

ATTRIBUTIVE-ONLY
&
PREDICATIVE-ONLY
ADJECTIVES

I.L. Jasim Muhammed Abbas
College of Arts

I.L. Mahmoud Arif Edan
College of Arts

Abstract

The researchers, through the present research, have investigated the different uses of both attributive-only and predicative-only adjectives. The present research aims at finding out the problematic areas faced by those who have, or like, to deal with the two subclasses of adjectives. As a matter of fact, most adjectives can function both attributively and predicatively, but some have to be used either in an attributive position or in a predicative position. There is a group of adjectives that can be used in both positions but with different meanings.

So the present research studies the syntactic and semantic subclasses of attributive-only and predicative-only adjectives. On the other hand, semantic sets have been proposed to account for the usual order of adjectives and for their co-occurrence. At last, the two categories of adjective have to be tested in one of English literary works (i.e.: HAMLET) in order to point out their different uses, both syntactically and semantically.

Introduction:

The terms Attributive and Predicative refer to the position of an adjective in a phrase or a sentence. It is said that an adjective is attributive or is used attributively when it comes before a noun (and is therefore part of the noun phrase). These adjectives can be called Prenominals. For example:

-He is an old man.

-A young shop-assistant was dismissed last week.

An adjective is predicative or it is used predicatively when it comes directly after the verbs (be, seem, feel, look, turn ...etc.). It can be used on its own as the complement.

-Your mother seems *angry*.

-The girl is *afraid* of that dog.

Or it may follow the noun it modifies immediately. In this case, it is called postnominal:

-All the persons *present* at the meeting were in favour of the proposal.

Although this seems easy enough, one has to learn certain things about English adjectives. The majority of adjectives can function both attributively and predicatively; but some adjectives can occur only before a noun, others only after copular verbs or perception verbs. Some adjectives can occupy more than one position, but depending on where they are placed, they may carry different meanings.

The present research deals with those adjectives which are used in attributive and predicative positions only and it also deals with the meaning they convey when used in one position or another. It proceeds to discuss the word order of both attributive and predicative adjectives.

1. Adjectives used in attributive (prenominal) position only

Some adjectives can go in attributive position but not in predicative position. " A few adjectives can behave like adverbs of degree or intensifiers, more or less in the sense of 'complete', and can be used only in the attributive position, e.g. (mere, out and out, sheer, utter):

-Ken can't be promoted. He is a *mere* boy/ *an out* and *out* rogue.

-What you say is *sheer/ utter* nonsense."

(Alexander, 1997: 113).

For almost all writers, pronominal, or attributive, position is the most characteristic position for English adjectives. Although many adjectives can appear in both positions, certain ones, called reference adjectives, must occur pronominally.

(Dunton and Kerr, 2005: 250) argue " that there are some adjectives that can only be used in attributive position, for example:

chief, elder (= older), eldest (= oldest), eventually, former (=earlier), indoor, inner, lone, main, mere (a mere child = only a child), only, out door, outer, own, premier, principal (= main), sheer (= complete), sole (= only), upper, utter, (complete)".

Leech and Svartvik (1994: 219) introduce some adjectives used only in attributive position which are related to their adverbs, e.g.:

-She was the **former** prime minister.

The adjective (*former*) can be related to the adverb (formerly), for example:

-This was formerly a busy port.

Leech and Svartvik (ibid.) add that "there are more such adjectives, where each example with an attributive- only meaning is followed by an example of its corresponding adverb:

-He was a popular colleague and a **hard** worker.

-Our students work **hard**.

-Many changes occurred in Europe in the **late** 1980s.

-I've not heard much from her **lately**.

-They went to an **occasional** concert.

-**Occasionally** they went to the theatre."

They (ibid) add that " some attributive- only adjectives are derived from nouns, for example:

-A new **criminal** justice bill will soon come before parliament. (crime ~ criminal: 'a bill concerned with the punishment of crimes').

-He thought **atomic** weapons had weakened the finest feeling that had sustained making for ages.

(atom....atomic)

-There will be no need for a **medical** examination.

(medicine ~ medical)."

Celce-Murcia and Larsen- Freeman (1999: 382) mention a list that details the eight categories of adjectives that occur exclusively in attributive position (based on Bolinger 1967). They (ibid.) call these adjectives (reference adjectives):

"1. those adjectives that show the reference of the head noun has already been determined:

The	{	very particular same self- same exact	}	man I was seeking
-----	---	---	---	-------------------

2. Those adjectives that show us the importance or rank of the head noun:

Their	{	main prime principal chief	}	faults
-------	---	-------------------------------------	---	--------

3. Those adjectives that show the head noun is recognized by law or custom:

The	{	lawful rightful legal true	}	heir
-----	---	-------------------------------------	---	------

4. Those adjectives that identify the reference of the noun itself – that is, they, tell us (in part) what the noun means – and they may not occur after the copula *be*.

A *medical* doctor * a doctor is medical.
An *atomic* physicist * a physicist is atomic.
A *reserve* officer * an officer is reserve.

5. those adjectives that qualify the time reference of the noun.

The *future* king. The *former* chairperson.
The *present* monarch the *previous* occupant

6. Those adjectives that qualify the geographical reference of the noun:

A *southern* gentleman the *urban* crisis
A *rural* mail carrier.

Two other categories that are mentioned but not specially defined by Bolinger are:

7. Those adjectives that intensify or emphasize the head noun:

A *total* stranger a *mere* child
sheer fraud *utter* nonsense

8. Those adjectives that show the uniqueness of the head noun:

The *sole* survivor.

The *only* nominee.

A *single* individual."

" Nouns commonly function as premodifiers of other nouns.

The *bus* station, a *business* friend, *student* agents"

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990: 131).

They (ibid) add that" they do not share other characteristics of most adjectives:

a. There is no corresponding predicative function:

The **bus** station. * The station is bus.

b. They cannot be modified by *very*:

*A *very bus* station.

c. They cannot take comparison:

* A *busser* station."

There are other features that distinguish these adjectives from other ones; for example: article contrast (the bus/ a bus), number contrast (one bus/ two buses), genitive inflection (the student's essays), premodification by an adjective (the young students).

"the basically nominal character of a premodifying noun, such as *garden in garden tools*, is shown by its correspondence to a prepositional phrase with the nouns as complements: tools for the garden. Compare also:

The **city** council ~ the council for the *city*

A **stone** wall ~ a wall (made) of *stone*

August weather ~ weather (usual) in *August*

Such correspondence is not available for attributive adjectives:

A **long** poem a **thick** wall

The **urban** council **hot** weather"

(ibid., 132)

The example mentioned above for adjective used attributively only is illustrated by other writers, among them is Alexander. He (1988: 113) states that "names of materials, substances, etc. resemble adjectives. So do some nouns indicating use or purpose, e.g. *kitchen chairs*.

Examples of such nouns are:

It's a **cotton** dress (= it's cotton/ made of cotton)

It's a **summer** dress (= a dress to be worn in summer)

Words like **cotton** or **summer** behave like adjectives in this one way. They do not have comparative or superlative forms; they cannot be modified by *very*, etc. They remain essentially nouns, often modifying

a second noun. Most of these noun modifiers can be used without change."

Alexander (ibid.) makes a comparison between noun modifiers and adjectives derived from names of materials. He says that some adjectives such as (wooden) and (woolen) are adjectives, not nouns; since they are used with some change in their shape:

It's a **wooden** spoon / It's made of *wood*.

It's a **woolen** dress / It's made of *wool*.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen – Freeman (1999: 385) support the preceding explanation of the adjectives which are used only attributively by mentioning another kind of these adjectives. They (ibid.) state that the "the entire adjectival measure phrases can appear before a noun, but when they do, the noun is in its singular form, regardless of the cardinal number expressed:

They have **a one- year- old** child.

He is **a six- foot- tall** man.

It is **a twelve- inch- long** ruler.

Actually this is true of more than one measure phrases. Nouns serving to modify other nouns are unmarked for number in prenominal position. This is a minor point, but a source of errors for ESL/ EFL students.

I need *an egg* carton.

This *shoe* box will do.

* I need *an eggs* carton.

* This *shoes* box will do."

2. Adjectives used in predicative position only

Adjectives can be used predicatively as subject complement after linking verbs (be, seem, look, feel):

-I feel *sick*.

-You look *awful*.

An adjective can be used predicatively as object complements after verbs like (consider, believe, find):

-It makes me *sick* to see how people spoil the environment.

Adjectives can be a complement to a subject which is a finite clause:

-Whether the minister will resign is still *uncertain*.

But the construction with introductory (*it*) gives end- weight and the more common:

It is still *uncertain* whether the minister will resign.

Adjectives can also be complement to a non- finite clause:

-Driving a bus isn't *so easy* as you may think.

This research proposes to discuss those adjectives that can be used in predicative position only. In this regard, Leech and Svartvik (1994: 220) introduce some groups of adjectives that are predicative- only. One such group is ' health adjectives' like (faint, ill, and well):

-Oh doctor, I feel *faint*.

-He doesn't look *well*, does he Anna?

-No matter how *well* or *ill* you are, you'll still be guaranteed acceptance into the pension plan up to the age of 75."

"Some predicative- only adjectives, including (afraid, fond, present, ready) are often followed by clauses:

-I'm *afraid* I don't really agree with that, Bill.

Or phrases:

-I'm very *fond* of Hemingway.

-Most of the committee members were *present* at the meeting.
(They attended the meeting)

-I hope you are *ready* for some hard work.

(I hope you are prepared for some hard work)

Present and *ready* can also precede a noun, but with different meanings:

A *ready* answer'

-The ruler is *twelve inches long*.

2. Adjectives in certain fixed expression (mostly derived from French):

Attorney *general* heir *apparent*

President *elect* notary *public*

3. Adjectives following indefinite pronouns, where the adjectives are derived from a reduced relative clause:

-Let's do *something* (that is) more *interesting*.

-I can't think of *anything* (that is) *exciting to do*.

Stageberg (1981: 260) states that " when two or more adjectives modify a noun, they can occur after a noun.

-The mailman, *weary* and wet, trudged along in the rain.

-A woman, *old* and *gaunt*, stood at the door."

"It should be noted that, in particular, adjectives used only predicatively (*content*, *averse*) or placed after nouns (president elect) insist on stress after the prefix. 'Expert, though exceptionally stressed on the prefix, may also be met with as (ex'pert at something) in the predicate."

(Poldauf, 1984: 47)

3. The Meaning of Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

It has been mentioned that many adjectives can appear in both attributive and predicative position, however, with few adjectives; there is a change in meaning, and this is the task that the present section aims to deal with.

3.1 The difference in meaning between prenominal and postnominal adjectives:

Bolinger (1967) notes that there is often something semantically more permanent or characteristic about the attributive adjectives that directly precede nouns than the postnominal adjectives that directly follow nouns, which tend to reflect temporary states or specific events, for example:

- The ***stolen*** jewels (a characteristic of the jewels)
- The jewels ***stolen*** (identified by a specific act – may be they were recovered later)
- The only ***navigable*** river (usual fact about a given region)
- The only river ***navigable*** (temporary state due to a drought or some other event)
- The ***guilty*** people (a characteristic, classifying modifier of the people)
- The people ***guilty*** (the people are described in terms of one act or event)."

(Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 388)

Alexander (1988: 112) gives many more examples concerning the difference in meaning between some adjectives that could be used both attributively and predicatively. He (ibid.) argues that "a few adjectives change in meaning depending on whether they are used before or after a noun. Some of these are: (concerned, elect, involved, present, proper, responsible, etc). The following sentences shed light on this case:

- The ***concerned*** (= worried) doctor rang for an ambulance.
- The ***doctor concerned*** (= responsible) is on holiday.
- This ***elect*** (= specially chosen) ***body*** meets once a year.
- The ***president elect*** (= who has been elected) takes over in May.
- It was a very ***involved*** (= complicated) ***explanation***.
- The ***boy involved*** (= connected with this) has left.

- Present** employees (= this currently employed) number 3000.
- Employees **present** (= those here now) should vote on the issue.
- It was **proper** (= correct) *question*.
- The *question* **proper** (= itself) has not been answered.
- Janet is a **responsible** *girl* (= she has a sense of duty).
- The *girl* **responsible** (= who can be blamed) was expelled."

Alexander (ibid: 110) proceeds explaining the difference in meaning and adding other adjectives such as (old, late, and heavy). These adjectives have other meanings when they are used attributively. Fore example:

- Agatha Withers is very **old** now (i.e. in years- predicative).
- He is an **old** friend (i.e. I've known him a long time- attributive).
- Your suitcase is very **heavy** (i.e. in weight – predicative).
- Peterson is a **heavy** smoker (i.e. he smokes a lot – attributive).
- You're **late** again (i.e. not on time – predicative).
- My **late** uncle was a miner (i.e. he is dead now – attributive).

3.2 The Meaning of Predicative- only- Adjectives when used attributively and vice versa:

There are certain predicative- only- adjectives that could be used reciprocally to give different meanings. Alexander (1988: 110) mentions a group of such adjectives. Adjectives such as (faint, ill, poorly, unwell and well) are used predicatively in connection with health:

- What is the matter with him? He's **ill/ unwell**. He feels **faint**.
- How are you? I'm very **well**.

Fine that relating to health is predicative; used attributively which means *excellent'* (e.g. She is a fine woman)

The adjectives *sick* and *healthy* can be used in attributive position, where ill and well normally cannot.

-What's the matter with Mr. Court? He is a *sick* man.

-Biggles was very *ill*, but he's now a *healthy* man.

(But ' He's an *ill* man' is increasingly heard)

Swan (1995: 15) makes a comparison among a number of adjectives concerning the meaning they convey when used in both positions. He (ibid.) compares between (*live*) and (*alive*), attributive *old* and predicative *old*:

A *live* fish it's still *alive*

Live (meaning ' not dead')

An *old* friend (not the same as a friend who is *old*)

Old (referring to relationships that have lasted a long time).

"There is sometimes another word of similar meaning that can be used before a noun:

-A *sleeping* child....or being *asleep* (but not 'an *asleep* child')

-A *living* person....or being *alive* (but not 'an *alive* person')

-The *frightened* dog...or being *frightened/ afraid*. (But not 'the *afraid* dog')

-A *satisfied* customer....or feeling *satisfied/ pleased*. (But not 'a *pleased* customer')

-A *lonely* feeling...or feeling *lonely/ alone*. (But not 'an *alone* feeling')

Ashamed, glad, pleased, and upset can come before a noun when they do not refer directly to a person:

-An *ashamed* look, the *glad* news, a *pleased* expression, an *upset* stomach"

(Dunton and Kerr, 2005: 183)

"*Ill* and *well* referring to health can sometimes occur before a noun. *Ill* can do this when it is modified by an adverb:

-The doctor had been called out to a *severely ill* patient.

Well can come before a noun in a negative sentence:

-My father is not a *well* man".

(Dunton and Kerr, 2005: 183)

"Adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly are termed *inherent*; those that do not are termed *non-inherent*. Some non-inherent adjectives occur also predicatively. For example, both a new friend and a new student are non-inherent, though the former can be used predicatively:

-That student is *new*.

-*my friend is *new*."

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 121)

They (ibid.) proceed to mention that " a few words with strongly emotive value are restricted to attributive position, e.g.:

-You *poor* man, my *dear* lady, that *wretched* woman".

Quirk and Greenbaum, (ibid.) state that " a few adjectives have a heightening or lowering effect on the noun they modify. Two semantic subclasses of intensifying adjectives can be distinguished for our present purpose: *emphasizers* and *amplifiers*. Emphasizers have a general heightening effect: emplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm, denoting the upper extreme of the scale or a high point on the scale.

1. Emphasizers are attributive only. Examples include:

-A *certain* ('sure') winner *pure* (sheer) fabrication

-An *outright* lie a *real* (undoubted) hero

2. Amplifiers are central adjectives when they are inherent:

-A *complete* victory ~ the victory was *complete*.

-Their *extreme* condemnation ~ their condemnation was *extreme*.

-His *great* folly ~ his folly was *great*.

But when they are non-inherent, they are attributive only:

-A *complete* fool.....*the fool is complete.

-A *perfect* idiot.....*the idiot is perfect."

4. The Order of Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

4.1 The Order of Attributive Adjectives:

Indeed, "The order of two or more attributive adjectives is a point of English Grammar that is a minor source of error for non-native speakers of English. This is partly because not all languages follow a prenominal order the way English does." (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 392)

The order of adjectives and noun modifiers depends mainly on the kind of meaning they express. Words like "*beautiful*" or "*nice*", which express speaker's opinion, come first. Words expressing purpose or type, such as *electronic*, come later.

Sometimes two nouns are used together:

The *town* wall the *Finance* minister *winter* evenings

Here the nouns *town* and *finance* are used like adjectives, to modify *wall* and *minister*. When both adjective and noun modifiers are used, the adjectives come first:

The *old town* walls the *former Finance* Minister

Dark winter evenings

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2005: 185) introduce a very clear list for the order of attributive adjectives. This research is concerned with those adjectives that are used attributively only.

The order, as illustrated by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (ibid.) is as follows:

1. **Opinion:** beautiful, nice, wonderful, awful, etc.
2. **Size:** long, large, small, short, tall, etc.
3. **Most of other qualities:** clear, busy, famous, new, etc.
4. **Age:** new, old
5. **Shape:** round, square, fat, thin, wide, narrow, etc.
6. **Colour:** blue, red, white, black, etc.
7. **Participle forms:** running, missing, covered, broken, etc.

8. **Origin:** British, Italian, Chinese, etc.
9. **Material:** sandy, wooden, brick, paper, plastic, etc.
10. **Type:** electronic, human, chemical, etc.
11. **Purpose:** alarm (clock), tennis (court), walking (boots), etc.

For example:

- The *poor little pink plastic* doll.
- An *ugly old gray wooden* statue.
- An *ugly big round chipped old blue French* vase.

4.2 The Order of Predicative Adjectives:

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2005: 254) affirm that "the order of predicative adjectives is less fixed than the order before a noun. **And** is normally used before the last adjective.

- The chair was *soft and comfortable*.
- We were all *cold, wet, and hungry*.

An adjective expressing an opinion often comes last:

- She is *old and beautiful*.

We use (**but**) when the two qualities are in contrast:

- The solution is *cheap but effective/ cheap and effective*".

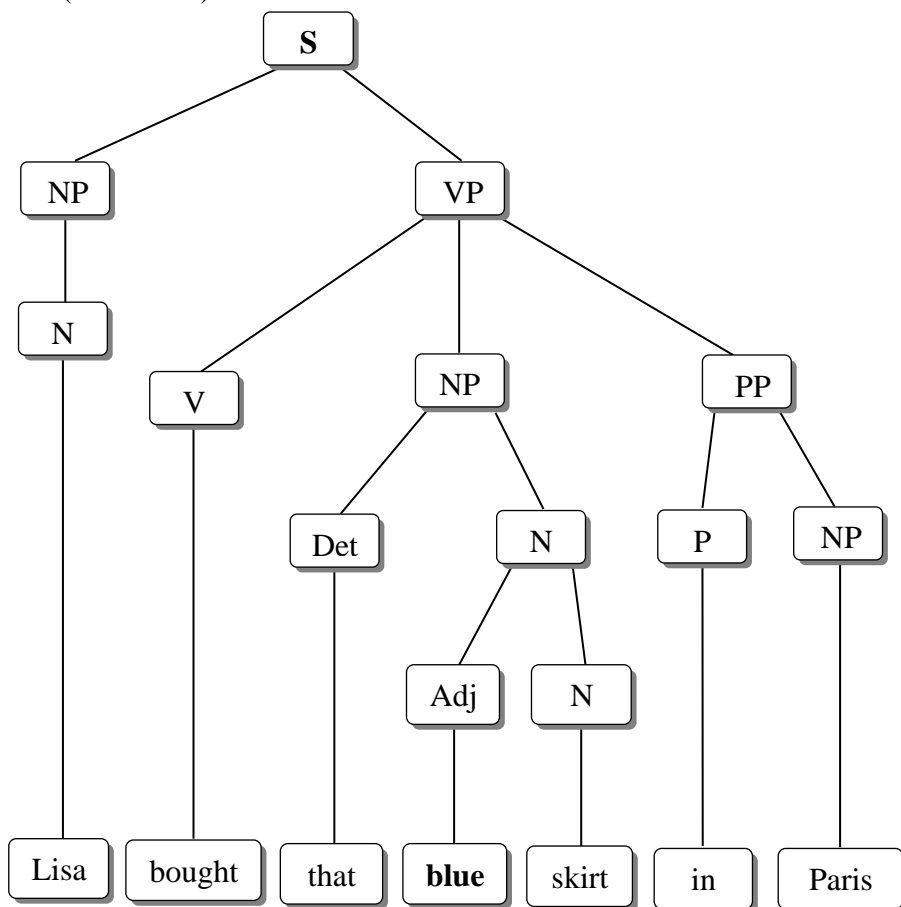
Difficulties of Using the Position of Adjectives:

Most of the ESL normally use adjectives conventionally by putting them before the noun they modify. But, as has been mentioned earlier, some adjectives must be used exclusively after the noun they modify. The violation occurs more often when using predicative- only adjectives while nearly no mistake occurs in using attributive- only adjectives. Then, the question is that: what is the reason that makes the former category (predicative) more difficult to use compared with the later one (attributive)?

To figure out an answer to this question, a study has been conducted and has resulted in more than one point of view as the following:

Unlike adverbs, which often seem capable of popping up almost anywhere in a sentence, adjectives nearly always appear immediately before the noun phrase that they modify (on line).

Thus, the general idea of noun phrases in English grammar (for the ESL at least) is that; the typical noun phrase (NP) is either a noun used alone (i.e. Lisa/ Paris) or **determiner** (e.g. the) + **adjective** (e.g. blue) + **noun** (e.g. skirt) as shown in the following graphical representation of constituent structure of a typical sentence which is taken from Trask (1993: 285):



This diagram (or part of it) is unconsciously present in the mind of non-native speakers of English language. Thus, they tend to use all adjectives in *attributive position* (whether they are attributive or predicative-only positions).

The **second** reason that leads to the position mistakes of using adjectives is the difference in **number** between the two categories of adjectives. In order to check out the number of attributives only compared with the predicatives only, a quick study has been made with a certain dictionary (Oxford word power) which is supposed to involve only the most common words used by native speakers. The result is as shown in the following:

A	back	crying	far
adrift	backward	D	Fellow
aged	bonkers	dear	final
alike	bound	downward	finished
alone	broke	drunken	famished
alternative	C	dual	fond
apparent	central	due	forcible
associate	charted	E	fraught
attendant	chief	especial	frontal
auxiliary	civil	eventual	future
average	clad	excess	G
avid	complete	exclusive	galore
awash	consuming	existing	general
awful	countless	extreme	glorified
awry	criminal	F	gracious
B	critical	famished	graphic

H	left-hand	O	primitive
heavenly	legal	only	principal
het up	Life and death	outgoing	professional
I	lightning	outlying	prone
idle	lone	outmoded	proper
immediate	lonely	outright	provincial
impatient	M	outward	pure
impending	main	overall	R
imperfect	major	owning	record-breaking
inclusive	martial	P	removed
indoor	mass	parental	respective
ill	maximum	particular	responsible
initial	mental	passable	right-hand
inner	mere	past	rightful
innermost	mid	pat	running
inside	middle	paternal	S
intrinsic	military	penal	scant
itinerant	minimum	personal	sheer
L	mock	plain	single
laden	motor	polar	sorry
last	multimedia	potential	special
late	N	precise	stray
latent	native	prevailing	subsequent
lay	neighbouring	prime	successive

sundry	touched	uncritical	W
surrounding	tragic	utmost	well
susceptible	U	utter	working
T	ubiquitous	V	worse
terrible	ultimate	virtual	

As can be seen in the preceding table, it is clear that the narrow and limited number of the predicatives compared with the attributives. This difference in number makes the non-native speaker neglect such slight property and forms a general rule that says "all attributives precede nouns.

A **third** reason of attributive position mistakes is that: according to the small number of predicative attributives, then they aren't repeated as much as the attribute attributives. And that makes them difficult to acquire (on the part of non-native speaker).

The repetition is a major factor for acquiring a skill. Because, language learning is a process of habit formation. The more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning. (Larsen, 2000: 43). As a result, predicatives (with their narrow number) are much less repeated and difficult to be remembered and acquired.

Finally, to sum up the reasons of position difficulties in attributives using, one can say three main points:

1. The conventional (and familiar) position of adjectives. (E.g. attributive position)
2. The difference in number between the two categories.
3. The amount of repetition of one category comparing with the other.

5. Attributive and Predicative only- Adjectives in a Literary Work

In this section, the aim would be to show the application of the (attributive and predicative only- adjectives) in one of the English literary works in order to highlight some points that link with this current subject. And also to analyse some exceptional uses. Shakespeare is the writer chosen for this purpose, and his masterpiece "HAMLET" is the literary work chosen.

Shakespeare uses many *Attributive* and *Predicative* only adjectives in his work. Examples of such sentences are:

Attributive only:

HAMLET If his *chief* good and market... (159: Line 34)

GRAVEDIGGER His *own* death shortens not his *own* life. (189: 17)

HAMLET Fear it, Ophelia, fear it, my *dear* sister. (27: 33)

KING Richer than that which four *successive* kings. (219: 255)

QUEEN Come, come, you answer with an *idle* tongue. (135: 12)

HAMLET Singeing his pate against the *burning* zone. (203: 262)

GHOST Doomed for a *certain* term to walk the night. (41: 10)

Predicative only:

HAMLET Tis not *alone* my inky cloak good mother. (15: 77)

POLONIUS O dear Ophelia, I am *ill* at these numbers. (67: 120)

HAMLET We will have a speech *straight*. (83: 408)

HAMLET I'll be with you *straight*. (159: 31)

SECOND I tell thee she is; and therefore make her grave *straight*. (189: 3)

- HAMLET** I'll be with you *straight*. (159: 31)
HAMLET I am very *glad* to see you. (21: 166)
HAMLET I am *glad* to see you well. (83: 399)
HAMLET I am *sorry* they offend you, heartily. (47: 134)
POLONIUS That does afflict our natures. I am *sorry*. (59: 105)

Thus, each adjective has its own position whether predicative or attributive one. An example that has been taken from the sentence above is that the adjective (ill) cannot be used before the noun it modifies. i.e.

- POLONIUS** O dear Ophelia, I am *ill* at these numbers. (67: 120)

Otherwise, the adjective (sick) is central which can be used in both positions (i.e. pre- and post-nominal) and it can give the same associative meaning of bad bodily or mentally condition. For example, Shakespeare gives, at least, two sentences that show clearly the two positions for (sick). The first one is in an attributive position, and the second one is in a predicative position:

- QUEEN** To my *sick* soul as sin's true nature is. (163: 17)
FRANCISCO For this relief much thanks. 'Tis better cold, and I am *sick* at heart. (1: 8)

Murcia and Larsen- Freeman (1999: 382) give evidence to those attributive only-adjectives that show the importance or rank of the head noun as Shakespeare uses the adjectives (chief/ and main) in the following sentences:

- HORATIO** The source of this our watch and the *chief* head. (7: 106)
POLONIUS Are most select and generous, *chief* in that. (13: 74)
QUEEN I doubt it is not other but the *main*. (63: 56)
HAMLET Goes it against the *main* of Poland, sir. (159: 15)

And those attributive adjectives that show the head noun is recognized by law or custom such as the adjectives (true/ and proper) in Hamlet. For example:

HORATIO Before my God, I might this believe without the
sensible and *true* avouch of mine own eyes.
(3: 58)

HAMLET Thrown out of his angle for my *proper* life. (209:
66)

The two categories that are mentioned by Bolinger and assured through Shakespearian Drama are:

1. Those attributive only-adjectives that intensify or emphasize the head noun and which are:

POLONIUS But *mere* implorators of unholy suits. (33: 12)

KING Without the which we are pictures, or *mere* beats.
(167: 82)

POLONIUS More grief to hide than hate to *utter* love. (59: 118)

2. And those adjectives that show the uniqueness of the head noun such as (the sole survivor, the only nominee):

KING When sorrows come, they come no *single* spies.
(165: 74)

In a number of sentences, Shakespeare violates the rules of adjective positions for both attributive only- that are predicative only-positions. He uses, what in literature is called, "*Anacoluthon*" technique. Anacoluthon is grammatically incorrect sentences and confusing to the reader. Used deliberately, an anacoluthon can be effective, especially in oratory. (Board, 1980: 9)

The following examples are in pairs to show the normal use of the adjective in first, and then to show the "*Anacoluthon*" technique (i.e. the exceptional uses) in the second part:

Sure (predicative only):

HAMLET At least I'm *sure* it may be so in Denmark. (45: 109)

"Anacoluthon" technique

QUEEN And *sure* I am two men there are not living. (61: 20)

Gracious (attributive only):

POLONIUS Both to my God and to my *gracious* king. (63: 45)

"Anacoluthon" technique

HAMLET The state is the more *gracious*. (209: 85)

Alone (predicative only):

HORATIO TO you *alone*. (37: 59)

HAMLET Now I am *glad alone*. (91: 222)

LAERTES For nature, crescent, does not grow *alone*. (27: 101)

"Anacoluthon" technique

HAMLET And thy commandment all *alone* shall live. (45: 102)

Well (predicative only):

HAMLET My father's spirit in arm! All is not *well*. (25: 253)

LAERTES Farewell, Ophelia; and remember *well*. (31: 83)

"Anacoluthon" technique

POLONIUS Marry, *well* bethought. (31: 90)

The adjective (old) can be either a central adjective or an adjective restricted to attributive position. In that **old** man, old is a central, and can thus also be predicative: that man is **old**. On the other hand, in the usual sense of an **old** friend of mine (a friend of **old**, a **long** standing friend), **old** is restricted to attributive position and cannot related to "my friend is **old**". Thus, adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly (that **old** man, My friend is **old**) are termed *inherent*, those that do not (an **old** friend) are termed *Non-inherent*.

(Quirk, et al: 1985: 428)

Examples of *inherent* that are taken from Shakespeare are:

HAMLET A little month; or e' er those shoes were *old*. (19: 174)

- HAMLET** And you, my sinews, grow not instant *old*. (45: 94)
HAMLET Well said, *old* mole! (49: 162)
VOLTIMAND Whereon *old* Norway, over come with joy. (63: 72)
HAMLET Slanders, sir. For the satirical rogue says here that
old men. (71: 197)
ROSENCRANTZ Happily he is the second time come to them; for
they say an *old* man is twice a child. (81:
258)

Inherent adjectives:

- HAMLET** Dost thou near me *old* friend. (91: 510)

The adjective **dear** is predicative only position. e.g.

- HAMLET** Would I had met my *dearest* foe in heaven. (21:
181)
HAMLET If thou didst ever thy *dear* father love. (41: 23)
KING Welcome, *dear* Rosencrant and Guidenstern! (59: 1)
POLONIUS Thine evermore, most *dear* lady. (67:123)
POLONIUS Or my *dear* majesty your queen here. (67: 135)
GUILDENSTERN In what my *dear* lord? (81: 258)
HAMLET That I the son of a *dear* father murdered. (93: 558)
KING Of your *dear* father's death. (169: 138)
KING Laertes, was your father *dear* to you? (183: 107)
QUEEN - O my *dear* Hamlet.

But Shakespeare uses this adjective in different syntactic and semantic functions, as in the example below:

- HAMLET** And sure, dear friends, my thanks are too *dear* a
half-penny. (73: 268)

He uses *dear* to mean 'not worth a halfpenny, of no value. Therefore, this use violates the property of this adjective under what has been mentioned "*Anacoluthon*"

Conclusion

Adjectives can be sub-classified according to whether they can function as: 1. attributive only, 2. predicative only, 3. central, which hasn't been dealt with in this research. The restrictions of adjectives to attributive or predicative use are not always absolute, and sometimes vary with individual speakers.

In general, adjectives that are restricted to attributive position or that occur predominantly in attributive position do not characterize the referent of the noun directly. For example, **an old** friend (one who has been a friend for a long period of time) does not necessarily imply that the person is **old**, so that we can not relate **my old friend** to **my friend is old**. In that use, **old** is attributive only. Some adjectives have a heightening or lowering effect on the noun they modify. Two semantic subclasses of intensifying adjectives can be distinguished for the present study: *emphasizers* and *amplifiers*. *Emphasizers* are attributive only, while *amplifiers* are attributive only when they are non-inherent.

Adjectives that are restricted or virtually restricted to the predicative position are mostly like verbs and adverbs. They tend to refer to a (possibly temporary condition) rather than to characterize. Perhaps the most common are those referring to health or lack of health.

A large group comprises adjectives that can or must take complementation. Some have homonyms that can occur both predicatively and attributively.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alexander, L.G. (1988) *Longman English Grammar*, New York: Longman publishing.
- Associates, H. (1999) *Oxford Word power*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Board, C. E. (1980) *Dictionary of Literary Terms*, Coles Publishing Ltd.
- Celce – Murcia, M. and Larsen – Freeman, D. (1999) *The Grammar Book*, Heinle and Heinle publishers.
- Crystal, D. (1991) *A dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, (3rd ed.) Great Britain: T.J. Press, Padstow.
- Dunton, T and Kerr, J. (2005) *Learner's Grammar*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Greenbaum, S. and Quirk, R. (1990) *A Student's Grammar of the English Language*, England: Longman Group (FE) Ltd.
- Larsen, D. (2000) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, (2nd ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Leech, G and Svartvik, J. (1994) *A communicative Grammar of English*, New Yourk: Longman Group Limited.
- Poldauf, I. (1984) *English Word Stress*, Pergamon Press Ltd.
- Quirk, R. ; Greenbaum, S. ; Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (1985) *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973) *A University Grammar of English*, Hong kong: Commonwealth Printing Press Ltd.

- Quirk, R.; Greenbaum, S.; Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (1985) *A comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Radford, A. (2004) *English Syntax*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shakespeare, W. (1968) *Hamlet*, London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Stageberg, N.C. (1981) *An introductory English Grammar*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Swan, M. (1995) *Practical English usage*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Trask, R.L. (1999) *Language: The Basics*, (2nd ed.), Great Britain by T.J. International Ltd, Padstow, Cornwall.
- Turton, N.D. and Heaton, J.B. (1996) *A Dictionary of Common Errors*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

المستخلص

لقد قام الباحثان في هذا البحث بدراسة الانواع المختلفة لاستخدام الصفات التي تسبق الاسم فقط وتلك التي تلي الاسم فقط. ان هذا البحث يهدف الى تحديد الصعوبات التي يواجهها اولئك الذين يرغبون او يتعاملون مع هذين النوعين من الصفات. ومن المعلوم ان معظم الصفات يمكن ان تستخدم قبل او بعد الاسم. لكن بعضها تستخدم تحديداً اما قبل او بعد الاسم. اضافة الى ذلك, توجد مجموعة من الصفات التي من الممكن ان تستخدم في كلا الموقعين ولكن بدلالات مختلفة.

وعلى هذا الاساس يتناول هذا البحث تلك الجوانب التركيبية والدلالية للصفات المستخدمة حصراً قبل وبعد الاسم. من جهة اخرى فان هناك مجموعة من دلالات المعنى التي تم التعامل معها والتي تهدف الى توضيح الترتيب المعمول به لهذه الصفات. وفي نهاية البحث, فقد تم اجراء دراسة تطبيقية لهذين النوعين من هذه الصفات على واحد من النصوص الادبية الانكليزية من اجل ابراز استخداماتها المختلفة تركيبياً ودلالياً.