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"He is in (the) jail"

A comparative study of bare singular count
nouns in British English and Scottish English

Master's thesis in English linguistics

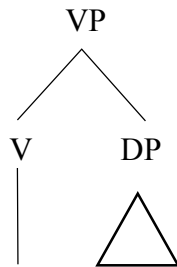
Trondheim, May 2018

Abstract

In the DP hypothesis a problem arises because of bare singular count nouns; do they have a determiner or not? *John went to school, Jill is at hospital*. Their solution to this problem is the null determiner hypothesis, which will say that the determiner is there syntactically but is not spelled out. This thesis will investigate bare singular count nouns; their distribution, if they have a null determiner and the differences between British English and Scottish English in the use of them. Scottish English allows a determiner in some cases like *hospital* but not others like *campus*. In addition to literature and previous research, I have conducted a questionnaire to collect data on bare singular count nouns; if they are acceptable and if there are differences between British English and Scottish English. The questionnaire is an acceptability judgment task, and I have used a Likert scale task. The literature and the results I have collected has lead me to this claim: in British English, bare singular count nouns can be divided into two groups; full DPs and bare NPs. The full DPs contain bare singular count nouns and null determiners which can be used as subjects; they look like bare nouns, but in the syntactic structure there is a determiner category. The bare NPs are idiomatic expression. Evidence for this claim in British English, is found in Scottish English, where the determiner *the* is spelled-out with bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects.

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Frida Frøseth Larsen

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1. Introduction

This master's thesis will be about bare singular count nouns in British English and if Scottish English uses bare singular count nouns in the same way as British English.

- (1) Anna goes to church on Sundays.
- (2) Jim is at hospital
- (3) John is at school.

Miller (2003) argues that “A well-known characteristic of Scots is the use of *the* with nouns denoting institutions, certain illnesses, certain periods of time, quantifiers such as both, all, most and one; games, family relatives and modes of travel” (Miller, 2003, pp. 98-99).

- (4) Anna goes to the church on Sundays.
- (5) Jim is at the hospital
- (6) John is at the school

He also argues that Scottish English uses the possessive pronoun with certain words like for example: *dinner, bed, holidays, work* (Miller, 2003, p. 99)

- (7) Each summer, I go on my holidays.
- (8) Monday to Friday, Scots are at their work.
- (9) I go to my bed at 11 pm.

Miller (2003) argues that Scottish English uses the definite article in front of nouns denoting institutions, and in British English several institutions (which you will see in section 2.2.2) can be referred to with bare singular count nouns. This difference is why I wanted to write a master's thesis about the difference between Scottish English and British English. This thesis will investigate which nouns can be bare singular count nouns in British English, and if they are used as bare singular count nouns in Scottish English. The difference between Scottish English and British English is interesting because of the closeness of the two countries. Scottish English is influenced by British English, but there are differences which

makes it interesting to investigate. An investigation of Scottish English might shed light on the analysis of British English.

I have only found one small article about Scottish English and the use of the definite article and the possessive pronouns, and that is the one Miller (2003) has written, and this is descriptive work. I have not found analytical work on this topic in Scottish English, only in British English. Since there is no analytical work conducted in Scottish English on this topic, I chose this as my topic for this thesis. I have created a questionnaire to investigate how acceptable bare singular count nouns are in England, and if Scottish English uses the definite article with these nouns or if they use them as bare singular count nouns.

In generative linguistics, the Determiner Phrase hypothesis is the predominant way of thinking about the nominal phrase. Stvan (1998,2007,2009) is one of few if not the only one who has conducted extensive research on bare singular count nouns in English. The bare singular count nouns might be a problem for the DP hypothesis, and that is why the null determiner hypothesis has come. The null determiner hypothesis argues that if there is no visible determiner in front of a noun, the determiner is still there syntactically but in an empty D category, hence it is not lexically spelled out (Le Bruyn, De Swart, & Zwarts, 2017). With bare singular count nouns, there are no visible determiner, hence the DP hypothesis had to come up with a solution to this problem. Because of the bare singular count nouns and the null determiner phrase I argue that this master's thesis which looks at these problems is relevant for the linguistic field. In addition, Scottish English might use bare singular count nouns in a different way – by using the definite article to bare singular count nouns. Since Scotland and England are so close to each other, I believe it is relevant to look at the difference in distribution of bare singular count nouns in these two countries.

Based on evidence from Scottish English and British English, I claim that there are two groups of bare singular count nouns. One group of idiomatic expressions and one group of full DPs. I also claim that there are semantic distinctions, organizations where one can be a member versus everything else. The evidence for this will be presented in the next four chapters of this thesis. I will also try to figure out in which environment Scottish English use the definite article to British English bare singular count nouns.

Chapter 2 will contain literature and research about the nominal phrase, the main focus will be on the determiner phrase, but also some critic against the determiner phrase and bare singular count nouns. **Chapter 3** will contain the methods used in the creation of a questionnaire to investigate the use of articles in Scottish English, how the questionnaire looks and how I analyzed the results. **Chapter 4** will show you some of the results from the

questionnaire. **Chapter 5** will contain theoretical analysis, where I will use the empirical evidence to discuss the theoretical evidence for my claim. I will discuss a division between two types of bare singular count nouns, and look at both the syntactic and the semantic differences between the two types.

2. Background

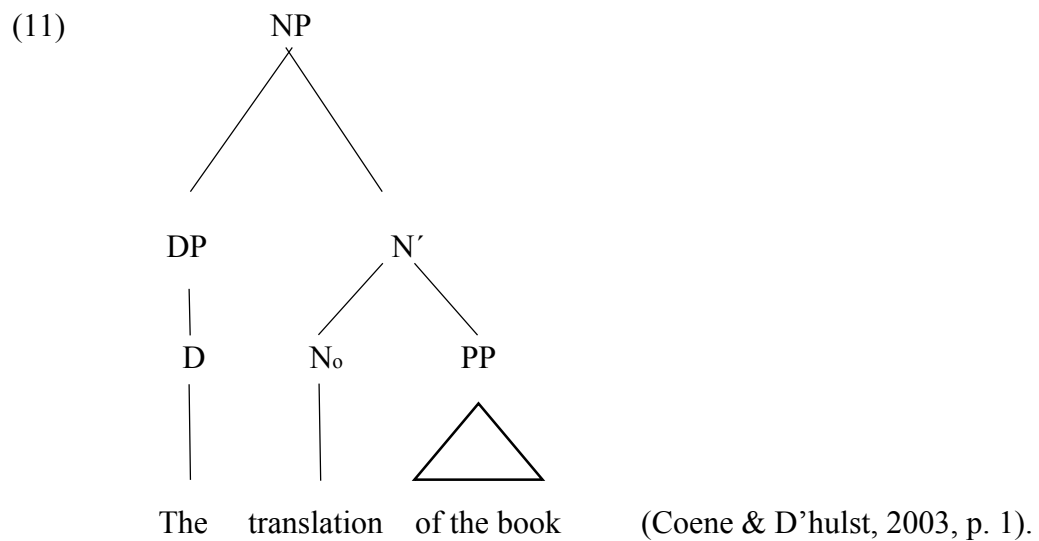
This chapter will start with the discussion of whether the noun phrase is a NP or a DP. Furthermore, it will look at what happens when a nominal phrase has a bare noun, namely whether there is a null determiner or no determiner; before turning to bare nouns, where the main focus will be on bare singular count nouns. In order to investigate bare singular count nouns, I need to outline some background in the syntax of the nominal phrases more generally, specifically the NP/DP debate.

2.1 Noun phrase vs. determiner phrase

In recent years, the noun phrase has been thoroughly researched. This has led to a division between linguists; some argue that the noun is still the head of the noun phrase, while others argue that the determiner is the head of the noun phrase, and now call it the determiner phrase.

The noun phrase is seen as maximal projections of a lexical head N^0 in the Principles and Parameters framework. A noun could project up without any complements or specifiers, e.g. *cats* = [NP [N' [N cats]]]. If there are complements to a noun, they combine with an N^0 to make an N' ; and if there is a specifier, then it combines with N' to give an NP (Coene & D'hulst, 2003, p. 1). In examples (10) and (11), one can see the syntax of the noun phrase in the view where N heads the nominal projection. In the first example, one can see that the DP is located inside the noun phrase, in what is called the specifier position. The head noun is located in its own brackets within the brackets of the whole noun phrase. Based on this structure one can see that the noun is the head of the phrase (Longobardi, 1994, p. 610). In example (11), one can see how the noun phrase looks like in a syntactic tree. This view suggests that determiners, adjectives, and genitive phrases have the same categorial status (Coene & D'hulst, 2003, pp. 1-2).

(10) [NP DP [N'N]] (Longobardi, 1994, p. 610)

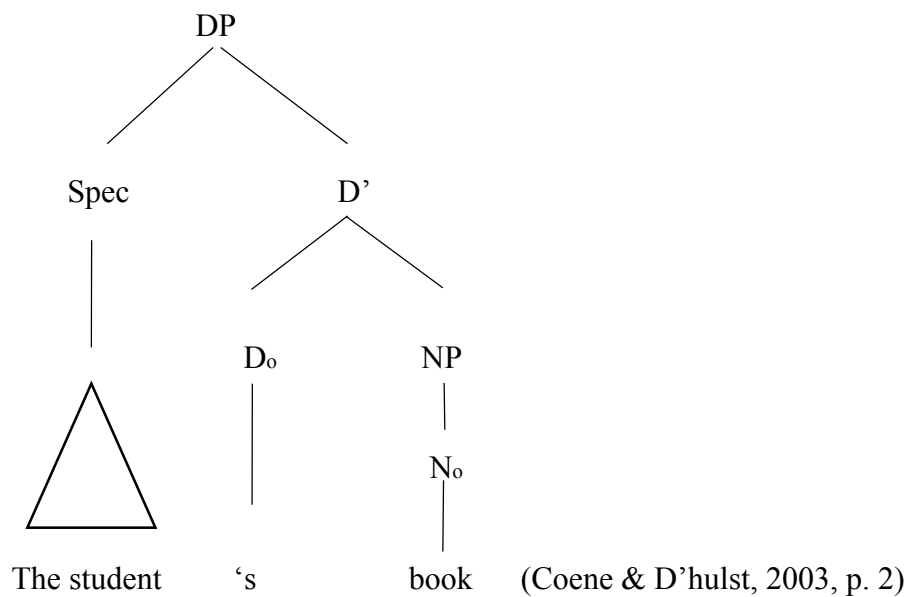


One of the earliest proposals of the DP-analysis came from Brame (1982, p. 321), who argued that “I think it is a mistake to think of N as the head of an NP. One should think in terms of DPs, i.e. determiner phrases, not in terms of NPs.” (Coene & D’hulst, 2003, p. 2) This proposal was further developed by Abney (1986), who claimed that a nominal phrase is headed by a functional element, which he argued was the determiner. The functional head is the categorial head, while the lexical head is the semantic head of the projection (Coene & D’hulst, 2003, p. 2). According to Abney, “a semantic projection is made up of a lexical maximal projection and the various functional maximal projections above it without intervening other lexical heads.” (Coene & D’hulst, 2003, p. 2) It is argued that the determiner and Infl(ection) have similar semantic functions, Infl is specifying the reference of the verb phrase, by choosing a particular member of the verb’s extension, and the determiner is doing the same with the noun (Coene & D’hulst, 2003, pp. 2-3). Because of the similarities between determiner and Infl, some argue that the determiner should be the head of the nominal phrase in the same way as Infl is the ‘extended projection’ of the lexical head, the verb, which earlier had only been VP (Bernstein, 2001, p. 536).

In example (12), one can see that the DP is located in the first bracket alone, and in the bracket within the first bracket, one can see that the head D is located in front of the NP, hence the NP is a complement of the head D (Longobardi, 1994, p. 610). In example (13), one can see how the determiner phrase looks like in a syntactic tree.

(12) [DP[D’D NP]] (Longobardi, 1994, p. 610)

(13)



If the DP hypothesis is assumed, then the question arises of how bare nouns fit into the framework. Bare nouns are nouns that can stand without a determiner; such as *school*, *church*, *high school*. The DP hypothesis argues that the determiner is the lexical head in the nominal phrase, but bare nouns do not appear to have determiners; this can potentially make them a problem for the DP hypothesis.

Bare nouns appear to various extent cross-linguistically. One can divide languages into three parts:

1. All nouns can appear bare in regular argument positions (such as Mandarin Chinese, Hindi and Russian) (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).
2. Free use of bare mass nouns and plurals in regular argument positions, but not with bare singular count nouns, apart from cases like *hospital* (such as English, Dutch, German, Spanish and Italian) (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).
3. Bare nouns cannot appear in regular argument positions (such as French) (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

Because bare nouns are common cross-linguistically, they might cause a problem for the DP hypothesis. Bare nouns do not appear in only one or two languages; they are common in many languages, and this might be a reason why linguists who follow the DP hypothesis are hypothesizing the null determiner.

2.1.1 Just a noun phrase or a determiner phrase with a null determiner?

Longobardi (1994), Borer (2005) and others have tried to come up with a solution for bare nouns in the DP hypothesis. They argue for a null determiner, which will say that the determiner is only present in the syntactic structure, and is not spelled out lexically (Le Bruyn et al., 2017). In example 5, you can see what they argue for; in the syntactic structure, the D position is empty and they have replaced it with a \emptyset so that the D position is still filled in the syntactic position, even though it is not lexically spelled out.

- (14) [DP[D \emptyset][NumP [Num –s[NP cookie]]] – cookies (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

Bošković (2008) argued that not all languages fit into the DP-hypothesis, because some languages do not have articles. He proposed that languages which do not have articles, such as Serbo-Croatian, project NPs and not DPs (Le Bruyn et al., 2017). Bošković argues that there are several differences between a language with articles and a language without articles. In his paper *What will you have, DP or NP?* he explains some of the differences and uses them as a basis for his argument that some languages are DP languages, and some are NP languages. In his article he has an analysis of Serbo-Croatian (and other articleless languages) and languages with articles (such as English), in which he finds several differences between them. Through his findings, he argues that all languages cannot go under the same hypothesis – DP (Bošković, 2008). The languages are too different, and they allow very different things; for example, NP languages allow Left-Branch extraction:

- (15) a. *Expensive/That_i he saw [_{t_i} car]
 Skupa/Tai je vidio [_{t_i} kola] (Serbo-Croatian)
 expensive/that is seen car (Bošković, 2008)
 b. She had a blue dress/ * blue she had a dress

Bošković (2008) argues that left-branch extraction is only possible in NP languages. He argues that it is because of Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC) and the anti-locality hypothesis. In PIC “only the Spec of a phase is accessible for phrasal movement outside the phase” (Bošković, 2008). DPs are so-called phases, which means that anything moved out of a DP must move to [Spec, DP] (Bošković, 2008). The anti-locality hypothesis requires “Move to cross at least one full phrasal boundary (not just a segment)” (Bošković, 2008). It is

assumed that APs are ‘too close’ to [Spec, DP] to move there. PIC disables AP extraction outside DP because anti-locality disables AP from moving to [Spec, DP]. NPs are (by assumption) not phases, and so APs can move out of NPs in NP languages (Bošković, 2008).

Bošković argues for different hypothesis because of the big differences between the DP and NP languages: some languages project DPs while other languages project NPs. Left-branch extraction is possible in articleless languages according to Bošković (2008) because there is no D layer (Bošković, 2008). This may imply that left-branch extraction should be possible with articleless NPs in English. As seen in example (15), this is not possible in English. If one follows the argument Bošković (2008) makes about the D layer, this suggests that the ungrammatical English sentence in example (15b), in fact has a D layer: this suggests that bare NPs in English have a D layer. So, for English and other languages that have articles, the question still remains: Does, in fact, a null determiner exist?

2.2 Bare nouns

In the research of bare nouns, two fundamental distinctions have been generally assumed. The first one is that bare nouns are generally restricted to plural nouns, mass nouns and proper names. The second distinction is the interesting cases where bare nominals appear in argument position (Munn & Schmitt, 2002, p. 225). Cross-linguistically, the use of bare nouns differs from language to language. Serbo-Croatian can use bare singulars in all argument positions because it does not have articles. French on the other hand, bare nouns in argument position are disallowed because it is obligatory to use articles and French has a full range of articles (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

(16)

J’ai	acheté	*livre /	*livres/	*lait/	un	livre/	du	lait/
I-have	bought	*book/	*books/	*milk/	a	book/	INDEF-MASS	milk/
le	livre/	le	lait/	des	livres /	les	livres.	[French]
the	book/	the	milk/	INDEF_PL	books/	the	books.	

‘I bought a book/milk/the book/the milk/books/the books.’

(Le Bruyn et al., 2017)

English is somewhere in the middle between French and Serbo-Croatian.

(17) I bought books/*book/a book

(18) *Book/books/a book is/are one the table

Le Bruyn et al. (2017) argues that the article system of a language decides how much freedom in the use of bare nominals a language has. If a language has a rich article system, the less freedom that language has in the use of bare nominals. If a language has few or no articles, the freedom is larger (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

2.2.1 Mass nouns, bare plurals & proper names.

Bare nouns in argument positions have different restrictions in different languages. Brazilian Portuguese allows all bare nouns in argument positions. French disallows for the most part bare NPs in all argument positions. Spanish, Italian and English generally only allow bare plurals and mass nouns in argument positions. In English, it is argued that bare singular count nouns cannot be used in argument positions (Le Bruyn et al., 2017), as seen in example (18).

- (19) Cookies are sweet (plural count noun)
 Water is in the human body (mass noun)
 School was closed yesterday (singular count noun)

It is claimed that bare singular count nouns can only appear in these configurations: in predication, in the object position of certain verbs, or preposition and in coordination (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

- (20) I am chair of the department (predication)
 Mary plays piano (object position of certain verbs)
 Bob is in prison (preposition)
 I bought table and chairs for £ 182 (coordination) (Le Bruyn et al., 2017)

According to Le Bruyn et al. (2017), bare singular count nouns have different restrictions in the different configurations. In object position and preposition can bare singular count nouns only appear with certain nouns, prepositions and verbs. Coordination is the configuration where there are no restrictions on which nouns one can use. In predication, there are less restrictions on which nouns one can use than in object position and preposition, but the nouns need to belong to specific lexical classes: nationalities, religions, professional roles (Le Bruyn et al., 2017).

2.2.2 Bare singular count nouns in English.

On the basis of examples such as (17) and (18), it might be thought that bare singular count nouns are ungrammatical in English, but if one looks at the third sentence in (19) one can actually see that bare singular count nouns can work in argument positions.

- (21) *I read book.
School was closed yesterday.

According to Stvan (2007), they do actually appear in English. She argues that bare singular count nouns can be productive when used in:

- recording expressions like:
 - on record
 - on film (Stvan, 2007, p. 173)
- In statements involving temporal interruptions, like:
 - on vacation
 - at lunch (Stvan, 2007, p. 173)
- Social and geographic places when involved in a PP, such as:
 - At camp
 - In church
 - At school (Stvan, 2007, p. 173).

In table 1 you can see what Stvan (2007, p. 173) argues is bare singular count nouns when it comes to social and geographical places in English and in which ways they can be used.

Table 1 Bare singular social and geographical places (Stvan, 2007, p. 173)

On/off base	Up hill	At/to sea
In/to/out of bed	At home	From/off/on shore
At/to/from/in/into/toward camp	In hospital	On site
Close to/off/on/to campus	Up/down island	At/in/to seminary
Down cellar	In/to/into jail	Up slope
At/in/to chapel	In/to kindergarten	Down/on stage
At/in/from/to church	In kitchen	In/down/out of state
In to class	In/on line	Down/up stream
In clinic	To market	In studio
At/from/in/out of/to college	In/after/to meeting	In/to synagogue
In country	After/out of office	At/to table
At/in out of court (legal)	At pasture	To temple
At/in court (royal)	Off planet	In theater
At/in/to daycare	In/into port	Across/around/down/in/into/out of/outside/through/to/toward/up town
On deck	Off post	At/to university
In district	From/in/out of/to prison	At/from/to work
In dock	On property	Off world
In hall	Down/up river	In yeshiva
In harbor	At/in/from/outside/to/toward school	

Stvan (2007) explains that she has found these bare singular count nouns in written English from the 19th-21st centuries, in both British English and American English (Stvan, 2007, p. 173)

Bare singular count nouns in English can be seen as an exception from the rules. Many linguists only talk about bare mass and bare plural count nouns, and not bare singular count nouns. Stvan, on the other hand, argues that there is such a thing as bare singular count nouns in English, and that they can appear in several positions in a sentence. She argues that English allows bare singular count nouns in three positions: as subjects, not all bare singular count

nouns can be used as subjects, but some can (Stvan, 2007, p. 174).

- (22) "...**church** has become very important in my life." (Stvan, 2007, p. 174)

Other nouns cannot be used as bare singular count nouns, for example:

- (23) "...***Library** was busy today." (Stvan, 2007, p. 174).

Some of the bare singular count nouns can be used as direct objects as well.

- (24) "start **high school**" (Stvan, 2007, p. 175)

Bare singular count nouns are mostly seen as prepositional phrases.

- (25) "John is at **school** today." (Stvan, 2007, 174).

There are boundaries for when bare forms are allowed in English, and according to Stvan (2007), the boundaries are set by the semantics of the noun and the pragmatics of the whole utterance (Stvan, 2007, 176). In the word group *social and geographic place*, Stvan (1998) argues that there are 5 semantic subgroups.

Table 2: *Stvan's semantic subgroups* (Stvan, 1998, pp. 100-103)

Subgroups:	'Municipality', e.g "these all denote official, bounded territories – areas that would be under a single jurisdiction"	Buildings related to religious practice	Places intended for learning or studying	Travel on water	Related to natural environmental features
Examples:	Base, campus, country, district, island.	Chapel, church, seminary, synagogue, temple.	Campus, class, college, kindergarten, school, university, yeshiva.	Deck, dock, harbor, port.	Hill, slope, river, shore.

There are three possible readings of the bare singular count nouns that denote institutions in English (Stvan, 1998, p. 137). The first reading is the familiarity reading. The bare singular noun phrases are used in almost the same way as definite referring expressions. The hearer can identify what the speaker is saying and it can be paraphrased. Stvan argues that the bare singular noun phrase can be used to pick out one particular location (Stvan, 2007, pp. 177-178) "This meaning is created by a conventional (rather than conversational) implicature that keys into shared knowledge about how each participant in the discourse (speaker, hearer or locatum) is related to the location" (Stvan, 2007, p. 178).

(26) "Look out America, the world's smallest con artist is **in town**.

(Billboard for the movie *Curly Sue*, 1991)

= your town/this town/the town of the reader" (Stvan, 2007, p. 177).

In this example, one can see that *in town* refers to a specific town, and one can paraphrase it into being even more specific (Stvan, 2007, p. 177).

The second reading is the activity reading which will say that the meaning is about the activity which the subject is performing (Stvan, 2007, p. 179).

- (27) “Two are currently in foster care – one girl because her father is **in prison** for murdering her mother; another girl spent last year in foster care”. (Stvan, 2007, p.179).

In this example, one can see the activity of the subject – her father – he is in prison (Stvan, 2007, p. 179).

The third reading is the generic reading; here, Stvan argues that the bare singular count nouns used in PPs can be kind-referring expressions. “the writer using each PP makes a claim about the kind of place named by the noun. One can verify the genericity by replacing each singular with a plural form” (Stvan, 2007, p. 180-182).

- (28) “ “Free speech,” “Question authority,” and “Leave us alone” are now conservative and libertarian battle-cries **on campus**.
[= on campuses]
(Alan Charles Kors, “It’s Speech, Not Sex, the Dean Bans Now,” Wall Street Journal, October 12, 1989)” (Stvan, 2007, p.181)

In this example, one can see that it is possible to change the bare singular count noun – on campus- with a plural noun – on campuses – without it becoming an ungrammatical sentence (Stvan, 2007, p. 181).

Bare singular count nouns in English are tied to particular constructions;

- bare location
- bare coordination
- bare predication
- bare reduplication
- bare incorporation (Swart & Zwarts, 2009, pp. 2-3).

The construction of bare location occurs with nouns that refer to spaces, for example *town*, *school*, *television*, *stage*, *vacation*. The construction of bare coordination is two nouns conjoined, for example *mother and daughter*, *table and chairs*, *needle and thread* (Swart & Zwarts, 2009, pp. 4-5). The construction of bare predication “is restricted to unique roles, typically with a PP complement”, in English, for example: “*Anne is head of the department*”

(Swart & Zwarts, 2009, p. 5). The construction of bare reduplication can be for example *page for page*, *house by house*, *cheek to cheek* (Swart & Zwarts, 2009, p. 6). The construction of bare incorporation can be for example: “*She is playing piano for the choir*” (Swart & Zwarts, 2009, p. 2). This thesis will not focus on these constructions but will focus on bare singular count nouns denoting locations, such as:

(29) John is at school.

For the bare singular count nouns in British English, one can see a difference in meaning when these words are used with or without a determiner. Look at the examples taken from Stvan (2007, p. 182):

- (30)
- a. Is your mother at home?
 - b. Is your mother at the home?
 - c. John is in prison.
 - d. John is in the prison.
 - e. Cigarettes are sold in prison.
 - f. Cigarettes are sold in the prison.

Looking at sentences a and b, in *a*, the question is if her mother is at her own home, while in *b*, the question is if her mother is at the nursing home. The reading of sentence *c* would be that John is a criminal and is in prison, while *d* is ambiguous, he can either be a criminal and be a prisoner or he can be a visitor. The reading of sentence *e* would be that cigarettes are sold in the whole prison system, while *f* is that cigarettes are sold in one particular prison. In Scottish English, sentences *d* and *f* also have the ‘system’ meaning as in British English, while sentence *b* has the same meaning as in British English. This example is interesting because of the change in meaning, and the discussion on null determiners (I will come back to this in chapter 5).

2.3 The definite article

In this section, I will review theories of the semantic meaning of the definite article *the*, since there are differences between Scottish English and British English in the use of determiner or no determiner with some nouns. I have reviewed some interesting facts about the difference

that the definite article makes, and therefore want to review general theories of the definite article.

A noun phrase can either be “definite” or “indefinite”. The definite article in English is “the” while “a/an” are used as the indefinite articles (Abbott, 2006, p. 1). The meaning of the definite article has been under discussion, and it has been around two different types: the functional (pragmatic) and the logical (Lyons, 1980, p. 81). “Logical approaches have been principally concerned with specifying the truth conditions of definite descriptions” (Lyons, 1980, p. 81). Russell’s approach is the best known within the logical approach, Strawson has modified this approach (Lyons, 1980). “The pragmatic approaches include most traditional linguistic treatments, as well as more recent work in, or influenced by, the theory of speech act” (Lyons, 1980, p. 81). The pragmatic approach’s concern is to specify when a speaker can use a definite article in the right way, and how the definite article can be informative to the hearer (Lyons, 1980, p. 81). When it comes to definiteness, two main theories are used – *uniqueness and familiarity* (Abbott, 2006, p. 1).

Uniqueness is a tradition that “comes from the philosophical literature, more specifically from Bertrand Russell’s classic work on denoting phrases to be more specific” (Abbott, 2006, p. 1). Uniqueness is “the existence of one and only one entity meeting the descriptive content of the NP” (Abbott, 2006, p. 1). Russell’s most famous example is: “The king of France is bald”. If we follow the uniqueness theory this would mean that: “there is one and only one entity who is King of France and he is bald” (Abbott, 2004, p. 126). Russell’s analysis was criticized by more than one person, one of them was Strawson. He argued “that sentences containing descriptions are not used to assert the existence and uniqueness of an entity meeting the descriptive content in question” (Abbott, 2006, p. 2). According to Strawson, “definite descriptions are referential NPs, and that the existence and uniqueness of a referent are presupposed” (Abbott, 2006, p. 2). Strawson also argued that a presupposition needs to be correct for a sentence to be true or false. If this example: “I met the owner of El Azteco”, is true, then El Azteco needs to have an owner. If El Azteco does not have an owner, an addressee would not say “That’s false!”, but would most likely correct the speaker’s mistaken presupposition (Abbott, 2006, p. 2). Russell’s analysis had more problems, one of them was that in some cases the descriptive content of a definite description cannot be able to pick out one unique referent: “Please put this on the table”; in the world, there are millions of tables, but one can understand which table one is talking about (Abbott, 2006, p. 2). Another person who criticized Russell’s analysis was James McCawley. He pointed out a problem with Russell’s analysis when it comes to examples like this: “The dog got into a fight with

another dog”. This lead to David Lewis’ (1979) proposal that “definite descriptions denote the most salient entity meeting the descriptive content” (Abbott, 2006, p. 2).

Familiarity is a tradition that generally cites the Danish grammarian Paul Christophersen. “In Christophersen’s view, what distinguishes definite from indefinite descriptions is whether or not the addressee of the utterance is presumed to be acquainted with the referent of the NP” (Abbott, 2006, pp. 2-3). The familiarity approach says that based on background knowledge, definite descriptions should give the hearer a clear image of the precise individual the speaker is talking about (Lyons, 1980, p. 82).

In this chapter I have laid out some background research, and this thesis will assume the DP hypothesis. With the baseline of the DP hypothesis and bare singular count nouns, I am now going to look in more detail at what Scottish English does and how it differs from British English. As mentioned in chapter 1, Miller (2003) argues that “A well-known characteristic of Scots is the use of *the* with nouns denoting institutions, certain illnesses, certain periods of time, quantifiers such as both, all, most and one; games, family relatives and modes of travel” (Miller, 2003, pp. 98-99). In the next two chapters I will explain and discuss an experiment I conducted to try to establish to what extent the difference Miller (2003) talks about, really exists.

3. Method

As seen in the background chapter, a considerable amount of research has been conducted about bare nouns cross-linguistically, including English, but in Scottish English there is a small amount of descriptive work but no or almost no analytical work. This research will include both British English and Scottish English, to see if there are differences in the use of bare singular count nouns. As seen in 2.2.2, Stvan (1998,2007,2009) discusses bare singular count nouns, and in 2.2.2, I have showed which nouns that can be bare and in which environment they can be used as bare singular count nouns. As seen in chapter 1, Miller (2003) argues that a well-known characteristic for Scottish English is the use of the definite article to nouns which are for example institutions. Several of the singular count nouns that can be bare are institutions in British English, and nouns in Scottish English that are often used with the definite article is institutions; this is the reason why I wanted to conduct a research that investigate this difference between British English and Scottish English. This chapter will explain the study design and the analytical tools used.

3.1 The study design

For this thesis, I chose to use a quantitative research method to collect data, by designing a questionnaire. I chose to use a formal method when I decided that the data would be acceptability judgements. The formal method uses a bigger sample size, and people who are most likely not linguists (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 5). Schütze & Sprouse (2012) argue that if one is using linguists as participants they might know “the theoretical consequences of their judgments, and may be subconsciously biased to report judgments consonant with their theoretical viewpoints”(Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 18). Because I wanted to test differences in dialects, I wanted to use regular people to participate. I wanted some empirical confirmation of an observation that had been made in the literature on the basis of somewhat anecdotal observation. I also have only had access to one native Scottish English speaker, and I felt that I needed more data than his intuitions which may not be completely reliable for this phenomenon, in addition he did not feel that his intuition was 100% reliable. We chose to publish the questionnaire on Facebook, to get data from a variety of people. The criteria for participating in this questionnaire is that you must be from England or Scotland. The fact that we published it online, might give us some errors in the data material, someone who is not

eligible to participate in the questionnaire might have taken it anyway; though, I do not think this is very likely.

3.1.1 Acceptability judgment

The data for this research is an acceptability judgment task. According to Schütze & Sprouse (2012) are acceptability judgments

“a percept that arises in response to linguistic stimuli that closely resemble sentences. Acceptability is just like other percepts (e.g., brightness, loudness, temperature, pain) in that there are no methods for directly measuring the percept as it exists within a participant’s mind” (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 3).

By using for example, a questionnaire like I did, I asked the participants to report their perceptions of acceptability by rating it along the line of a scale, according to Schütze & Sprouse (2012) this is a report of acceptability.

The questionnaire is designed as a quantitative research method with the design as a numerical task, which according to Schütze & Sprouse (2012) can detect information about the size of the difference that are tested (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, pp. 6-7). The participants were asked to rate sentences on a scale from 1-7, based on what each participant think are an acceptable sentence. They were asked to base their answer on their dialect and not the standard English they have learned in school.

(31)

Criminals go to the jail

O	O	O	O	O	O	O
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Example 31 show how the sentences were presented to the participants. I chose to use a Likert scale task with an odd number of points. According to Schütze and Sprouse (2012) it is the most commonly used scale because it has a precise middle point – 4 (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, pp. 8-9).

The first pages of the questionnaire explain to the participants what they need to do, and that it is based on their dialect that they should judge whether a sentence is acceptable or not. I also informed them that they should imagine that a friend said the sentences or that the participant said it to a friend, because we were more interested in the spoken dialect rather

than the written one. To make sure that the participants understood what were asked of them, we needed to include the information in the beginning. According to Schütze and Sprouse (2012), it is important to inform and try to make the participants imagine that the sentences are said by a friend, and if that friend sounds like a native speaker of their language when they say the sentence. This invokes the spoken modality, even when it is a written survey (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 12). In the information pages, we also gathered some information about them: where they had spent their childhood: Southern England, Northern England, the Midlands or Scotland, in addition to gender and age.

According to Schütze & Sprouse (2012), it is common to start an acceptability task by providing the participants with some anchor items, to help/make sure that the participants uses the scale the same way (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 13). Instead of anchor items, I started the questionnaire with three practice items, one good, one bad and one intermediate. The participants were informed that there were three practice items to begin with, and I told them that one was good, one was bad and one was intermediate. I decided to include them so that the participants could practice the scale, and see how the questionnaire was designed. Schütze and Sprouse (2012) argue that it is common to include some items at the beginning of the survey, to help the participants become familiar with the scale. These items are not marked and the participants will not know that they are not part of the survey, they can be thought of as unannounced practice items (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 13). I argue that I used something in the middle, not anchor items and not unannounced practice items, but announced practice items so that they could practice the scale.

3.1.2 Construction of test items

In total we tested 24 words in different sentences, put into 12 pairs; using the division familiar/definite, familiar/not definite, unfamiliar/definite and unfamiliar/not definite. The division of familiar and unfamiliar that I have used is not based on how frequent a word's usage is, because I did not do objective tests for this. The individual pairings were made on the basis of a subjective assessment of how 'culturally familiar' the word was. In some cases, two members of a pair, for example jail/prison, are arguably not about familiarity, but just about testing examples where the literature says a definite article is possible in Scottish English (e.g. in the jail) versus one where my Scottish source thought it would not be (e.g. in the prison). I tested both "the" and "my" in the definite conditions, because in the paper by Miller (2003) he argues that Scottish English uses *my* in some cases, for example in: "I'm going to my bed"

or in “This summer I’m going on my holidays”.

(32)

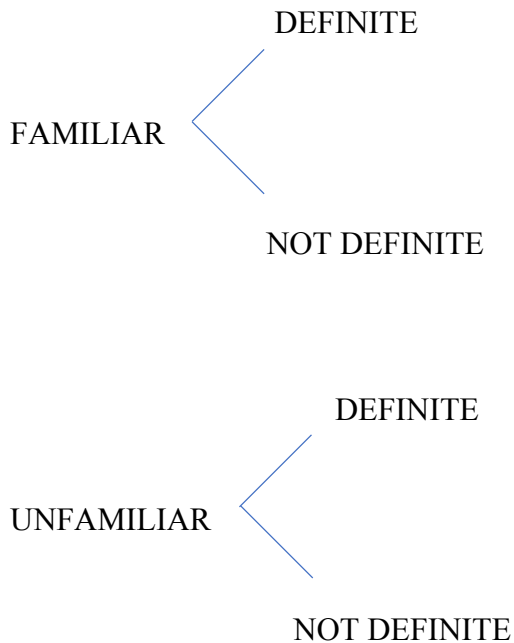


Table 3

	Definite	Not definite
Familiar	Christians go to the church	Christians go to church
Unfamiliar	Jews go to the synagogue	Jews go to synagogue

I chose to divide it into these four groups to test if there were any differences between words that are often used and words that are not, and the use of the definite article in Scottish English and British English. All the test items can be seen in the appendix. When I created the sentences, I tried to make an effort to make the sentences generic/talk about habitual actions, because that is the context where the Scottish English ‘the’ is generally used, but also to avoid ‘accommodation’ by the reader – to avoid them interpreting for example that “the church” is one specific church. For example, this sentence is too easily interpretable as ‘a church’, which was not the desired reading:

(33) John went to the church yesterday

In addition to the sentences I wanted to test, I included 57 filler sentences; some were good, some were bad, and some were intermediate. According to Schütze & Sprouse (2012), it is beneficial to use filler items in an experiment. Fillers might reduce the chances for the participants to understand what particular sentence type that is being tested and they can be used to ensure that the whole scale is used almost equally often (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 15). I chose to use the fillers as a tool to reduce the chances for the participants to understand which sentences I was testing, but also to make sure that the participants used the whole scale and not only parts of it.

To make sure that a participant did not get multiple sentences from each pair I used the Latin square design in the questionnaire. According to Grant (1948), the Latin square design makes sure that one only gets one sentence from each pair of sentences, or as he said it: “A latin square is an arrangement of latin letters in rows and columns such that each letter appears once and only once in each row and each column” (Grant, 1948, p. 427). The Latin square design made sure that a participant did not get for example one sentence from the familiar/definite and familiar/not definite from the same pair of sentences. In each pair, there were two words that were quite similar, but one was more familiar than the other. It was important for me to avoid that participants got words from the same pair, because it could have made them aware of what types of sentences and conditions I was testing, and I did not want the participants to see for example both “church” and “the church”, because “the church” would then inevitably get a lower score, because it is not prescriptively correct.

Table 4

	Definite	Not definite
Familiar	Christians go to the church	Christians go to Church
Unfamiliar	Jews go to the synagogue	Jews go to synagogue

The latin square design is making sure that a participant would not get more than one sentence from this item shown in this table. If the participant got the familiar/not definite sentence “*Christians go to church*”, that participant would not get the three other sentences from this item.

The questionnaire was constructed in and run on IbexFarm, the latin square design was therefore automated in this program. We also pseudorandomized each test, according to Sprouse and Almeida (2012) is pseudorandomizer a way to make sure that “...related conditions did not appear sequentially” (Sprouse & Almeida, 2012, p. 16). The participants

did not get for example, two sentences from the condition familiar/definite sequentially, the fillers I used came between the conditions I wanted to test, and no survey was the same for the participants because of the latin square and the pseudorandomizer.

3.2 Analyzing tools.

I chose to analyze the data in Excel. I sorted all the data after 1. Condition (familiar/definite, familiar/not definite, unfamiliar/definite, unfamiliar/not definite) 2. Item (have tested 12 items, one item includes 4 sentences, one from each condition) 3. Region (England or Scotland). Instead of dividing the groups into: South England, the Midlands, North England and Scotland, I have only divided the results into two groups, England and Scotland, because I did not get enough data from each region to be able to divide England into three parts; so I merged the results from Southern England, Northern England and the Midlands into England. After I had sorted the data, I started to find the average score for all items and conditions, where I divided it into England and Scotland. In the beginning, I found the average of the raw scores, but figured out that it would be better to use the z-scores to find a more accurate result.

3.2.1 Z-scores

In a Likert scale task, it is difficult to use the raw score from the participants. Participants may use the scale in different ways, some only 3-7, others 1-4, or maybe 2-5, you cannot guarantee that all the participants use the scale in the same way. Scale bias can be avoided by using the z-score. A z-score is according to Schütze and Sprouse (2012) a way to eliminate some of the potential scale bias, it "... allows us to express each participant's responses on a standardized scale." (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 19) For each participant, the raw scores are transformed to denote how many standard deviations from a participant's mean score a given judgment is. "...each response is expressed in standard deviation units from P's mean (Schütze & Sprouse, 2012, p. 19). A participant's z-scores are determined by the mean score and their distribution; if participant A uses the raw score of 1, it could map onto $z = -1$, participant B's raw score of 3 could for example be $z = -1,5$ or $-0,5$. Which z-score each raw score gets depends on the mean score and the distribution for each participant. By using the z-score scale biases can be omitted. If the z-score has a positive value, it lies above the participant's mean, and if the z-score is negative, it lies below.

In this acceptability judgment task, I believe that the results might be more accurate when using z-scores instead of the raw scores. I removed the average raw scores, and changed them out with the average z-scores. I still sorted the data in the same way as in the beginning

and found the average score for each sentence I had tested, and still had the division between Scotland and England.

3.3 Native Scottish English informant.

In addition to the questionnaire, I have had access to a native Scottish English speaker.

Through informal conversations he has commented on words which Stvan (1998,2007,2009) argues is bare singular count nouns. His comments are based on his Scottish English dialect, his intuitions, and what he thinks is acceptable. He knows what this thesis is about, and have commented to give extra information in addition to the results I got from the questionnaire. I have asked him for answers to specific items tested or words found in the papers from Stvan.

4. Results

This chapter contains some of the results from the data collected. It will explain some surprising results and why I think I did not get the results I thought I would get, in some cases. I have chosen to show individual items and not aggregated ones because after inspecting the data, different items were not behaving consistently. I believe that looking at the results aggregated would not give useful results; but there may be points of interest to take out of the individual items. I have chosen to show the results from 5 of the items, because this is the most interesting results; comprehensive results can be found in the appendix.

4.1 The individual items

This section will present some of the individual items that was tested. I will show some items that confirmed the Scottish English informant's intuition, and some items that gave a surprising result. Before I show some of the individual items, I show below the z-score for the fillers that were used, so that you can see the z-score for the bad fillers and for the good fillers.

Table 5

Condition	Good fillers	Bad fillers
Scotland (z-score)	0.60	-0.91
England (z-score)	0.62	-0.89

One can see that the two countries have almost the same z-score for the good and the bad fillers, little separates the two countries. As you can see, there is a large difference between the z-scores in the good and the bad fillers; this can be used as a good indication for how acceptable the other items are, e.g. 0.6 is a rough benchmark for 'good', -0.9 is a rough benchmark for 'bad'.

4.1.1 Item 1 *church/synagogue*

One intuition my native Scottish English informant had (as mentioned in chapter 3) is that Scottish people would say "to the church". The results in table 1, show that the acceptability in Scotland is higher in the familiar/not definite condition, compared to the familiar/definite

condition, which was a surprise for me. If one look at the results from both Scotland and England, one can see that the z-score is slightly higher in England than Scotland in the familiar/definite condition, while it is the opposite in the familiar/not definite condition. As one can see, the z-score differences are small. I have not tested the difference for statistical differences because the difference is in the opposite direction, so even without statistical testing, this seems to disconfirm the hypothesis that Scottish English and British English are different when it comes to at least this word.

Table 6

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 1	Priests go to the church on Sundays.	Priests go to church on Sundays.	Priests go to the seminary after high school.	Priests go to seminary after high school.
Scotland (z-score)	0.33	0.91	0,79	0.54
England (z-score)	0.38	0.90	0,65	0.17

In the unfamiliar/definite condition, one can see that the z-score in Scotland is higher than in the familiar/definite condition, so it seems like it is more acceptable to use the definite article to the word “seminary” than to the word “church”, the same goes for England. There is a large difference between Scotland and England in the unfamiliar/not definite condition, you can see that it is more acceptable in Scotland to say: “go to seminary” than it is in England. This is an interesting result, because I expected the acceptability to be higher in England than in Scotland; based on Miller (2003) and my native Scottish English informant’s intuition about the use of the definite article in Scottish English and Stvan’s (1998,2007,2009) research on bare singular count nouns in British English I expected the results to be opposite.

4.1.2 Item 3 *nursery/kindergarten*

In the familiar/definite condition, one can see that the acceptability is higher in Scotland than in England, so it is more acceptable to say, “go to the nursery” in Scotland. In the familiar/not definite condition, one can see that there is higher acceptability in England, and that the

acceptability for both Scotland and England is higher in this condition than the familiar/definite condition.

Table 7

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 3	Children go to the nursery before they start school.	Children go to nursery before they start school.	Children go to the kindergarten before they start school.	Children go to kindergarten before they start school.
Scotland (z-score)	0.66	0.83	0.31	0.47
England (z-score)	0.45	1.02	0.04	0.47

In the unfamiliar/definite condition, one can see that it is more acceptable to use the definite article with “kindergarten” in Scotland than it is in England. While in the unfamiliar/not definite condition, the acceptability is the same for both countries. One can also see that it is the familiar/definite and familiar/not definite which have the highest acceptability in Scotland, compared to the unfamiliar/definite and unfamiliar/not definite. In England, the acceptability for familiar/definite and unfamiliar/not definite is almost the same, and that familiar/definite has the highest acceptability. In general, one can see that in this item, using the definite article is more acceptable in Scotland (for both “nursery” and “kindergarten”) than in England and that “kindergarten” which is a slightly unfamiliar word bring the score down in both conditions in both countries.

4.1.3 Item 5 *jail/prison*

Another intuition my native Scottish English informant had (as mentioned in section 3), was that “go to the jail” is something that a Scottish English speaker would say, and still not mean one specific jail. He also thought that this would not work with “go to the prison”. Looking at the z-score results in this table, one can see that the difference is small, and it is not a significant difference. Based on the z-score, his intuition might have been wrong, it looks like Scottish English speakers can say: “go to the prison”. This item’s z-scores show us that the

definite forms are disliked in British English, since both “go to the jail” and “go to the prison” have a negative z-score.

Table 8

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 5:	Criminals go to the jail.	Criminals go to jail.	Criminals go to the prison.	Criminals go to prison.
Scotland (z-scores)	0.05	0.95	-0.03	0.95
England (z-scores)	-0.54	0.84	-0.22	0.82

In the familiar/definite item, one can see that the acceptability is higher in Scotland than in England. In the familiar/not definite the acceptability is almost the same in Scottish English and English, and the acceptability is higher in Scotland for the familiar/not definite than the familiar/definite. The unfamiliar/definite sentence show that the acceptability is low in both Scotland and in England, and this shows that it is a difference between “jail” and “prison”, while for the unfamiliar/not definite the acceptability is pretty much the same as in the familiar/not definite sentence. This shows us that for the words “jail” and “prison”, it is more acceptable in a generic reading to use them as bare singular count nouns in both Scottish English and in British English.

4.1.4 Item 6 *hospital/clinic*

This item shows a larger difference in the familiar/definite condition than item 5 did. Here one can see that the generic sentence “sick people go to the hospital” is more acceptable in Scotland than in England, and that there is also a larger difference in the acceptability in the familiar/not definite conditions. Both countries show that it is acceptable to say, “to hospital”, but the acceptability is higher in England than in Scotland.

Table 9

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 6:	Sick people go to the hospital.	Sick people go to hospital.	Patients with minor ailments should be seen in the clinic.	Patients with minor ailments should be seen in clinic.
Scotland (z-score)	0.96	0.76	0.84	-0.10
England (z-score)	0.40	1.00	0.85	0.03

In the unfamiliar/definite condition one can see that the acceptability score is almost the same in British English and in Scottish English, and both scores are high. In the unfamiliar/definite one can see that in Scotland is the acceptability almost as high in this condition as in the familiar/definite condition, but one can see a larger difference in the acceptability in British English between the two conditions. The unfamiliar/definite condition has a larger acceptability score in England than the familiar/definite condition. The unfamiliar/not definite has a much lower acceptability than the familiar/not definite conditions, the same goes for Scotland.

4.1.5 Item 9 *bed/bath*

In addition to test the difference in use of the definite article in Scottish English, I have also tested the use of the possessive pronoun in Scottish English: as mentioned in chapter 1, Miller (2003) argues that the use of possessive pronouns is a well-known characteristics in Scottish English. Here is one item that I tested. As one can see in the familiar/definite condition, there is a large difference between Scottish English and British English, it is acceptable to say; “my bed” in Scottish English, but it looks like it is not very acceptable in British English. “To bed” seems to be acceptable in both British English and Scottish English.

Table 10

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 9	Every weekday I go to my bed at 10.45.	Every weekday I go to bed at 10.45.	Every evening I take my bath.	Every evening I take a bath.
Scotland (z-score)	0.78	0.88	0.43	0.71
England (z-score)	-0.01	0.75	0.58	0.93

In the unfamiliar/definite condition one can see that the z-score is slightly higher in British English than in Scottish English, but that it seems like it is more acceptable to use the indefinite article, as in the unfamiliar/not definite condition in both Scottish English and British English.

Looking at these five items, the impression that there is a difference between Scottish English and British English is largely confirmed, though with a few surprising results e.g. church/synagogue.

4.2 Why were not all the results as expected?

Table 11

Conditions	Familiar/definite	Familiar/not definite	Unfamiliar/definite	Unfamiliar/not definite
Item 2	Defences can be presented at the court	Defences can be presented at court	Defences can be presented at the tribunal	Defences can be presented at the tribunal
Scotland (z-score)	0.16	0.26	0.16	0.36
England (z-score)	0.05	-0.01	0.27	-0.34

The results showed in table 11, did not really show an interesting difference. I will come back to the bare singular count noun *court* in the next chapter, and this might show why it did not show an interesting difference.

Unfortunately, I believe that some of the sentences that I tested in the questionnaire was not conducted in the way they perhaps needed to be; to be able to really test the differences in the use of bare singular count nouns in British English, and the differences between British English and Scottish English. I tried to make all the sentences generic, as mentioned in chapter 3, but it looks like I did not achieve this in all items. I believe that this might be one reason for why we did get results that were not expected. I believe that this sentence, for example, is generic: *Children in Scotland are at the school from 9 am-3.30 pm.* In this sentence, it is obvious that it is not one particular school but the more abstract notion of the schools in Scotland. While in for example this sentence, I might not have managed to create it correctly: *Defences can be presented at the court.* It may have been too easy for the respondents to understand this as meaning a specific *court*, and not *court* as a whole institution.

Another reason might be the size of the sample size, 86 people answered the questionnaire, if the sample size was larger, the results might have been different. We published the questionnaire on Facebook, so it was a random sample size, but this could also mean that someone who was not eligible took the questionnaire, which also could lead to surprising results. I did not get quite the result I wanted in all cases, and some of the results showed surprising results. Nevertheless, in some cases - like *school, jail, prison* - did my investigation seem to confirm a difference between Scottish English and British English, along the lines of what Miller descriptively reports. In the next chapter, I will comment on what the theoretical/analytical significance of this is.

5. Analysis

This chapter will contain an empirical and a theoretical analysis; the main focus will be on bare singular count nouns, and differences between them. It will also include a discussion of the null determiner (mentioned in chapter 2) and whether bare singular count nouns can have a null determiner. In this chapter, you will see why I have come to the claim that there are two groups of bare singular count nouns; bare NPs and full DPs.

5.1 The syntax of bare singular count nouns

As seen in 2.2.2, Stvan argues that bare singular count nouns can be used as subjects, direct objects and in PPs. I argue that one can divide the bare singular count nouns into two syntactic groups: (1) bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects and, more generally, in any syntactic position and (2) bare singular count nouns that can only be used in PPs. The bare singular count nouns that can be subjects have a different syntax than the ones which can only be used in PPs. If a bare singular count noun can be used as subject, it can be used anywhere in a sentence; that is, it is much more flexible than a bare singular count noun that can only be used in PPs. Based on the difference in flexibility, I argue that there are two groups of bare singular count nouns. According to Stvan (2009), only 18 bare singular count nouns can be used as subjects.

- (34) bed, camp, campus, church, class, college, court (legal), court (royal),
daycare, high school, home, jail, kindergarten, prison, school, seminary,
town, work (Stvan, 2009, p. 319)

In addition to the 18 bare singular count nouns that Stvan (2009) says can be used as subjects, I argue that *hospital* and *university* are bare singular count nouns which also can be used as subjects.

- (35) Hospital is a scary place
(36) University is fun

One of the intuitions my native Scottish English informant has, is that bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects can be used with the definite article in Scottish English. He has commented on the bare singular count nouns that Stvan (2009) argues can be used as

subjects in British English¹. He states that *church, college, court, high school, jail, prison, school, ?seminary* can be subjects, in addition to *hospital* and *university*.

(37)

- a. Children should go to their beds before 10 pm. (*to the beds)
- b. Those folk are always at the church
- c. ?In Scotland, nursing is taught at the college
- d. Some cases are dealt with by an arbitrator, but serious ones end up in the court.
- e. Scottish kids are at the high school between 9 and 3.30
- f. Murderers get sent to the jail
- g. ?Murderers get sent to the prison
- h. Scottish kids are at the school between 9 and 3.30
- i. ?Priest go to the seminary for four years
- j. At 2 pm on Friday, most Scots are still at their work (*at the work)

He states that *camp, campus, class* and *town* do not work with the definite article and the relevant generic reading; he states that they only work to denote one specific item. He also states that for him and his dialect they do not work as subjects.

(38)

- a. # boy scouts are in the camp in July / ?? Camp was really boring
- b. # It's crucial to have a free flow of ideas on the campus / * Campus was really boring
- c. # It's important for students to attend the class / ?? Class was really boring²
- d. ?# Farmers take their goods into the town to sell them / *Town is really exciting

My informant argues that “*into the town*” works for him in (38d), but he thinks the reason it

¹ # = that a sentence is grammatical as such, but can only get the specific reading, ‘one particular camp’ etc.

? = that he finds the sentence strange, and are words he does not use often.

² 38 c = he comments that this example sounds more like American English than Scottish English

works is because it is very easy to accommodate ('bridging'): for each farmer, one can imagine that there is one town that is the closest to them, and that is the town you are talking about in (38 d). For him, *town* used as a subject, i.e. "*Town is really exciting*" is ungrammatical for him and his dialect.

My informant cannot think of a context where he would use the word *court* in the royal meaning. *Daycare* and *kindergarten* are words that are not really used in Scottish English, so he has not commented on these words. About the word *home*, he has said that it works as a subject (*Home is where the heart is*) but there is something different going on with this. Home is (or can be) a (one-word) prepositional phrase (cf. *he went home*). PPs can sometimes be subjects: *Under the bed is a good place to hide*. For his intuition and his Scottish English dialect he argues that the correlation between 'can be used with *the*' and 'can be used syntactically flexibly e.g. as a subject' is essentially perfect in his dialect. He has used the frame: "_ is really scary" to test whether he thinks that a bare singular count noun can work in subject position.

- (39)
- a. Hospital is really scary
 - b. University is really scary
 - c. School is really scary
 - d. Court is really scary

He has not commented on the bare singular count nouns *bed* and *work* and if they work as subjects because they do not work in the same way as the rest, instead they are used with a possessive pronoun in Scottish English.

I tested 10 out of the 18 bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects; three of them are used with a possessive pronoun, so I will focus on the 7 words used with the definite article:

- (40) Seminary, church, court, jail, kindergarten, prison, school.

6 out of 7 words showed a positive acceptability score in Scottish English (you can see some of the results in chapter 4, while the rest is in the appendix). *Prison* only had a negative z-score of -0.03, which might be because *prison* is more unfamiliar or less used than *jail* in Scottish English. The results show that it is more acceptable to use these words as bare singular count nouns, but the fact that they received a positive z-score when they are used

with the definite article might show that the intuition of my native Scottish English informant can be correct. In some of the cases there was a difference between Scottish English and British English - *school, kindergarten, court, seminary* and *jail* used with the definite article are more acceptable in Scotland than in England. *Court, seminary* and *jail* used as bare singular count nouns are more acceptable in Scotland than in England, but the difference is minor.

5.2 The semantics of bare singular count nouns

Most of the bare singular count nouns are restricted and only productive in set PPs (as seen in table 1), while others are productive in all argument positions and in PPs. It is not just the syntactic use of the bare singular count nouns that differ, the semantic meanings also differ. For that reason, I want to argue for the division between systems to which humans can belong versus everything else. Systems to which humans can belong are for example: *school, hospital, church, jail*.

Example (41) illustrates the use of *school* in a PP, I argue that ‘John is at the school’ sounds strange in British English and specifically with the intended meaning ‘John is a school pupil’ (if you have mentioned a (specific) school before, the sentence is of course fine), and moreover that ‘John is at school’ sounds perfectly fine. School is one of the words Stvan argues is a bare singular count noun which can be used in subject position. Even though the specific item meaning might disappear when the definite article is missing, one can still argue that the utterance in itself creates a familiarity towards which school John goes to for the hearer of this utterance.

(41) # John is at the school / John is at school

(42) John is at the library / * John is at library³

Example (42) shows that it sounds strange and does not look or sound grammatically correct when *library* is used without the definite article. One might argue that *library* does not work as a bare singular count because humans is not crucial to its existence in a way. The books make a library a library, and not people. In comparison, a school would not be a school if there were no people in it; it would only be a building. If there were no people in a library;

³ * is used when a sentence is ungrammatical.

it would still be a library because of the books. Put in another way, the bare singular count nouns which can be used in subject position, seem to have a property where it is important that there are people in the system e.g., institutions one can be a member of or that gives you some special role.

- (43) School = student, jail = criminal/prisoner, hospital = patient

I would argue that a library is not something one is a member of, in this relevant sense; you can have a loan card, but it does not give you a special role being in a library. As mentioned in section 2.2.2, Stvan (2007, p. 179) states that the activity reading is about the activity which the subject is performing. This might be a reason for why *library* is not a bare singular count noun; if you are at a library, it does not give you a special role.

5.3 Idiomatic expressions.

My native Scottish English informant thinks that bare singular count nouns which can only be used in PPs are not used with the definite article in Scottish English. He thinks that this might be because they are idiomatic expressions. I believe that his institutions might be right, because the use of the bare singular count nouns in set PPs are so restricted and can only work with a few prepositions. If they are used in other positions in a sentence, and not in PPs, they are used with the definite article. This might show that they are fixed expression which cannot work in other settings, and that they might be memorized expressions.

Bare singular count nouns which belong to two of Stvan's (1998) semantic subgroups – natural environment and travel on water - are not systems which humans belong to. For bare singular count nouns such as *river*, *shore*, *slope*, *port*, *deck*, I would argue that they are idiomatic expression that are memorized. They are only productive with some prepositions, e.g. set PPs. *Up/down river* is one bare singular count noun I argue is an idiomatic expression.

- (44) Let the river run / *let river run.

- (45) Salmons are swimming up river / * There are a lot of salmon in river

Example (44) shows that if *river* is not used in a PP, but is still used as a bare singular count noun, the sentence becomes ungrammatical. The sentence: 'let river run' sound strange, while 'let the river run' sounds perfectly fine. Example (45) shows that if *river* is used in a PP with the preposition *up (or down)* it is perfectly fine to use it without the definite article.

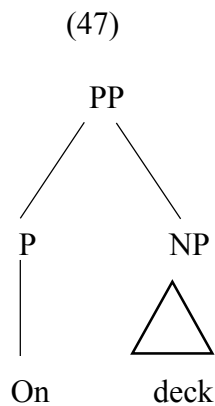
River is a bare singular count noun, but what about *park*? One might argue that *park* is not a bare singular count noun, because it is not a bare singular count noun. It is not a memorized expression and it is not productive as a bare noun in any position in a sentence. The grammar of English does not say anything about why *park* cannot be used as bare singular count noun, so what makes this distinction?

(46) John is in the park / *John is in park.

Example (46) shows that ‘in park’ is not considered a grammatical sentence in British English, while ‘in the park’ is. One might argue that *park* is not productive in a bare form because it is not a memorized expression. One might argue that Stvan’s (1998) semantic subgroup “natural environment” is a subgroup where *park* could be placed, but it is not; a reason for this is that ‘in park’ is not a memorized listed item; the English grammar says that nouns should have a determiner in front, because *park* is not memorized as ‘in park’, it does not work as a bare singular count noun.

I have tested a couple of the bare singular count nouns which I argue might be idiomatic expression. I have tested the words *port* and *deck*; both words received a positive z-score in both British English and Scottish English when they were used as bare singular count nouns in PPs (on deck, at port)⁴. *On deck* got a higher z-score than *at port*, one reason might be that *on deck* might be a more familiar and more used expression than *at port*. Both *on deck* and *at port* received higher z-scores in Scottish English than British English. This might suggest that Scottish English does not use the definite article with all bare singular count nouns, which might show us that the intuition my native Scottish English informant has is correct; Scottish English uses the definite article with bare singular count nouns that can be used as subjects. *Port* and *deck* can only be productive in a few PPs; since they are so restricted, I argue that they might be idiomatic expressions like *river*. One might argue that expressions involving words such as *river*, *slope*, *park*, *shore*, *port* and *deck* and how they can act in a sentence is not a grammatical or semantic fact but a fact about learned lexicons. In example (47), you can see the syntactic structure I propose for idiomatic expressions.

⁴ The results of all items tested can be found in the appendix.

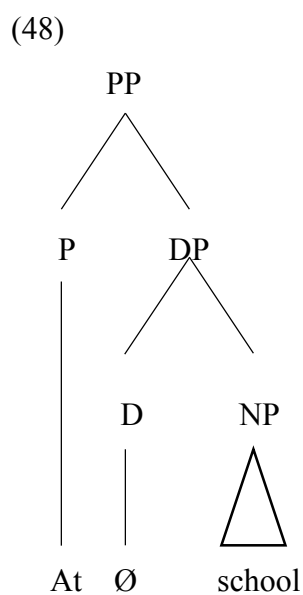


One can see from this syntactic tree that it is not a full DP; the NP goes straight up to PP without a DP. In English grammar, a NP should go up to a DP before it goes to a PP. I argue that idiomatic expressions have this syntactic structure because they are not full DPs, they are memorized chunks, and are not productive any other places in a sentence. The reason why they are not productive in other places is because they are not full DPs, and they are not productively generated by the grammar.

I tested the words *cellar* and *deck*, and I would argue that the results for these words might have been so different because the phrase *on deck* is much more familiar to people than *in cellar*. I argue that the expression *in cellar* might only be familiar to people working with wine, and if you are working with wine the sentence *wine should be stored in cellar* might be a familiar and acceptable expression. If these phrases are ‘frozen’ idioms, you might expect them to vary from person to person. Stvan argues that *in cellar* is acceptable, but this is contradicted by my results. For people not working with wine, this expression might sound strange because one is not familiar with the expression. I would argue that maritime expressions might be more familiar for most people than wine expressions. The results for *cellar* was -0,66 for England and -0,61 for Scotland; for *deck* the results were 0,68 for England and 0,83 for Scotland. This large difference in acceptability might show that the expression: *Naval captains are always on deck* is more familiar than *wine should be stored in cellar*. One might argue that if an expression is not familiar and not memorized it is easier to use the definite article in front of the bare singular count noun. A speaker might not know that a noun can be used as a bare singular count noun or it might be that an idiomatic expression is not memorized, hence the definite article is used in front of that bare singular count noun.

5.4 The null determiner

I am now moving from considering the ‘idiomatic’ class to the ‘flexible’ class of bare singular count nouns; such as *school*, *hospital*, *jail*. Example (48) illustrates how a PP with a bare singular count noun that has a null determiner looks like in a syntactic tree. I argue that bare singular count nouns which can work as subjects do have a DP, where the D is a null determiner. Here one can see that the NP goes up to a DP before it goes up to PP. Because they are DPs, they are more syntactically flexible and one can expect them to appear anywhere in a sentence.



As seen in section 2.3, the definite article gives a nominal phrase a familiarity or uniqueness aspect; it is used to pick out one specific item for the hearer. In (49), *the* is used to pick out one specific prison, and not the prison system in British English. While in Scottish English, ‘the prison’ does not mean one specific prison, but the prison system, in this sentence. The fact that Scottish English uses a pronounced determiner here, is support for the structure in (48) for British English.

(49) Criminals go to the prison

(50) Criminals go to prison

Example (51) can show how the definite article can create some sense of familiarity or uniqueness.

(51) John is in the prison / John is in prison

When the definite article is used it is clear that John is a convicted criminal and he is serving time in prison. If the hearer has the background knowledge needed, the hearer will be able to understand which prison John is in. If the background knowledge is not present, the hearer needs to ask an additional question; which prison is he in? If you use in prison without the definite article, the sentence becomes ambiguous; it can mean that John is a convicted criminal serving time in prison or John is just visiting a prison. Again, based on the background knowledge the hearer has, he/she would be able to know which of the two possible readings is the right one.

Chierchia's (1998) Nominal Mapping Parameter has proposed a semantic explanation for cross-linguistic differences. He argues that NPs can denote to different things, either kinds (type $\langle e \rangle$) or predicates (type $\langle e, t \rangle$). NPs can appear freely in argument positions if they denote kinds. Chierchia argues that languages decide whether their NPs denote just kinds [+arg, -pred], just predicates [-arg, +pred] or either [+arg, +pred] (Munn & Schmitt, 2002, p. 226). According to Chierchia can [-pred] languages allow bare singular count nouns in argument positions, the reason is that these languages in the end only have nouns that denote mass nouns. [-arg] languages should only allow bare nominals in argument position if an empty determiner is used. Bare mass nouns and bare plurals is the only bare nouns that should be allowed in languages that have a singular/plural distinction. In predicative position, should all bare nouns be able to appear freely (Munn & Schmitt, 2002, p. 226).

Example (52) is taken from Munn & Schmitt (2002, p. 226). It shows how Chierchia (1998) has divided languages into groups, and examples of which languages belong to which group.

(52)

- [+arg, -pred] (e.g. Chinese)
 - o generalized bare arguments
 - o all nouns are mass nouns
 - o no plural morphology
 - o generalized classifier system
- [-arg, +pred] (e.g. French)
 - o no bare nominals in argument position
 - o count/mass distinction
 - o morphological plural
- [+arg, +pred] (e.g. English)
 - o bare mass nouns and plurals can be used in argument position
 - o no bare singular count nouns
 - o plural morphology

- [-arg, -pred] (non-existent) (Munn & Schmitt, 2002, p. 226).

Chierchia (1998) argues in his Nominal Mapping Parameter that English does not have bare singular count nouns and that mass and plural nouns can be used in argument positions. On the surface, it looks like British English has bare singular count nouns. On the one hand, the idiomatic expressions are used as bare singular count nouns, but just because they are memorized constituents; they are not full nominal phrases. On the other hand, the bare singular count nouns which work as subjects, are full nominal phrases and on the surface, they look like bare singular count nouns. One might argue that they are bare singular count nouns, but on the other hand, they have a null determiner; so syntactically they are in a way not bare, they have a null determiner.

I argue that some English bare singular count nouns denote kinds, e.g. the bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects. Most of the bare singular count nouns that Stvan argues are subjects is some kind of systems, *jail*, *prison*, *school*, *kindergarten* etc. When they are used in a generic reading (as tested in the questionnaire) they denote kinds. Nouns like *school* denote (or can denote) kinds, i.e. systems. The definite article *the* in British English, when it combines with a noun like *school*, only has the function of picking out a specific school (=i.e. a specific instance of the kind). However, in Scottish English, *the* is ambiguous in what it does: it can either pick out one specific instance of the kind, or it can pick out the whole kind (/system). For some reason, this only seems to work with ‘systems’ though (not kinds in general: you do not get e.g. **Lion is dangerous*). The reasons for why it only seems to work with ‘systems’ has to be left for future research. British English has a null determiner which has the function of picking out the whole system.

- (53) Children in Scotland are at school from 9 am-3.30 pm.

Example (53) shows that some bare singular count nouns in English can denote kinds. In this sentence, it is not referred to one specific school, but the school system in Scotland. The same is happening in example (54), where the sentence refer to the jail system, not one specific jail.

- (54) Criminals go to jail.

In Scottish English, the examples (55) and (56) denote kinds in the same way as (53) and (54) do in English. Even though Scottish English uses *the* in front of *school* and *jail*, they still

denote kinds. Example (55) still talks about the school system in Scotland in the same way as (53) does; example (56) still talks about the jail system in the same way as (54) does.

(55) Children in Scotland are at the school from 9 am-3.30 pm.

(56) Criminals go to the jail.

As seen above, the definite article can denote different meanings in British English and Scottish English. In Scottish English, the definite article can be used with British English bare singular count nouns and still denote kinds.

Bare singular count nouns probably have a null determiner, at least the ones which can be used as subjects. Since they can be used in all positions in a sentence, I would argue that they need to be full nominal phrases, and that is the reason why I argue that they have a null determiner. As mentioned in section 2.2.2, *prison* and *home* change meaning when the definite article is present, I would argue that the change of meaning is because the null determiner and the definite article might have different meanings. The definite article is used to point out one specific instance of the system; maybe the null determiner picks out something slightly different, i.e. the whole system. The null determiner arguably still has some of the same criteria as the definite article. One can find some sense of familiarity and uniqueness when the null determiner is used, but in an extended sense. Example (53) show some familiarity and uniqueness even though there is no definite article. This sentence talks about one specific school system, and not about every school systems in the world. One might argue that the null determiner is able to denote a sense of familiarity and uniqueness when it comes to specific systems instead of one specific item.

I claim that British English has two categories of bare singular count nouns; DPs and bare NPs; they have different syntax and semantic properties. The bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects have a null determiner layer while the bare singular count nouns which can only be used in PPs with few prepositions are bare NPs; they are idiomatic expressions and therefore bare NPs. Scottish English gives us data for the null determiner, which is not found in the surface. The evidence from Scottish English is that bare singular count nouns in British English which can be used as subjects, are used with the pronounced definite article in Scottish English. This predicts that British English have a null determiner with nouns that predicts ‘membership’. Human membership organizations should appear as unrestricted bare singular count noun phrases. One might argue that for example: *Government*

and *chess club* could work as unrestricted bare singular count noun phrases.

- (57) a. I am going to chess club tonight
b. *I am going to chess tournament tonight
c. I am going to the chess tournament tonight.
- (58) He is in government.

As mentioned in chapter 1, Miller (2003) argues that Scottish English uses possessive pronouns with some nouns. I have tested some sentences with the possessive pronouns, but I do not have enough data to look closely at this phenomenon in Scottish English. I know that they are used, but it will need further research to go into this phenomenon in depth.

- (59) a. Every morning at 7.30 am I eat my breakfast.
b. I don't like going out in the evening, I prefer to stay at my home
c. From 7 am-4 pm I'm at my work.
d. Each summer I go on my holidays.
e. Every weekday I go to my bed at 10.45.

6. Conclusion

This master's thesis has looked at research of the DP hypothesis, the null determiner hypothesis and bare singular count nouns in British English. They have formed the basis for this thesis. This thesis has followed the DP hypothesis, and looked at the problems which might occur when it comes to bare singular count nouns. The DP hypothesis have come up with what they think might be a solution to this problem – the null determiner. In addition, I have looked at differences between British English and Scottish English, to see if there are differences in the use of bare singular count nouns. Based on the results from the questionnaire, the intuition of my native Scottish English informant and Stvan's research, I claim that Scottish English uses the definite article with British English bare singular count nouns that can be used as subjects. The bare singular count nouns which can only be used in PPs are not used with the definite article in Scottish English. I argue that bare singular count nouns which can only be used in PPs are idiomatic expressions, i.e. they are bare NPs. The bare singular count nouns which can be used as subjects, have the null determiner and are full determiner phrases. This is based on evidence found in Scottish English; the overt determiner in Scottish English is evidence for the presence of a covert determiner in British English.

In this thesis, I have scratched the surface of the difference in the distribution of bare singular count nouns in British English and Scottish English. If a follow-up questionnaire is conducted, it is important to make sure that all the sentences tested are generic, so that the participants do not think the sentences refers to one specific item. In my questionnaire, I managed to do this in several cases but not all; this might be one of the reasons why some of the results were not as expected. In a follow-up questionnaire one should look more closely into whether there really is a correlation between having *the* in Scottish English and being able to be used as subjects.

From what I have been able to find out about bare singular count nouns in English, it seems like Stvan has done the major part of the research. Further research might be to look more at differences in the distribution of bare singular count nouns between for example: British English, American English, African English, Irish English, Scottish English. One might find that there are large differences between different dialects of English and the use of bare singular count nouns. One might also conduct further research in Scottish English and the use of bare singular count nouns vs the use of the definite article and the possessive pronouns. A similar research might also be conducted for Irish English and Welsh English, in this way one can map the differences in Great Britain and see if there are large differences

within the country when it comes to the use of bare singular count nouns. In this thesis, I did not have the space to look at other bare singular count nouns besides the ones in PPs and the ones that can function as subjects. It might be interesting to look at bare singular count nouns in predication - *be head of the department*-, in the object position of certain verbs - *play piano*- and coordination - *eat with fork and knife*.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Relevance for the teacher profession

This master's thesis is relevant for the teacher profession in several ways. I have been able to conduct a research, and also read a lot of research articles. Through this work, I have gotten a lot of experience in searching for relevant research, figuring out what can be used and what is not so relevant. In the teacher profession, it is important that a teacher pay attention to new research and developments in the field he/she is teaching. I have also gotten a lot better at writing papers, which can benefit my students because it is now easier to teach them how to write a good paper.

This process has made me a lot more critical to sources, and I have learned how to see if a source is reliable or not. I will definitely use this in my profession as a teacher in several ways. I can teach my students to be critical to sources and how they can see if a source is reliable. I will also be critical to sources I will use in the classroom.

The content in this master's thesis is also relevant for the teacher profession. When Norwegian students learn English, they are told that nouns should always have a determiner in front, that is the grammatical rule of English. Some nouns do not need a determiner, but the students do not know this so they still write it with a determiner. I believe that some teachers do not know why some of the nouns do not need a determiner, hence they cannot give their students a good reason for why some of the nouns do not need a determiner. If a teacher could give students a good explanation for why some of the nouns do not follow the rules, it might make it easier for them to understand why they are different.

Appendix B: Assessment from NSD



Andrew Weir

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 01.11.2017

Vår ref: 56529 / 3 / STM

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

Forenklet vurdering fra NSD Personvernombudet for forskning

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 11.10.2017.
Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

56529	<i>Comparative syntax - Scottish English and Standard Southern British English</i>
Behandlingsansvarlig	<i>NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder</i>
Daglig ansvarlig	<i>Andrew Weir</i>
Student	<i>Frida Frøseth Larsen</i>

Vurdering

Etter gjennomgang av opplysningene i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg, vurderer vi at prosjektet er omfattet av personopplysningsloven § 31. Personopplysningene som blir samlet inn er ikke sensitive, prosjektet er samtykkebasert og har lav personvernulempe. Prosjektet har derfor fått en forenklet vurdering. Du kan gå i gang med prosjektet. Du har selvstendig ansvar for å følge vilkårene under og sette deg inn i veiledningen i dette brevet.

Vilkår for vår vurdering

Vår anbefaling forutsetter at du gjennomfører prosjektet i tråd med:

- opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet
- krav til informert samtykke
- at du ikke innhenter [sensitive opplysninger](#)
- veiledning i dette brevet
- NTNU sine retningslinjer for datasikkerhet

Veiledning

Krav til informert samtykke

Utvalget skal få skriftlig og/eller muntlig informasjon om prosjektet og samtykke til deltakelse.

Informasjon må minst omfatte:

- at NTNU er behandlingsansvarlig institusjon for prosjektet
- daglig ansvarlig (eventuelt student og veileder) sine kontaktopplysninger
- prosjektets formål og hva opplysningene skal brukes til

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

- hvilke opplysninger som skal innhentes og hvordan opplysningene innhentes
- når prosjektet skal avsluttes og når personopplysningene skal anonymiseres/slettes

På nettsidene våre finner du mer informasjon og en veiledende mal for [informasjonsskriv](#).

Forskningsetiske retningslinjer

Sett deg inn i [forskningsetiske retningslinjer](#).

Meld fra hvis du gjør vesentlige endringer i prosjektet

Dersom prosjektet endrer seg, kan det være nødvendig å sende inn endringsmelding. På våre nettsider finner du svar på hvilke [endringer](#) du må melde, samt endringsskjema.

Opplysninger om prosjektet blir lagt ut på våre nettsider og i Meldingsarkivet

Vi har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet på nettsidene våre. Alle våre institusjoner har også tilgang til egne prosjekter i [Meldingsarkivet](#).

Vi tar kontakt om status for behandling av personopplysninger ved prosjektslutt

Ved prosjektslutt 15.04.2018 vil vi ta kontakt for å avklare status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Gjelder dette ditt prosjekt?

Dersom du skal bruke databehandler

Dersom du skal bruke databehandler (ekstern transkriberingsassistent/spørreskjemaleverandør) må du inngå en databehandleravtale med vedkommende. For råd om hva databehandleravtalen bør inneholde, se [Datatilsynets veileder](#).

Hvis utvalget har taushetsplikt

Vi minner om at noen grupper (f.eks. opplærings- og helsepersonell/forvaltningsansatte) har [taushetsplikt](#). De kan derfor ikke gi deg identifiserende opplysninger om andre, med mindre de får samtykke fra den det gjelder.

Dersom du forsker på egen arbeidsplass

Vi minner om at når du [forsker på egen arbeidsplass](#) må du være bevisst din dobbeltrolle som både forsker og ansatt. Ved rekruttering er det spesielt viktig at forespørsel rettes på en slik måte at frivilligheten ved deltakelse ivaretas.

Se våre nettsider eller ta kontakt med oss dersom du har spørsmål. Vi ønsker lykke til med prosjektet!

Vennlig hilsen

Marianne Høgetveit Myhren

Sri Tenden Myklebust

Kontaktperson: Sri Tenden Myklebust tlf: 55 58 22 68 / Sri.Myklebust@nsd.no

Appendix C: Information letter

Request for participation in research project

" Comparative syntax - Scottish English and English English "

Background and Purpose

This questionnaire forms part of the research for my master's thesis at NTNU Norwegian University of Science and Technology. The purpose of this master's thesis is to investigate language use in Scotland and England and some differences between Scottish English and English English.

If you grew up in Scotland or England, and want to participate in this project, please complete the electronic questionnaire.

What does participation in the project imply?

To be part of this project, you need to complete the electronic questionnaire, which will take approximately 10-15 minutes. You will be presented with a list of sentences, and asked to assign these sentences a score based on how natural you find them in your dialect of English. The data will only be used by me and my supervisor.

What will happen to the information about you?

All personal data will be treated confidentially. It will only be me and my supervisor who will have access to the data. The only personal data that will be collected is your IP-address and they will be stored confidentially. None of the participants will be recognizable in the final thesis.

The project is scheduled for completion by 15.04.2018. The data collected will be made anonymous after the completion of this project.

Voluntary participation

It is voluntary to participate in the project, and you can at any time choose to withdraw your consent without stating any reason. If you decide to withdraw, all your personal data will be made anonymous.

If you would like to participate or if you have any questions concerning the project, please contact:

Frida Frøseth Larsen (student)
+47 91822783

Or

Andrew Weir (Supervisor)

+47 73596482

The study has been notified to the Data Protection Official for Research, NSD - Norwegian Centre for Research Data.

Consent for participation in the study

By clicking Next below, you agree to participate in this study.

Appendix D: Data results – 12 items

South England – 17 participants, Midlands – 7 participants, North England – 9 participants, Scotland – 53 participants.

region	Items	Conditions	Z-scores
	1. Priests go to the church on Sundays.	Fam/def	
Scotland			0.33
England			0.38
South England			0.01
Midlands			0.68
North England			0.55
	1. Priests go to church on Sundays.	Fam/no def	
Scotland			0.92
England			0.90
South England			0.98
Midlands			0.94
North England			0.79
	1. Priests go to the seminary after high school.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.79
England			0.65
South England			0.82
Midlands			0.74
North England			0.45
	1. Priests go to seminary after high school.	Unfam/no def	
scotland			0.54
England			0.17
South England			0.17
Midlands			
North England			
	2. Defences can be presented at the court.	Fam/def	
Scotland			0.16
england			0.05
South England			0.05
Midlands			
North England			
	2. Defences can be presented at court.	Fam/no def	
Scotland			0.26
england			-0.01
South England			0.02
midlands			0.55
north England			-1.20
	2. Defences can be presented at the tribunal	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.16

England			0.27
South England			0.71
Midlands			-0.50
North England			0.33
	2. Defences can be presented at tribunal	Unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.36
England			-0.34
South England			-0.36
Midlands			0.32
North England			-0.49
	3. Children go to the nursery before they start school.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.66
England			0.45
South England			0.74
Midlands			0.32
North England			0.19
	3. Children go to nursery before they start school.	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.83
England			1.02
South England			1.02
Midlands			
North England			
	3. Children go to the kindergarten before they start school.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.31
England			0.04
South England			0.23
Midlands			-0.42
North England			0.58
	3. Children go to kindergarten before they start school.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.47
England			0.47
South England			0.28
Midlands			0.94
North England			0.34
	4. Children in Scotland are at the school from 9 am-3.30 pm.	fam/def	
Scotland			0,12
England			-0.87
South England			-0.35
Midlands			0.94
North England			-0.78
	4. Children in Scotland are at school from 9 am-3.30 pm.	fam/no def	

Scotland			0.92
England			0.91
South England			1.01
Midlands			1.15
North England			0.74
	4. Engineers and nurses used to train at the polytechnic.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.60
England			0.58
South England			0.58
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	4. Engineers and nurses used to train at polytechnic.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			-0.39
England			-0.27
South England			-0.14
Midlands			-0.91
North England			0.74
	5. Criminals go to the jail.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.05
England			-0.54
South England			-0.54
Midlands			-0.97
North England			0.34
	5. Criminals go to jail.	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.95
England			0.84
South England			0.82
Midlands			0.94
North England			0.79
	5. Criminals go to the prison.	unfam/def	
Scotland			-0.03
England			-0.22
South England			-0.47
Midlands			-0.52
North England			0.10
	5. Criminals go to prison.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.95
England			0.82
South England			0.82
Midlands			
North England			
	6. Sick people go to the hospital.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.96
England			0.41

South England			0.41
Midlands			
North England			
	6. Sick people go to hospital.	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.77
England			1.00
South England			1.08
Midlands			0.96
North England			0.95
	6. Patients with minor ailments should be seen in the clinic.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.84
England			0.86
South England			0.86
Midlands			0.73
North England			0.94
	6. Patients with minor ailments should be seen in clinic.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			-0.10
England			0.03
South England			-0.10
Midlands			1.15
North England			-0.12
	7. Importers store their goods in the warehouse.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.83
England			0.77
South England			0.91
Midlands			-0.10
North England			0.84
	7. Importers store their goods in warehouse.	fam/no def	
Scotland			-0.55
England			-0.05
South England			-0.05
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	7. Wine should be stored in the cellar.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.95
England			1.05
South England			1.08
Midlands			1.07
North England			0.95
	7. wine should be stored in cellar.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			-0.61
England			-0.67
South England			-1.08

Midlands			-0.66
North England			-0.26
	8. Naval captains are always on the deck.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.24
England			0.75
South England			0.74
Midlands			0.73
North England			0.79
	8. Naval captains are always on deck.	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.83
England			0.68
South England			0.73
Midlands			0.74
North England			0.63
	8. In stormy weather, ships need to stay at the port.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.70
England			0.40
South England			0.40
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	8. In stormy weather, ships need to stay at port.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.32
England			0.29
South England			-0.21
Midlands			0.77
North England			0.34
	9. Every weekday I go to my bed at 10.45.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.78
England			-0.01
South England			-0.10
Midlands			0.11
North England			-0.10
	9. Every weekday I go to bed at 10.45.	fam/ no def	
Scotland			0.88
England			0.75
South England			0.98
Midlands			0.94
North England			0.39
	9. Every evening I take my bath.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.43
England			0.58
South England			0.17
Midlands			1.15
North England			0.85

	9. Every evening I take a bath.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.71
England			0.93
South England			0.93
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	10. Each summer I go on my holidays.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.62
England			0.34
South England			0.34
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	10. Each summer I go on holidays.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.09
England			0.06
South England			-0.12
Midlands			0.47
North England			-0.37
	10. Every four years I go on my sabbatical.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.32
England			0.35
South England			-0.05
Midlands			0.73
North England			0.50
	10. Every four years I go on sabbatical.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			0.79
England			0.86
South England			1.01
Midlands			1.15
North England			0.63
	11. From 7 am-4 pm I'm at my work.	fam/def	
Scotland			0.65
England			0.43
South England			0.54
Midlands			0.32
North England			0.35
	11. From 7 am-4 pm I'm at work.	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.72
England			0.38
South England			0.38
Midlands			
North England			
	11. After high school, students go to the university.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.46

England			0.50
South England			0.35
Midlands			0.51
North England			0.70
	11. After high school, students go to university.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			No results ⁵
England			No results
South England			No results
Midlands			No results
North England			No results
	12. I don't like going out in the evening, I prefer to stay at my home	fam/def	
Scotland			0.18
England			-0.10
South England			-0.04
Midlands			-0.67
North England			0.22
	12. I don't like going out in the evening, I prefer to stay at home	fam/no def	
Scotland			0.99
England			1.00
South England			0.91
Midlands			1.15
North England			1.05
	12. Every morning at 7.30 am I eat my breakfast.	unfam/def	
Scotland			0.39
England			0.46
South England			0.22
Midlands			0.85
North England			0.95
	12. Every morning at 7.30 am I eat breakfast.	unfam/no def	
Scotland			No results
England			No results
South England			No results
Midlands			No results
North England			No results

⁵ Due to what seems like a minor technical fault, have not all words/items been tested.