

noun MODIFICATIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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by

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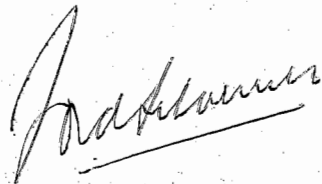
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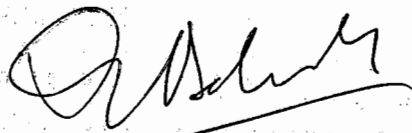
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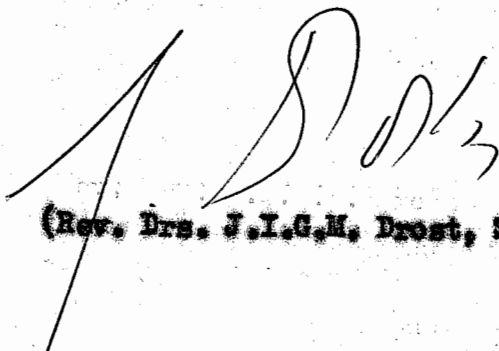
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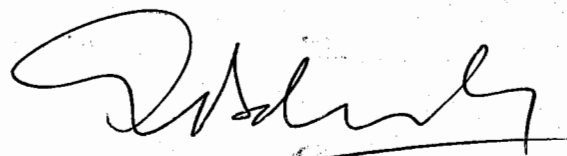


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PREFACE

The purpose of this thesis is to have a study in the various aspects of noun modifications of the English language. This has been felt necessary because, according to the writer, very often, a long sentence, spoken or written, cannot immediately be understood not so much owing to the lack of vocabulary knowledge but especially to the modifications of the basic elements of the sentence. Once we can get the basic elements of the whole sentence, we can already catch the basic meaning of the sentence; the other elements in the sentence are used to illustrate or modify the basic ones. To be able to catch the basic elements, we have to be able to recognize their modifications, and vice versa. One of these elements is a noun, the modifications of which will be discussed in this thesis.

The whole discussion is divided into several chapters, beginning with the understanding of the modification, especially that of noun modifications, and then considering some aspects of the modifications. Based on the consideration of the aspects, the last chapter tries to give an observation of the easier and the more difficult aspects of teaching these modifications to Indonesian students.

The first chapter attempts to make clear what a noun modification structure is, beginning with defining a modifier and a noun, and finally arriving at the definition of a noun modifier. Chapter II deals with the different kinds of noun modifier, while chapter III is concerned with the position and arrangement of these modifiers. Chapter IV gives a discussion of how we would break down and build up constructions of nouns with modifiers according to the IC analysis. It is here we will see the way how to recognize the basic element (which will later be called "Head"). Chapter V shows the stress patterns of constructions of noun modification, while chapter VI tries to discuss the structural meanings of the modification in structures of modification with nouns as Head.

These chapters have not yet covered every aspect of noun modifications. Nevertheless, the writer hopes that the knowledge of these aspects discussed in these chapters can already help to a better understanding of the constructions of noun modification.

The writer would like to express his sincere gratitude, especially to the Reverend F.W.J. de van der Schueren, S.J., M.A., for

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Chapter I. NOUN MODIFIER

The title of this chapter, "noun modifier," is seemingly very simple. However, in actual fact, both terms, namely, "noun" and "modifier," have to be given a deeper consideration. This chapter will therefore first consider both terms separately.

Modifier

Webster's "New Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language" has defined the word "modifier" as follows: "one who or that which modifies; especially, a word, phrase, or clause that limits the meaning of another word, or phrase; as, adjectives and adverbs are modifiers." (The underlining is the writer's) We are primarily concerned with the words underlined, namely, "a word, phrase, or clause that limits the meaning of another word, or phrase; as, adjectives and adverbs are modifiers." The following observations can be made with regard to this definition:

- 1) The definition says: "limits the meaning." It seems that the definition is based on meaning, which is a dangerous supposition to start off from, in modern linguistics. However, it seems at first sight that a modifier does not always limit the meaning. The prepositional phrase in "the book on the table" has the force of a limiting adjective, i.e., it says which book is meant; the prepositional phrase in "a girl with black hair" has more the force of a descriptive adjective than a limiting adjective.
- 2) The second observation is made on the word "the meaning of another word, or phrase." It seems at first sight that not only words and phrases, but clauses can also be modified. The following examples would be illustrative:

- However, he is honest.
- As usual, they came early.
- I eat steak, when I can get it.

3) Adjectives and adverbs are mentioned as examples of modifiers. This is of course true. We shall see however that many more other forms and constructions can also act as modifiers. Some examples would be :

Written invitation

running cat

this example

Besides that, we shall also see that adjectives and adverbs do not always function as modifiers but sometimes are even the words which are modified. Some examples are:

^P
simply awful

very rapidly

4) A final remark on this definition is that the first part of the definition uses tautology: the word "modifier" is defined by the word "modifies." In scientific work, such a matter of defining is obviously unsatisfactory.

Another word often replacing the word "modifier" is "attribute." This is defined as constituent of a subordinative phrase which is not the Head. (L. Bloomfield "Language" p. 195) This definition seems to be more scientific.

If we take the following two sentences,

- 1) The student selected the books.
- 2) The selected books are good.

we find the word "selected" appearing in both examples. "selected the books" in (1) says something about the student, i.e., what he does; "selected" in (2) says something about the books. "selected the books" in (1) is called the "predication." "selected" in (2) is called an "attribute." If we had accepted Webster's definition above, "selected the books" in (1) would have had to be taken as a modifier. This is however commonly not accepted. Only "selected" in (2) is called an "attribute" or "modifier."

It seems that a formal or scientific way of defining a modifier would be as follows: Example (1) was what is called an exocentric construction. Example (2) is an endocentric construction. This means that example (1) is neither a noun nor a verb as "student" or "selected": the resultant phrase or sentence is not the same form class as one of its constituent parts. In sentence (2), the phrase "selected books" is of the same form class as one of its constituent parts, i.e., "books." We could leave the word "selected" away and still have a sentence parallel in construction to the original sentence as "The books are good." If this is the case, and here we note that we are only speaking of nouns, - other classes will be mentioned later - we see that "selected" does not bring about a structural change. If this is the case, "the resultant phrase belongs to the same form class as one of the constituents."

(Bloomfield "Language" p. 195) Then we have a structure of attribution or "modification." That form which is added and does not change the original form class is called an "attribute" or "modifier." To illustrate with a few random examples, we note:

The old man is my uncle.

That man on the right is my uncle.

That man you see there is my uncle.

The underlined words or phrases, which are obviously meaningful, do not however change the basic structure of the original structure.

To illustrate what a modifier and a structure of modification is, at the same time showing that not only nouns can be modified, we mention here the four different kinds of constructions found in English, as listed and illustrated by H. Francis in his book "The Structure of American English" page 292:

1) The Structure of Predication. Examples are:

money talks

soldiers have been killed

snow kept falling

The two components are a subject (money, soldiers, snow) and a predicate (talks, have been killed, kept falling).

2) The Structure of Complementation. Examples are:

speak truth

be careful

love your neighbour

The two components are a verbal element (speak, be, love) and a complement (truth, careful, your neighbour).

3) The Structure of Coordination. Examples are:

pins and needles

hope and pray

neither war nor peace

The structure consists of equivalent grammatical units (pins - needles, war - peace, hope - pray) joined often but not always by a special kind of function word (and, neither nor).

4) The Structure of Modification. Examples are:

hungry people

home town

easily superior

The two components are a Head (people, town, superior) and a modifier (hungry, home, easily).

One last remark to close this section is that in English there are some modifiers which are not optional but must be there. We are thinking here of a certain class of noun modifier called "determiners" or articles, which in many cases must be present to make a construction or sentence correct English. We cannot say "I saw house." We must say "I saw a house." The indefinite article here is not optional. However, we still consider it a modifier like we consider the word "good" a modifier in the constructions "I saw boy" - "I saw a good boy."

Noun

Defining a noun, we have again definitions based on meaning. The old definition defines a noun as: "the name of a living being or lifeless thing" or "the name of a person, place or thing." To determine what a person, place or thing is, one has gone to meaning. Why the word "lightning" is a noun is therefore not clear, as some people would call it "action." The similar problem would arise if we consider the underlined word in:

"I like this green."

Modern Linguistics has therefore based its definition on a more scientific basis, i.e., on form or function. A noun has been defined on syntactical and on morphological characteristics, loose from considerations on meaning.

By syntactical considerations one understands the relation between different kinds of words. There are different forms of words which necessarily go together, can go together, or cannot go together. So one gets a group of words called "nouns" or better "form class I," which pattern with certain other words. The most common patterning here is the patterning of determiners with a certain other word form. This is then called a "noun." Some examples of English determiners would be:

the	that/those	two
a/an	my	many
this/these	its	other

Further explanation about determiners will be given in chapter II.

The word "man," "right," "uncle," "lightning" and "green" in the examples mentioned in this chapter are therefore called "nouns."

By morphological considerations is meant different possibilities given in the word itself. The word "agreement" is then considered a noun because we find the form "agreements", because of the suffix "-ment" which can also be found in it. The plural morpheme "-s" is called an inflectional suffix, "-ment" is called the derivational suffix.

We definitely added the word "plural" to the phrase "inflection -s" above to distinguish it from another kind of "-s" inflection referring to a noun. In the following example, we will see that the "-s" inflection is totally different from the above one.

The king's wife walked.

The word "king's" here is not in its plural form, but in its possessive form. That is why we usually call this inflection the "possessive -s." Therefore, we can determine that a word is a noun when it can have the possessive inflection (apostrophe) -s.

Some other examples would be:

the dog's collar
the students' marks
Keats' poem

As we saw in our examples above, there are nouns identified by certain derivational suffixes added to the verbs. Some examples would be:

argument	= argu(e)	-ment
employee	= employ	-ee
disturbance	= disturb	-ance
teacher	= teach	-er
breakage	= break	-age

There are nouns identified by derivational suffixes added to other nouns. Some examples could be:

gangster	gang	-ster
gangsterism	gangster	-ism
liner	lin(e)	-er
mathematician	mathematic(s)	-ian
violinist	violin	-ist
friendship	friend	-ship
captaincy	captain	-cy

Some nouns can be derived from adjectives by adding certain suffixes to the adjectives. Here are some examples:

hopefulness	hopeful	-ness
convenience	convenient	-ce
consistency	consistent	-cy
facility	facil(e)	-ity
youngster	young	-ster

There are also some nouns which are identified by certain suffixes, though we cannot separate the roots from the suffixes.

Some examples would be:

carpenter, tailor	-er
communism, polytheism	-ism
communist, atheist	-ist
felicity, depravity	-ity

Once we have decided what a noun is on a formal, not on a meaning basis, we can then also find other definite places where a noun is found. Let us see the following examples:

(Cats) hate dogs.
hunting dogs
fat dogs
dogs there

The word "dogs", which is a noun, can occur after the verb "hate,"

after the noun (gerund) "hunting," after the adjective "fat," and before the adverb "there." Probably, we still can have some more positions, but the most obvious one would be before the verb.

We note that there are in English a certain number of forms which seemingly belong to two form classes. The words "iron," "comb," "smoke," "frame," "love," and many more, which can all behave syntactically and morphologically as nouns, can also on similar and parallel considerations, be classified as verbs. The word "green" might also be considered as an adjective. In order to decide in a particular occurrence what the form class of a word is, one must see the environment in which it is used. In one case, "iron" will be a noun, and in another it will be a verb. English has a large number of such words.

A number of words however when written look alike. When pronounced further, a difference is heard. A certain number of nouns have a particular stress pattern. The following forms standing alone cannot be decided to be nouns unless we utter them:

export

import

suspect

imprint

There are two possibilities; they can be either a noun or a verb. When we pronounce them putting the stress on the first syllable, they are nouns, but, if the stress is given to their second syllables, they become verbs. Thus, *export*, *import*, *suspect*, and *imprint* are nouns, while *export*, *import*, *suspect*, and *imprint* are verbs. (The explanation of stress symbols will be discussed later in chapter V.)

If we summarize what we have discussed so far, we can say now that nouns are a class of lexical words marked (1) by their appearance following certain determiners like 'this', 'the', 'my', 'some', 'two'; (2) by their two inflections; (3) by certain derivational suffixes; (4) by their appearance in certain positions; and sometimes (5) by certain superfixes of stress. But we seldom find a noun marked by all these five noun indicators. However, we can find all the first four, as in "The arrangements lasted long." The word "the arrangements" is identi-

fied as noun (1) by the determiner "the," (2) by the plural inflection "-s," (3) by the derivational suffix "-ment," and (4) by the characteristic position immediately before the verb "lasted."

More often, however, only three, two, or even one of the noun markers is present and is sufficient to prevent ambiguity. But for our purpose, one marker is enough to determine a word as a noun. This marker will be the determiner. Thus, we will call the word "wounded" a noun in the construction "the wounded" because it immediately follows the determiner "the."

Some grammarians prefer the term "noun" to the term "substantive," since they say that the latter includes any form used as the subject or the object of a verb or as the object in a prepositional phrase which we usually call 'noun equivalent.' (Paul Roberts "Understanding Grammar" p.29) On the other hand, some other grammarians prefer the term "substantive" for their respective reasons. Nida, for example, belongs to the second group. He says that by substantive is meant a function class of words that pattern with determiners and bounded attributives. (His term "attributive" is fairly the same as our term 'modifier'.) He further says that substantive is to distinguish the class form 'substitute', which may have no bounded attributives. Having seen these two terms, which have their own interpretations, we can draw the conclusion that we are now just being involved in terminology, because, though they are different in term, they approximately mean the same. Therefore, in our discussion, we will always use the term "noun" though it fairly means the same as what is understood by Nida's "substantive".

Noun Modifier

In the beginning of this discussion, we already said that it was only after we knew what a noun and a modifier were we would be able to say what a noun modifier was. After a rather short study, we now can say what a modifier and a noun are. A modifier is the component part in a structure of modification which is not the Head. And, a noun is a word belonging to a class of lexical words marked by their appearance following certain determiners; by their two inflections (plural and possessive inflections); by certain derivational suffixes; by their appearance in certain positions; and sometimes by certain superfixes of stress. It would be worth mentioning, if once again we want to make sure that one marker is sufficient to avoid ambiguity. In this case, a determiner is probably preferable. So, having clarified our ideas about modifiers and nouns, we can now say that a Noun Modifier is the component part which is not the Head in a structure of modification whose Head is a noun.

In the rest of this discussion, whenever we use the term "noun modifier," we will always refer to a structure of modification with noun as Head. Another word for this construction is "noun modification structure." Since we are now already clear about noun modification, we can give a shorter definition. A noun modifier is the component part in a structure of noun modification which is not the Head. This definition is not of course clearer, it is just another way of saying it.

Chapter II. DIFFERENT KINDS OF NOUN MODIFIERS

In our definition of a noun, we said that nouns were a class of lexical words marked by their appearance following certain determiners, by their two inflections, by certain derivational suffixes, by their appearance in certain positions, and sometimes by their superfixes of stress. That is to say that we deal with a noun as a form class or traditionally called "part of speech." We will maintain the latter term. Modern grammarians distinguish four parts of speech. Most of them still use the terms "noun," "verb," "adjective," and "adverb." Whereas Fries makes use of the terms "Class 1," "Class 2," "Class 3," and "Class 4" instead. We will use the former terms.

Structures of noun modification can have different modifiers. These modifiers may belong to any of these four parts of speech. Determiners can also be taken as noun modifiers. In addition, groups of words, or relative clauses can also perform the task of modifiers of nouns. If we try to list these kinds of noun modifiers, we will have the following divisions:

1. Nouns as Modifiers
2. Verbs as Modifiers
3. Adjectives as Modifiers
4. Adverbs as Modifiers
5. Prepositional Phrases as Modifiers
6. Relative Clauses as Modifiers
7. Appositives as Modifiers
8. Adjectival Phrase Compounds as Modifiers
9. Determiners as Modifiers

1. Nouns as Modifiers

A structure of noun modification may have a noun as modifier in it. The following examples arranged in different groups could be illustrative. The first group has a noun in the singular form as modifier:

<u>M(odifier)</u>	<u>H(ead)</u>
grammar	class
silk	shirt
shoe	repairer
woman	doctor

The number of examples given is limited. Each example however represents a certain substructure, by which we mean that each is different from the other in the structural meaning. The consideration of structural meaning is left to a later chapter.

A second group has nouns in the plural form as modifier. This pattern is limited though growing in number and in usage. The following are some examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
sports	page
customs	officer
rules	committee
Arms	budget

Nouns in the possessive form are also included in "nouns as modifiers" in structures of noun modification. Some examples are:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
child's	toy
girls'	school
Beauty's	queen

Here, the examples given are five in number, and divided into two groups. We also have some reason for this. Again, if we refer to them individually, we could notice their different (structural) meanings as we will see in chapter VI. All other constructions of noun modification with nouns in the possessive as modifiers will match with these examples.

Another pattern of structure of modification with nouns as modifier is when the modifier follows the Head, as in the following examples:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
man	his age
book	this colour
cotton	this weight
Monday	next week

In this case, the modifier, which is said to be a noun, is seemingly always to be in a cluster of a determiner and a noun. So, this cluster as a whole will be treated as a noun though, as a matter of fact, it is in itself already a structure of noun modification with a determiner as modifier.

2. Verbs as Modifiers

There is no doubt of course that the verbs we are now dealing with are not those which are called "finite verbs." Finite verbs pattern in sentences or clauses while the verb forms here involved pattern in structures of noun modification. We will distinguish four main forms of these verbs, namely, 1. the infinitive form with "to," 2. the present participle form in "-ing," 3. the past

participle form usually in "-ed," and 4. the simple (base) form, which are very limited in number.

The most common among them, however, is the present participle form as we will see in the following examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
running	cat
sleeping	baby
shouting	girl

We can also have this form pattern in another way. The following examples would be illustrative:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
student	entering the class
boy	trying to save
picture	hanging on the wall

In almost the same way, verbs in the past participle form can function as noun modifiers. Some examples would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
neglected	remark
written	invitation
distinguished	scientist

Like the verbs in the present participle form, those in the past participle form can also be reversed with the nouns they modify. Thus, the above examples can be said in the following way:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
remark	neglected (by certain people)
scientist	distinguished (among his colleagues)
invitation	written (beautifully)

The verbs in the "to be past participle" form could also be treated as noun modifiers under this "past participle" division. Some examples would be:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
thing	to be done
medicine	to be taken
book	to be returned

The other pattern of the verbs in the past participle form in structures of noun modification is introduced by the phrase "not to be ..." Some examples would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
not to be handled	vase
not to be neglected	help
not to be eaten	medicine

It is probably better to keep this pattern under the "past participle" type in spite of having "to be", since the past participle section of the whole unit is felt to be of greater importance.

Verbs in the infinitive form as modifiers of nouns very often pattern as in the following examples:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
(a) desire	to go
	ability to read
(b) job	to finish
(c) student	to see the dean
(d) way	to do it

For reason to be seen later, this group has been divided into four subgroups.

When the verbs in this form have their subjects, we use the preposition "for" preceding the subjects. So, the above examples could, with the subjects of the verbs, be transformed into the following:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
desire	for Bob to go
ability	for the student to read
job	for the servant to finish
way	for the blind to do it

The example "the student to see the dean" is not transformed because the verb "to see" has the word "student" as its subject. Nevertheless, the above modifiers (when with "for") are not put under the present kind of modifiers, as we will have another place for them, namely, under the "prepositional phrase" kind.

The last form of verbs that can be used as modifiers of nouns would be the verbs in the base form. The verbs in this form used as noun modifiers are comparatively limited in number. Some examples could be:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
watch	tower
play-	boy
bake-	house
watch-	dog

In our writing system, most clusters derived from this form are spelled as one word.

3. Adjectives as Modifiers

Adjectives are frequently used as modifiers in structures of noun modification. Some examples would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
green	hat
interesting	idea
ragged	rocks
motherly	treatment

The adjectives we used in our examples are different in form from each other. The one in the first example seems to be the most common in form, whereas the other three, which end in -ing, -ed, and -ly, are less common.

It would be good to note here, though only briefly, that what we mean by adjectives are those forms which can fit both environments left blank in a frame like:

'The — man seems very —.'

(Fries C.C., "The Structure of English" pp. 268 - 269.) A word that can fit both these positions (after the determiner "the" and after the qualifier "very") is an adjective. The above examples, when examined in this defining frame, give the following:

the green hat seems very green
 the interesting idea seems very interesting
 the ragged rocks seems very ragged
 the motherly treatment seems very motherly

The writer has felt necessary to make this clear since there are (traditional) grammarians defining an adjective as "a word that is used with a noun or pronoun to describe or point out the living being or lifeless thing, designated by the noun or pronoun." (G.O. Curme "English Grammar" p. 18) Whereas, what is understood by this definition is what we mean by the term "modifier," which can either be a noun, a verb, or another kind of noun modifier, not necessarily an adjective.

The pattern of our examples above is the most common one. But we sometimes have another pattern as in the following examples:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
God	Almighty
time	immemorial
Ambassador	extraordinary
(the) person	visible
(the) decoration	possible
(the) rivers	unfordable

The latter group of the examples (with "the") consists of structures of noun modification with adjectives ending in -ble as modifiers. We usually use this pattern instead of a structure

fiers. We usually use this pattern instead of a structure of noun modification with a relative clause as modifier, when the relative clause has the verbal "to be" form and the predicative adjective is in -ble. Thus, the above examples could have been as follows:

H	M
the person	(who was) visible
the decoration	(which was) possible
the rivers	(which were) unfordable

We also sometimes have constructions resembling these examples. The following could serve as further illustration:

H	M
(a) figure	vague and shadowy
(a) boy	full of energy
(a) man	taller than I thought

The adjective here is not a solitary modifier of a noun, but part of a larger structure that as a whole acts as a noun modifier. The adjectives "vague", "shadowy", "full," and "taller" are parts of structure acting as unit modifiers of the Heads "figure," "boy," and "man."

4. Adverbs as Modifiers

Just like the term "adjective," the term "adverb" should also be made clear or at least it should be distinguished from "adverb" as meant by some traditional grammarians. According to these grammarians, "an adverb is a word that may modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb." This consequently means that the word "too," for example, in the phrases "too quick" and "too quickly" is an adverb. Perhaps this term is still widely used today, but at least it should be clear that we distinguish the word "too" and some other words like this from the adverbs we mean and therefore we will also give another term for them, namely, "qualifiers", which are in fact a group of function words. Therefore, we will not treat them as modifiers in structures of noun modification under the name of "adverb."

The adverbs we will deal with are those belonging to the three groups as formulated by N. Francis in his book "The Structure of American English" pp. 287-288. They are: 1. the "then," 2. the "there," and 3. the "thus/so" groups. They are in fact relatively rarely used as noun modifiers. However, if they appear in this role, they are mostly of those from the "then" and the "there" classes, as in the following:

H	M
(the) difficulty	yesterday
(the) problem	now
(the) discussion	afterwards
(the) crisis	everywhere
(the) explanation	below
people	here

They can also appear (though very rarely) in another pattern.

The examples would be:

M	H
(a) later	engagement
(the) then	secretary
(the) above	facts
(the) nearby	town
(the) underground	lines

The adverbs of the "thus/so type can also function as noun modifiers. But these adverbs, particularly those with the derivational suffix -ly, modify only one kind of nouns, namely those formed from verbs by the derivational suffix -ing. The following would be illustrative:

H	M
(his) speaking	rapidly
(her) screaming	madly
(my) typing	slowly
(their) working	together

Our examples above are always preceded by determiners. These determiners have been felt necessary to be inserted here to make us feel that the words occurring before these adverbs are really nouns. That is to say that they are not to be confused with the present participle form of the verbs as in the following:

M	H
Speaking rapidly,	(the) professor ...
Screaming madly,	Mary
Typing slowly,	(the) secretary ...
Working together,	Nations

In these examples, the nouns are not those forms with the -ing affix, but "(the) teacher," "Mary," "(the) secretary," and "nations."

5. Prepositional Phrases as Modifiers

Before we start giving examples of these modifiers, it would be good to make clear what we mean by a "prepositional phrase." For this purpose, we have to be clear first about what a phrase is.

"A phrase is a combination of words that forms a part of a sentence, but does not constitute a complete sentence." (Cyril Miller "A Grammar of Modern English for Foreign Students" pp.14 - 15) If that is the case, a "prepositional phrase" is a combination of words in which a preposition is one (and the first) component part. What we mean by a prepositional phrase here is not exactly the same as what we usually assume. The prepositional phrases we are now dealing with are those that include phrases in which the objects of the prepositions are other than pure nouns, that is, the objects can also be noun substitutes as in the second and third examples given here:

H	M
anxiety	for news of your safe arrival
interest	in what you propose to do
doubt	about whether she should accept the post

However, we also consider as prepositions the words following the nouns in the following examples:

H	M
(the) day	after he left
(the) period	before the war broke out
(the) period	since we last met

These are called "Attributive Prepositional Clauses." (G.O. Curme "English Grammar" p. 131, cf. p. 166: "... but in reality they still, as originally, have the full force of prepositions, ...")

Prepositional phrases are also often used as noun modifiers. We have relatively many words that may be used as prepositions. Paul Roberts gives a fairly complete list of these words in his book "Patterns of English" pp. 88 - 89. All of them are more or less fixed in meaning both structurally and lexically. The preposition "of" however appears to be exceptional. It can have slightly different meanings as can be noticed in the following constructions, which will be further explained in chapter VI:

H	M
(the) city	of Toledo
(a) friend	of my brother
(the) top	of the mountain
portrait	of Henry
(a) cup	of coffee
(a) flock	of birds
(that) ugly nose	of his
(a) way	of doing
(the) idea	of how anxious we have been
(an) angel	of a wife

Some other examples with different prepositions could be:

H	M
box	on the table
message	from abroad
machines	for harvesting
girl	with spectacles
book	about flies
rumour	without foundation
interest	in what you propose to do
dissatisfaction	with his behaviour

It is also possible that two prepositions occur one after the other. Our examples would be:

H	M
book	from under the table
tale	for after dinner
trip	to beyond the mountain

Here, of course, the component parts of the modifier are not the two prepositions on one side and the rest on the other, but the first preposition and the rest, which in itself is already a prepositional phrase. A construction like "time up to now" is not included in these examples because, although the phrase "up to" consists of two different prepositions, these latter are in combination treated as one preposition. Some other prepositions in this form are fairly sufficiently given by Paul Roberts in his book "Patterns of English" p. 89.

6. Relative Clauses as Modifiers

Another important kind of noun modifier is what we call "relative clause." A relative clause is a clause that patterns with the word "who," "which," "that," "whom," "whose," "where," "when," "why," or "how;" but sometimes the relative is even not mentioned. In our writing system, a non-defining clause is usually placed between commas, in parentheses, or between dashes, while a defining one is not. Some examples of non-defining relative clause would be:

H	M
boy,	who lived in the next street,
student,	that came late,
book,	which was very cheap,
letter,	that I received yesterday,
teacher,	whom I saw yesterday,
mother,	whose child cried,
moment,	when I was mad,
town,	where I was born,

H	M

reason, why she cried,
way, how you should do it,

In the first four examples, we used the relative "that" twice. The first one was used to replace the human noun "student," whereas the second was to replace the non-human noun "letter." In other words, the relative "that" can replace a human and a non-human noun. But, the relative "who" can only stand for a human noun, and the relative "which" can only stand for a non-human noun. We are also able to notice that the relative "where" can replace a noun denoting place, while the relative "when" can replace a noun denoting time. The relative "whom" is used for a human noun but it is not exactly the same as the relative "who", since the former will only be used if the noun it stands for is the undergoer of the action stated by the verb in the clause. But, in current English, "who" is increasingly used instead of "whom." For non-human nouns, the relative used in this function is "that" or "which." The relative "whose" is also able to replace a human as well as a non-human noun, but it is different from the relative "who" and "whom" and "which" for it is possessive in character. It might be worth mentioning here that the relative "whose" is used in non-defining clauses for human nouns, while for non-human nouns, "of which" is preferable. And, if we try to give more examples using the relatives "why" and "how," we will eventually notice that these relatives always replace words like "reason," and "way" respectively.

The modifiers in the following examples could be felt to have the force of a relative clause:

H	M
(the) table,	the legs of which are broken,
(the) man,	to whom I spoke,
(the) pen,	with which I wrote the letter,

In writing, as we stated earlier above, defining relative clauses are not placed between commas, nor are they put in parentheses, nor do they occur between dashes. This does not mean however that we can change the above examples into defining clauses merely by leaving out the commas. We can do so in most cases, but when the relative replaces the noun which is the "undergoer" of the action stated by the verb in the clause, the relative can also be omitted. The relatives "how" and "why" are also usually left out especially in colloquial style. When the relative is governed by a preposition, it is usually dropped. The preposition is placed at the end of the clause. The following examples would illustrate all this:

H	M
teacher	who came yesterday
pencil	(which) I lent you
town	where I was born
period	when they were absent
woman	whose nose was flat
reason	why Bob left
way	(how) he did it
book	(which) they told you about

As we have stated, the relative "which" and "that" can replace a non-human noun. When we use "which" and when we use "that" is usually not a serious problem. However, "that" seems to be much commoner. On the other hand, as we notice in our list above, if the relative replacing the non-human noun is governed by a preposition, the relative used is always "which." Some other examples would be:

H	M
address	(which) I sent the letter to
knife	(which) I cut it with
room	(which) Bob slept in

7. Appositives as Modifiers

In the last kind of modifiers, we dealt with relative clauses. We did not talk about clauses in general. This is obvious because we have not discussed any clause other than those introduced by relatives. We could see that the relatives are sometimes preferably left out, though only in some cases. However, clauses like the following have not been included in the previous discussion:

H	M
fact	that Mary will go abroad
thought	that we shall help him
news	that Nasser has died

In these examples, the word "that" is not a relative. In this kind of construction, the conjunction can never be omitted, while the relative "that" may be dropped if it replaces a noun undergoing the action mentioned by the verb in the clause. Here are some more examples in which the relatives may be left out:

H	M
fact	(that) Mary showed me
thought	(that) I agree with
news	(that) Nasser spread

It is clear now that if we compare the above two lists (of sub 6 and sub 7), we will see that the examples in the list of sub 7 are really different from what we dealt with in the previous discussion. These clauses are called "appositives." They are also at times called "in apposition to" the nouns they modify. So, we can now say that appositives can be treated as noun modifiers.

Appositives may also be introduced by extra-positional or parenthetical elements such as, "namely," "that is," "that is to say," "in other words," etc. The following could serve as examples:

H	M
problem,	namely, he is penniless
pencil,	that is, a kind of writing instrument
children,	in other words, John and Mary
period,	that is to say, three quarters of an hour

From the examples given so far, we can notice that the appositive we have been dealing with may be a clause, a structure of noun modification, or a structure of coordination of nouns or noun-headed structures. We also often find appositives without any parenthetical elements of the above kind. The following examples are illustrative:

H	M
judge,	an old man with white hair,
Smiths,	the friends of my son,
cities—	Tokyo and Djakarta —
technology,	not art,
Brown,	the banker,
Mary,	my friend,

In this list, we can see that the Head and the appositive are separated by either a comma or a dash. In our writing system, the appositive of the above kind is always followed by a comma, a dash, or a dot. Further, it is also sometimes called "half" or "loose" appositive, for the apposition has a rather loose connection with the force of a descriptive relative clause.

Seeing the above examples, one might wonder whether the word "Smith," "Brown," and "Mary," which are usually called "proper nouns" or "proper names," can be treated as noun Heads. Especially in our examples, we can implicitly conclude that there are more 'Maries' and 'Browns'. One 'Brown' is, for instance, "Brown, the banker," and another is "Brown, the miller." In other words, these words can be preceded by determiners and have their plural form; so, they can certainly be treated as nouns. But, apart from this argument, for our purpose, proper nouns will be treated as nouns.

The names and the appositives very often become so closely associated that both together blend into one name. In writing, constructions like this are no longer separated by a comma. This may be the reason why they are also called "close appositives." Some examples would be:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
Tom	the Piper
Peter	the Hermit
Tennyson	the poet

It might be worth mentioning here that the appositive seems to be always in the cluster of the determiner "the" and a noun or proper noun.

Some more examples of noun modification structures with close appositives as modifiers will be given. We will see later that the Heads of the constructions are no longer pronouns or proper nouns. Proper nouns will even be treated as appositives. The following are some examples:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
Mr.	George
Dr.	Brown
President	Suharto
Saint	Paul
Lake	Toba
(the) verb	go
(the) river	Thames
(my) friend	Jones
(The) novelist	G. Greene
(The) poet	Chaucer

8. Adjectival Phrase Compounds as Modifiers

There is not much to say about this kind of modifiers. We already said in the former section that a phrase is a combination of words that forms a part of a sentence, but does not constitute a complete sentence. The phrases we are now dealing with are not of course the same as what we had before, because we no longer restrict ourselves to those having prepositions as one of their components. To make this clear, let us see the following examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
go-ahead	signal	give-and-take	affair
pen-and-ink	drawing	quarter-past-seven	train
large-scale	map	devil-may-care	attitude
out-and-out	failure	this, that, and the other	newspaper

If we go through our examples once more, we will see that the compounds differ from each other especially in pattern. Sometimes the phrase looks like a structure of coordination (pen-and-ink), sometimes like a clause (devil-may-care), and so on. This variability, however, reminds us of their being adjectival so that they are growing in usage as well as in pattern and number, since it seems that we are free to make any adjectival phrase compound as we like.

Before we end our discussion about adjectival phrase compounds as noun modifiers, let us have a look at the following examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
up-to-date	dictionary
soul-killing	job
self-centered	person

These phrase compounds can fit the two positions in our defining frame "the — 'noun' seems very —." Thus we can say:

the up-to-date dictionary seems very up-to-date

the soul-killing job seems very soul-killing

the self-centered person seems very self-centered

This means that they are pure adjectives. Therefore, the phrase compounds like the above examples are not treated under the term "adjectival phrase compounds."

9. Determiners as Modifiers

In chapter I, we already had some examples of determiners. Before we are further involved in dealing with them, it would be good if we also understand what we mean by "determiner." Determiners are a variety of structure words, which are also called "function words." These latter are so called, because, while they have little or no lexical meaning of their own, they serve to vary the function of the lexical words with which they appear, according to the needs of the over-all structure. (N. Francis "The Structure of American English" p. 231) The first group of these function words is made up of words that pattern like "the." These are what we call "determiners"; whereas, C. C. Fries calls them function words "Group A." (The Structure of English" pp. 89 - 109) Determiners make up a rather large group of words in comparison with the other groups of function words. To have a better picture of how large the group is, let us have a look at the list of the most frequently used ones as has been drawn up by Paul Roberts in his book "Patterns of English" page 31:

the	these	her	few	either
a	those	its	several	neither
an	my	no	any	one
every	our	both	all	two
each	your	some	most	three
this	their	many	more	four
that	his	much		

Determiners can be subdivided too and often are. Thus grammars speak of articles (a, an, the), possessives (my, your, her, its, their, our, his), demonstratives (this, that, these, those). These are all sub-classifications of the determiner class.

Determiners have many different meanings, but they have one thing in common: they pattern with nouns. They operate as a signal which warns us that a noun is coming, as we already said when we were talking about the criteria to decide whether a word was a noun or not. It is obvious then that a structure of a determiner and a noun is a structure of modification with a noun as Head and a determiner as modifier. It has been felt necessary to make this clear for it seems that not all grammarians have treated determiners as modifiers of nouns in proportion to the other kinds of noun modifiers. However, Paul Roberts (in his "Patterns of English" page 81) states that the simplest and most common kind of the structure of noun modification is that in which the modifier is a determiner. The following examples would be illustrative:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
the	house	every	plant
my	cat	some	difficulty
an	angel	no	home
a	ball	four	pages
this	book	any	idea
those	rooms	their	pencils
its	tail	more	examples

The groupings of the determiners imply that there are different usages among them. Different usages are the factors we must know to find the structural meaning of the modification. Therefore, to avoid unnecessary repetition, we will not deal with the usages of these modifiers until we discuss the meaning of the modification, which will be found in chapter VI.

Chapter III. THE ORDER OF NOUN MODIFIERS

To some extent, this title could be replaced with the title "The Position of Noun Modifiers." But the former is thought to be better because it is wider in scope. As a matter of fact, we will, in the beginning, practically deal with the position of noun modifiers as such, but at the end of our discussion we will be involved in the arrangement of these modifiers into their proper positions. Therefore, "The Order of Modifiers" is considered the most appropriate title.

We can immediately say that there are only two positions of noun modifiers, namely, before and after the Head. There are various terms for this, among others: pre- and post Head. It is obvious that these terms have the same meaning. But in our discussion we will use the former couple, namely, "before" and "after" the Head.

To avoid misunderstanding, we still want to talk about another term, namely, "qualifier." J. C. Catford calls a modifier coming after the Head a qualifier. Here, again, it is only a matter of terminology, since, what he means by his "qualifier" is exactly the same as what we mean by "modifier" in the after-Head position. Apart from the fact that we also have a different meaning for this term ("qualifier"), yet, as we discussed in the previous chapter, we will use the usual term, i.e., the term "modifier" for both the one appearing before and for the one coming after the Head.

As we have said, a noun modifier occurs either before or after the Head. Nevertheless, it would be good if we once again go through every kind of noun modifier, which has been discussed fairly systematically, to see if different modifiers vary in their positions. It might be rather repetitive, but by dealing with every single kind of modifier at least we will feel later that nothing has been left out. To facilitate our study, let us just quickly follow the kinds of modifiers as we have had them in the previous chapter.

Therefore, we will start from the noun modification structures with a noun as modifier. When a noun is modified by another noun, the modifier usually occurs before the Head. The following examples, in which the noun modifiers are different in kind, would be illustrative:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
Poetry	lesson
gold	standard
truck	driver
sports	page
dining	room

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
men's	clothes
(a) week's	course
(a) meter's	length
(a) pound's	weight

Sometimes, we also have structures of noun modification with another noun as modifier coming after the Head. The following are some examples:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
book	this size
boy	his age
meat	that weight

When the noun modifier is a verb, it can appear either before or after the Head. As is also true for other kinds of modifiers, the position of this modifier is rather connected with the kind of the respective modifier, although they are obviously members of one form class, for instance, the modifiers which belong to the verb kind as we are now busy with. However, those taking the before-Head position could be represented by the following examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
flying	bird
painted	house
play-	boy
not to be forgotten	event

As stated above, this kind of modifier can also come after the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
article	to write
secretary	to see the boss
child	growing well
student	coming late
boy	helped (by him)
language	spoken

When the modifier of a noun is an adjective, the most common position is before the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
easy	problem
red	ink
young	tree
rotten	eggs

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
brotherly	love
interesting	subject



We also at times find adjectives as modifiers of nouns in the position after the Head. The following examples would be illustrative:

H	M
God	Almighty
Asia	Minor
(the) solution	possible
wish	intense beyond belief

Adverbs as modifiers of nouns most often take the position after the Head. The following could serve as examples:

H	M
Djakarta	now
conversation	meanwhile
heavens	above
temperature	outside
(her) crying	loudly
(our) coming	together

We also sometimes find adverbs as modifiers in structures of noun modification appearing before the Head. Here are some examples.

M	H
(the) then	progress
nearby	village
above	statement

If the modifier of a noun is a prepositional phrase, it always comes after the Head. Some examples would be:

H	M
(a) glass	of tea
(the) way	of doing
(the) idea	of how eager he was
letter	in the bag
boy	from Sumatera
eraser	from under the table
satisfaction	with what has been achieved

If the structure of a noun modification has a relative clause as modifier, defining or non-defining, the modifier always takes the position after the Head. The following examples would be illustrative:

H	M
farmer	who worked in the field
beggar	whose baby cried
person	I talked to
way	he spoke

H	M
village	where I was brought up
tree,	which grows bigger,
servant,	that dropped the plates,
time,	when the test was proceeding,

Appositives being modifiers of nouns also always appear after the Head. Some examples could be:

H	M
fact	that Bob is rich
idea	that we'd better go by train
difficulty,	namely, he has not yet graduated
furniture,	in other words, all those things needed in a house
Betty,	his partner
John,	the baker
cities -	London and Paris -
food,	not politics
Tom	the Piper
(the) noun	apple
Lake	Michigan
Virgin	Mary

When the modifier of a noun is an adjectival phrase compound, it always comes before the Head. The following are some examples :

M	H
nine-o'clock	train
next-door	neighbours
red-and-white	flag
matter-of-fact	man

If a noun is modified by a determiner, the determiner occurs before the noun. The following are some examples:

M	H
the	dog
a	table
that	flower
our	country
all	people
most	teachers

So far, we have discussed the position of the different kinds of modifiers when they appear as sole modifiers. In practice, we also often find clusters of modifiers. Early in the beginning of this chapter, we have already said that there are two positions of the modifier: before and after the Head. In structures of noun modification with various and more than one modifier, the position

possible is also either before or after the Head. Our problem now is "How should we arrange them?"

It is evident that most of the modifiers which appear before the Head can never come after the Head. Similarly, most of those taking the position after the Head can never be in the before-Head position. Therefore, if there are only two modifiers, one before and the other after the Head, we will not find any difficulty. We can immediately give some examples like the following:

M	H	M
the	boy	in the corner
silk	shirt	which I bought yesterday
singing	girl	upstairs
rich	people	here
brotherly love,	that should be found everywhere,	

It will be a problem when a noun modification structure has more than one modifier which cluster either before or after the Head. The problem will even be greater if several modifiers occur before the Head and some others come after it. However, let us now start with the first problem, i.e., when several modifiers appear before the Head.

In the beginning of this chapter, we already saw that there were six kinds of noun modifiers that could take the position before the Head. They are: (1) noun, (2) verb, (3) adjective, (4) adverb, (5) adjectival phrase compound, and (6) determiner. We will first deal with the modifiers which are under the noun kind. The following examples could be illustrative:

M	M	M	H
	linen	bathing	costume
	negro	badminton	player
	Bob's	student	number
	Turk	servant	girl
girl's	cotton	bathing	costume

As we can also see from our examples, if a noun is modified by more than one noun, usually not more than three, the modifiers sometimes cluster along quite a strict and precise line. If one of the modifiers is a noun derived from a verb and which is also called "gerund," it usually appears immediately before the Head. On the other hand, when one of the modifiers is a noun in the possessive, it always occurs in the farthest position from the Head. When the modifiers are not of these two kinds, the order much depends on the closeness of association with the Head.

When a noun is modified by more than one verb, in the position before the Head, usually only two at the most, the order is not

absolutely strict. It seems that the most closely associated modifier is nearest the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
running	wash	dog
burning	broken	sticks
crying	beaten	boy
missing	coloured	photos

In the case where the verb forms similar as illustrated in the following examples;

A.	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
	plastered	broken	window

B.	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
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(a) satisfying amusing performance

the order of the verb modifiers is determined by particular emphasis the speaker or user implies.

When a noun is modified by more than one adjective, in the position before the Head, we may distinguish three positions; 1. nearest the Head, 2. next, 3. furthest from it. 1. is the position of adjectives of age (young, old, etc.), 2. of colour adjectives, 3. of general characterizing adjectives (tall, pleasant, horrid, nice.). The placings are not of course absolute; we are describing the relative order of elements in a maximal noun cluster. (Barbara M. H. Strang "Modern English Structure" p. 121). The following examples could be illustrative:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
thin	pale	old	man
short	green	young	grass
beautiful	red	new	tie

It seems that a noun is seldom modified by more than one adverb in the position before the Head. If we can find an example of this construction, the modifiers seem to follow a certain placing, namely, that the "then" type precedes the "there" one. An example would be:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
(the)	then	nearby village

Although an adjectival phrase compound can appear as a noun modifier in the position before the Head, one can very seldom find a construction of noun modification with more than one modifier of this kind. If we have to compose an example, the following could be taken:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
never-to-be-forgotten	matter-of-fact	man

When a noun is modified by more than one determiner, which always appear in the position before the Head, a strict order of these modifiers should be followed. We will see in our examples below that every modifier as it is has a fixed position. The examples could be:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
the	two	books	
both	the	books	
all	those	books	
every	two	books	
all	my	books	
my	two	books	
those	two	books	
all	the	four	books

We can notice from our examples that the determiners of all the three divisions, i.e., the "article" (two, the, four), the "possessive (my)", and the "demonstrative" (those) can occur immediately before the Head. In the second position, all of them can appear except the articles "two" and "four" (which are traditionally called "numerals"), but the articles "both," "all," and "every," which cannot take the position immediately before the Head, now can come in this position. Whereas, the third position can be taken only by the article "all."

We have just seen that there are six kinds of modifiers that can cluster in the before-Head position. In actual language use seldom, or even never, would all the possibilities we have mentioned above occur simultaneously. The choice of these before-Head modifiers is always limited to a certain number, which is usually determined by style.

It can also be imagined that some kinds of noun modifiers can cluster after the Head. The kinds of modifiers that can take the position after the Head are: 1. noun, 2. verb, 3. adjective, 4. adverb, 5. prepositional phrase, 6. relative clause, and 7. appositive. But, some of them cannot cluster. The ones that can cluster — though some perhaps just in theory — are: 1. adverb, 2. prepositional phrase, 3. relative clause, 4. appositive.

When a noun is modified by more than one adverb, it seems that the order of the modifiers (in this position) is not like that when they occur before the Head. Here, the "then" type comes after the other type of adverb. Our examples would be:

H	M	M
(their) coming	together	afterwards
rice	here	now
problem	everywhere	today

This order is not completely absolute, but it seems more common.

A noun can also be modified by more than one prepositional phrase. The order is not absolute either, though we probably prefer one to the other owing to the closeness of association of the modifiers with the Head. The following examples could be illustrative:

H	M	M
(a) glass	of tea	on the table
(the) boy	from Bali	in my class
(the) book	about flies	on the shelf

When a noun is modified by more than one relative clause, we can always be certain that the defining one is the first in position after the Head, and the non-defining one comes after it. This is true of course if they are different in kind. Therefore, in writing, a comma can only come after the first modifier. Some examples would be:

H	M	M
beggar	whose baby cried,	whom I told you about,
book	he has written,	which is now popular,
war	that broke out in Vietnam,	which has caused his death,

If the comma comes immediately after the Head, both the modifiers will then be non-defining. And, if this happens, we usually make use of the coordinating word "and" like in the following example:

H	M
(the) student,	who works hard, and whose paper is good,

But this will not be in the domain of our discussion, since it is something to do with what we call "the structure of coordination."

When a noun is modified by more than one appositive, the one that immediately comes after the Head seems to be always a proper name or the appositive which is more closely related that the other with the Head. Some examples would be:

H	M	M
Lake	Toba	the beauty of Sumatera
President	Suharto,	the smiling general
Tom	the Piper,	the man I shall never forget
John,	the baker,	my old friend

Up to now, we have tried to discuss the order of modifiers that occur either before or after the Head. These modifiers have been limited to only one kind in each appearance either before or after the Head. As will be seen later, a structure of noun modification can also have more than one modifier of different kinds which come before and after the Head.

In the rest of this chapter, we will see what the order of these modifiers is. To avoid unnecessary repetition, we will no longer deal with every individual kind of modifier every time, but we will just see what the order of the modifiers is when a structure of noun modification includes several modifiers of different sorts.

Never, in practice, does a noun have all the kinds of modifiers that are theoretically possible. As we have seen, there are six kinds of noun modifiers (1. noun, 2. verb, 3. adjective, 4. adverb, 5. adjectival phrase compound, 6. determiner) that can take the position before the Head, and there are seven kinds (1. noun, 2. verb, 3. adjective, 4. adverb, 5. prepositional phrase, 6. relative clause, 7. appositive) that can come after the Head. It seems to be impossible to have a noun with all these kinds of modifiers both before and after the Head. We can only have some of them in a construction. Therefore, we will first start dealing with the order of modifiers of a noun when they appear before the Head.

When a structure of noun modification has several modifiers of different sorts, the result is often quite a complex affair. But it is organized along quite strict and precise lines. The most important observation is that unless it contains structures of coordination, which are out of the field of our discussion, it consists not of a series of parallel modifiers and the Head, but of a series of structures of noun modification one within the other. This fact really dictates the order of the modifiers.

However, it is always true that when one of the modifiers in a structure of noun modification is a noun not in the possessive form, it is nearest to the Head. On the other hand, if one of the modifiers is a determiner, it is always farthest from the Head. Therefore, when these two modifiers exist together with the other kinds, the latter ones will be between them. Some examples would be:

M	M	M	M	H
the		beautiful	gold	ring
all		sleeping	truck	drivers
the		then	Poetry	teacher
every		up-to-date	Grammar	book
her beautiful		carved	gold	ring

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
the	then	cheap	Grammar	book
his	interesting	one-page	news	report

As we can see in the examples above, when a construction contains an adjective and an adverb, the adjective is nearer to the Head. As a matter of fact, when a structure of noun modification has several modifiers including a determiner and an adverb, the adverb is the second farthest from the Head. On the other hand, when an adjective and an adverb occur together, the verb is nearer to the Head; in our examples above, the form of the verb is either past or present participle. We have already seen that a verb in simple form can also modify a noun. But, in this case, it is always immediately before the Head. As we can also see, an adjectival phrase compound seems to be nearer to the Head than a verb, when it is one of several modifiers. This is not of course absolute. A noun in the possessive form (which is not like "meter's" in "(a) meter's length"), is the third farthest from the Head when a structure of noun modification has it as one of the modifiers two of which are a determiner and an adverb. The example could be:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
the	above	teacher's	interesting	argument

So far, we have been trying to see what the order is of different sorts of modifiers of a noun in the position before the Head. The last touch of our discussion in this chapter will be to see what the order of different modifiers of a noun when they come after it. As has been said, there are seven kinds of noun modifiers that can take the position after the Head. But, it is obvious, though just theoretically, that not all of them can at the same time occur one after the other. That is why our task is not to see what the order of all these kinds is when they cluster one after the other, but to see what the order is when some of them in normal language use should appear together.

It can easily be observed that the kind of noun modifier which appears last is a relative clause. It can never be followed by any other kind of modifier. A prepositional phrase often immediately comes after the Head. However, if a noun, verb, or adjective is one of the modifiers taking the after-Head position, the latter comes first. The next kind that can come after it is either an adverb or an appositive. But, if they both appear to modify a noun, the adverb seems to be more likely to come first. Some examples could be:

H	M	M	M
(tha) book	about animals	that attracts	boys
(the) teacher	my age	in our class	today
God	Almighty	in Heaven	our Creator
(the) river	unfordable	there,	namely, the X
(the) teacher	my age	in our class	today, who
			taught
			Poetry

After having come to this, we might feel that the order of noun modifiers has been dealt with rather theoretically. On the other hand, it can probably be felt that this is not at all an exhaustive study.

Chapter IV. THE IC WAY OF BREAKING DOWN AND BUILDING UP

CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS WITH MODIFIERS

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pohsk
2
In chapter II, we have been dealing with the kinds of noun modifiers. A construction of a noun with a modifier has two components, namely, the noun Head and its modifier. In a construction like this, the noun and its (sole) modifier are also called the "immediate constituents" of the construction, which are usually abbreviated to "ICs." Linguists say that an English construction has usually only two ICs. This is also applicable to constructions of nouns with modifiers.

2
In fact, even though a noun modification structure contains several modifiers, it can only have two ICs because it always consists of the modified constituent and the modifying constituent. In this case, as we have discussed in the last part of chapter III, the modified constituent may also be a modification structure. When the Head has a sole modifier, the ICs will be the modifier and the (noun) Head.

2
It is obvious then that there is no need for us to deal with the IC breaking down of noun modification structures in which there are only sole modifiers. We will be only involved in the study of the breaking when the noun has more than one modifier. Since we have seen that there are two possible positions of noun modifiers, i.e., before and after the Head, we will first deal with noun modification structures that have modifiers in the before-Head position. We will begin cutting the modifier farthest from the Head, then the one next farthest until we are back to the Head. Some examples would be:

	M	M	M	H
(1)	pale	/old		men
		old		/men
(2)	boring/	grammar		class
		grammar		/class
(3)	the/above	important		statement
		above /	important	statement
		important		/statement
(4)	my /humble	eight-dollars-a-month	house	
		humble/	eight-dollars-a-month	house
			eight-dollars-a-month/	house

We can easily see from the examples that the kinds of modifiers do not influence the mechanical process of our cutting. But, as we have seen, of course, the order is almost always dictated by the kinds of the modifiers.

When the modifiers come after the Head, we also have a similar way of cutting; we will begin cutting the modifier farthest from the Head, then the one next farthest until we are back to the Head. Some examples would be:

H	M	M	M
(1) people	here	/now	
people	/here		
(2) problems	of the world	/today	
problems	/of the world		
(3) Lake	Michigan,	in America,	/which is
			large
Lake	Michigan,	/in America	
Lake	/Michigan		
(4) President Suharto,		the smiling general	/who likes
			hunting
President Suharto,	/the smiling general		
President/Suharto			

We observe that in practice we also often find noun modification structures that contain several modifiers both before and after the Head. This does not mean that when we have a construction like this we will have two cuttings at the same time, because as we have said above, a noun modification structure can only have two ICs. If that is the case, where shall we begin our cutting? As most linguists do, we begin with the modifiers coming after the Head. ¹¹¹ As we did before, we start breaking the modifier farthest from the Head, then the one next farthest until we are back to the Head. After that, we are left with the Head and the modifiers before it. Here too, we begin breaking from the modifier farthest from the Head, then the one next farthest until we are back to the Head. Our examples could be:

¹¹¹N. Francis in his book "The Structure of American English" pp. 311 - 312 has implied in his boxing that the first cut is placed between the determiner and the rest of the noun modification structure.

	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
(1)	the	poor	shoe	repairer	behind my house/who has married	
	the	poor	shoe	repairer	/behind my house	
	the/	poor	shoe	repairer		
		poor	/shoe	repairer		
			shoe	/repairer		

	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
(2)	some	beautiful	blooming	flowers	in the garden,/which she	
					loves	
	some	beautiful	blooming	flowers/in the garden,		
	some/	beautiful	blooming	flowers		
		beautiful/	blooming	flowers		
			blooming/	flowers		

The farthest modifier from the Head that comes after the Head in the latter example is a clause. It certainly can still be broken into its ICs. But, we will not be involved in this process because our task includes not the breaking down of the modifier but only that of the noun modification structure. The construction like the following can have two kinds of cutting:

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
the	woman	with the child /who cried	
the	woman/with the child		
the/	woman		

<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
the	woman/with the child who cried	
the/	woman	

The first kind of cutting in our examples above is obviously different from the second one. The former shows that the clause "who cried," which is cut off, is the modifier of the Head "woman," while the latter shows that the clause, which is left uncut, is not the modifier of the Head but of the noun "child." Therefore, before cutting ambiguous constructions of nouns with modifiers, one must first decide what the functions of the ambiguous modifiers are.

We can conclude from our examples above that the cutting is not a question of mere word order. The above examples showed ambiguity. One can however, in some cases, decide what the function of a possibly ambiguous modifier is by looking at the other factors, for instance, as in the following:

- a) the father of the boys who were ill
- b) the friends of the boy who were ill
- c) the owner of the dog which is old
- d) the owner of the dog who is old

In these cases, concord of Subject and Verb or concord between noun and the following pronoun solves the ambiguity.

We have seen that if we can recognize the functions of the modifiers in a construction of a noun with modifiers, it is not difficult to break it down into its ICs. Now, how will we build up a construction of a noun with modifiers? In other words, which modifiers should go with the (noun) Head first; then which modifier should go with the noun modification structure that has just been built up; and so on, until we have the last modifier which should function as the component IC other than the whole construction that has previously been built up. This means that we somehow will be dealing with the order of modifiers.

We have seen from our IC cutting that the process of our breaking down a noun with modifiers always depends on the order of the modifiers. Again, the order of the modifiers is of course very much dependent on their kinds. Our breaking down has in fact implied that we begin building up a noun with modifiers by adding to the (noun) Head the modifier which was cut off last; the larger construction is built up by adding to the construction that has just been built up the modifier which was cut off earlier; and so on, until we have the full construction after the modifier first cut off has been added to the construction that has been built up. As can be noticed from our examples, the modifier that is cut off last is the one before and nearest the Head, while the modifier which is cut off first is the one after the Head and farthest from it. So, in our building up, we will have the smallest construction by adding to the Head the modifier that takes the nearest position before it. And, we will have the largest construction of a noun with modifiers after adding to the construction that has been built up the modifier which takes the farthest position after the Head. There is no doubt of course that in order to be able to know what modifier can take a certain position we have to refer to the previous chapter. Our examples would be:

 M M H M M

leaders

good leaders

some good leaders

some good leaders in Indonesia

some good leaders in Indonesia today

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
			shoes		
		leather	shoes		
	brown	leather	shoes		
the	brown	leather	shoes		
the	brown	leather	shoes	under my bed	
the	brown	leather	shoes	under my bed	which are old

It has been said before that the last modifier added to a construction is the one that comes farthest from the Head in the after-Head position. As has been stated in the foot-note on page 36, N. Francis' way of building up constructions of nouns with modifiers one of which is a determiner is however a little different from ours because the last modifier added by him is the determiner, which certainly takes the position before the Head. This can well be illustrated in his following examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
			rate		
		birth	rate		
	high	birth	rate		
	high	birth	rate	in America	
	high	birth	rate	in America	today
the	high	birth	rate	in America	today

The only difference between the previous way and N. Francis' lies just in the determiner. He says that the determiner introduces the whole noun group. It seems that for N. Francis the determiner, that in the breaking down process is cut off first and in the building up process is added last, has some function different from the other modifiers. We have considered the determiner as being parallel to the other modifiers. We can appreciate his opinion though with a fundamental change. In practice, a countable noun in the singular must have a determiner: it is never found alone. The determiner is closely connected with the noun and will therefore be considered as such in all cases (i.e., also in plurals and with uncountable nouns which are restricted by a modifier which usually comes after the Head). Therefore, in actual language learning, it may be wiser to cut off the determiner last (in breaking down process), and to put it in first (in the building up process). Thus the above examples will be built up in the following way:

<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------

rate

the rate

the birth rate

the high birth rate

the high birth rate in America

the high birth rate in America today

If one wants to chart these three IC processes of building up constructions of nouns with modifiers, the result will be the following:

	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
	(Determiner)						
(1)	IV	III	II	I	Head	V	VI
(2)	VI	III	II	I	Head	IV	V
(3)	I	IV	III	II	Head	V	VI

The roman numerals show the succession of the modifiers in the building up process.

We will not say which is the best way for they are all equally reasonable. However, the possibility to have these three ways, which are different from each other, implies that the IC way of breaking down and building up constructions of nouns with modifiers may not always be satisfactory to everybody. This is due to the fact that, as it is also stated by Barbara M. H. Strang, "The great advantage of IC analysis is that it provides a succinct and vivid way of laying bare the successive hierarchical structure of a sentence. Its weakness is that it is one way process — that is, you can analyse by its means, but if you try and reverse the process and synthesise a sentence, you may succeed in generating something that is not a correct English sentence. This weakness is pointed out by N. Chomsky (1957, Ch. V). (Modern English Structure* p. 81)

Chapter V. THE STRESS OF CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS WITH MODIFIERS

This chapter could also have been entitled "The Intonation of Constructions of Nouns with Modifiers," since this title is probably felt to be wider and, hence, more complete. Yet it is just this very reason which makes the writer confine himself to the stress only of these constructions. As we know, intonation is "sentencial," while constructions of nouns with modifiers are considered as (developed) parts of the sentence. Therefore, if we were to deal with Intonation in constructions of nouns with modifiers, we would be dealing with one-component sentences (i.e., answers given to certain questions). This is not the purpose of our discussion, where we deal with noun constructions only as parts of full sentences. "It is stress, however, that largely dictates the significant moves of the voice up or down, and an ability to stress a phrase (the underlining is the writer's) correctly will help to guide the speaker to use correct intonation for the voice changes its direction only on stressed syllables." (W. S. Allen "Living English Speech" p. 2)

Before we go on, it would be good if we see what we mean by stress. "Stress is the relative degree of force used by a speaker on the various syllables he is uttering." (R. Kingdon "The Groundwork of English Stress" p. 1) It is possible to distinguish many degrees of stress. Thus, if we use figure 1 to denote the strongest stress, 2 to denote the second strongest stress, and so on, the stress of the English word "opportunity" might be marked as follows: 2p4tj5niti 1." (D. Jones "An Outline of English Phonetics" p. 229) Some linguists, for example, H. A. Gleason, N. Francis, C. G. Fries, say that phonemically there are four degrees of stress. They are called primary, secondary, tertiary, and weak.

In our discussion, we will deal with constructions of nouns with modifiers in their lexical status; it would be sufficient if we use only what is called the essential stresses which are of certain degrees. Our task now is to make clear what these certain stresses and certain degrees are.

To answer this question, a quotation from M. A. K. Halliday's book "The Edinburgh Course of Spoken English - 2 Intonation Exercises" p. iii would be good to start with:

"The tonic syllable is the one which carries the main pitch movement in the utterance. It is always falling or rising or a complex of these; there are no level tonic syllables in normal spoken English. The tonic syllable is always a strong syllable, and

may be, but is not necessarily, longer or louder than the other strong syllables in the utterance." (The underlining is the writer's).

From this quotation, we can draw the conclusion that the sort of syllable here mentioned by Halliday is usually (though as he says 'not necessarily') given the loudest/strongest stress. It is also clearly stated that this kind of syllable carries the pitch movement (whether it is falling or rising or a complex of these). Therefore, it is clear that the stress which is used on this kind of syllable will be taken as one of the essential stresses. As regards the stress mark to use, since the stress is largely related to pitch movement, as we have mentioned before, it has been felt advisable to use a mark which can illustrate both stress and pitch. In this case, the stress marks used by Roger Kingdon in his book "The Groundwork of English Stress" have proved to be effective. Thus, this essential stress (in our discussion) will be called "Kinetic" stress, and the mark used to indicate it is (^). This mark also represents Falling Tone. This stress indicator (and the others) will be placed just before the stressed syllables. Some examples could be:

^book
to^mate
impli^cation

The second essential stress (which is usually, but not necessarily weaker than the kinetic stress) is called the "High Level" stress. ' ' This is used on a fully stressed syllable coming earlier in the word than the syllable bearing the kinetic stress. The mark is ('). This also represents a static tone, usually pitched at or near the top of the speaker's normal voice range. Any word or phrase that has this stress is regarded as being double-stressed or multiple-stressed. Some examples would be:

'tip^toe
'good ^book
the ^student's ^interesting ^paper

The third essential stress, which is weaker than the previous stress, is called "Low Level" stress. This is used on a partially stressed syllable. It may come either earlier or later in the word than the syllable bearing the kinetic stress. The mark would be (,). It also represents a static tone pitched at or near the bottom of the speaker's normal voice range. The following could

"Hornby in his book "A Guide to Patterns and Usage" page 156 also says that in "growing children" (children who are growing) the stresses are even.

serve as examples:

im,possi`bility

e,manci`pation

`candle ,power

`house ,keeper

Other syllables will be regarded as unstressed. That is why, we will not give any marks indicating stress on these syllables .

It might be convenient to insert here that stress can be sorted out into two. They are: (1) Sentence stress, that is, the relative degree of force given to different words in a sentence ; (2) Word stress, that is, the relative degree of force used in pronouncing the different syllables of a word of more than one syllable. It is the latter which we are concerned with in this discussion.

"The field of English word stress is practically virgin soil, it having been generally held that it follows no rules," says R. Kingdon in his book "The Groundwork of English Stress" p. XII. We know for sure however that every word has at least one strong stress, in this case, a kinetic stress, when it stands in isolation as in a dictionary. It is after the joining of a word with another word (or some other words) in order to form a structure of modification , that the word(s) might undergo a stress adjustment. Consequently, in constructions of nouns with modifiers, the stresses can be adjusted. When the stressing of these collocations is under consideration, the important fact to establish is namely: which components are stressed and which are partially stressed or unstressed.

From the stress point of view, according to Roger Kingdon, in his book mentioned above, page 146, constructions of nouns with sole modifiers present three possibilities.

(1) Single stress (on the second component).

(- ` ) or ( , `). The following could be taken as examples:

,Great `Britain

St. `Paul

Sir `Andrew

(2) Double stress.

(' *). Some examples would be:

'good *book

'staw *hat

'running *cat

'Mary's *doll

'piece of *cloth

(3) Single stress (on the modifier).

($\cdot \frac{a}{\sim}$) or ($\cdot \ , \$). Our examples would be:

- ˘ flour mill
- ˘ dust-bin
- ˘ tea-cup
- ˘ jam-, jar
- ˘ soap-, bubble
- ˘ salt , spoon

If we carefully pronounce "dust-bin" and "flour mill," though they have exactly the same stress pattern, we will feel that they are different in the succession of their components. "dust-bin" would therefore be phonemically transcribed as / dʌs(t)bin /, whereas "flour mill" would be phonemically transcribed as / flauə+mɪl /. In the second transcription, we introduce a kind of phonemic transcription, i.e., / + /. This is to show that between the two components we have a slight transition, whereas in the first example, this transition does not occur. This transition is called "juncture." But we will not be dealing with it in our further discussion.

Since a noun modification structure does not always consist of two components only, the above divisions are not yet sufficient for our purpose. We might have three, four, or even more syllables to be stressed, because even a modifier can consist of several components, for instance, when the modifier is a clause. Moreover, as we have seen, a structure of noun modification can have several modifiers. Therefore, to make the study of stress of nouns with modifiers more complete, it would be good if we once more go quickly through the constructions with different modifiers, and finally try to see what happens when a noun has several modifiers.

1. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as Modifiers

Constructions of nouns with nouns as modifier in the position before the Head can be divided into five sections:

- a. Both the Head and the modifier are ordinary nouns.
- b. The Head is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -er.
- c. The Head is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -ing.
- d. The modifier is a noun in the possessive.
- e. The modifier is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -ing.

The following examples would clarify the above divisions respectively:

- (a) silk shirt
- (b) watch repairer
- (c) fact finding
- (d) students' companion
- (e) dining room

a. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as
Modifier when Both the Head and the Modifier are Ordinary Nouns

In actual reality, it is impossible to establish the rule for the stress pattern of constructions of nouns with modifiers if both the Head and the modifier are ordinary nouns. Only one or two indications can be given which will help in deciding on the correct stress for these constructions. If the modifier names a material or an article that can be used in manufacture, double stress is used if the construction names something made out of or containing the modifier; otherwise single stress is used. Some examples would be:

Double-stressed

- 'straw 'hat
- 'iron 'curtain
- 'ginger 'beer
- 'salt 'water

Single-stressed

- *steamboat
- *tinsmith
- *flour mill
- *salt ,spoon

In certain single-stressed noun modification structures of the above type, there is a suggestion of semantic partial stress. If the partial stress (low level stress) is not used, the semantic unity of the components in one of the homophonous constructions will be smaller than that of the first, and they become "non noun-modification structures." Some examples would be:

- *butter ,cup (cup for butter) - 'buttercup (a kind of plant)
- *water ,shed (store for water) - 'watershed (ridge between rivers)
- *letter ,press (press for letter) - 'letterpress (printed matter)
- *mortar ,board (board for mortar) - 'mortarboard (college cap)

Although it might not be purely lexical, it would be good to know that when the Head is felt to be of special importance, double stress is used. Thus, "gas-stove" is normally 'gas 'stove, the

importance of the Head element "stove" being no doubt due the implied contrast with "fire", the usual method of heating in England. Some other examples would be:

'arm-`chair
'eye-`witness
'church `yard

b. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as Modifier when the Head is Derived from a Verb and Ends in -er

If the Head is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -er, and the modifier names the object of the action, the construction is invariably single-stressed. Some examples would be:

'rice ,eater
'bell ,ringer
'gold ,digger
'pain,killer
'roadmender

If the modifier does not name the object of the action, the construction is double-stressed. The following are some examples:

'negro `singer
'vacuum `cleaner
'stage `manager

c. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as Modifier when the Head is a Noun that is Derived from a Verb and Ends in -ing

When the Head is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -ing, single stress is used if the modifier has the predicative function towards the Head. Some examples would be:

'blood-,poisoning
'sight ,seeing
'fault ,finding
'fox ,hunting

When the modifier has an attributive function towards the Head the construction is double-stressed. The examples could be:

'mass `meeting
'summer `lightning
'thanks `giving
'fellow `feeling

d. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as
Modifier when the Modifier is a Noun in the Possessive

When the modifier is a noun in the possessive, the construction is double-stressed. The following are some examples:

- 'Beauty's 'queen
- 'Frost's phi'losophy
- 'monkey's 'paw
- (a) 'week's va'cation

It has been convenient to insert here that the use of single stress in certain constructions of the above type will change them into "non noun-modification structures." The following two lists will illustrate them:

- 'giant's 'stride (the stride of a giant)
- 'doll's 'house (any house that can be used for dolls)
- 'fool's 'cap (any cap of a fool)
- 'cobbler's 'wax (any wax belonging to a cobbler)

Single-stressed

- 'giant's ,stride (gymnastic apparatus of pole with revolving head and hanging ropes enabling the user to take a huge stride round the pole)
- 'doll's ,house (diminutive dwelling house)
- 'fool's ,cap (particular kind of cap with bells and a crest, formerly used by a fool or a jester)
- 'cobbler's ,wax (a particular kind of resinous substance used for waxing thread)

On the other hand, there are also double-stressed constructions of this type which are "non noun-modification structures," but they are smaller in number. Some examples could be:

- 'bachelor's 'button (a button-shaped flower, or, a kind of button attached without sewing)
- 'printer's 'pie (confusion)
- 'printer's 'devil (an apprentice or messenger-boy in a printing office)
- 'baker's 'dozen (thirteen)

e. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as
Modifier when the Modifier is a Noun that is Derived from a Verb
and Ends in -ing

When the modifier is a noun that is derived from a verb and ends in -ing, the construction is single-stressed. Examples :

'boarding ,house
 'wedding ,ring
 'living ,room
 'walking ,stick
 'bathing-,costume

It would be good to note here that "street" is never stressed in a construction of noun modification whose Head is the noun "street," which denotes the name of a street. Thus, we say 'Oxford ,street and Dipone'goro ,street even though we always say 'Oxford 'Circus, 'Oxford 'Road, and Dipone'goro Uni'versity.

So far, we have seen how we stress noun modification structures with nouns as modifier in the position before the Head. As we have seen, we can also have constructions of nouns with nouns as modifier which come after the Head. These constructions are double-stressed. Some examples would be:

'woman her 'age
 'flower this 'colour
 'cotton this 'weight
 'box that 'size

2. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Verbs as Modifiers

In chapter II, we have seen that the forms of verb that can function as noun modifiers are distinguished into four, i.e., a. the present participle form, b. the past participle form, c. the infinitive form, and d. the simple form. We have also seen that some of them can appear both before and after the Head. All of them except the simple form, either before or after the Head, are either double-stressed or multiple-stressed. The following examples are illustrative:

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (a) 'running 'cat | 'boy 'running a'way |
| 'sleeping 'baby | 'picture 'hanging on the 'wall |
| 'following 'chapter | 'dog 'following its owner |
| (b) 'broken 'stick | re'mark for' gotten (by them) |
| 'sealed 'envelope | 'envelope 'sealed (by him) |
| 'written 'paper | 'paper 'written 'neatly |
| 'not to be for' gotten 'look | |
| 'not to be 'eaten 'medicine | |
| 'not to be neg'lected 'help | |
| (c) 'willingness to 'come | |
| 'article to 'write | |
| a'bility to 'think | |

(d) Constructions of nouns with verbs in simple form as modifier are single-stressed. Examples:

- *bake-, house
- *watch-, tower
- *play-, boy
- *watch-, dog

3. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Adjectives as Modifier

Constructions of nouns with adjectives as modifier (sole modifiers) are always double-stressed, no matter what position is being taken. When the modifier appears before the Head, some examples would be:

- *brown *dog
- *interesting i`dea
- *naked *fist
- *serious *problem
- *motherly *treatment

It might be worth noting here that some of the constructions of the above type become "non noun-modification structures" when they are single-stressed. The examples could be:

- *blackboard (not necessarily black)
- *hothead (a person)
- *redcoat (British soldier in the former time)

When the modifier comes after the Head, some examples would be:

- *time imme`morial
- Am`bassador Ex`traordinary
- Di`rector *General

As has been seen in chapter III, a noun may have more than one adjective as modifiers. Constructions like this are multiple-stressed; every component is given a High Level stress until the last component is reached. Some examples could be:

- *handsome *young *man
- *thick *green *young *grass
- ex`pensive *red *new *tie
- *best so`lution *possible
- *wise di`rector *general
- *narrow *river un`fordable

When in a construction like the ones above there is a form of an adjective which can be used as the form of an adverb, ambiguity in stressing may arise. However, if one of the components is an

adverb, the adverb itself is partially stressed. The following examples would give further illustration:

- 'very 'black 'colour (the very colour which is black)
- 'pretty 'red 'flower (the flower is pretty as well as red)
- ,very 'black 'colour (the colour is very black)
- ,pretty 'red 'flower (the flower is too red)

We have said that we will not deal with the modifications of the modifiers of nouns. The examples given above have been used to avoid ambiguity, not really to show what the stress pattern of constructions of nouns with modified modifiers.

4. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Adverbs as Modifier

Constructions of nouns with adverbs as modifier can contain the modifiers both before and after the Head. The constructions are always either double-stressed or multiple-stressed. Some examples would be:

- 'students a 'broad
- des'cription be 'low
- (his) 'driving 'fast
- (our) 'coming 'here im'mediately
- 'life 'here 'now
- (the) a'bove ex'amples

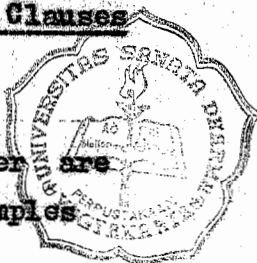
5. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Prepositional Phrases as Modifier

Constructions of nouns with prepositional phrases as modifier are also either double-stressed or multiple-stressed. Some examples would be:

- 'piece of 'chalk
- (a) 'glass of 'tea on the 'table
- 'children of 'highly 'educated 'parents
- 'interest in 'what was pro'posed to 'do
- 'paper about 'stress on the 'shelf

6. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Relative Clauses as Modifier

Constructions of noun with relative clauses as modifier are also either double-stressed or multiple-stressed. Some examples



would be:

'book I 'read

'man 'who 'came 'here

'food, 'which is 'fairly 'cheap

'student whose 'paper was 'very 'interesting, 'whom I 'told
you about

7. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Appositives as Modifier

Constructions of nouns with appositives as modifier are single-stressed or double-stressed or multiple-stressed. The following examples are illustrative:

Mr. 'Smith

, student 'A

'Tennyson the 'poet

'Brown, the 'banker

tech'nology, 'not 'art

'difficulty, 'namely, their 'stomach were 'empty

'news that his 'life is 'better 'now

8. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Adjectival Phrase Compounds as Modifier

Constructions of nouns with adjectival phrase compounds as modifier are always multiple-stressed. The examples could be:

'give-and-'take af' fair

'go-a'head 'signal

'seventy-'dollars-a-'week 'salary

9. The Stress of Constructions of Nouns with Determiners as Modifier

We have seen in the last part of chapter II that determiners can be divided into three sub-classifications, i.e., (1) the articles (a, an, the), (2) the possessives (my, your, her, its, their, our, his), (3) the demonstratives (this, that, these, those). Some determiners are normally partially-stressed or even unstressed. Therefore, constructions of nouns with determiners as modifier can be single-stressed, double-stressed, or multiple-stressed. The following examples would illustrate this:

a 'pen
 my 'son
 ,those 'people
 'both the 'students
 'all the 'four 'men

We have been dealing with constructions of nouns with one-kind modifiers. When a noun modification structures contains several modifiers of different kinds, the construction is multiple-stressed. Some examples would be:

the 'good 'answer of the 'student 'which sur'prised the
 lecturer
 the 'large 'brown 'old 'pair of 'dancing shoes she 'wore

It would be worth mentioning here that some constructions of nouns with modifiers (especially those with sole modifiers) are differently stressed when they are pronounced as American and as British. The following examples would give further illustration. The first two pairs are double-stressed in America and single-stressed in Britain, while those in the second the reverse is the case:

<u>American</u>	<u>British</u>
'steam-'engine	'steam-,engine
'finger-'nail	'finger-,nail
<u>British</u>	<u>American</u>
'apple 'sauce	'apple ,sauce
'beef 'steak	'beef ,steak

We cannot say in fact that American and British stressings are absolutely different; that is to say that many stressings shown as American may sometimes be heard in Britain, and vice versa. So, the indication of disparate stresses merely indicates in some cases that the stress shown as American is considered to be in more common use in Received Pronunciation in British Isles. The "Pronouncing Dictionary of American English" by Kenyon and Knott has been regarded as the authority for American stress, and the "English Pronouncing Dictionary" by Professor Daniel Jones for English.

Chapter VI. THE MEANING OF MODIFICATION IN STRUCTURES OF MODIFICATION WITH NOUNS AS HEAD

In this discussion, we will not deal with the meaning of constructions of nouns with modifiers, but with the meaning of the modification in these constructions. If, for example, we deal with the meaning of the construction "barking dog," we will say that its meaning is that "dog is barking," or "dog barks," or "dog barked," or the like. In short, if we do this, our task will be too large. But, when we deal with the meaning of the modification in the construction, we will just say that the meaning now is that the Head represents the "dear of action" indicated in the modifier.

In chapter II, we saw that there are several kinds of modifiers of nouns. These kinds are distinctive formal features which carry certain meanings. In order to arrive at these meanings, we have to see the relation of the modifier to the Head. Therefore, in this chapter, we will also go through the kinds of modifiers again. That is to say, we will be dealing with nine kinds of modifiers in structures of noun modification:

- (1) nouns as modifier
- (2) verbs as modifier
- (3) adjectives as modifier
- (4) adverbs as modifier
- (5) prepositional phrases as modifier
- (6) relative clauses as modifier
- (7) appositives as modifier
- (8) adjectival phrase compounds as modifier
- (9) determiners as modifier

1. The Meanings of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Nouns as Modifier

When the modifier of a noun is another noun, which occurs in the position before the Head, the meaning of the modification is one of the following: (a) when both the Head and the modifier are ordinary nouns, the meaning can be "identification." Some examples would be:

Chicago lawyer
art exhibition
grammar class
gold mine

We should admit that the term "identification" here is rather vague, and, hence, not very satisfactory. But, it is really very difficult (if not impossible) to find a more suitable term.

(b) the second meaning in this type of construction is "the indication of 'material' contained in the Head, or of which the Head is made up." Some examples are:

lead pencil
silk shirt
leather shoes

(c) If the Head is a derivative from a verb, which ends in -er, the meaning of modification is that the modifier is the "undergoer of action" stated in the Head. Some examples would be:

story writer
taxi driver
Poetry teacher
building inspector

(d) If the modifier is in the possessive form, the meaning of modification is usually that the modifier is the "possessor" of the Head. The examples could be:

father's hat
child's toy
Mary's doll
carpenter's hammer (belonging to a particular carpenter)

(e) Another meaning of modification in a construction of the above type (d) is that the Head is in the "sphere" of the modifier. Some examples would be:

(the) dog's master (the master is in the sphere of the dog,
not the master who is possessed by it)
life's problems (the problems are in the sphere of life)
(the) Beauty's queen (the queen is in the sphere of beauty)
(the) girls' school (the school is in the sphere of girls)

Here, again, the term "sphere" could be unsatisfactory.

(f) The other meaning of modification in this type of construction (d) is that of the modifier as the measurement of the Head. Our examples would be:

(a) month's vacation
(a) pound's weight
(a) mile's walk

(g) If the modifier comes after the Head, the meaning signaled

by the modification structure is "identification." Some examples would be:

book this colour
plate this size
boy my age

2. The Meanings of Modification in Constructions of Nouns

with Verbs as Modifier

a. When the modifier of a noun is a verb, ending in -ing, and which appears either before or after the Head, the meaning in the modification structure is that the Head represents the "doer of action" indicated in the modifier. Some examples would be:

shining sun
falling leaves
shouting children
blowing wind
dog barking in the yard
boy driving fast
birds singing in the tree
leaves falling from the tree

b. If the modifier of a noun is a verb having the past participle form, no matter where it occurs, the meaning of modification in the construction is that the Head represents the "undergoer of action" indicated in the modifier. The examples could be:

painted house
roasted meat
broken sticks
spoken language
house painted by him
meat roasted in the open fire
stick broken in two
language spoken in class

c. If the modifier of a noun is a verb in the past participle form in the phrase "to be", the meaning of the modification is that the Head is the "undergoer of action" indicated in the modifier. The position of this kind of modifier is always after the Head. Some examples are:

things to be done
attempt to be made
gate to be painted

d. If the modifier of a noun is a verb having the past participle form in the phrase "not to be", the position of which is also always before the Head, the meaning of modification

is that the Head "is not supposed to undergo the action" expressed in the modifier. Some examples are:

not to be forgotten panorama
not to be enjoyed opportunity
not to be handled vase

e. When the modifier of a noun is a verb having the "to infinitive" form, the meaning of modification in the construction can be:

(1) "identification". Some examples would be:

duty to obey
intention to come
ability to write

(2) that the Head is the "undergoer of action" indicated in the modifier. Some examples would be:

job to finish
guests to invite
paper to write

(3) that the Head is the "doer of action" indicated in the modifier. The examples could be:

student to come next
man to employ them

3. The Meanings of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Adjectives as Modifier

a. When the modifier of a noun is an adjective, the meaning of modification in the construction is usually that of "quality" to substance. The "quality" is represented by the modifier, and the "substance" is represented by the Head. Some examples would be:

nervous boy
beautiful flower
sweet tea
rosy cheek

b. But, there are two other situations in which special characteristics signal meanings other than that of "quality of substance." The first is when the Head is a derivative from a verb like 'work - worker,' 'inform - informant,' etc., and the modifier has the same shape as an adverb, as does 'hard,' or the modifier has the contrasting adverb form like 'perfect - perfectly.' When the Head is a derivative from a verb and the modifier is an adjective as has been described above, the meaning of modification is not that of "quality of substance" but rather "manner of action" as in the following examples:

hard worker (works hard)

perfect informant (informs perfectly)

rapid performance (performs rapidly)

c. The second situation is that when the Head is a derivative from an adjective like 'strange - stranger,' 'impossible - impossibility,' etc., the adjective modifier signals some degree of quantity of "quality" expressed in it like 'perfect,' 'complete,' 'absolute,' etc. When a noun of this kind is modified by an adjective of the above kind, the meaning of modification is not that of "quality of substance" but rather "degree of quality." The following examples would be illustrative:

perfect stranger (perfectly strange)

complete impossibility (completely impossible)

absolute importance (absolutely important)

It would be good to note here that the meaning of modification in a construction of a noun with an adjective as modifier will be ambiguous when the form of the adjective can also be used as the form of a noun like 'criminal,' 'English,' etc. This can be seen in the following examples:

criminal lawyer (one who has committed crimes or one who has handled cases of crimes)

English teachers (those who are from England or those who teach the language, English)

4. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Adverbs as Modifier

When a noun is modified by an adverb (coming either before or after the Head), the meaning of modification is "identification." Some examples could be:

above statement

people below

discussion afterwards

5. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Prepositional Phrases as Modifier

When the modifier of a noun is a prepositional phrase, the meaning of modification in the construction is usually "identification." Some examples could be:

piece of paper

Kingdom of Denmark

letter to my mother

pencil in the drawer

man with blond hair

stone from the moon

6. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Relative Clauses as Modifier

When a noun is modified by a relative clause, the meaning of modification in the construction is either "identification" or "description." The meaning is "identification" when the relative clause is a defining one. Some examples would be:

book I read yesterday
man who came late
progress which has been made
knife I cut it with

The term "description" might be unsatisfactory, but the writer cannot provide a better one.

The meaning will be "description" when the clause is a non-defining one. The examples could be:

Peter, who came first
price, which is now stable
beer, which will do you no good

7. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Appositives as Modifier

When the modifier of a noun is an appositive, the meaning of modification in the construction is "identification." The examples would be:

Mr. King
(the) figure 8
John, the weaver
fact that Bob is rich
Ali, the best fighter of the year

8. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Adjectival Phrase Compounds as Modifier

When the modifier of a noun is an adjectival phrase compound, the meaning of modification in the construction is that of "quality." Some examples would be:

up-to-date fashion
five-million-dollars fighters
devil-may-care attitude

9. The Meaning of Modification in Constructions of Nouns with Determiners as Modifier

When the modifier of a noun is a determiner, the meaning of modification in the construction is determined by the class of the determiner to which it belongs. As we have said before, there are three subclassifications of determiners: (1) articles, (2) possessives, (3) demonstratives. If the modifier is an article, the meaning of modification in the construction is "limitation." Some examples would be:

a book
the idea
five minutes
several examples

Again, "limitation" might be an unsatisfactory term to use here, but a better one cannot be found.

When the determiner is a possessive, the meaning of modification in the construction is "possession." This term might also be completely unsatisfactory. The following are some examples:

my house
our weakness
his modesty
its value

If the determiner is a demonstrative, the meaning of modification in the construction is "identification." The examples could be:

this table
these students
that wall
those flowers

It might be felt that the terms we have been using are rather ambiguous. As has been stated somewhat repeatedly, these terms are the ones possible so far, and, once again, the writer cannot provide better ones.

Chapter VII. EASIER AND MORE DIFFICULT ASPECTS OF TEACHING NOUN MODIFICATIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TO INDONESIAN STUDENTS

It is quite obvious that English is rather different from Indonesian in many respects. Pluralization, for example, is usually shown by the inflection *-s* in English, whereas in Indonesian, it is often shown by the duplication of the noun. Thus, the word "books" is translated into Indonesian as "buku-buku." In writing, it is often written "buku²"; the figure 2 tells us that we are to say the word before it twice. Past tense is usually shown by the *"-ed"* form of the verb in English, while in Indonesian, a verb never has any inflection; we usually know that the action takes place in the past only from the adverb of time, from the word "sudah," or "telah," or from the preceding utterance.

Comparative and superlative adjectives are very often shown by the suffix *"-er"* and *"-est"* in English, while in Indonesian, they are always shown by the words "lebih" and "paling" or prefix "ter-".

The noun modifications, however, in both languages are not always different from each other; some of them are the same. These similarities will be the easy aspects, whereas the differences will be the difficult aspects in teaching noun modifications of the English language to Indonesian students. In our discussion, we will try to see what these aspects are.

We must be clear first about what we mean by "teaching" here. When we teach the noun modification structure "a good book," for example, to our student, we want him to understand it in Indonesian. We will expect him to understand it as "buku baik," "buku yang baik," "sebuah buku baik," or "sebuah buku yang baik." This means that we are dealing with translation. Yet, the emphasis on the translation here involved is not the translation of the individual words, but especially on the "structural" translation. The construction "a good book" should be able to be translated by the student as "(sebuah) Kb (yang) Ks." (Kb. = kata benda = noun; Ks. = kata sifat = adjective).

The word "sebuah," which is one kind of noun modifier in Indonesian, is often left out, as is the word "yang," which is another kind. They will therefore not be serious interferences in our teaching. But, the position of the "kata benda" should be before that of the "kata sifat." This order is exactly the reverse in English because, in English, the adjective is before the noun. This is certainly an interference in teaching Indonesian students this kind of noun modification structure. However, the position of the determiner "a" is easy because in Indonesian the word "sebuah"

in a construction like the above example is also before that of the "kata benda."

We can see now that these easier and more difficult aspects lie in the kind and order of modifier. In our further investigation, we will take up the different kinds of forms of the modifiers in English, and then see what happens in the "structural" translation of the construction in Indonesian, i.e., which is, as will be seen later, mainly about order.

1. Noun Modification Structures with Nouns as Modifier

English constructions of nouns with nouns as modifier are mostly different from those of Indonesian in order. This interference is due to the fact that, in English, most structures of this kind have the modifiers before the Head, whereas in Indonesian, the reverse is the case for all constructions of nouns with nouns as modifier. Some examples in which this interference can easily be seen would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
art	exhibition	pameran	lukisan
tetoron	shirt	kemedja	tetoron
truck	driver	pengendara	truk
father's	hat	topi	ajah
Beauty's	Queen	Ratu	Ketjantikan

The interference will be greater when it is not merely a question of order, as in the following example:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
a pound's	weight	seberat	satu pon

Here, in the translation, besides their difference in order, we also have to introduce "se—" in the Head. So, in noun modification structures of this kind, we will have two interferences at the same time, namely, the difference in order and the addition of "se—" in the Indonesian counterparts of these constructions.

The order of Head and modifier in the following examples is the same for both the languages, i.e., the modifier comes after the Head:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
table	this size	medja	sebesar ini
shirt	that colour	kemedja	sewarna itu

Here, too, although the order is the same, we still have an interference because we also have to introduce "se—" in the modifier.

Apart from the above facts, it would be good to tell our student that the stress pattern in a construction of noun with another noun (in the possessive) sometimes determines whether it is a noun modification structure or not. The construction "doll's house" can be a noun modification structure or a non noun-modification structure. It is a noun modification structure when it has "double stress" (' '), thus 'doll's 'house', which would be translated as "rumah boneka"; whereas when it has "single stress" (' ,), it becomes a non noun-modification structure; thus 'doll's house, which might be translated into Indonesian as "rumah mini". But, there is a small number of constructions of this kind which have "double stress" but are not noun modification structures. An example would be: 'baker's 'dozen, which is translated into Indonesian as "tigabelas."

2. Noun Modification Structures with Verbs as Modifier

The position of the modifier in some of these constructions becomes an interference to the Indonesian students because in Indonesian we have the reverse order. Besides that, the word "jang" is introduced after the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
barking	dog	anjing	jang menggonggong
painted	house	rumah	jang ditjet
not to be handled	vase	djambangan	jang tak boleh di-
			pegang

The translation of "painted house" can also be "rumah tjet," "rumah bertjet," or "rumah jang bertjet." Nevertheless, it is felt to be preferable to teach our students "rumah jang ditjet," since this pattern of translation will always be right. "roasted chicken," for example, could be translated as "ajam panggang," but it is not at all wrong to say "ajam jang dipanggang." Therefore, in addition to the difference in order, the introduction of "jang di-Kk" in the modifier is also an interference. (Kk. = kata kerdja = verb). Similarly, we also have to introduce "jang tak boleh di-Kk" in the modifier when the modifier is the verb in the "not to be" past participle form.

In the other noun modification structures with verbs as modifier, the modifiers appear after the Head. This is of course an easy aspect in teaching them to Indonesian students because in Indonesian we have the same order. Here are some examples:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
ability	to write	kemampuan	menulis
dog	barking in the yard	anjing	jang menggonggong di- halaman
house	painted by him	rumah	jang ditjet oleh dia
things	to be done	hal2	jang harus dilaksana- kan
guests	to invite	tamu2	jang harus diundang
man	to guide them	orang	jang harus membimbing mereka

Although the similarity here is an aspect that facilitates our teaching, not all constructions of this kind are easy for Indonesian students. Only the first example will completely be easy because we can simply translate it as "Kb meKk." But, each of the other examples has its own interference. The second example is translated with the introduction of "jang me-Kk" in the modifier. In the third, "jang di-Kk" should be used. In the fourth example, although "to be done" itself can clearly be translated as "di-Kk," an interference still occurs because "jang harus" should precede it. The main "structural" translation here to teach is "jang harus di-Kk," which is the modifier in the whole construction. The difficulty in teaching the fifth example is even greater because the infinitive form of the verb here does not show that it is in the passive voice, yet this kind of construction is translated into Indonesian in the same way as the previous one is i.e., the verb is in the passive voice, thus "jang harus di-Kk." Like the previous two examples, the sixth example is also translated with the addition of the phrase "jang harus" in the modifier, but now the verb is not in the passive voice. The student should be told that the difference between the last two examples is that the transitive English verb, when not followed by an object, is in the passive voice, while the verb is in the active voice when the English transitive verb is followed by an object.

3. Noun Modification Structures with Adjectives as Modifier

The only difficulty in teaching constructions of nouns with adjectives as modifier is caused by the position of the modifier in the English construction which is usually different from that of its counterpart in Indonesian. In English, the modifier is usually in the position before the Head, whereas in Indonesian, it is always after the Head. Therefore, if the modifier in English is after the Head, which is comparatively very seldom, the con-

struction is easy. The following examples are illustrative for these easy and difficult aspects:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
new	book	buku	baru
red	flower	bunga	merah
hard	worker	pekerdja	keras
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
Asia	Minor	Asia	Ketjil
Director	General	Direktur	Djenderal

In the first two examples, the word "jang" can be used. Thus, they can be said: "buku jang baru," and "bunga jang merah." In the other examples, the use of "jang" makes it sound clumsy although it does not completely change the meaning. Since the use of "jang" is optional, we will not consider it as an interference.

4. Noun Modification Structures with Adverbs as Modifier

Most of these structures have the modifiers after the Head. This therefore facilitates our teaching because in Indonesian we have the same order. The interference is caused only by the fact that the English modifiers in a fairly small number of these constructions occur before the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
problem	now	masalah	sekarang
people	here	orang	disini
(their) coming together		kedatangan (mereka)	ber-sama2
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
above	example	tjontoh	diatas
nearby	town	kota	berdekatan

5. Noun Modification Structures with Prepositional Phrases as Modifier

The order of this kind of modifier in relation to the Head is an easy aspect in teaching these noun modification structures because, as in Indonesian, the modifier always comes after the Head. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
(a) cup of coffee		segelas kopi	
girl with spectacles		gadis berkatja mata	
pencil in the bag		potlot dalam tas	
thesis about language		skripsi mengenai bahasa	
stamp from under a table		prangko dari bawah meja	

In the first example, we do not use the translation of the preposition "of." In fact, even should we use it, it does not change the meaning, but its appearance makes it sound clumsy. We certainly can say: "segelas dari kopi." Since the absence of this preposition is not absolute, we will not consider it as an interference.

6. Noun Modification Structures with Relative Clauses as Modifier

Here, too, the similarity in the order of the modifier in both English and Indonesian facilitates our teaching these structures to our students. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
dog, which barked yesterday		anjing jang menggonggong kemarin	
boy who came late		anak jang datang terlambat	
book I read		buku jang saya baca	
knife I cut the meat with		pisau dengan mana saya memotong daging itu	

In the Indonesian noun modification structures of this kind, the word "jang" should always be present after the Head, even when there is no relative found in the relative clause, unless there is a preposition governing the relative, as we can see in the last example. If the relative is governed by a preposition, the relative clause is translated as "Kd mana/siapa" (Kd. = kata depan = preposition). Some more examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
paper I wrapped the cake with		kertas dengan mana saya membungkus roti itu	
woman I talked to		wanita pada siapa saya berbistjara	

7. Noun Modification Structures with Appositives as Modifier

The order of modifier in these structures is the same as that in Indonesian, i.e., the modifier comes after the Head. The interference may lie in the translation of the modifier, which is either a noun (a proper name) or a noun modification structure, as in the third example, where in Indonesian the word (si-) is obligatory. The examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
H	M	H	M
Fr.	Smith	Pastor	Smith
parents, namely, the father		orang tua, jaitu ayah dan	ibu
	and the mother		
Joe	the carpenter	Joe	(si)tukang kaju

8. Noun Modification Structures with Adjectival Phrase Compounds as Modifier

The order of modifier in this kind of construction in English is contrary to that in Indonesian. The other interference is caused by the fact that not all English adjectival phrase compounds have their counterparts in Indonesian. This might be one reason why we sometimes see an English adjectival phrase compound purely borrowed by Indonesian. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
M	H	H	M
seven-o'clock bus		Bis	pukul tujuh
go-ahead	signal	tanda terus	
up-to-date	dictionary	kamus up to date	

9. Noun Modification Structures with Determiners as Modifier

In chapter II, we considered determiners. They can be divided into three groups: (1) articles (a, an, the), (2) possessives (my, your, her, its, our, their), (3) demonstratives (this, that, these, those). In English, all determiners functioning as noun modifiers are always placed before the Head. In Indonesian, most of the determiners can also take the before-Head position, whereas, the others, i.e., the article "the" and all the possessives and the demonstratives, as usual, come after the Head. This similarity and difference in the order of the modifier become an easy aspect and an interference in our teaching. Some examples would be:

<u>English</u>		<u>Indonesian</u>	
<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>
a	book	(sebuah)	buku
an	example	(suatu)	tjontoh
one	thing	satu	hal
several	problems	beberapa	masalah
no	time	tiada	waktu
<u>M</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>M</u>
the	country	negeri	itu
my	difficulty	kesukaran	saja
its	tail	ekor-	nja
this	moment	saat	ini
those	children	anak2	itu

It is quite obvious up to now that most of the interferences and easy aspects are due to the fact that in the majority of English noun modification structures the modifiers appear before the Head, whereas in Indonesian, most noun modification structures show the modifiers appearing after the Head.

So far, we have been dealing with constructions of nouns with sole modifiers. Though a noun in English has more than one modifier, before and/or after the Head, it is already certain that the modifiers (except the one belonging to the articles other than "the") always come after the Head in their Indonesian counterparts. This is the main interference in our teaching. This interference is greater when we have to arrange these modifiers, some of which are before the Head in English.

When we want to translate an English noun modification structure in which there is more than one modifier, we start with the article which, in Indonesian, also takes the position before the Head, (if there is any, and if it can be translated), then go on with the Head, then with the nearest modifier before the Head, then with the second nearest, and so on, until we reach the farthest, then with the nearest modifier after the Head, then with the second nearest, and so on, if there is still any, until the last one is reached. The examples could be:

(1) English

two beautiful new silk ties in the wardrobe, which I like
 1 5 4 3 2 6 7
 (H)

Indonesian

dua dasi sutera (jang) baru dan bagus didalam lemari,

jang saja senangi

(2) English

the then interesting report made by him
 3 2 (1) 4

Indonesian

Laporan (jang) menarik saat itu jang dibuat oleh dia
 (II)

As we can see from the first examples if there are two adjectives in a construction, the Indonesian conjunction "dan" is usually added.

To close our discussion, it would be good to mention here again that we have been involved in the "structural" translation. Being able to translate each word in a construction does not always mean that the construction can be translated correctly, although the correct translation of a construction very often requires the exact translation of the individual words. Therefore, one can see that what has been done in this chapter might not be completely satisfactory, because we will certainly see rather slightly new facts the more examples we have. In other words, this chapter gives only the most obvious and common aspects.

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