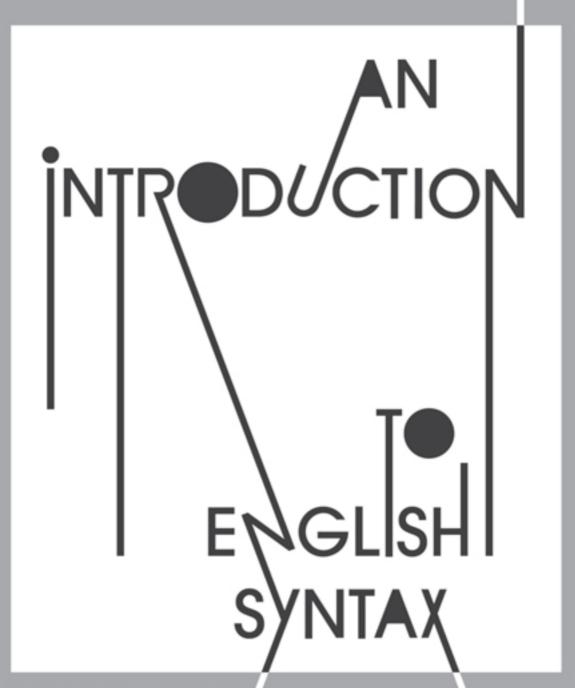


AN
INTRODUCTION
TO
ENGLISH **SYNTAX**

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PREFACE

This book is intended to present an introduction to syntactic description and analysis in English. The book is designed to serve as a self-contained handbook for students in Linguistics, English, and other related fields who want to study syntax on their own. Also, teachers of syntax and structure in English may take some relevant units to be part of their materials for a course. The main contents of this book cover basic concepts and tools in syntax, including word categories, dependency relations, constituency, grammatical relations, thematic roles, and voice systems. All of these concepts play important roles in a variety of syntactic phenomena such as agreement, passivization, case marking, and causativization, and they are usually used to provide an account of the syntax of the world's languages. Knowledge in these basic syntactic concepts and skills in analyzing syntactic phenomena are very beneficial because they help students to see the relationships of elements within a sentence and understand the structure of a particular language in a systematic way. Moreover, with these syntactic knowledge and skills, the process of learning the grammar of a new language becomes much easier as students have realized the universal mechanisms and rules that underlie the structure of all languages.

Since the book is intended to serve as a resource for students at the beginning or intermediate level who do not have much background in syntax, its presentation is primarily descriptive and does not focus on any particular linguistic theory. Most descriptions and explanations in the book are given based on the relevant syntactic phenomena themselves without making much reference to any syntactic approach to avoid in-depth theoretical analyses which may be too complicated for inexperienced students. Only in some sections of two units (i.e., Units 3 and 5), one syntactic theory is briefly described to illustrate how linguists can represent and analyze the internal structure of sentences. Although it is not a brand new approach, the X-Bar theory has been chosen because it is recognized as one of dominant syntactic approaches whose key assumptions and tenets are not too difficult to follow and have become a basis for several contemporary theories and linguists, especially those who are interested in the concept of transformational grammar proposed by a well-known American linguist Noam Chomsky.

The book consists of seven units. Each unit deals with one basic concept in syntactic study. Unit 1 begins with the classification of words, which are considered as the building blocks of sentence structure. Units 2 and 3 investigate the elements at the phrase level: they involve the dependency relations between heads and dependents and the identification of constituent structures. Units 4 and 5 describe two notions of sentence relations, namely grammatical relations and thematic roles: these two notions provide labels for syntactic and semantic relations among elements in sentences. Unit 6 is concerned with voice: it explores various kinds of voice-related constructions. In

the last unit, i.e., Unit 7, three major constructions are discussed, including the relative clause, the existential construction, and the open interrogative construction. The three constructions represent non-basic sentence structures that are found in a wide range of languages, and their similarities and differences between English and other languages clearly reflect unity and diversity of languages.

As an introduction to English syntax, the discussion in this book focuses on syntactic phenomena in English, and a number of examples are taken from the English language to illustrate each point of discussion. Moreover, cross-linguistic patterns are provided in some sections of every unit, particularly the last section. The purposes of these sections are to make students recognize similarities and variations in syntactic structures, to compare mechanisms of sentence building, and to develop an analytical mind in learning language. In addition, at the end of each unit, various kinds of study aids are also given, including a summary of the unit, key terms, references for further reading, and questions. A list of technical terms and the answer key for exercises in all the units are provided in the final parts of the book. Students can rely on these study aids to check their understanding, search for information of interest, and look for other materials for more reading and practice exercises.

I would like to thank three anonymous reviewers appointed by the Faculty of Humanities for their valuable suggestions on the contents of this book. I am also grateful to Mr. Peter Bint for proofreading the book and giving me useful suggestions and comments on both the language and contents. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to the Scholarly Communication Project, the Faculty of Humanities, for the financial support of producing the book.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A adjective A adjunct A answer

Abs absolutive case Ac accusative case

Adv adverb

AdvP adverb phrase

Af affix
Agr agreement
Agt agent
AntiP antipassive

AP adjective phrase

Asp aspect
Aux auxiliary
C complement
C, Comp complementizer

Cl clause
Cls classifier
CM case marker
Con conjunction

CP a phrase headed by a complementizer (i.e., a complement clause)

D dependent Dat dative case

Dec declarative (for marking a sentence as a statement)

Def definite degree word Deg Dem demonstrative Det determiner DO direct object dependent phrase DP Erg ergative case Exp expletive subject

F female
H head
HN head noun
Hon honorific
I, Infl inflection

Ind indicative (for marking a sentence as a factual statement)

Instr instrumental

Intr intransitive IO indirect object

IP a phrase headed by inflection (i.e., a clause or sentence)

Lnk linking word location, locative

 $\begin{array}{cc} M & \quad \text{male} \\ N & \quad \text{noun} \end{array}$

Nom nominative case
NP noun phrase
Num numeral
O object
Obl oblique

OP object of a preposition

P predicator P preposition Part participle Pass passive Pat patient Perf perfective Ph phrase P1 plural Poss possessor

PP prepositional phrase

Pro pronoun progressive Prog Prs present tense Prt particle Pst past tense past participle Pst part question Q Qual qualifier

RC relative clause

Rel relative clause marker

S sentence S subject

SC subject complement

Sg singular Spec specifier TM topic marker

Top topic
Tr transitive
V verb

VI intransitive verb VP verb phrase VT transitive verb

UNIT 1 WORD CATEGORIES





WORDS CAN BE COMPARED
TO THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF
SENTENCE STRUCTURE.

1. A Brief Introduction to the Study of Syntax

The term **linguistics** is formally and succinctly defined as the scientific study of language. It aims to explore, describe, and analyze all the major systems of human languages. Generally speaking, a work in linguistics – similar to a scientific study – usually begins with an observation about a distinct phenomenon in language; this step is followed by setting up a hypothesis to account for that phenomenon, gathering a set of relevant data through an empirical approach, and finally analyzing, interpreting, and reporting the results in a clear and objective way. Like scientists, the ultimate goal of linguists is to make some generalizations and formulate principles about data with which they are faced, i.e., language (Haegeman, 1994).

The study of linguistics is divided into a number of fields depending on which particular system or aspect of language is focused on. Traditionally, the major fields of the study dealt with the core systems of language, including sounds, words, phrase and sentence structures, and meaning. More recently, several additional fields have been developed and expanded. Many of these fields are interdisciplinary, integrating linguistic knowledge with other disciplines, such as Sociolinguistics (social science), Anthropological Linguistics (anthropology), Second Language Acquisition (language teaching), Cognitive Linguistics (cognitive science), and Computational Linguistics (advanced technology).

The Definition, Importance, and Properties of Syntax

As one of the major fields of linguistics, **syntax** is important to the study and analysis of all human languages. The term "syntax", which is derived from a word in

Ancient Greek, can be defined as follows (Matthews, 1981, cited in Van Valin, Jr., 2001, p.1):

The term "syntax" is from the Ancient Greek *sýntaxis*, a verbal noun which literally means "arrangement" or "setting out together". Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence.

As the definition indicates, syntactic study centers on how words can be arranged and combined into larger units in order to show connections of meaning in a sentence and convey the speaker's idea. To put it more specifically, syntax is the study of how the smallest units of sentence structure, i.e., words, are put together to form phrases, and how phrases are successively combined to construct larger syntactic units of clauses and sentences.

Based on this formal definition, the scope of syntactic study centers around the formation of sentences, which involves the properties and classification of words, the arrangement and relationships of elements within phrases, clauses, and sentences, the structures of various types of phrases and clauses, and a variety of basic and non-basic sentence constructions. Given that syntax pertains to sentence structure, it is helpful to examine the origin of the term "sentence" to understand their relationship. This word comes from Latin *sententia* with the meaning of "opinion, maxim", which is different from its modern grammatical meaning (Crystal, 2017), yet this meaning is relevant to language, suggesting that a sentence is a linguistic unit for conveying the speaker's thought or opinion. Thus, from the definitions of these two related terms, i.e., "syntax" and "sentence", it can be concluded that the principal objective of syntax, which is the study of sentence structure, is to discover the variety of possible arrangements of elements within sentences which are used as a means for expressing a wide range of speakers' ideas and opinions.

Every language has a set of words, which is technically known as a lexicon. In very casual situations, we may communicate with one another using just single words taken from the lexicon. However, in most situations in which more complex ideas are involved, we need devices that put words together to build phrases and sentences as a means to convey our intended message (Miller, 2002). Such mechanisms for creating larger linguistic units, i.e., phrases and sentences, are syntactic rules. In addition to a lexicon, all languages – whether living or dead – have syntax: they have a set of rules or principles that determines how to put words together to produce phrases and how to combine phrases to build clauses and sentences in meaningful and grammatical ways. This is a universal characteristic of human language: all languages have established rules which help form sentences in predictable and systematic manners (Depraetere & Langford, 2012). This means that sentences in a given language are not simply made up of unordered strings of words. There are specific rules in all languages that govern the ways smaller linguistic elements can be arranged to construct successively larger units. Without such syntactic rules, speakers of a language would not have any shared

conventions to combine linguistic units to convey a message or to interpret a phrase or sentence in mutually agreed ways. Consequently, it becomes evident that syntax is important because syntactic rules make it possible to formulate complex structures to communicate all kinds of meanings out of small basic elements (words) that carry simple meanings (Van Valin, Jr., 2001). In other words, syntax allows its speakers to express all the meanings that they intend to convey, ranging from very simple ideas to highly complex and subtle ones.

Speakers rely on words and syntactic rules to produce successively larger syntactic units, including phrases, clauses, and sentences, which can convey a great variety of simple and complex meanings.

Although the types of syntactic rules vary across languages, all languages have the potential to construct complicated phrase and sentence structures. No language can claim to possess better syntactic rules than others; this false assumption is usually based on social factors and it has no logical grounds and no basis in linguistic facts. In the view of modern linguists, syntactic structures of languages spoken by primitive societies are as complex and sophisticated as those used by modern industrialized societies (Tallerman, 1998). Every culture that has been investigated, "no matter how primitive it may be in cultural terms, turns out to have a fully developed language, with a complexity comparable to those of the so-called civilized nations" (Crystal, 2010, p.6), and the language of every culture has developed to utterly express the social and psychological needs of its users. Such potential of language to construct different kinds of syntactic structures is part of the creativity of language. Creativity is a universal property of human language: all languages allow novelty and innovation in response to new thoughts, experiences, and situations. In the area of syntax, the creativity of language can be proved by the fact that speakers of all languages in all societies are able to rely on syntactic rules in their language to build a great variety of sentence structures, including completely novel sentences that they have never heard or used before, to express an intended message. Because of this universal property, speakers of all languages can communicate in similar ways without any problem of lacking proper words and sentence structures; for example, they can express the same idea, make the same argument, describe the same theory, and explain the steps in the same process in an intricate way.

In addition to creativity, another related property of language is its unlimited nature (Van Valin, Jr., 2001). Because syntactic rules are learned by the human brain, they must be manageable and limited in number. Despite a finite set of rules, the syntax of all languages has a remarkable property called **recursion**, which refers to the ability of a syntactic rule to be applied repeatedly in generating a sentence and allow recursion or iteration of categories. For example, the syntactic rule which adds a prepositional phrase after an intransitive verb in English can apply recursively, hence creating a sentence with an unlimited number of prepositional phrases (e.g., *Jonathan*

usually walks with his family around the lake in the park on Sunday). Accordingly, there are no limits to the number of words, phrases, and clauses that can be added to a sentence. Also, there is no longest sentence and the number of sentences in every language is infinite. In other words, the property of recursion enables speakers to make use of a finite set of syntactic rules to create longer or more complex sentence structures in innumerable ways and build an infinite number of sentences. By starting with one simple sentence, speakers of a language can continue inserting some other elements within it and produce more and more new sentences which are longer or more structurally complicated to express their ideas in infinite ways.

Properties of syntactic rules in all languages:

- Creativity: Speakers can make use of syntactic rules to build different kinds of simple and complex sentence structures, even those that are completely novel to them.
- Recursion: A syntactic rule can be applied repeatedly in generating a sentence and allows recursion of categories, yielding an infinite number of sentences.

The Properties and Classification of Words

Based on the definition and scope of syntax described above, the starting point for syntactic analysis of most research and studies in the field lies in **words**, which are considered as the smallest fundamental building blocks of sentence structure. Words can be defined from various perspectives. A common definition centers on its ability to stand alone. From this perspective, words are the smallest free form in language: they are a linguistic unit that can occur freely by themselves in various positions in a phrase or sentence depending on their grammatical function. The shapes of words may vary considerably; some words have single sounds such as the indefinite article *a* in English whereas others appear in highly complex forms equivalent to whole sentences such as *palyamunur-ringkutjamunurtu* "he/she definitely did not become bad" in a Western desert language of Australia (Crystal, 2010).

One basic assumption in syntax is that words in all languages fall into various groups and those belonging to the same group share some fundamental characteristics. To form a distinct word class, a set of words must share some properties in common which distinguish them from words in other classes in a given language (Tallerman, 2020). Such a belief in the classification of words into groups started in the early days of grammatical study with Greek and Roman grammarians, and the tradition continues until today. Based on this basic assumption, words in every language can be classified into distinct classes called **word categories**, and each category consists of members that share a set of properties (Radford, 1997). It is noted that the term "word category" is a contemporary name for the more familiar traditional term "part of speech", which is translated from the equivalent Latin expression. At present, the traditional term is less frequently used since it has the misleading suggestion that the classification of words into groups is relevant only for speech, not for writing (Crystal, 2017).

An initial challenge of syntactic study is to discover what word categories exist and which words belong to which categories in a language (Sobin, 2011). In the very beginning, a basic distinction was made between the classes of nouns and verbs, and later on several linguists recognized other classes and developed the system of word categories into a much more complex inventory (Crystal, 2017). Generally speaking, all languages have two broad types of word categories: open and closed categories. As we will see in the following two sections (sections 2 and 3), these two word categories are different from each other in two main aspects, which include semantic content and membership.

2. The Open Categories in English

Open categories, which can also be referred to as lexical categories, have a denotation, i.e., they are *content words* which carry some kinds of meaning. They are named "open" because they readily admit new members and so their membership is constantly enlarged. Additions of new members to the open categories are so frequent and constant that dictionaries, particularly online dictionaries whose form allows a quick and convenient way to make changes, need to be regularly revised to include innovations. Given the constant additions and the huge number of their members, no speaker, no matter how educated or eloquent, can be said to know all words in the open categories in his/her language (O'Grady, 2004). Languages make use of a few types of open categories, approximately ranging from two to five.

English has four open categories: **nouns**, **verbs**, **adjectives**, and **adverbs**. Like in many other languages, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in English have a set of distinctive characteristics which makes them different from one another and other word classes. Moreover, members in each of these categories are so numerous that not all of them behave consistently in exactly the same way. Because of such irregularities which are common in all languages, the concept of **prototype** plays a vital role in the study of word classification, particularly the study of open word classes. In fact, the prototype concept is not at all unusual: it is central to the classification of many kinds of items since some members of a given category tend to deviate from others in one or more aspects. Applying this concept to the study of words, it can be stated that words in each open category share a cluster of prototypical properties that distinguishes them from each other and from other categories. Words that manifest the full or almost the full set of distinctive properties associated with a category are called **the central** or **core members** of the category. In contrast, words which behave somewhat differently from the central members of their category are **peripheral members**.

Adjectives are often cited to illustrate the vital role of the prototype in word classification. The adjective category in English consists of central and peripheral members. Words that fall into this open category exhibit four typical properties. The first two properties are distributional: adjectives occur in two main positions – as a

modifier which is placed in front of a head noun (i.e., the *attributive* use) and as a complement following a linking verb (i.e., the *predicative* use). The third property involves their distribution in relation to other elements in a phrase. Words classified as adjectives can occur with *a degree word*, which is a type of adverb denoting a degree (e.g., *very, rather*), to create an adjective phrase. Finally, adjectives can appear in the comparative form by taking the suffix *-er* or combining with the word *more*. As illustrated in Table 1.1, given these typical properties of adjectives, *tall* is considered as a central member of the category because it meets all of the four criteria: it can be used in the attributive and predicative positions, occur with a degree word, and take the comparative suffix. However, *asleep* is a peripheral member since it fails to meet three of the criteria: it can be used only in the predicative position. In other words, both words belong to the adjective category, but *tall* is a more central member than *asleep*, which is a peripheral adjective.

 Prototypical properties
 The adjective tall
 The adjective asleep

 The attributive position
 ✓ the tall boy
 × *the asleep boy

 The predicative position
 ✓ The boy is tall.
 ✓ The boy is asleep.

 The occurrence with a degree word
 ✓ very tall
 × *very asleep

 The comparative form
 ✓ taller
 × *asleeper, *more asleep

Table 1.1 Central and peripheral adjectives

Knowledge of all these characteristics specific to each open category – the prototypical properties, central members, and peripheral members – is necessary for speakers of all languages. English speakers, for instance, need to recognize the important properties of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the language in order to combine them with one another and other word classes into phrases, clauses, and sentences in proper ways. Linguists believe that knowledge about the properties of words constitutes an important part of speakers' lexicon, or more precisely **the mental lexicon**, which is the mental or internal dictionary, i.e., the mental representation of what native speakers of a language have internalized and know about the words of their language (Haegeman, 1994). From the syntactic perspective, such knowledge concerning word categories in the mental lexicon forms the underlying fundamentals of the construction of sentence structures of every language.

2.1 The Properties of the Open Categories

To analyze the nature of each open category, linguists have proposed various approaches to classifying words. The four open categories in English have been found to show a number of typical properties in meaning and distribution: members in each of these categories denote similar kinds of meaning and they occur with the same kind of word classes. Moreover, these four open categories in English are associated with morphological properties: many nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the language can take particular types of inflectional affixes to indicate their grammatical functions. Therefore, the open categories in English can be characterized by three major criteria

involving semantic, syntactic, and morphological properties. Each of these criteria is explained in detail below.

The Traditional Approach: Meaning

The **semantic** criterion is the most traditional approach to identifying the open categories. In traditional grammar, the open categories, whose members are words that carry much semantic content, can be defined by what they denote. The four categories are given *notional definitions*: they are classified based on their concepts of **meaning**, and this inherent meaning determines their function or use in a sentence. Words in the noun category denote individuals (e.g., John, girl), animals (e.g., insect, tiger), objects (e.g., bottle, pencil), places (e.g., garden, tower), and ideas or abstract concepts (e.g., thought, confidence), which are collectively referred to as entities. Due to such typical meanings, nouns are mainly used for the purpose of reference, i.e., to refer to an entity being talked about (Croft, 1991). Verbs are words which express events, a cover term for all kinds of situations including actions (e.g., play, exercise), sensations (e.g., love, surprise), and states (e.g., remain, know). Based on this associated meaning, verbs are mainly used for the purpose of predication, i.e., to communicate what one intends to say about a certain entity (Croft, 1991). On the other hand, adjectives are defined as words that designate properties of entities denoted by nouns (e.g., large, wonderful), while adverbs are words which designate properties of events denoted by verbs (e.g., hard, slowly) (Timyam, 2015). Given such typical meanings of these two categories, adjectives and adverbs are mainly used for the purpose of modification, i.e., to narrow down the class of or to specify the type of an entity or event denoted by a noun or a verb (Croft, 1991).

Modern Linguistics: Position and Form

The semantic approach of traditional grammar, which holds that the meaning of words predicts their category, offers a useful way of defining and classifying words to some extent, but it is inadequate for a serious investigation of the nature of words. This is because knowing that a word, for example, is a noun and the kind of thing it denotes does not reveal much about how this word can be used to form an acceptable phrase or sentence. It is necessary to establish more viable grounds for categorizing words and take account of what speakers actually do with words when they combine them into larger units (Miller, 2002). Thus, in modern linguistics, the open categories are characterized syntactically, rather than just semantically. Members in each of the open categories can be investigated in terms of their syntactic characteristics. Usually, the **syntactic** criterion pays attention to **distribution**, or the patterns in which words typically occur in relation to other elements in a unit, by examining what words a category can occur with within phrases and what type of phrase it can appear in. It has been found that the open categories have their own unique patterns of distribution, and each of the four open categories occurs with another type of word category, mostly a closed category, to produce a well-formed phrase. Based on the distribution criterion, nouns are identified as words which occur with a determiner, creating a noun phrase structure (e.g., a pillow, several pencils). Verbs occur with an auxiliary verb which indicates the tense or aspect of an event, producing a verb phrase structure (e.g., are

working, will accept). On the other hand, both adjectives and adverbs can appear with a degree word, producing an adjective phrase and an adverb phrase, respectively; degree words indicate gradation, i.e., the extent or degree of the properties denoted by adjectives and adverbs (e.g., very wide, quite slowly).

In addition to distribution, modern linguistics has also given attention to the form of words: linguists rely on the morphological characteristics to classify the open categories. The morphological criterion examines inflectional affixes to which each category is attached. Inflectional affixes provide words with grammatical information; recurring patterns in the grammatical form of words which result from the addition of inflectional affixes indicate that a set of words belongs to the same category. Although English has a relatively impoverished system of inflectional morphology compared to many European languages, its four open categories are marked by some inflectional affixes. According to the morphological criterion, nouns in English refer to words that typically take two kinds of inflection: the plural -s (e.g., girls, cats) and the possessive -'s (e.g., Jason's car, the child's book). Among the four open categories, inflection is considered as the most distinctive marker of verbs (Huddleson & Pullum, 2005). The majority of verbs in English can be combined with four types of inflectional suffixes to indicate the person, number, tense, or aspect: the third person singular present tense -s (e.g., plays, accepts), the progressive -ing (e.g., playing, walking), the past tense -ed (e.g., poured, remained), and the past participle -ed or -en (e.g., remembered, taken). Likewise, adjectives and adverbs are marked with inflection. Many English adjectives and adverbs, particularly monosyllabic words and disyllabic words ending in -y, can take two kinds of inflection for comparison which indicate that the properties they denote apply to different degrees; the two inflectional affixes include the comparative -er (e.g., larger, sooner) and the superlative -est (e.g., largest, soonest), which signal the greater extent and the maximal extent respectively of the properties that adjectives and adverbs denote (Aarts, 2001).

Among these three methods of the classification of open word classes, namely meaning, distribution, and inflection, distribution is regarded as the most reliable. As mentioned earlier, the semantic approach does not have explanatory value, so it is too superficial to analyze the characteristics of words in actual use. One major limitation of the morphological approach is that it does not work well for a language with a poor inflection system (Miller, 2002), so word forms are irrelevant and cannot be used to identify word classes in many languages, particularly isolating languages having one-morpheme words with no affix such as Thai and Chinese. The distributional criterion, on the other hand, can be applied to a wide range of languages given that all languages have syntax and syntactic rules about word distribution (see the limitations of all the three criteria of word classification in specific detail in the next topic below). Yet, it must be noted that while preference is given to distribution, the other two approaches of meaning and morphological form play supplementary roles and should be taken into account to fully understand the overall properties of the open word categories (Wardhaugh, 2003). Table 1.2 summarizes the prototypical properties of the four open

categories in English regarding their semantics, syntax, and morphology, as described so far in this section.

Category	Meaning & Use	Distribution	Inflection
Nouns	Entities	Occur with determiners	Plural -s
	Reference		Possessive - 's
Verbs	Events	Occur with auxiliaries	3 rd person singular present tense - <i>s</i>
	Predication		Progressive -ing
			Past tense -ed
			Past participle -ed, -en
Adjectives	Properties of entities	Occur with degree words	Comparative -er
	Modification		Superlative -est
Adverbs	Properties of events	Occur with degree words	Comparative -er
	Modification	_	Superlative act

Table 1.2 The prototypical properties of the four open categories in English (Sources: Adapted from Croft, 1991; O'Grady, 2004)

The sentence in (1) below illustrates the use of words which belong to the four open categories. The noun, verb, adjective, and adverb in this sentence are obviously marked by the semantic, distributional, and/or inflectional characteristics associated with their category.

(1) The younger boys are running very fast.

a. boy (noun):

An entity referring to a group of boys; occurring with the determiner (*the*) to form a noun phrase; taking the plural suffix -s

b. run (verb):

An event describing the action carried out by the boys; occurring with the auxiliary (*are*) to form a verb phrase; taking the progressive suffix -*ing*

c. young (adjective):

A property specifying the group of boys being talked about; taking the comparative suffix -er

d. fast (adverb):

A property describing the manner of how the boys are carrying out the action of running; occurring with the degree word (*very*) to form an adverb phrase

Problems of the Classification of the Open Categories

As stated in the beginning of this section, the concept of prototype is important in the study of word classification. Although the four open categories in English can be distinguished by semantic, syntactic, and morphological characteristics, there are a number of exceptional cases. That is, peripheral members which behave differently from the prototypes are found in each of the four open categories, and their deviations are manifested in all of the three types of the defining properties – semantics, syntax, and morphology. These differences among individual members make it impossible to draw a clear-cut distinction for a word category.