out of Poison Ivy* in *Span*; April, 1988).

Glossary

fall: American word for autumn.

poison 'ivy: Shrub or vine grown in parts of United States of America, which causes painful spots if brought into contact with a person's skin.

We were planning to go to Ooty for our vacation. But our daughter was not keeping well. (Reason)

Many people have been enquiring about Indira Gandhi National Open University. For this purpose, the University has opened an information centre. (Purpose)

Let us list some of the expressions which serve as linkages for these specific types of causal relation.

Result: as a result (of this), in consequences (of this), arising out of this.

Reason: for this reason, on account of this, because of this, it follows (from this), on this basis.

Purpose: for this purpose, with this in mind/view, with this intention, to this end.

You will, perhaps, notice in your reading that while the phrases can be generally grouped rather distinctly under these three heads, the simpler conjunctives are not so clearly distinguished.

Examples :

A : Mr. Katyal spends a lot of money buying crayons and colouring-books for his son.

B: Oh I know why! So he could grow up into an artist too.

(Reason) A : The Head sends a report every month to the Director .

B : So, that's how he knows what's happening in the Department. (Result.)

- Another type of conjunctive relation which is considered under the general heading of 'causal' is the conditional type. The difference between the two is; causal means: 'a, therefore b'.
conditional means: 'possibly a, if so, then b'.

A simple form of expression for the conditional relation is the word *then*.

"And what does it live on?"

"Weak tea with cream in it."

A new difficulty came into A lice's head.

"Supposing it couldn't find any?" she suggested

"Then it would die, of course. "

Other items are in *that cases, that being flue cases, in such an event, if so,*

The negative form of the conditional is expressed cohesively by *otherwise*;

I was not informed. Otherwise I would have taken some action.

The meaning of the sentence above is: 'If I had been informed, I would have taken some action. Since I wasn't, I didn't.'

12.6 TEMPORAL RELATION

In section 16.3 you noticed how two sentences were linked sequentially, where the second sentence added to the information contained in the first sentence. The linking word(s) which connected the two sentences entered into an additive relationship.

In this section, we shall again show you the relation between two successive sentences. But here the relation is in terms of sequence of time. This is known as a temporal relation. Let's look at some of the ways in which the temporal relation is expressed.

- *You* probably know that three major divisions of time relationship may be set up. What are these? And what are the adverbials that signal the relationships?
- i) temporal ordering **previous** to given time-reference: Some of the forms that can be used to indicate a 'previous' time reference are :

earlier, before then / that, previously., on a previous occasion, up till that

Examples :

We now live in Defence Colony. Previously, we used to live in PaharGanj.

The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. Until then they could barely see anything because of the thick fog around them.

- ii) temporal ordering simultaneous with given time-reference.

In the sense of 'simultaneous' we have *just then, at the same time, simultaneously, meanwhile, off this time, at this point/ moment, by this time.*

Several of the conspirators have been arrested, but their leader is yet to be identified. Meanwhile, the police are continuing their investigations.

"... Oh, dear, what nonsense I'm talking!" Just at this moment her head struck against the roof of the hall, in fact she was now rather more than nine feet high, and she at once took up the little golden key and hurried off to the garden door.

(From Lewis Carroll: *Alice in Wonderland*)

- iii) temporal ordering subsequent to given time-reference

Some of the forms that you can use are: *{and} then, next, afterwards, afterthat, subsequently.*

Examples:

- i) (Alice) began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. Then she set to work nibbling at the mushroom till she was about a foot high: then she walked down the little passage: and then—she found herself at last in the beautiful garden.
- ii) In Europe, bread is usually made in five stages. The first is to make what is called 'dough'. The yeast is mixed with sugar and water, and after about fifteen minutes it begins to 'eat' the sugar. Flour, fat and salt are then put together and the yeast mixture is added. All these ingredients are then pressed (or 'kneaded') with the hands for about ten minutes until they form a large ball of dough. After the dough has been made in this way, it is left to 'rise'. As the yeast continues to eat the sugar it makes the dough increase in size. At the third stage the risen dough is kneaded again and pushed into the shape the bread is to be. The dough must then be allowed to rise again, this time for about one hour. Finally, we come to the stage of baking, which takes about forty-five minutes in a hot oven.

(Adapted from Keith Johnson: *Communicate in Writing*)

Glossary

dough/ dau/: a fairly firm mixture of flour, water, and sometimes sugar and fat, which can be cooked, to make things such as pastry, bread, or biscuits.

yeast/ jr:st/: substance used in brewing beer, and in the making of bread.

You are already aware that there are five stages in the making of bread. What are the words / phrases in the passage above which link these five stages? These are *The first, After..., At the third stage, then, Finally.*

Some of the other conjunctive expressions which mark a series of events / points are *:to begin with, first(ly), second(ly), third(ly), etc.* mark particular positions in a series. *Next, then, after this* cannot occur initially in a series. *Last, lastly, finally, to conclude* can only occur in the final position.

- There are also other expressions which are used to summarize the argument that the writer may have used. These often come at the end of the text, and

may be used to conclude the argument. Expressions such as to *sum up* may conclude a text. However, *in short, in a "word, to put it briefly, in all,* may not necessarily come at the end of a text although they often do.

Example

One solution to the dangers of radiation is to protect the spaceship by putting some kind of shield around it. This was in fact done on the Apollo spaceships which landed on the moon. But this solution is not possible for longer journeys—to Mars for example—because the shield would need to be very large, and could not be carried. Another solution, not in fact possible at present, would be to surround the spaceship with a magnetic field to deflect the radiation. In all, we have to conclude that there is at present no complete solution to the problem of radiation.

(From: Keith Johnson: *Communicate in Writing*)

Glossary

radiation: the sending out of energy, heat, etc., in the form of rays.

shield: protective cover

magnetic field: an area which functions as a kind of magnet, and has the power to pull things towards it.

deflect: turn aside

Check Your Progress 4

Given below are extracts from various texts. Fill in the gaps with the most appropriate linking words indicating a causal or a temporal relation. The linking words/phrases are given below. The same word/phrase may be used more than once.

so
because
firstly

after
thirdly
then

secondly
otherwise
just then

Extract 1

"Don't think, old man," he said aloud. "Sail on this course and take it when it comes." But I must think, he thought, it is all I have left.

(From Ernest Hemingway :*The Old man and the Sea*)

Extract 2

'There was hardly any space for me next to my son. ...I decided to lean back against the window and sit through the night.'

(From *I'll Never Forget Your Kindness, Reader's Digest*, March, 1988)

Extract 3

Now almost all societies have marriage, but there are wide variations in marriage systems. I will give three of the important areas of variation, and some details of each area. The three areas I shall deal with are: ... the number of mates each marriage partner may have;....the locality of the marriage (that is, where do the newly married partners set up home?); and, what arrangements there are for the transfer of wealth after the marriage. Let me deal with each of these in turn.

(Adapted from J. E. Goldthorpe: *An Introduction to Sociology*, Cambridge University Press, 2nd ed. 1974)

Extract 4

... permanent dieting is hardly fun, many people prefer a crash diet. This can be not only harmful to health but also self-defeating: . . . just a day or two on a crash diet, the body decides that famine has struck and defends itself by lowering basal metabolism — precisely what you don't want.

(From Jeanie Wilson: 'How to Stay Thin After 25, *Reader's Digest*, April, 1988)

Extract 5

Don't skip breakfast (but make it a healthful, low cholesterol one)..... ' you're more likely to overeat later in the day; and you'll have less energy.

(From Jeanie Wilson: 'How to Stay Thin After 25, *Reader's Digest*, April, 1988)

Extract 6

"Have some wine," the March Hare said in an encouraging tone. Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea. "I don't see any wine," she remarked,

"There isn't any," said the March Hare.

"...it wasn't very civil of you to offer it," said Alice angrily.

(From Lewis Carroll: *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*)

Extract 7

"That will be a queer thing, to be sure! However, everything is queer today." ...she heard something splashing about in the pool a little way off.

(From Lewis Carroll: *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*)

12.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have made you aware of the role of conjunctions and linking adverbials in a connected text. The role that these words play is seen in terms of 4 types of cohesive relations:

- additive
- adversative
- causal
- temporal

You can now

- recognize the functions of these words and the role they play in binding a text together.
- use them correctly in your own writing.

12.8 KEY WORDS

'**additive relation**': giving additional information about the preceding text.

ad'versative appo'sition: **contrary** to expectation

addition of a word or group of words to another as an explanation

causal relationship: relationship between cause and effect

conjunction: a word, or a group of words, that joins other words, clause, etc.

contrastive: showing a clear difference between two or more things when you compare them.

coordinating conjunctions: conjunctions such as *and, but, yet, or, nor*, etc. which join parts of sentences, phrases, etc. which are of equal rank.

semantic: relating to the meaning of words and sentences

subordinating conjunctions: conjunctions such as *though, unless, because*, etc. which join a subordinate clause to the main clause, e.g. *Though* he tried his best, he couldn't pass the examination.

'subsequent: later, following

'temporal: related to time

ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 2

Extract 1	For example
Extract 2	Furthermore
Extract 3	And
Extract 4	Or
Extract 5	Nor

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) And/In fact
- 2) However
- 3) But
- 4) Instead, Yet

Check Your Progress 4

Extract 1	because
Extract 2	So
Extract 3	firstly, secondly, thirdly
Extract 4	Because, After
Extract 5	Otherwise
Extract 6	Then ,
Extract 7	Just then

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