

Typology of Inversion & Inversion-Triggering Elements in English Linguistics

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Abstract:

Inversion is an important and significant linguistic phenomenon in English Linguistics. It is nothing but the reversal of normal word order. It is very vital to information packaging as it explicitly demonstrates the information-packaging function and the information structure of the discourse. The inverted word order is deftly employed to emphasize the relevant portion of the clause to convey the intended meaning. In written English, inversion plays a crucial role in conveying the desired meaning. Inversion is an effective and meaningful device of our verbal communication. There are a variety of inversion: subject-operator inversion, subject-verb inversion, locative inversion, additive inversion, weight inversion, obligatory inversion, optional inversion, etc.

Keywords: inversion, subject-operator, locative, intended meaning, effective device.

Introduction: In English linguistics, we find many interesting word-order phenomena---canonical word-order and non-canonical word-order. Inversion is one of the linguistic phenomena, belonging to the realm of non-canonical word-order. From the functional point of view, inversion is of wider significance, contributing to our ability to speak or write in English very effectively. Inversion in our effective and impressive communication merits much attention. Inversion reflects the status of information conveyed. It also exhibits the information-packaging function and information structure of the discourse, spoken or written. In our verbal interaction we do not want to highlight all information in a clause. Depending on our intended meaning, we desire to underscore a particular type of information in a clause. Inversion is one of the meaningful linguistic devices which we employ in order to convey our intended meaning precisely.

Research Methodology: It is a document -based qualitative research. The various documents, texts, books, reference books are used for data collection. The research method used is document or content analysis.

Definition of Inversion: Inversion refers to the reversal of normal word-order in English. In the language the declarative sentence follows the syntactic pattern ' Subject + Auxiliary + main verb + others'. when the normal position of Subject and Verb are inverted, we find a linguistic phenomenon known as *inversion*. "Inversion happens when we reverse (invert) the normal word order of a structure, most commonly the subject-verb word order. For example, a statement has the subject (s) before the verb (v), but to make question word order, we invert the subject and the verb, with an auxiliary (aux) or modal verb (m) before

the subject (s)”. The basic type of inversion features in interrogative sentences: Do you go there? Why did you attend the party? etc.

Information Packaging: We do not want to highlight every part of a clause. In other words, we want to highlight only a particular part of a clause—to give prominence to either subject or complement in a clause. In order to make prominent a particular part of the message embodied in a clause, we should arrange the constituents. This arrangement or rearrangement of constituents is called information packaging (Chafe, 1976) or information structure (Halliday, 1967). Information packaging refers to the “way in which the constituents of a clause or sentence are (re)arranged so that a particular part of the message receives greatest attention.” (Bas Aarts et al) Information packaging is concerned with how information is packaged within a clause. This is concerned with the important dichotomies such as ‘*given* and *new*’, ‘*theme* and *rheme*’, ‘*topic* and *comment*’, and ‘*focus* and *frame* or *background*’.

1. Given & New:

The term *given* can be used as a noun and an adjective. Given refers to the information which is already known or familiar in a discourse. The information can be familiar or known because it has been mentioned in the context or through shared knowledge. In a discourse, given information usually receives little prominence, but *new* information receives full prominence. Given and new are contextually established and listener-oriented. According to Chafe (1976), given information may be defined as “that knowledge which the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of the utterance” and new information refers to “what the speaker assumes he is introducing into the addressee’s consciousness by what he says.” New information is to be brought to the attention of the listener. This can be done by means of stress, intonation and inversion. It is generally the case that given information precedes new and important information. This new information is usually placed towards the end of a clause. This is called *end focus*.

- a) Aditya is giving a gift to Kausiki.
- b) Aditya is giving Kausiki a gift.

These two sentences suggest two different situations. In (a) to Kausiki is new information. The hearer may be looking at the gift already and Kausiki as the recipient of the gift is mentioned for the first time. In (b) a gift is new information and the speaker may be showing the gift to Kausiki for the first time. Such situations are found in the active sentence and its passive counterpart.

2. Theme & Rheme:

Theme, an important constituent of a clause or sentence, is the initial part of a clause establishing the viewpoint or the subject matter. Theme-rheme distinction is associated with the distribution of information in a clause from functional sentence perspective. Theme and rheme are similar to topic and comment respectively. “The theme is the first element in the sentence and states what is being talked about, thus giving the starting point for the information given in the remainder of the sentence. Whereas topic and comment are restricted to clause and sentence structure, theme and rheme are more concerned with information structure.” (Hartmann & Stork) The known information is *theme*, whereas *rheme* is the new information.

- a) Robert sat in the park.
- b) In the park sat Robert.

In (a) Robert is the grammatical subject and also the theme and ‘sat in the park’ is the predicate and rheme. But in (b) Robert is the subject and rheme, and ‘in the park sat’ is the predicate and theme. Hence, we can say theme is not always the same as the subject of the sentence.

3. Topic & Comment:

Topic refers to that part of a clause or sentence about which something is said, and comment refers to that part of a clause or sentence which says something about the topic. In the sentence “Radford came to see his ailing uncle”, the topic is Radford and the comment is ‘came to see his ailing uncle’.

4. Focus & presupposition or background:

In the analysis of sentence, we find focus and presupposition. Focus is contrasted with presupposition. Focus refers to the part of the information which constitutes the centre of communicative interest of the speaker. Presupposition is the information assumed by the speaker. According to Jackendoff, the presupposition of the sentence is equated with “the information in the sentence that is assumed by the speaker to be shared by him and the hearer “and focus is equated with “the information in the sentence that is assumed by the speaker not to be shared by him and the hearer”. Jackendoff maintains that the focus is the complement of the presupposition in a sentence. In the sentence “Ranita helped Rachana” the presupposition is that Ranita helped someone else and the focus is *Rachana*.

Types of Sentence Meaning: There are three levels of sentence meaning. According to Halliday, they are *ideational meaning*, *interpersonal meaning* and *textual meaning*.

1. *Ideational meaning* is the representation of experience: our experience of the world that lies about us, and also inside us, the world of our imagination. It is meaning in the sense of 'content'. The ideational function of the clause is that of representing what in the broadest sense we can call 'processes': actions, events, processes of consciousness, and relations [...].
2. *Interpersonal meaning* is meaning as form of action; the speaker or writer doing something to the listener or reader by means of language. The interpersonal function of the clause is that of exchanging roles in rhetorical interaction: statements, questions, offers and commands, [...].
3. *Textual meaning* is relevance to the context: both the preceding [and following] text, and the context of situation. The textual function of the clause is that of constructing a message [...].” (Halliday 1985)

A clause is said to have three functions: *representation*, *exchange* and *message*. These functions determine the structure of the clause. The structure conveying the ideational function of representation “consists potentially of three components: (i) the process itself; (ii) participants in the process; (iii) circumstances associated with the process” (Halliday 1985). The actor who performs the deed is called the logical subject, having to do with the relations between things as opposed to grammatical relations. The structure conveying the interpersonal function of exchange deals with the exchange of information. Here the clause assumes the form of a proposition and consists of subject, finite and residue. The subject is the grammatical subject supplying “something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied.” (Halliday 1985) When a clause operates as a message, it is said to have a thematic structure which is manifested by means of word-order and by *theme-rheme distinction*.

Functions of Inversion: Undoubtedly, inversion plays a vital role in the discourse. It serves various important discourse functions -cohesion and contextual fit, placement of focus, and intensification. It is used to highlight the important part of a clause. It draws our attention to that portion of a clause which is

to be given prominence. It is employed to emphasize the new and important information. Through we can express elements of suspense and surprise Inversion is an effective and impressive device through which relatively familiar information is presented before relatively unfamiliar information within the clause or sentence. Green (1980) inversion performs a wide variety of discourse functions:

- a) **Practical function:** giving the speaker time to decide on the proper characterization of the individual who is to be mentioned as the subject: Example: ‘Underneath the table is the cute cat.’
- b) **Connective function:** indicating the relevance and importance of the postposed subject to the information that has been presented in the prior text;
- c) **Introductory function:** setting the scene or locating the referent of the postposed subject not with respect to the prior context, but rather, absolutely;
- d) **Direct quote:** a variety of functions relating to different levels of text structure;
- e) **Emphatic function:** resolving some apparent disorder in narrative structure, e.g. by re-introducing a central character in an unexpected place.

Inversion serves an information-packaging function. Prince (1981) is of the view that the division of information into given and new is inadequate for analyzing discourse analysis. She classifies assumed familiarity into different types ranging from most to least familiar.

Evoked > Unused > Inferrable > Containing Inferrable > Brand-new Anchored > Brand-New

- a) **Evoked entities:** These are either textually evoked (explicitly evoked in the discourse) or are situationally evoked (salient in the physical context of the discourse).
 - Against it is the fact that the chemicals used are toxic in nature.
 - Accompanying the ticket are amazing coupons.Here *against it* and *the ticket* represent the information which is textually evoked.
- b) **Unused entities:** These are not evoked in the current stretch of discourse and are presumed to be known to the hearer.
 - Above the tall column stood the Happy Prince.Here *Happy Prince* represents the information which is not evoked in the discourse and which is not inferable in the context.
- c) **Inferrable entities:** These are those entities which the speaker believes the hearer can infer from the explicitly evoked information or which are already shared knowledge.
 - She got married and at the wedding ceremony were her mother, her father and her friends.Here the fact that she got married renders the wedding inferable.
- d) **Containing inferable entities:** In the case of containing inferable, “what is inferred off is properly contained within the Inferrable itself” (Prince 1981). In other words, the entity which the inferable constituent represents is to be inferred from some other constituent which is syntactically contained within it.
 - At the ground’s corner was found a little girl.Here we find a proposed containing inferable ‘ground’s corner’. *Ground* represents evoked information and the reader or hearer can infer that the ground has a corner.
- e) **Brand-new Anchored entities:** These are those entities which are represented by a noun phrase which is linked to some other discourse entity by means of an anchor within the noun phrase.
 - Somewhere in the forest was a hermit who did not receive flowers from us every day.Here ‘a hermit who did not receive flowers from us every day ’is anchored by means of *us*.

f) **Brand-new entities:** These are the entities which have not explicitly evoked in the discourse and remain unknown to the hearer.

- Most amazing are the two water rides in the park.
- Surrounding the house is a beautiful garden.

Here ‘two water rides’ and ‘a beautiful garden’ represent brand-new information. The information is brand-new in the sense that the information has not been evoked in the context. It is not inferable nor anchored to some other information evoked. Prince (1992) introduced a matrix of crosscutting dichotomies. They are:

- **Hearer-old, Discourse-old:** information which has already been evoked in the current discourse.
- **Hearer-old, Discourse-new:** information which has not been evoked in the current discourse, but of which the speaker believes the hearer is aware.
- **Hearer-new, Discourse-new:** information which has not been evoked in the discourse, and of which the speaker believes the hearer is unaware.
- **Hearer-new, Discourse-old:** information which has been evoked in the current discourse, but of which the speaker nonetheless believes the hearer is unaware. Theoretically this does not occur in natural discourse. This may occur due to performance errors, memory lapse of the speaker.

Structure and Different Types of Inversion: Generally, depending on the position of subject, verb or operator, inversion is of two types: *subject-verb inversion* or *full inversion*, and *Subject-operator inversion* or *partial inversion*. Depending on the type of verbs, inversion is of two types: *Be-inversion*, and *Non-be inversion*. According to Hartvigson and Jakobsen (1974), inversion is of two types, depending on complexity or weight (information content or news value) of the information: *Attraction inversion* and *Weight inversion*. According to Huddleston and Pullum, inversion is of two types: *triggered inversion* and *untriggered inversion*. Triggered inversion is of two types: *obligatory inversion* and *optional inversion*. By employing inversion deftly, the speaker or the author can “exploit the potential of the two prominent positions in the clause: the opening and the end.” (Biber et al)

A. Subject-verb inversion: This type of inversion occurs when the entire verb phrase is placed before the subject (Type 1) or the main verb part (the lexical verb) of the verb phrase is fronted and the remaining part of the verb phrase is placed after the main verb part and after this the subject is placed (Type 2). here the verb phrase includes complement. Subject-verb inversion is of three types: *obligatory*, *non-obligatory* and *weight inversion*. In the case of subject-verb inversion the verb phrase is not split at all. Subject-verb inversion occurs with simple present and past tense verbs and with certain verbs of stance (be, *stand*, *lie*, etc.) or with very general verbs of motion (come, *go*, *fall*, etc.). This kind of inversion serves the discourse functions of cohesion and contextual fit.

- **Structure of Type 1: Preposed element (Adverbial/adjunct/complement) + (auxiliary verb) +predicate verb /lexical verb +Subject:** *On the beach sat* an old tourist. *Then came* the climax of the play. *Among the sports will be* long jump, high jump, short put, and 100-meter race. *Also noted will have been* the event ‘Go as you like’

- **Structure of Type 2: Inflected lexical verb – ed/-ing (Complement) + main verb + Subject:** *Gone* are those days when we lived happily. *Coming to the party today* are Sam, Bill, and Robert.

Subject-verb inversion can occur, according to Biber et al, under the following circumstances:

- The clause opens with a locative adverbial, providing the background or setting for a situation. This adverbial can operate as a linking element i.e. linking the clause to the preceding text through the definite noun phrase. The clause may open with a subject predicative complement and this grammatical element can link the clause to the preceding text.
 - The verb can be intransitive or copular and the verbs with subject -verb inversion constructions are light-weight verbs. In other words, they have 'less weight than the subject' (Biber et al).
 - The long and heavy subject placed towards the end of the clause carry new information. It is often an indefinite noun phrase, "which may be further developed in the following text." (Biber et al)
- a) Obligatory Triggered subject-verb inversion:** This type of inversion occurs when adverbials including prepositional phrases occupy the initial position of the clause. For example, 'In came the footballer.' 'Next came the climax of the movie.' 'Again, came the harsh sound of the music.', etc.
- b) Non-obligatory subject-verb inversion:** According to Biber et al, "subject-verb inversion varies with complexity and information value of the subject and the verb." When "the subject is a simple definite noun phrase and the verb is accompanied by elements complementing the verbal meaning "we use the normal subject-verb order. But when the subject is longer and more informative, we use obligatory subject-verb inversion. Here we find the presence of the triggering element *Then*, but inversion here depends on the type of the subject present.
- (i) Then the violent storm raged in the region. BUT: Then raged the violent storm from the north of America.
- (ii) Then the words came out suddenly. BUT: Then came the unexpected climax of the play *Macbeth*.
- It is to be noted that when the subject is a light-weight pronoun, there would be no subject-verb inversion. For example, 'On the table sat a lovely cat.' BUT: * On the table sat it/they. (Incorrect: */the *Kleene star* indicates that the sentence is ungrammatical). We may use 'On the table it/they sat' (*Fronting*).
- c) Weight inversion:** According to Hartvigson and Jacobsen, *weight inversion* refers to the inversion of subject and verb following the proposing of some thematic (given or presupposed) element. They are of the view that in such cases, inversion is determined by the relative weight of the subject and verb. In this context weight refers to either formal weight (number of syllables or syntactic complexity) or notional weight (information content or news value). Jespersen's (1965) *Principle of weight* states that the heavier an element is, the more likely it is to occur in a peripheral position in a sentence. Hartvigson and Jakobsen states that "the higher degree of communicative dynamism an element has, the heavier it is."

Communicative dynamism is defined as "the extent to which the sentence element contributes to the development of the communication, to which it "pushes the communication forward." (Firbas, 1966) It is to be noted that the element with low communicative dynamism belongs to the theme whereas the element with high communicative dynamism belongs to the rheme.

- From the wall hung the wall clock of Ajanta make weighing only 200 grams.
Here the subject *the wall clock of Ajanta make weighing only 200 grams* is notionally and formally heavier.

There are a variety of **subject-verb inversion**. They are:

1. **Clauses beginning with place adverbials:**

There are clauses beginning with place adverbials or locative adverbials and these clauses undergo subject-verb inversion. These locative adverbials indicate the background for a situation. We find the occurrence

of inversion after *here* and *there* when they are used as place adverbials. Only *locative-there* occur in subject-verb inversion and the subject is a definite noun phrase occupies an important part of the clause. A main verb can follow *here* and *there* and an auxiliary verb or modal can follow *here* and *there*. These adverbials trigger inversion. Existential constructions highlight the thing whose existence or occurrence is being asserted and can be without adverbials. But the syntactic constructions with locative inversion highlight the particular place where something is found. The verbs used with locative inversion include *be, come, go, burn, trail, see, hang, lie, march, run, sit, stoop, stretch, stride, swell, swim, walk*. They describe position and movement. *Locative-there* presents something on the immediate stage but *existential-there* presents something to our minds. The clauses opening with *here* are used when we offer something (e.g. 'Here's a cup of tea for you) and the clauses opening with *locative-there* are used when we identify location (e.g. 'There's Rajan) From the structure 'Subject + Main verb + Adverbial (...) we get the following (N.B. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary =OALD, Cambridge Advanced Learner's dictionary =CALD, Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary=CCALD, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English=LDCE) :

Structure: Adverbial + Verb + Subject (...): 'Hari is here' -----> 'Here is Hari'.

- *On one long and wide wall* hung a portrait of Rabindranath Tagore.
- *In the abysmal depth of the ocean* lived a gigantic whale.
- *Nearby* was a palatial house belonging to Queen Victoria.
- *Opposite him on the table* was Prime Minister Narendra Modi.
- *There's* the statue I was telling you about. (OALD)
- *There* goes the last bus (= we've just missed it) [OALD]
- *There* goes the phone (= it's ringing). [OALD]
- (*Humorous*) *There* goes my career! (= my career is ruined) [OALD]
- *Here's* the money I promised you. [OALD]
- *Here's* a dish that is simple and quick to make. [OALD]
- *Here* is your opportunity. [OALD]
- *Here* comes the bus.
- *Here* comes the rub.
- I looked at the garden and *there* stood Mr Faraday, dressed in green.
- The man looked out of the window and *there* was Anne, walking along the road.

[N.B. We must not use subject- inversion if the subject is a personal pronoun: 'There it goes' BUT 'There goes the bus'; 'Down came the snow' BUT 'Down it came'. But this limitation can be waived if we find contrast of subject. (Quirk et al)

- There was *she*, on the sea beach, while *I* had to study hard at home.
- Here am *I*, ill in bed, and *you* care a fig for me.

According to Randolph Quirk et al, subject-verb inversion with a pronoun subject which is postmodified is found in archaic English. We also find such inversion with verbless clauses:

- Happy is the man who accepts his lot without any grudge.
- Unlucky the man who hates his work.

There are restrictions on subject-verb inversion. Subject-verb inversion occurs if the verb phrase is in simple present or in simple past tense, not in continuous tense:

- Here comes my darling. (correct)

- Here is coming my darling. (incorrect)

Grammatical category of THERE: *There* can be used as a demonstrative adverb and in *existential* and *extended existential construction* and in *presentational construction*. According some grammarians, in the existential construction, *there* operates like an unstressed pronoun because it is a dummy subject. “But unlike normal pronouns it’s not a substitute for a previously mentioned word, and not at all cohesive like adverbial *there*” (P. Peters) The verbs which can combine with existential-*there* include be, seem, appear, exist, lie, remain, etc.:

Structure: There + auxiliary verb/raising verb +be + notional subject.

- There is a crisis.
- There must be a god.
- There seems to be no end to his story.

In the extended existential construction, we find a locative phrase or temporal phrase or a relative clause or to-infinitive or an *ing*-clause as additional material or extension:

- There is a cat on the table. (locative)
- There was a flood last year. (temporal)
- There is one man who brings his puppy to the park. (relative clause)
- There is a good deal of work to perform. (*to*-infinitive)
- There was a dog chasing a thief. (*ing*-clause)

According to Drubig (1988) , *there*-construction subsumes “existential ” *there* or “ stative presentational ” *there* (with *be*) “presentational” *there* (with any other verb except *be*) and the “preposed existential/presentational construction ” which involves the preposed locative before *there*.

- There were many pine trees in the forest. (existential/stative presentational *there*)
- There appeared a green bird out of nowhere. (presentational *there*)
- Out of nowhere there appeared a green bird. (preposed existential/presentational construction)
- Out of nowhere appeared a green bird. (full inversion)
- There, out of nowhere, appeared a green bird. (stressed *there*: inversion with locative meaning : Dorgeloh, page 52)

Differences between *existential-there* and *locative-there*:

We must distinguish between *locative-there* and *existential-there*. The difference between the two is that whereas *existential-there* occurs with verbs of existence e.g. be, exists, etc. and with *indefinite notional subjects*, *locative-there* can occur with verbs describing position or movement. *Existential-there* is used to “predicate the existence or occurrence of something (including the non-existence or non-occurrence of something).” [Biber et al.] *Existential-there* operates as a dummy subject and it is an unstressed pronoun and it does not operate as an adverbial. *Locative-there* /*deictic-there* is used as an adverbial or a demonstrative adverb. *Dummy-there* is empty of semantic content whereas *locative-there* is not. In other words, existential-*there* is the grammatical subject and the true subject is an indefinite noun phrase or an indefinite pronoun or mass noun phrase following the verb as complement.

- *There* is a natural phenomenon to see *there*. [The first *there* is existential-*there*: unstressed, pronoun, grammatical subject, *Dummy-there*. The second *there* is locative-*there*: stressed, demonstrative adverb, complement.]

- ...and *there* was my purse in the wardrobe. (locative/deictic-there).

According to Carlos Prado-Alonso, both existential-*there* and locative-*there* serve the pragmatic function of presenting or introducing a new element into the discourse but existential-*there* additionally serves “the pragmatic function of expressing propositions concerning existence or the occurrence of events, happenings, or states of affairs.” Existential-*there* “can refer back to whatever has been established as the relevant reference in the previous co-text.” (Carlos Prado-Alonso).

- *THERE* (stressed) were the haunted castles he told us about. (locative-*there*)
- They told us that they saw a strange creature but *there* are no fairies in the woods. (existential-*there*)
- *There* lived a hermit in the forest. (existential-*there*)
- *There* at the castle stood the caretaker. (locative-*there*)

We know that in the existential-*there* constructions, the notional subject is an indefinite noun phrase. But there is an exception to this rule. We can use the definite noun phrase that conveys new information if it is an answer to existential questions which may be actual or implied as the answer is specific.

Aditya: Have you any necklace in the safe?

Rachana: Well, *there's* the necklace in the safe over there. (existential-*there*)

Aditya: In anyone coming to the party?

Rachana: Yes, *there's* Rupa and *there's* Kausiki. (existential-*there*)

Existential-there clause serves the discourse function of presenting new information. “But there are many occasions when we must make statements whose content does not fall neatly into these two categories.” (Quirk et al) We can transform basic clauses into existential-constructions: ‘Subject + (aux.) + be + predication ----→ there + (aux.) + be+ subject + predication.’, where *there* is the grammatical subject and the subject of the original clause is the notional subject.

- *There* was a violent cyclone last night. (existential-*there*)
- And *there* is Priyanka with her little son standing at the corner. (locative-*there*)

The structure of a clause containing *existential-there* is:

There + be + indefinite noun phrase (+ place or time /position adverbial):

- There is a man waiting at the bus stop.
- There are about forty apples in the kitchen.
- There is not any milk left in the bottle.
- There are fifty-seven girls in the hostel.
- *There* is something strange in his behavior.

Existential-there is a functor or function word evolving from *locative-there* which operates as an adverb. It can cooccur with *here* or *locative-there*, so it has the status of an empty grammatical element. Existential-*there* can be used in question tags.

- There is more water *here*. [The second *here* is a locative adverbial.]
- There is no milk *there*. [The second *there* is a locative adverbial.]
- There is plenty of oil *there*, *is there*?

Existential-there can be placed before the verb in infinitive clauses and *ing*-clauses. The use of existential-*there* in these clauses bears testimony its subject status. *Existential-there* can be found in repetition grammatical patterns:

- I do not want *there* to be another war.

- *There* being a rapid increase in the prices in the essential commodities, the poor people are in miserable plight.
- There there are a variety of solutions to the issue.
- There's there's a pot on the table.

Existential-there can occur before *happen to be, tend to be, appear to be, seem to be, be supposed to be, is said to be*, etc. and also before intransitive verbs of existence or occurrence such as *arise, come, seem, exist*, etc. When *existential-there* occurs with verbs except *be*, this is called **presentational construction/ presentative**. *Presentational construction* refers to a “construction in which existential there is followed by a verb of appearance, emergence, existence, etc. (such as *appear, emerge, escape, follow, grow, develop, sprout, loom, stand*)” (Chalker, et al). Besides, there are other verbs which are used in existential clauses: *arise, ascend, break out, emerge, float, flow, flutter, occur*, etc. *Existential-there* can occur with the transitive verbs like *seize* and *wash*. It is to be noted that the notional subject of a clause beginning with existential there is an indefinite noun phrase with a noun or indefinite pronoun operating as the head of the phrase. For example,

- *There* used to be a building on the end of the row at the road.
- *There* was supposed to be a misunderstanding between you and me.
- *There* arose a shrill high-pitched voice from the forest.
- *There* seems no hope of survival.
- In all relations *there* exists some mutual obligations.
- *There* seized her an irrational fear that the news was true.
- *There* have been washed together a number of features tossed away by nature.

The notional subject in existential-there construction can be a definite noun phrase or a proper noun. “*Existential-there* constructions with a definite notional subject tend to occur when a series of elements is introduced, often marked explicitly by a conjunction or a linking adverbial (e.g. *first*) or additive adverbial (e.g. *too*).” (Biber et al.) In this co We also find the notional subject with the demonstrative determiner *this* or *these* in joke-telling. We know that the use of existential-there is found where the issue of existence /non-existence or occurrence /non-occurrence of something is raised. Because definite noun phrases denote known entities and their existence/ non-existence is not at issue, the notional subject of *existential-there* is an indefinite noun phrase. The effect of *existential-there* with definite noun phrase as the notional subject is to “bring something already back to mind, rather than asserting that it exists.” (Biber et al.) *Locative-here* and *locative-there* are used to refer to the text rather than the setting. As in existential-there constructions the grammatical subject there which is a dummy pronoun and the *be*-verb contain little information, the rest of the clause must be informative. The notional subject and a following adverbial which is optional are said to contain important information. We find the occurrence of inversion after *here* and *there* when they are used as place adverbials. *Locative-here* and *locative-there* are used to indicate whether a place is distant or proximate from the point of view of the speaker (Examples: *Here's* the pen; *Here* comes the important issue; *There's* the girl.)

- Tina, there was *this* stranger.
- There's *these three girls* and they were walking along the road. [“The subject status of existential-there is also indicated by the strong tendency in conversation to use a singular verb regardless of the number of the notional subject.” (Biber et al.) In other words, we find, in our everyday conversation,

plural noun phrases following the singular verb form of be. Here the contracted form of the verb *be* is found.]

- Well, I remember there *was* three persons waiting at the station.
- *Here's* your pens.
- *Where's* your papers?
- *How's* your brother and sister?
- *How's* things?

We also find *existential-there* constructions with an opening place adverbial but without locative inversion. For example,

- **Behind the curtain** *there* was a few flowering plants.

There is a semantic difference between the two sentences:

- a) Here's the grocer (locative-there) ---he's come at last.
- b) The grocer is here---at the door: shall I get two packets of biscuits.
- c) There's the pen I want----I have been looking for it.
- d) The pen is there ---by the pencil box.

2. **Clauses beginning with adverbial particles indicating direction:** Adverbial particles in initial position trigger subject-verb inversion. These fronted adverbial particles are used in dramatic narration placing focus on a sudden change/event. For example,

- *In* came the little boy
- *Out* came a discordant note
- *Back* came the befitting reply.
- *Down* came the monkey
- *Out* came the moon.
- *Off* came the clothes.

3. **Clauses beginning with time adverbials:** Adverbial particles in initial position trigger subject-verb inversion. *Then* is a time adverbial used to introduce a new event. Most of these adverbials carry given information. For example,

- *Then* came the climax of the play.
- *Again*, came the sounds of joy and good heart.
- *First* came the devastating flood.
- *Next* came the mayor.
- *Now* comes the turn of John.
- *Then in* leapt Hillary.
- *And then* came that clap of thunder!

4. **Clauses beginning with abstract locative adverbials:** These indicate anaphoric links with preceding texts. For example,

- *Among the scholars* is going on a discussion.
- *Among the research findings* are those explored by Mr. Newton.
- *With an increase in prices of commodities* came a policy which made revolutionary ways.

- *Within the general type shown here* exists a wide variation.

5. **Clauses beginning with fronted predicatives:** The presence of fronted predicatives in initial position in a clause can trigger subject-verb inversion.

A. Subject predicatives, when placed in initial position in a clause, are said to contain an element of comparison functioning as a cohesive link with the preceding context. For example,

- *Best of all though* is the students, especially when they are engaged in social work.
- *Far more serious* are the severe head injuries.
- *Even more significant, perhaps,* is the realization that honesty is the best policy.
- *Also important for the purpose* are colourful papers, sweet-smelling flowers and flags.
- *Such at least* was his realization.
- *Such* was the fate of Diamelen.
- Present at the meeting were the outgoing officers.
- *Not least among these reports* are those of Hopkins.

[N.B. In the above examples, the comparative e.g. *even more*, etc. implies *than this* and *this* refers to the preceding context. *Also*, and *such* imply connecting links. In these examples, **information principle** is observed in that the sentences open with known information (e.g. the meeting and existence of reports) and end with new information (identity of persons presents or specific reports).]

B. **Some Special Examples of Predicative Fronting:** We find two special types of predicative fronting. The first type is concerned with proportion clause combinations marked by a couple of phrases with *the* in initial position. For example,

- I think the better the students are treated in these respects, *the more enthusiastic* are their responses to the task problem.
- *The more intelligent* the student, *the more effective* are her activities.
- The more strongly the man tells them that he will disobey the rule, *the more likely it is that he will be punished.*
- The larger the base, *the easier it will be to perform the action.*

[N.B. It is to be noted that when the subject is long and heavy, the clause undergoes subject-verb inversion. But if the clause has a pronoun as its subject, it does not undergo subject-verb inversion because the subject pronoun is not heavy. This is in accordance with the principle of end weight. In the above examples, we see that the complements of *likely* and *easier* are not placed in initial position in the clauses.]

6. **Clauses beginning with fronted *ed-* and *ing-* predicate:** The predicates which can undergo subject-verb inversion are *ed-* and *ing-* predicates. Both predicates open with given information and the main clause ends with new information.

A. **Fronted *ed-*predicates:** The examples are as follows.

- *Enclosed* are two copies of the questionnaire which are of wider significance.
- *Enclosed with the letter* were photocopies of certificates and marksheets.
- *Also enclosed with the birthday gift* was a card bearing the name of the person who helped her a lot.
- *Also painted on the wall* was a picture of Shakespeare.

- *Gone* are those days when the average people were good and happy.
- *Completely changed* was the behavior of James.

B. Fronted *ing*-predicates: The examples are as follows.

- *Waiting at the station* was Michael Swan.
- *Coming to Kolkata this month* are my friends.
- *Standing on the sand* is a beach hut.
- *Also suffering* are Jim, Jack and Della.

In certain cases, according to Biber et al, fronted *ing*-predicates behave much like adverbials which may take the form of *ing*-clauses and may occur fronted with subject-verb inversion:

- *Standing on the corner outside the petrol station on Park lane* stood a young girl smiling at him invitingly.
- *Adjoining it* was the side verandah.
- There, *standing at the bar*, was the victor of the first by-election.

7. Complex Verb Phrase: A complex verb phrase involving subject-verb inversion can precede the subject, if it is lighter than the subject. In the following examples the verb phrase is not split. Examples are:

- Best of all *would be* to procure a government job immediately.
- Among the sports *will be* badminton, football, and basketball.
- Here *is provided* a patchwork of sites.
- Also noted *will have been* the marathon race.

[N.B. There are some examples of subject-verb inversion which seem to convey an element of suspense and surprise. For example,

- Here comes Bill.
- And then came that clap of thunder!
- Here comes the rub.
- Then in leapt Hillary.]

8. Clauses beginning with adjectives as complements: Adjectives which function as complements are placed in initial position in the clause and end focus is placed on the subject of the clause. For example,

- *Especially beautiful* was her face.
- *Faint* grew the sound of the trumpet.
- *In a distant grave* lies his beloved.

9. Clauses opening with *than* and *as*: Subject-verb inversion is possible only with the copular verb *be* but the presence of other verbs triggers subject-operator inversion in *than*-and *as*-comparative clauses. For example,

- The scientist was more intellect *than had been his predecessors*.
- Harvard undergrads, however, were unmoved. They generally give the impression of being far more supportive of their president *than is the faculty*. (The Weekly Standard, March 7, 2005)

- The Rochester scientists have now shown that parthenolide is in fact more selective at stopping cancer through apoptosis *than was the standard drug cytarabine*. (Townsend Letter for Doctors and Patients, July, 2005)
- Abby is taller *than is her father*.
- The car which he bought recently is more expensive *than was his two previous cars*.
- Kausiki has been awarded more prizes than has her playmate (*been awarded).
- Kausiki has been awarded more prizes than her playmate has been awarded.
- Kausiki has been awarded more prizes than has her playmate been awarded (incorrect) [**N.B.** As the verb is the copular *be*, the clause must undergo subject-verb inversion, instead of subject-operator inversion.]
- The boy was awarded many special prizes *as had been his father*.

[**N.B:** CGOEL (Comprehensive grammar of the English Language=CGOEL). Subject-verb inversion in comparative clauses occurs provided that the subject must be heavy and long:

- It is no more expensive *than would be the system you are proposing*. (correct) (CGOEL)
- It is no more expensive than would the system you are proposing be. (incorrect)

The last example is incorrect according to the CGOEL but this is disputed.

- The girl speaks English better *than her brother does*. (correct)
- The girl speaks English better *than does her brother*. (correct)

10. Correlative Comparative Constructions/Correlative Subordination: Correlative construction can undergo subject-verb inversion, if the verb is the copular verbs *be, become*, etc. For example,

- The faster he showed magic, the more rupees he earned (no inversion)
- The faster she danced, the greater became her fame. (subject-verb inversion)
- The more she gets, the merrier is she. (subject-verb inversion)

11. Inversion involving multiple preposed elements: The preposed elements include adverbials, prepositional phrases and verb phrases.

a) one adverbial and one ed-predicative:

- When I was walking alone along the path, *there, flooded with glaring light*, was the palatial house. (= The palatial house was flooded with glaring light. ---locative *-there*)

b) One adverbial, one prepositional phrase and one ed-predicative:

- *There, in the room, carefully arranged*, were the chairs and tables.

c) Three preposed prepositional phrases:

- *To Jeet, from a great distance, through many hurdles*, came an appointment letter.

12. Inversion in idiomatic wh-questions: Subject-verb inversion is found in some fixed idiomatic wh-questions: how, where, what, why.

C. Subject-operator inversion or subject -auxiliary inversion or semi-inversion or partial inversion:

This type of inversion occurs when the operator is placed before the subject rather than the main verb or the entire verb phrase and the remaining portion of the verb phrase is placed after the subject. In English linguistics, the operator is the linguistic or grammatical item which operates inversion and the

addition of *not/n't*. The first auxiliary or the only auxiliary verb including modals and dummy do are said to function as the operator in the clause. When the primary verbs *Be* and *Have* are used as main verbs in the clause, they function as the operator. This type of inversion serves the function of intensification. This type of inversion can be classified into six types. According to Hartvigson and Jakobsen (1974), this auxiliary inversion is categorized into *non-textually provoked inversion* and *attraction inversion* and *pseudo-auxiliary inversion*.

- **Structure: Preposed element + Operator / auxiliary verb + subject + main verb + others.**

Subject-operator inversion occurs under the following circumstances:

- It may occur with both transitive and intransitive verbs. When it occurs with transitive verbs, “there is often a weighty predicate occupying end position in the clause.” (Biber et al) It is “obligatorily triggered by the thematic fronting of certain type of element” (Huddleston 1984). This type of inversion occurs without the presence of a triggering element as found in imperative sentences and conditional sentences.
 - Here the initial triggering elements are much more restricted.
 - Whenever the triggering element are in initial position, subject-operator inversion is obligatory.
- a) **Non-textually provoked inversion:** It refers to the inversion that is provoked by something outside the text, e.g. (i) Will he go to the party? (the speaker wants to ask a polar question) (ii) Had I known this [...] (the speaker desires to express condition).
 - b) **Attraction inversion:** It refers to the inversion that is provoked by something in an adverbial, a predicative or an object in the opening position of a clause, e.g. (i) Why did he go there? (ii) Never again will she dare to go out in the night. This kind of inversion is triggered by interrogative openers, negative openers, and emphatic openers such as *so, such, etc.*
 - c) **Pseudo-auxiliary inversion:** In this type of auxiliary inversion, the subject is not placed after the first word of a verbal complex consisting of at least two words, but from this, we infer that these are clear cases of auxiliary inversion. These occur with the primary verbs such as *be* and *have*. For example, (i) Is this your pen? (ii) Why had she no issue? (Hartley 1969)
 - d) **Triggered obligatory subject-operator inversion:** This type of inversion occurs in the clause having negative adverbials, negative coordinators or complements as triggering elements in initial position in the clause. The conspicuous presence of these elements causes subject-operator inversion obligatorily e.g. *seldom, hardly, barely, rarely, scarcely, never, nowhere, neither, nor, not only, no longer, on no condition, no sooner, little, less, not, not only, only, so, such, etc.*
 - e) **Triggered optional subject-operator inversion:** This type of inversion occurs in exclamatives or exclamative sentences. Here the grammatical elements triggering subject-operator inversion are *how* and *what*. With these elements in initial position the exclamative sentence may or may not undergo such inversion. For example, ‘What a beautiful picture *it is!* OR What a beautiful picture *is it!* How clever *am I!* OR How clever *I am!*
 - f) **Untriggered subject-operator inversion:** This type of inversion is found in conditional sentences and optative sentences. This type of inversion is marked by the absence of the elements triggering inversion.

Differences between Subject-verb inversion and Subject-operator inversion:

Subject-verb inversion differs from subject -operator inversion in the following ways:

- In the case of subject-verb inversion the verb phrase is not split at all. But in the case of subject-operator inversion, the verb phrase is split.
- In the case of subject-verb inversion, the verb may be intransitive or copular but in the case of subject-operator inversion, the verb may be intransitive or transitive.
- In the case of subject-operator inversion, the triggering elements are of much more restricted nature.

1. **Clauses beginning with negative adverbials or restrictive elements:** These adverbials are of three types: *frequency*, *place* and *time*.

Frequency: seldom, scarcely (ever), rarely(ever), barely(ever), hardly(ever), never, almost never, never again.

Time: no longer, not until, no sooner, at no time, under no circumstances, not once.

Place: nowhere.

We find negative adverbials and limiting adverbials:

Negative adverbials: *never*, nowhere, nothing, not often, not for nothing, not once, no way, never once, on no account, etc.

Limiting adverbials: hardly, hardly ever, rarely, barely, scarcely, scarcely ever, seldom, only now, only occasionally, only once, only rarely, etc.

A. **Hardly, rarely, scarcely, barely, still less:** These adverbials indicate time.

Structure: *Negative adverbials + Aux. verb + Sub. + V + Complement.*

- *Hardly* had we reached the station *when* the train departed. (Hardly...when/before/than)
- *Hardly* had she spoken *before* she regretted it bitterly. (OALD)
- *Hardly ever* did she go on holiday. (CALD)
- *Hardly* had we arrived **than** the problems started. (OALD)

[N.B. In '*Hardly a day / month /week goes by without another factory closing down.*' (LDCE) and '*Hardly a day passes that I don't think about it.*' (CALD) *hardly* means 'only just/almost not'.]

- *Rarely* are things as bad as you think they're going to be. (CALD)
- *Rarely* have I seen such a beautiful picture.
- Only *rarely* when we come to face a decision problem *are we presented with a full range of options right at the outset.* (CALD)
- *Rarely* does a grand jury publicly disagree with a prosecutor. (CCALED)
- *Rarely* has a debate attracted so much media attention. (OALD)
- *Scarcely* had they left the station *than* the train stopped. (LDCE)
- *Scarcely* had the game started *when* it began to rain. (OALD)
- *Scarcely* had they left *before* soldiers arrived armed with rifles. (CCALED)
- *Barely* had she recovered from this trauma *when* Martin contracted whooping cough. (CCALED)
- *Still less did she feel* any inclination to call her obsession by any grander name.

B. **No sooner...than:**

- *No sooner* had he drunk the wine *than* he began to feel drowsy.
- *No sooner* did he drink the wine than he began to feel drowsy.

[N.B: *Directly* and *immediately*, when used as conjunction, have the same meaning as *no sooner/as soon as*.

- I came *directly* I got your message. (LDCE)
- I went home *directly* I had finished work. (OALD)
- Directly he arrived, he mentioned the subject. (CCALED)

C. Seldom, Never, Almost never, never again, never before:

- *Seldom* had he seen such beauty. (Oxford)
- *Seldom* does the doctor keep his patient waiting long.
- *Never* does my mother send me birthday cards.
- *Almost never* have I tasted such delicious food.
- *Never again* has the world faced so many problems.
- *Never before* had I been asked to accept a bribe.

D. Nowhere:

- *Nowhere* is drug abuse more of a problem than in the US. (LDCE)
- *Nowhere* do plants flourish with such vigour as they do in tropical rainforests. (OALD)
- *Nowhere* is the effect of government policy more apparent than in agriculture. (OALD)
- *Nowhere* does the article mention the names of the people involved. (CID)

E. Not, on no account, not on any account, on no consideration, not for an(one) instant/a minute /a moment/a second, not by any means, by no means, in no case , in no way, not in any way , on no condition, not only...but also, not only, at no time, in no circumstances, under no circumstances ,neither, nor, no way, no longer , in no other way, at no time, at no point, not once, with no something , on no occasion , nothing, not often, not for nothing, never once :

- *Not a word* had she uttered to appease him.(negative direct object is fronted)
- *On no account* are you to repeat this to anyone.
- *On no account* must you disturb me.
- *On no account* should the house be left unlocked. (OALD)
- *On no account* should you buy that painting without having it appraised. (CCALED)
- *Not on any account* should you give your banking details to someone over the phone or by email.
- *On no consideration* will I agree to sign the deal.
- *Not for an instant* did I think this would be a winning ticket.
- *Not for one instant* or *one minute* would I ever consider going there on holiday again.
- *Not by any means* shall our country be drawn into yet another war overseas.
- *By no means* shall our country be drawn into yet another war overseas.
- *In no case* should you fight back.
- *In no way* or *not in any way* am I going to adopt any of his methods.
- *In this way alone* is it possible to explain the actions.
- *Not in any way* am I going to adopt any of his methods.
- *On no condition* should untrained personnel use the equipment.
- *Not only did Jerry forget /Not only had Jerry forgotten my birthday*, but he also forgot our wedding anniversary.

- *Not only were they late to work, but they also forgot to bring the reports.*
- *Not only was it raining all day at the wedding but also the band was late. (CALD)*
- *Not only will they paint the outside of the house but also the inside. (CALD)*
- *Not only did she forget my birthday, but she also didn't even apologise for forgetting it.*
- *Not only have you just relaxed your body, but you may have also boosted your brain power.*
- *Not only do they rob you, they smash everything too. (=They not only rob you, they smash everything too.)*
- *Not only did he fail to do so, but also later denied that.*
- *At no time did anyone involved speak to the press.*
- *At no time did I claim responsibility for the accident—he's lying about that.*
- *Certainly, at no time, did the untoward incident happen.*
- *The worrying thing is that at no time did Linda claim responsibility for the accident.*
- *In no circumstances are you allowed to drive home after you've had more than one drink!*
- *I'm sorry for my sudden resignation, but in no circumstances will I work for some sexist manager like him.*
- *Under no circumstances should you lend Paul any money.*
- *If politics did not interest them, neither did they see it as affecting their lives.*
- *I never learned to swim and neither did they. (CCALED)*
- *I don't have all the answers and neither do you. (CCALED)*
- *I can't ever recall Dad hugging me. Neither did I sit on his knee. (CCALED)*
- *He doesn't want to live in the country when he grows up, nor does he want to live in the city.*
- *I don't want to see him go and nor do the fans.*
- *Mike, no way am I playing cards with you for money.*
- *No way was that my fault!*
- *No way am I going to drive them there.*
- *Not since 1947 has anybody won so many matches.*
- *In no other way could that be performed.*
- *No longer are they going to Paris.*
- *No longer does he dream of becoming famous.*
- *At no time was I aware of the difficulty.*
- *At no point during the party did anyone mention that Peter and Julie were getting married.*
- *Not once did the old woman thank me for helping her.*
- *You don't eat mushroom. No more do I.*
- *With no job would John be happy.*
- *On no occasion in his speech does Cook mention racism.*
- *Nothing have I done to harm you.*
- *Not often do we go to America.*
- *Not for nothing have I a brother-in-law who cooks professionally.*
- *Not for nothing was the plane called 'The widow-maker'.*
- *Never once did they finish the job properly.*
- *No longer does he dream of becoming famous. He knows his life will be very ordinary.*

F. Not till, not until, not since:

- *Not until* the rain stopped *could* the match start.
- *Not until* the officer resigned *did* the students' protests stop.
- *Not till* he got home *did he realize* that he had lost it (=he did not realize that he had lost it till he got home).
- *Not until* you work out the sums *can you go* outside.
- *Not until* I got home *did I notice* that.
- *Not until* it was too late *did I remember* to call Susan.
- *Not until* you grow up *will we consider* you for the basketball team.
- *Not until* the area is made safe *can construction continue*.
- *Not since* she went to the circus as a child *had Ann enjoyed herself so much*

[N.B.: In the above sentences we find that the main clause is said to undergo subject-operator inversion.]

G. More than anyone else:

- *More than anyone else did my Aunt Carrie incarnate* for my mother the doctrine of love. (Hartley)

H. Initial Only: only + time /place expressions: only then, only here, only later, only when, only after, only by, only one more something, only if, only in this way, only occasionally,

- *Only then did Ginny realize that she still hadn't phoned her mother.*
- *Only then did he remember he hadn't got his keys.*
- *Only here was it safe to prepare and handle hot drinks.*
- *Only here were the police visible in any strength at all.*
- *Only later did I understand what she meant.*
- *Only by improving economic conditions can good health be achieved.*
- *Only in the last few years have we come to understand the condition.*
- *Only one more point will I make.*
- *Only at night do bats leave the cave.*
- *Only under certain atmospheric conditions is there a chance of tornado.*
- *Only once in my life have I met a ghost.*
- *Only when there is adequate water can this plant grow well.*
- *Only when someone complained at reception did they realize* that the painting had been hung upside down.
- *Only when I have finished this will I be able to think about anything else.*
- *Only when he tried to run did he discover* that he had injured his knee.
- *Only after I had been in the room for a few minutes did I realize* that everyone was staring at me.
- *Only after they had finished painting did they move into their new house.*
- *Only after seeing the doctor was Theresa was allowed to leave hospital.*
- *Only after several weeks did she begin to recover.*
- *Only for a few years was our company able to flourish.*
- *Only in the last few days has the truth started to emerge.*

- Only in the last few pages of the book *do you come to realize the significance of the murder.*
- *Only at the far end was there light.*
- *Only occasionally did he visit his ailing uncle's house.*
- *Only in Paris do you find bars like this.*
- Only if the two votes are in agreement *will the deal go through.*
- Only in this way *will we solve the problems.*
- Only in this way *is it possible to explain the actions.*
- **Only if** these conditions are fulfilled *can the application proceed to the next stage.*

[**N.B.** When the sentence begins with **only when/only if/only after**, the clause with **only when/only if/only after** does not undergo subject-operator inversion. The second part of the sentence /the main clause/*apodosis* undergoes such kind of inversion. But if the clause with only when/after/if is placed after the main clause, there is no inversion.

- The application can proceed to the next stage *only if these conditions are fulfilled.*
- He can stay on the team *only if* he completes his homework and improves his grades.
- You'll lose weight *only if* you stick to your diet.
- She was authorized to speak *only if* she remains anonymous.]

I. Inversion after linking forms: so, nor, neither: Clauses beginning with the linking elements such as *so*, *nor*, and *neither* undergo subject-operator inversion. Here *so* operates as a pro-form which points back to the predicate of a preceding clause and stands for given information and in *initial focus position* and has a cohesive effect. The subject is in the *end focus position* after the verb resulting in a structure with *double focus*:

Ratul: When I was in Calcutta, I used to bathe in the Ganges.

Rana: Yes, **so** did I.

- Pompy is in and **so** is her friend.
- Lisa loved Harry; **so** did Rajan.
- As Covid 19 increased in America, **so** did Covid 19 in India.
- Timothy did not understand the topic, *nor did his friend.*
- Trisha can't understand a word of the lecture; *neither can I.*
- He hadn't done any homework, *neither had he brought any of his books to class.*
- We didn't get to see the castle, *nor did we see the cathedral.*
- The father never has allowed *nor will* allow his boy to go shopping.
- He hadn't done any homework, neither had he brought any of his books to class.
- We didn't get to see the castle, nor did we see the cathedral

[**N.B:** Neither will Arup come to the party nor will his friend come there. —**Incorrect.** Neither did he oversleep nor was his bus late —**Incorrect.** According to Biber (page 1309), as a mark of coordination, *neither...nor* cannot occur initially in a coordination of main clauses. "When a clause with *neither* or *nor* is used after a negative clause, we invert the subject and the verb after *neither* and *nor*."—*English Grammar Today.*]

J. Inversion after degree expressions with so and such: Clauses opening with the degree adverb *so* undergo subject-operator inversion. Here *so* is used as an intensifier, indicating the intensity concerned. For example,

- *So* extremely has she suffered.
- *So* far gone was she.
- *So little time did* we have that we had to cut corners.
- *So* badly was he affected.
- *Such* is the elegance of this typeface that it is still a favourite of designers.
Such are the fortunes of war. (here *such* means ‘so much or so great’)

K. Inversion with negative scope: When the clause is to be wholly affected by the negative scope, the clause undergoes subject-operator inversion. In the following sentences, we find no inversion because of this rule:

- No doubt, he will attend the dinner party.
- Not surprisingly, most findings are reliable.
- Not many years ago, it seemed that atoms are divisible.
- In no time (=very soon) at all, the land would be flooded.
- *Only* Aditya will be given a prize. (here we find no inversion because *only* modifies *Aditya*)
- In the winter, *rarely*, we can feel the cries of the swallow. (here *rarely* means ‘not often’, ‘occasionally, sometimes’ –it doesn’t emphasize that something seems surprising or special.)

In the above sentences, the main statements are expressed in positive terms. The phrases *no doubt*, *not surprisingly*, *not many years ago* and *in no time* do not affect the positive/affirmative nature of the statements. In spite of the phrases we conclude that ‘He will attend the party’, that ‘Most findings are reliable’, that ‘it seemed that atoms are divisible’ and that ‘the land would be flooded’. But in the following sentences we find inversion:

- *At no time* (=never) did he say that he would fail. (The phrase ‘at no time’ is used to emphasize that something never happened or should never happen.)
- *Only then* did he recover. (inversion follows *only then* because we want to emphasize what we are saying.)
- *Rarely* can a movie be so interesting. (here *rarely* is used to emphasize that something seems surprising or special)

L. Inversion after *as*: In formal/literary style inversion follows *as*. For example,

- I studied hard, as *did* the first boy in our class.
- The girl danced well, as *did* her classmates.

M. Inversion after *little* and *few*:

- *Little did the gang know* that the police had them under surveillance.
- *Little did the passengers know* that the driver was really an undercover police officer.
- *Little did I know* that this spelled the end of my career.
- *Little did he know* what lay in store for him.
- *Few were* her words of praise for her son.

[**N.B.** “After certain adverbials in initial position, a reversal of subject and verb is optional. Inverted sentences have a literary effect.” (Frank, 1985):

- *Often did* we sit together without saying a word.
- *In God alone should* we place our trust.

- *Loud and clear rang* the church bell.
- N. Inversion after *than*:** According to Quirk et al (1985), “there is subject-operator inversion in comparative clauses when the subject is not a personal pronoun.” When we find verbs other than *be*, subject-operator inversion occurs with comparative clauses.
 - Cars made in India cost less *than would cars made in America*.
 - Rich people have a poorer heart *than do poor people*.
 - The lady played cricket much better than did her husband.
- [**N.B.** According to Merchant (2003), inversion is only possible in comparatives when there is also VP ellipsis, but Culicover and Winkler dispute this view. (2008).
 - Men spent more time in leisure activities than did women. (Correct)
 - Men spent more time in leisure activities than women did. (Correct)]
 - O. Inversion after *as* in comparative clauses:** Comparative clauses containing *as* undergo subject-operator inversion. This is found if the clause contains verbs other than the copular *be*:
 - Oil prices increased *as did essential commodities*.

P. Correlative Comparative Constructions/ Correlative subordination/Comparative -conditional construction (McCawley 1988)/ Covariational-conditional construction(Fillmore, Kay and O’Connor 1988) :

According to Biber et al and Quirk et al, the ...*the* is regarded as a subtype of correlative subordinator. Here we find two correlating clauses not two co-relative clauses. Here *the more, the less, the better*, etc are treated as comparative phrases. (Thomas Hoffmann, 2011) In this construction we find main clauses and subordinate clauses .The second clause is the main clause and the first clause is the subordinate clause from the semantic point of view and the syntactic point of view (Huddleston and Pullum , 999—1001) .In “ The more you eat , the less you want ” *the less you want* is the main clause and *the more you want* is the subordinate clause . In “They became (the) hungrier, the harder they worked”, *They became hungrier* is the main clause and *the harder they worked* is the subordinate clause. Here only the main clause allows **optional subject-auxiliary inversion**. Correlative Comparative Constructions/ Correlative subordination can undergo subject-operator inversion if the verbs are not copular verbs. For example,

- The deeper we go into the earth, *the closer can the magma be seen*.
- The harder a student studies, *the more does she/he learn*.
- The more cars he has, *the more friends will he get*.
- The faster one goes *the greater is the need for concentration*.
- The mightier you are, *the more must you fear*; the lowlier you are, *the more must you take comfort*.
- The more animals a household is obliged to sacrifice, *the greater has been its misfortune*.
- The bigger these pictures have gotten, the simpler have been their basic sentiments.
- The more organised you are *the better will be the results*.
- The more intractable a problem ***be***, the more difficult it is to solve .

We also find the following constructions without ***inversion*** :

- The harder they worked ,the hungrier they became. (Alternatively : They became (the) hungrier , the harder they worked) [Quirk et al. 1895.]
- The more under the weather you are, the more in pain you are.
- The more you eat, the less you want .(= if/when/as you eat more, you want correspondingly less.)

- The greater the demand, the higher the price. (we see “a statistically significant association of deletion.” ---Thomas Hoffmann.)[* The greater the demand is , the higher the price. * The greater the demand, the higher the price is. * The greater the demand, the higher.]

- The more the merrier.

[N.B. The second clause is the main clause because the second clause undergoes *inversion*, can contain *mandative subjunctive* in certain or suitable embedded contexts, plays a part in tag-question formation, can contain double comparative, can be formed into a direct question:

- a. The more they work, the more I will pay them/ the more will I pay them. The more they will work, I will pay them .(*the more will they work, I will pay them) [subject-operator inversion]
- b. I demand that the more John eats , the more he pay(s)/*the more John eat, the more he pay(s).— Hoffmann, 2011
- c. The more we eat , the angrier you get, don’t you ?/*don’t we? [tag-question]
- d. Mary grew angrier and angrier, the more pictures she looked at /the more pictures she looked at , the angrier she grew.
- e. The harder (that) it has rained, how much faster a flow(*that) appears in the river ?(direct question)— Hoffmann, 2011.

According to Quirk et al, the adjectives having normal synthetic comparative forms (old-older-older, wise-wiser-wiser) can be used freely with *analytical comparatives* (more old, more wise) in these construction:

- The more old we are, the more wise we become. /The older we are, the wiser we become.(Quirk et al, 1985)

Q. Other fronted elements triggering subject-auxiliary inversion : These include *thus, yet, particularly, many , well*.

- **Thus** has he completed his lecture.
- They were bound by time.....**yet** were they simultaneously timeless. (Huddleston & Pullum)
- Pollution will increase unchecked...**Particularly** is this case in Kolkata.
- **Many another poem** could I speak of which sang itself into my heart. (Huddleston & Pullum)
- **Well** did I remember the crisis of emotion into which he was plunged that night.

Inversion in Different Types of Sentences/Clauses: In English we find different types of sentences/clauses where we find inversion. For example,

1. Inversion in Independent Clauses:

A. Formulaic Clauses with Inversion: There are some formulaic clauses or fixed collocations which undergo inversion smelling of archaic literary overtones:

- *Long live King Duncan!*
- *Suffice it to say* that afterwards we never met again.
- *Be it proclaimed* that Socrates was a philosopher of unparalleled erudition.
- If you want to become a sailor, *so be it*, it is your life, not mine.
- I do swear that I will be faithful to Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth, *so help me God*.

B. Inversion in Clauses opening with May:

- *Long May She reign!* (Biber)
 - *May it be declared* that a blood donation camp has been set up.
 - *May God bless you.*
- C. Imperative Clauses:** *You*, a second-person pronoun, is generally placed before the verb in affirmative clauses but is placed after the verb *do* in negative clauses. In imperative clauses, the addressee is mentioned as the subject or as a vocative. We find expressed subjects. Question tags (*will you/would you*) can modify imperatives.
- *You* shut the window and sit down.
 - Don't *you* open the window. (Biber)
 - Study hard *you*.
 - Listen *you* big shit. (Biber)
 - *Everyone* ask Edward.
 - Right, *troops* forward march.
- D. Inversion in Independent Interrogative Clauses:** Subject-operator inversion is found in *yes-no questions* and *wh-questions*:
- Do you want to go there?
 - What do you want from me?
 - Why did you not attend the meeting?
 - Did you write the letter?
- 2. Inversion in Dependent Clauses:** In dependent clauses in English we find inversion.
- A. Subject-verb inversion with opening adverbials:** If dependent clauses open with restrictive adverbials or locative adverbials or adverbial particles, they undergo inversion:
- The stranger pointed to a desk *at which sat a hermit with grey beard*.
 - In the middle of the forest was a lake, beside it was a tree *by which sat two men talking*.
 - The two officers were talking in the room *when in came a little boy shouting for help*.
- B. Subject-operator inversion with initial negatives or restrictives:** Subject-operator inversion occurs in dependent clauses as found in Independent clauses under the same circumstances:
- Rina said that *at no time did the boy sustain head injuries*.
 - The research findings suggest that *only rarely do we pronounce English words correctly*.
- C. Dependent clauses with *as* and *than* as openers:** According to Biber et al, inversion involving an operator on its own is found in formal writing in comparative clauses introduced by *as* and *than* provided that the subject is heavier than the verb i.e. the subject is not light at all. But this view is disputed.
- D. Hypothetical Conditional clauses:** In hypothetical conditional sentences, we find subject-operator inversion if they are introduced by *had*, *should* and *were*.
- a) **Type 1: Hypothetical conditional clauses opening with *should*:** If a hypothetical conditional sentence opens with *had*, the conjunction *if* is omitted.
- ***Should*** you arrive at the airport before 4.00 pm, call me. (=If you should arrive at the airport before 4 pm, call me)
 - ***Should*** you hear anything, please let me know. (= if you should hear anything, please let me know.)

- **Should** he has stolen the purse, he will have to be punished. (=if he has stolen the purse, he will have to be punished.)

- b) **Type 2: Hypothetical conditional clauses opening with had:** If a hypothetical conditional sentence opens with had, the conjunction *if* is omitted.
 - **Had** I been invited to the party, I would have attended it.
 - **Had** I studied hard, I would have fared well in the examination.
- c) **Type 3: Hypothetical conditional clauses opening with were:** If a hypothetical conditional clause begins with were, the conjunction *if* is omitted.
 - **Were** he rich, he would have an expensive car. (=If he were rich, he would have an expensive car.)
 - **Were** he to help her, she would surely succeed in life. (=If he helped her, she would surely succeed. /If he were to help her, she would surely succeed in life.)
 - **Were** he to have helped her, she would have succeeded in life. (=If he had helped her, she would have succeeded in life.)
- E. **Alternative and universal conditional clauses with subjunctive verbs:** These clauses contain subjunctive verbs with inverted word-order. They can be paraphrased by *whether it* or *they* or *he + be* or *is* or *are*:
 - People always react---*be it a natural disaster, accident or sudden emergency*.
 - He expresses love for all, *be they as famous as newton or as obscure as Lucy*.
- F. **Dependent Interrogative clauses with inversion:** Generally dependent interrogative clauses have normal subject-verb order. But in informal English we find semi-direct speech/intermediate form of speech. It contains subject-operator inversion of the independent interrogative clauses and is a compromise between direct speech and indirect speech.
 - Direct Speech:** She said, "Can you pass the exam?"
 - Semi-direct speech:** *She said could he pass the examination.*
 - Indirect Speech:** She asked whether he could pass in the examination.
- G. **Inversion in Reporting Clauses:** Reporting clauses contain reporting verbs are appended to reported speech which is of two types: direct speech and indirect speech. Reporting clauses undergo subject-verb inversion if the subject is a noun or a noun phrase. But If the reporting clause must not undergo subject-verb inversion, if the subject is a pronoun. If the verb phrase in the reporting clause is a complex one and the subject of the reporting clause contains a noun, we don't find inversion. Inversion in reporting clauses is occasionally found with subject pronouns. Subject-verb inversion is found in medial or final positions. Generally, if the subject of the reporting clause contains a light subject e.g. a personal pronoun, inversion does not occur.
 - "We will go to America," he said.
 - "We will go to America," said John.
 - "We will go to America," said the girls.
 - "You can ask me the question," said Radford, "If I am not busy."
 - "We will go to America," John had said.
 - "We will go to America," said he.
- H. **Inversion in question tags:** In question tags we find inversion:

Different Types of Inversion: Inversion can be categorized into different types. They are:

1. **Additive inversion:** Additive inversion occurs when additive adverbs such as *so*, *neither* and *nor* are present. Here the additive adverb in initial position stand for given information and is said to have a cohesive effect. The **additive inversion construction** is:

So/Neither/Nor + be+ Noun Phrase (Subject)

2. **Adjective Phrase Inversion:** This kind of inversion contains a preposed adjective phrase in initial position:

- *Most important* is the issue regarding the policy.
- *Also important to the construction of the building* will be a large amount of money.
- *So beautiful* is the flower that everybody cannot but gaze at it.

3. **Adverb Phrase inversion:** This kind of inversion contains a preposed adverb phrase in initial position. Here we find directional adverbs, adverbs with spatial meanings, additive adverbs, negative adverbs, place /locative adverbs and linking adverbs. Non-obligatory adverb phrase inversion occurs with spatial adverbs.

- *Therein* lay the true reason for his absence.
- *There*, sitting in the window seat, was Harry. (spatial meaning)
- *Here*, in utter darkness, shone a dim light. (spatial meaning)
- *And there* was Jim, looking at the sea beach. (spatial meaning)
- *Upstairs* was a bedroom and a bathroom. (special meaning)
- *Inside* was a single piece of furniture that looked very attractive. (spatial meaning)
- *In* went the naughty boy. (directional)
- *Down* came the heavy rain. (directional)
- *Even more* are they begetters of their mellifluous song. (additive)
- *Not* officially part of the tour is Birla museum. (negative)
- *Every now and then* cried the little baby.
- *So*, begins his collapse into enslavement to forms.
- *Thus* began the crumbling of the empire.
- *Thus* can be realized the first result of having such large deformations. (linking)

4. **Noun-phrase Inversion:** In this type of inversion, the clause initial elements are noun phrases. According to Birner, the sequence ‘NP + be +NP’ may represent an identificational structure or an ascriptive structure. In this construction it is difficult for us to identify the subject and the subject complement. Noun Phrase inversion must not be confused with **equative structures**. In equative constructions, the two noun phrases remain in identificational relationship and here it is impossible for us to locate the subject and the subject complement.

- The only person within our view is Andrew Radford.
- Andrew Radford is the only person within our view.

But in non-equative constructions the two noun phrases stand in ascriptive relationship or characterization. In this relationship, the predicative complement defines the property of the noun phrase and the complement is indefinite. It is to be noted that “ identificational attributes are normally associated with definite noun phrases whereas characterization attributes are normally indefinite...” (Dorgeloh)

- John Milton was a great poet. (no inversion)
- A great poet was John Milton. (inversion)

5. **Preposition Phrase Inversion:** In this type of inversion a prepositional phrase is placed in clause-initial position.
 - *Near the fire* is colder.
 - *Among the tall trees* was the pine tree.
 - *Between the post office and the school* stands our house.
6. **Verb Phrase Inversion:** It is also called *part-inversion* (from *participle*). In this type of inversion, the clause opens with either a present participle or a past participle. Here we see that -ed participles and -ing participles are fronted. The grammatical status of the verb *be* is disputed. According to Quirk et al, in “Reading the newspaper was Peter.” *is reading* forms a constituent and the auxiliary verb *is* depends on the lexical verb *reading* and *reading* is the head of the verb phrase. But, according to Huddleston & Pullum, *is* is the verb that takes the non-finite complement *reading the newspaper*. Here *is* is the head of the verb phrase.
 - *Standing behind* was a group of boys.
 - *Also working against the treaty* are anaemic national economies.
 - *Facing the mirror hung* a picture of a little boy urinating in an arc.
 - *Assembled together* were some boys who showed interest in linguistics.
 - *Also highlighted* is the importance of conservation of forests.
 - *Reading the newspaper* was Peter.
7. **Pre-heavy inversion:** in this type of inversion, the preposed element is heavier than the postposed element.
 - *Also useful for the constructions of the building* is good cement.
8. **Balanced Inversion:** In this type of inversion the number of words of the preposed constituent is the same as the number of words of the postposed constituent.
 - Outside the room stood a little boy.
9. **Post-heavy Inversion:** In this type of inversion the postposed constituent is heavier than the preposed element or constituent.
 - Also beautiful is the Queen of Elizabeth who reigned for a long time.
10. **Exclamatory Inversion:** This kind of inversion is found in conversation and fiction:
 - What a beautiful picture did he draw!
 - How beautiful is she!
11. **Formulaic inversion:** This type of inversion is found in fixed formulaic speech or formal registers:
 - Long live our King!
 - Be it be announced that the President is coming.
12. **Appended inversion:** Erdmann (1990) introduced the term appended clause. It is also called *postponed-identification apposition* (Quirk et al, 1985) These clauses are linked to a nearby clause by means of an inverted construction.
 - They want to go to Digha, *do my friends*.
 - He’s a complete idiot, *is John*.
13. **Inversion after negated verbs:** This is found in non-declarative clauses.
 - *Didn’t nobody teach me this*. (Carlos Prado-Alonso, 2011)
 - It is against the rule; *that is why don’t so many people do it*. (Carlos Prado-Alonso, 2011)

14. **LOC BE inversion:** The syntactic construction of this inversion is ‘Locative constituent + be+ subject’. For example, ‘On the table was Shyam’. Chen distinguishes two subtypes of LOC BE inversion: LOC N BE and PART + LOC BE. The LOC N BE subtype consists of a *non-be verb* which “must profile stative relations” (Chen, 2003). These verbs do not denote manners of being somewhere. In other words, dynamic motion verbs (run, walk, stroll, etc.), verbs of mental activity (dream, fantasy, meditate, etc), and verbs of articulation (shout, yell, scream, etc.), cannot occur in the subtype. For example,
- In the room stood the man. (correct)
 - *In the room Shouted/strolled/dreamt Clinton. (Incorrect)
- The PART + LOC BE subtype contains a present or past participle form of the verb with a locative element and the verb *be*:
- Surrounding the school are shops, restaurants and malls.
15. **Path Vm inversion:** The syntactic construction of this type of inversion is “*Path constituent /path adverbial + motion/dynamic verbs + subject.*” Here we find verbs of manner of motion e.g. dart, climb, jump, etc.
- Into the room ran the boy.
 - Into the room came/went the dog.
- Here we find *TEMP Vm*. Here TEMP stands for temporal adverbials which behave like directional time path adverbials.
- *First* came the challenge and *now* comes the solution.
16. **NSPAT BE inversion:** This type consists of a non-spatial (NSPAT)preverbal element and *be* and postverbal subject.
- Among the solutions has been the invention of the liquid gas.
 - Of grave concern to all of us is the acute scarcity of drinking water.
17. **Locative inversion:** This inversion occurs if the clause opens with a locative phrase or adverbial.
- From the room came a shrill noise.
 - Here is Caesar.
18. **Quotation inversion:** It is also called *journalistic style inversion*. In this kind of inversion, a quotation is preposed and this preposed quotation functions as the object of the clause.
- “India has made epoch-making explorations into the moon,” Modi said.
19. **Sequential inversion:** This kind of inversion occurs when the clause-initial constituents are enumerating listing conjuncts which are ordinal numbers (first, second, third, etc) and adverbs (finally or lastly). The sequential inversion construction contains the verbs *be*, *go* and *come*. This construction shows the links between ideas.
- *First* were vehement personal attacks.
20. **Stylistic inversion:** Stylistic inversion occurs because of contextual conditions. Here the motivation comes from the contextual conditions. In English we find two types of stylistic inversion: *light inversion* (involving unaccusative verbs) and *heavy inversion*. “Stylistic Inversion with ‘light’ subjects is possible only when the verb is unaccusative; when the verb is unergative or even transitive, Stylistic Inversion is possible, but only with a ‘heavy’ subject.” (P. Cullicover)
- On the wall seemed to be hanging a picture of Shakespeare. (light inversion)

- Into the room ran a group of boys. (light inversion)
- Into the cave walked the hunter carefully. (light inversion)
- Into the cafeteria have both gone the two students that I was telling you about. (heavy inversion)

In the three examples the fronted prepositional phrases operate as the subjects of the two clauses.

21. Subordinator inversion: In this type of inversion, clause-initial elements are subordinating conjunctions: than, as, as...so, as...as, so...that, such...that, no sooner...than....

Inversion & Ambiguity: Generally, inversion is used to emphasize some information or idea. Sometimes inversion can dispel ambiguity. Inversion in most cases is syntactic.

1. Every boy came out of the class (no inversion)
2. Out of the class came every boy. (inversion)

Sentence (1) is ambiguous between the two readings: group reading and individual reading. This means that the boys in the class came out of it at the same time and that they came out of the class one after another. But sentence (2) expresses only group reading.

Teaching Implications: The teacher would teach the students how to employ inversion in or outside the context. This is the contextual approach adopted by the teacher. Through the appropriate tasks and activities, the teacher would make clear the various aspects of inversion. The teacher would set fill-in-blanks exercises to test their competence in inversion. The teacher may ask the students to transform the sentence, using inverted word order. She/he may ask them to make meaningful sentences with inversion.

Conclusion: In our everyday life we find various applications of inversion in newspapers, short stories, poems, epics, plays. Inversion abounds in English literary texts, embellishes the literary works and helps the reader or writer understand or convey the appropriate import of the message. We must learn different types of inversion to convey the desired/intended meaning. In a nutshell, a thorough mastery over inversion will enable us to enjoy the sweet flavour of English.

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