

**SYNTACTIC PROPERTIES OF THE MAIN ATTENTION
VERBS AGAINST EXISTING DATA IN COCA
(Corpus of Contemporary American English)**

THESIS

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**ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES
FACULTY OF CULTURAL SCIENCES
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM
HASANUDDIN UNIVERSITY
MAKASSAR
2021**

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Thesis

As a partial fulfillment to achieve Master Degree

**Program
English Language Studies**

Written and submitted by

**NURRAHMI
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To

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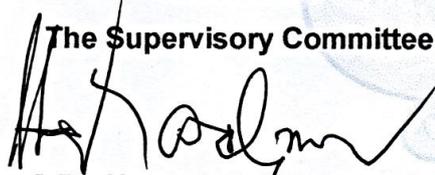
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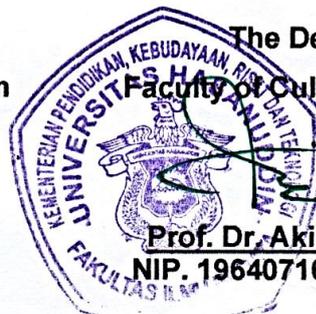
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Makassar, 29th December 2021



Nurrahmi

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In the name of ALLAH, the most Gracious and the most Merciful

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The researcher

NURRAHMI

ABSTRACT

NURRAHMI. *Syntactic Properties of The Main Attention Verbs Against Existing Data in COCA* (supervised by Hamzah A. Machmoed & Noer Jihad Saleh)

This paper analysed further elaboration of syntactic properties of the main *Attention* verb. All data required for this study were taken from Corpus of Contemporary American English. This paper aims to (1) analyse the structure of sentences with omissible O slot in Attention verb at the level of sentence (2) extend classification of Tense and Aspect, (3) explore the complement clauses allowed filling the O slot in Syntactic Properties of Attention verb. The research was conducted through qualitative procedures by categorizing a certain construction of the sentences and interpreting certain context related to the data.

The extended classification resulted the expand of sentence classification as constituent part, the omission O slot is enriched not only in simple sentence but also in compound, complex, compound-complex sentence, fragment sentence and *TO* infinitives. The application of tense and aspect are applied in various aspect which the omission O slot is mostly found in actual perspective and some in actual imperpective, previous perspective, previous imperpective and irrealis.

The feature of complement clause in Attention verb has released special properties; *That*, *WH*, Modal (*FOR*) *TO*, Judgment *TO* and *ING* complement are allowed in some specific subtypes. In Complement clause, the *That* and *WH* complement clause are constituted in all verb types. *Modal FOR TO* is generally formed in *See, Show, Discover, Look* subtype (only in look (at), and *Watch* subtype; *Judgment TO* is found *See, Show, Recognise* subtype except in *Witness, Look* and *Watch* subtype. *ING* complement exists in all verb types except in *Witness* subtype.

Keywords: Syntactic properties, Attention verb, Clause, Sentence, Tense and Aspect.



ABSTRAK

NURRAHMI. *Sifat Sintaksis Kata Kerja Attention Terhadap Data Pada COCA (dibimbing oleh Hamzah A. Machmoed & Noer Jihad Saleh)*

Penelitian ini menganalisis elaborasi sifat sintaksis dari kata kerja *Attention*. Semua data yang diperlukan untuk penelitian ini diambil dari *Corpus of Contemporary American English*. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk (1) menganalisis struktur kalimat dengan objek transitif yang dapat dihilangkan pada kata kerja *Attention* di dalam susunan kalimat, (2) menambahkan klasifikasi pada *Tense* dan *Aspect*, (3) mengeksplorasi klausa pelengkap yang disematkan untuk melengkapi objek transitif pada struktur sintaksis kata kerja *Attention*. Penelitian ini dilakukan melalui prosedur kualitatif dengan mengkategorikan konstruksi kalimat tertentu dan menafsirkan konteks yang terkait dengan data.

Hasil dari penambahan klasifikasi menunjukkan bahwa klasifikasi kalimat sebagai satu unsur dimana objek transitif yang dapat dihilangkan tidak hanya pada kalimat sederhana tetapi juga pada kalimat majemuk, kompleks, majemuk-kompleks, kalimat fragmen dan infinitif *TO*. Penggunaan *Tense* dan *Aspect* diterapkan dalam berbagai aspek dimana objek transitif yang dihilangkan sebagian besar terdapat pada imperpektif aktual dan beberapa pada perpektif aktual, perpektif lampau, imperpektif lampau dan irrealis.

Setelah menganalisis data pada klausa pelengkap, hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa terdapat sifat khusus pada klausa pelengkap yang ditemukan pada kata kerja *Attention* yaitu; *That, WH, Modal (FOR) TO, Judgment TO* dan *ING* komplemen bisa ditempatkan pada susunan kalimat kata kerja tertentu. Pada klausa pelengkap, *That* dan *WH* komplemen terdapat pada semua jenis kata kerja. *Modal FOR TO* umumnya terdapat pada kata kerja *See, Show, Discover, Look* (hanya terdapat pada *look at*), dan *Watch; Judgment TO* terdapat pada kata kerja *See, Show, Recognize* kecuali pada *Witness, Look* dan *Watch*. *ING* komplemen terdapat pada semua kata kerja kecuali *Witness*.

Kata Kunci: Sifat Sintaktis, Kata Kerja Attention, Kalusa, Kalimat, Tense dan Aspect.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

A	: transitive subject
O	: transitive object
NP	: noun phrase
AP	: adverb phrase
VP	: verb phrase
ic	: independent clause
sc	: subordinate clause

Tense and Aspect

Est	: establish
Part	: particular
AP	: actual perspective
AI	: actual imperpective
PP	: previous perspective
PI	: previous imperpective

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Syntax is a central component of human language deals with how sentences are constructed, and users of human language employ a striking variety of possible arrangement of the elements in sentence, (Valin, 2004). One of the most obvious yet important ways in which language differs is the order of the main elements in a sentence. The most syntactic property of language is that simple sentences can be combined in various ways to form complex sentence.

In the syntactic structure of sentence, the function of elements and the constituent structure are the hierarchical organization of the units in a sentence, yet interrelated aspects must be distinguished. Carnie (2006) formulated two simplistic of syntactic theories; first, a grammar consists of list of all well-formed sentence in the language; second, a natural first step toward allowing grammars to capture generalizations is to classify words into lexical categories.

In lexical categories, verbs can likewise be categorized along a number of dimensions that is divided as transitive and intransitive verb. Another dimension concerns the kind of situation it represents; some verbs represent static situation, symbolize actions, and represent complex situations involving an action plus a change of state (Valin, 2004).

In many languages, verbs are inflected to encode tense, aspect, mood, and voice. Verbs are variable lexemes. That is, they have a number of different inflectional forms that are required or permitted in various grammatical contexts. Huddleston & Pullum (2005) formulated two kinds of inflection: in some cases, an inflectional contrast serves to convey a meaning distinction, while in others the occurrence of particular inflection forms is simply determined by a grammatical rule. The set of inflectional forms of a variable lexeme (together with their grammatical labels) is called paradigm. In some languages the verb paradigms are extremely complex, but in English they are fairly simple.

Blevins (2006) claimed that the inflectional system of English comprises a large regular subsystem and a few highly circumscribed irregular patterns. The regular system contains a small number of general formations, which incorporate an even smaller number of exponents. Certain lexical word classes can take an inflectional suffix to signal meanings and roles that are important to their word class, such as 'plural' in the case of nouns, and 'past tense' in the case of verbs. When a given word class is subjected to inflection in a particular language, there are generally one or more standard patterns of inflection that words in that class may follow. Words which follow such a standard pattern are said to be **regular**; those that inflect differently are called **irregular**. For instance, many languages that feature verb inflection have both regular verbs and irregular verbs. In English, regular verbs form their past tense and past participle with the ending *[-e]d*; thus verbs like *play*, *arrive* and *enter* are

regular. However, there are a few hundred verbs which follow different patterns, such as *sing–sang–sung* and *keep–kept–kept*; these are described as irregular.

According to Dixon (2005), verbal concepts naturally divide into two sorts: **Primary**; those directly referring to some activity or state, verbs which can make up a sentence by themselves with appropriate NPs filling the various semantic roles and **Secondary**; those providing semantic modification of some other verb, with which they are in syntactic or morphological construction. Those types are grouped into some very specific subtypes which included into some particular verbs which has similar meaning in common.

This study is only focus on **Attention** verb that is one of Primary-B verb types. Verbs of this type have two core roles; A perceiver (which is human or higher animate) finds out something about an impression through use of eyes, or ears, or nose, or the taste-buds in the tongue, or the tactile feelings in the skin. The perceiver is always mapped onto A and the impression onto O syntactic relation. Most subtypes of **Attention** are Primary-B, in that the impression can be an NP or a complement clause; one subtype must have the impression realised through an NP and is thus Primary-A. People gather more kinds of information by their eyes than by other sense organs, and many **Attention** verbs imply vision, i.e., **see, watch, look (at), stare (at), peep (at), inspect**. The only verbs specifically referring to audition are **hear** and **listen (to)**. The other human senses are each represented by a single verb-form, **smell** and **taste**. There are a

number of general verbs of **Attention** which most frequently being used for something which is seen that can be used to refer to any senses, e.g., **notice**, **recognise**, **study**, as in '*I noticed, on tasting it, that he had put in too much salt*'; '*she recognised Bill's voice*'; '*He is studying the various smells produced in a Thai kitchen*'.

Attention verb types are divided into some subtypes i.e., **see**-subtype, **show**-subtype, **recognise**-subtype, **discover**-subtype, **witness**-subtype, **look**-subtype and **watch**-subtype, (Dixon: 2005). Generally, syntactic properties of the main **Attention** verbs in Dixon's theory, is explained that omission object NP can be applied to several subtypes. For three verbs in the **see**-subtypes; **see**, **hear** and **notice**, an O NP can be omitted if it could be inferred from the preceding discourse of context, e.g., '*Marry hit Fred on the temple!*' '*Yes, I saw*' (sc. The blow) or '*Billy gave his pudding to the dog!*' '*Yes, I noticed*' (sc. Billy is giving his pudding to the dog). An O NP cannot be omitted after **observe** or **perceive**; here one must include at least *it*, e.g., '*Did you know there was an eclipse of the sun today?*' '*Yes, I observed it*'. **Smell**, **taste** and **feel**, in the senses corresponding to subtype (see), also require an O NP to be stated. These verbs are used less frequently than **see**, **hear** and **notice**, which may be no convention for omitting an *it*, NP has yet evolved.

An O NP, coding the impression role may be omitted after verbs in the **look** and **watch**-subtypes. A sentence such as '*He is listening/watching*' simply focuses on the way in which the perceiver is directing their attention, without noting any specific impression to which it

may be directed. **Look**-subtypes, when the O NP is omitted, may take a spatial adverbial which is semantically linked to the verb, and thus must come after the predicate, e.g., *'He is exploring to the north'*, *'she is hunting in the forest'*. An O NP could always be included, e.g., *'He is exploring the country to the north'*, *'she is hunting (for) rabbits in the forest'*.

The omission of O NP cannot be applied after other certain verbs. **Show**-subtypes (show), must include either perceiver or impression in O slot, e.g., *'Diana showed Charles her ring'* or *'Diana showed her ring to Charles'*. **Recognise**-subtypes (recognise, spot), e.g., *'They will not recognise the errors'*, the O NP cannot be omitted as it clarifies the verb. **Discover**-subtypes (discover, find), e.g., *'She discover how to pause aging'*, **witness**-subtypes (witness) e.g., *'it is remarkable to witness Dybul's re-emergence after years in politic'*.

Dixon (2005) explained that there are some complement varieties allowed in O slot i.e., **That** and **WH**-complement are allowed in **see**-subtypes, e.g. *'I smelt that the meat was off where the cheese was hidden'*. A **That** clause with **see** can refer to an inference from direct observation e.g., *'I saw that his leg was broken'*. **Show**-subtypes, **recognise**-subtypes, **discover**-subtypes, **witness**-subtypes, and **watch**-subtypes may take **That** and **WH** clauses which directly describe some activity e.g., *'I watched that he crossed the road safety'*, except in **look**-subtypes, which **That** complement is not allowed after verbs.

Attention verb may take a special variety of **modal (for) TO** complement clause, **to** is obligatorily omitted in an active construction, but

obligatorily included in the passive. This variety of **to** complement, where **to** is omitted in the active, occurs with **see**-subtypes but not with **taste**, e.g., *'Everyone saw Albert kick his dog'* (active) – *'Albert was seen to kick his dog'* (passive). It is also attested in **watch**-subtypes but only in active, e.g., *'I listened to him sing'* (here **to** comes from **listen to**, rather than being the complementiser). In addition, verbs in **see**-subtypes and **discover**-subtypes may take judgement **to** complement clause but not in **witness**, **look** and **watch**-subtypes. Judgment **to** clauses most frequently have their verb phrase beginning with **be**. When **be** is the copula, then **to be** can be omitted only after verbs of **discover**-subtypes, e.g., *'I found Albert (to be) dead'*. When **be** is the imperfective auxiliary, **to be** may be omitted after verbs **discover**-subtypes, **see**-subtypes, and **show**-subtypes, e.g., *'I noticed Albert (to be) singing a hymn'*.

Ing complement occurs with verbs from **see**, **show**, **witness** and **watch**-subtypes, e.g., *'we observed/watched/witnessed Albert('s) stealing those apples'*. The subject of the complement clause can take possessive marking, but this is most frequently omitted. Whereas **recognise** and **discover**-subtypes only take a **to**, not an **ing** complement, e.g., *'I discovered that tall man (to be) saying his prayers (just when I'd decided he must be an atheist)'* is also unambiguous, referring to the perception of some fact that is not previously known. But verbs from **see** and **show**-subtypes can take both **ing** and **to** complement clause; an abbreviated sentence such as *'I noticed that tall man saying his prayers'* is thus

ambiguous between the readings of the **watch/witness** and of the **discover** sentence just given.

Currently, what Dixon formulated on the syntactic properties of the main **Attention** verb, has incompatible with the existing data in the COCA. **See**-subtypes; **smell**, **taste**, **feel**, **observed** and **perceive**, the O NP cannot be omitted in these verbs according to Dixon's theory. It indicates distinct construction found in COCA, e.g., '*Noses have a smell⁽¹⁾ or if they just smell⁽²⁾ of the things they have recently smelled⁽³⁾ (by the sense)*, (Lowsen, 2012). In this construction; (1) is a noun, (2) is base form, (3) is previous perfective, '*by the sense*' is an O NP comes after the verb that is optionally omitted in perfective aspect. Identical construction is also found in '*our advance literature had warned us not to be tempted by any roadside food vendors, however delicious the food looked and smelled (for your own good)* (Hodgkinson, 2012). Complement in O slot '*for your own good*' in this construction is omissible and functions as additional information in indirect speech.

Another distinction found in Dixon's theory is **that** complement clause can fill the O slot for **see**, **show**, **recognise**, **discover**, **witness**, and **watch**-subtypes. **Look**-subtypes are not included in any of the verbs where **that** complement is allowed filling the O slot. However, distinct construction found in CoCa, **that** complement can fill the O slot, e.g., '*You look at that I know you guys*' (Ridley, 2012), **that** comes after *look at* refers to the ability to understand something immediately. These distinct constructions attest that O NP in **smell** is omissible and **that** complement

can be constructed in **look**-subtypes, which is certainly not in accordance with complements varieties allowed in O slot based on Dixon's theory.

Referring to the findings on the data in COCA that are formed with broader construction to Dixon's theory, therefore the aim of this study is to investigate further elaboration of syntactic properties of the main **Attention** verb against the data in COCA. All data required for this study are taken in COCA. The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) was updated in December 2017. The corpus is used by approximately tens of thousands of people each month, which may make it the most widely used "structured" corpus currently available.

A principled interaction between the meaning of a word and its syntactic properties are associated with the meaning and grammatical behaviour. The meaning of word infers its likely grammatical possibilities; or, from observing the grammatical use of the word is able to infer a good deal about what it means. Therefore, the researcher is completely attentive in formulating research proposal titled "Syntactic properties of the main Attention verb against existing data in COCA".

B. Problem Statement

There are many references related to syntax theories in all aspects of language, particularly in syntactic properties analysis. However, along with the evolvement of new theories related to the application of syntactic properties in different languages, or the suitability of the theory on the latest data, is one of the main concerns for the researchers in linguistic, to

develop science and verify the application of previous theory whether the theory is still appropriate or need to be extended. Therefore, this study aims to identify the Attention verb types in Dixon's theory toward the latest data on COCA.

C. Research Questions

Based on the background of the study, research questions are formulated as follows:

1. How are the sentences formed with omissible O slot in Attention verb at the level of simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentence?
2. How are the Syntactic Properties of Attention verb extended to specific classification in Tense and Aspect?
3. What complement clauses are allowed to fill in the O slot Syntactic Properties of Attention verb based on the arrangement of sentences found in COCA?

D. Objective of the Research

As formulated in research questions, the objectives of the research are highlighted as follows:

1. To analyse the structure of sentences with omissible O slot in Attention verb at the level of simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentence.

2. To extend the classification of Tense and Aspect in Syntactic Properties of the Attention verb
3. To explore the complement clauses allowed filling the O slot in Syntactic Properties of Attention verb based on the data found in COCA

E. Significances of the Research

This research is expected to contribute to the extended of theory in English syntax particularly the analysis of Primary B verb types at the level of clause and sentence.

F. Scope of the Research

This research focuses on Primary-B verb types in Dixon's theory and is limited to only analyse the suitability of syntactic properties of the main Attention verbs against data in COCA.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Previous Studies

There are some research findings that relevant with this research are outlined briefly. Vincent and Veglioco (2002) explored the extent to which grammatical class effects (noun- or verb-specific naming deficits) can be explained by lexical semantic factors alone. Their research entitled “A semantic analysis of grammatical class impairments: semantic representations of object nouns, action nouns and action verbs”. They found that the grammatical class distinction between nouns and verbs was largely parallel to the semantic distinction between object and actions. In order to do so, they investigated lexical-semantic clustering properties, not only of nouns depicting actions, but also of nouns depicting actions, which should exhibit some patterns of similarity to other nouns if grammatical class emerges on the basis of lexical semantics. They collected speaker-generated features and used self-organizing maps to model lexical semantic similarity among words. Furthermore, they simulated lesions on the resulting map, finding patterns of object-noun/action-verb naming impairments consistent with those reported in the literature. Importantly, they found that action-noun exhibited no tendency to be more similar to object-nouns than their corresponding action-verbs, a finding inconsistent with a semantic account of grammatical class.

Korhonen and Briscoe (2004) conducted an extended classification over the English verb lexicon titled “Extended Lexical-Semantic Classification of English Verbs”. The result of this study released the providing discussion on how the classification could be further refined and extended in the future and integrated as part of Levin's extant taxonomy. They found that lexical-semantic verb classifications had proved useful in supporting various natural language processing (NLP) tasks. The largest and the most widely deployed classification in English was Levin's (1993) taxonomy of verbs and their classes. While this resource was attractive in being extensive enough for some NLP use but not comprehensive. In their paper, they presented a substantial extension to Levin's taxonomy which incorporates 57 novel classes for verbs not covered (comprehensively) by Levin. They also introduced 106 novel diathesis alternations, created as a side product of constructing the new classes. They demonstrated the utility of their novel classes by using them to support automatic subcategorization acquisition and showed that the resulting extended classification had extensive coverage over the English verb lexicon.

Fonteyn and Hartmann (2016) investigated the diachronic development of English deverbal nominalizations in *-ing* and illustrated how combining different methodological approaches could reveal a diachronic semantic shift from more “*verb*” to increasingly nominal readings. This paper illustrated how different methodological approaches could be combined to reveal complex patterns of constructional variation and change in the diachronic development of English *ing*-nominals. They

argued that approaching the data from a schema-based (rather than morpheme-based) perspective showed that nominal gerunds in English, from the sixteenth to the nineteenth century, had undergone a semantic drift towards more “*noun*” construal variants. Their hypothesis was supported not only by raw frequency counts, but also by association measures and by a detailed analysis of hapax legomena (word or an expression that occurs only once within a context: either in the written record of an entire language, in the works of an author, or in a single text).

Fatkullina et.al (2018) conducted a research titled “Semantic Synergy of the Noun and the Verb”. The purpose of their research was studying the processes of intercategorical (inter-part-of-speech) transition of feature vector of destructiveness by the example of interaction of the main parts of speech –the noun and the verb in the Russian language. Semantically, a megastretch field centered by verbs could be interpreted as a predicate-actant field which included: a) verb-and noun-based naming of situations; b) naming of participants (actants) of situations; c) naming of places that were suitable for the situation (locatives); d) naming of instrumental actants; e) naming of attributes of separate elements and participants of the given situation. The corpus of megastretch semantic fields could be successfully used in teaching the Russian language since the structure of such fields was communication-oriented and set a pattern for vocabulary memorization in extensive interconnected complexes.

Leseva et.al (2018) outlined the principles and procedures involved in the construction of a classification of verbs using information from 3

semantic resources WordNet, FrameNet and VerbNet. They adopted the FrameNet frames as the primary categories of the proposed classification and transfer them to WordNet synsets. The hierarchical relationships between the categories were projected both from the hypernymy relation in WordNet and from the hierarchy of some of the frame-to-frame relation in FrameNet. The semantic classes and their hierarchical organization in WordNet were thus made explicit and allow for linguistic generalizations on the inheritance of semantic features and structures. The classification exploits previously interconnected resources in a way that enables the study and use of structured representations of salient semantic and syntactic properties as realised in the hierarchical verb lexicon, the validation of semantic and syntactic generalization derived from each of these resources against the data encoded in the other resources, the mutual enhancement and the expansion of coverage through generalizations over combinations of features of the resources

Suherman (2018), in his study also took the data from Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and British National Corpus (BNC). His research focused on analysing metaphorical domain on English "Stab Verb". The result of his research indicated that, there were source domain and target domain that were employed on the semantic construction of English Stab verb. Source domain ascertained from the semantic roles which lied on the construction of stab verb, they are Agent, Target and Manip, while target domain consists of twenty noun phrases they are: eyes, looks, words, voice, question, guilt/ remorse, sadness,

anger, pain, memory, fear, panic, light/ flash, ray, dark, air, sound and directions. Most of these nouns were mapped as Manip or stabbing instrument while dark, air, and direction were mapped as the stabbing target.

In accordance with what has been described in previous studies, several researchers have explored the study of verbs through a semantic approach and the implementation of a broader verb analysis. First research had relied upon speakers generated features to create a model of lexical-semantic representation for a broad set of nouns and verbs, using self-organizing maps. The second research described and evaluated a substantial extension of verbs classification. The third research focused on the diachronic development of English *ing*-nominals and the fourth research showed a progressive verb category and the system of verbs enriched and developed not only in lexical-semantic aspect, but also in formal-grammatical one. While the fifth and the sixth studies took research data from large lexical databases which represent conceptual and lexical knowledge in the form of a network.

Therefore, the concern of this researcher will focus on the phenomenon of verb classification against the data provided in COCA. This research will take a different notion from previous studies and will not only focuses on verb analysis but also will outline the variety of complement clause allowed in O slot. This research will be the latest data analysis with its relevance to Dixon's theory.

B. Grammar and semantic

Grammar and Semantic are actually interrelated each other. Young (2003) shows that A **grammar**, then, is an attempt to describe the system of communication which every normal member of the community 'possesses' and which is shared by the community at large. It has both a psychological existence within the individual and a social existence within the community. Grammar has two parts: Morphology and Syntax. Payne (1997) states that Morphology is the study of shapes of words. Traditionally, morphology has also been concerned with the 'categories' i.e., operations or functions represented by adjustments in the shapes of words, as distinct forms those operations represented by lexical or analytic processes. Morphology deals with the structure of words, consists of parts called 'morphemes. If a morpheme is added to a word and yields a word of a different kind this is called a derivation, if a morpheme just adds some extra element of meaning to a word which is required by the grammar of the language, then it is called an inflection.

The second component of grammar, syntax, deals with the way in which words are combined together. According to Radford (2004), syntax is the study of the way in which phrases and sentences are structured out of words and the nature of the grammatical operations by which its component words are combined together to form the overall sentence structure. Within traditional grammar, the syntax of a language is described in terms of a **taxonomy** (i.e., classificatory list) of the range of different types of syntactic structures found in the language. Syntactic

analysis in traditional grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of **constituents** (i.e., syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific **grammatical category** and serves a specific **grammatical function**.

C. Syntactic Categories

At the level of semantics words can be arranged in semantic types, with a common meaning element. At the level of grammar, they can be arranged in word classes, traditionally called 'parts of speech', with common morphological and syntactic properties. Word classes can be viewed as abstractions over sets of words displaying some common property or properties (Hegeman, 2006).

Every language has at least two major grammatical categories: noun and verb. Two other major categories, adjective and adverb, may not be instantiated in any given language, though they usually are to some extent. Most language also have minor grammatical categories such as conjunction, particles and adpositions (Payne,1997).

Then there are general word classes such as Noun, Verb and Adjective which have a large and potentially unlimited membership. Leech (2006) defines noun, verb and adjective as follows: noun is a very large class of words which refer to entities (persons, things, substances, places and abstractions of various kinds). verb is A large class of words which indicate events and states of affairs, or which help qualify the reference of other verbs. Adjective is a large class of words which define more

precisely the reference of a noun or pronoun. A typical adjective can occur before a noun and can also occur after the verb.

Within a given category, subgroups of words may be identified based on more precise grammatical properties. For example, verbs may be specified according to the number and type of objects or other complements which they take. This is called subcategorization. Many modern descriptions of grammar include not only lexical categories or word classes, but also *phrasal categories*, used to classify phrases, in the sense of groups of words that form units having specific grammatical functions. Phrasal categories may include noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP) and so on. Lexical and phrasal categories together are called syntactic categories.

1. Lexical Categories

In systemic grammar members of a unit are grouped together and assigned to a particular class firstly according to the way they function in the next largest unit, secondly according to how they combine with units of the same rank, and thirdly according to the similarities and differences of their internal structure. Morley (2000) states that the allocation of words to word classes is undertaken on the basis of grammatical behaviour. By grammatical behaviour is meant, firstly, the wording environment in which the word appears, its location in the word string and the other words with which it can co-occur; and, secondly, the range of different forms which the word can display.

a. Noun

Morley (2000) affirms that nouns denote 'entities' will thus be regarded as a form, indeed the main but not the only form, of nominal word. Nouns can be 'concrete' or 'abstract'. If concrete, the entities referred to are made of material/ physical substance and are thus 'animate' (human or animal), e.g., *girl, gorilla*, or 'inanimate' (solid or liquid), e.g., *chair, water*. If abstract, they are intangible, e.g., *beauty, depth*. Nouns are usually associated with the ability to inflect (i.e., change their form) for the plural, involving either the addition of a syllable to the end of the word or the modification of a word root in some way, e.g., grape - grapes; peach - peaches; mouse - mice; goose - geese; or perhaps a combination of both, e.g., *knife - knives; index - indices*. In some instances, though the plural form shows no change from that of the singular, e.g., *sheep - sheep; deer - deer*.

According to Morley (2000), Nouns are also associated with the property of being able to follow the articles *a* and *the* as well as quantifiers such as *some, many*, e.g., *the car, some warmth*. Whilst this property does not apply to all nouns, and most nouns can only follow certain of these words, it is a distinguishing feature of nouns inasmuch as articles and quantifiers do not co-occur in such a relationship with other word classes, e.g., adjective - *beautiful*, preposition - *before*, verb - *write*.

Aarts (2001) defines a number of subclasses within the class of nouns. 1) Common nouns: **countable**, e.g., *compass, torch, cagoule etc*, **non-countable**, e.g., *warmth, rubbish, enlightenment*. 2) Proper nouns: *Jack, London, Cathy, Sarah, etc*. 3) Numerals: **cardinal** i.e., *one, two, three, etc*, **ordinal** i.e., *first, second, third, etc*. 4) Pronouns: **personal pronouns** i.e., *I/me, you, she/her, he/him, it, we/us, they/them*, **possessive pronouns** i.e., *my/mine, your/yours, her/hers, his, its, our/ours, their/theirs*, **reflexive pronouns** i.e., *myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, themselves*, **demonstrative pronouns** i.e., *this/these, that/those*, **reciprocal pronouns** i.e., *each other, one another*, **relative pronouns** i.e., *that, who, which, whose, etc*, **interrogative pronouns** i.e., *what, why, where, whatever, etc*, **indefinite pronouns** i.e., *anybody/ anyone/ anything, no-one, nothing, somebody/ someone/ something, etc*.

b. Verb

Dixon (2005) argues that verbs have different grammatical properties from language to language but there is always a major class Verb, which includes words referring to *Motion, Rest, Affect, Attention, Giving* and *Speaking*. Many semantic types belong to the same word class in every language but for others there is a quite a bit variation.

A verb is the centre of a clause and may refer to some activity and there must be a number of participants who have roles in that

activity or a verb may refer to a state, and there must be a participant to experience the state. A set of verbs is grouped together as one semantic type partly because they require the same set of participant roles (Dixon, 2005).

Galderen (2002) distinguishes verbs depending on what objects or object predicates they select. Verbs that select objects are called transitive verbs and those that don't are called intransitive. If the verb selects one object, it is (mono)transitive; if it selects two objects as in, it is ditransitive. Verbs that select a subject predicate are called copula verbs or linking verbs and those that have both an object and an object predicate are called complex transitive.

McCharty (2002) illustrates the distinct of five forms of verb lexeme with **Give**, 1) third person singular present tense: e.g., *Mary **gives** a lecture every year.* 2) past tense: e.g., *Mary **gave** a lecture last week.* 3) progressive participle: e.g., *Mary is **giving** a lecture today.* 4) perfect or passive participle: e.g., *Mary has **given** a lecture today, The lecture is always **given** by Mary.* 5) basic form (used everywhere else): e.g., *Mary may **give** a lecture.* The contrast between present at (1) and past at (2) is a contrast of **tense**. The other dimensions of contrast manifested in (1) are **person** (third person versus the rest) and **number** (singular versus plural, just as for nouns and pronouns). However, because only one word form (*gives*) exhibits these contrasts, they play a much smaller inflectional role in modern English verbs. For the form labelled

'perfect or passive participle', two examples are given, because perfect and passive contexts can be distinguished clearly.

c. Adjective

As stated by Dixon (2004), the adjective class differs from noun and verb classes in varying ways in different languages, which can make it a more difficult class to recognize, and a more difficult class to put forward generalizations about. The adjective class shows considerable variation in size. Many languages have an open class of adjectives, but others have a small, closed class. The smallest classes may have just three or four members. There are generally derivational processes which form adjective stems from nouns and/or from verbs. Typically, a higher proportion of adjectives than of nouns and verbs will be derived forms.

The second difference added by Dixon (2004) relates to functional possibilities. Whereas a noun class will always relate to the predicate argument slots in clause structure, and a verb class to the predicate slot, the functional expectations for an adjective class are both more complex and more varied.

Dixon (2004 : 10 -11) elaborates typical adjectives fill two roles in the grammar of a language:

- 1) In a statement that something has a certain property. There are two syntactic techniques for coding the adjective functions as intransitive predicate and the adjective functions as copula complement.
- 2) As a specification that helps focus on the referent of the head noun in an NP that relates to a predicate argument. This is shown by the adjective functioning as a modifier within an NP.
- 3) Some—but by no means all—languages have a comparative construction. Adjectives may always function as the 'parameter of

comparison (and sometimes they are the only words which may function as the parameter).

In some languages, adjectives may also modify verbs, either in plain form or via a derivational process. There may, of course, be further syntactic patterns available to adjectives in individual languages. Adjectives vary widely in their grammatical properties when compared to those of nouns and verbs. Where an adjective can occur as intransitive predicate, it may take some or all of the morphological processes available to verbs in this slot (tense, aspect, mood, etc.). In some languages a modifying adjective within an NP will take some or all of the same morphological marking as nouns (number, case, etc.). There are a number of languages in which adjectives combine these possibilities, inflecting like nouns within an NP and like verbs when functioning as predicate.

2. Phrase, clause and sentence: Categories and Function

As stated by Radford (2009), The central assumption underpinning syntactic analysis in grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of constituents (i.e., syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific grammatical category and serves a specific grammatical function. Given this assumption, the task of the linguist in analysing the syntactic structure of any given type of sentence is to identify each of the constituents in the sentence and (for each constituent) to say what category it belongs to and what function it serves.

As instanced by Radford (2009), in relation to the syntax of a simple sentence like:

(1) *Students protested*

It would traditionally be said that the sentence consists of two constituents (the word *students* and the word *protested*), that each of these constituents belong to a specific grammatical category (*students* being a plural noun and *protested* a past tense verb) and that each serves a specific grammatical function (*students* being the subject of the sentence and *protested* being the predicate). The overall sentence *Students protested* has the categorial status of a clause which is finite in nature (by virtue of denoting an event taking place at a specific time) and has the semantic function of expressing a proposition which is declarative in force (in that it is used to make a statement rather than ask a question). Accordingly, grammar of English provides the simplest type of finite declarative clause found in sentence like (1) in which a nominal subject is followed by a verbal predicate.

In relation to terminology, Radford (2009) acknowledges that syntactic properties (i.e., word-order properties relating to the positions they can occupy within sentences): a set of words which belong to the same category thus have a number of semantic, morphological and syntactic properties in common. There are traditionally said to be two different types of word, namely content words/contentives (= words which have substantive lexical content) on the one hand and function

words/functors (= words which essentially serve to mark grammatical properties) on the other.

Verspoor & Sauter (2000) affirm that sentences have different *communicative functions* and that each of these communicative functions is expressed with a typical *sentence pattern*, called the *declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory* pattern. The declarative sentence pattern is the most common and gives information about a situation or event and may name one or more participants, a process, an attribute of one of the participants, and various aspects of the setting.

Furthermore, Verspoor & Sauter (2000) point out that the *sentence constituents* naming these are *subject*, and *predicate*. The predicate names the process, and possibly other participants, attributes or setting. The predicate consists of a *predicator*, which names the *process*, and its *complement*. The complement can be a *direct object* or *subject attribute*. If there is a direct object, there may also be either an *indirect* or *benefactive object* or an *object attribute* in the complement. Any sentence may or may not have one or more *adverbials*, which give information about the setting.

In accordance with Verspoor & Sauter (2000), a sentence can be *simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex*, depending on the types of clauses it contains. These clauses may be *main* (also called *independent*) clauses or *dependent* (also called *subordinate*) clauses. Main clauses can stand on their own, or two or more main clauses may

be connected with a *coordinator* (a *coordinate* or a *correlative conjunction*) or separated with a *semi-colon*, to form a compound sentence. *Dependent clauses* are introduced by *subordinators* and function as a clause constituent (subject, object, adverbial, and so on) or as part of a constituent; in other words, a dependent clause by itself does not form a complete sentence. Each clause, in turn, has single words or groups of words that together form grammatical and meaningful units, called *phrases*. The difference between clauses and phrases is that phrases do not have a subject and predicate.

Verspoor & Sauter (2000) emphasize the constituents of the five different types of phrases: noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. A noun phrase has the most possibilities. The head is either a noun or a pronoun. It may or may not have one or more determiners, premodifiers, and/or post-modifiers, each of which may have one of several realizations.

Verspoor & Sauter (2000) illustrate that post-modifiers of nouns can be all kinds of different phrases or clauses. Post-modifiers may be restrictive or non-restrictive, depending on whether or not it is needed to identify the noun which it modifies. A restrictive clause, which helps identify, is not set off with commas, and a non-restrictive one, which gives extra information, is. A *that* clause is never set off with commas. When the post-modifier is a finite clause, the subordinators are the relative pronouns *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which* and *that* depending on whether they refer to persons or things. When the clause modifies a

noun denoting a place or time, the relative adverbs *where* or *when* may be used. Non-finite relative clauses, which can often be considered ellipted clauses, may have a *to* infinitive, an *-ing*, or an *-ed* form.

Moreover, Verspoor & Sauter (2000) explain more regarding constituent of phrases. They stated that an adjective phrase has an adjective as its head. It may or may not have one or more premodifiers and/or post-modifiers, and even a discontinuous modifier. An adverb phrase has an adverb as its head. Like an adjective phrase it may or may not have one or more premodifiers, post-modifiers, and a discontinuous modifier. Modifiers are always realized as either phrases or clauses, even though especially premodifiers often consist of only one word. A prepositional phrase has a preposition as its head, and its complement is almost always realized by a noun phrase. a finite or non-finite clause can function as a complement of a preposition. A verb phrase has a lexical verb as its head, and it may have one or more auxiliaries in front of it.

D. Complement Clause

1. THAT and WH Complement

Dixon (2005) elaborates an alternative 'indirect speech' construction in which what is said is coded as a subordinate clause called a 'complement clause. The phenomenon of complement clauses covers a good deal more than indirect speech. English has

a variety of complement clause, the most straightforward involves placing that before the 'speech clause'

a. **That** complement refers to some definite event or state. Thus:

(1) *I know **that** Harry is on duty today*

b. **Wh-** complements involve either (i) whether or if, which enquires about a complement event or state; or (ii) another **wh-** word (who, what, which, why, etc.), which enquires about some aspect of an event or state, Dixon (2005). They may be the indirect speech correspondents of questions, e.g. *They asked whether he is sick, she enquired who was sick*. **Wh-** complements also occur with many verbs not concerned with speaking, then referring to something about which clarification is needed, e.g.

(2) *I (don't) know whether/if Harry is on duty today*

(3) *I (don't) know who is on duty today/when Harry is on duty*

Based on Dixon (2005), the most typical pattern with verbs like **know, hear, understand, remember, decide** and **remark** is for a that complement to occur in a positive sentence and a **wh-** one in a negative one. Thus, '*I know that Harry is on duty today* and *I don't know whether Harry is on duty today*'. But all **wh** complements can be used without a negative, e.g. '*I know whether Harry is on duty today*'. And that clauses may be used with a negative, as in:

(4a) *I don't know that Harry is on duty today*

(4b) *I didn't know that Harry was on duty today*

Both (4a) and (4b) would be likely to be used when someone else had made an assertion that Harry is on duty today. By using (4a), in present tense, the speaker declines to agree with the assertion (4a) has a meaning not very different from I don't believe that Harry is on duty today. Sentence (4b), in past tense, indicates not so much disagreement as surprise the speaker thought that they knew Harry's duty days, and hadn't realised today was one of them.

Furthermore, Dixon (2005) implied that almost all verbs that take **wh-** complements also take **that** clauses. The few exceptions include enquire and discuss, which must refer to some ongoing activity (through an **ing** complement) or to something about which clarification is sought (through a **wh-** clause). There are a fair number of verbs that take a **that** but not a **wh-** complement.

2. Modal (FOR) TO Complement

Modal (For) To complements relate to the subject of the complement clause becoming involved in the activity or state referred to by that clause, or to the potentiality of such involvement (Dixon, 2005). Thus: '*I am hoping for Harry to go tomorrow, I wish (for) Kate to accompany me*'. The **for** may optionally be omitted after certain main verbs (with a semantic effect), the complement clause subject then becoming surface object to the main verb.

In addition, Dixon (2005) provides example shows that many verbs that take a **Modal (For) To** complement also accept a **that**

complement clause. The meaning of the **(for) to** construction is often similar to the meaning of the **that** construction when a modal is included.

For instance:

- (1a) I wish that Harry would go*
- (1b) I wish (for) Harry to go*

It seems here as if the complementiser **to** carries the same sort of semantic load as a Modal does in a **that** clause; this is why it refers to this variety of complement as **Modal (For) To**. Although a **Modal (For) To** construction will frequently have a similar meaning to a **that** construction with a Modal, they will never be exactly synonymous, (Dixon 2005).

Thus:

- (2a) I remembered that I should lock the door (but then decided not to, as a way of asserting my distaste for authority)*
- (2b) I remembered to lock the door (but then Kate took the key and pushed it down a grating, so I couldn't)*

The **that** clause in (2a) simply records a fact, what my obligation was; it says nothing about my attitude to that obligation. A **(for) to** complement, as in (2b), refers to the involvement in an activity of the subject of the complement clause (which is here coreferential with the subject of the main clause).

3. Judgment TO Complement

Based on Dixon (2005), **Judgment TO** complements refer to a judgment or opinion which the main clause subject makes, through

the complement clause, generally relating to a state or property of the subject of that clause.

Judgement to complements have a rather different meaning. The subject of the main clause verb ventures a judgement or opinion about the subject of the complement clause predicate, Dixon (2005). Most often the judgement is about some state or property which is either transitory, e.g. *'I noticed Harry to be asleep'*, or else a matter of opinion, e.g., *'They declared Fred to be insane'*. A **Judgement to** construction is unlikely to be used to describe some permanent, objective property; thus, one would be unlikely to hear, *'He noticed her to be Chinese'* (only He noticed that she was Chinese). And most often the subject of the **Judgement to** clause is human, *'I believe that glass to be unbreakable sounds rather odd'*.

Moreover, Dixon (2005) claims that a **Modal (for) to** complement can fill subject, object or post object slot, a **Judgement to** clause must immediately follow a transitive verb, effectively in object function. There is never any *for*, and the underlying complement clause subject is surface syntactic object of the main verb. This constituent is seldom coreferential with main clause subject (since it is relatively unusual to make judgements about oneself); when it is, it can never be omitted.

Dixon (2005) constructed that A **Judgement to** is frequently found with the main clause passivized, often so as to avoid

specifying who is responsible for the judgement, e.g., ‘*He was declared to be insane*’. In fact, the verb say only takes a **Judgement to** complement in the passive, e.g., ‘*Kate is said to be a good cook*’ (but not **They say Kate to be a good cook*). All verbs which take **Judgement to** also accept a that complement clause, sometimes with a very similar meaning. Example:

(a) I know that Mary is clever

(b) I know Mary to be clever

4. ING Complement

ING complements refer to some activity or state as extended in time, perhaps nothing the way in which it unfolds. Dixon (2005) assumes that many verbs **that** and **Ing** complements show considerable overlap in meaning and use. But there is always an implicit or potential semantic contrast, along the lines that has been described.

Dixon (2005) provided a compare, for instance: ‘propose’

(1a) I propose (our) walking from Harry o’ Groats to Land’s End to raise money for charity

(1b) I propose that we (should) do the walk in the spring

(1c) I propose that we (should) forget the whole thing

Each of (1a–c) could have a **that** or an **Ing** complement. The **Ing** alternative sounds fine in (1a), since it introduces the idea of a continuous activity. For (1b) a that construction is preferred the walk is now being referred to as an ‘event’ and a time suggested for it. Sentence (1c) again refers to the walk as a ‘unit’; the **Ing** alternative

to (1c), *I propose (our) forgetting the whole idea, sounds particularly infelicitous.

In **Ing** complement clauses, the VP does not show tense inflection; instead, its first word is in **-Ing** form. It may not include a modal, but can include aspect markers have or have plus be and/or passive be, Dixon (2005). The subject of an **Ing** complement clause may be different from main clause subject and is then sometimes marked by possessive ending 's (or, if a pronoun, it is in possessive form).

Dixon formulates examples wherein the subject can be coreferential with main clause subject, and is then usually omitted from the complement clause (since the VP in an **Ing** clause is not tensed, it does not have to be preceded by a subject), e.g.,

- (2) *I remember Harry's/your winning the lottery*
- (3) *I remember (?*my) winning the lottery*

A fair number of verbs form a derived noun by the suffixation of **-Ing**. It is important to distinguish between an NP with such a deverbal noun as head, as in (4), and an **Ing** complement clause with the corresponding verb as predicate head, as in (5):

- (4) *I admired Kate's singing of 'Salty Dog' in church*
- (5) *I admired Kate's singing 'Salty Dog' in church*

There is a meaning difference (5) states that *'I admired the fact that she did it'* (Kate's temerity in giving voice to a bawdy song in a sacred place); (4) states that *'I admired the manner in which she sang'* (her syncopated style, etc.).

E. Primary and Secondary Verb

Dixon (2005) divided verbal concepts naturally into two sorts: **Primary** and **Secondary**. **Primary** verbs directly referring to some activity or state, verbs which can make up a sentence by themselves with appropriate NPs filling the various semantic roles. Verbs those providing semantic modification of some other are classified as **Secondary** with which they are in syntactic or morphological construction.

Primary-A verbs must have NPs (not complement clauses) in subject and object slots (Dixon, 2005). The semantic types with this property are: **motion** (run, return, take, pull, throw, fall, spill), **rest** (sit, stay, put, hang, surround, hold), **affect** (hit, punch, cut, sweep, cover, twist, burn), **giving** (give, lend, pay, present, donate, exchange), **corporeal** (eat, taste, kiss, laugh, sleep, bleed, die), **weather** (rain, snow, thunder, hail), **competition** (beat, win, attack, lose, compete), **social contract** (appoint, govern, manage, join, marry), **using** (use, employ, operate, wear, waste), **obeying** (obey, process, deal with, grant, perform), these verbs take concrete nouns as heads of their subject and object NPs when used in a literal sense. There are some metaphorical uses of individual. While **Primary-B** verbs may have NPs filling subject and object slots but they also allow, as an alternative, a complement clause to fill one of these slots.

In **Primary-B**, one semantic type may have a complement clause or an NP as subject i.e., **annoying** (please, satisfy, amuse, anger, disgust, surprise) and a number of types may have a complement clause as an

alternative to an NP in object (or, sometimes, in a post-object) slot i.e., **attention** (see, hear, notice, discover, watch), **thinking** (think (of/about/over), imagine, assume; know, learn, understand), **realise** (believe, suspect), deciding (decide (on), choose, resolve, elect), **speaking** (shout, state, remark, propose, inform, tell, order, ask, promise, describe), **liking** (like, love, hate, loathe, prefer, envy), **acting** (act, behave, copy, imitate; reproduce), **happening** (happen, take place, commit, experience, undergo), **comparing**, (resemble, differ (from); compare, measure, cost), **relating** (depend on, relate to, imply, be due to).

According to Dixon (2005), important points to note are that **attention, acting, happening, comparing** and **relating** straddle **Primary-A** and **Primary-B**, each including some verbs that do and some that do not take a complement clause. The object of a verb from **annoying**, and the subject of a verb from **attention, thinking, deciding, speaking, liking** and **acting** (that is, the function which cannot be realised by a complement clause for those types), will generally be a human noun.

The second verbal conception is **Secondary** verbs, all provide semantic modification of some other verb. Dixon (2005) classifies secondary into secondary-A, secondary-B, secondary-C, and secondary-D. **Secondary-A** verbs have the same subject as the verbs they modify, and the same object too, if the verb is transitive. it does not involve the addition of any semantic roles. The semantic types with this property are: **modals** (will, can, should, might, ought to, must), **semi-modals** (be going to, be able to, have got to), **beginning** (begin, start, finish, complete,

continue with), **trying** (try, attempt, succeed, fail, practise), **hurrying** (hurry (over/with), hasten (over/with), dawdle (over) and **daring** (dare, venture).

Secondary-B verbs introduce an extra role, the principal or the timer (which is subject of the main verb), in addition to the roles associated with the semantically central verb, which is predicate head within the complement clause (Dixon, 2005). However, the subject of the Secondary-B verb is often identical with the subject of the complement clause and the latter is then generally omitted. The semantic types with this property are: **wanting** (with a number of subdivisions; e.g., want, wish (for); hope (for); need, require; expect; intend; pretend and **postponing**, e.g., postpone, delay, defer, avoid.

Secondary-C verbs must introduce a further role over and above the roles of the complement clause verb (Dixon, 2005). The types are: **making** (make, force, cause, tempt; let, permit, allow, prevent, spare, ensure) and **helping** (help, aid, assist).

Secondary-D verbs may optionally add a role (introduced by preposition to) to the roles required by the verbs they modify (Dixon, 2005). There are two semantic types with this property: **seem** (seem, appear, happen, look) and **matter** (matter, count).

F. Attention Verb

All attention verbs take a Perceiver and an Impression (that which is seen or heard). Dixon (2005) associates verb class into thirty semantic

types. Some verbs, such as those in the **giving** and **affect** types, have three semantic roles. Some, like **Attention**, have just two. And some have just one. Altogether, it is necessary to recognise forty or fifty semantic roles. The roles of each type, at the semantic level, are mapped into syntactic relations, at the grammatical level. For **Attention** verbs, a verb may refer to a state, and there must be a participant to experience the state.

Dixon (2005 : 132-133) characterizes attention verb into certain subtypes which are described as follows:

1. The **See**-subtype, involving straightforward description of an act of perception (which can be involuntary)—see, hear, smell, taste, feel. In this subtype are observe, which refers to **seeing** or **hearing** something happening; seeing or hearing something which stands out from its background; and **perceive**, which implies picking out some particular thing or state or event from its background (and is also used as a high-flown alternative to other verbs from this subtype).
2. The **Show**-subtype, describing how one person assists another to an act of perception. The main verb in this subtype, **show**, is lexical causative of see/notice/observe. There will be a Causer in A slot, and either Perceiver or Impression will be in O relation, according to which is focused on in this instance, e.g., '*Harry picked up the book and showed it (Impression: O) to Kate*' (Perceiver), or '*John brought Mary over and showed her*' (Perceiver: O) *the book*' (Impression). When **show** has NPs realising all roles it implies visual perception, but when

the Impression is a complement clause, then show may imply use of the eyes.

3. The **Recognise**-subtype, referring to perception of something (by any sense) and then knowing what it is, or what its significance is **recognise, spot**.
4. The **Discover**-subtype, referring to perception of something that was not previously apparent, e.g., **discover** 'perceive something (which may be surprising) for the first time'; **find** 'perceive something that was either looked for, or which is familiar from the past'.
5. The **Witness**-subtype, referring to observation of some definite unit of activity; **witness** may be the only member.
6. The **Look**-subtype, referring to the Perceiver directing their attention in order to connect with some Impression, e.g., **look (at), listen (to)** and the more specific verbs **stare (at), glare (at), peep (at), peer (at), squint (at); eavesdrop (on);** also **search (for), look (for), hunt (for); inspect, study, investigate, scan, scrutinise, examine, check, view; explore, survey; visit** (which involves intersection of motion and attention).
7. The **Watch**-subtype, similar to (6) but referring to deliberate perception over a period of time. **Watch** may be the only verb uniquely belonging to this subtype; the contrast with **look (at)** can be seen in the acceptability of '*I watched Harry eat his dinner*' but not '*I looked at Harry eat his dinner*'. **Listen (to)** has two senses, one parallel to **look**

(at), belonging to subtype (6) and the other parallel to watch, in subtype (7), e.g., *'I listened to John say his prayers'*.

G. Verbal System

Verb **tense**' refers to when the action occurred. The most common **tenses** are past, present, or future. Verb **aspect** refers to the flow of time. **Aspect** addresses whether or not the action takes place **in** a single block of time or if the action is continuous or repeated.

Michaelis (2006) describes the meanings of the tenses by relied on a specific instance of the space–time analogy: the timeline. The timeline is a line (or, equivalently, an ordered set of points) that is unbounded at both ends and segmented into three parts: the past, the present, and the future. The points on the timeline may be times by themselves or times paired with events. While various relations among points on the timeline can be described as the only one type of relation counts as a tense relation.

In addition to interacting semantically, within a given grammatical construction, exponents of tense and aspect also interact within the system of time reference in English: aspectual constructions can express the same basic temporal relations that tense inflections do. Dixon (2005, p. 210-211) points out the basic distinction between tense and aspect within realis for 3rd person singular as explained follows;

Table 1. **Tense and Aspect**

<p>Imperative mood, used in commands; base form of the verb.</p> <p>Non-imperative mood, used in statements and questions.</p> <p>Irrealis status, something which is uncertain in the future, or was unrealised in the past</p> <p>Realis status, something which has reality in past, present or future time</p> <p>Generic tense: -s</p> <p>Future tense</p> <p> Established aspect: -s</p> <p> Particular aspect: is-ing</p> <p>Present tense</p> <p> Actual perfective aspect: -s</p> <p> Actual imperfective aspect: is-ing</p> <p> Previous perfective aspect: has -en</p> <p> Previous imperfective aspect: has been -ing</p> <p>Past tense</p> <p> Actual perfective aspect: -ed</p> <p> Actual imperfective aspect: was -ing</p> <p> Previous perfective aspect: had -en</p> <p> Previous imperfective aspect: had been -ing</p>
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1. **Generic** (or habitual) is a timeless statement, whose core noun phrases generally have generic form. For examples: '*Crows are black*', '*God hates liars*'
2. **Future**
 - a. **Establish**: regular occurrence '*we have a meeting this afternoon*'
 - b. **Particular**: a non-regular or special occurrence '*we are having a meeting this afternoon*'
3. **Present and past system**
 - a. **Perfective**: denoting to an aspect of verb that express completed action
 - b. **Imperfective**: without reference to its completion

4. Present

- a. **Actual perfective** '*The army surrounds the city*'; describes a continuing states state, that the army is all around the city
- b. **Actual imperfective** '*The army is surrounding the city*'; describes a continuous and evolving process whereby the army gradually extends itself until is all around the city until is all around the city
- c. **Previous perfective** '*Roy has lived in New York*'; states that he began to live in New York but if there is no time adverb, the implication is that he no longer lives there
- d. **Previous imperfective** '*Roy has been living in New York for ten years*'; indicates that he is still living there that is implied by adding an adverb of specifying a period of time.

5. Past

- a. **Actual perfective** '*I watched it all*'; implies that it is over and done
- b. **Actual imperfective** '*I was watching all day*'; implies that it is still in going in the past
- c. **Previous perfective** '*He had tried*'; implies that although he has tried but he is not successfully win.
- d. **Previous imperfective** '*He had been trying for a month*'; implies that the period of time taken before it has finished in the past

H. English Corpora

Corpus linguistic has undergone a remarkable renaissance in recent years, from being a marginalised approach used largely in English linguistic, and more specifically in studies of English grammar, corpus linguistics has started to widen its scope. Based on McEnery and Wilson (2001), Corpus linguistic is a lively subject, with corpus-based approaches being taken to many research questions in linguistics. Corpus linguistics is also increasingly multilingual, with many languages, and many varieties of those languages, being studied with the help of corpus data. As studied by Asmusses (2006 : 33), some of the interpretations of the observed differences in vocabulary, collocation, semantics, and grammar are not necessarily the result of general changes in language usage, but rather a likely consequence of differently composed corpora and standardisable approaches are required to account for the complexity of the observed linguistic phenomena, as well as the quantitative relationship between a linguistic realisation and its potential variants.

A collection of linguistic data, either compiled as written texts or as a transcription of recorded speech. The main purpose of a corpus is to verify a hypothesis about language - for example, to determine how the usage of a particular sound, word, or syntactic construction varies. Corpus linguistics deals with the principles and practice of using corpora in language study. A computer corpus is a large body of machine-readable texts (David, 1992).

Gorjanc (2006 : 91) found that lexical changes are able to be tracked quickly and reliably with the help of a corpus and also observe the response of a selected language to new lexical items introduced into it from other languages, e.g., English, or some other language with which the selected language has direct contact.

McEnery and Wilson (2001) define that Grammatical or syntactic studies have, along with lexical studies, been the most frequent types of research which have used corpora. What makes corpora important for syntactic research is, first, their potential for the representative quantification of the grammar of a whole language variety and, second, their role as empirical data, also quantifiable and representative, for the testing of hypotheses derived from grammatical theory.

A landmark in modern corpus linguistics is the publication of contemporary compilation of about a million American English words selected from a wide variety of sources. The Corpus of Contemporary American English is the first large, genre-balanced corpus of any language, which has been designed and constructed from the ground up as a 'monitor corpus', and which can be used to accurately track and study recent changes in the language. The 400 million words corpus is evenly divided between spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic journals. Most importantly, the genre balance stays almost exactly the same from year to year, which allows it to accurately model changes in the 'real world and is now available through a web interface.

Davies (2010) elaborates the discussing of the corpus design that provide a number of concrete examples of how the corpus can be used to look at recent changes in English, including morphology (new suffixes – friendly and –gate), syntax (including prescriptive rules, quotative, the get passive, resultatives, and verb complementation), semantics (such as changes in meaning with web, green, or gay), and lexis including word and phrase frequency by year, and using the corpus architecture to produce lists of all words that have had large shifts in frequency between specific historical periods.

COCA has a unique tool that easily to use, quickly map out and study historical changes in contemporary English. The researchers can bring linguistic change right up to the present time, and thus study the way in which the language is changing in ways that are not possible with any other resource.

I. Conceptual Framework

Figure 1. Conceptual framework

