

**A STUDY OF
ENGLISH NOUN PHRASES AND HOW TO LEARN THEM**



**A Thesis
Presented to
The Department of English Language
and Literature
Faculty of Arts and Letters
Sanata Dharma
Teachers' Training Institute**



**A Partial Fulfilment
of the Requirements for the
Sarjana Degree**

by

Yacobus Zacharias Rahamitu

I. 2265

**October, 2 - 1986
Yogyakarta**

Approved by

I.



(Dr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo)

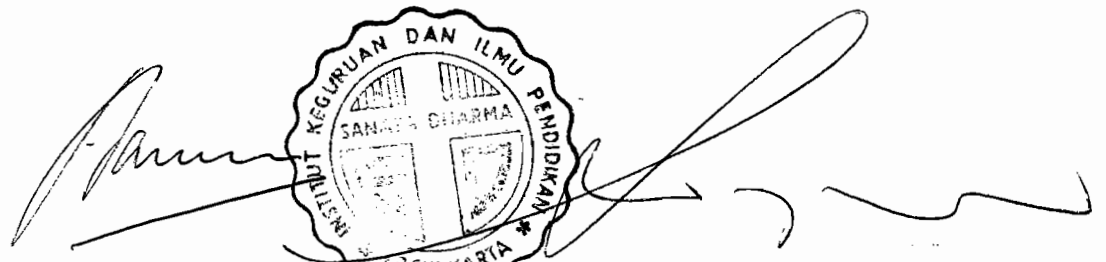
Major Sponsor

II.



(Drs. Fr. B. Alip)

Sponsor



(Drs. F. Danuwinata, S.J.) (Dr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo)

Rector of

Head of the English Depart-

IKIP Sanata Dharma

ment, IKIP Sanata Dharma

Dedicated to Mammi, Lies and
my sweet Rose.-

- He throws me down in a dark corner to remind
me, to teach me that he is the light ... the
Eternal Light. _____

- I may be able to speak the languages of men
or even of angels, but if I have not love,
my speech is no more than a noisy gong or a
clanging bells.

I. Corinthians 13 : 1. _____

- Courage : grace under pressures.

Ernest Hemingway. _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This thesis is presented to the Department of English, Sanata Dharma Teachers' Training Institute as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Sarjana Degree.

First of all, I would like to express my deep gratitude and self-esteem towards the Bishop of Sorong, Mgr. Petrus Van Diepen O.S.A., and M.A.W.I., who fund me and encourage me during my study at this institute. I will devote what I acquire in his Garden.

In accomplishing this thesis, I owe an everlasting debt to Dr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo, my major sponsor, who has given me his patient guidance and his encouragement. My profound gratitude also goes to him that inspite of his duty, he was always ready to help me in completing this thesis.

I am also very grateful to Drs. Fr. B. Alip, who has been ready to read and to be the sponsor of the thesis.

Besides, I would like to express my thanks to all the lecturers of the English Department for their guidances during my study here.

Mr. Ted H. Ngamel, Mrs. Rita Ngamel, Mr. Frans C. Olishlager, Mrs. Rooz Olishlager, Mr. Robby Teniwut, Mr. G. Rahanubun, Mr. Longinus Ngamel, and Mr. Vitus Ngamel, deserve my special thanks and deep appreciation for their continuous encouragement and their "presence"

in my life circle during the hardest time of my study.

My sincere thanks also go to the Head Master of SMA GAMA, Mr. Moeljono Sigit, who has given me encouragement and help.

Last but not least, I wish to extend my heartfelt thanks to my mother and father, brothers and sisters, whose prayerful and loving supports have greatly encouraged me all through my undergraduate years.

Yacobus Zacharias Rahamitu

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|---|------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | i |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS. | .iii |
| I. INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| II. DEFINITION OF NOUN PHRASES | 11 |
| III. THE HEAD OF NOUN PHRASES | 18 |
| 1. Nouns | 18 |
| a. Countable nouns. | 18 |
| b. Uncountable nouns. | 18 |
| c. Proper nouns | 19 |
| 2. Pronouns. | 19 |
| a. Personal Pronoun | 19 |
| b. Possessive Pronoun | 19 |
| c. Indefinite Pronoun | 19 |
| d. Demonstrative Pronoun | 20 |
| e. Interrogative Pronoun | 20 |
| 3. Adjectives | 20 |
| a. Adjectives qualifying personal nouns | 20 |
| b. Adjectives denoting nationalities. | 21 |
| c. Adjectives having abstract reference | 22 |
| 4. Participles | 22 |
| a. Present participle | 22 |
| b. Past participle. | 23 |
| 5. Numerals. | 23 |
| a. Cardinal numerals | 23 |



| | Page |
|--|------|
| b. Ordinal numerals | 23 |
| 6. Genitives | 23 |
| 7. Quantifiers | 24 |
| a. The quantifiers expressing indefinite quantity | 24 |
| b. The quantifiers which are pronouns . . | 25 |
| 8. The deverbal nouns. | 27 |
| a. <u>-er(-or)</u> | 27 |
| b. <u>-ant</u> | 27 |
| c. <u>-ee</u> | 28 |
| d. <u>-ation</u> | 28 |
| e. <u>-ment</u> | 28 |
| f. <u>-al</u> | 28 |
| g. <u>-ing</u> | 28 |
| h. <u>-age</u> | 29 |
| 9. The multiple heads of noun phrases . . . | 29 |
| a. Full coordination | 30 |
| b. Ellipsis | 31 |
| 1. The ellipsis of premodifiers . . . | 31 |
| 2. The ellipsis of noun heads | 31 |
| c. Apposition | 31 |
| 1. Restrictive apposition | 32 |
| 2. Non-restrictive apposition | 33 |
| IV. THE MODIFIERS OF NOUN PHRASES | 34 |
| 1. Premodifiers. | 40 |
| a. Adjectives | 40 |

| | Page |
|--|------|
| b. Participles | 45 |
| 1. The -ing participle | 46 |
| 2. The -ed participle | 47 |
| c. Nouns | 50 |
| d. Genitives | 53 |
| e. Adverbs | 57 |
| f. Sentence | 58 |
| 2. Postmodifiers | 59 |
| a. Adjective | 59 |
| b. Adverb | 62 |
| c. Prepositional phrase | 62 |
| d. Noun phrase | 63 |
| e. The finite clause | 63 |
| 1. Relative clause | 64 |
| 2. Appositive clause | 67 |
| 3. The clause introduced by temporal conjunctions | 68 |
| f. The non-finite clause | 69 |
| 1. The <u>-ing</u> participle clause | 70 |
| 2. The <u>-ed</u> participle clause | 71 |
| 3. The infinitive clause | 74 |
| 3. The discontinuous modifiers | 76 |
| a. Adjective + N.Head + infinitive clause | 77 |
| b. Adjective + N.H. + prep. phrase | 78 |
| c. Comparative adjective + N.H. + than + (reduced) comparative clause or N.P. | 78 |

| | Page |
|--|--------|
| d. as + adjective + N.H. + as + (reduced) comparative clause | 78 |
| e. So + adjective + N.H. + that-clause or as to clause | 79 |
| f. Too + adjective + N.H. + infinitive clause | 79 |
| g. Adjective + N.H. + adverb | 79 |
| V. THE DETERMINERS OF NOUN PHRASES | 80 |
| A. Simple Determiners | 83 |
| 1. The determiners preceding the singular count.nouns, plural count. nouns and non-count.nouns | 83 |
| a. The definite article the | 83 |
| b. The possessive pronoun | 83 |
| c. Whose, which(ever), what(ever) | 84 |
| d. Some, any (stressed) | 84 |
| e. No (negative determiner) | 84 |
| 2. The determiners preceding the plural count.nouns and the non-count. nouns. | 85 |
| a. Zero article | 85 |
| b. Some and Any (unstressed) | 85 |
| c. Enough | 85 |
| 3. The determiners preceding the singular count. nouns and the non-count. nouns | 85 |
| a. This and that | 85 |

| | Page |
|---|------|
| 4. The determiners preceding the plural count. nouns | 85 |
| a. These and those | 85 |
| 5. The determiners preceding the singular count. nouns | 86 |
| a. The indefinite articles a(n). | 86 |
| b. Every, each | 86 |
| c. Either, Neither | 87 |
| 6. The determiners preceding the non- count nouns | 87 |
| a. Much | 87 |
| B. Multiple determiners | 87 |
| 1. Predeterminers | 89 |
| a. All, both, half | 89 |
| b. Double, twice, three times, etc.. | 90 |
| c. Many (a), what(a), such(a). | 91 |
| d. One-third, two-fifth,etc. | 92 |
| 2. Central determiners. | 92 |
| a. Articles | 92 |
| b. Demonstrative pronoun | 93 |
| c. Possessive pronoun and Possessive genitive | 93 |
| d. Quantifiers : some,any, no, every, each, either, neither, enough, much | 94 |
| e. Wh- determiners : what(ever), which(ever), whose, whoever | 96 |

| | Page |
|--|---------|
| 3. Postdeterminers | 97 |
| a. Cardinal numerals | 97 |
| b. Ordinal numerals | 97 |
| c. Quantifiers : many, more, most, few, fewer, fewest, little, least, several | 98 |
| d. General ordinals : next, last, other | 99 |
| VI. THE REALIZATION OF NOUN PHRASES | 102 |
| A. The realization of noun phrases in the sentence | 102 |
| 1. Subject | 102 |
| 2. Subject complement | 104 |
| 3. Direct object | 105 |
| 4. Indirect object | 107 |
| 5. Benefactive object | 108 |
| 6. Object complement | 110 |
| 7. Predicate complement | 112 |
| 8. Adverbial | 113 |
| a. Time adjunct | 113 |
| b. Place adjunct | 115 |
| c. Manner adjunct | 115 |
| d. Means adjunct | 116 |
| e. Minimizer of the downtoner adjunct | 116 |
| B. The realization of noun phrases in other phrases | 117 |
| 1. Noun phrase | 118 |

| | Page |
|---|------|
| 2. Adverb phrase | 118 |
| 3. Adjective phrase | 119 |
| 4. Prepositional phrase | 120 |
| | |
| VII. THE LEARNING AND TEACHING ASPECTS OF ENGLISH NOUN PHRASES TO INDONESIAN STUDENTS . . . | 122 |
| A. The difficulties of the students in learn- ing English noun phrases | 123 |
| B. The possible solutions to the problems : the approach and the technique of teaching English noun phrases | 137 |
| C. Personal suggestions to the teachers of English in SMA | 150 |
| | |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 154 |

Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language is a continuing process. It develops gradually and spirally. It is often said that learning a foreign language cannot be finished in a short time as studying geography or history of which the results can be felt in an hour or so. It is quite clear that the complete mastery of English as a foreign language to the Indonesian students requires years of study, self-training and practice. In other words, it needs many exposures if the communication aim of the target language is to be achieved.

However, it is quite obvious that the teaching of English in the Senior Highschools has described so little about the recognition and the comprehension of the complex syntactic structures of English. The students actually learn and master the language separately, say, in a point-to-point way. They really know about the English word-classes, such as : nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, prepositions, pronouns and so forth. Also, after graduating from senior highschool, they are expected to familiar with the English structures, such as : tenses, active or passive voice, modals, participles or gerunds, conditional or subjunctive type of sentences, direct and indirect speeches, causatives, other types of sentences, clauses, and other structures

mentioned in our senior highschool curriculum. But, as a matter of fact, they are, on the contrary, noted to be failers in understanding what they have already cognitively familiar within the terms of oral or written syntactic structures.

Unfortunately, this lack of exposure still remains unchanged as the students are in facing with the English reading books as their study-references or other scientific English journals in their university years. Based on the general assumption that English in the modern era is the key to much of the world knowledge, the writer believes that the understanding of the more English syntactic structure must take its great importance in teaching, so that the students will not only recognize the various syntactic structure of English sentences, but have a working knowledge in dealing with the scientific English books or journals as well.

One of the various English syntactic structures is the English noun phrases. This thesis concerns the English noun phrases and how to apply them in the teaching of English to the students, especially the third year students of the senior highschools.

Why does the writer choose the topic ?

Firstly, the writer chooses the English noun phrases because they are much used in the sentence and they dominate the structure of the sentence, both oral and written.

Secondly, as said above, senior highschool students, as a matter of fact, still know so little about English noun phrases in practical ways, such as reading let alone writing. The writer believes that many kinds of exposures are necessary for them, particularly in interpreting the English noun phrases.

Thirdly, we believe that in general there are no languages alike. All languages are different one another in some aspects, morphology, syntax, semantics, or phonology. Every language has its own unique system. This is also true with English and Indonesian. The system of English noun phrases is quite different than that of Indonesian. The English noun phrases are more complicated than the Indonesian ones. Thus, their differences often make the students confused in learning the target language. The problem here is that the students tend to base their interpretation of English noun phrases on the system and pattern of Indonesian noun phrases. It will be then difficult for them if they come to the various forms of English noun phrases. So, the writer thinks that it is necessary for the teacher of English to realize how far the interference of the Indonesian noun phrases into the interpretation of the English noun phrases. Although we consider the great role of the mother tongue in the part of the students, the writer thinks it necessary for them to know the system of English noun phrases. They have to learn to recognize and

to comprehend it. Without knowing all of them, the Indonesian students will always find themselves difficult in understanding, either written texts or oral ones. They, then, misinterpret the text easily.

Fourthly, the lack of practice and comprehension might cause the students' difficulties in learning the various types of noun phrases. So, the writer thinks it necessary to contribute some suggestions for the teacher of English in order to build a working-knowledge of the students and to create their practical self-learning of the complex syntactic structures of English in general and the English noun phrases in particular.

Based on these reasons above, the content of this thesis is hoped to give a clearer description of the various English structures of noun phrases, in terms of form and the realization within sentences. So, this descriptive study is basically aimed at giving clearer description of English noun phrases so that the teachers become more aware of the unique arrangements and placements of words which form a noun phrase.

The second aim is that by analyzing the English noun phrases, particularly in association with the students' difficulties in learning them, some useful suggestions can be set up for the teacher of English who is trying to minimize the students' difficulties and to create the students' condition of learning the English noun phrases practically, fluently, and correctly. By

doing so, the students will be expected to acquire the working- knowledge of English syntactic structure in general and noun phrases in particular. Besides, the writer also offers several suggestions which are relevant to the teaching-learning process, particularly how to create some more active exposures in the classroom.

Anyhow, the writer is aware that successful teaching is not dependent on teachers only, such as their ability to motivate the student to learn, etc., but it is also determined by other factors like the student's self motivation, his intelligence and environment, the educational aspects like curriculum, school condition and equipments, etc.

In this case, our new curriculum must be taken into account. Although it is still the so-called applied-but-experiment curriculum in the senior high-schools, the 1984 curriculum seems to offer a great change and extends a new fresh objectives in the teaching and learning English as a foreign language. By stressing on the skills of language like reading, speaking, writing, in spite of cognitive aspects, it is quite obvious that there are some changes of objectives as a result of communicative need of English language in our present society. In other words, the change of curriculum might offer the renewal of the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language.

In the light of this renewal, consequently,

through this thesis the writer thinks it necessary for the teachers of English in Indonesia to renew and to set down the priority of their long-range objectives of the teaching of English. According to Rivers, there are six classes of objectives of teaching and learning English as foreign language, i.e. :

1. to develop the students' intellectual powers through foreign language study;
2. to increase the student's personal culture through the study of the great literature and philosophy to which it is the key;
3. to increase the student's understanding of how language functions and to bring him, through the study of a foreign language, to a greater awareness of the functioning of his own language;
4. to teach the student to read the foreign language with comprehension so that they may keep abreast of modern writing, research and information;
5. to bring the student to a greater understanding of people across the national barriers by giving him a sympathetic insight into the way of life and the ways of thinking of the people who speak the language he is speaking;
6. to provide the student with skills which will enable him to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with the speakers of another language and with the people of other nationalities who have also

learned this language.¹⁾

Certainly, it does not mean that these long range objectives above must be applied in the teaching of English in Indonesia, but in comparison with the 1984 curriculum, especially, English language syllabus, it seems that each of the six objectives has been in some extent predominated in the stated objective of the foreign language teaching.

Also a good technique in teaching English does not work well without being supported by other factors of teaching. Therefore, the writer thinks it necessary for the teacher to consider the other factors. In this way, the teachers are demanded to be creative and critical.

The scope and the procedure of this thesis are as follows :

In chapter II, the writer tries to collect and identify several definitions of the term noun phrase which were given by several grammarians and linguists according to their concepts and approaches to grammar. Also, some additions, particularly related with the internal structure of noun phrase like, head, modifiers, and determiners, which are widely discussed in the next chapters of the thesis, are mentioned here.

1). Rivers, Wilga M., Teaching Foreign Language Skills, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London, 1968, p. 8.-

In chapter III, we are dealing with types and structures of the head of noun phrases. The types and structures of the modifiers of noun phrases can be presented in chapter IV, whereas the important elements: the determiners are analyzed in chapter V.

In chapter VI, we are dealing with the realization of noun phrases according to their position in the sentence and other functions of noun phrases within the phrases.

In the last chapter, chapter VII, the writer tries to identify the students' difficulties in learning the English noun phrases and the difficulties faced by the teacher of English in teaching noun phrases as well. In this chapter, some selected approach and technique of teaching noun phrases are presented with some sort of the personal additional suggestions to the teaching of English noun phrases.

The writer is fully aware that without the data, it might be impossible to present a scientific analysis and some acceptable suggestions with logical solutions to the problems as well. Therefore, in collecting source of data for the thesis, the writer follows two ways :

1. The study of English noun phrases is based on the descriptive approach to the language. In this way, several books, which are particularly related to the description of English noun phrases, both in syntactic

field and in semantic one, are mainly used as the sources of this thesis.

Those books are :

- a. A Grammar of Contemporary English by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik.
- b. A University Grammar of English by Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum.
- c. A Communicative Grammar of English by Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik.
- d. English Syntactic Structures by Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts.

Some other books as additional references can also be found elsewhere in this thesis. Also, some of the various examples of noun phrases are collected from :

- a. Some scientific books.
- b. Some popular English magazines and Newspaper, such as : TIME, NEWSWEEK, INTERNATIONAL HERALD TRIBUNE, and some other publications.
- c. Some narrative writings, such as novels and short stories.

2. The data of the students' difficulties in learning and interpreting the English noun phrases are collected from :

- a. A diagnostic test given to the third years students of a senior highschool. From the test, it is expected to get several tendencies of the students in interpreting the English noun phrases as a result of

Indonesian habit formation of noun phrases.

- b. An error analysis of the usage of noun phrases collected from the written works, i.e. : compositions and term-papers of the dipl. programme students and the students of S1 programme, semester I in English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma.

Finally, the writer realizes that what is written in this thesis, the suggestions and the solutions to the problems of learning English noun phrases, are something like pouring the water into the sea. The writer just wishes that this thesis would be useful for all the English teachers in Indonesia who find themselves no way out of the difficulties in teaching English noun phrases and in creating a new fresh approach to the learning of English in general and its noun phrases in particular.

Chapter II

THE DEFINITION OF NOUN PHRASES

In linguistics we have a way to define a word by showing objects, classes of objects and processes in the world. Such a way is called an ostensive definition.¹⁾

We can also define a word by using other words. In other words, we use a language to describe a language. This is often called a metalanguage.²⁾

Here, in defining the term noun phrase, the writer follows the second way.

In defining the noun phrase, first of all, we have to distinguish the two applicable approaches to English grammar, namely :

- Traditional grammar with its prescriptive approach.
- Structural grammar with its descriptive approach.

It is obvious that in traditional grammar, there are almost no explanation and description about the term noun phrase. Most of the advocates of traditional grammar notionally pay their full attention on the nouns or other word-classes and then leap up to the discussion of noun clauses or other clauses.

1). Pit Corder, Introduction to Applied Linguistics, Hammondsworth, Great Britain, Penguin, 1973.-

2). Victoria Fromkin, An Introduction to Language, C.B.S. Publishing, Japan, 1983, p. 192.-

As Simpson in his book "A First Course in Linguistics" says that the traditional grammar devotes much space to morphology and relatively little to syntax³⁾, it might be impossible to find an appropriate and complete definition of the term noun phrase.

However, in traditional grammar, we can indirectly find some basis to the further definition and description of noun phrases. The noun is generally defined in traditional grammar as the name of person, animal, place or thing. According to Simpson, the traditional grammar notionally defines the term noun phrase as a sequence of words which forms some sort of a coherent group but does not contain a verb⁴⁾.

Of course, these notional definitions can be further questioned for their limitations in representing the whole nouns and phrases in English. If we just stick to these definitions, then, how about such nouns like: freedom, endings, work, and so forth, or the phrases: the man standing over there is my brother, money-oriented teacher, etc.

In the descriptive approach to grammar, we can find some broader definitions of noun phrase.

 3). J.M.Y. Simpson, A First Course in Linguistics, Edinburgh at the University Press, 1979, p 103.
 4). Ibid, p. xvi.

This approach to grammar associated with the names of such linguistic scientists as Bloomfield, Fries and Bloch is called structural grammar, sometimes, the immediate constituent grammar or phrase structural grammar.⁵⁾ Based on the descriptive approach which lead to linguistic analysis of the language, we can find several definitions of noun phrases.

Archibald Hill in his book Introduction to Linguistic Structures, says that noun phrases are phrases in which the last word is a noun or fixed noun phrase. The noun is shown to be the head of the phrase by its primary stress and syntactically, by the fact that the whole group can be replaced by a simple noun.⁶⁾ The characteristic stress pattern of such phrases is a series of secondaries preceding the primary stress of the noun. For example :

- all the tén fine òld stòne hóuses.
- all the tén prètty yóung Américan children's
twenty little òld china dólls.

Although this definition seems incomplete, since the head of noun phrase may be placed in front of the phrase, the most important thing here is the characteristic of the stress pattern that distinguishes the term noun phrase with others.

5). Wilga M. Rivers, Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1968, p.61.

6). Archibald A. Hill, Introduction to Linguistic Structures, Harcourt, Brace & World Inc, New York, 1958, p. 157.

Another definition says that the term phrase is any construction except one containing a subject and a predicate. So the term noun phrase is defined as a grammatical construction usually contains a noun as its central constituent.⁷⁾

If we consult to Structure Reference Book I, English for SELA, we will find another definition. It is stated that a phrase refers to two or more words which do the work of one part of the sentence. Thus, the noun phrase is defined as one or more nouns or pronouns with their modifiers that work together as one part of a sentence.⁸⁾

Although the term "work together" in the definition can be further figured out, the definition can simply represent the description of English noun phrases.

In generative transformational grammar, Chomsky more deeply takes sentences as the basic unit of the language in his syntactic analysis. The syntactic rules, according to him, are made as the sentences are produced by the speakers of English. A sentence, then, is made up of a noun phrase (NP) followed by a verb phrase (VP). Each of these has constituents.

7). Ronald Wardhaugh, Introduction to Linguistics, University of Toronto, Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, Toronto, 1977, p. 247.

8). Structure Reference Book I, Dep, P dan K, Jakarta, 1972, p. 21

Each NP in a sentence consists of a noun (N) and determiners (Det.) or Pronouns. Such rules are known as P-rules (phrase rules) or as PS-rules (phrase-structure rules)⁹⁾.

Certainly, the noun phrase definition in this linguistic-type approach cannot be easily accepted and applied as a paedagogic grammar in schools.

Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts in their book English Syntactic Structures, more clearly state that a phrase is a constituent which can be identified on the basis of the word class membership of its most important constituent. Thus, a noun phrase is a phrase which has a noun or typically a noun as its most important constituent¹⁰⁾.

From this definition, we know that a noun phrase is a constituent. No matter whether it is a group of words or just a noun head as the most important constituent. According to these two grammarians, the noun phrase consisting of a head only must be realized by a plural count noun, a mass noun, a proper noun or a pronoun, such as follow :

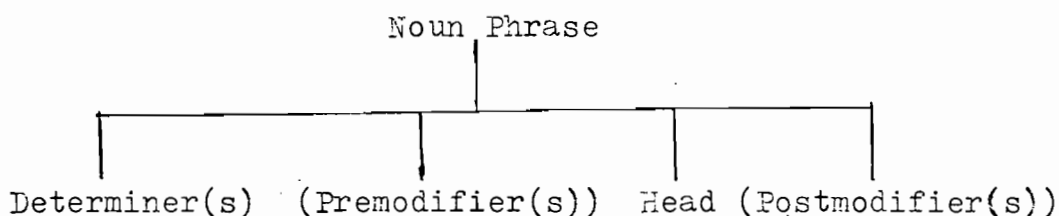
- Books are getting more and more expensive.
- We are running out of sugar.

 9). Wilfred P. Lehman, Language in Introduction, The University of Texas, Random House, New York, 1983, p. 98.

10). Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, University of Nijmegen, Pergamon Press Ltd. 1982, p. 60.

- Smith is extremely difficult to get on with.
- They prefer mine to yours¹¹⁾

Also, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik in their book A Communicative Grammar of English try to give a definition of a noun phrase. According to them, a noun phrase is a phrase which can act as subject, object, or complement of a clause or as prepositional complement. It is called a noun phrase because the word which is its head (i.e. main part) is typically a noun. The head noun, according to them, can be accompanied by the determiners (the, his, a, etc) and one or more modifiers, either premodifiers or postmodifiers. The following diagram is the components of the noun phrase :



Here, the brackets are a reminder that the determiners and modifiers can be left out; determiners are more essential to noun phrase than modifiers¹²⁾.

Basically, those definitions above are more or less the same.

11). Ibid., p. 104.

12). Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd, London 1975, p.251.

The difference is that one tries to define a noun phrase in details according to his point of view of grammar, whereas the others do not, but they complement one another. Or, one tries to define a noun phrase by giving a formal linguistic scientific definition while the others give a notional one¹³⁾

After we have the definitions of the term noun phrase, now, we come to the internal-structure of noun phrases which can be distinguished into three components : heads, modifiers and determiners, and then the realization of the noun phrases in the sentence, in the next chapters.

13). S. Pit Corder, Introduction to Applied Linguistics, p.172 .

Chapter III

THE HEADS OF NOUN PHRASES

As it is said in the previous chapter, in describing the English noun phrases, we distinguish the three potential components, which form a noun phrase, i.e. :

- heads

- determiners

- modifiers

In this chapter, we specifically discuss the heads of noun phrases.

The head is the most dominant member which characterizes the noun phrase. It is the minimal requirement for the occurrence of a noun phrase. Therefore the head of a noun phrase is obligatory.

According to Aarts, we can distinguish the heads of noun phrases, such as follow :

1. Nouns

The most usual kind of a noun-phrase head is a noun. For example :

a. the countable nouns :

- Books are getting more and more expensive.

- I like another cake

- Umuofia was feared by all its neighbours.

b. the uncountable nouns or mass nouns :

- the music sounds sweet.

- We are running out of sugar
- The steel is made from an iron.

c. the proper nouns :

- Smith is extremely difficult to get on with.
- An estimated 150,000 cheering Filipinos waving yellow banners lined the way.
- The Maoist-inspired Communist Party of the Philippines.

If the noun phrase consists of a head only, the head must be realized by a plural countable noun, a mass noun, a proper noun or a pronoun.

2. Pronouns

The head of a noun phrase can be normally realized by a pronoun of some kinds :

a. very commonly by a personal pronoun :

- He, himself did it.
- She who hesitates to do it.
- I, myself go there.

b. possessive pronouns :

- Mine are green.
- This hat is his.
- They prefer hers to yours.

c. indefinite pronouns :

- Someone called by the police is criminal.
- People living along the Kali Code will be driven away.
- The prize will be given to somebody who kill it.

d. demonstrative pronoun :

- Those who spend every minute playing bridge
- Those who are lazy will never pass.
- That which upsets me most is his manner.

e. interrogative pronoun :

- Who appointed them ?
- Which is your car ?
- What is your opinion ?

3. The Adjectives

The head of a noun phrase can be realized by an adjective which is usually introduced by the definite article. There are three types of adjectives function as the noun-phrase heads :

a. The adjectives qualifying personal nouns as the noun phrase heads :

- There is a lack of communication between the young and the old.
- The innocent are often deceived by the unscrupulous
- We will nurse your sick, clothe your naked and feed your hungry
- The rich will help only the humble poor.

This kind of adjectives has generic reference that is often possible to add a general word for human beings, such as people.

The adjective head can itself be modified by the adverb and adjective as premodifier :

- The extremely old

- the very wise
- the humble poor

Also, the postmodification by relative clause and prepositional phrase :

- The old who resist change will be kicked out.
- The young in spirit enjoy life.
- the poor in front-door is a villager.

Although the adjectives functioning as noun-phrase heads generally require a definite article, they can function as such without a determiner if they are conjoined :

- He is acceptable to both old and young.
- Things went from bad to worse.

b. Some adjectives denoting nationalities can be the noun-phrase heads:

- The industrious Dutch are admired by their neighbours
- The clever Swiss have preserved their neutrality for century.
- You British and you French ought to be allies.

These noun-phrase heads have generic reference and take plural concord. Unlike type a, these cannot be modified by adverbs. They can be modified by adjectives which are normally non restrictive. The post-modifying prepositional phrases and relative clause can be either restrictive or non restrictive to the adjective-noun head. For example :

- The Irish (who live) in America retain sentimental links with Ireland.
- The Polish, who are very rebellious, resisted strongly.
- The American in Libya are in danger.

Names of language (some of them are identical with the adjectives denoting nationalities) are used as full nouns. They can take possessive pronouns and a restricted range of adjectives :

- He doesn't know much English
- Russian is a difficult language.
- My Spanish is very poor.

- c. Some adjectives have abstract reference when they function as noun-phrase heads. They include in particular, superlative comparisons, in which case we can sometimes insert thing in abstract sense.
- The latest is that he is going to run for election
 - The very best is yet to come.
 - He admires the mistical
 - He went from the sublime to the ridiculous.

These adjectives take singular concord, a few are modifiable by adverbs.

4. Participles

The head of a noun phrase can be realized by the participles :

- a. Present participle or -Ing participle :

- The dying of the battle must be taken to the bunker.
- Brown's deft painting of his daughter is a delight to watch.
- The dismantling of Nicaragua's Pro-Soviet Sandinista.

b. Past Participle or -ed Participle :

- The dying and the wounded must be taken out of the battle.
- We have to cross out the unknown.
- What we do is for the oppressed and the dragged.

5. Numerals

As a noun-phrase heads, we can distinguish the numerals into two types :

a. cardinal numbers :

- These two steal my money.
- He got a nine in the test.
- Millions die every year from starvation.

b. ordinal numbers :

- Bob and John were at the meeting. The first brought his wife with him.
- He was the tenth to arrive.
- He was the first to come and the last to leave.

6. Genitives

The head of a noun phrase can be realized by a noun in genitive or a genitive like noun, in which the

apostrophy is cropped :

- I am staying at my aunt's.
- The grocer's is at the corner of the street.
- Harrods is in Knightsbridge
- The child is baptized at St Paul's

Also, we can distinguish the head of genitive noun phrase where its head is actually ellipted. We call it the elliptic genitive. For example :

- My bicycle is better than John's.
- His memory is like an elephant's
- John's is a nice car too.

Most of these genitive noun heads indicate the possessive in meaning.

7. Quantifiers

Some quantifiers can function as the noun-phrase heads:

- a. The quantifiers expressing the indefinite quantity. This class has some members in common with that of indefinite pronouns¹⁾

| | | |
|-----------|------------|------|
| someone | everyone | none |
| somebody | everybody | |
| something | everything | |
| anyone | no one | |
| anybody | nobody | |
| anything | nothing | |

 1). Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Limited, London, 1975, p.282-283.

For example :

- Someone in the left side must have left the door open
- Everybody over eighteen now has a vote.
- I've got something to tell you
- Has anybody got anything to say?
- None of the girls has been invited.



- b. Some quantifiers which are pronouns can function as the head of noun phrases as they are postmodified by of-phrase construction.

They are in the following table :

Quantifier pronouns which may take an of-phrase :

| | Count | | Mass |
|-------|------------|------------|---------------|
| | Singular | Plural | Singular |
| Gr.A | all(of) | all (of) | all(of) |
| | each(of) | --- | --- |
| | --- | both(Of) | --- |
| | half(of) | half(of) | half(of) |
| Gr.B | some(of) | some(of) | some(of) |
| | any(of) | any(of) | any(of) |
| | either(of) | --- | --- |
| Gr.C. | --- | many(of) | much(of) |
| | --- | more(of) | more(of) |
| | --- | most(of) | most(of) |
| | --- | enough(of) | enough(of) |
| | --- | (a)few(of) | (a)little(of) |

| | | | |
|-------|-------------|------------------|-----------|
| | --- | fewer / less(of) | less(of) |
| | --- | fewest(of) | least(of) |
| | --- | several(of) | --- |
| Gr. D | one(of) | --- | --- |
| Gr. E | none(of) | none(of) | none(of) |
| | neither(of) | --- | --- |

There are five main groups of quantifiers classified above. Group A includes the determiners of inclusive meaning, except every. Group B refers to some and any words. The degrees of quantity/amount belong to group C. Group D is unitary one. Group E includes the negative determiners without no.²⁾

For example :

- All of you must go out
- All of the boys ate the fruit.
- Both of his parents are German.
- I haven't read many of his poems.
- I haven't read much of his poetry.
- Some of the boys are orphans
- We've sold most of the tickets, but we've kept enough for our own need.
- I've been to a few of his lectures, but understood little of what he said.
- Several of the passengers were hurt and one of them was taken to the hospital, etc.

2) Ibid, p. 281-283.

However, the of-phrase may be omitted if the quantifier acts as a substitute of an earlier noun phrase.³⁾ For example :

- If a free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich.
- I paid him a lot for his work.
- Have you seen any knives → I need a sharp one
- The football match is slow, but I like the second half
- *Every of you must go home.
- *No of us do it.

8. The deverbal nouns

The head of a noun phrase can be normally realized by a deverbal noun, i.e.: the nouns derived from verbs by using several derivational noun suffixes.

a. -er(-or):

1. Agentive nouns :- a good driver
 - a perfect actor
 - the worker of a company.

2. Instrumental :- a receiver
 - the silencer
 - the thriller

b. -ant :

1. agentive :- the inhabitant of "Buru" island
 - the contestants of Election.

3) Ibid, p.281-282.

2. instrumental :- the disinfectant
- the lubricant

c. -ee :

1. personal nouns :- the teacher trainee
- the payee
- an employee

d. -ation :

1. abstract nouns :- the oil exploration
- the arm-control ratification
- the justification
2. collective N. :- the school organizations
- the development foundation
- an education

e. -ment :

1. abstract noun :- the school arrangement
- the embodiment of ideas.
- the unanswered puzzlement.

Sometimes, forms

a concrete noun:- the sport equipments

f. -al :

1. chiefly countable
abstract nouns :- the Indonesian Youth upheaval
- his refusal to be appointed
- his dismissal to attend.

g. -ing :

1. abstract nouns :- his good driving
- the bathing in the sun

2. concrete nouns : - the government Building
 - the opening of the bottle
 - a beautiful painting.

These deverbal nouns do not include what is known in traditional as "gerunds" class of noun ending in -ing (waiting, etc.), which are designated verbal nouns. Because of the complete productivity of the verbal noun category, the relation between verbal nouns and the corresponding verbs is considered to be purely grammatical rather than derivational.⁴⁾

So, type (1) above is the verbal nouns, expressing activity or state (bathing, driving, betting, swimming, etc.), mentioned here for completeness, although it is strictly outside word-formation processes.

h. -age :

1. mass abstract nouns :

- the coverage of the book.
- the drainage
- the wastage
- the shrinkage

2. denominal concrete nouns :

- a frontage - the luggage
- a passage - the baggage

 4). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Limited, London, 1972, p. 993.-

9. The multiple heads of noun phrases

The head of a noun phrase is commonly conjoined with another noun-phrase head to form multiple heads of noun phrases. Basically, there are three ways of multiple coordination of the noun-phrase heads, i.e. :

1. Full coordination

The noun-phrase heads are commonly conjoined :

- Peter and John were there.
- Mary and I approved the plan.
- They bought illustrated magazines or books that contain beautiful art-work.
- I spoke to the old man and the old woman.

The noun phrases with different participant roles are normally not conjoined. One of the reasons for separating agentive from instrumental subjects is that the two cannot be coordinated.⁵⁾

- The gamekeeper wounded him ; A gun wounded him.
- * The gamekeeper and the gun wounded him.

If the pronoun "you" and "I" or their case variants realize one of the conjoins, the conventions of politeness require that "you" should always appear first and "I" last :

- you or I
- you or they
- you or me
- you, John and me, etc.
- my friend and I
- you, John and I
- you or they

5). Ibid, p. 353.-

2. Ellipsis

- a. The ellipsis of the premodifiers in the multiple coordination of noun-phrase heads.
- the new table and the new chairs
 - the new table and chairs
 - I spoke to the old ~~man~~, I spoke to the old women
 - I spoke to the old men and women
 - cows in our own farm
 bulls in our own farm
 pigs in our own farm
 - cows, bulls and pigs in our own farm (postmodifier)
- b. The ellipsis of noun head in multiple noun-phrase heads.
- I spoke to the old men and young men
 I spoke to old and young men
 - He is a clever student, he is an ugly student.
 He is a clever but ugly student
 - He has workers from Ireland and from France in his company
 - I know three or four poems by heart

3. Apposition

Apposition resembles coordination in linking units having grammatical affinity. But, in addition, for the units to be appositives, they must normally be identical in reference or else the reference of one must be included in the reference of the other.⁶⁾

6) Ibid, p.620

In association with the coordination of noun-phrase heads as the appositive units, we can see them in the two types of apposition, i.e. :

a. Restrictive apposition

The restrictive apposition of noun phrases can take three forms of which the heads are identical, such as follow :

1. The first appositive is the more general expression and is preceded by a definite determiner and possibly premodifier :
 - that famous critic Paul Jones
 - My good friend Bob
 - the novel Great Expectations
 - The singer Robeson
 - the so-called macho men Don Johnson, Pete Rose, and Sylvester Stallone.
2. The reverse of (1), the second appositive is preceded by a determiner, always the, and is more general than the first :
 - Paul Jones the critic
 - Robeson the singer
 - Thompson the plumber
 - Amalinze the cat was a great wrestler.
 - Burimata the Fish
3. Type 3 is like (1) but with omission of the determiner :
 - Critic Paul Jones

- Farmer Brown
- Democratic leader Robinson
- White House Counsel Fred Fielding said he
- the request, which came from Massachusetts con-
gressman Silvio Conte.
- 25-years-old television singer Mary Cordwell.

b. Non-restrictive Appositions

The appositives in non-restrictive apposition are in different information units and the two appositives have different information value, one of them subordinated in the distribution of information. The non-restrictive apposition is indicated in speech by separate tone units for the appositives and in writing by commas.

The non-restrictive apposition, which is very common in newspapers and magazines, can take the forms of which the heads are identical, such as follow :

1. The first appositive is the more general expression and the second is typically a proper noun :
 - The company commander, Captain Madison, assembled his men and announced their mission.
 - My best friend, Peg Gibson, runs a creche in Neasden.
 - Next week the Danish Folketing, or Parliament, will begin to debate another nettlesome issue.

From a semantic point of view, these examples in apposition above are also equivalent, in that both appositives are referentially identical.

2. The second appositive is commonly an indefinite noun phrase preceded by indefinite article and is a generalization of the first appositive.

- The house, an imposing building dominated the street.
- Robinson, a leader of the Democratic group on the committee, refused to answer the questions.
- John's father, a very rich man in town, has bought him a flat in Kensington.

The second appositive can be definite since it is preceded by definite article the, for example :

- Fausto Coppi, the greatest cyclist the world has known, was born in a small Italian village.
- The committee has appointed Derek Mateson, the present personal manager as, etc.

An apposition, which usually contains two noun phrases, is different from a modifier for it has general characteristics, such as follow :

- a. The relation between the two appositives is neither one of subordination nor of agreement, but rather one of concatenation, that is either of the two appositives can replace the whole constituent for having equal syntactic weight⁷⁾.
- b. In general, the order of the two noun phrases can be inverted without causing a change in meaning.

7). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p.66.-

c. From the fact that an apposition is one constituent, that either noun phrase can replace the constituent and that the two noun phrases are identical in reference of the heads as dominant members of the phrase, it is obvious that the apposition can be received as a unique coordination in the light of the multiple heads of noun phrases.

After getting closer to the discussion of the head of noun phrases, in the next chapter we will deal with the second component of noun phrases : modifiers.

Chapter IV

THE MODIFIERS OF NOUN PHRASES

The second component of a noun phrase is modifiers, which are used to modify the noun-phrase heads. As we know, the modification of noun phrase can be restrictive or non-restrictive; permanent or temporary¹⁾.

It is called restrictive modifier since the head that it modifies is viewed as a member of class which can be linguistically identified only through the modification that has been supplied. For example :

- The pretty girl standing in the corner who became angry because you waved to her when you entered is Mary Smith.

In this example, the girl is only identifiable as Mary Smith provided we understand that she is the particular girl who is pretty, who was standing in the corner, and who became angry. This modification is restrictive.

In non-restrictive modification, the head, on the other hand, can be viewed as unique or as a member of a class that has been independently identified.

For example :

1). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A university Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd., 1982, p. 376-377.-

- Come and meet my beautiful wife.

The modification 'beautiful' is understood as non-restrictive.

- Mary Smith, who is in the corner, wants to meet you.

- The pretty girl, who is a typist, is Mary Smith.

In these examples, Mary Smith's identity is independent of whether or not she is in the corner, though the information on her present location may be useful enough. Thus, any modification given to such a head is additional information which is not essential for identifying the head, and we call it non-restrictive.

Another difference is that in spoken form, the restrictive modifier tends to be given more prosodic emphasis than the head, whereas non-restrictive modifier, on the other hand, tends to be unstressed in the pre-head position, while in the post-head position, its relation is endorsed by being given a separate tone unit (stress and unstress syllables), or in writing enclosed by commas²⁾.

The modification in the noun-phrase structure may also be seen as permanent or temporary, such that items placed in the pre-head position are given the linguistic status of permanent or at any rate characteristic features.

2). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd, London, 1972, p.858-859.-

Although this does not mean that the post-head position is committed to either temporariness or permanence³⁾

For example :

-the courteous man

- a timid man

would be understood as

the man who is courteous and a man who is timid,
indicating permanence and not merely at this moment,
whereas :

- the man is ready

- a man who is afraid

would be understood as having reference only to a specific time and are seen as temporary :

* the ready man

* an afraid man

From a semantic point of view, modifiers can be distinguished into descriptive and classifying modifiers. A descriptive modifier describes the referent of the noun phrase in terms of a particular quality of the referent, whereas a classifying modifier creates a subclass of the class denoted by the head of the noun phrase.⁴⁾

3). Ibid, p. 859-860.-

4). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, University of Nijmegen, Pergamon Press, 1982, p. 63.-

For example :

The descriptive modifiers:

- his pretty wife
- that tall boy
- a young woman

The classifying modifiers :

- a polar bear
- a criminal court
- ~~an~~ editorial staff
- an atomic energy

The distinction between descriptive and classifying modifiers largely correlates with the syntactic fact that descriptive modifiers may themselves be premodified by intensifying word "very" to indicate the degree to which the referent of the noun phrase possesses the quality denoted by modifying adjective, whereas classifying modifiers, on the other hand, do not admit of intensification :

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| - his <u>very pretty</u> wife | *a <u>very polar</u> bear |
| - that <u>very tall</u> boy | *a <u>very criminal</u> court |
| - a <u>very young</u> woman | *a <u>very editorial</u> staff |
| - a <u>very urgent</u> task | *a <u>very atomic</u> energy |

In the internal noun-phrase structure, the occurrence of modifier is an optional one which may be realized more than once. It may occur both in front of the head and after it, and may even be interrupted

by the head. Based on the occurrence of the modifiers to noun phrases, there are basically three types of the modifiers of English noun phrases, namely :

- Premodifiers
- Postmodifiers
- Discontinuous modifiers.

1. Premodifiers

Premodifiers in a noun phrase are placed after the determiners but before the noun which is the head of the phrase. In the structure of noun phrase, the premodifiers may be realized by several items, such as follow :

a. An adjective

Most adjectives can be used as premodifiers of the noun-phrase heads, in terms of attributive adjectives, for example :

- an old book
- a perfect solution
- a real gold
- an attractive woman, etc.

In the above examples, the premodifying adjectives is realized by one-word adjectives. The adjective may also be preceded by an intensifier and we call it modified modifier⁵⁾. For example :

 5) Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p. 918.-

- His really quite unbelievably delightful cottage
- a very old lady
- an extremely difficult problem.
- his incredibly stupid behaviour

We find two types of premodification with modified modifier to the noun-phrase head :

a. When the premodifying adjective is itself premodified by the adverb or the adverb phrase :

- His really quite unbelievably delightful cottage
- A very useful vehicle
- A largely ceremonial presidency
- A surprisingly honest dictator

b. The second type of modified modifier has no such a limitation as the first above. The noun premodifiers which function as adjectives can be itself premodified either by an adjectives or a noun functioning as an adjective :

- The small office furniture
- The tax office furniture
- Any top military man
- The pleasant house property tax office furni-
ture
- A new giant size cardboard detergent carton.

Sometimes, this type will be ambiguous to be understood, if we are unfamiliar with the subject matter. For example :

- He had some French onion soup

If we are unfamiliar with this type of soup, there is nothing about the grammatical, orthographic or prosodic form that will tell us whether it is soup made from French onions, French soup made from onions, or onion soup made in the French manner.

In principle, there are no restrictions on the number of adjectives that may occur before the head. What is important here, however, is that the order in which adjectives appear, is not always free.

To a large extent, the order in adjectival strings would seem to be determined by the semantic class to which the adjectives belong. In putting the order of adjectives according to the semantic class, according to Aarts, we shall distinguish :

1. Adjectives denoting nationality : English, Dutch, Chinese, etc.
2. Adjectives denoting substance : silk, wooden, woollen, etc.
3. Adjectives denoting colour : red, green, black, pink, etc.
4. Adjectives denoting age : old, young, etc.
5. Adjectives denoting shape : round, rectangular, square, etc.
6. Adjectives denoting size : large, huge, big, small, etc.

7. Adjectives denoting properties other than those mentioned under 1-6 : expensive, gay, fine, dirty, silent, angry, secret, brave, etc.

From this table below, we can see that class 1 adjectives appear immediately before the head of the noun phrase, class 2 adjectives precede class 1 adjectives, class 3 adjectives precede class 2 adjectives, and so forth.⁶⁾:

| Det. | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Head |
|-------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|----------|--------------|
| an | !expen- | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | !Swiss!watch |
| | sive | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | |
| a | ! | !small! | !round | ! | ! | !wood- | ! | !table |
| | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | en | ! | ! |
| a | !brave | ! | ! | !young! | ! | ! | !Dutch! | !hero |
| his | ! | !big | ! | ! | !grey | !stone! | ! | !houses |
| the | !ugly | ! | !square! | ! | ! | !wooden | ! | !boxes |
| some! | ! | ! | ! | !old | !black! | ! | !French! | !car |
| | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! | ! |

Some other examples :

- some intricate old Chinese designs
- some red woollen sweaters
- lovely blue English pottery
- a retangular plastic tray.

6). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, University of Nijmegen, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p.108-109

Also, the premodifying adjectives can only be coordinated if they belong to the same semantic class.

For example :

- a clever but ugly girl.
- an ironic and tragic fact
- a bold but risky second revolution
- a prestigious but largely ceremonial presidency.
- a beautiful and fast car
- the best and the most recent example, etc.
- a kind and intelligent boy.
- * a clever but Swiss girl
- * a beautiful and red car
- * a sad and young boy
- * a sad and old tale⁷⁾

The adjective phrases do not always follow items realizing the determiner function. This deviation from normal word-order, which may be called "shifted premodification", occurs in the noun phrases containing the indefinite article as a central determiner under either of the following conditions⁸⁾:

1. The adjective phrase contains one of the following intensifying adverbs : as, so, how, however, ever so, that, this, too, enough, more and less;

7). Ibid, p. 109

8). Ibid, p. 109-110.-

2. the head of adjective phrase is in the comparative degree and preceded by no, much and far.

Examples :

- how strange a story
- however brave a soldier
- ever so slight a foreign accent
- too hot a day
- no worse a plan
- far cheaper a method

It can be seen that such intensifying adverbs share a restriction to singular countable nouns and cause the adjectives to move in front of the article. This shifted premodification of the noun phrases is commonly used in interrogative and exclamatory expression.

b. Participles

There are many adjectives that have the same forms as participle in -ing participle or present participle and in -ed (the variant -ed) participle or we can say the past participle. Apart from the pure adjectives, the -ing participle and the -ed participle can be used as premodifiers of noun phrases. Not all of these participles are fully adjectival in character, as appears from the fact that some, like many pure adjectives, can be modified by the intensifier very, whereas others cannot.

For example :

1. The -ing participle (present participle)

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| - a <u>fascinating</u> novel | - a <u>very fascinating</u> novel. |
| - a <u>revolting</u> man | - a <u>very revolting</u> man |
| - an <u>interesting</u> story | - a <u>very interesting</u> story. |
| - a <u>playing</u> child | * a <u>very playing</u> child |
| - the <u>crying</u> lady | * the <u>very crying</u> lady |
| - the <u>barking</u> dog | * the <u>very barking</u> dog |
| - the <u>winning</u> team | * the <u>very winning</u> team |

The relevance of the test on whether the participle -ing form accepts "very" depends on whether they are gradable or not. Not all adjectives are gradable.

In the premodifying -ing participle, the indefinite article favours the habitual or permanent, while the definite article, the specific or temporary⁹⁾

- The approaching train is from Liverpool
- I was frightened by an approaching train.
- The barking dog is my neighbour's
- I was wakened by a barking dog.

In addition, the definite article may, on the other hand, be used generically and hence evokes the same generality and permanence as the indefinite¹⁰⁾.

 9).- Randolph Quirk, Siney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p.909.-

10). Ibid, p. 910

For example :

- The beginning student should be given every encouragement.

This represents what may be a current trend in journalism and in technical writing (especially in the social sciences) to admit present participles rather more freely in premodification¹¹⁾:

- the developing/emerging countries.
- the (partially) hearing child
- a continuing/ongoing commitment
- a voting member

2. The -ed participle (past participle)

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| - a <u>respected</u> businessman | - a <u>very respected</u> businessman |
| - an <u>isolated</u> village | - a <u>very isolated</u> village. |
| - an <u>unexpected</u> visitor | - a <u>very unexpected</u> visitor |
| - an <u>unknown</u> singer | - a <u>very unknown</u> singer |
| - the <u>divorced</u> couple | * the <u>very divorced</u> couple |
| - a <u>born</u> leader | * a <u>very born</u> leader |
| - an <u>escaped</u> prisoner | * a <u>very escaped</u> prisoner |

11). Ibid, p.910.-

The premodifying -ed participle is mostly passive in meaning. However, some past participle may be active as postmodifiers although the active is rarely used in premodification.

For example :

- an escaped prisoner (a prisoner who has escaped)
- the vanished treasure (the treasure which has vanished
ed)
- a married couple (a couple who has already married)
- a retired teacher (a teacher who has retired)

Most past participles are of the agential type and naturally only a few will easily admit the permanent reference that will permit premodifying used.

Compare :

- The wanted man was last seen in Cambridge
(The man goes on being wanted by the police)
- * The found purse was returned to its owner
(The purse was found at a particular moment)

But a lost purse is grammatical, because although a purse is no longer regarded as "found" after it has been retrieved, a purse will be regarded as "lost" throughout the period of its disappearance.¹²⁾

Other examples :

- The defeated army
- A broken vase

12), Ibid, p. 911

- The done thing
- a damaged car
- Its relieved owner
- * A sold car
- * The mentioned article
- * A built house
- * A described man

We find the premodifiers in -ed which are directly denominal and not past participle at all :

- the vaulted roof
- a fluted pillar
- a wooded hillside

But the next constraints cannot be accepted :

- * A powered engine
- * A haired girl
- * A legged man

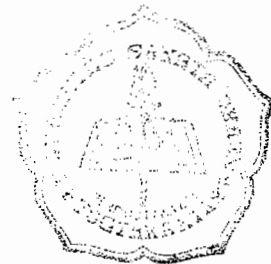
Though we have :

- A diesel-powered engine
- A solar-powered radio
- A red-haired girl
- The Silver-haired Shevardnatz
- A long-legged man

Generally, the participles-- the -ing participle and the -ed participle -- can reach full adjective label when they are compounded with another element :

- A very good-looking boy

- A hard-boiled eggs
- A well-educated man
- The money-oriented teacher
- A well-behaved gentleman
- A man-eating snakes
- The Libyan-supported terrorism
- the above-mentioned article
- A well-built house
- A carefully-described man
- The recently-sold car
- A ready-made audience
- The so-called Jesuit Mafia, etc.



c. N o u n

The head of a noun phrase can be premodified by another noun or noun phrase. Many of such combinations are fixed and it is often hard, if not impossible, to distinguish them from compound nouns. The nouns commonly function attributively as premodifiers of other noun-phrase heads :

- the city council
- a love poem
- the government decision
- the students protest
- some Soviet Diplomats
- his country cottage
- "Gajah Mada " University
- a moral crusade

- language disorder
- garden city
- church bazaar
- traffic jam
- football competition
- car battery
- laboratory test, etc.

Noun premodifiers are often so closely associated with the head as to be regarded as compounded with it. In many cases, they appear to be reduced-explicitness relation with prepositional postmodifiers :

- the partition question (the question of partition)
- the cupboard door (the door of the cupboard)
- A Sussex village (A village in Sussex)
- the laboratory test (the test in laboratory)

But not all noun premodifiers have prepositional analogues :

- Bernard Miles was the actor producer
(Bernard Miles was both the actor and producer)
- transistor radio (the radio is transistor)

Attention must be drawn to two important features in noun premodifications¹³⁾ :

1. The plural nouns usually become singular, even those that otherwise have no singular form :

 13) Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd, 1979, p.400.-

- the leg of the trousers (the trouser leg)

But, while singularization is normal, it is by no means universal(arms race),

- the arms race

- the promotions committee

2. According to the relationship between the two nouns, the accent will fall on the premodifier or the head, for example :

- An iron ¹rod

- A ¹war story

The condition under which the latter stress pattern is adopted are by no means wholly clear but they are also connected with the conventionalizing of a sequence in the direction of compounding¹⁴⁾.

In semantic relation, we find it impossible to make the postmodifying prepositional phrase into premodifying nouns :

- The girl in the corner spoke to me.

* The corner girl spoke to me

It is not uncommon for the noun-phrase head to be premodified by a noun which, in turn, is premodified by another noun, for example :

- London street guider

- Language disorder studies

14). Ibid, p. 400.-

- Stock market report
- transistor radio batteries
- modern language programme
- Wall Street Journal
- Cambridge University Press
- BBC World Service Programme
- London County Council Education Committee
- The U.S. trade cutoff
- The State Department official, etc.

It is also possible for the noun-phrase head to be pre-modified by coordinated nouns :

- A bloud and thunder story
- The city and suburban houses
- A cheese and cumcumber sandwich.
- A milk and fruit diet
- The La Rondine or La Boheme show
- A bread and butter letter, etc.

The attributive premodifying nouns can be coordinated with adjective , but such conjoinings are normally only possible when there is an elliptical noun-phrase head.

For example :

- weekly and morning newspaper
- long and lifetime education, etc.

d. Genitive

The 's genitive of regular nouns is realized only in the singular where it takes some of the form

[z], [z], [s], following the rule for s inflection. In writing, the inflection of regular nouns is realized in singular by -'s and in plural by putting an apostrophe after the plural s.

In the structure of noun phrase, the noun-phrase head may be premodified by a noun in genitive,

For example :

- a dog's life
- child's play
- a doctor's degree
- a ladies' man
- a men's shop
- women's rights, etc.

Semantically, the premodifying noun in genitive can be distinguished and shown by sentential or phrasal analogues such as we present below¹⁵⁾:

| <u>Genitives</u> | <u>Analogues</u> |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <u>1. Possessive genitive</u> | |
| - My <u>son's</u> wife | my son has a wife |
| - Mrs. <u>Johnson's</u> watch | Mrs. Johnson has a watch |
| - The <u>earth's</u> gravity | The earth has gravity |
| <u>2. Subjective genitive</u> | |
| - the <u>boys'</u> applications | The boys applied |
| - his <u>parents'</u> consent | his parents consented |
| - the <u>sun's</u> rise | the sun rose |

15). Ibid, p. 95

3. Objective genitive :

- the family's support (...) supports the family.
- the boy's release (...) released the boy
- the facts' statement (...) stated the fact.

4. Genitive of origin :

- the girl's story the girl told a story
- the general's letter the general wrote a letter
- Teheran's carpet the carpet from Teheran

5. Descriptive genitive :

- a women's college a college for women
- a summer's day a summer day/ a day in
the summer
- a doctor's degree a doctoral degree/a doc-
torate.

6. Genitive of measure and partitive genitive :

- ten days' absence the absence lasted ten
days
- the tower's height the tower is of a certain
height
- the army's division the army is divisible in-
to division.

The semantic classification above is in part arbitrary.¹⁶⁾

For example, we could claim that cow's milk is not a genitive of origin but a descriptive genitive ("the kind of milk obtained from a cow") or even a subjective genitive ("the cow provided the milk").

16). Ibid, p.96.-

According to the noun classes which normally take the -s genitive, we distinguish them into two :

1. The animate noun classes :

a. Personal names :

- Segovia's pupil
- George Washington's statue
- Albert Einstein's brain

b. Personal nouns :

- The boy's new shirt
- My sister-in-law's pencil
- The doctor's advice

c. Collective nouns :

- The government's conviction
- The nation's social security
- The audience's majority

d. Animals

- The horse's tail
- The lion's hunger
- The pig's snout

2. The inflected genitive is also used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns :

a. Geographical and institutional names :

- Europe's future
- Maryland's Democratic Senator
- the school's history

b. Temporal nouns :

- a moment's thought
- a week's holiday
- today's business

c. Nouns of special interest to human activity :

- The brain's total solid weight
- The mind's general development
- science's influence, etc.

The premodifying genitive of the noun phrase can be often premodified by another noun in genitive, for example :

- Jimmy Carter's brother's company in Libya
- Unoka's father's fate
- John's doctor's degree
- Okonkwo's mother's death, etc.

e. Adverb

A very few adverbs can premodify nouns within the noun phrase.¹⁷⁾ For example :

- The away game
- The then president
- The above sentence
- An up train
- A through road
- in after years
- His home journey
- The only son

17). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, University of Nijmegen, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p. 112.-

The noun-phrase head is often premodified by an adverbial phrase in hyphenation, for example :

- His far-away cottage
(His cottage is far away)
- His out-in-the-wilds cottage
(His cottage is out in the wilds)
- The all-day festival
(The festival all day long.)

The premodifying adverbs of the noun phrase can be coordinated, such as follow :

- The home and away competition
- The inside and outside guards
- quickly but carefully prepared bargaining
- The long-awaited and highly publicized summit conference, etc.

f. Sentence

The head of a noun phrase can be premodified by a sentence which is realized by using the hyphen, for example :

- I visit his pop-down-for-the-weekend cottage
(His cottage is ideal for him to pop down to for the weekend).

This rare type is largely playful and familiar¹⁸⁾.

¹⁸⁾. Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd, 1979, p. 395.-

2. Postmodifiers

The postmodifiers occur after the head in the noun phrase. In the structure of a noun phrase, the function of postmodifier may be realized by the following items :

a. An adjective

Adjectives normally premodify the noun, but in some cases, the noun-phrase head can be postmodified by the adjective, such as follow¹⁹⁾ :

1. When a noun head and a adjective form an idiomatic expression. For example :

- Lord spiritual
- court martial
- time immemorial
- the sum total
- The Attorney General
- heir apparent
- notary public, etc.

A few adjectives have special meanings when they occur after the noun head²⁰⁾ :

- The president elect (soon to take office)
- The city of London proper (as strictly defined)

19). Ibid, p. 112 - 114

20). Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Communication Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1975, p. 194.-

2. The adjectives, especially predicative adjectives, are sometimes postmodifiers, i.e. they follow the head noun that they modify. Such adjectives, including present, alive, involved, and a few in -able/-ible, can usually be regarded as a reduced relative clause²¹⁾. For example :
- People (who were)present were his supporters
 - The men (who were) involved were reported to the police
 - The happiest man alive
 - The information available
 - The only person responsible, etc.
3. When a noun-phrase head is an indefinite pronoun :
- something strange
 - nothing useful
 - somebody important
 - anything original
 - nothing interesting, etc.
4. When an adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase :
- people averse to hard work
 - the difficulties implicit in this kind of understanding
 - a wallpaper similar to yours
 - a house different from Peter's, etc.

21). Ibid, p. 194.-

5. When an adjective is followed by an infinitive clause, the adjective may be preceded by "too" or followed by "enough". For example :
- a theory (too) difficult to explain
 - children reluctant to obey
 - a man easy to persuade
 - a chest too heavy to move
 - a man wealthy enough to foot the bill
 - the students clever enough to understand this, etc.
6. When an adjective is in the comparative degree or preceded by "as", "more" or "less" and followed by a clause of comparison, either full or reduced one. For example :
- a car faster than your Jaguar
 - a room bigger than he had imagined
 - a plan less ambitious than we expected
 - a girl as dim as her sister
 - a country house more expensive than John's
 - an office-block as tall as the Empire State Building, etc.
7. When an adjective is preceded by "so", and followed by a finite or non-finite clause, for example :
- a point so trivial that it is not worth mentioning
 - a cave so dark that we could not see a thing.
 - a light so intense as to blind the eyes.
 - a valley so beautiful as to defy description.

b. An adverb

Some adverbs signifying place or time can post-modify the noun-phrase heads. For example :

1. Time :

- the meeting yesterday
- the meal afterwards
- the day before
- a week ago
- their stay overnight, etc.

2. Place :

- the way down
- the way back home
- the way ahead
- the neighbour upstairs
- his journey up
- his return home
- the sentence below, etc.

c. A Prepositional phrase

The noun-phrase heads may be postmodified by the prepositional phrases, as in :

- the city of Rome
- the future of the Filipino people
- the return of the Kuril Islands
- The right man for the job is John
- The reaction from Marcos was swift and angry

- the mass on Sunday
- an old Indian with gnarled bare legs
- the man with a red beard, etc

The noun phrase may contain two or more postmodifying prepositional phrases, such as :

- The story on our use of computers in the New Hampshire State Government is remarkable
- the house at the corner of the street
- the flowers in the vase on the table
- the year before the election of Nixon in the USA.
- The two men by the fireside in Geneva did not bring on the millennium, etc.

d. A noun phrase

The postmodification by means of noun phrase is rare. For example :

- the girl your age
- a rock that shape
- a car that colour
- a hat this size, etc.

e. The finite clause

A finite clause is a clause whose verb element is a finite verb phrase, that is the verb-phrase capable of showing tense, mood, aspect.

By tense, we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect con-

cerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded(for example as complicated or in progress), while mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, possibility²²⁾.

In relation with the term postmodifier of the noun phrase, there are three types of the finite clause that can be used as postmodifier of the noun phrase. They are relative clauses, appositive clauses and the clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions²³⁾.

1. Relative clauses

As we know, relative clause is a dependent clause related to the main clause by a relative pronoun. The principal function of a relative clause is that of postmodifier in a noun phrase, where the relative pronoun points back to the head of the noun phrase(the antecedent. The relative pronouns of English are who, whom, whose, which, that, and zero(i.e. pronoun omitted). That is, we include in our list, a pronoun which is not pronounced, but which exists in that it fills the position of subject, object, etc in the clause²⁴⁾. Here, it is necessary to distinguish two types of the relative clause : restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

22). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd., 1979, p. 310.-

23). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p.115.-

24). Geoffrey, Jan Svartvik, A communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1975, p.285

The restrictive clause supplies the information that is essential for the identification of the antecedent, whereas the non-restrictive one contains information that is not strictly required to identify the antecedent. In short, the non-restrictive relative clauses just give an additional information to the antecedent and are therefore usually omissible. Another difference is that the restrictive clauses follow the antecedent without a break in the intonation pattern, whereas the non-restrictive ones are clearly separated from the antecedent intonationally and are enclosed within commas in writing.

For example :

a. Restrictive relative clause as postmodifier of the noun phrase :

- Is he the man whose house was burnt down ?
- The boy that is playing the piano is my friend.
- I knew the man who devoted every moment of his spare time.
- The improvisations that are too little and too late
- The table that we admire is from Jepara
- A proposal that I presented to the Senate seem to me even urgent
- The man whom I kicked was called John
- It is the car which hit him yesterday.
- The boy to whom I teach English told you to come.

b. The non-restrictive relative clause as postmodifier of the noun phrase :

- There were two people in the taxi, who were killed
- John, whose wife left him last week, feels quite relieve.
- Secretary Shultz, who has long argued against the Defence Secretary Caspar Wainberger, declared last week that
- They moved to Paris, which had always fascinated them.
- Her father, whom she likes very much, works here.
- Chairil Anwar, whose poems are still wellknown, died in 1949.
- The seat, on which I sat, is very expensive.
- The company, which is now known as Feldmuhle Nobel A.G., paid 5 million deutsche marks to the New York-based Conference on Jewish Material Claims Against German.
- Ligachev, who was installed in the politburo only in April, is the de facto no. 2 in the Kremlin Hierarchy.

The pronoun "that" can only be used in the restrictive clause. In restrictive clause, when relative pronoun is not the subject of the relative clause, a further option exists in relative clause structure of having no relative pronoun at all. We call

it the zero relative pronoun. For example :

- Is he the man (that) you were followed by ?
- This is not a question we want to take.
- The electoral battle he is fighting now is between Democracy and Communism.
- This is the way he did it.
- The boy we met last night is the son of Lurah.
- I think that is something we can definitely learn from them, etc.

2. Appositive clauses

Appositive clauses are nominal clauses which have a relation to the head similar to that between two noun phrases in apposition²⁵⁾. The head of an appositive clause must be an abstract noun such as: fact, idea, reply, answer, appeal, promise, belief, etc. The that-clause in an appositive clause is different from that of relative clause. "That" in relative clause is a relative pronoun and could be replaced by which and acts as the subject of the clause. But "that" in an appositive clause is a conjunction.

We can distinguish the appositive clause as a postmodifier of noun phrase into two types, i.e. : restrictive appositive clauses and non-restrictive appositive ones.

25). Ibid, p. 270.-

a. The restrictive appositive as the postmodifier :

- His wife tried to conceal the fact that he was seriously ill.
- We were delighted at the news that our team had won
- The hope that these negotiations would be a success made us happy.
- The belief that no one is infallible is well-founded
- I believe with the old saying that absence makes the heart grow fonder.
- The message that he would be late arrived by special delivery, etc.

b. The non-restrictive appositive clause as the postmodifier :

- His main argument, that scientific laws have no exceptions, was considered absurd.
- A more relevant fact, that the gun had not been fired, was curiously ignored.
- Columbus belief, that the world is round, had made him a famous and prominent sailor at his time.
- This last news, that there are only two people died of Nuclear horror at Chernobyl, has been regarded as impossible, etc.

3. The clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions

The third type of the finite clause that can function as the postmodifier in ~~the~~ noun phrase is

introduced by temporal conjunctions such as before, after, since, for example :

- the days before he died
- The years after she was born
- the time since he has been chairman
- The lonely hours until help arrived, etc.

This postmodifying clause is similar with other clauses which are linked to the head of noun phrase by an adverbial relation. They are :

a. Finite clauses introduced by a wh-word :

Time : - He is always talking about the years when he was a student.

Place : - We visited the house where Beethoven was born.

Reason : - Is that the reason why you came ?

b. Finite clauses introduced by that or zero :

Time : - It's about time (that) you had a holiday.

Place : - I'll show you the place (that) we last year

Manner : - I like the way (that) she does her hair.

Reason : - The reason (that) I came was to ask your forgiveness.

f. The non-finite clause

The non-finite clauses are clauses whose verb

element is a non-finite verb phrase, i.e. consists of non-finite elements such as a) an -ing participle, b) an -ed participle, or c) an infinitive. All three types of the non-finite clause, i.e. -ing participle clauses, -ed participle clauses, and to-infinitive clauses, can function as postmodifiers of the noun phrases

1. The -ing participle clause.

The -ing participle clauses are reduced relative clause. The -ing verb form in the non-finite postmodifiers correspond to progressive form in relative clauses. For example :

- I saw you crossing the Thamrin Street yesterday.
(you who were crossing the Thamrin Street)
- At the station you will see a man carrying a large umbrella.
(a man who is carrying a large umbrella)
- The boy reading a newspaper is my brother.
(The boy who is reading a newspaper is my brother).
- What she had seen was the shape of a man climbing a palm tree.
(a man who was climbing a palm tree).

But, not all the -ing form in the non-finite postmodifiers correspond to the progressive forms in relative clauses. The stative verbs, which cannot have the progressive in the finite verb phrase, can appear in the participial form. For example :

- He is talking to a girl resembling Joan.
(The girl who resembles Joan)
- I received a letter asking me to return to England
(a letter which asked me to return to England).
- A tile falling from a roof shattered into frag-
ments at his feet.
(A tile which fell from a roof)
- As an American living abroad, I was shocked by
this space tragedy.
(An American who lives abroad)
- The proposal concerning child health was rejected
(the proposal which concerned child health ...)

The head of a noun phrase can often be postmo-
dified by multiple -ing participle clause. For example:

- As an American living abroad, working as a teach-
er, I was shocked by this tragedy.
- It is also important that the military be repre-
sented, so it's not just a bunch of politicians
running and organizing the army.
- Despite their shortcomings, the Contras are an
Authentic army of Nicaraguans, mainly peasants,
fighting and struggling for their liberty against
a repressive tyranny supported and maintained in
power by the Soviet Union and Cuba, etc.

2. The -ed participle clause

The -ed participle clauses are also reduced relative clauses. The postmodifying participle clause corresponds in meaning to a passive relative clause.

For example :

- The vast area taken by the U.S in that war was long considered Mexico's lost province.
(the vast area which was taken by the U.S.....)
- The propaganda used in Latin America today says that communism in Russia today is a dictatorship of a new privileged class.
- The soldiers found guilty of looting will be shot at place.
- The line taken by the Defence Secretary Caspar Wainberger was contradicted with the foreign policy.
- Many young Saudis, educated in the West, demonstrated their uneasiness of the feudal system in their country.
- The issue debated in Congress yesterday was about abortion laws.
- The only car yet repaired by that mechanic is mine.

Since with the intransitive verbs the past participle can never be passive, there is no -ed postmodifier corresponding exactly to the relative clause, as in :

- The train which has arrived at platform is from York. (*The train arrived at platform one is from York).

- * The students walked across the street are from the "Fisipol UGM".
- * The man started to work in this office is actually a famous football player.

Limited exceptions occur where the past participle is preceded by certain adverbs²⁶⁾ :

- The train recently arrived at platform one is from York.
- The students immediately walked across the street are from the "Fisipol UGM".
- The man last started to work in this office is actually a famous football player, etc.

This phenomenon is related to our ability also to pre-modify the noun heads with participles which, unless themselves premodified, can only postmodify the heads²⁷⁾.

The head of a noun phrase can often be postmodified by multiple -ed participle clauses. For example:

- One message, sent a few hours after the blast, guardedly congratulated the East Berlin Libya's Peoples Bureau for a job well done, has been completely monitored by the U.S. secret agents in Europe.

 26). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svavik, A grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p.878.-

27). Ibid, p. 878.-

- The Libyan demonstrators, stirred by Gadhafi and afforded by his fanatic followers, protest the U.S. actions at a Tripoli rally.
- I believe we need to establish a new global ethic of harmonious coexistence, based on mutual respect among the peoples of the world, based on appreciation for the cultural heritage of all mankind.
- Japan's traditional philosophy of being in harmony with nature and all living things, nurtured and practiced through our long history, will, I believe, help to define a new world ethic, etc.

3. The infinitive clause :

The head of a noun phrase can commonly be post-modified by the infinitive clauses. As we see, the infinitive clauses, either with to or without to, resemble the other non-finite clauses in not making distinctions of tense and aspect, so that their time reference alter according to the context. We can distinguish the postmodifying infinitive clauses into two, namely :

a. The to-infinitive clauses :

- I have particular reason to remember.
- The next train to arrive was from Chicago.
- Admundsen was the first man to reach the South Pole
- What are the conclusions to be made ?

- These are the factors to be taken into account
- The issue to be debated tomorrow is whether income tax should be increased.
- Since taking office as Prime Minister, I have consistently advocated administrative, fiscal, and educational reforms, and appealed to the Japanese people to join in the process of making Japan a truly international country.
- Peter's wish to be buried in England could not be fulfilled.

If the clause has an overt subject, it may be introduced by for, for example :

- There is no cause for her to be so upset.
- What was the reason for her to think that John is dishonest.
- The best man for you to consult is Wilson.
- There are plenty of toys for the children to play with.

In postmodifying the noun-phrase head, the to-infinitive clause can be preceded by the relative pronoun, such as whom, at which, with whom, and whether, where, when in the adverbial infinitive clause. For example :

- Is he the man with whom to do the business ?
- The Adelphi is the hotel at which to stay.
- The question whether to join now or later is irrelevant.
- The decision when to leave will be taken later.

- We have no indication where to look for.
- The President didn't find the best choice(of) how to face Gadhafi, etc.

b. The infinitive clauses without to :

- Since taking office as Prime Minister, I have consistently advocated administrative, fiscal and educational reforms, and appealed to the Japanese people to join in the process of making Japan a truly international country -- a country open to the world.
- After Chappaquiddic, he could not fill the god-like role need for the presidency.

This kind of postmodifier seems applicable in the informal written text or formal spoken form, such as speeches or comments, etc, than that in the formal written text.

3. The Discontinuous Modifiers

In this chapter, we have dealt so far with the constituents preceding the head (premodifiers) and the constituents following the head (postmodifiers). Now, we come to the discontinuous modifiers.

It is not uncommon for the noun phrase where its modifier is interrupted by the head of the noun phrase. The "interrupted " constituent on either side of the head of the noun phrase is called discontinuous modifier.

The following example can clarify the definition :

- A much more interesting book than we had expected

The modifier "much more interesting than we had expected" is interrupted by the noun head "book". We can compare this construction with the common construction :

- A book much more interesting than we had expected.

So it is just different from the noun phrase construction which the noun head is modified by the premodifier and the postmodifier, as in :

- The courageous actions of President Raul Alfonsin

We find no construction like :

* The actions courageous of President Raul Alfonsin

According to Aarts, we distinguish the cases of the discontinuous modifiers in the noun phrase structures in which part of the modifier precedes the noun head and the rest following it in postmodification, such as follow⁽²⁸⁾ :

a. The adjective + N. Head + The infinitive clause :

- a difficult theory to explain

(a theory difficult to explain)

- an easy man to persuade

(a man easy to persuade)

28). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p. 118.-

- a sweet memory to remember
- (a memory (so) sweet to remember)

b. The adjective + N. Head + the prepositional :

- a similar wall-paper to yours
- (a wallpaper similar to yours)
- a different house from Peter's
- (a house different from Peter's)
- a difficult test for Aquino's government.
- (a test difficult for Aquino's goverment).

c. Comparative adjective + N. Head + than + (reduced)

comparative clause or noun phrase :

- a faster car than your Jaguar
- (a car faster than your Jaguar)
- a richer man than his father used to be
- (a man richer than his father used to be)
- a longer distance than 5 miles
- (a distance longer than 5 miles)

d. As + adjective + N. Head + as + (reduced) comparative clause :

- as rich a man as my father
- (a man as rich as my father)
- as intelligent a man as I would like to be
- (a man as intelligent as I would like to be)
- as loyal a secretary as his wife
- (a secretary as loyal as his wife)

- e. So + adjective + noun + that-clause or as to-clause :
- so dark a cave that we could not see a thing
(a cave so dark that we could not see a thing).
 - so intense a light as to blind the eyes
(a light so intense as to blind the eyes)
 - so sudden the attack that the enemy was defeated in five minutes.
(the attack so sudden that the enemy was defeated in five minutes).
- f. Too + adjective + noun head + infinitive clause :
- too heavy a chest to move
(a chest too heavy to move).
 - too expensive a project to finance
(a project too expensive to finance).
 - too luxurious a house to sell
(a house too luxurious to sell)
- g. Adjective + Noun Head + adverb :
- an attractive scheme financially
(a scheme which is financially attractive).
 - a good paper editorially
(a paper which is editorially good)
 - a good paper commercially
(a paper which is commercially good)

By examining the three types of modifiers and the variations within the noun phrase, it can be concluded,

then, that the noun phrase is potentially very complex indeed. As it is said above that the function of modifier is somewhat optional one which may be realized more than once and may occur both in front of the head and after it, and may even be interrupted by the head, or may even be the head only, it is clear that in expressing one's intention, the noun phrase he uses can be economically short or extensively long.

For example :

- It was the beginning of an operation in which the the power of the Holy Spirit was fulfilled in the person and words and actions of a human character, Jesus of Nazareth
- The subsequent work by Huisgen(1951) and Hey, Stuart-Webb and Williams(1951,1952) on the dependence of the rate of rearrangement on both the aryl and acyl groups of acylarylnitrosamine, and on the catalysis of the reaction by bases such as piperdine, has led to the formulation of the rearrangement as an intramolecular process, as indicated in equation(6), involving nucleophilic attack, by an internal Sn2 mechanism, of the oxygen of the ... nitrosyl group in the carbonyl carbon atom²⁹⁾.

In the next chapter, we deal with the determiners of noun phrase.-----

²⁹⁾. Randolph Quirk, S.Greenbaum, G. Leech, J. Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., Longon, 1972, p. 932.-

Chapter V

THE DETERMINERS OF NOUN PHRASES

The third component of the noun phrase is the determiner. Some traditional grammarians tend to classify the determiners into the modifiers of the noun phrases. However, in the structure of noun phrase, the term determiner is actually different from the modifier.

According to Ronald Wardhaugh in his book Introduction to Linguistics, the determiner is defined as a word (the, a, my, this, etc) that is usually followed, though not always immediately, by a noun¹⁾.

Howard Jackson, specifically noted that determiners are a class of words that are used with nouns and have the function of defining and determining the reference of the nouns in some way²⁾.

In general, the determiners are words which specify the range of reference of a noun in various ways, e.g. by making it definite (the boy), indefinite (a boy), or by indicating quantity (many boys)³⁾.

So, although the determiners, like the modifiers, are all subordinated to the head of noun phrases, quite obviously, there are three differences between determiners and modifiers, i.e. :

1). Ronald Wardhaugh, Introduction to Linguistics, University of Toronto, Mc. Graw-Hill Book Company, 1977, p. 240.

2). Howard Jackson, Analyzing English, Pergamon Institute of English, 1980, p.64.

3). G. Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1975, p.225.

Firstly, the modifiers of noun phrase can occur both before and after the head or even interrupted by the head, whereas the determiners can only precede the heads of noun phrases, for syntactically they can, in general, only be realized by members of a closed class of words.

The second difference is that the modifier function may be realized more than once in a noun phrase, while the determiner is an obligatory one which can be realized only once. For example, we have two modifiers, tall and black in "that tall black man", while we have no *the a man or * a his book.

The third difference is that the occurrence of a modifier is optional which is not so essential for the internal structure of a noun phrase. All of the modifiers could be easily omitted without affecting the acceptability of the noun phrase, while the occurrence of a determiner is more essential to noun phrase structure for its function to determine the head of noun phrase. The only situation in which a noun phrase has no determiner is where it has a zero article, like proper nouns (Paris - *The Paris, Mississippi - The Mississippi, exception, The Andes - *An Andes, etc).

In summary, the function of a determiner is, in the majority of cases, an obligatory one which can be realized only once and is positionally restricted to the

initially slot in the noun phrase and is usually realized by items from a number of closed class of words.

To understand the grammatical role of determiners, we have to consider what determiners and nouns can occur together. According to "A Grammar Of Contemporary English, there are three classes of common nouns relevant to the choice of determiners⁴⁾. They are singular count nouns, such as pen, bottle, etc, plural count nouns, such as pens, bottles, etc, and non-count nouns (mass nouns), such as ink, furniture, etc. In forming the noun phrase, there are six classes of determiners with respect to their co-occurrence with these three classes of nouns above, i.e. :

1. The determiners preceding the singular count nouns, plural count nouns, and non-count nouns :

a. The definite article the : ..

- the bottle
- the bottles
- the furniture

b. The possessive pronoun :

- my pen
- our bottles
- their furniture

 4). Randolph Quirk, S.Greenbaum, G. Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd, London, 1972, p. 138-139.-

c. Whose, Which(ever), what(ever) :

- whose bottle
- whichever bottles
- whatever furniture

d. Some, any (stressed) :

- some pen
- any apology
- some bottles
- any furniture.

As well as their use with plurals and non-count nouns, the determiners some and any can be used with singular count nouns when they are stressed.

Some is frequently followed by other, e.g. :

- There is 'some book published on the subject last year.
- Any apology will satisfy them.

In familiar style, the stressed some means "extraordinary" :

- That's 'some pen you have there!⁵⁾.

e. No(negative determiner) :

- no honest man
- no birds
- no furniture

5) Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd., 1979, p. 109.-

2. The determiners preceding the plural count nouns and the non-count nouns :

a. Zero article :

- () bottles
- () furniture
- They need () tractors from us
- They need () help from us

b. Some and any (unstressed) :

- some 'pens
- any 'help
- I want some 'apples/ some 'advice
- Have you any 'clothes/ any 'furniture ?

c. enough :

- enough bottles
- enough furniture
- We haven't got enough oranges.
- We haven't got enough rice.

3. The determiners preceding the singular count nouns and the non-count nouns :

a. This and that :

- this bottle / that bottle
- this furniture/ that furniture
- This lecture is very interesting.
- I find that poetry difficult to understand

4. The determiners preceding the plural count nouns :

a. These and those :

- these bottles,
- those bottles
- I dislike all these meetings.
- In those days life was enjoyable.

5. The determiners preceding the singular count nouns :

a. The indefinite articles a(n) :

- a book, a bottle
- an orange, an hour
- Wait a minute!
- Mr. Heyman was considered an excellent music teacher.

The indefinite article a is put before consonants and an before vowels. The two articles must be in fix order with word following each of them. So, we find no :

*Mr. Heyman was considered a excellent music teacher, or

*I never see an huge octopus.

b. every, each :

- every word
- each class

Every and each can be called distributive determiners, because they pick out the members of a set or group singly, rather than look at them all together :

- Every good teacher studies his subject carefully
- She had a child on each side of her.

c. Either, neither :

- either student
- neither pen
- Either solution is a bad one
- Neither method is right

6. The determiners preceding the non-count nouns :

a. Much :

- much wine
- We don't have much news of him.

In addition to determiners, there is a large number of the closed class of words that occur before the head of the noun phrase. All those words occur in a fix order with respect to each other. For example :

- all his children
- his three children
- all his three children

We can say that 'all' must precede 'his', in turn, must precede three. In short, these words will be ungrammatical, unmeaningful, if they are put in unfixed order without respect to each other :

- * his all three children
- * three all his children
- * three his all children

Consequently, it is useful to categorize the determiners into three categories, i.e.:

1. Predeterminers

2. Central determiners

3. Postdeterminers.

In preceding the noun-phrase head, the most important category is that of central determiners, including articles. These may be preceded by predeterminers and followed by postdeterminers. The following table can give a clear distinction⁶⁾ :

The Determiners :

| <u>Predeterminers</u> | <u>Cent.Determiners</u> | <u>Postdeterminers</u> |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| a. all, both, half | a. Articles : the, a(n). | a. Cardinal numbers : one, two, three, etc. |
| b. double, twice, three times, etc. | b. Demonstratives : this, that, these, and those. | b. Ordinal numbers : first, second, third, etc. |
| c. many(a), such (a), what(a) | c. Possessives : my, your, his, etc. and possessive genitives. | c. Quantifiers : many, few, fewer, fewest, little, less, least, several, more, most, etc. |
| d. one-third, two-fifths, etc. | d. Quantifiers : some, any, no, every, each, either, neither, enough, much. | d. General Ordinals : next, last, (an) other. |
| | e. Wh-determiners : what(ever), whose, which(ever), etc. | |

6). Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd, London, p.226.

The determiners in the table above should not be interpreted as implying that there are no restrictions on the selection of items from each of the columns. The choice of a given item from one column may impose certain restrictions on the selection of items from other columns. It is obvious, for example, that the choice of many as predeterminer necessitates the choice of the indefinite article which must be followed by a singular noun head. Similarly, the word own as postmodifier must be preceded by a genitive or a possessive pronoun.

Each of the three types of determiners is described as follow :

1. Predeterminers

The predeterminers always occur before the central determiners of the noun phrase. There are four classes of predeterminers :

a. All, both, half :

All goes with plural count nouns or mass nouns :

- all these cans
- all this rice
- all these expensive school uniforms, etc.

Both goes with plural count nouns only :

- both my sisters
- both his last two newspaper articles.
- Both (the) books were out of the library.

Half goes with singular or plural count nouns or mass nouns :

- half an hour
- half the plums
- half this cheese
- half Britain's natural resources.

All the.... occasionally occurs with a singular count noun, but the whole ... or all of the.... is preferable :

- All of the town was destroyed by fire.
- The whole town was destroyed by fire.

The predeterminers all, both, half occur before articles, possessive, or demonstratives. Since they are themselves quantifiers they cannot occur with other determiners denoting quantity : every, either, neither, some, each, ~~some~~, any, no, enough.

b. Double, twice, three times, etc :

The predeterminers double, twice, three times, etc, can occur with singular and plural count nouns or mass nouns denoting amount, degree, etc, e.g. :

Double :

- double Peter's salary
- double these high amounts
- They want at least double their salaries.

Twice

- twice his energy

- twice these sums
- I wish he had twice his strength

Three times, etc :

- three times Britain's natural resources
- four times his wealth
- The alternative plan would cost three times this amount.

The predeterminers once, twice, three times, etc, can occur with a, every, each, and per, to form frequency adverbials, for example :

- once a week
- twice every month.
- three times each month
- four times per year, etc.

c. Many(a), what(a), such(a) :

Many, what and such as predeterminers occur before the indefinite article with singular count nouns and mass nouns.

Many :

- many a time
- many an ambitious student⁷⁾.

What :

- what a pity!
- what a nuisance!

⁷⁾ Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd., 1979, p. 109.-

- what a beautiful day!

Such :

- such a nuisance

- such a disgrace

- such a beautiful day

d. One-third, two fifths, etc

The fractions one-third, two-fifths, three-quarters, etc, can also be followed by central determiners and have the alternative of-construction :

- one-third (of) the time

- two-fifths (of) the possession

- three-quarters (of) the park

2. Central determiners :

The central determiners occur between the pre-determiners and the postdeterminers of the noun phrase. Central determiners, such as : the definite and indefinite articles, demonstrative and possessive pronouns, and possessive genitive are preceded by predeterminer items and followed by cardinal and ordinal numerals and the words last, next, and most of the other postdeterminer items. There are five classes of central determiners, i.e. :

a. Articles :

The definite article the

- double the amount

- all the four chapter

- half the plums

The indefinite article a(n) :

- half an hour
- half a minute
- such a beautiful day, etc.

b. Demonstrative pronouns :

This :

- all this rice
- half this cheese
- this last question

That :

- all that type of poetry
- that last meeting

As central determiners, this is more applicable than that, for the former can be stated as near and the last, distant reference.

These :

- both these books
- these few exceptions
- all these meetings

Those :

- all those books
- both those girls
- those two cases

c. Possessive pronouns and possessive genitive :

Possessive pronouns :

- both his last two newspaper articles
- my last questions

- his many grievances
- our next attempt

Possessive genitive :

- Jennifer's third baby
- all Peter's clothes
- all the girl's new dress, etc.

d. Quantifiers : some, any, no, every, each, either,
neither, enough, much

These quantifiers cannot, as a rule, be preceded by predeterminers but most of them can be simply followed by postdeterminer items,⁸⁾ such as :

Some :

- some other Japanese drawings
- some more sugar please !
- some other solution

Any :

- any more onions, please!
- any other solution
- any more books

No :

- no other problems
- no more honest man
- no other chance

Every :

- every other week
- every other day

8). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p. 107.-

Each :

- each third sentence
- each other side

Either :

- either case
- either solution.

Neither:

- neither method
- neither side

Enough :

- enough intelligent students
- enough good books

As determiner, enough may have either pre-or post-nominal position⁹⁾, such as follow :

- Have you got enough food ?
- Have you got food enough ?

Much :

- much useful information
- much more money

As determiners denoting quantity, every, either, neither, enough, and much are rarely in fixed order with either predeterminers or postdeterminers. They mostly stand in fixed order with the heads.

9). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p. 220-221.-

c. Wh-determiners : what(ever), which(ever), whose,
whoever

What(ever) :

- what little money (he had).
- whatever few friends(he had).
- what friends

Which(ever):

- which unversity
- whichever candidate you like best
- which maney.

Whose :

- whose money
- whose gloves
- whose book

Whoever

- whoever candidates(let me approve of).
- whoever informans (you have)

In general, central determiner items are mutually exclusive, so that the following noun phrases are by no means acceptable¹⁰⁾:

- *the my brother
- *John's these essays
- *this each case
- *my any books

10). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p.107.-

In addition, an exception is the combination of every with a possessive , like :

- his every wish
- John's every word
- whose every hope

3. Postdeterminers

Postdeterminers follow any central determiners but come before premodifiers. There are four classes of determiners function as postdeterminers, ie :

a. Cardinal numerals : one, two ,three, etc.:

Apart from one, which can of course occur only with singular count nouns, all cardinal numerals occur only with plural count nouns :

- the one big stick policy.
- his two boy-friends
- those three brothers
- all his six children
- All the ten sisters are nurse, etc.

b. Ordinal numerals :

The ordinal numerals occur only with count nouns and are usually preceded by the definite article, e.g. :

- the first man to conquer The Everest.
- the second dramatic step.
- the fourth day, etc.

The ordinal numerals usually precede any cardinal numbers in the plural noun-phrase heads, and vice

versa, for example :

- the first three planes from America.
- the first two pages
- He won three first prizes, etc

Except first, the ordinal numerals (second, third, fourth, etc), which cannot be followed by any quantifiers, cannot precede the cardinal numerals¹¹⁾.

c. Quantifiers : many, more, most, few, fewer, fewest, little, less, least, several

1. Many, few, fewer, fewest, and several, occur only with plural count nouns :

- His many friends never deserted him.
- half his many books
- her many grievance
- a few words
- what few friends
- these fewer exception
- what fewest workers
- several cars
- several books, etc

Several is rarely preceded by a determiner¹²⁾.

2. Little occurs only with mass nouns :

- We 've a little time before the train comes in.
- What little money he had.

11). Randolph Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, J. Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p. 143.-

12). Ibid, p. 220.-

3. The comparative determiners more, most occur with plural count nouns and mass nouns, whereas less, least usually only with mass nouns :

- Some more tea, please.
- any more books
- some more sugar
- the most mistakes
- his most chances to escape
- what less noise
- what less ink
- the least ink, etc.

d. General ordinals : next, last, other, only occur with count nouns and can either precede or follow the ordinal numerals :

Next :

- our next attempt
- His next two books are novels.
- His two next books are novels (less common).

Last :

- this last question
- His last two books were novels.
- His two last books were novels (less common).

Other :

- Jim's other car
- any other solution
- every other week

- The other three passenger were men
 - There were three other passengers on the bus
- Another can be thought of as a combination of two determiners an + other¹³⁾ :
- He has written another novel
 - He has written another two novels
 - He has written two other novels

In comparison with central determiners, not all postdeterminer items are mutually exclusive, such as follow¹⁴⁾ :

- one more drink
- little more news
- many more accidents
- few other people
- little other information
- many other problem
- the next few years, etc.



The status of the item such is problematic. It may be looked as a predeterminer item when followed by the indefinite article. However, it may also be classed as a postdeterminer item, since it may be preceded by some central determiner items and co-occurs with some postdeterminer items¹⁵⁾. For example :

 13). Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1975, p. 229.

14). Flor Aarts, Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982, p.107.

15). Ibid, p.108.-

- any such questions
- no such nonsense
- some such concept
- few such candidates
- two such blunders
- many such incidents, etc.

From this chapter and the two previous chapters, it is quite obvious that every component of a noun phrase has its own uniqueness but in forming a noun phrase, they occur in fixed order with respect to each other. The conclusion to draw here is that in order to understand the English noun phrase, one must be syntactically and semantically familiar with the structural system of the occurrences of the words, phrases or clauses which form the noun phrase itself. In short, it is important here, according to Fries, that we should not have "habits concerning items as items", but "habits concerning an ordered system of structural patterns"¹⁶⁾.

In the following chapter, we are going to deal with the realization of noun phrases within the context of sentence in majority and other phrases in minority.

¹⁶⁾ C.C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945, p.47.

Chapter VI

THE REALIZATION OF NOUN PHRASES

As it is said in chapter I, the noun phrases are largely and automatically used in the sentences. Except the term predicate, there are almost no parts of the sentences realized without the noun phrases, either simple or complex ones. Besides, the noun phrases can also act as parts of other phrases. As Aarts says that the term noun phrase--as a constituent that plays a role in larger structure and as linguistic unit in its own right-- can function as immediate constituent of a sentence and as immediate constituent of other phrases¹⁾

Based on this fact, we can distinguish the realization of the noun phrases (simple and complex noun phrases), as follow :

A. The realization of noun phrases in the sentence :

According to their function in the sentence, since the sentence is actually regarded as the largest unit of syntactic description, the noun phrases can be realized as follow :

1. Subject :

The noun phrases range in complexity from simple items like nouns and pronouns to more complex structure. For example :

1). F.G.A.M. Aarts, On the Distribution of noun phrase types in English Clause Structure, *Lingua* 26, 1971, p. 282 - 283.-

a. Simple noun phrases :

- His wife failed her driving-test.
- The new addition will be available in August.
- Tin's sister behaved hardly less foolishly.
- Blood is thicker than water
- The president freed prominent insurgents.

b. More complex noun phrases :

- All these new bungalows were bought by foreigners.
- The last three houses on the right-hand side of the street are going to be pulled down.
- The girl you were talking to is my sister.
- The book that John wrote about the political situation in Zambia is selling best.
- Botha's commitment to cutting back the tight security measures that have seriously polarized his country seemed even less assured.
- The Filipinos living in the United States, Europe and elsewhere out of fear of arrest at home for political reasons could now come back.
- Aquino's political challenges may take a back seat to Economics this week.

According to Aarts, the noun phrases function as subject are the highest in frequency than the other parts of the sentence²⁾.

2). Ibid, p.284.

2. Subject complement :

The function subject is associated with a constituent which complements the verb and is related to the subject of the sentence. This relationship is such that what is expressed by the subject complement constituent is predicated of the subject. This can be done directly, where we have a copula verb linking the subject and the subject complement. This relationship can also be expressed without an explicit verb (copula). The subject complement constituent usually follows the verb, but cannot be passivized. The subject complement can be realized by noun phrases, for example :

a. Simple noun phrases :

- Your boss is a nice fellow
- The room is mine
- Martin will make a good husband
- Her husband died a catholic.
- Your proposal seems a good solution.
- The President's death will forever remain a mystery.
- She was a pretty nurse.
- My daughter is a nurse.

b. More complex noun phrases :

- When did he become The Archbishop of Canterbury?
- Acapulco is the best place to spend a holiday.
- The girl is now a student of a large university.

- Hungary is in many ways the mirror opposite of Rumania
- The vast area taken by the U.S. in that war was long considered Mexico's lost provinces.

The subject complement can also be realized by a noun phrase which functions as the object complement in the passive sentence :

- Newton was elected President of the Royal Society.
- Who was appointed umpire of this game ?
- The young prince was crowned king by the Archibishop.
- The victim was identified as the son of "Lurah".
- This behaviour might be described as a symton of mental illness.
- Both rats and mice are called rodents, etc.

Some grammarians called this function as subjective complement or subject attribute. Susan Emolyn Harman defined the so-called subjective complement as a noun or an adjective or the equivalent of either which completes the predicate and refers to the subject³⁾.

3. Direct object

As we know, the function direct object may be said as a single complement in a sentence if it fol-

 3). Susan Emolyn Harman, Descriptive English Grammar, Prentice-Hall, Inc, Engewood Cliffs, N.J., 1950, p. 232.-

lows immediately after the predicate which can occur as a subject in a passive sentence. In accordance with the realization of the noun phrase, it has no difference with the structure of noun phrase realizing the subject. The direct object can be realized by either simple noun phrases or complex ones. For example :

a. Simple noun phrases :

- I suddenly recognized the postman.
- Whom has John been ringing up ?
- The driver of the ambulance couldn't see anything ahead.
- The Senate has discussed this issue.
- The Police are investigating that latest case.
- All the students should look up these words.
- A few years later he tried to seize the north Honduras.

b. More complex noun phrases :

- At last they are publishing Professor Smith's course in Linguistics that he gave at Harvard two years ago.
- They have now finish the twenty-storey hotel near the supermarket on the corner of Painswick Road..
- In Manila, the new government found other traces of ill-gotten gains.
- Last week, a New York Judge issued a temporary restraining order to prevent the sales of five

properties allegedly owned by Marcos.

- Our President is fostering a plan that he hopes will be a legacy of his administration.
- He condemned to death most of the peasants who had taken part in the rebellion.
- He had proved wrong the forecasts made by the country's leading economic experts, etc.

4. Indirect object

If the verb phrase is followed by two complements both of which can become the subject of a passive sentence, then the first of these two complements is the indirect object. An indirect object always precedes the direct object. Another characteristic is that it usually tells to whom or for whom the direct object is intended. The function indirect objects are normally and commonly realized by noun phrases, either the simple ones or the complex ones.

For example :

a. Simple noun phrases :

- We gave his daughter a prize.
- The firm offers Jim a job.
- The University granted Professor Harvey leave of absence.
- The IRA send the British ambassador a letter bomb in his birthday.
- He showed his friend a stamp collection, etc.

b. More Complex noun phrases :

- The security guards gave everyone who entered the bank a penetrating look.
- I bought Mabel, who is practicing a ballet dancing for her first show, a new dress last night.
- We offer the tall man from Venice a room to stay for a night.
- The government must give the poor people living in the street a chance to change their lives:
Transmigration.
- The teacher taught the students from low economic status a way of making furniture from bamboo, etc.

5. Benefactive Object

As far as its position in the sentence is concerned, the constituent functioning as benefactive object resembles the indirect object. It immediately precedes the direct object. The criterion in distinguishing the benefactive object from the indirect object is that the benefactive object cannot, as a rule, become the subject of a passive sentence.

Compare :

a. The indirect Object :

- Jim gave his wife a yellow flower
- His wife was given a yellow flower by Jim.

b. The benefactive Object :

- Agatha knitted her husband a yellow pullover
- * Her husband was knitted a yellow pullover by her.

Also the noun phrases functioning as benefactive objects can be distinguished with the indirect objects, since they can be replaced by a prepositional phrase introduced by for. For example compare :

a. The indirect object :

- I gave Mary a present.
- I gave a present to Mary

b. The benefactive Object.

- I bought Mary a book.
- I bought a book for Mary

Like the indirect object, the benefactive object is usually realized by a noun phrase :

a. Simple noun phrases :

- After his retirement he bought his daughter a villa in the country.
- He made himself a cup of tea.
- Fetch me a paper, will you, John ?
- We'll get Jimmy a new pair of shoes tomorrow.
- I buy my girl friend a new dress.

b. More complex noun phrases :

- Mary is bound to cook you in your birthday party a very good meal.
- I must buy my husband, who has just come out of the prison, a beautiful shirt.
- Reagan has paid Gaddafi for his state-sponsorship terrorism a very good lesson of violence.

- My father will buy anyone who win the match a bottle of beer.
- Have you save Albert who is out looking for our equipments his meal ?

6. Object complement

If the verb phrase of a sentence is followed by two complements where the first complement is the direct object and followed by the second complement that completes the action expressed in the verb and refers to the direct object, the second complement is called object complement.

The noun phrases can function as object complements, i.e. :

a. Simple noun phrases :

- He made her career a success.
- They elect him President.
- The witness called the accused a murderer.
- Chelsea appointed him her manager.
- They called Charles a monkey
- The Council made Michael King.
- Every consider your neighbour a fool

b. More complex noun phrases :

- They appointed Mr.Sahetapi umpire of the game.
- When did the club make this a condition for membership.
- Ronald Reagan appointed him his campaign manager

of his second term candidacy.

- The Board consider this a very grave error of judgment.
- I consider John the only man that can do this job very properly.

In "A Grammar of Contemporary English", Randolph Quirk ~~cs.~~ called ~~it~~ the noun phrase complement after the object in complex transitive complementation⁴⁾.

In addition, after certain verbs, the noun phrase functioning as object complement is commonly introduced by as and for. These verbs are :

accept ... as
 acknowledge ... as
 class ... as
 characterize ... as
 consider ... as
 define ... as
 describe ... as
 intend ... as
 interpret ... as
 identify ... as
 know ... as
 mistake ... for

4). Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Limited, London, 1972, p. 858.-

recognize ... as
 regard ... as
 take ... as/for
 treat ... as
 use ... as, etc.

For example :

- When I said this, he took it as an insult.
- Sorry, I mistook you for my wife.
- The psychiatrists describe this behaviour as a symptom of mental illness.
- The Police identified the victim as the son of Lurah.
- All the critics regard his latest novel as the best he had ever written.
- Do you take me for a fool ?

7. Predicate complement

The term predicate complement as a sentence function could be used with reference to all those constituents that obligatorily complement the verb. However, since they are preceded by verbs that cannot be naturally passivized, e.g. cost and resemble, or if they can, they do not preserve their meaning, e.g. contain, and take. They are not direct objects but predicate complements. The predicate complement can be realized by a noun phrase, though they are not so large.

For example :

- His house in Hampstead must have cost thousands of pounds.
- The boy resembles his father.
- That tin contains tobacco.
- The introduction of the metric system has taken a lot of time.
- Does this box contain sugar from Cuba ?
- His plans lack wisdom
- The journey will take two hours.
- He is always acting the fool.

8. Adverbial

The function adverbial in the sentence is less commonly realized by noun phrases. Their position in a sentence is generally optional (it may be added to or removed from a sentence without affecting its acceptability) and mobile (the capacity of occurring in more than one position in the clause).

We can distinguish the noun phrases function as adverbials, such as follow :

a. Time adjunct.

The noun phrases can function as an adjunct denoting time. For example :

- I saw him last Thursday.
- I'll mention it next time I see you.
- This year, plums are more plentiful than in any year I can remember.

- The moment he entered, I tell him the news
- We met him that day.
- The appointment was made a month ago.
- I was in New York last year before the first snow fell.
- They do it a very short time, etc

In addition, the preposition "for" is often omitted in the noun phrase indicating duration, e.g. :

- We stayed there (for) three months.
- The snowy weather lasted (for) the whole time we were there.
- (For) a lot of time we just lay on the beach.

However, in some cases, the omission is impossible for the phrases are actually prepositional phrases as time adjuncts :

- I haven't spoken to him for three months
- For 600 years, the cross lay unnoticed.

The omission of other prepositions are optional, like :

- We met (on) the following day.
- The meeting will take place (on) the next day
- I firstly met her (in) the previous Spring.

The noun phrases most commonly function as time frequency adjuncts. For example :

- I shall be in my office every other day.
- Each Summer I spend my vacation in Bermuda.
- Come here twice a week.

- I visit England three times a year.
- They promise her a party every Saturday night.
- On the average, I see them once every three weeks.
- Guided tours around the museum are twice a day.
- Interviews are every two hours, etc.

b. Place Adjunct

A few noun phrases can function as place adjuncts denoting position and direction, e.g. :

- He lives a long way from here.
- The house is only a short distance away.
- I had to come a long way for this interview, Sir!
- They have moved a fair distance from us.
- They must heard us quarrel next door.

These include noun phrases of measurement :

- He is ten miles from here.
- They stood two feet from us.
- He throws it ten yards away.

c. Manner Adjunct

The function manner adjunct is less commonly realized by noun phrase, e.g. :

- She cooks chicken the way I like it
- Why don't you look at it the way we do.
- Nixon spoke Johnson-style at the press conference.
- She dances the same way as I do.
- She moves the same manner as the snake does.
- They play the game a different way, etc.

d. Means adjunct

Some noun phrases rarely function as means adjuncts. We consider them related to prepositional phrases. For example :

- He send it (by) air mail.
- Fly (with) Air French means paradise.
- He travelled to Washington (by) first class, etc.

e. Minimizer of the downtoner adjunct :

Downtoners have a lowering effect on the force of the verb and many of them scale gradable verbs. One of its four deriving groups, minimizers can be less-commonly realized by noun phrases, such as follow :

- I don't like his attitude a bit.
- I didn't sleep a wink last night.
- I don't owe you a thing.
- I don't care a damn whether we win or lose, etc.

In addition, for the sake of emphasis, most of the noun phrases functioning as the complement types can generally be shifted to the sentence-initial position.

They are :

1. Direct object :

- This book I do not understand.
- The circus I have never seen.
- The children our neighbours are looking after.

2. Subject complement :

- A pretty nurse she was.
- A nice fellow your boss is.
- A rich gentleman he certainly wasn't

3. Object Complement :

- A liar they have called him.
- A monkey they called Charles.
- A fool you consider my husband.

4. Predicate complement :

- His father he doesn't resemble.
- Tobacco this tin contains.
- Two hours the Journey will take.

From the above sentence functions realized by noun phrases, it is proved that, with the exception of the predicate function, all the constituents of the sentence can be realized by noun phrases.

B. The realization of noun phrases in other phrases

In English, we commonly distinguish five kinds of phrases, namely :

1. The noun phrases
2. The adjective phrases
3. The adverb phrases
4. The verb phrases
5. The prepositional phrases.

Within these phrases, except the verb phrases, the noun phrases can function as constituents in such

phrases. In comparison with the realization of noun phrases, however, the noun phrases here are occasionally found to perform certain phrase-internal functions, which are usually realized by other constituents.

In the next following phrases, the noun phrases can function as the phrase-internal function :

1. Noun phrase

Sometimes a noun phrase is found within another noun phrase. As it is shown in the previous chapter, the noun phrase follows the head of that phrase in a function resembling that of postmodifier.

For example :

- a city the size of Amsterdam
- an apparatus the size of a washing-machine.
- two children your age.
- a car the colour of red cabbage.

2. Adverb phrase

In adverb phrases indicating measure of time, space, weight, etc., noun phrases may function as premodifiers.

For example :

- years ago
- some months earlier
- two years previously
- several miles faster

- a week later

What makes the above examples adverb phrases with premodifying noun phrases, rather than noun phrases with the adverbs as postmodifiers, is the fact that in each of the whole phrase can be replaced by the adverbs themselves. Compare the following examples :

- They had moved two months earlier.
- They had moved earlier.
- * They had moved two months.
- I'll see you a week later.
- I'll see you later.
- * I'll see you a week.

In short, noun phrases in the adverb phrases do not function as the dominant members (heads), but the premodifiers of the adverb heads.

3. Adjective phrase

In adjective phrases denoting measure of time, space, weight, etc, noun phrases may function as premodifiers.

For example :

- a yard long
- one year old
- two pounds heavier
- four fathom deep
- two fingers thick
- six metres high, etc.

Just like the noun phrases in the adverb phrases above, the premodifying noun phrases in the adjective phrases are not dominant members (heads) of the phrases, because the whole phrases can be replaced by adjectives, while the noun phrases can not replace the phrases. Compare the following examples :

- This box is two pounds heavier than that one.
- This box is heavier than that one.
- * This box is two pounds than that one.
- My book is two fingers thick.
- My book is thick.
- * My book is two fingers.

So, it proves to be the adjective phrases with premodifying noun phrases rather than the noun phrases with postmodifying adjectives.

4. Prepositional phrase .

The noun phrase may function as a prepositional complement in a prepositional phrases It is very common in English, for example :

- There will be 1400 delegates at the conference.
- Wait for me at the bus-stop!.
- Their wedding will be in late June.
- They argued about the change of oil prices.
- Roach's lawyers appealed his death sentence on the grounds that the teenage killer was mentally retard-
ed.

The noun phrases denoting time and distance may also be used in premodification to prepositional phrases, for example :

- He lives two miles down the road
- A year after his death, she married again.
- Two hours before his annual arrival, the traffic became standstill.
- They stood three yards behind me
- She moved to another town a week after the death of her husband, etc.

In the above-mentioned examples, we are dealing with prepositional phrases premodified by noun phrases rather than with the noun phrases postmodified by prepositional phrases. It is apparent from the fact that the whole constituent can be replaced by a prepositional rather than a noun phrase. For example :

- He lives two miles down the road.
- He lives down the road.
- * He lives two miles.
- They stood three yards behind me.
- They stood behind me.
- * They stood three yards.

The following example is the noun phrase postmodified by prepositional phrase :

- The right man for the job is John.
- The right man is John.
- * For the job is John.

Chapter VII

THE LEARNING AND TEACHING ASPECTS OF ENGLISH NOUN PHRASES TO THE INDONESIAN STUDENTS

So far, we have just talked about the structures and the realization of English noun phrases in the sentences. In other words, we just talked about the grammatical aspect of the English noun phrases.

As it is said in chapter I, the second aim of this thesis is that by analyzing the English noun phrases, particularly in association with the students' difficulties in learning them, some useful suggestions can be set up for the teacher of English who is trying to minimize the students' difficulties and to create the students' fresh condition of learning the English noun phrases practically, fluently and correctly.

Based on this aim, what the writer attempts to do in this chapter is to try to expose and to minimize the students' difficulties in learning the English noun phrases as a basis to reconsider the learning and teaching aspects of English in general and the English noun phrases in particular. So, the chapter is divided into three parts, i.e. :

- A. The difficulties of the students in learning English noun phrases.
- B. The possible solutions to the problems: the approach and technique of teaching English noun phrases.
- C. Personal suggestion to the teachers of English.

A. The difficulties of the students in learning the English noun phrases

There are several ways of getting the students' difficulties in learning English. One of them is by examining and analyzing the students' errors they have made in their performances in learning and using the language. Moreover, we can also assume that the error analysis does not only reveal the students' difficulties in learning the language, but more than that, i.e. : the learning and the teaching aspects of the language in general. As Corder says that studying the student errors also has immediate practical applications for foreign language teachers : errors provide feedback; they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques, and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. They enable him to decide whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on¹⁾.

Thus, in revealing the students' difficulties in learning English noun phrases, the writer tries to collect some errors of English noun phrases from :

1). S. Pit Corder, Introducing to Applied Linguistics, Hammondsworth, Great Britain, Penquin, 1973, p. 265.-

1. the diagnostic test given to the third year students of SMA GAMA, to whom the writer teaches English, and
2. some compositions and book reports written by the first year students from dipl. programme and the S1 programme of English Department of IKIP SANATA DHARMA.

The diagnostic test is given to the third year students of SMA in order to know their control on the syntactic structures of English noun phrases and the possible interferences of the students' mother tongue to the target language. The writer takes them as the object of the test because they are hoped to be the indicator of both the progress and the failure in learning English noun phrases.

In addition to the diagnostic test, the writer tries to collect some errors made by the first year students of from the dipl. programme and S1 programme of English Department of IKIP SANATA BHARMA. In comparison with the diagnostic test, this error collection is more representative.

However, not all the students' errors will, of course, be discussed here, but only the errors which are regarded significant and often made by the students in learning English noun phrases

Although, in language learning, errors should not be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the stra-

ategies that the learners use, the amount of research and speculation about the learners' approximative systems, on the other hand, suggest that some factors may influence the students in learning English, particularly the English noun phrases.

The first factor is language transfer²⁾. That is, in analyzing the errors we have to compare the linguistic systems of the mother tongue and the target language. Since there are no languages alike, some sentences in the target language may be regarded as deviant sentences exhibiting interferences from the mother tongue.

The second factor is intralingual interference³⁾. The errors made by the students are regarded as deviant sentences caused by the generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. They may be caused by overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction, incomplete application of rules and semantic errors.

The two factors above are often called transfer of training, that is, previous learning may influence later learning⁴⁾.

Based on these two factors, we are going to reveal the students' errors in learning English noun phrases :

2). Jack C. Richards, Error Analysis : Source, Cause and Significance, Longman Group Limited, London, 1974, p.5.-

3). Ibid, p.6.-

4). Ibid, p.6.-



Here, some errors which are made by the students in learning the English noun phrases and their causes or sources :

1. The errors of modifiers of the noun phrases :

a. Adjectives preceding the noun heads :

- a clever boy
- a good building
- . naughty students

Here, the adjective that modifies the noun head comes before noun, or premodifying adjective.

However, in expressing the same ideas, the student often--and this is most frequent--arranges the words after the noun heads, such as :

- * a boy clever
- * a building good
- * students naughty

From the context of sentence, we find :

- * The bridegroom brought flowers beautiful
- * I studied some subject simple
- * Saturday was a day pleasant

The deviant phrases may be caused by the pattern D.M. (Diterangkan-Menerangkan) in Indonesian noun phrases. That is, the words that modify come after the words that are modified. Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana in his book "Tata Bahasa Baru Bahasa Indonesia says :

"Tentang suku kata Bahasa Indonesia mempunyai aturan yang mudah sekali, yaitu : baik dalam kata majemuk maupun dalam kalimat, segala sesuatu yang menerangkan selalu terletak dibelakang yang diterangkan" ⁵⁾.

Alisyahbana traditionally divides the modification into a. "yang diterangkan" (head) and b. "yang menerangkan" (modifier). "Yang diterangkan" always precedes "yang menerangkan". There appears to be what is called a D.M. rule in Indonesian and this might be the cause of the errors above.

- seorang anak laki-laki yang pandai.
- sebuah bangunan yang bagus.
- murid-murid yang nakal.

b. Adjectives following the noun heads (postmodifier)

There are only certain patterns that make the students confused :

The pattern of adjectives expressing measurements.

- well ten metres deep
- a string five metres long
- a wall five metres high, etc.

The students often get difficulties in translating the phrases because they often think that the head word must be put at the end of phrases, as

English adjectives are commonly arranged.

5). Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana, Tata Bahasa Baru Bahasa Indonesia I, Penerbit Dian Rakyat, 1978, hal. 33.

The pattern of adverbs expressing place :

- the ceiling above
- the room below

The student may interpret the **above** phrases as follows :

- langit-langit itu(ada) di atas.
- ruang tersebut(ada)di bawah.

The wrong interpretation is caused by the Indonesian pattern, that is, the D.M. pattern.

c. Errors of the adjectives in comparison form as the premodifiers

* Although this is about rare, we still find this kind of errors made by the students as a result of minimal exposures from the teacher, or the cause of overgeneralization of the rules :

- * Saturday was the pleasantest day
- *The popularer man than my father.
- * ...the goodest house in my village.

d. Errors of nouns preceding the noun heads

The difficulty of nouns functioning as premodifiers is the same as that of the adjectives : the students often put the nouns after the noun heads :

- English teacher -- * teacher English.
- can opener -- * opener can

The deviant construction are caused by the internal pattern of Indonesian, in which the words that

modify are put after the words that are modified.

- guru bahasa Inggris
- pembuka kaleng

Other examples :

- * The boy was saved from intimidation tiger.
- * John is knocking at the door house.

Another problem also appears when the phrases are pluralized. The students often think that the noun which premodifies must be added "s" because the noun that premodifies is more than one, as the following examples :

- * cans openers
- * students books
- * shoes makers

This difficulty is not caused by Indonesian pattern but it is caused by intralingual interference, generalization based on partial exposure to the target language. The students try to derive a rule behind the data to which he has been exposed, and may develop hypotheses that correspond neither to Indonesian nor to English⁶⁾.

The difficulty of the ing- function as noun premodifier may be influenced by the concept of Indonesian, in which the verb as noun modifier (tra-

6). Jack C. Richards, Error Analysis, Longman Group Ltd., 1974, p. 6.-

ditionally called as gerund) does not change its form as we can see in the following example below :

- meja tulis

"Tulis" is a verbal that functions as a noun modifier, but in the students' mind, the word is exactly the same as : "saya menulis"

Further example :

- kursi belajar -- Saya belajar di kursi

- kamar tidur -- Mereka tidur dilantai

Based on this concept and the possible cause of partial exposure of the target language, the students produce the following phrases :

* travel bag

* swim pool

* read book

* wait room

Or :

* bag travelling

* pool swimming

* book reading

* room waiting

- e. Errors of genitives functioning as premodifiers of the noun heads

The errors may occur as a result of the intralingual interferences : the ignorance of the rule

of genitive and also lack of exposure, for example :

- * ... this bracelet is in the body's fish
- * One leg's table is broken
- * The tail's horse ...

The students tend to "experiment" with the genitive form rather than making a simple -of phrase, like :

- ...in the body of the fish
- one leg of table ...
- the tail of horse

f. The wrong choices of adverbs and nouns as premodifiers of noun heads.

- * ... soon we looked for sadly place
- * They were happy too and praised that I was bravely girl.
- * He was quickly person in our campus
- * Roro Jonggrang's body that famous of her beauty face.
- * ... the joke stories that tell their teacher
- * He was an electricity students of UGM ...

These errors may be made as a result of lack of exposures of the function adjective premodifying noun heads.

g. The difficulty of prepositional phrases as premodifiers of noun heads

The prepositional phrases will cause the students confuse if they are placed before the noun heads.

- a wall to wall carpet
- a fly by night scheme

The students can hardly interpret the phrases, since they get difficulty in deciding the head-words because the phrases extend more than one possibility. "a fly by night scheme", for example, has three possibilities of the head-word, (1) fly, (2) night, (3) scheme. It is difficult for the students because in Indonesian, the phrases always put the head at the beginning :

- rencana penerbangan pada waktu malam.

"Rencana" is the head put at the beginning of the phrase.

- h. The difficulty in making the complex noun phrases: the finite and non finite clauses

It is obvious that the students do not run the risk of trying to construct the complex noun phrases using the finite or non-finite clauses as postmodifiers. If they do, their phrase-construction will be regarded as badly-arranged phrases.

For example :

- * Then, we took toys that need.
- * They remember about the joke stories that tell their teacher.

- * ... she also to tell about apples which plant many people there.
- * ... they prepared something which be needed in ceremony.
- * The relation (relatives) who came early stayed in America was glad because ...
- * ... I saw someone looked like my friend.

From the examples above, it can be concluded that in constructing the complex noun phrases, the students are still influenced by the concept of Indonesian noun phrases :

- ... mainan-mainan yang perlu.
- ... cerita-cerita lucu yang menceritakan guru mereka.
- ... seseorang yang kelihatan seperti kawan saya.
- Kerabat yang datang awal (pernah) tinggal di America gembira karena....

In addition, the lack exposures of the complex noun phrases in the previous learning, or over-generalization of the rules, like tenses which do not specifically occur in the non finite clauses, and so forth may cause these errors. As a whole, without any kinds of exposures, the writer thinks there will be no more progress of learning English noun phrases and that of Indonesian noun phrases too.

2. The errors of determiners of the noun phrases :

- a. The errors in using the demonstrative pronoun as determiner of noun phrase.:

The students often use "this" instead of "these" or "that" instead of "those" :

- this book

* this books

- that pen

* that pens

In using the demonstratives, the students are still influenced by Indonesian demonstrative pronouns "ini" and "itu". The two pronouns are used for both singular and plural nouns.

- b. The errors in using "much and "many"

The students still find it difficult to distinguish the proper function of "much" and "many". This is, because the students tend to base these two into Indonesian "banyak", which can occur with every types of nouns :

* much of the children

* many money

* much people

* many water

* much times

- c. The errors in using the interrogative determiners.

- Whose book did you borrow ?

- What magazine are you going to buy ?
- Which girl do you fall in love with ?

The sentences above are often arranged in different way :

- * Whose did you borrow book ?
- * What are you going to buy magazine ?
- * Which do you fall in love with girl ?

This may be caused by a wrong generalization that after "wh-words", modal, be-form or do (does, did) are put, as given below :

- Where will you go ?
- What do you want ?
- When is he going to go abroad ?

d. The errors of Possessive adjectives

Not all possessive adjectives deriving from pronouns are easy for the students. From the writer's experience, some of which make the students confused are "their" and "its". The students often tend to think that "their", coming from pronoun "they", is used for people only, because in Indonesian "mereka" (they) stands for "orang-orang" (people).

The problem in using "its" is that the students think the noun which is added by "s" means more than one. Therefore, the students use "its" for many things and "it" for one thing.

e. The errors in using exclamatory determiners :

- What a day !
- What a shame!
- What a beautiful girl she is !

The students often interpret such sentences as questions because "what" in their minds means "apa". So the sentences will be translated as follows :

- * hari apa (what a day ?)
- * malu apa (what a shame ?)

Or, sometimes they will not translate them because they cannot interpret the meanings of the sentences below:

- what nonsense ! (omong kosong !)
- what dull ! (goblok !).

3. The errors of the heads of noun phrases

The lack of written exposures often makes the students careless in controlling the head in relation with modifiers and determiners. The pluralization process are often out of mind, such as :

- * I had many friend. They are all kindly.
- * When I was six year old ...
- * I studied some simple subject.
- * He successfully passed all his examination.
- * The dress the bride and the bridegroom wear was ...

Besides the lack of practice, particularly in con-

trolling the mistakes, these errors may be caused by language transfer. That is, the Indonesian noun-head of plural noun phrase does not stand plural :

- banyak kawan.
- * banyak kawan-kawan.
- enam tahun umurnya
- * enam tahun-tahun umurnya.
- beberapa pelajaran yang mudah.
- * beberapa pelajaran-pelajaran yang mudah
- semua ujianya
- * semua ujian-ujianya.
- pakaian yang dikenakan pengantin pria dan wanita...
- * pakaian-pakaian yang dikenakan

So, here, the students are influenced by the system of Indonesian noun phrases without realizing that these would be wrong in English.

B. The possible solutions to the problems : the approach and the technique of teaching English noun phrases

From the previous section above, we know that the errors of noun phrases are caused either by language transfer, the influence of the mother tongue, or intra-lingual interference, mutually interfering rules in the target language, lack of exposures of the target language patterns.

In order to prevent or at least to minimize the

possibility of producing these errors, we have to decide first the source or cause of making errors, either it is caused by language transfer or interlingual interferences. We have to know the source or cause because different source or cause will need different strategy. And this includes the approaches and techniques of the teaching English noun phrases available to handle the students' difficulties.

The errors caused by the influence of mother tongue force the teachers to know the grammar of the mother tongue. By knowing the grammar of the mother tongue the teacher are able to compare the different grammatical systems of the two languages. In this case, Indonesian teachers of English, who know the different systems of Indonesian and English, would be the best answer to the problem, rather than native speakers of English, who know nothing about Indonesian. It is believed that if a teacher had a systematic knowledge of the differences between the two languages, he or she could begin developing appropriate instructional techniques and materials that would help the students avoid producing errors⁷⁾.

Also, the socio-cultural aspects of the two languages must be taken into account.

7). James Hendrickson, Error Analysis and Error Correction in Language Teaching, SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Singapore, 1981, p. 2.

As Richards says that there is no room here for the concept of deviancy, since the socio-cultural basis for deviancy does not exist in the foreign language setting⁸⁾

So, in teaching the English noun phrases, the teachers have to teach the Indonesian ones at glance as a comparison. In this way, the students automatically and actively learn the different things by comparing them at the same time, rather than memorizing each other at different time. By doing this, there automatically comes an awareness of learning the grammatical rules of English noun phrases.

However, comparing two different things at the same time often makes the students confused and it may make the learned materials overlapping. To avoid this, we have to give them a lot of exposures and motivations, such as : a lot of translation exercises through dictations, extensive reading at home, etc. In spite of giving them significant practice, it is also important to increase the students' awareness of grasping the various structures of English noun phrases, from simple ones to more complex ones. The writer thinks it is not effective to teach the students a rule of noun phrase and then asking them to memorize it without giving any real practice, because having memorized a lot of rules does not necessarily mean knowing how to apply the rules in real

8). Jack C. Richards, Error Analysis; Source, Cause, and Significance, Longman Group Ltd., 1974, p.88.-

communicative situations. Levine and Statman stress that all a learner needs is not just the rules of syntactic cognitive competence but a course that will increase his awareness of ways in which ideas can be expressed⁹⁾. Therefore, the teacher is forced to find ways to achieve and to realize that need.

In this way, the writer tries to suggest a technique of teaching English noun phrases by using charts.

This chart presentation is aimed to develop the students' awareness in using and recognizing the various structures of English noun phrases. The students training may begin with a guide-chart containing a basic English sentence with simple noun phrases in it which are, then, expanded into more complex ones. This presentation is divided into three phases, as follow :

1. Preparation :

The teacher should prepare the presentation beforehand by selecting the sentences containing complex noun phrases and suitable with the sentence constituents as a model in the guide-chart. These need the teacher's creative thinking and improvisation. A teacher who lacks of reading English or at least minimal proficiency in reading English books or popular magazines will find himself difficult to develop this practice and that means no progress in the part of the students.

 9). Adina Levine and Stella Statman, Syntactic patterning as a key to meaning, Forum XXI no.4, October 1983, p. 11.-

We may begin with the following chart as a guide for the presentation :

1. Guide-chart I : Modifiers

| No.! | Subject | ! | Verb | ! | Complement |
|------|----------------------|---|--------|---|----------------------|
| 1 ! | My brother | ! | bought | ! | a shoe |
| 2 ! | My older brother | ! | bought | ! | a beautiful shoe |
| 3 ! | My older brother, | ! | bought | ! | a beautiful black |
| | ! who has returned, | ! | | ! | shoe. |
| 4 ! | My older brother, | ! | bought | ! | a beautiful black |
| | ! who has returned ! | ! | | ! | shoe, which was |
| | ! from Singapore ! | ! | | ! | made of soft leather |

Exercises :

1. The annual lecture delivered by the Professor interested everybody in the classroom. (The lecture interested everybody 4).
2. The historical change often depends on individual leaders who responsible for the policies involving the lives of many people (Change often depends on leaders 5).
3. The social scientists who are working on educational projects in many different research areas gather interesting information which is obtained by means of questionnaires from participating in this kind of work (Scientists gather information 4).

What we want through the exercises here is not just the grammatical competence and some control

over lexicon because those two are only the vehicles towards the mastery of language. The purpose here is to give kinds of exposures which may lead to the awareness recognizing the syntactic relationships of words in the form of noun phrase and the noun phrases in the form of sentence.

2. Guide-chart II : Determiners

| No.! | Subject | ! | Verb | ! | Complement |
|------|-------------------|---|---------|---|----------------------|
| 1. ! | Womans | ! | went to | ! | different markets |
| 2. ! | Three womans | ! | went to | ! | three different mar- |
| | ! | ! | | ! | kets. |
| 3. ! | The three womans! | ! | went to | ! | the three different |
| | ! | ! | | ! | markets. |
| 4. ! | All the three | ! | went to | ! | the three different |
| | ! womans | ! | | ! | markets. |

Exercises :

1. Both his last two books are all the best-seller of the year(books are best-seller 4).
2. We find such a modern villa on the hill(We find villa 4)
3. Both his parents died in a traffic accident(Parents died in traffic accident 4).
4. Some other Italian officials suggest all the four techniques to defeat Bulgarian football team.(Officials suggest techniques 5).

In preparing the second chart and the exercises, the teacher must know the correct occurrences of pre-determiners, central determiners and postdeterminers very well, so that he will present the exercises without making his students confused.

2. Presentation

In presenting this practice, the inductive approach would be preferable. The teacher first introduces to the students examples of the sentences patterns written in the guide-chart and give a brief explanation of the grammatical structures of the sentences to be learned. After giving the exercises to be practiced according to the teacher's instruction, the students are guided in doing the exercises by writing the blank numbers in the chart, such as the following ones :

1. The annual lecture delivered by the Professor interested everybody in the classroom(The lecture interested everybody. 4).

| No. | Subject | Verb | Complement |
|-----|-----------------------------------|------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | The lecture | interested | everybody |
| 2. | | | |
| | | | |
| 3. | | | |
| | | | |
| 4. | The annual lec- ture delivered | interested | everybody in the classroom |
| | by the Professor | | |

2. The historical change often depends on individual leaders who responsible for the policies involving the lives of many people (Change often depends on leaders 5)

| No.! | Subject | ! | Verb | ! | Complement |
|------|--------------|---|---------------|---|------------------------|
| 1. | Change | ! | often depends | ! | leaders |
| | ! | ! | on | ! | |
| 2. | | ! | | ! | |
| | ! | ! | | ! | |
| 3. | | ! | | ! | |
| | ! | ! | | ! | |
| 4. | | ! | | ! | |
| | ! | ! | | ! | |
| | ! | ! | | ! | |
| 5. | The histori- | ! | often depends | ! | individual leaders |
| | cal change | ! | on | ! | who responsible for |
| | ! | ! | | ! | the policies involving |
| | ! | ! | | ! | the lives of many peo- |
| | ! | ! | | ! | ple |

3. The social scientists who are working on educational projects in many different research areas gather interesting information which is obtained by means of questionnaires from participating in this kind of work (Scientists gather information 4).

| No. | Subject | Verb | Complement |
|-----|--------------------|--------|---------------------------|
| 1. | Scientists | gather | information |
| 2. | | | |
| 3. | | | |
| | | | |
| 4. | Social scientists | gather | interesting information |
| | ! who are working | ! | ! which is obtained by |
| | ! on educational | ! | ! means of questionnaires |
| | ! projects in many | ! | ! from participating in |
| | ! different rese- | ! | ! this kind of work. |
| | ! arch areas | ! | ! |

So, what the student must do is just simple. Guided by the guide-chart, the student is expected to fill the blank number and having an automatic generalization about the grammatical principle they have been working with. The first number is a simplest sentence, which is used for stimulus, and the last number is for the completeness that can be filled by the student only. The most important thing here is that the student has to fill the blank numbers in such a way that we can see the fixed variation of the noun-phrase structures from simple noun phrases till complex ones.

The inductive approach is preferable here because it encourages the students to participate in the class actively. They may say or write sentences using a specific pattern, so that the generalization is

meaningful to them in terms of their previous learning .

This practice is, of course, suitable for the third-year-class presentations of SMA. The writer found it badly presented to either second year students or first year ones. This is because the students are not familiar yet with the complex syntactic structures of the noun phrases and the sentences as well. Third year students, on the other hand, have already been familiar with them in terms of what they have got two years before. In short, third year students would be available for they are the final target of the completeness of the curriculum.

3. Evaluation

The evaluation is the most important phase of this practice. As a result of Inductive approach, the evaluation needs much more time than the previous phase. The evaluation may be done in the class after the students have finished the exercises. The teacher, in this way, asks a student to read his or her work, so that the other students can hear the result and the errors. The teacher, at this time, gives some corrections, if there are any errors in the student's work. And then he may ask another student to read his own work. The teacher's task in the evaluation is to give a short but clear explanation of the wrong syntactic relationship of the words according to grammatical rules and gives

correction. Of course the students' works are not always the same. We can take exercise no. 3 for example.

The student A may fill :

| No. | Subject | Verb | Complement |
|-----|---|--------|---|
| 1. | Scientists | gather | information |
| 2. | Social scientists | gather | interesting information |
| 3. | Social scientists who are working on educational projects | gather | interesting information which is obtained by means of questionnaires. |
| 4. | Social scientist who are working on educational projects in many different research areas | gather | interesting information which is obtained by means of questionnaires from participating in this kind of work. |

The student B may fill :

| No. | Subject | Verb | Complement |
|-----|--|--------|---|
| 1. | Scientists | gather | information. |
| 2. | Scientists who are working on educational projects | gather | information which is obtained by means of questionnaires. |

3. !Social scientist.!gather ! interesting information
 ! who are working ! ! which is obtained by
 ! on educational ! ! means of questinnaires.
 ! projects ! !
- 4 !Social scientists!gather ! interesting information
 ! who are working ! ! which is obtained by
 ! on educational ! ! means of questionaires
 ! projects in many! ! from participating in
 ! different re- ! ! this kind of work.
 ! search areas ! !
-

Sometimes, we find that what is written in the blank number is just the same as the last number. Quite obviously, it is not the teacher's fault or the student's fault. This is the fault of approach. The students have been long accustomed to the deductive approach used by every teacher and they love to be receptive rather than to be creative in learning.

At last, the teacher may ask the class if there are any question or different ideas. He, then, gives correction, particularly the common errors, until everything is already clear.

Another way of evaluating the students works -- if there is not enough time -- is by collecting their works for home correction. In correcting these written exercises, the teacher should use different ink from the students'. Also, the teacher's corrections or comments must be neat and easily readable.

As a whole, this technique is just a vehicle to further self-learning of English noun phrases in the context of sentence. So, if the students are familiar with this type of learning the noun phrases, the teacher may, then, increase the presentation without giving any stimuli. In other words, the students must fill the first number in the chart with the simplest sentence.

In advance to this, the teacher may also increase the presentation materials by giving several sentences containing complex noun phrases as the exercises and the students are instructed to simplify them into the simplest ones.

In addition, the students are supplied with the simplified reading books to read at home and submit the report written in Indonesian as a requirement for final examination.

The way to prevent errors caused by intralingual interference is not so different from that to prevent errors caused by language transfer.

However, here the teachers have to realize that it is more confusing for the students to learn many different new things almost at the same time, quite different from the mother tongue that has been learned since they were children. Because it is sometimes more confusing, the teaching must be variably repeated, until the students are, then, alerted to it. In repeating the material, the teachers should consider the principle of

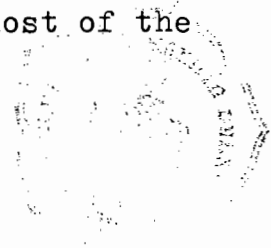
repetition. That is, the repetition must be spaced, controlled and significant¹⁰⁾. The repetition may function here as a comparison with the following materials and of course a lot of exercises should be given to the students in the previous lesson. The repetition is also good for reducing the students' frequent errors, like either pluralization and singularization.

C. Personal suggestion to the teacher of English in SMA

As far as the writer concerns, the teacher of English is still the key figure in the language course. Even in a highly student-centered approach, the teacher may simply encourage the student activity and answer the occasional questions.

Although the teacher's competence of English here in Indonesia is another problem, one thing that the writer wants to stress to is the teacher's attitude towards the teaching of English in general. Our attitude towards the language is, generally, a grammar-oriented attitude. English for us is grammar. For the sake of the objective orientation of the 1975 curriculum, in which every teachers is expected to reach minimal 80 percent of the English materials written in the syllabus, then, the teachers of English are automatically forced to reach the target. Unfortunately, most of the

10). Mimeograph of TEFL.



materials of syllabus deal with grammar. As a result, we do not teach the language as it really is but what we teach is only the cognitive aspect of the language. Thus, when we simply ask the students what they think about English, most of them will abruptly answer that that English is absolutely difficult. And what we do is just to force them to deal with grammar.

We have, therefore, to change our attitude, our old perspective of the teaching of English. We may say that grammar as a vehicle or the core of language is very important, but it is not the most important thing in the language. The most important thing of the language is as it is generally defined : communication. In other words, the teachers have to see the teaching of English from communicative perspective. That is they have to teach English as a way or a tool of communication.

By this perspective, a positive attitude will, then, be essential to the students' success in learning English in general and English noun phrases in particular. The students are able to use English in reading, writing or even actively in speaking. They do not think that English is difficult. In short, they have a self-motivation by themselves to the further learning of English practically after they graduate from senior highschools.

One thing that is also important for the teacher

of English is the teacher's ability to see what is going to change in our present society, particularly in association with the increasing role of English in our society. In this case, the writer thinks it is the teacher's task to give the students motivation of how useful to learn English. English is the key factor in communication in the modern era now. We can see now in our society that English is not just a study, but more than that : a need.

The teacher and the new curriculum

The writer is fully aware that a successful teaching is not dependent on teacher only, but it is also determined by other factors like the students' motivation, intelligence, the educational aspects like curriculum, school condition and so forth.

In this way the new curriculum must also be taken into account. although it is still in the so-called applied-but-experiment curriculum in the senior highschoolls, the 1984 curriculum seems to offer a new change with a new fresh objective to the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. The writer believes that this new curriculum is made in order to answer what is actually needed from English in our society in spite of Bahasa Indonesia. Therefore, in comparison with the 1975 curriculum, the 1984 curriculum might promise a renewal of the teaching and learning

of English as a foreign language.

In the light of this renewal, in which the 1984 curriculum offers the process orientation rather than the goal orientation of the 1975 curriculum, a teacher of English need to renew and to set down his priority based on his perspective to the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language, that English is, in fact, not just a study in our school, but more than that, a need, communicative need in every aspect of life in our modern society.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aarts, Flor and Aarts, Jan, English Syntactic Structures, University of Nijmegen, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982.
- Aarts, F.G.A.M., On Distribution of Noun Phrases Types in English Clause Structure, *Lingua* 26, 1971.
- Alisyahbana, Sutan Takdir, Tata Bahasa Baru Bahasa Indonesia I, Penerbit Dian Rakyat, 1978.
- Corder, S. Pit, Introduction to Applied Linguistics, Hammondsworth, Great Britain, Penguin, 1973.
- Fries, C.C., Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Ann Arbor : University of Michigan Press, 1945.
- Fromkin, Victoria, An Introduction to Language, C.B.S. Publishing, Japan, 1983.
- Harman, Susan Emolyn, Descriptive English Grammar, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1950.
- Hendrickson, James, Error Analysis and Error Correction in Language Teaching, SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Singapore, 1981.
- Hill, Archibald A., Introduction to Linguistic Structures, Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., New York, 1958.
- Jackson, Howard, Analyzing English, Pergamon Institute of English, 1980.
- Leech, Geoffrey and Svartvik, Jan, A Communicative Grammar of English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1975.

- Lehman, Wilfred P., Language An Introduction, The University of Texas, Random House, New York, 1983.
- Levine, Adina and Statman, Stella, Syntactic Patterning as a Key to Meaning, Forum XXI no. 4, October 1983.
- Quirk, Randolph, Greenbaum, Sidney, Leech, Geoffrey, Svartvik, Jan, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972.
- Quirk, Randolph, Greenbaum, Sidney, A University Grammar of English, English Language Book Society and Longman Group Ltd., London, 1982.
- Richards, Jack C., Error Analysis, Longman Group Ltd, London, 1974.
- Rivers, Wilga M., Teaching foreign Language Skills, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London, 1968.
- Simpson, J.M.Y., A First Course in Linguistics, Edinburgh at the University Press, 1979,
- Wardhaugh, Ronald, Introduction to Linguistics, University of Toronto, Mc. Graw-Hill Book Company, Toronto, 1977.
- Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Structure Reference Book I, Jakarta, 1971.
- Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Structure Reference Book II and III, Jakarta, 1971.
- Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Profil Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris Di Sekolah Menengah Umum, Jakarta, 1982.

