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Ústav cizích jazyků

English Parts of Speech

An E-learning Text in English Morphology

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Opava 2003

PREFACE

Since the present textbook is meant for students of English and prospective teachers of English, its aim is to provide an account of English morphology which would be both founded on theory and also applicable in practice. To meet both the academic and the practical demands, we based our text on the systemic approach as offered by R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum in their *University Grammar of English*, and supplemented it by drawing on less academic, but more practical grammars by L. G. Alexander, A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet, L. Dušková et al., C. E. Eckersley and J. M. Eckersley, and others, who put more stress on the functional or the communicative aspect of the grammatical phenomena under consideration. We are well aware of the fact that in English it is rather difficult to draw a dividing line between morphology and syntax, nevertheless we are convinced that our *English Parts of Speech* will give Czech students an opportunity to study a subsystem of the English language in a way they are more familiar with than any other.

Recently two prominent English grammars have appeared: BIBER, D., S. JOHANSON, G. LEECH, S. CONRAD and E. FINEGAN (1999): *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, Harlow; and HUDDLESTON, R. AND G. K. PULLUM (2002): *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, Cambridge. Both the grammars are based on vast corpora of written and spoken language and reveal new aspects of the use of English in everyday speech, in mass media, in fiction, and in scholarly communication. However interesting these new findings may be for a student of English, the authors of the present book have not been able to incorporate them in the text, and for special issues they refer the reader to the above two modern grammars reflecting the present stage of English.

Opava, March 2003

The Authors.

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VERBS

VERBAL FORMS AND THE VERB PHRASE

THE PRIMARY AUXILIARIES – DO, HAVE, BE

THE MODAL AUXILIARIES

TENSE, ASPECT, MOOD, AND VOICE

There are various ways in which verbs are classified. We begin with a classification that distinguishes lexical ('full-meaning') verbs from auxiliary ('helping') verbs. The lexical verbs (e.g. *walk*, *write*, *play*) form an open class, it means that new lexical verbs may be formed and added to the already existing number of many thousands of verbs (e.g. *robot* - *robotize*).

The auxiliary verbs represent a closed system, it means that their number is fixed and no new auxiliary verbs can be added. The auxiliaries are subdivided into primary (*do*, *have*, *be*) and modal (*can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *must*, *ought to*, *used to*, *need*, *dare*).

VERBAL FORMS AND THE VERB PHRASE

Many English verbs have five forms:

the base:	<i>write</i>
the -s form:	<i>writes</i>
the past:	<i>wrote</i>
the -ing participle:	<i>writing</i>
the -ed participle:	<i>written</i>

The following are some examples of these forms together with the indication of their functions:

Form	Example	Functions
base	<i>call</i> <i>drink</i> <i>put</i>	a) all the Present Tense except 3rd person sg.: <i>We call every day.</i> b) imperative: <i>Call at once!</i> c) subjunctive: <i>He demanded that she call and see him.</i> d) the bare infinitive: <i>He may call.</i> , the to-infinitive: <i>He wants her to call.</i>
-s form	<i>calls</i> <i>drinks</i> <i>puts</i>	a) 3rd person sg. Present Tense: <i>He calls every day.</i>
past	<i>called</i> <i>drank</i> <i>put</i>	(a) Past Tense: <i>He called yesterday.</i>

-ing participle	<i>calling</i> <i>drinking</i> <i>putting</i>	a) progressive aspect (i.e. in progressive or continuous tenses): <i>He is calling in a moment.</i>
-ed participle	<i>called</i> <i>drunk</i> <i>put</i>	b) in -ing participle clauses: <i>Calling early, I found her at home.</i> (Protože jsem přišel brzy, zastihl jsem ji doma.)
		a) perfective aspect (perfect tenses): <i>He has drunk the water.</i>
		b) passive voice: <i>He is called Jack.</i>
		c) in -ed participle clauses: <i>Called early, he had a quick breakfast.</i> (Protože přišel brzy, ještě se rychle nasnídal.)

Regular lexical verbs have the same -ed form for both the Past Tense and the -ed participle. Irregular lexical verbs have from three forms (e.g. *put, puts, putting*) to eight forms (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*). The modal auxiliaries are defective in not having infinitive, -ing participle, -ed participle or imperative.

The Morphology of Lexical Verbs

The -s form

has three spoken realizations: [ɪz], [z], and [s] and two spellings, -s and -es.

1. It is pronounced [ɪz] after bases ending in voiced or voiceless sibilants and it is spelled -es unless the base already ends in -e:

catch – catches
buzz – buzzes
lose – loses [lu:z - lu:zɪz]

2. It is pronounced [z] and spelled -s after bases ending in other voiced sounds:

describe – describes
flow – flows

Note the four irregular -s forms:

do [du:] – *does* [dʌz]
go [gəʊ] – *goes* [gəʊz]
say [seɪ] – *says* [sez]
have [hæv] – *has* [hæz]

3. It is pronounced [s] and spelled -s after bases ending in other voiceless sounds:

cut – cuts
want – wants
lock – locks

In bases ending in a consonant + -y, the -y changes into -i- and the ending is -es (-ies altogether):

carry – carries, study – studies

but: *play – plays*

The past forms and the *-ed* participle forms

of regular verbs have three spoken realizations:

1. It is pronounced [ɪd] after bases ending in [d] and [t]:

suggest – suggested, divide – divided

2. It is pronounced [d] after bases ending in voiced sounds other than [d]:

mention – mentioned, discover – discovered, die – died

3. It is pronounced [t] after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than [t]:

miss – missed, hope – hoped, pack – packed

The *-ing* form

is a straightforward addition to the base:

sleep – sleeping, push – pushing

divide – dividing (on the deletion of *-e* see later).

Further inflectional spelling rules

Doubling of consonant

Final base consonants are doubled before inflections *-ed* and *-ing* when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter:

<i>stop</i>	–	<i>stopped</i>	–	<i>stopping</i>
<i>permit</i>	–	<i>permitted</i>	–	<i>permitting</i>
<i>prefer</i>	–	<i>preferred</i>	–	<i>preferring</i>

There is no doubling when the vowel is unstressed or written with two letters:

<i>enter</i>	–	<i>entered</i>	–	<i>entering</i>
<i>develop</i>	–	<i>developed</i>	–	<i>developing</i>
<i>dread</i>	–	<i>dreaded</i>	–	<i>dreading</i>

Note: BrE breaks the rule with respect to certain other consonants:

<i>signal</i>	–	<i>signalled</i>	–	<i>signalling</i>
<i>travel</i>	–	<i>travelled</i>	–	<i>travelling</i>
<i>program(me)</i>	–	<i>programmed</i>	–	<i>programming</i>
<i>worship</i>	–	<i>worshipped</i>	–	<i>worshipping</i>

AmE, however, keeps the single consonant:

<i>signal</i>	–	<i>signaled</i>	–	<i>signaling</i>
<i>travel</i>	–	<i>traveled</i>	–	<i>traveling</i>
<i>program</i>	–	<i>programed</i>	–	<i>programing</i>
<i>worship</i>	–	<i>worshiped</i>	–	<i>worshiping</i>

Most verbs ending in *-p* have the regular spelling in both British English and American English:

<i>develop</i>	–	<i>developed</i>	–	<i>developing</i>
<i>gallop</i>	–	<i>galloped</i>	–	<i>galloping</i>

Treatment of *-y*

1. In bases ending in a consonant + *-y*, the following changes occur before *-es* and *-ed* inflections:

carry – carries, carry – carried, (but carrying)

study – studies, study – studied, (but studying)

Note: The past of the following three verbs has a change of *-y* into *-i-* also after a vowel:

lay [lei] – *laid* [leɪd]
pay [peɪ] – *paid* [peɪd]
say [seɪ] – *said* [sed]

2. In bases ending in *-ie*, the *-ie* is replaced by *-y-* before the *-ing* inflection:

die – *dying*
lie – *lying*

Deletion of *-e*

Final *-e* is regularly dropped before the *-ing* and *-ed* inflections:

shave – *shaving* – *shaved*

Verbs with bases in *-ee*, *-ye*, *-oe*, and often *-ge* are exceptions to this rule in that they do not drop the *-e* before *-ing*; but they do drop it before *-ed*:

<i>-ee: agree</i>	–	<i>agreeing</i>	–	<i>agreed</i>
<i>-ye: dye</i>	–	<i>dyeing</i>	–	<i>dyed</i>
<i>-oe: hoe</i>	–	<i>hoeing</i>	–	<i>hoed</i>
<i>-ge: singe</i>	–	<i>singeing</i>	–	<i>singed</i>

Irregular Lexical Verbs

Irregular lexical verbs differ from regular verbs in the past form or in the *-ed* participle form or in both these forms:

write – *wrote* – *written*

Some lexical verbs have both the regular and the irregular forms:

learn – *learned* – *learned*

or: *learn* – *learnt* – *learnt*

The list of irregular verbs can be found on page 115.

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THE PRIMARY AUXILIARIES – *DO*, *HAVE*, *BE*

DO

The auxiliary *do* has the following forms:

	non-negative	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
present	<i>do</i>	<i>do not</i>	<i>don't</i>
	<i>does</i>	<i>does not</i>	<i>doesn't</i>
past	<i>did</i>	<i>did not</i>	<i>didn't</i>

***Do* as lexical verb and as pro-verb**

has the full range of forms, including the present participle *doing* and the past participle *done*.
(*What have you been **doing** today? You said you would finish it. – I have **done** so.*)

The auxiliary *do*

has the following functions:

a) It assists in forming the negation of all the lexical verbs in the Present Simple and the Past Simple Tense:

I understand it. – I do not/don't understand it.

He understands it. – He does not/doesn't understand it.

He saw me. – He did not/didn't see me.

b) It assists in forming the question of all the lexical verbs in the above two tenses:

Do you understand? – Do you not/don't you understand?

(Rozumíš? Chápeš to?) – (Cožpak nerozumíš? Copak to nechápeš?)

Does he understand? – Does he not/doesn't he understand?

Did he see you? – Didn't he see you?

Where do you live? What do you do here? When do you leave?

When did it happen? Where did you go? What did you do?

Note: The question is formed without *do* if the question word is the subject of the clause and the clause is positive. Such questions are introduced by the interrogative pronouns *who*, *what*, *which*, *how many*, *how much*, etc.:

Who saw you? (Kdo tě viděl?)

What causes this change? (Co tuto změnu způsobuje?)

How many people help you? (Kolik lidí ti pomáhá?)

But with question words as objects, *do* must be used:

Who did you see? (Kohos viděl?)

What does this change cause? (Co tato změna způsobuje?)

How many people do you help? (Kolika lidem pomáháš?)

c) In a positive non-interrogative clause, *do* can be used to emphasize or intensify the meaning of the lexical verb:

Do sit down. (Tak si přeče sedni!)

Why didn't you tell him? – But I did tell him all. (Ale vždyť já jsem mu to všechno řekl.)

d) *Do* – in the capacity of a prop-verb – stands for, or replaces lexical verbs in short answers:

Do you watch TV every day? – Yes, I do.

or is used to avoid the repetition of the same verb

He left school one year earlier than I did.

or replaces lexical verbs in tag questions

She works in a lab, doesn't she? (... , že? ..., ne?)

She didn't tell you anything, did she? (... , že? ..., že ne?)

Note: In tag questions, rising intonation represents a real question while falling intonation presupposes an agreement.

HAVE

Both as lexical verb and as auxiliary, *have* has the following forms:

	non-negative	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
base	<i>have, 've</i>	<i>have not, 've not</i>	<i>haven't</i>
-s form	<i>has, 's</i>	<i>has not, 's not</i>	<i>hasn't</i>
past	<i>had, 'd</i>	<i>had not, 'd not</i>	<i>hadn't</i>
-ing form	<i>having</i>	<i>not having</i>	
-ed participle	<i>had</i>		

The auxiliary *have*

is used in the Present Perfect (Pre-Present), the Past Perfect (Pre-Preterite), and the past infinitive:

He has just come.

He admitted that he had not known about it.

You seem to have been misinformed.

In this case the negation is formed by adding *not*

He hasn't come yet.

and the question is formed by means of inversion

Has he come already?

Hasn't he come yet?

Have as lexical verb

The lexical meaning of *have* is that of possession:

I have two brothers and two sisters.

Have you any reasons for it?

I have not time now.

Have + to + infinitive means *must*:

I have to go.

We had to wait.

In everyday English, the lexical *have* is often replaced by the construction *have got, haven't got* in the present, and by *had got* in the past:

Have you got time now?

I haven't got time now.

We've got to ask him.

The construction with *got* is used if *have* expresses a definite single state of things:

Have you got a headache? (= now, at this very moment)

(For a repeated state see below.)

Auxiliary *do* with *have*

The auxiliary *do* is used with the lexical *have* to form the question and the negation in the following cases:

a) if it denotes habitual or repeated actions or states:

Do you often have headaches? (But *Have you got a headache now?*)

I don't have my dinner at home on Fridays.

b) in the meaning of *must*:

Did you have to wait?

We did not have to stay till the end.

c) in the construction *to have something done*:

She didn't have her hair cut. (Nedala si ...)

Did you have the watch repaired? (Nechals ... opravit?)

d) Often in the Past Tense:

I didn't have enough money to pay the bill.

is more frequent than

I hadn't enough money to pay the bill.

Note: In American English, *do* is used in questions and negations of the lexical *have* everywhere:

Do you have a brother or a sister?

BE

The lexical and auxiliary verb *be* is unique among English verbs in having eight different forms:

	non-negative	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
base	<i>be</i>		
present	<i>am, 'm</i> <i>is, 's</i> <i>are, 're</i>	<i>am not, 'm not</i> <i>is not, 's not</i> <i>are not, 're not</i>	<i>(aren't, ain't)</i> <i>isn't</i> <i>aren't</i>
past	<i>was</i> <i>were</i>	<i>was not</i> <i>were not</i>	<i>wasn't</i> <i>weren't</i>
-ing form	<i>being</i>	<i>not being</i>	
-ed participle	<i>been</i>		

Note: 1. The question is formed by means of inversion:

Is he at home?

2. The lexical verb *be* may have *do*-construction in persuasive imperative sentences and regularly has it with negative imperatives:

Do be quiet! (Tak už buď ticho!)

Don't be silly!

The uses of *be*

a) In its lexical meaning (to exist) the verb *be* is frequently used in *there is*, *there are* constructions:

There are such people.

There is no other possibility.

b) The construction *be* + present infinitive expresses the modal meaning of an intended (planned), necessary or possible action:

The conference was to be held in June. (Ta konference se měla konat v červnu.)

What am I to tell him? (Co mu mám říct?)

Such examples are to be found everywhere. (Takové příklady se najdou všude.)

c) The Past Tense of *be* + past infinitive expresses an intended action in the past which in fact did not take place:

The conference was to have taken place in January. (Měla se konat, ale nekonala se.)

d) *Be* is used as copula in verbo-nominal predicates:

He is a dentist.

We are ready.

e) *Be* as auxiliary verb assists in forming the progressive aspect (in continuous tenses) and the passive voice :

What are you laughing at?

One of the pictures was damaged.

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THE MODAL AUXILIARIES

The modal auxiliaries represent a closed system of nine members:

non-negative	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
<i>can</i>	<i>cannot, can not</i>	<i>can't [kə:nt]</i>
<i>could</i>	<i>could not</i>	<i>couldn't</i>
<i>may</i>	<i>may not</i>	<i>mayn't</i>
<i>might</i>	<i>might not</i>	<i>mightn't</i>
<i>shall</i>	<i>shall not</i>	<i>shan't [ʃə:nt]</i>
<i>should</i>	<i>should not</i>	<i>shouldn't</i>
<i>will, 'll</i>	<i>will not, 'll not</i>	<i>won't [wə:nt]</i>
<i>would, 'd</i>	<i>would not, 'd not</i>	<i>wouldn't</i>
<i>must</i>	<i>must not</i>	<i>mustn't [mʌsnt]</i>
<i>ought to</i>	<i>ought not to</i>	<i>oughtn't to</i>
<i>used to [ju:stə]</i>	<i>used not to</i>	<i>usedn't to [ju:sntə]</i>
<i>need</i>	<i>need not</i>	<i>needn't</i>
<i>dare</i>	<i>dare not</i>	<i>daren't</i>

The primary and the modal auxiliaries have the following morphological features in common:

1. The negation is formed by adding the negative particle *not* to the base:

You can't do that!

2. The question is formed by means of inversion:

Can you do it?

3. These auxiliaries can stand for lexical verbs in short answers

Yes, I can.

short questions including tag questions

Oh, can you?

You can't do it, can you?

and in repetitions

He can speak English and so can she.

4. They are followed by bare infinitives of lexical verbs, with exception of *ought to* and *used to*:

Who can speak English?

The specific features that distinguish the modal auxiliaries from the primary auxiliaries are the following:

a) The modals have the same form for all the persons in both singular and plural (no -s in the 3rd person singular).

b) They have no infinitive form with *to*.

Infinitives and other missing forms are expressed peripherastically:

<i>can</i>	–	<i>be able to</i>
<i>may</i>	–	<i>be allowed to</i>
<i>must</i>	–	<i>have (got) to</i> <i>be obliged to</i> <i>be forced to</i> <i>be compelled to</i>

The Uses of the Modal Auxiliaries

***Can* (Present Tense) and *Could* (Present Conditional or Past Tense) express**

1. Ability (umět):

He can speak English.

I never could play the banjo.

2. Permission (moct, smět):

Can (May) I smoke in here?

Could I smoke in here?

3. Possibility (moct):

Anybody can make mistakes.

We could go to the concert.

***May* (Present Tense) and *Might* (Present Conditional) express**

1. Permission (smět, moct):

You may borrow my car if you like.

You may not/mustn't borrow my car. (nesmíš)

Might I smoke in here? (rare!) (směl bych)

2. Possibility (moct ve významu možná):

The road may be blocked.

We might go to the concert.

Note: *may* can form a periphrastic subjunctive (expressing wish):

May he live long!

Shall* and *Should

Shall expresses

1. Intention of the speaker:

I shan't be long. (Nebude mi to dlohu trvat.)

We shall overcome. (Vydržíme to.)

2. Insistence:

You shall do as I say. (Ty budeš dělat, ...)

He shall be punished. (Ten za to bude pykat.)

Should expresses

1. Obligation:

You should do as he says. (měl bys)

2. Distant Possibility:

If you should change your mind, please let us know. (Kdybyste si to SNAD rozmysleli, ...)

3. 1st person Conditional (in BrE):

We should love to go abroad if we had the chance.

4. And is used after certain expressions:

It is odd that you should say this to me. (Je to zvláštní, že právě ty říkáš něco takového mně.)

Will and Would

Will expresses

1. Willingness and Polite Requests:

He'll help you if you ask him.

Will you open the window? (The real question is: *Will you be opening the window?*)

2 Future Tenses:

I'll write as soon as I can.

She'll have finished it by the end of the month.

3. Prediction about a present action by means of the construction *will + be + -ing* form (Future Progressive):

John will still be reading his paper. (John asi pořád ještě čte)

4. Prediction about the result of a past action by means of *will + past infinitive* (Future Perfect):

The guests will have arrived by now. (už asi přišli, už tu asi budou.)

Would expresses

1. Polite Requests:

Would you excuse me?

2. Characteristic activity in the past:

Every morning he would go for a long walk. (chodíval, chodívával)

3. Present Conditional:

He would smoke too much if I didn't stop him.

4. Probability:

That would be his mother. (patrně bude)

Must

expresses

1. Obligation or Compulsion:

You must be back by 10 o'clock. (In the past: *He had to be back by 10 o'clock.*)

There are two negatives:

a) *needn't, don't have to* (nemuset)

You needn't be back by 10.

You don't have to be back by 10.

b) *mustn't* (nesmět), a stronger equivalent of *may not* in everyday conversation

You mustn't come after 10 o'clock.

2. Logical Necessity:

There must be a mistake. (Určitě je tam chyba.)

But: *There can't be a mistake.* (Určitě tam není ...)

Note: *I must go.* (= I am obliged to go and I want to go.)

I have to go. (= I'd rather stay here but the outer circumstances force me to go.)

We didn't have to go there. (= we're not saying explicitly that we didn't go)
(Nemuseli jsme tam jít.)

We needn't have gone there. (= we went there in vain) (Taky jsme tam nemuseli chodit.)

Ought to

expresses obligation or logical necessity:

You ought to start at once. (měl bys)

Note: In AmE *ought* has occasionally the bare infinitive in negative sentences and questions:

You oughtn't smoke so much.

Ought you smoke so much?

Marginal Modal Auxiliaries

Used

always takes the *to*-infinitive and occurs only in the Past Tense. It may take the *do*-construction, in which case the spellings *didn't used to* and *didn't use to* both occur. The interrogative construction *used he to* is especially British English; *did he used to* is preferred in both American English and British English.

Used to expresses a repeated action in the past:

He used to earn a lot of money. (vydělával)

He usedn't to earn so much as he does now.

He didn't use to earn so much as he does now.

Did you use(d) to go there? (jezdívali, jezdívávali)

Dare and Need

can be constructed either as modal auxiliaries, with bare infinitive and with no inflected *-s* form, or as lexical verbs (odvážit se and potřebovat), with *to*-infinitive and with the inflected *-s* form:

She needn't rewrite it, need she? (Nemusí ..., že ne?)

Need she rewrite it? (Musí to přepisovat?)

He daren't ask. (Netroufá si zeptat se.)

Dare he ask? (On si troufá se ptát?)

But:

She doesn't need (to buy) a new car. (nepotřebuje)

He doesn't dare to ask. (neodvážuje se)

Note: *Must you go there?* (Musíš tam jít?)

Need you go there? (To tam musíš chodit?)

The Probability and the Modals

High Probability:

It must be raining over there. (určitě prší)
It must have rained over there. (určitě pršelo)

Low Probability:

It may be raining over there. (asi prší)
It may have rained over there. (asi pršelo)

Very Low Probability:

It might be raining over there. (mohlo by snad teď pršet)
It might have rained over there. (mohlo snad pršet)

High Improbability:

It can't be raining over there. (určitě neprší)
It can't have rained over there. (určitě nepršelo)

[Back to Verbs](#)

TENSE, ASPECT, MOOD, AND VOICE

‘Time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present, and future; by tense we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced (for example as completed or in progress), while mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, possibility. In fact, however, to a great extent these three categories are interrelated: in particular, the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect, and the expression of the future is closely bound up with mood.’ (Quirk and Greenbaum 1977:40.) Voice (active and passive) is, strictly speaking, a syntactic phenomenon but since it relates to the verb-form, it will be briefly touched upon.

TENSE AND ASPECT

Time	Simple Tenses	Progressive Tenses	Perfective Tenses	Progressive Perfective Tenses
Present	<i>write</i>	<i>am writing</i>	<i>have written</i>	<i>have been writing</i>
Past	<i>wrote</i>	<i>was writing</i>	<i>had written</i>	<i>had been writing</i>

As to the names of tenses, the terminology is, unfortunately, not quite unified:

Present Simple is just **Present Simple** or **Present**:

I write.

Present Progressive is often called **Present Continuous**:

I am writing.

Present Perfect is also known as **Pre-Present**:

I have written.

Present Perfect Progressive is also **Present Perfect Continuous** or **Pre-Present Continuous**:

I have been writing.

Past Tense (Simple) is also called **Preterite**:

I wrote.

Past Tense Progressive is Past Tense Continuous:

I was writing.

Past Perfect is also **Plu-Perfect** or **Pre-Preterite**:

I had written.

Past Perfect Progressive is also **Past Perfect Continuous** (or **Plu-Perfect** or **Pre-Preterite Progressive** or **Continuous**):

I had been writing.

The Uses of Tenses

Present Simple

is used to express

1. habitual or repeated actions at present:

John smokes a lot.

He usually comes at half past eight.

Most evenings my parents stay at home and watch TV.

2. universal statements:

Summer follows spring.

The earth revolves round the sun.

The river Tweed separates England and Scotland.

3. a state or action in progress at the present moment:

(with verbs that do not usually form the progressive tense: *to see, to hear, to understand, etc.*)

I see what you mean.

I hear a knock at the door.

I don't understand your remark.

4. 'the present period':

My father works in a bank.

Her sister wears glasses.

5. future, especially a fixed arrangement of things:

The train leaves at 7.30 tomorrow morning.

Wednesday, May 8th, marks our 5th wedding anniversary.

6. past actions to make them more vivid:

Napoleon leaves France at the head of a great army and crosses the frontier of Russia.

7. observations and declarations in the course of conversation:

I hope/assume/suppose/promise everything will be all right.

I love you. I hate her.

We live in difficult times. – I agree.

Present Progressive

is used to express

1. a momentary action in progress:

What are you looking for?

What are you doing? – I'm just tying up my shoe-laces.

He's talking to his girlfriend on the phone.

2. a present action (in a broad sense) that is marked in one way or other (made topical, emotional, etc.):

Are we eating the right kind of food?

3. temporary situations:

The river is flowing very fast after last night's rain.

People are becoming less tolerant of smoking these days.

4. near future:

He is moving to London.

We are going to Paris on Friday; we are leaving from London Airport.

5. repeated actions:

She's always helping people.

I'm always hearing strange stories about him.

Present tenses in typical contexts

1. The Present Simple and Present Progressive in commentaries:

In radio commentaries on sport, the Simple Present is used to describe rapid actions completed at the moment of speaking and the progressive is used to describe longer-lasting actions:

Moore passes to Charlton. Charlton makes a quick pass to Booth. Booth is away with the ball, but he's losing his advantage.

2. The Present Simple and Present Progressive in narration

When we are telling a story or describing things that have happened to us, we often use present tenses (even though the events are in the past) in order to sound more interesting and dramatic. The progressive is used for the 'background' and the simple tense for the main events:

I'm driving along this country road and I'm completely lost. Then I see this old fellow. He's leaning against a gate. I stop the car and ask him the way.

3. The Present Simple in demonstrations and instructions (step-by-step instructions)

First (you) boil some water. Then (you) warm the teapot. Then (you) add three teaspoons of tea. Next, (you) pour on boiling water ...

4. The Present Simple in synopses (e.g. reviews of books, films, etc.)

Kate Fox's novel is an historical romance set in London in the 1880's. The action takes place over a period of 30 years ...

5. The Present Simple and Present Progressive in newspaper headlines and photographic captions

The Present Simple is generally used to refer to past events:

FREAK SNOW STOPS TRAFFIC

The abbreviated progressive refers to the future:

CABINET MINISTER RESIGNING SOON

Past Tense (Simple)

is used to express

1. an action that took place at a particular point in the past:

The train arrived at 3 o'clock.

I had a word with Julian this morning.

2. a series of actions in the past:

He took out his notebook, tore off a leaf, wrote his telephone number on it, and gave it to me.

3. a habitual or repeated action in the past:

He usually saw his dentist twice a year.

She always made her own breakfast.

4. polite inquiries:

I wondered if you could give me a lift

is considered to be more tentative or more polite than

I wonder if you could give me a lift.

Note: Some adverbials like *yesterday*, *last summer* and combinations with *ago* (*two years ago*, *a long time ago*) are used only with past tenses:

I saw Jane yesterday.

I met Robert many years ago in Prague.

When did you learn about it? – When I saw it in the papers.

Past Progressive

is used to express

1. actions in progress in the past:

Richard was working on his essay last night.

I was playing tennis all this afternoon.

2. a past action that was in progress while another past action took place:

We were having our breakfast when the clock struck nine.

We had our breakfast when the clock was striking nine.

We were having our breakfast when the clock was striking nine.

What is regarded as being in progress or being in any way marked depends on the attitude of the speaker.

3. parallel actions:

While I was working in the garden, my husband was cooking dinner.

4. repeated actions:

When he worked here, Roger was always making mistakes.

5. a past action that was in progress between two time limits in the past:

Yesterday from five to seven I was learning French.

Past tenses in typical contexts

The Simple Past combines with other past tenses, such as the Past Progressive and the Past Perfect, when we are talking or writing about the past. The Past Progressive is used for scene-setting. Past tenses of various kinds are common in story-telling, biography, autobiography, reports, eye-witness accounts, etc.:

It was evening. The sun was setting. A gentle wind was blowing through the trees. In the distance I noticed a Land Rover moving across the dusty plain. It stopped and two men jumped out of it.

Present Perfect Tense

Present time and past time

The Present Perfect always suggests a relationship between present time and past time. In the Present Perfect Tense, the time reference is sometimes undefined, often we are interested in present results, or in the way something that happened in the past affects the present situation. The Present Perfect can therefore be seen as a present tense which looks backwards into the past (just as the Past Perfect is a past tense which looks backwards into an earlier past). Compare the simple Past Tense, where the time reference is defined because we are interested in past time or past results. The following pairs of sentences illustrate this difference between present time and past time:

I haven't seen him this morning. (i.e. up to the present time, it is still morning)

I didn't see him this morning. (i.e. the morning has now passed)

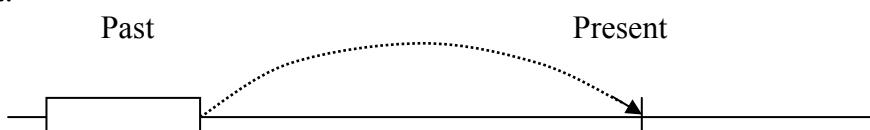
Have you ever flown in Concorde? (i.e. up to the present time)

When did you fly in Concorde? (i.e. when, precisely, in the past).

Present Perfect

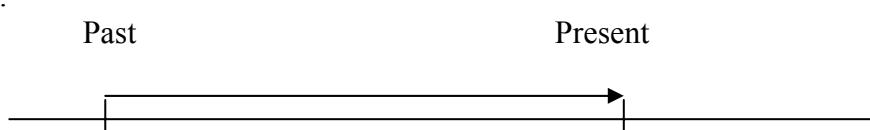
is used to express

1. an action that took place and was finished in the past, but its consequences are felt at present:



I have told him. (= I told him and now he knows all about it.)

2. an action (or state) that started in the past and has been in progress up to the present moment:



I've waited for you for two hours. (neutrální konstatování)

Kate and Ken have been married for 20 years. (= They are still married now.)

Note: Some adverbials are often connected with the Present Perfect: *never, seldom, just*:

I have never been to the U.S.A.

I have seldom seen him.

He has just left.

But: *just now* = a little while ago

I saw him just now. (Past Tense!)

The Simple Present Perfect in typical contexts

The Present Perfect is never used in past narrative (e.g. stories told in the past, history books). Apart from its common use in conversation, it is most often used in:

1. broadcast reports and newspaper reports:

*Interest rates rose again today and the price of gold **has fallen** by \$ 10 an ounce.*

*Industrial leaders **have complained** that high interest rates will make borrowing expensive for industry.*

2. newspaper headlines (implied):

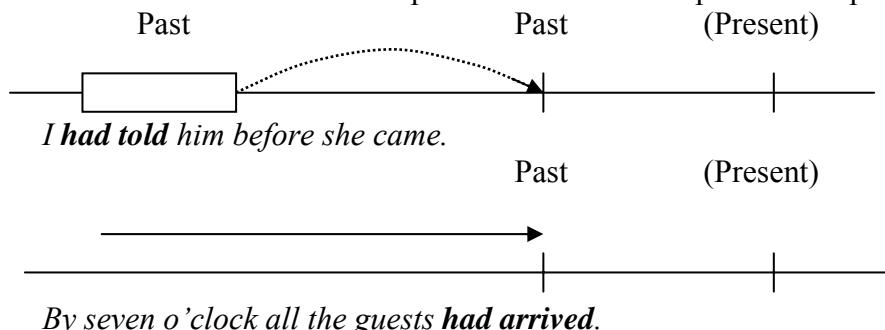
VILLAGES DESTROYED IN EARTHQUAKE (= have been destroyed)

3. letters, postcards, etc.:

*We've just **arrived** in Hong Kong, and though we **haven't had** time to see much yet, we're sure we're going to enjoy ourselves.*

Past Perfect

What was said of the Present Perfect applies to the Past Perfect with the complication that the point of current relevance is not the present moment but a point in the past:



Note: In some contexts the Simple Past and the Past Perfect are interchangeable:

*I ate my lunch **after** Mary **came/had come** home from her shopping.*

Here the conjunction *after* is sufficient specification of the sequence of actions.

Simple Past and Past Perfect in typical contexts

The Past Perfect combines with other past tenses (Simple Past, Past Progressive, Past Perfect Progressive) when we are talking or writing about the past. It is used in story-telling, biography, autobiography, reports, eye-witness accounts, etc., and is especially useful for establishing the sequence of events:

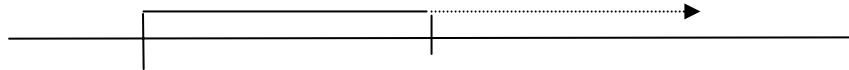
*When we **returned** from our holidays, we **found** our house in a mess. What **had happened** while we **had been** away? A burglar **had broken** into the house and **had stolen** a lot of our things. The burglar **got** in through the kitchen window. He **had** no difficulty in forcing it open. Then he **went** into the living-room ...*

Present Perfect Progressive

is used to express

1. an action that started in the past, is still in progress at the present moment, and is likely to continue in the future:

Present



I've been waiting for him for half an hour (since 10 o'clock, and he hasn't come yet).

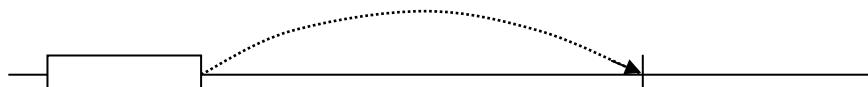
(emotivní vyjádření, = Už na něj čekám půl hodiny. Kde je?!?)

How long have you been sitting there?

2. an emotionally or otherwise coloured action in the past with consequences at the present moment:

Past

Present



He is tired because he has been working too hard.

Somebody has been using my car again!

I've been waiting for you for two hours!

Past Perfect Progressive

expresses the same types of past action as the above Present Perfect Progressive, but it does so in relation to some other action in the past:

I had been waiting for him for half an hour when his wife came to tell me that he had had an accident.

He was very tired because he had been working too hard.

Her eyes were red. It was obvious she had been crying.

The Present/Past Perfect and Progressive compared

The difference between an activity still in progress and one that has definitely been completed is marked by context and by the verbs we use. Note that the simple and the progressive forms are not interchangeable in the following situations:

I've been painting this room (the activity is uncompleted)

versus

I've painted this room (the job is definitely finished)

or

When I got home, I found that Jill had been painting her room.

When I got home, I found that Jill had painted her room.

The Future (Tense)

According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1977:47), ‘there is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. Instead there are several possibilities for denoting future time. Futurity, modality, and aspect are closely related, and future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple present forms or progressive forms’. There are also a few other constructions, e.g. *to be going to*, *to be about to*, *to be to*, *to be on the point of*, *to be due to*.

Will and **shall** (the traditional Future Tense)

The constructions *will* or ‘ll + (bare) infinitive in all persons and *shall* + (bare) infinitive in 1st person sg. or pl. in British English are the closest approximation to a colourless, neutral future:

I will/shall arrive tomorrow.

He'll be here in half an hour.

Uses of the *will/shall* future

Will and *shall* is used

1. to predict events:

It will rain tomorrow.

Will house prices rise again next year?

2. to express hopes, expectations:

I'm sure you'll enjoy the film if you go and see it.

I expect they'll be here at around 10 o'clock tomorrow.

The future is often used after verbs and verb phrases *like assume, be afraid, be sure, believe, doubt, expect, hope, suppose, think*, or with adverbs like *perhaps, possibly, probably, surely*:

Perhaps I'll see you tomorrow.

Alex will probably phone me this evening.

Will in formal style

is used for scheduled events (particularly in written language):

The reception will be at the Anchor Hotel.

The wedding will take place at St Andrew's on June 27th.

Note: ‘The pure future’ should be distinguished from many other uses of *will* and *shall*: e.g.

I'll buy you a bicycle for your birthday. (promise)

Will you hold the door open for me please? (request)

Shall I get your coat for you? (offer)

Shall we go for a swim tomorrow? (suggestion)

Will (shall) + past infinitive (the traditional Future Perfect) is used to express

1. ‘the past’ in the future:

They will have finished their book by next year. (Do příštího roku tu knihu dokončí.)

By the end of this year they will have been working on the dictionary for five years.

(Na konci letošního roku to bude pět let, co na tom slovníku pracují.)

2. prediction about the result of a past action:

The guests will have arrived by now.

Will/shall + be + -ing form (Future Progressive) expresses

1. a 'future-as-a-matter-of-course' (without modal interpretations):

Compare: *He'll do his best.* (future or volitional interpretation possible)

He'll be doing his best. (future interpretation only)

This distinction is used in questions of the following type:

Will you open the window? (a polite request)

Will you be opening the window? (a real question)

2. prediction about a present action:

John will still be reading his paper.

Other ways of expressing the future

Present Progressive expresses near future and Present Simple expresses a fixed arrangement in the future:

I'm expecting you on Sunday morning.

What are you doing next Saturday?

The conference starts on May 13th.

What time does he leave for Canada?

Be going to + infinitive

1. expresses the present intention in the future:

We are going to get married.

I'm going to practise the piano for two hours this evening.

2. suggests that the event is already 'on the way':

She's going to have a baby.

I'm going to speak to him about it.

Be about to + infinitive

refers to the immediate future:

We are about to leave. (Právě se chystáme odejít.)

Look! The race is about to start.

(He was about to hit me. – 'future' intention in the past)

Be on the point of + gerund

conveys even greater immediacy:

Look! They're on the point of starting!

They're on the point of leaving. (na odchodu)

Note: The use of *just* with *be about to* and *be on the point of* increases the sense of immediacy, as it does with the Present Progressive:

They're just starting!

Be to + infinitive (see also the verb *be*)

is used to refer to the future when the actions are subject to human control. This construction expresses:

1. formal arrangements or public duties:

You are to be back by 10 o'clock.

OPEC representatives are to meet in Geneva.

He was later to regret his decision.

2. formal appointments or instructions:

You're to deliver these flowers before 10.

Three tablets (are) to be taken twice a day.

3. prohibitions or public notices:

You're not to tell him anything about our plans. (= you mustn't)

Dogs are to be kept on lead.

Be due to

is used in connection with timetables and itineraries:

The BA 561 is due to arrive from Athens at 13.15.

The BA 561 is not due till 13.15.

A syntactic note:

In temporal and conditional clauses (but not in object clauses) pointing to the future, Present Tenses are used instead of future forms:

I'll give her a kiss when she comes.

I'll give her a kiss if she comes.

The Sequence of Tenses

The sequence of tenses is a system of rules according to which two or more tenses are related with regard to simultaneousness, priority or posteriority of the actions they express. In various languages these rules may be governed by different principles. This is, in fact, the case if Czech and English are compared: The following Czech sentences exemplify the use of tenses in the indirect speech and the indirect questions with regard to posteriority, simultaneousness, and priority:

Říká (řekne, říkal),	—	že bude mít žízeň. (posteriority)
		že má žízeň. (simultaneousness)
		že měl žízeň. (priority)
Ptá se (zeptá se, ptal se),	—	jestli bude mít žízeň.
		jestli má žízeň.
		jestli měl žízeň.

The leading principle governing the 'sequence of tenses' in the above Czech examples can be formulated as follows:

Irrespective of the tense used in the principal (introductory) clause (říká, řekne, etc.)

a) the Present Tense indicates the simultaneousness of actions at any time (at present, in the future, in the past)

b) the Future Tense indicates the posteriority of an action at any time

c) the Past Tense indicates the priority of an action at any time.

In English, however, the tense of the principal clause and the tense of the subordinate clause are interrelated:

He says —————  *he will be thirsty.* (posteriority)
he is thirsty. (simultaneousness)
he was thirsty. (priority)

He said —————  *he would be thirsty.* (posteriority)
he was thirsty. (simultaneousness)
he had been thirsty. (priority)

The leading principle governing the sequence of tenses in the above English examples is the following:

- a) simultaneousness is indicated by the use of the same tenses
(he says he is ..., he said he was ...)
- b) posteriority is indicated by the use of different tenses where the latter is posterior to the former: the Future Tense is posterior to the Present (*he says he will be ...*) and the Future in the Past is posterior to the Past (*he said he would be ...*)
- c) priority is indicated by the use of different tenses where the latter is prior to the former (*he says he was ..., he said he had been ...*)

The above principle holds good, not only for the indirect speech, but also for indirect questions and object clauses in general:

He knew she was ill. (Věděl, že je nemocná.)

But when the eternal truths (or phenomena regarded as such) are under consideration, the Present Tense is used irrespective of the other tense(s):

He knew that the Earth is round.

Note:

1. In temporal and conditional clauses (but not in object clauses) the Present Tense indicates either the present or the future action because the Future Tense cannot be used (cf. p. 23). Which kind of action has the speaker/writer in mind is determined by the tense in the principal clause:

When it rains, we'll stay at home. (Když bude pršet, zůstaneme doma.)

When it rains, we stay at home. (Když prší, býváme doma.)

If I've got money, I'll buy this mirror. (Jestliže budu mít peníze, to zrcadlo si koupím.)

If I've got money, I always buy a bottle of wine. (Mám-li peníze, vždycky si kupuju láhev vína.)

2. In English the Future Tense is not fully integrated item of the tense system. As has been shown before (see pp. 13 - 14), the *shall/will* forms may – in a sense – be regarded as modal auxiliaries modifying the Present. Seen in this light, the following sentences do not deviate from the principle of the sequence of tenses as formulated above:

He'll say —————  *he'll be thirsty.* (posteriority)
he is thirsty. (simultaneousness)
he was thirsty. (priority)

MOOD

Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, and possibility. We distinguish the indicative, the imperative, the conditional, and the subjunctive.

The Indicative

is the basic mood of finite verb forms in statements and questions. Most of our examples illustrating the use of different tenses in English contained verbs in the indicative.

The Imperative

The imperative of the 2nd person singular and plural is the base of the verb:

Say it again!

The negation is formed by means of *do not* (*don't*):

Don't do it!

The imperative of the other persons is periphrastic: *let* + noun/pronoun in the object case + (bare) infinitive

let me explain (in the 1st person – more or less the original meaning: *dovolte, abych vám to vysvětlil*)

let him explain (at' to (on) *vysvětlí*)

let's explain how to do it (*vysvětleme, jak se to dělá*)

let them explain (at' to *oni vysvětlí*)

There are two possible negations:

Don't let's go there.

Let's not go there.

Note: The non-contracted form *let us* usually means *allow us*:

Let us go. (allow us to go = *dovolte nám odejít, nechte nás jít*)

But: *Let's go.* (= *Pojďme.*)

The imperative is used for

1. direct commands, requests, suggestions:

Follow me.

Shut the door (please).

Don't worry.

2. warnings:

Look out! There is a bus!

Don't panic!

3. directions:

Take the second turning on the left and then turn right.

4. instructions:

Use a moderate oven and bake for 20 minutes.

5. prohibitions (e.g. in public notices):

Keep off the grass!

Do not feed the animals!

6. advice (especially after *always* and *never*):

Always answer when you're spoken to!

Never speak to strangers!

7. invitations:

Come and have dinner with us soon.

Have a cigarette.

8. offers:

Help yourself. Have a biscuit.

9. expressing rudeness:

Shut up!

Push off!

The imperative with *do*

is used when we wish to emphasize what we are saying, e.g.:

a) when we wish to be polite:

Do have another cup of coffee. (= No tak si ještě vezměte...)

b) when we wish to express impatience:

Do stop talking! (= Přestaňte už přece mluvit!)

c) when we wish to persuade:

Do help me with this maths problem.

The imperative with pronouns

The imperative may be used together with the second person pronoun or with indefinite pronouns to stress the addressee and to make the imperative clause more emotional:

You wait here for a moment!

You mind your own business!

Everyone keep quiet!

The degree of emotiveness is signalled by stress and intonation.

The imperative with question tags

Tags like *will you?*, *won't you?*, *can you?*, *can't you?*, *could you?* and *would you?* can often be used after an imperative to change the command into a polite request:

Come in, will you/won't you?

Don't tell anyone I told you, will you?

Double imperatives joined by *and*

Go and buy yourself a new pair of shoes. (Not ***Go to buy!**)

Come and play a game of bridge with us. (Not ***Come to play!**)

Note: In American English *go* is sometimes followed directly by a bare infinitive:

Go fetch some water. (= *Go and fetch*)

The Conditional

We distinguish two temporal forms of the conditional:

1. The Present Conditional

<i>I</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write (psal bych)</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write</i>
<i>you</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write</i>
<i>he</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>write</i>

Wherever possible, the contracted forms *I'd*, *you'd*, *he'd*, *she'd*, *it'd*, *we'd*, *they'd* and *who'd* are used.

2. The Past Conditional

<i>I</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	<i>have written</i>	(byl bych psal)
<i>You</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>have written</i>	
<i>he</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>have written</i>	
	etc.		

The currently used contracted forms are the following:

<i>I'd've</i> written	<i>we'd've</i> written
<i>you'd've</i> written	<i>they'd've</i> written
<i>he'd've</i> written	<i>who'd've</i> written
<i>she'd've</i> written	

The conditional is used

1. in conditional sentences (see below)
2. in special uses of *would* and *should* (see pp. 13 and 14)
3. as a past equivalent of future tenses (see the sequence of tenses, p. 25 [f](#)).

The use of the conditional in conditional sentences

Conditional sentences have two parts: the *if*-clause and the principal clause. Under normal circumstances, the conditional is only used in the principal clause of such conditional sentences as express the unreal condition either in the present:

If I live near my office, I'd be in time for work.

(But I don't live near my office at present.)

or in the past:

If I had known that you were coming, I'd've met you at the airport.

(But I didn't know, so I didn't come.)

The appropriate tense in the *if*-clause is

- a) the Past Tense for the unreal condition in the present
(*If I live ...* = Kdybych bydlel ...)
- b) the Past Perfect for the unreal condition in the past
(*If I had known ...* = Kdybych byl věděl ...)

Exceptionally *would* + infinitive is used in the *if*-clause to indicate a polite request:

I would be very grateful if you would make the arrangements for me.

The use of *should* + infinitive in the *if*-clause indicates that the action, though possible, is not very likely. It is usually combined with an imperative in the principle clause and expresses a real condition pointing to the future:

If you should have any difficulty in getting spare parts, ring this number.

(= Kdybyste **snad** měli ...)

Note: In these cases *should* can be placed first and *if* omitted:

Should you have any difficulty in getting ...

For the use of tenses in conditional clauses, see also the sequence of tenses (p. 25) and the use of subjunctives below.

The Subjunctive

The subjunctive expresses uncertainty or doubt. We distinguish the Present Subjunctive and the Past Subjunctive. The Present Subjunctive is the base of the verb used in all the persons (*I inform, you inform, he inform, she inform, ...; I be, you be, he be, ...*) and the Past Subjunctive is the past form of the verb, which is identical with the indicative form except the verb *be*, where the Past Subjunctive is *were* in all the persons (*I were, you were, he were, she were, ...*).

The Present Subjunctive is used

a) in that-clauses of the type

It is necessary that every member inform himself of those rules.

(But less formally: ***It is necessary that every member should inform himself ...***

It is necessary for every member to inform himself.)

It's vital that an agreement be reached.

b) in certain formulas:

Come what may, we will go ahead. (= Ať se stane cokoli, budeme pokračovat.)

God save the Queen!

Be that as it may ... (= Ať je to jak chce, ...)

So be it. (Budiž tomu tak. (= Amen.))

The Past Subjunctive is used

a) to express a wish than cannot be fulfilled at present:

I wish I were dead. (In less formal style: ***I wish I was dead.*** = Kéž bych tu nebyl.)

If only I were miles away. (= Kéž bych byl na hony odtud.)

Note: Only *were* is acceptable in *as it were* (*so to speak* – jakoby, tak říkajíc) and is usual in *if I were you* (kdybych byl(a) tebou).

b) to express hypothetical meaning in conditional and some other subordinate clauses:

If it were not for you, I'd never finish it. (= Kdyby nebylo tebe ...)

He spoke to me as if I were/was deaf. (= Mluvil se mnou, jako bych byla hluchá.)

Note: The Past Tense and the Past Perfect in clauses expressing the unreal condition (see p. 29) are in fact forms of the subjunctive that merged with the above two tenses. The only difference can be seen in the possibility of

1. using *were* in all the persons:

If he were/was late, he would be fined.

2. using the inversion instead of *if*:

Had he been in time, he wouldn't have been fined. (***If he had been in time, ...***)

VOICE

We distinguish the active and the passive voice of the verb. In the active, the subject of the verb is the person or thing doing the action:

John cooked the food last night.

In the passive, the action is done to the subject:

The food was cooked last night.

The formation of the passive

The passive of an active tense is formed by putting the verb *be* into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb:

<i>We keep the butter here.</i>	—	<i>The butter is kept here.</i>
<i>They broke the window.</i>	—	<i>The window was broken.</i>
<i>People have seen wolves in the streets.</i>	—	<i>Wolves have been seen in the streets.</i>

The passive of progressive tenses is mostly restricted to the Present and the Past Tense:

He is being interviewed now.

He was being interviewed at ten.

Verbs like *bring* and *give*, which can have two objects (*Tom gave me a pen*), can have two passive forms:

I was given a pen (by Tom).

A pen was given (to) me (by John).

The verbs followed by prepositional phrases, and the phrasal verbs can also be used in the passive:

This bed has not been slept in.

The cigarette has not been put out.

The Use of the Passive

The passive is used:

1. When the doer of the action is backgrounded because he is

a) obvious: *The streets are swept every day.*

b) unknown: *The minister was murdered.*

c) general: *He is suspected of receiving stolen goods.*

2. When we are more interested in the action than the person who does it:

The house next door has been bought.

3. When we try to avoid an awkward sentence:

When their mother was ill, neighbours looked after the children
would be better expressed

When their mother was ill, the children were looked after by neighbours.

4. When the passive is preferred for psychological reasons (e.g., to disclaim responsibility for disagreeable announcements):

Overtime rates are being reduced.

PHRASAL VERBS

One of the most common characteristics of the English verb is that it can combine with prepositions and adverb particles. These combinations are called phrasal verbs. Sometimes the combination is essential to the use of the verb (*We spent the afternoon listening to records*), sometimes it is not essential but reinforces the meaning (**Drink** your milk. – **Drink up** your milk! or **Drink** your milk **up**!).

Transitive and intransitive phrasal verbs

It is important to learn whether the combination is transitive (i.e. requires an object) or intransitive (i.e. cannot have an object):

look for is transitive:

I am looking for my transport.

look out is intransitive:

Look out! This ice isn't safe.

It is possible for a combination to have two or more different meanings, and to be transitive in one/some of these and intransitive in others:

take off (remove):

He took off his hat. (transitive)

take off (rise from the ground):

The plane took off at ten o'clock. (intransitive)

The Formation of Phrasal Verbs

The most common phrasal verbs are formed from the shortest and simplest verbs in the language: e.g. *be, break, bring, come, do, fall, find, get, give, go, help, let, make, put, send, stand, take, tear, throw, turn*, which combine with words that often indicate position or direction, such as *along, down, in, off, out, on, over, under, up*. Not only can a single verb like *put* combine with a large number of prepositions or particles to form new verbs (*put off, put out, put up with*), but even a single combination can have different meanings:

Put out your cigarette. (= extinguish)

I felt quite put out. (= annoyed)

We put out a request for volunteers. (= issued)

They are putting the programme out tomorrow. (= broadcast)

This stuff will put you out in no time. (= make you unconscious)

Martha's put out her hip again. (= dislocated)

We can distinguish four types of combinations with different characteristics:

1. verb + preposition (transitive): *get over* (*an illness*)
2. verb + particle (transitive): *bring up* (*the children*)
3. verb + particle (intransitive): *come about* (= happen)
4. verb + particle + preposition (transitive): *run out of* (*matches*)

The Use of Phrasal Verbs

There is a strong tendency (especially in informal, idiomatic English) to use phrasal verbs instead of their one-word equivalents. It would be very unusual, for instance, to say *Enter!* instead of *Come in!* in response to a knock at the door. Similarly, *blow up* may be preferred to *explode*, *give in* to *surrender*, etc. Moreover, new combinations (or new meanings for existing ones) are constantly evolving:

Share prices bottomed out (= reached their lowest level) *in 1974.*

The book took off (= became successful) *as soon as it appeared.*

The position of the object in transitive combinations

Noun objects are usually placed at the end of phrasal-verb expressions:

I am looking for my glasses.

With some expressions, however, they can be placed either at the end or immediately after the verb:

He took off his coat.

or

He took his coat off.

Pronoun objects are sometimes placed at the end

I am looking for them.,

but they are more often placed immediately after the verb:

He took it off.

This position is usual before the following short words: *up, down, in, out, away, off* and *on* (except when used in the expression *call on* = visit).

When phrasal-verb expressions are followed by a verb object, the *-ing* form of the verb is used:

He kept on blowing his trumpet.

Some expressions are followed by the *to*-infinitive:

The lecturer set out to show that most illnesses are avoidable.

The appropriate constructions connected with a particular phrasal verb can be found in the dictionary.

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NOUNS

NUMBER

GENDER

CASE

COUNTABILITY

NUMBER

The singular is that form of the noun which indicates either one object (*a book, a boy*) or an indivisible whole (*snow, friendship, foliage*). The plural is that form of the noun which denotes more than one object (*books, boys*). When nouns are used only in the plural, the form of the plural has collective meaning (*sweepings, belongings, tidings*) or indicates composite objects (*scissors, eye-glasses, trousers*).

Plurals

Regular plurals

1. The plural of a noun is formed by adding *-s* to the singular:

cat – cats, day – days, dog – dogs, tub – tubs

-s is pronounced in different ways:

[-s] after voiceless consonants other than sibilants:

caps, cliffs, hats, forks

[-z] after voiced consonants other than sibilants and after vowels:

arms, bags, bells, doors, eyes, lessons, verbs

Note that *-e* is not pronounced in the categories above when the plural ends in *-es*:

cakes, stones, tapes

[-iz] after sibilants: *bridges, horses, noses, pages*

2. Nouns ending in *-s, -ss, -x, -ch, -sh* or *-tch* form their plural by adding *-es*. Nouns ending in the following take an extra syllable pronounced [-iz]:

bus – buses, glass – glasses, box – boxes, bench – benches, brush – brushes, match – matches

Nouns ending in *-o* form their plural by adding *-es*:

echo – echoes, hero – heroes, tomato – tomatoes

But nouns of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in *-o* add *-s* only:

auto – autos
dynamo – dynamos
piano – pianos
soprano – sopranos
Eskimo – Eskimos

radio – radios
zoo – zoos
kilo – kilos (for kilograms)
photo – photos (for photographs)
Filipino – Filipinos

There are a few nouns ending in *-o* which form the plural both in *-s* and *-es*:

buffalo – *buffalos* or *buffaloes*
cargo – *cargos* or *cargoes*
commando – *commandos* or *commandoes*
volcano – *volcanos* or *volcanoes*

3. Nouns ending in *-y* following a consonant letter form their plural by dropping the *-y* and adding *-ie*:

baby – *babies*, *country* – *countries*, *fly* – *flies*, *lady* – *ladies*

Proper nouns ending in *-y* add *-s* in the plural:

Henry – *Henrys*, *Mary* – *Marys*, *Kennedy* – *the Kennedys*

If the final *-y* is preceded by a vowel letter the plural is formed by simply adding *-s* to the singular:

boy – *boys*, *day* – *days*, *guy* – *guys*, *key* – *keys*

Irregular plurals

1. Some nouns which in the singular end in the voiceless fricatives spelled *-th* and *-f* have voiced fricatives in the plural, followed by [z]. In one case the voiceless fricative is [s] and the plural has [-ziz]: *house* - *houses*.

a) Nouns in *-th*

There is no change in spelling. With a consonant before the *-th*, the plural is regular:

berth – *berths*, *birth* – *births*, *month* – *months*

With a vowel before the *-th*, the plural is again often regular, as with *cloth* – *cloths*, *death* – *deaths*, *myth* – *myths*, but in a few cases the plural has voicing *mouth*, *path*, and in several cases there are both regular and voiced plurals: *bath*, *oath*, *sheath*, *truth*, *wreath*, *youth*.

b) Nouns in *-f(e)*

Plurals with voicing are spelled *-ves*. Voiced plural only: *calf* – *calves*, *elf* – *elves*, *half* – *halves*, *knife* – *knives*, *leaf* – *leaves*, *life* – *lives*, *loaf* – *loaves*, *self* – *selves*, *sheaf* – *sheaves*, *shelf* – *shelves*, *thief* – *thieves*, *wife* – *wives*, *wolf* – *wolves*.

Regular plural only: *belief*, *chief*, *cliff*, *proof*, *roof*, *safe*

Both regular and voiced plurals: *dwarf* – *dwarfs* or *dwarves*, *hoof* – *hoofs* or *hooves*, *scarf* – *scarfs* or *scarves*, *wharf* – *wharfs* or *wharves*.

2. Mutation

Mutation involves a change of vowel in the following seven nouns: *foot* – *feet*, *goose* – *geese*, *louse* – *lice*, *man* – *men*, *mouse* – *mice*, *tooth* – *teeth*, *woman* – *women*.

Note:

With *woman* – *women* the pronunciation differs in both the first and the second syllable, while *postman* – *postmen*, *Englishman* – *Englishmen*, etc. have no difference in pronunciation at all between singular and plural.

3. The *-en* plural

This occurs in three nouns:

brother – *brethren* [breθrən] (= fellow members of a religious society); otherwise regular *brothers*

child – *children* (with vowel change [aɪ] → [ɪ])

ox – *oxen*

4. Zero plural

Some nouns have the same spoken and written form in both singular and plural. These include:

a) Names of certain animals, birds and fish especially when they are used in a hunting context: *deer*, *grouse*, *mackerel*, *plaice*, *salmon*, *sheep*, *trout*. Sportsmen who shoot *duck*, *partridge*, *pheasant*, etc. use the same form for singular and plural. But other people normally add *-s* for the plural: *ducks*, *partridges*, *pheasants*.

Where there are two plurals, the zero plural is the more common, e.g.:

We caught only a few fish,

whereas the regular plural is used to denote different individuals or species:

the fishes of the Mediterranean.

b) *craft* and *aircraft/ hovercraft/ spacecraft*:

The craft was sunk. All the craft were sunk.

c) Certain nouns describing nationalities, e.g.:

a Chinese – *the Chinese*, *a Vietnamese* – *the Vietnamese*

5. Foreign plurals

Some nouns borrowed from Greek and Latin have Greek and Latin plural endings:

basis – *bases*, *crisis* – *crises*, *criterion* – *criteria*, *phenomenon* – *phenomena*,

radius – *radii*, *terminus* – *termini*

But some follow the English rules:

album – *albums*, *dogma* – *dogmas*, *gymnasium* – *gymnasiums*

The tendency to use the foreign plural is still strong in the technical language of science, but in fiction and colloquial English there is an evident inclination to give to certain words the regular English plural forms in *-s*. Thus in some cases two plural forms are preserved:

formula – *formulae/ formulas*; *antenna* – *antennae/ antennas*

6. The usual plural of *person* is *people* (not *persons*).

Plurals with different meanings

The plurals of some nouns have two or more meanings, one similar to the singular meaning, the other different from it.

<i>colours</i>	—	1. <i>hues</i> 2. <i>regimental flags</i>
<i>compasses</i>	—	1. <i>instruments for navigation</i> 2. <i>instruments for drawing circles</i>
<i>draughts</i>	—	1. <i>a game</i> 2. <i>currents of air</i>
<i>grounds</i>	—	1. <i>land (usually enclosed) round a house</i> 2. <i>reasons ('grounds for complaint')</i> 3. <i>dregs ('coffee grounds')</i>
<i>spirits</i>	—	1. <i>souls</i> 2. <i>alcoholic liquors</i> 3. <i>mental or moral attitude</i>

Double plural forms

In some cases the two plurals have different meanings:

<i>index</i>	1. <i>indexes</i> (= tables of contents) 2. <i>indices</i> (= algebraical signs)
<i>die</i>	1. <i>dies</i> (= metal stamps for making money) 2. <i>dice</i> (= small cubes of bone or wood used in games of chance)
<i>cloth</i>	1. <i>cloths</i> (= different pieces or kinds of cloth) 2. <i>clothes</i> (= articles of dress)
<i>penny</i>	1. <i>pennies</i> (= separate coins) 2. <i>pence</i> (= collective value)

Plural of compound nouns

Compounds form the plural in different ways.

1. Plural in last element

boy friends, break-ins, travel agents, merry-go-rounds, forget-me-nots, assistant directors, spoonfuls, etc.

2. Plural in both first and last element

<i>gentleman farmer</i>	—	<i>gentlemen farmers</i>
<i>manservant</i>	—	<i>menservants</i>
<i>woman doctor</i>	—	<i>women doctors</i>
<i>woman driver</i>	—	<i>women drivers</i>

3. Plural in first element

<i>editor-in-chief</i>	—	<i>editors-in-chief</i>
<i>brother-in-law</i>	—	<i>brothers-in-law</i>
<i>looker-on</i>	—	<i>lookers-on</i>
<i>hanger-on</i>	—	<i>hangers-on</i>
<i>runner-up</i>	—	<i>runners-up</i>

Nouns with a plural form + singular verb

The following nouns, though plural in form, are followed by a verb in the singular, except where otherwise mentioned:

a) The noun *news* as in:

The news is bad today.

b) Some diseases: *measles, mumps, rickets, shingles*. Some speakers also accept a plural verb.
Mumps are (or is) fairly rare in adults.

c) Subject names in *-ics* (usually with singular verb): *linguistics, mathematics, phonetics, athletics*:

Mathematics is a compulsory subject at school. (the reference is to an academic subject)

But:

His mathematics are weak. (the reference is specific, the verb must be plural)

d) Some games: *billiards, bowls, darts, dominoes, draughts*:

Billiards is becomming more and more popular.

e) Some proper nouns: *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, Marseilles, Wales; the United Nations and the United States* have a singular verb when considered as units.

Athens has grown rapidly in the past decade.

f) Nouns *barracks, bellows, crossroads, gallows, gasworks, kennels, series, species* and *works* (= factory) can be regarded as a single unit (+ verb in the singular) or collective (+ verb in the plural):

This species of rose is very rare. (single unit)

There are thousands of species of butterflies. (more than one)

Nouns with a plural form + plural verb

Nouns with a plural form only (+ plural verb) are:

a) Names of garments consisting of two parts: *breeches, knickers, pants, pyjamas, shorts, trousers, etc.*

My trousers are torn.

b) Names of tools and instruments consisting of two parts: *binoculars, pliers, scissors, spectacles, glasses, scales, shears, tongs*. The word *pair* is generally used with these terms, e.g. *a pair of trousers, two pairs of scissors*

c) A few words which occur only in the plural and are followed by a plural verb: *belongings, clothes, congratulations, earnings, goods, greens* (= green vegetables), *oats, outshirts, pains (trouble, effort), remains, riches, stairs, surroundings, thanks, tropics, valuables*:

All my belongings are in this bag.

Collective noun + singular or plural verb

Some collective nouns such as *audience, class, club, committee, company, council, crowd, family, gang, government, group, jury, team* and *union* can take a singular or plural verb; singular if we consider the word to mean a single group or unit:

Our team is the best

or plural if we take it to mean a number of individuals:

Our team are wearing their new jerseys.

When a possessive pronoun is necessary, a plural verb with *their* is more usual than a singular verb with *its*, though sometimes both are possible:

The jury is considering its verdict.

The jury are considering their verdict.

Collective noun + plural verb

Certain collective nouns do not have plural forms, but they must be followed by a plural verb: *cattle, the clergy, gentry, the military, people, the police/vermin*:

The police have surrounded the building.

Some people are never satisfied.

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GENDER

English makes very few gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close, insofar as natural sex distinctions determine English gender distinctions (Quirk and Greenbaum 1977:89). Some pronouns are gender-sensitive (personal pronouns *he, she, it*; possessive adjectives *his, her* and *its*; and relative pronouns *who* and *which*).

Masculine: *men, boys* and *male animals* (pronoun *he/they*)

Feminine: *women, girls* and *female animals* (pronoun *she/they*)

Neuter: inanimate things, animals whose sex we don't know (pronoun *it/they*)

Masculine/feminine nouns denoting people

Generally, when there is no wish to make a distinction of sex, the masculine form is used. In other cases, however, a separate form will be used for the female. This form is of two types.

Type 1. is morphologically marked for gender; it is formed by changing the ending of the masculine noun with the suffix *-ess* (sometimes with other slight changes):

<i>actor</i>	—	<i>actress</i>
<i>author</i>	—	<i>authoress</i>
<i>prince</i>	—	<i>princess</i>
<i>steward</i>	—	<i>stewardess</i>

Type 2. is morphologically unmarked for gender; the feminine form may be a different word:

<i>bachelor</i>	—	<i>spinster</i>
<i>boy</i>	—	<i>girl</i>
<i>gentleman</i>	—	<i>lady</i>
<i>monk</i>	—	<i>nun</i>
<i>sir</i>	—	<i>madam</i>
<i>uncle</i>	—	<i>aunt</i>

This distinction is becoming rarer so that words like *author*, *instructor* and *manager* are now commonly used for both sexes. Some words, such as *poetess*, *authoress*, are falling into disuse because they are considered disparaging by both sexes. There are a number of 'foreign feminines':

<i>czar</i>	—	<i>czarina</i>
<i>beau</i>	—	<i>belle</i>
<i>don</i>	—	<i>donna</i>
<i>Sultan</i>	—	<i>Sultana</i>

Common gender

This is a large class including nouns which may be applied to both males and females. For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a 'gender marker':

<i>boy friend</i>	—	<i>girl friend</i>
<i>manservant</i>	—	<i>maidservant</i>
<i>man student</i>	—	<i>woman student</i>

With many nouns we don't know whether the person referred to is male or female until we hear the pronoun:

My doctor says she is pleased with my progress.

This applies to nouns such as *adult*, *artist*, *comrade*, *cook*, *cousin*, *darling*, *dear*, *doctor*, *enemy*, *foreigner*, *friend*, *quest*, *journalist*, *musician*, *neighbour*, *owner*, *parent*, *passenger*, *person*, *pupil*, *relative*, *scientist*, *singer*, *speaker*, *stranger*, *student*, *teacher*, *tourist*, *traveller*, *visitor*, *writer*.

With regard to words of common gender, it is interesting to note that occasionally for living beings we have three words, one masculine, one feminine and one common gender, e.g.

<i>boy</i>	—	<i>girl</i>	—	<i>child</i>
<i>son</i>	—	<i>daughter</i>	—	<i>child</i>
<i>father</i>	—	<i>mother</i>	—	<i>parent</i>
<i>king</i>	—	<i>queen</i>	—	<i>monarch, ruler</i>
<i>boar</i>	—	<i>sow</i>	—	<i>pig</i>
<i>cock</i>	—	<i>hen</i>	—	<i>bird, fowl</i>

Gender of nouns denoting animals

All nouns denoting animals (birds, fishes, insects, reptiles) may be considered neuter (referred to as *it*). In spoken language, however, there is a tendency to associate the names of animals with the feminine or masculine gender:

1. When the noun indicates the sex of the animal it is generally spoken of as *he* or *she*:

<i>lion</i>	—	<i>lioness</i>
<i>tiger</i>	—	<i>tigress</i>
<i>bull</i>	—	<i>cow</i>

Sometimes *he-/she-* (stressed) is used as a prefix in e.g.:

<i>he-bear</i>	—	<i>she-bear</i>
<i>he-goat</i>	—	<i>she-goat</i>
<i>he-wolf</i>	—	<i>she-wolf</i>

Sometimes proper nouns are used with the names of animals to show the sex:

<i>billy-goat</i>	—	<i>nanny-goat</i>
<i>jack-ass</i>	—	<i>jenny-ass</i>
<i>tom-cat</i>	—	<i>pussy-cat</i>

2. When the sex of the animal is not indicated by the noun, nouns denoting the larger and stronger animals are generally associated with the masculine gender, nouns denoting the smaller and weaker with the feminine:

Masculine: *elephant, dog, eagle*

Feminine: *cat, hare, parrot*

The elephant lifted his mighty trunk.

The cat has upset her milk.

But: *canary - he, fly - he*

Gender of nouns denoting inanimate things and abstract notions (personification)

Sometimes inanimate things and abstract notions are personified and the nouns denoting them are referred to as belonging to the masculine or feminine gender. Here are some traditional associations:

1. The nouns *moon* and *earth* are referred to as feminine, *sun* as masculine:

The earth awoke from her winter sleep.

People need to rise early to see the sun in all his splendour, for his brightness seldom lasts the day through.

2. *Ships and cars* and other vehicles when regarded with affection or respect are considered feminine.

The ship struck an iceberg, which tore a huge hole in her side.

3. When abstract notions are personified, the masculine gender is given to nouns suggesting such ideas as strength, fierceness, etc. while the feminine is associated with the idea of gentleness, beauty, etc.

Masculine: *anger, death, fear, war*

Feminine: *spring, peace, kindness, dawn*

4. Names of countries have different gender depending on their use.

a) As geographical units they are treated as 'inanimate':

Looking at the map we see France here. It is one of the largest countries of Europe.

b) As political/economic units the names of countries are often feminine:

England is proud of her poets.

c) In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns:

France have improved their chance of winning the cup.

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CASE

The Genitive/Possessive

The only ‘case-form’ for nouns that exists in English is the genitive, sometimes called the possessive case. The *-es* genitive ending of some classes of nouns in old English has survived in the modern language as ‘*s*’ (apostrophe *s*) for some nouns in the singular and *s’* (*s* apostrophe) for some nouns in the plural, but with limited uses.

The possessive form of the noun is formed as follows:

1. ‘*s*’ is used with singular nouns, and plural nouns not ending in *-s*:

<i>an actress’s career</i>	<i>men’s work</i>
<i>the dog’s kennel</i>	<i>Russia’s exports</i>
<i>a child’s dream</i>	<i>women’s clothes</i>
<i>children’s games</i>	<i>a waitress’s job</i>
<i>a man’s job</i>	

If two names are joined by *and*, we add ‘*s*’ to the second:

John and Mary’s bank balance
Scott and Amundsen’s race

2. A simple apostrophe (‘) is used with plural nouns ending in *-s*:

<i>boys’ school</i>	<i>the Smiths’ car</i>
<i>the students’ hostel</i>	<i>the eagles’ nest</i>
<i>girls’ school</i>	<i>the soldiers’ horses</i>

3. a) Classical names ending in *s* usually add only the apostrophe:

Archimedes’ Law, Pythagoras’ Theorem, Sophocles’ plays

- b) Only the apostrophe is used with fixed expressions of the form *for ... sake* as in

for goodness’ sake
for conscience’ sake

4. Other names ending in *-s* can take ‘*s*’ or the apostrophe alone:

<i>Charles’s address</i>	or	<i>Charles’ address</i>
<i>Mr Jones’s house</i>	or	<i>Mr Jones’ house</i>
<i>Doris’s party</i>	or	<i>Doris’ party</i>

No matter how we write the genitive in such cases, we normally pronounce it as [-iz]. With some (especially famous) names ending in *-s* we normally add an apostrophe after the *-s* (pronounced [-s] or [-iz]): *Keats’ works*. We can show possession in the plural forms of names ending in *-s* by adding an apostrophe at the end: *the Joneses’ houses*.

When the ‘possessor’ is represented by a compound noun, the possessive ending is added at the end:

brother-in-law’s face
father-in-law’s house

The rule also applies to titles, as in:

Henry the Eighth’s marriages
the Secretary of State’s visit

Two genitives are also possible, as in:

My brother's neighbour's sister is a nurse.

The pronunciation of 's and s'

The pronunciation of 's and s' depends on the sound that precedes them, and follows the same rules as for plural nouns:

[-s]: *Jack's job; a month's salary; Pat's handbag*

[-z]: *Ben's opinion; Bob's house; the workers' club*

[-iz]: *an actress's career; the boss's office; Mrs Page's jam*

The use of the possessive form with living things

We may use 's or s' after:

Personal names: *Jones's car; John's friend*

Personal nouns: *the doctor's surgery; man's future*

Indefinite pronouns: *anyone's guess; someone's responsibility*

Collective nouns: *the army's advance; the committee's decision*

'Higher animals': *the horse's stable*

Some 'lower animals': *an ant's nest; a bee's sting*

The use of the possessive form with non-living things

We may use 's/s' or the of construction with the following:

Geographical reference: *America's policy; Hong Kong's future*

Institutional reference: *the European Union's exports*

's or s' are normally used with the following:

Churches and cathedrals: *St Paul's Church; St Stephen's Cathedral*

Time references: *a day's work; an hour's delay; today's TV; a year's absence; a week or two's time; two days' journey*

'Money's worth': *twenty dollars' worth of gasoline; a shilling's worth*

Fixed expressions: *(keep someone) at arm's length; (be) at death's door; the earth's surface; for goodness' sake; (to) one's heart's content; journey's end; the water's edge; a stone's throw*

An 's is sometimes used with reference to cars, planes and ships: *the car's exhaust, the plane's engines, the ship's propeller*

Omission of the noun after 's and s'

The 's/s' construction can be used on its own when we refer to:

a) where someone lives:

I'm staying at my aunt's.

I'm a guest at the Watsons'.

b) shops and businesses: e.g. *the butcher's*

Would you mind going to the chemist's for me?

c) medical practitioners: e.g. *the dentist's, the doctor's*

I've got an appointment at the dentist's.

When we refer to well-known restaurants by the name of the owner or founder (e.g. *Langan's, Scott's*) 's is included. Churches and colleges (often named after saints) are frequently referred to in the same way, always with 's:

They were married in St Bartholomew's.

The use of the ‘of-construction’

We normally use the *of*-construction when referring to:

- a) Things: *the look of the film; the shade of a tree*
- b) Parts of things: *the bottom/top/side/inside of the box*
- c) Abstract reference: *the cost of living; the price of success*

We also use this construction when the noun in the *of*-phrase is modified by an additional phrase or clause:

Can’t you look at the book of the boy behind you?

The *of*-construction cannot be used with ‘classifying genitives’, i.e. genitives that are completely adjectival: *He has a doctor’s degree.*

It was a summer’s day.

The double genitive

An *of*-genitive can be combined with an *-s* genitive in a construction called the ‘double genitive’. The noun with the *-s* genitive inflection must be both definite and personal:

- a friend of my father’s* (= one of my father’s friends)
- a play of Shakespeare’s* (= one of Shakespeare’s plays)
- a criticism of Shaw’s* (= opinions by Shaw)
- an opera of Verdi’s*

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COUNTABILITY

Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are the names of separate objects, people , etc. which we can count.

If a noun is countable:

- a) We can use *a/an* in front of it: *a book, an envelope*
- b) It has a plural and can be used in the question *How many?*
How many stamps/envelopes? – Four stamps/envelopes
- c) We can use numbers: *one stamp, two stamps*

Uncountable Nouns (also known as non-count nouns or mass nouns)

Uncountable nouns are the names of things which we do not see as separate, and which we cannot count.

If a noun is uncountable

- a) We do not normally use *a/an* in front of it:
Sugar is expensive.
- b) It does not normally have a plural and it can be used in the question *How much?*
How much meat/oil? – A lot of meat/a little oil
- c) We cannot normally use a number (*one, two*) in front of it.

Uncountable nouns are:

abstract nouns: *beauty, courage, death, help, hope, horror, knowledge, pity*

names of materials: *beer, coffee, glass, stone, water, wine, wood*

some collective nouns: *furniture, jewelry, hair, money*

These nouns are often preceded by *some, any, no, little, a little*, etc. or by nouns such as *bit, item, piece, slice, etc. + of*:

<i>little water</i>	<i>a little water</i>
<i>a bit of news</i>	<i>a cake of soap</i>
<i>a drop of oil</i>	<i>a grain of sand</i>
<i>a pane of glass</i>	<i>a piece of advice</i>
<i>a pot of jam</i>	<i>a sheet of paper</i>

Sometimes material nouns and abstract nouns are used in the plural with emphatic force

<i>sand</i>	<i>the sands of the Sahara</i>
<i>water</i>	<i>the waters of the Black sea</i>

Some uncountable nouns are used in the plural, when they denote particular varieties.

This region produces some awful wines as well as good ones.
I go out in all weathers.

Some uncountable nouns in the plural change their meaning:

<i>damage</i> (škoda)	<i>damages</i> (odškodně)
<i>good</i> (dobro)	<i>goods</i> (zboží)
<i>force</i> (síla)	<i>forces</i> (ozbrojené síly)
<i>honour</i> (čest)	<i>honours</i> (vyznamenání)

Some of these nouns, e.g. *glass, paper, stone, etc.* can be ‘countable’ in one context and, with a different meaning, ‘uncountable’ in another.

When we use such nouns as countables, we refer to a thing which is made of the material or which we think of as being made of the material; when we use them as uncountables, we refer only to the material.

countable (‘thing’) uncountable (‘material’)

I broke a glass this morning. *Glass is made from sand.*
Would you like an ice? *Ice floats.*
I've got a new iron. *Steel is an alloy of iron.*
What do the papers say? *Paper is made from wood.*

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ARTICLES

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE 'A/AN'

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE 'THE'

THE ZERO ARTICLE

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE 'A/AN'

To classify or identify something, we can say:

It's a book. (a/an + singular noun)

The plural of this is:

They're books. (zero + plural noun)

To refer to quantity, we can say:

I've got a book. (a/an + singular noun)

In the plural, when the exact number is not important, we can use quantifiers like *some*, *a few*, *a lot of*. *Some/any* are the commonest of these and can be said to be the plural of *a/an* when we are referring to unspecified number:

I've got some books. (some + plural noun)

The pronunciation of 'a' and 'an'

A (pronounced [ə] in fluent speech) is used before consonant sounds (not just consonant letters); *an* [ən] is used before vowel sounds (not just words beginning with the vowel letters *a, e, i, o, u*).

This can be seen when we use *a* or *an* with the alphabet:

(This is) ***a*** *B, C, D, G, J, K, P, Q, T, U, V, W, Y, Z.*

(This is) ***an*** *A, E, F, H, I, L, M, N, O, R, S, X.*

Compare:	<i>a fire</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an F</i>
	<i>a house</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an H</i>
	<i>a sound</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an S</i>
	<i>an umbrella</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>a uniform</i>
	<i>a year, a university</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an understudy</i>
	<i>a hall</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an hour (h not pronounced)</i>
	<i>a hot dinner</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>an honour</i>

Some common abbreviations (depending in their first letter) are preceded by *a* or by *an*:

a B.A. (a Bachelor of Arts), ***an I.Q.*** (an Intelligence Quotient)

The pronunciation [eɪ] instead of [ə] for *a* is often used when we are speaking with special emphasis, with or without a pause:

He still refers to his record-player as 'a [eɪ] gramophone'.

Basic uses of 'a/an'

There is no difference in meaning between *a* and *an*. When using *a/an* we must always bear in mind two basic facts:

1. *A/an* has an indefinite meaning, (i.e. the person, animal or thing referred to may be not known to the listener or reader, so *a/an* has the sense of *any* or *I can't/won't tell you which*, or *it doesn't matter which*).
2. *A/an* can combine only with a singular countable noun.

These two facts underlie all uses of *a/an*.

Classification: 'a/an' to mean 'an example of that class'

When we say *a rose is a flower*, we mean that *a rose* is an example of a class of items we call *flowers*. We use *a/an* in this way when we wish to classify people, animals or things. We can classify them in two ways:

1. By means of general statements: General statements with *a/an* often take the form of definitions:

A cat is a domestic animal. (*Cats are domestic animals.*)

Many uncountable nouns can be used after *a/an* when we are referring to 'an example of that class'

This is a very good coffee. Is it Brazilian?

2. By means of labels (*a/an* + noun after the verb *be*):

We often wish to classify people in terms of the work they do, where they come from, etc.

He's a Frenchman/an American.

She's a doctor./He's an electrician.

She's a Catholic./He's an Anglican.

He's a Socialist/a Republican.

You're an angel/a saint/a wonder.

You're a good girl/a real angel.

The plurals would be:

They're Frenchmen/doctors, etc.

The 'labels' of things can render the meaning 'a kind of':

It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) rose/beetle/bottle-opener.

The uses of 'a/an'

1. to classify people, etc.

We can use *He's/it's a + name* for 'tangible examples':

He's a Forsyte.

It's a Picasso.

Other examples are:

a Brecht play

a Shakespeare sonnet

2 to refer to ‘a certain person’

A/an can be used before titles (*Mr, Mrs, Miss*, etc.) with the sense of ‘a certain person whom I don’t know’:

A Mr. Wingate phoned and left a message for you.

A Mrs Tadley is waiting to see you.

The phrase *a certain*, to refer to people whose identity is not yet known, is common in fables and folk stories:

Many years ago a certain merchant arrived in Baghdad.

3. to mean ‘only/just one’

The most common use of *a/an* is in the sense of ‘only/just one’ when we are not specifying any particular person or thing:

I’d like an apple (i.e. only one; it doesn’t matter which)

When we express this in the plural, we use *some* or *any*:

I’d like some apples./I don’t want any apples.

4. to introduce an item ‘on the scene’

A/an is used before a countable noun mentioned for the first time:

I looked up and saw a plane. (mentioned for the first time)

but (the continuation may be):

The plane flew low over the trees.

The difference between ‘a/an’ and ‘one’

One and *a/an* cannot normally be used interchangeably. We use *one* when we are counting (*one apple*, as opposed to two or three):

It was one coffee we ordered, not two.

But we could not use *one* to mean ‘any one’ (not specified):

A knife is no good. You need a screwdriver to do the job properly.

One is often used with *day, morning*, etc. in story-telling:

One day, many years later, I found out what had really happened.

A/an and *one* can be used interchangeably when we refer to:

Whole numbers: *a* (or *one*) *hundred, thousand, million, etc.*

Fractions: *a* (or *one*) *quarter, third, half, etc.*

Money: *a* (or *one*) *pound/dollar, etc.* We say: ‘*One pound 50*’

Weight/measure: *a* (or *one*) *pound/kilo, foot/metre, etc.*

Note: *A/an* is used when we refer to one unit of measurement in relation to another. If we want to emphasize ‘each’, we use *per* instead of *a/an*:

80 p a/per kilo

40 km an/per hour

30 miles a/per gallon

twice a/per day

The use of 'a/an' after 'what' and 'such'

A/an is used with countable nouns after *What* in exclamations:

What a surprise! What an interesting story!

A/an is used after *such* when we wish to emphasize degree:

That child is such a pest!

My boss is such an idiot!

What a lot...! is used for exclamations:

What a lot of flowers! What a lot of trouble!

The use of 'a/an' with pairs of nouns

Many nouns are 'paired', that is they are considered to accompany each other naturally, and *a/an* is used before the first noun of a pair: *a cup and saucer, a hat and coat, a knife and fork*:

It's cold outside. Take a hat and coat with you.

The use of 'a/an' (or zero) with reference to illnesses

The use of the indefinite and zero articles with illnesses can be defined in four categories:

1. Expressions where the use of the indefinite article is compulsory: e.g. *a cold, a headache, a sore throat*:

I've got a headache/a cold.

2. Expressions where the use of the indefinite article is optional: e.g. *catch (a) cold, have (a) backache/stomach-ache/toothache, (an) earache*:

I've had (a) toothache all night.

3. With illnesses which are plural in form (e.g. *measles, mumps, shingles*) no article is used:

My children are in bed with mumps.

4. With illnesses which are defined as 'uncountable' (e.g. *flu, gout, hepatitis*, etc.) no article is used:

I was in bed with flu for ten days.

The will also combine with e.g. *flu, measles* and *mumps*:

He's got the flu/the measles/the mumps.

The use of 'a/an' in a number of phrases

to be in a hurry

to be in a position

to be in a temper

to have a chance/opportunity to

to have a fancy for

to have a mind to

to take a dislike to

to take an interest

to take a pride in

at a discount/premium

on an average

a short time ago etc.

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THE DEFINITE ARTICLE 'THE'

The pronunciation of 'the'

The is pronounced [ðə] before consonant sounds: *the day, the key, the house, the way*.

The is pronounced [ðɪ] before vowel sounds (i.e. words normally preceded by *an*): *the end, the hour, the inside, the outside, the ear, the eye, the umbrella*.

When we wish to draw attention to the noun that follows, we use the pronunciation [ði:] (= 'the one and only' or 'the main one'):

Do you mean the Richard Burton, the actor?

If you get into difficulties, Monica is the person to ask.

Mykonos has become the place for holidays in the Aegean.

Some common abbreviations are preceded by *the*:

the [ðə] BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation)

the [ðɪ] EU (the European Union)

Basic uses of 'the'

When using *the*, we must always bear in mind two basic facts:

1. *The* normally has a definite reference (i.e. the person or thing referred to is assumed to be known to the speaker or reader).
2. *The* combines with singular countable, plural countable, and uncountable nouns (which are always singular).

These two facts underlie all uses of *the*.

The use of 'the' for classifying

The + singular is used to make a general statement:

The cobra is dangerous. (a certain class of snakes as distinct from other classes, such as the grass snake)

Note: The other two ways of making general statements are the following: Zero + plural:

Cobras are dangerous. (= the whole class, i.e. all the creatures with the characteristics of snakes called cobras)

A/an + singular:

A cobra is a very poisonous snake. (a cobra as an example of a class of reptile known as snake)

The group as a whole: *the* + nationality adjective

Some nationality adjectives, particularly those ending in *-ch*, *-sh* and *-ese* are used after *the* when we wish to refer to 'the group as a whole': e.g.

The British (= The British people in general)

Plural nationality nouns can be used with *the* or zero article to refer to the group as a whole: *the Americans* or *Americans*; or with numbers or quantifiers like *some* and *many* to refer to individuals: *two Americans, some Americans*:

The British and the Americans have been allies for a long time.

The Japanese admire the traditions of **the Chinese**.

The group as a whole: 'the' + plural names

The + plural name can refer to 'the group as a whole':

Families: *The Price sisters have opened a boutique.*

'Races': *The Europeans are a long way from political unity.*

Politics: *The Liberals want electoral reform.*

Names beginning with *the* are given to particular groups to emphasize their identity: e.g. *the Beatles, the Jesuits.*

Specified groups: 'the' + collective noun or plural countable

This new increase in fares won't please the public.

Getting the unions and the bosses to agree isn't easy.

The use of 'the' for specifying

When we use *the*, the listener or reader can already identify what we are referring to, therefore *the* shows that the noun has been specified by the context/situation or grammatically. For example:

Singleton is a quiet village near Chichester. The village has a population of a few hundred people.

The life of Napoleon was very stormy.

The letters on the shelf are for you.

The use of 'the' in time expressions

1. in time sequences e.g. *the beginning, the middle, the end; the first/last; the following day; the present, the past, the future:*

In the past, people had fewer expectations.

2. with parts of the day e.g. *in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, etc.:*

We spent the day at home. In the evening, we went out.

Note that though many time references require *the*, many do not: e.g. *next week, on Tuesday, last year* (for details see chapter Prepositions pp. 104).

3. with the seasons (*the) spring/summer/autumn/winter, the* is optional:

We get a good crop of apples in (the) autumn.

4. in dates

Ordinal numbers usually require *the* when they are spoken, but not when they are written:

I'll see you on May 24th. (spoken as *May the 24th*)

On a letter: **24(th) May** (spoken as *the 24th of May*)

5. in fixed time expressions: *all the while, at the moment, for the time being, in the end, etc.:*

I'm afraid Mr Jay can't speak to you at the moment.

The use of 'the' with unique items other than place names

We often use *the* with 'unique items' (i.e. where there is only one of a kind).

- Institutions and organizations: *the Boy Scouts, the United Nations*
- Historical events: *the French Revolution, the Victorian age*
- Ships: *the Canberra, the Discovery, the Titanic*
- Documents and official titles: *the Great Charter, the Queen*
- Political parties: *the Conservative Party, the Labour Party*
- Public bodies: *the Army, the Government, the Police*
- The press (*The* is part of the title): *The Economist, The New Yorker, The Spectator, The Times*
 - Note: *the press, the radio, the television*
 - Compare: *What's on (the) television? What's on TV?*
 - Items with zero: *Life, Newsweek, Punch, Time*
- Titles (books, films, etc.: *The* is part of the title): *The Odyssey, The Graduate*
 - Items with zero: *Exiles, Jaws*
- Supernatural beings: *the angels, the Furies, the gods, the saints*
 - Compare: *God, Muhammed, etc.* (proper nouns)
- Climate etc.: *the climate, the temperature, the weather*
- Species: *the dinosaurs, the human race, the reptiles*
 - Compare: *Man developed earlier than people think.*

Other references with 'the'

Superlatives: *It's the worst play I've ever seen.*

Musical instruments: *Tom plays the piano/the flute/the violin.*

The is often omitted in references to jazz and rock:

This is a 1979 recording with Ellison on bass guitar.

Constructions with *the...the*: *the sooner the better.*

Fixed expressions: *do the shopping, make the beds.*

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THE ZERO ARTICLE

Basic uses of the zero article

We use the zero article before three types of nouns:

1. Plural countable nouns: e.g. *beans*.
2. Uncountable nouns (always singular): e.g. *water*.
3. Proper nouns: e.g. *John*.

Note: *The* can occur in front of plural countables and (singular) uncountables to refer to specific items:

The pens I gave you were free samples.

The water we drank last night had a lot of chlorine in it.

The can even occur in front of proper nouns if they are further specified:

The Chicago of the 1920s was a terrifying place.

Compare: ***Chicago*** is a well-run city today.

The class as a whole: zero article + countable/uncountable

Zero article + plural countable nouns:

- People: ***Women*** are fighting for their rights.
- Places: ***Museums*** are closed on Mondays.
- Food: ***Beans*** contain a lot fibre.
- Occupations: ***Doctors*** always support each other.
- Nationalities: ***Italians*** make delicious ice-cream.
- Animals: ***Cats*** do not like cold weather.
- Insects: ***Ants*** are found in all parts of the world.
- Products: ***Watches*** have become very accurate.

These can be modified by adjectives and other phrases: e.g. *women all over the world, local museums, broad beans, quartz watches*.

Zero article + uncountable nouns (always singular):

- Food: ***Refined foods*** like ***sugar*** should be avoided.
- Drink: ***Water*** must be pure if it is to be drunk.
- Substances: ***Oil*** is essential for the manufacture of ***plastic***.
- Collections: ***Money*** makes the world go round.
- Colours: ***Red*** is my favourite colour.
- Activities (-ing): ***Smoking*** is bad for the health.
- Other activities: ***Business*** has been improving steadily this year.
- Sports, games: ***Football*** is played all over the world.
- Abstract nouns: ***Life*** is short; ***art*** is long.
- Politics: ***Capitalism*** is a by-product of free enterprise.
- Philosophy: ***Determinism*** denies the existence of free will.
- Languages: ***English*** is a world language.

These can be modified by adjectives and other phrases: e.g. *purified water, oil from the North Sea, heavy smoking*.

Unique items: zero article + proper nouns

Zero article + names of people:

Helen is my mother's name.

*These tools are made by ***Jackson and Son***.*

Elizabeth Brown works for this company.

J. Somers is the pseudonym of a famous author.

Zero article + titles (*Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms, Dr*):

Mr and *Mrs* are always followed by a surname or first name + surname (not just a first name!)

Mr and Mrs Jackson are here to see you.

Miss is also followed by a surname:

Miss Jackson

Dr is usually followed by a surname and is abbreviated in writing:

This is Dr Brown.

Some other titles can be used with surnames or on their own: *Captain, Colonel, Major, Professor.*

May I introduce you to Captain/Colonel/Major Rogers?

Yes, Captain/Colonel/Major!

Headmaster and *Matron* are not used with a name after them:

Thank you, Headmaster.

Yes, Matron.

Madam and *Sir* are used in BrE as a form of address (e.g. by shop-assistants):

Can I help you, Madam/Sir?

In formal letter-writing we use *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam* as salutations to address people whose names we do not know.

Typical uses of the zero article

The zero article is used with:

1. academic subjects and related topics: e.g. *Art, Biology, Chemistry, Geography, History, Physics*, etc.

According to Henry Ford, 'History is bunk'.

English is a difficult language to learn well.

Adjectival combinations: e.g. *Renaissance Art, American History.*

2. names representing an artist's work

The names of artists can represent their work as a whole: e.g. *Brahms, Keats, Leonardo, Lorca, Rembrandt.*

Bach gives me a lot of pleasure. (i.e. Bach's music)

Chaucer is very entertaining. (i.e. Chaucer's writing)

Adjectival combinations: *early Beethoven, late Schubert*, etc.

3. days, months, seasons and holidays

Mondays are always difficult. Monday is always a difficult day.

June is my favourite month. Spring is a lovely season.

Christmas is the time for family reunions.

4. times of the day and night

Combinations are common with *at, by, after* and *before*: *at dawn/daybreak, at sunrise/sunset/noon/midnight/dusk/night, by day/night, before morning, at/by/before/after 4 o'clock:*

We got up at dawn to climb to the summit.

5. meals

breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, supper:

Dinner is served. Michael's at lunch. Let's have breakfast.

The zero article is used after *have*, but note the use of *the* where a meal is specified:

The breakfast I ordered still hasn't arrived.

and the use of *a* when classifying:

That was a very nice dinner.

6. nouns like 'school', 'hospital', etc.

The following nouns are used with the zero article when we refer to their 'primary purpose', that is the activity associated with them: e.g. *He's in bed* (for the purpose of sleeping): *bed, church, class, college, court, hospital, market, prison, school, sea, town, university, work*. They frequently combine with *be in/at, have been/gone to*:

He was sent to prison for four years.

The children went to school early this morning.

But note the use of *the* when the item is specified:

Your bag is under the bed.

There's a meeting at the school at 6.

Words such as *cathedral, factory, mosque, office*, etc. are always used with *a* or *the*.

7. transport

by air, by bicycle, by bike, by boat, by bus, by car, by coach, by land, by plane, by sea, by ship, by train, by tube, on foot:

We travelled all over Europe by bus.

By + noun is used in fixed expressions of this kind, but not where the means of transport is specified:

I came here on the local bus.

You won't go far on that old bike.

8. 'pairs' joined by 'and'

e.g. *day and night, father and son, husband and wife, light and dark, young and old, pen and ink, sun and moon:*

This business has been run by father and son for 20 years.

9. unspecified quantity

Sometimes we do not use *some* or *any* to refer to indefinite number or amount:

I have presents for the children. I have news for you.

Are there presents for me too? Is there news for me too?

10. fixed phrases

e.g. *arm in arm, come to light, face to face, from top to bottom, hand in hand, keep in mind, make friends, make fun of.*

11. 'what' and 'such' in exclamations

The noun is stressed after *What*; *such* is stressed before the noun:

'What'/'such' + plural countable:

What fools they are!

We had such problems getting through Customs!

‘What’/‘such’ + (singular) uncountable:

What freedom young people enjoy nowadays!

Young people enjoy **such freedom** nowadays!

12. place names (zero article or ‘the’)

Most place names are used with zero, but there is some variation. In particular, *the* is used when a countable noun like one of the following appears in the title: *bay, canal, channel, gulf, kingdom, ocean, republic, river, sea, strait, union*. *The* is often omitted on maps.

	zero	the
Continents	<i>Africa, Asia, Europe</i>	—
Geographical areas	<i>Central Asia, Inner London, Lower Egypt, Outer Mongolia, Upper Austria</i>	<i>the Arctic, the Balkans, the Equator, the Middle East, the North Pole, the West</i>
Historical references	<i>Ancient Greece, Renaissance, pre-war/post-war Germany, Roman Britain</i>	<i>the Dark Ages, the Medieval Europe, the Stone Age</i>
Lakes	<i>Lake Constance, Lake Erie, Lake Geneva</i>	—
Oceans, seas, rivers	—	<i>the Pacific (Ocean), the Caspian (Sea), the Nile (or the River Nile), the Mississippi (or the Mississippi River), the Suez Canal</i>
Mountains	<i>Everest, Mont Blanc</i>	<i>the Jungfrau, the Matterhorn</i>
Mountain ranges	—	<i>the Alps, the Himalayas</i>
Islands	<i>Christmas Island, Delos, Easter Island</i>	<i>the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</i>
Groups of islands	—	<i>the Azores, the Bahamas</i>
Deserts	—	<i>the Gobi (Desert), the Kalahari (Desert), the Sahara (Desert)</i>
Countries	Most countries: <i>Finland, Germany, Turkey</i> etc.	Unions and associations: <i>the ARE (the Arab Republic of Egypt), the UK (the United Kingdom), the USA (the United States of America)</i> A few countries: <i>the Argentine (or Argentina), (the) Sudan, the Netherlands, the Philippines, (the) Yemen</i> <i>the Vatican</i> <i>the City (of London), The Hague</i> <i>the University of Cambridge</i> <i>the High Street, the Strand, The Drive</i> Note: <i>the London road</i> (= the road that leads to London)
States	Most states: <i>Bavaria, Ohio, Surrey</i>	—
Cities	Most cities: <i>Denver, London, Lyons</i>	<i>25 The Drive, 74 The Crescent</i>
Universities	<i>Cambridge University</i>	<i>the British Museum, the Library of Congress</i>
Streets etc.	Most streets: <i>London Road, Madison Avenue, Oxford Street, Piccadilly Circus</i>	
Parks	<i>Central Park, Hyde Park</i>	<i>The Golden Gate Bridge</i>
Addresses	<i>49 Albert Place, 3 West Street, 2 Gordon Square</i>	<i>The Gaumont, The Odeon</i>
Buildings	<i>Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey</i>	<i>The London Hospital</i>
Other locations		<i>The Hilton (Hotel)</i>
Bridges	<i>London Bridge</i>	<i>The Everglades, The Underworld</i>
Cinemas	—	<i>The White Horse</i>
Hospitals	<i>Guy's (Hospital)</i>	<i>The Café Royal</i>
Hotels	<i>Brown's Hotel</i>	<i>The Scotch House</i>
'Places'	<i>Death Valley, Heaven, Hades</i>	—
Pubs	—	<i>The Phoenix (Theatre), The Coliseum (Theatre)</i>
Restaurants	<i>Leoni's (Restaurant)</i>	
Shops	<i>Selfridges, Marks and Spencers</i>	
Stations	<i>Victoria (Station), Waterloo (Station)</i>	
Theatres	<i>Her Majesty's (Theatre), Sadler's Wells (Theatre)</i>	

(After Alexander, L.G.: *Longman English Grammar*, pp.55-71)

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PRONOUNS

CHARACTERISTICS OF PRONOUNS

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CHARACTERISTICS OF PRONOUNS

As their name implies, pronouns ‘replace’ nouns, or rather whole noun phrases, since they cannot generally occur with determiners such as the definite article or premodification. According to Quirk et al. (1976:204), the main differences between pronouns and nouns are the following:

1. Pronouns constitute a closed system, whereas nouns form an open class. (For the ‘closed system’ vs. ‘open class’ distinction, see p. 7.)
2. Many pronouns have certain morphological characteristics that nouns do not have:
 - a) Case-contrast for subjective/objective case, e.g. *I/me, he/him, who/whom*.
 - b) Person-distinction: 1st/2nd/3rd person, as in *I/you/he*.
 - c) Gender-contrast: masculine/feminine/neuter in the 3rd person, as in *he/she/it*.
 - d) Morphologically unrelated number forms, as in *I/we, he/they* (compared with the typical regularity of nouns: *boy – boys*, etc.).

Before dealing with the different subclasses of pronouns, we will discuss common characteristics in relation to the categories of case, person, gender, and number.

Case

Nouns and most pronouns in English have only two cases: common case (*children, somebody*) and genitive case (*children’s, somebody’s*). However, six pronouns have an objective case, thus presenting a three-case system, where ‘common’ case is replaced by subjective and objective case. There is identity between genitive and objective *her* and partial overlap between subjective *who* and objective *who*. The genitives of personal pronouns are, in accordance with grammatical tradition, called ‘possessive pronouns’.

subjective	<i>I</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>who</i>
objective	<i>me</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>who(m)</i>
genitive	<i>my</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>their</i>	<i>whose</i>

Note: In literary or in formal English, when the pronoun comes after the verb *be*, the nominative form of the pronoun is used, e.g.:

It was I (he, she, we, they) who did this.

In informal English, the objective form is frequently used:

That’s her (him, us, them).

It’s all right, it’s only me.

Person

Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns have, unlike nouns, distinctions of person:

1st person = the speaker (singular *I*, plural *we*)

2nd person = the person(s) addressed (*you*)

3rd person = 'the rest', i.e. one or more persons or things mentioned (singular *he/she/it*, plural *they*)

English makes no difference between singular and plural number in the 2nd person except for reflexive pronouns:

Richard, you ought to be ashamed of yourself.

Children, you ought to be ashamed of yourselves.

2nd person *you* is also used in the indefinite sense of 'one', and 3rd person plural *they* in the sense of 'people in general':

You can never hear what he's saying.

They've had no serious accidents this year.

Gender

In the 3rd person singular, the personal, reflexive, and possessive pronouns distinguish in gender between:

masculine: *he/him/himself/his*

feminine: *she/her/herself/hers*

non-personal: *it/itself/its*

Relative and interrogative pronouns distinguish between personal (*who/whom/whose*) and non-personal gender (*which*).

Number

Pronouns also express number: singular and plural. But with a few exceptions (*one – ones, other – others, yourself – yourselves*) pronouns do not indicate the plural by the general plural inflection of the noun *-(e)s*.

In personal pronouns number is expressed by different words:

I – we

he, she, it – they

The personal pronoun *we* does not denote *I + I (+ I + I + ...)* (cf. *the boys = the boy + the boy (+ the boy + ...)*) but '*I + one or more other*'.

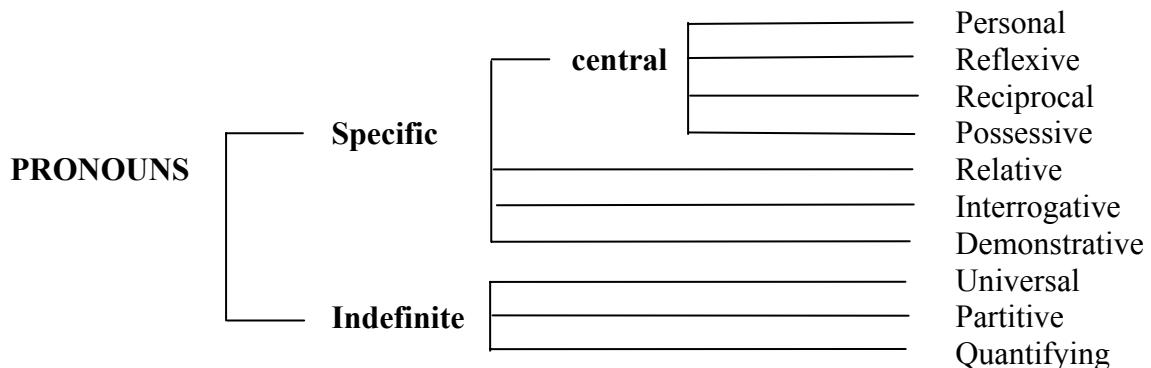
The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* have the plural forms *these* and *those*.

There are pronouns which are only singular in meaning (*each, every, somebody, something, much, little*); others are only plural (*many, few, both, several*). Many pronouns have one form for the singular and plural meaning (*all, any, some, who, which*).

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS

In a most general way pronouns can be divided into two classes: specific pronouns, i.e. pronouns with a specific reference (e.g. *I, you, this*), and indefinite pronouns, i.e. pronouns without a specific reference (e.g. *all, someone, none*). Each class of pronouns includes a number of heterogeneous items, many of which do not share all the characteristic features. Many pronouns have the double function of determiners (i.e. article-like items) and nominals. It is, however, convenient to deal with all such closed-system items in one chapter.

In the following we shall use the subclassifications of pronouns as offered in Quirk and Greenbaum (1977:101):



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SPECIFIC PRONOUNS

Among pronouns with a specific reference, personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns can be regarded as 'most central' in the system, since they share those features we have mentioned as characteristic of pronouns as compared with nouns; in particular, they manifest person and gender contrast. Although these 'central' pronouns fill different syntactic functions, they have obvious morphological characteristics in common. This is also the reason why the possessives like *my*, *you*, etc. have been given in the table, although they are determiners and cannot function alone instead of nouns, but only together with nouns.

Person	PRONOUNS:		PERSONAL Case		REFLEXIVE	POSSESSIVE Function	
	Number	Gender	subjective	objective		determiner	nominal
1st	singular		<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>myself</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>
	plural		<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>ourselves</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>
2nd	singular		<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>yourself</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
	plural		<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>yourselves</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
3rd		masculine	<i>he</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>
	singular	feminine	<i>she</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>herself</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>hers</i>
		neutral	<i>it</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>itself</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>its</i>
	plural		<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>themselves</i>	<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>

Personal Pronouns

The forms of personal pronouns used in modern English are shown in the table above. The 2nd person singular pronouns *thou* [ðau] (nominative case) and *thee* [ði:] (objective case) are archaic and rarely used in modern English except in poetry. They are, however, used in quotations from the Bible and related expressions:

Thou shalt not kill. (Nezabiješ.)

I love thee.

Note: The 2nd person singular possessive and reflexive pronouns are: *thy* [ðai], *thine* [ðaim], *thyself*, e.g.:

Love thy neighbour. (Miluj bližního svého.)

The archaic 2nd person plural pronoun is *ye* [jɪ] (nominative, sometimes objective case).

Notes:

- a) *I* is always written with a capital letter, but *me*, *we* and *us* are not.
- b) Formal Royal Proclamations use the 'Royal we', e.g.:
We, Elizabeth II, Queen of England ...
- c) In colloquial English, *us* is sometimes used for *me*, especially after an imperative, e.g.:
Let's have a look. (= let me have a look)
Tell us (= tell me) what he said.

Reflexive Pronouns

The 'self pronouns' are formed by adding *-self* (plural *-selves*) to the possessive pronouns (determiners) of the 1st and 2nd person, and to the objective case form of the personal pronouns of the 3rd person. Reflexive pronouns have two distinct uses: non-emphatic and emphatic.

Non-emphatic use:

A reflexive pronoun indicates that the action expressed by the verb passes from the subject back again to the subject and not to any other person or thing. In other words the person denoted by the subject and the person denoted by the object are identical:

I am teaching myself Latin.
She saw herself in the mirror.
The visitors helped themselves to the cakes.

The reflexive pronoun can be:

- a) a direct object:

He shaves himself.

- b) an indirect object:

She bought herself a new hat.

He cooked himself a good meal.

- c) part of the predicate of the verb *be*, in which case it always has a strong stress:

Ah, that's better. You are yourself again.

- d) used after a preposition:

I want a little time to myself.

She loves me for myself, not for my money.

Speak for yourself.

In variation with personal pronouns, reflexives often occur after *as*, *like*, *but*, *except* and in coordinated phrases:

For somebody like me/myself this is a big surprise.

My brother and I/myself went sailing yesterday.

Note:

Reflexive pronouns always occur with obligatorily reflexive verbs, i.e. verbs which always require reflexive object, such as *absent oneself (from)*, *avail oneself (of)*, *betake oneself*, *pride oneself (on)*:

She always prides herself on her academic background.

Also *behave* virtually belongs to this set since it can take no other than a reflexive object:

Behave (yourselves) now!

Emphatic use:

Reflexive pronouns in emphatic use occur in apposition, have heavy stress and, unlike reflexive pronouns in non-emphatic use, have greater positional mobility:

*I wouldn't kiss her **myself**.*

*I **myself** wouldn't kiss her.*

***Myself**, I wouldn't kiss her.*

Of course, reflexive pronouns in reflexive use can also have emphatic stress:

*He thinks of **himSELF** but not of **ME**.*

Reciprocal Pronouns

The group-pronouns *each other* and *one another* are called reciprocal pronouns.

*They help **each other*** means 'A helps B and B helps A'.

Each other generally implies only two; *one another*, more than two:

*He put all the books **beside one another**.*

This distinction, however, is frequently not observed. The reciprocal pronouns can be freely used in the genitive (possessive) case: *each other's*, *one another's*:

*The students borrowed **each other's** notes.*

Note the position of the prepositions when used with *each other* and *one another*:

*They gave presents **to each other**.*

*They are very fond **of one another**.*

Possessive Pronouns

These consist traditionally of two series: the attributive (*my*, *your*, etc.) and the nominal (*mine*, *yours*, etc.). In Quirk's classification (cf. Quirk and Greenbaum 1977:62) the former series belong to the determiners, since they are mutually exclusive with the articles. They have been included in the above table for a convenient summary statement of related forms. Compare the two types of possessives with the genitive of nouns which is identical in the two functions:

***Mary's**/my daughter's/her book*

*the book is **Mary's**/my daughter's/hers*

Unlike many other languages, English uses possessives to refer to parts of the body and personal belongings, as well as in several other expressions:

*He stood at the door with **his** hat in **his** hand.*

*Mary has broken **her** leg.*

*Don't lose **your** balance!*

*They have changed **their** minds again!*

The possessive pronoun *its* is very rarely used, but it could be used in such a sentence as:

*The cherry tree gives **its** share of colour to the garden, and the lilac tree gives **its**.*

Note:

1. The nominal possessive pronouns are used in the conventional ending to letters:

***Yours** sincerely/truly/faithfully, (+ name)*

2. The construction noun + *of* + possessive pronoun requires a nominal possessive pronoun:

*He is a friend of **mine**.* (Not: **a friend of me*)

*It was no fault of **yours** that we mistook the way.*

Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*, *what* and occasionally *as* and *but*. They have the same forms for singular or plural masculine or feminine, but they keep the distinction personal and non-personal, restrictive and non-restrictive as shown in the table below:

	restrictive and non-restrictive		restrictive only
	personal	non-personal	personal and non-personal
subjective case	<i>who</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>that</i>
objective case	<i>who/whom</i>		<i>that, zero</i>
genitive case	<i>whose</i>	<i>of which</i>	
preposition + relative pronoun	<i>prep + whom</i>	<i>prep + which</i>	
relative pronoun ... prep	<i>who(m)...prep</i>	<i>which...prep</i>	<i>{ that...prep</i> <i>zero...prep</i>

The relative pronouns *who* and *which* are pronounced with a weaker stress than the interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*.

Who, whom, whose, which

Who, whom, whose are used of persons:

The man who spoke was my brother.

He is one of the men whom I feel I can trust.

He is a man whose word is as good as his bond.

Which as a relative pronoun is used of things or animals:

The current, which is very rapid, makes the river dangerous.

The dog which was lost has been found.

But if the animal is named, it is thought of as a 'person' and the pronoun *who* would be used:

Our dog Jock, who had been lost for two days, was found and brought home by a policeman.

With collective nouns denoting persons, *which* is used if the noun is regarded as singular, *who(m)* if it is regarded as plural:

The London team, which played so well last season, has done badly this season.

The team, who are just getting their tickets, will meet on the platform at 2.30.

Which is used when the antecedent (the grammatical item to which the relative pronoun refers) is a whole sentence:

He invited us to dinner, which was very kind of him.

That

That as a relative pronoun is used for persons or things in restrictive relative clauses and is always pronounced with the weak form [ðət]:

They live in a house that was built in 1600.

Note: *That* (not *who* or *which*) is used:

1. after an adjective in the superlative (including *first* and *last*) and after most indefinite pronouns:

Yesterday was one of the coldest days that I have ever known.

His book is the best that has ever been written on that subject.

There's not much that can be done.

2. after the opening 'It is ...', 'It was ...', and the corresponding interrogative forms:

It's an ill wind that blows nobody good. (Proverb)

What was it that he wanted?

Was it you that broke the window?

3. when the antecedent is both a person and a thing:

He talked brilliantly of the men and the books that interested him.

That cannot be used in non-restrictive clauses and it cannot be preceded by a preposition, as *which* or *whom* can; the preposition must be at the end of the clause. Compare the sentences:

Here is the car about which I told you.

Here is the car that I told you about.

That can be used as a relative pronoun after the word *same*:

She wore the same dress that she wore at Mary's wedding.

but the usual relative pronoun after *same*, and the one that is always used after *such*, is *as*:

I shall be surprised if he does this in the same way as I do.

I never heard such stories as he tells.

What

What is used when the antecedent is not expressed. It is a relative pronoun and an antecedent in one word (= that which):

Tell me what you want to know.

Here, *what* has the general meaning of 'the things (antecedent) which (relative pronoun)'. *What* is also used when the antecedent is a sentence which follows *what*:

He is an interesting speaker, and, what is more important, he knows his subject thoroughly.

Whichever, whatever, whoever are compound relative pronouns:

You can have whatever you want.

Take whichever you like.

She can marry whoever she chooses.

Interrogative Pronouns

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *what*. They are used in forming questions and they always precede the verb:

What is the matter?

Whose are these gloves?

Who broke that window?

Which do you prefer, dry sherry or sweet sherry?

Who

is used only for persons. It has three case-forms: the nominative *who*, the objective *whom* and the genitive (possessive) *whose*:

Who saw you? No one.

Who(m) did you see? I saw George.

To whom did you give the letter? (**Who(m)** did you give the letter **to**?)

Whose are these gloves and **whose** is this umbrella?

Whom is the ‘literary’ form and is preferred in writing. The objective *whom* in spoken English is often replaced by *who*:

Who am I talking **to**?

Who are you speaking **about**?

What

is generally used for things. It has no case-forms:

What is his name?

What can stand for an activity, in which case the answer will be usually a verb in the -ing form:

What are you doing? – I’m cleaning the car.

What is used also to ask for a person’s profession, character, etc.:

What was he? – A painter.

What is that man talking to your father? – He is a lawyer.

Note the difference between this and

Who is that man talking to your father? – He is Mr. Brown.

What is he like? – He is tall, dark and handsome.

Which

is used for things and persons, singular or plural, subject or object. It has no possessive case.

Which implies choice among a certain number of persons or things. As a nominal pronoun for persons, *which* is often followed by an of-phrase (*which of you*):

Which do you prefer, tea or coffee?

Which of these children have been vaccinated?

Note the difference between:

Who is he (what is his name)?

What is he (what is his profession)?

Which is he (point him out in the group)?

The compound interrogatives with -ever are used for the sake of emphasis; they often express surprise, indignation, etc.:

Whoever would have thought it?

Whichever can it be?

Note the following idiomatic expressions:

What about a cigarette? (= would you like; shall we have ...)

Oh! There’s Mr. **What’s-his-name**.

It’s a **what-do-you-call-it** ...

It was so dark I couldn’t tell **who** was **who**.

Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns have number contrast and both determiner and nominal function. The general meanings of the two sets can be stated as 'near' and 'distant' reference:

	singular	plural
'near' reference	<i>this</i>	<i>these</i>
'distant' reference	<i>that</i>	<i>those</i>

This (these) is used for what is close by in space or time; *that (those)*, for what is farther off:

I like these (pictures, which are near me) better than those (pictures, over there on the far side).

That is what I thought last year, this is what I think now.

A demonstrative pronoun may be used with reference to a previously mentioned noun:

Compare these maps with those on the blackboard.

This (that) is used to point out a person or thing expressed in the sentence by a predicative noun:

This is a pen. That is a pencil.

That is also used to refer to a whole preceding statement:

I had a severe cold; that was my reason for not coming.

Same and *such* are also demonstrative pronouns. *Such* means 'of this (that) kind':

From the day she left I was no longer the same.

Such is life!

I never saw such a beautiful colour on my mother's face before.

Such as has the meaning 'for example':

They export a lot of fruit, such as oranges, lemons, etc.

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INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

The table below shows the subclassification of indefinite pronouns as offered in Quirk and Greenbaum (1977:109):

			Count		Non-Count	
			Personal	Non-Personal		
Universal	singular	pronoun	<i>everyone</i> <i>everybody</i> <i>each</i>	<i>everything</i> <i>each</i> (place: <i>everywhere</i>)	<i>it (...) all</i>	
		determiner	<i>every, each</i>		<i>all</i>	
	plural	pronoun	<i>(they ...) all/both</i> <i>(them) all/both</i>			
		predeterminer	<i>all/both</i>			
	singular	pronoun	<i>someone</i> <i>somebody</i>	<i>something</i> (place: <i>somewhere</i>)	<i>some</i>	
		determiner	<i>a(n)</i>			
Partitive	plural	pronoun and determiner	<i>some</i>			
	singular	pronoun	<i>anyone</i> <i>anybody</i>	<i>anything</i> (place: <i>anywhere</i>)	<i>any</i>	
		determiner	<i>either</i> <i>any</i>			
	plural	pronoun and determiner	<i>either</i> <i>any</i>			
		pronoun	<i>no one</i> <i>nobody</i>	<i>nothing</i> (place: <i>nowhere</i>)	<i>none</i>	
				<i>none</i>		
		pronoun and determiner	<i>neither</i>			
	plural	pronoun	<i>none</i>			
		determiner	<i>no</i>			
Quantifying	plural			<i>many</i> <i>few</i> <i>several</i> <i>enough</i>	<i>much (sing)</i> <i>little (sing)</i> <i>enough</i>	

Universal Pronouns

All

may refer to persons and things expressing unity or collectivness and can be used as pronoun or as adjective in the singular or the plural. It is used in the singular:

1. as a pronoun with the meaning of 'everything':

All is lost.

All is not gold that glitters.

All's well that ends well.

2. as an adjective with the meaning 'the whole of':

All the money is spent.

All England.

Take it all.

All plants.

He spent all last week in London.

It is used in the plural as an adjective or as a pronoun:

All the pupils were present. (adjective)

All are welcome. (pronoun)

When the subject is a noun, *all* can precede it or follow it:

All the students agreed that the concert was good.

The students all agreed that the concert was good.

If the subject is a pronoun, *all* generally follows it:

*They all (not *all they) agreed that the concert was good.*

Note the following expressions with *all*:

<i>above all</i>	především
<i>after all</i>	koneckonců
<i>all the better</i>	tím lépe
<i>all but</i>	téměř
<i>for all that</i>	přes to všechno
<i>in all</i>	celkem
<i>not at all</i>	vůbec ne; není zač
<i>all at once</i>	najednou; znenadání
<i>once for all</i>	navždy; jednou provždy
<i>all the same</i>	ale stejně; ale přece jen

All* and *every

All often has the meaning of *every*. The constructions are:

all + plural verb; *every* + singular verb:

That's the sort of job that all boys like doing.

That's the sort of job that every boy likes doing.

The explosion broke all the windows in the street.

The explosion broke every window in the street.

All the people were cheering loudly.

Everybody was cheering loudly.

The distinction between *all* and *every* is that in a sentence like *All the boys were present*, we consider *the boys* in a mass; in the sentence *Every boy was present*, we are thinking of the many individual boys that make up the mass. In addition to being a pronoun and an adjective, *all* is used adverbially in such expressions as:

His face was all covered with blood.

Did you catch your train all right?

Each, every, everyone, everybody, everything

If *all* refers to the members of a group collectively, *every* and *each* refer to the members taken one by one. *Each* can be a pronoun or a determinative adjective. *Every* can only be an adjective; its pronominal forms are *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything*. *Each* can be used when the total number referred to is two or more; *every* can be used only when the total number exceeds two.

Each as a pronoun:

Each of the boys has done his work.

They each signed the paper.

Each must do his best.

Each as an adjective:

Each person signed the paper.

Each man must do his best.

He gave each boy two apples.

Every as an adjective:

Every person signed the paper.

Every man must do his best.

Pronominal forms of **every**:

Everyone knows that Rome is the capital of Italy.

He told everyone that he was a Lord.

Everybody was disappointed that you couldn't come.

Everything he says is true.

Everything in the house was destroyed by fire.

Notice that *each*, *every*, *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything* take the singular verb.

Note: Observe the difference between *everyone*, which can be used only for persons, and *every one*, which can be used also to speak of things:

She has kept every one of my letters.

Each and *every* compared

There are some differences in meaning and usage between *each* and *every* as adjectives. The feeling of 'distribution' is stronger in *each* than in *every*. *Every* tends to gather the separate items into a whole; *each* focusses attention on them individually and so tends to disperse the unity. This can be seen if we consider the sentences:

I visited him every day while he was in hospital.

I visited him each day while he was in hospital.

Note, too, the following idiomatic uses of *every*:

He is every inch a gentleman.

You have every right to be angry.

There is every reason to think he is speaking the truth.

In none of these could *each* replace *every*. Nor could *each* be used in such phrases as:

every other day

every two days

every now and then

Note the two meanings of the phrase *every other day*, the difference being indicated by a difference of intonation and stress:

I go there every other DAY (= on alternate days, e.g. Monday, Wednesday, Friday)

We have a lesson on Monday, but on every OTHER day there are no lessons. (=There are no lessons on all the other days.)

Both

indicates that two objects (persons or things) are regarded in conjunction. It is used as a pronoun or as an adjective. It is used only before plural nouns, and takes a plural verb.

Both as a pronoun:

*I have two brothers; they are **both** engineers.*
*Which of the two girls is he in love with? **Both!***

Both as an adjective:

*There are houses on **both** sides of the street.*
***Both (the) men** were found guilty.*

Both is used adverbially in such a sentence as:

*The book is **both** useful and amusing.*

Partitive Pronouns

The partitive pronouns are the following:

- a) *some* and its compounds (*somebody, someone, something*)
- b) *any* and its compounds (*anybody, anyone, anything*)
- c) *no* and its compounds (*nobody, no one, nothing, none*)
- d) *other* (*the other, another, others, the others*)
- e) *either* and *neither*

Some grammarians (e.g. Dušková et al. 1988:121 ff) treat partitive pronouns as existential and negative quantifiers, which they virtually are. *Some, any, the other, another, either* and *neither* can have both determiner and nominal function, *no* has only determiner function, the other partitive pronouns have only nominal function. *Some, any, no* and their compounds are closely related to *every* and its compounds on the one hand, and to pronominal adverbs (adverbial pronouns) of place and time on the other. This interrelation is shown in the table below (cf. Dušková et al. 1971:105):

	<i>some</i>	<i>any</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>every</i>
person -body -one	<i>somebody</i> <i>someone</i>	<i>anybody</i> <i>anyone</i>	<i>nobody</i> <i>no one</i> <i>none</i>	<i>everybody</i> <i>everyone</i>
thing -thing	<i>something</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>nothing</i> <i>none</i>	<i>everything</i>
place -where	<i>somewhere</i>	<i>anywhere</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>everywhere</i>
Time -time(s)	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>(at) any time</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>always</i> <i>every time</i>

Some

has the following uses:

1. In its determiner or nominal function, it is used before, or to refer to, uncountable nouns and plural nouns:

a) to express an indefinite quantity or number. In this case it is pronounced [səm] if it has determiner function

*He wants **some** money.*

*I've spilt **some** ink on the table.*

*There are **some** cows in the field.*

and [sʌm] if it has nominal function

*I didn't have any cigarettes, so I went out to buy **some**.
If you have no money, I'll lend you **some**.*

b) to suggest contrast. In this case it is always pronounced [sʌm]:

*Some people hate cats; others dislike dogs.
I enjoy **some music**, but much of it bores me.
Some of us agree with that statement; **some** disagree.
Not all your answers were correct; **some** were, **some** were not.*

2. In its determiner function, it is used before singular countable nouns with the meaning 'a particular, but unidentified person or thing'. With this meaning it is always pronounced [sʌm]:

***Some fool** had left the lawn-mower on the garden path, and in the dark I fell over it.*

Note: *Some* (before a numeral) and *something* can have the meaning 'approximately':

*It happened **some twenty years** ago.
It will take **some three or four thousand pounds** to rebuild the house.
I'll whistle the tune for you; it goes **something** like this.*

Any

has the following uses:

1 *Any*, used emphatically, has the general meaning 'it doesn't matter *who, which or what*':

*Come **any day** you like.
Get me **some cigarettes**, please; **any kind** will do.
Any student can answer the question.*

2. *Any*, used unemphatically, has the same meaning as *some* in 1(a) above. For more detail, see below.

*Are there **any cows** in the field?*

Note:

Any is used adverbially in such sentences as:

*I am sorry to say he isn't **any better**.
I couldn't come **any sooner**.*

Some and *any* (and their compounds) compared:

Some and its compounds are used:

1 In affirmative sentences:

*Give me **some bread**, please.
There was a good chance **somebody** would come.
John will always manage to do **something** useful.*

2. In interrogative sentences when we are offering something or when we expect a positive reply:

*Will you have **some more tea**?
Did **somebody** telephone last night?*

Any and its compounds are used:

1. In negative sentences:

I haven't got any matches.

There isn't anyone in the room.

John will never manage to do anything useful.

2. In interrogative sentences, indirect questions and in conditional clauses:

Is there any tea left?

If there is any tea left, please give me some.

Did anybody telephone last night?

Ask him if he bought any apples.

Have you got anything to declare?

Note:

a) A negative meaning may be conveyed by words like *never*, *without*, *seldom*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, etc., in which case *any* is used:

He never had any luck.

He worked hard but without any success.

Hardly anybody saw her in private.

b) If the question is really a request, an invitation or a command in the form of a question, *some* is used:

Will you ask someone to carry this bag for me, please?

May I give you some more tea?

Won't you try some of this cake?

Could you let me have some money, father?

No, nobody, no one, nothing, none

No has determiner function and frequently conveys the meaning 'not any' or 'not a':

There is no (there isn't any) salt on the table, and no (there aren't any) glasses.

He is no (he isn't a) doctor.

No smoking allowed.

I gave him no present. (I didn't give him any present.)

Nobody, no one and **nothing** have nominal function, are singular in number, and are used with a singular verb:

Nobody/no one has come yet.

Nothing has happened yet.

Nobody (no one) can be replaced by *not anybody (not anyone)* and *nothing* by *not anything* except when they are the (grammatical) subject of the affirmative sentence:

I saw nobody. – I didn't see anybody.

There was nobody in the room. – There wasn't anybody in the room.

I bought nothing. – I didn't buy anything.

There was nothing (wasn't anything) in the shop that I wanted to buy.

But:

*Nobody/no one saw me. (Not *Not anybody saw me.)*

Nothing was worth buying.

Nothing can take the of-construction:

Nothing of this has come about!

None (originally a compound: *ne an = no one*) has nominal function, refers to persons or things, and is used with a singular or with a plural verb:

*My colleagues promised to be here about two o'clock, but **none has/have** come yet.*

*I wanted some more coffee but there was **none** left.*

None can also be followed by the of-construction:

None of the students has/have failed.

That's none of your business!

Nobody, no one, nothing and *none* are frequently used in 'short answers'. The difference between *nobody/no one/nothing* and *none* is that the former might be the replies to questions beginning *Who?* or *What?* whereas *none* might be the reply to one beginning *How many?* or *How much?*:

Who is in the dining-room? Nobody. (No one.)

How many students have failed? None!

What's on the table? Nothing.

How many books are on the table? None.

How much petrol is there in the car? None!

No, nothing, none can also be used adverbially:

*He is **no better** and is still very ill.*

*He is **none the better**.*

*It is **no faster** to go there by train than by car.*

Note the phrases:

*He smokes **no more**. (= He doesn't smoke any more.)*

*I can work **no longer**. (= I can't work any longer.)*

None of us has gone there.

Other

may be an adjective or a pronoun. As an adjective it is invariable; as a pronoun it is countable and has the plural form *others*. When it is used with the indefinite article *an*, they are written as one word *another*. *The other* (singular) and *the other* + singular noun convey the meaning 'the second of two':

*One of my brothers is named Richard, **the other** is named Frederick.*

*Hand me **the other book**, please.*

The others and *the other* + plural noun convey the meaning 'the remaining ones':

*We got home by six o'clock, but **the others** didn't get back until about eight.*

*My brother went home, but **the other boys** stayed on the spot.*

Others and *other* + plural noun may simply mean 'different, additional, remaining ones':

*Some like milk chocolate, **others** prefer plain chocolate.*

*There are **other ways** of doing this exercise.*

*A few **other examples** would be useful.*

*There are **no other alternatives**.*

Another (some other, any other, no other + singular noun) means:

1. 'an additional one':

Mr. Brown already has two cars, and now he has bought another.

Will you have another cup of tea?

He may be another Edison.

Isn't there any other way of doing it?

There is no other way of doing it.

2. 'a different one':

On one day he will say one thing and on another day something quite different.

I don't like this book, lend me another, will you?

Either/neither

Either has two meanings:

1. 'one or the other of two':

Bring me a pen or a pencil; either will do.

Either method can be used.

2. 'both':

Good evidence may be cited in support of either view.

I haven't seen either of them.

Neither means 'not this and not the other':

Neither of the two statements is correct.

He read two more books on the subject, but neither told him anything new.

Quantifying Pronouns

The quantifying pronouns are:

- a) the 'multal' *many* and *much*
- b) the 'paucal' *few* and *little*
- c) *several* and *enough*
- d) *one*

Their use in respect to countable and non-countable reference can be seen in the table below:

	MULTAL PRONOUNS		PAUCAL PRONOUNS	
	count	non-count	count	non-count
singular				
plural	<i>many</i> <i>more</i> <i>most</i>	<i>pens</i>	<i>much</i> <i>more</i> <i>most</i>	<i>ink</i>
			<i>(the)</i> <i>(a)</i> <i>fewer</i> <i>(the) fewest</i>	<i>little</i> <i>less</i> <i>(the) least</i>
			<i>pens</i>	<i>ink</i>

Many* and *few

are used with countable nouns and are plurals:

Have you many books? - Yes, I've got many.

Few leaves were left upon the trees.

Are there many chocolates in the box? - No, only few.

Much* and *little

are used with uncountable nouns and are singulars:

*We have not **much** time for sports.*

***Much** has been said, and **little** done.*

***Little** attention has been devoted to the problem.*

***Little** remains to be said.*

In spoken English we do not find *many* and *much* in affirmative sentences without some adverbs such as *very*, *too*, *so* or *rather*. Instead of *many* and *much* in affirmative sentences we use different expressions, such as *a lot of*, *lots of*, *plenty of*, *a great (good) deal of*, *a great number of*:

a lot of trouble

plenty of time

*That will help me **a great deal**.*

***Much** and **many**, however, are used in interrogative and negative sentences:*

*I haven't got **much money** with me.*

*Do you know **many people** here?*

When *few* and *little* are used without the article, they have a 'negative' meaning:

***Few books** are written so clearly as this one.*

***Little attention** has been devoted to the problem.*

When they are used with the indefinite article, they have a 'positive' meaning:

*It cost only **a few crowns**.*

*It requires **a little care**.*

Notes:

1. Besides the regular *fewer chances* and *less noise*, *less* also occurs with plurals:

*This roof has **fewer/less leaks** than our old one.*

*You have **fewer/less marbles** than me.*

2. Only *less* is used in expressions denoting periods of time, sums, etc.:

***less than** two weeks*

***less than** 1000 dollars*

3. *Much* is also used adverbially:

*I am **much** obliged to you.*

Several* and *enough

Several and *enough* have both determiner and nominal function. They can take the of- construction. *Several* occurs only with plural countable function:

*John has made **several mistakes** in his essay.*

*I have seen **several of them**.*

Enough is used with both countable and non-countable nouns, and as determiner, may have either pre- or post-nominal position:

*Have you got **enough books/food**?*

*Have you got **books/food enough**?*

*Yes, we have **enough**.*

One

One has several different uses:

1. Numerical one when used with animate and inanimate singular countable nouns is a stressed variant of the indefinite article *a(n)* (which is unstressed and has only determiner function):

Determiner function:

Yesterday, one boy disappeared.

The one boy that disappeared yesterday has been found.

Nominal function:

Yesterday, one of the boys disappeared.

(The) one is also in contrast with the other in the correlative construction: One went this way, the other that way.

Note that there is an old-fashioned use of *one* meaning ‘a certain’ before personal proper names:

I remember one Charlie Brown at school.

2. Replacive *one* is used as an anaphoric substitute for a singular or plural countable noun. It has the singular form *one* and the plural *ones*. Replacive *one* can take determiners (*the, this, my, which, each*, etc.) and modifiers (*black, beautiful*, etc.):

I am looking for a particular book on syntax. – Is this the one you mean?

Yes, I'd like a drink, but just a small one.

I thought you preferred large ones.

3. Indefinite *one* means ‘people in general’, in particular with reference to the speaker. This use of *one* is chiefly formal and is often replaced by the more informal *you*:

One would/you'd think they would run a later bus than that!

Indefinite *one* has the genitive *one's* and the reflexive *oneself*. In American English repetition of co-referential *one* is formal, *he* or *you* being preferred instead:

One should always be careful in talking about one's/his finances.

One can't be too careful, can one/you?

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ADJECTIVES

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives in English are invariable for number, gender, person and case:

a good boy – good boys
a good girl – good girls

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

Adjectives can be divided into two classes: a large class of words which can be graded (gradable adjectives) and a small class that cannot be graded (non-gradable adjectives).

An adjective is gradable when:

- a) we can imagine degrees in the quality referred to and so can use it with words like *very*, *too* and *enough*: *very good*, *too good*, *less good*, *not good enough*, etc.
- b) we can form a comparative and superlative from it: *(big)*, *bigger*, *biggest*; *(good)*, *better*, *best*, etc.

An adjective is non-gradable when:

- a) we cannot modify it (i.e. we cannot use it with *very*, *too*, etc.)
- b) we cannot make a comparative or superlative from it: e.g. *atomic*, *daily*, *dead*, *medical*, *unique*, etc.

Attributive and predicative adjectives

The terms attributive and predicative refer to the position of an adjective in a phrase or sentence. We say that an adjective is attributive or is used attributively when it comes before a noun:

an old ticket, a rich man, a young girl

We say that an adjective is predicative or that it is used predicatively when it comes directly after a verb such as:

- a) *be, become, seem*

This ticket is old. Ann seems happy.

- b) *appear, feel, get/grow* (= become), *keep, look, make, smell, sound, taste, turn*

Tom felt cold.

He got/grew impatient.

The idea sounds interesting.

He made me happy.

Adjectives can be subclassified according to whether they can function as:

- 1. both attributive and predicative, e.g.:

a hungry man – the man is hungry

2. attributive only, e.g.: *former, latter, outer, upper, utter*

*What you say is **utter nonsense**.*

3. predicative only, e.g.: *afloat, afraid, alight, alike, alive, ashamed, asleep, awake, content, far, glad, near, pleased, sorry, unable*

*The children **were asleep** at 7, but now they're **awake**.*

*I am very **glad** to meet you.*

*Your hotel is quite **near** here. It isn't **far** from here.*

The restrictions of adjectives to attributive or predicative use are not always absolute. Some adjectives change their meaning when moved from one position to the other.

*Your suitcase is very **heavy**.* (i.e. in weight – predicative)

*Paterson is a **heavy** smoker.* (i.e. he smokes a lot – attributive)

*You're **late** again.* (i.e. not on time – predicative)

*My **late** uncle was a miner.* (i.e. he's dead now – attributive)

*Agatha Withers is very **old** now.* (i.e. in years – predicative)

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COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

There are three degrees of comparison:

- positive (or absolute): *dark, young, useful*
- comparative: *darker, younger, more useful*
- superlative: *darkest, youngest, most useful*

The comparative is used for a comparison between two, and the superlative where more than two are involved.

Comparison is expressed by

1. the inflected forms in *-er* and *-est*,
2. their periphrastic equivalents in *more* and *most*,
3. the forms for equational, *lesser* and *least* degrees of comparison, notably *as, less, least*.

Too in the sense '*more than enough*' might also be mentioned here, e.g.:

*It's **too** long.* (= longer than it should be)

We can make the basis of comparison explicit. The most common ways of doing so include correlative constructions introduced by *than* (correlative to *more, less*) and by *as* (correlative to *as*), and prepositional phrases with *of*:

*John is **more/less stupid than** Bob (is).*

*John is **as stupid as** Bob (is).*

*John is the **stupider of** the (two) boys.*

*John is the **most stupid of** the (three) boys.*

The basis of comparison can also be shown by the noun which the adjective premodifies:

*John is **the more stupid** boy.* (formal, more commonly *John is more stupid than the other boy.*)

*John is **the most stupid** boy.*

Form of regular comparison of adjectives

Monosyllabic adjectives form their comparison by inflection. The inflectional suffixes are *-er* for the comparative and *-est* for the superlative:

Positive		Comparative		Superlative
<i>big</i>	—	<i>bigger</i>	—	<i>biggest</i>
<i>nice</i>	—	<i>nicer</i>	—	<i>nicest</i>
<i>tidy</i>	—	<i>tidier</i>	—	<i>tidiest</i>
<i>narrow</i>	—	<i>narrower</i>	—	<i>narrowest</i>

The definite article *the* is used before a superlative in a phrase or sentence:

This is the cleanest/tidiest room in the house.

First class is the most expensive way to travel.

The regular inflections sometimes involve changes in spelling or pronunciation.

Changes in spelling

1. Final base consonants are doubled when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter:

<i>big</i>	—	<i>bigger</i>	—	<i>biggest</i>
<i>fat</i>	—	<i>fatter</i>	—	<i>fattest</i>
<i>sad</i>	—	<i>sadder</i>	—	<i>saddest</i>
<i>thin</i>	—	<i>thinner</i>	—	<i>thinnest</i>

Compare adjectives like *full*, *small*, *tall*, etc. which end with a double consonant and form their comparatives and superlatives like *clean*: *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*.

2. Final *-e* is dropped before the inflections:

<i>brave</i>	—	<i>braver</i>	—	<i>bravest</i>
<i>free</i>	—	<i>freer</i>	—	<i>freest</i>
<i>large</i>	—	<i>larger</i>	—	<i>largest</i>
<i>strange</i>	—	<i>stranger</i>	—	<i>strangest</i>

3. In bases ending in a consonant + *-y*, the final *-y* is changed to *-i*:

<i>busy</i>	—	<i>busier</i>	—	<i>busiest</i>
<i>dirty</i>	—	<i>dirtier</i>	—	<i>dirtiest</i>
<i>funny</i>	—	<i>funnier</i>	—	<i>funniest</i>
<i>early</i>	—	<i>earlier</i>	—	<i>earliest</i>

(But note *shy*, *shyer*, *shyest*)

A few adjectives have a vowel before a *-y* ending, like *gay*, *grey*, *fey*, and these simply take the endings *-er* and *-est*.

Many disyllabic adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives regularly, though like monosyllabic adjectives they have the alternative of the periphrastic forms:

*My jokes are funnier/funniest.
more funny/most funny*

Common disyllabic adjectives that can take inflected forms are those ending in an unstressed vowel, syllabic [l], or a mixed vowel:

- a) -y: *funny, noisy, wealthy, friendly*
- b) -ow: *hollow, narrow, shallow*
- c) -le: *gentle, feeble, noble*
- d) -er, -ure: *clever, mature, obscure*

Common adjectives outside these four categories that can take inflectional forms include: *common, handsome, polite, quiet, wicked*.

The comparatives and superlatives of other disyllabic adjectives must always be with *more/less* and *most/least*. These include all adjectives ending in *-ful* or *-less*: *careful, careless, useful, useless*.

Other examples of adjectives which form comparisons in this way are: *(un)certain, (in)correct, (in)famous, foolish, (in)frequent, modern, (ab)normal*

Changes in pronunciation

1. Syllabic [l] ceases to be syllabic before inflections:

<i>able</i>	—	<i>abler</i>	—	<i>ablest</i>
<i>simple</i>	—	<i>simpler</i>	—	<i>simplest</i>

2. Final *-r* which was not sounded in the positive, is sounded in the comparative and superlative:

<i>near</i>	—	<i>nearer</i>	—	<i>nearest</i>
<i>poor</i>	—	<i>poorer</i>	—	<i>poorest</i>

3. The sound [g] is added after [ŋ] in words as:

<i>long</i>	—	<i>longer</i>	—	<i>longest</i>
<i>strong</i>	—	<i>stronger</i>	—	<i>strongest</i>
<i>young</i>	—	<i>younger</i>	—	<i>youngest</i>

Adjectives of three or more syllables combine with the quantifiers *more/less* to form their comparatives and *most/least* to form their superlatives:

<i>careful</i>	—	<i>more careful</i>	—	<i>most careful</i>
		<i>less careful</i>	—	<i>least careful</i>
<i>expensive</i>	—	<i>more expensive</i>	—	<i>most expensive</i>
		<i>less expensive</i>	—	<i>least expensive</i>
<i>bored/boring</i>	—	<i>more bored/boring</i>	—	<i>most bored/boring</i>
		<i>less bored/boring</i>	—	<i>least bored/boring</i>

This applies to most compound adjectives as well, such as *quick-witted, waterproof*, etc.

Adjectives ending in *-ed* and *-ing* such as *amused/amusing, annoyed/annoying* require *more/less* and *most/least* to form their comparatives and superlatives.

Irregular comparative and superlative forms

A small group of highly frequent adjectives have their corresponding comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems:

Positive		Comparative		Superlative
<i>good</i>	—	<i>better</i>	—	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i>	—	<i>worse</i>	—	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	—	<i>farther</i>	—	<i>farthest</i>
		<i>further</i>	—	<i>furthest</i>
<i>near</i>	—	<i>nearer</i>	—	<i>nearest</i>
			—	<i>next</i>
<i>old</i>	—	<i>older</i>	—	<i>oldest</i>
	—	<i>elder</i>	—	<i>eldest</i>
<i>late</i>	—	<i>later</i>	—	<i>latest</i>
	—	<i>latter</i>	—	<i>last</i>
<i>much/many</i>	—	<i>more</i>	—	<i>most</i>
<i>little</i>	—	<i>less</i>	—	<i>least</i>
	—	<i>lesser</i>	—	

Note compounds with *good*, *well* and *bad*:

good-looking → *better-looking* (or *more good-looking*)

well-built → *better-built* (but *more well-built* is sometimes heard)

bad-tempered → *worse-tempered* (or *more bad-tempered*)

Points to notice about irregular comparative and superlative forms

1. *Farther/farthest* and *further/furthest*:

Both forms can be used of distances:

York is farther/further than Lincoln or Selby.

York is the farthest/furthest town.

Further can also be used, mainly with abstract nouns, to mean 'additional/extraneous':

Further discussion/debate would be pointless.

Furthest can be used similarly, with abstract nouns:

This was the furthest concession he would make.

2. *Far* (used for distance) and *near*:

In the positive form they have a limited use. *Far* and *near* are used chiefly with *bank*, *end*, *side*, *wall*, etc.

the far bank (the bank on the other side)

the near bank (the bank on this side of the river)

3. *Nearest* refers to distance, *next* to order, e.g.:

Where is the nearest post-office?

The next station is Oxford Circus.

4. *Elder, eldest* imply seniority rather than age. They are chiefly used for comparisons within a family:

My elder brother is three years older than I.

But: *elder* is not used with *than*, so *older* is necessary here:

He is older than I am. (elder would not be possible)

Older and *oldest* can be used of people or things:

Henry is older than David.
That is the oldest house in the city.

5. *Late* and *later* refer to time:

See you later.
The colonel was rather late.

Latter means the second of two and is contrasted with ‘former’, e.g.:

He studied French and German, the former language he speaks very well, but the latter one only imperfectly.

Latest means ‘the most recent’, ‘the last up to the present’, e.g.:

Have you read John Scribbler’s latest book?

Last has the meaning ‘final’, e.g.:

The Tempest was probably the last play that Shakespeare wrote.

It also has the meaning ‘previous’, e.g.:

I think his recent book is better than his last one.

Constructions with comparisons

1. ‘as ... as’ to indicate the same degree

as ... as is used in the affirmative sentences to show that two people, things, etc. are similar:

Jane is as tall as/as intelligent as Peter.
He was as white as a sheet.

2. ‘not as ... as’; ‘not so ... as’ to indicate lower degree

These constructions are used in the negative sentences:

Soames is not as/not so suitable for the job as me/as I am.
Manslaughter is not as/so bad as murder.
Your coffee is not as/so good as the coffee my mother makes.

not such a/an (+ adjective) + noun is also possible:

He’s not such a hard worker as his brother.

3. ‘than’ after the comparative

Jane is taller than Peter.
Jane is more intelligent than Peter.

If two things of exactly the same kind are being compared, we can use *the* before a comparative in formal style:

Which is (the) longer (of the two coats)?
The grey coat is (the) longer (of the two coats).

However, if we need to mention each item, then we must use *than* after the comparative.

He makes fewer mistakes than you (do).
I know him better than you.
He is stronger than I expected. (= I didn’t expect him to be so strong.)

4. ‘more than’, ‘less than’ and ‘worse than’ + adjective

‘More than’, ‘less than’ and ‘worse than’ can be used in front of a number of adjectives in the following way:

I was more than pleased with my pay rise.
This foot-pump is worse than useless.

5. Comparatives with ‘-er and -er’

Gradual increase or decrease is expressed by two comparatives (adjectives or adverbs) joined by *and*:

The weather is getting colder and colder.

He became less and less interested.

6. ‘the’ + comparative ... ‘the’ + comparative

Parallel increase is expressed by *the* + comparative ... *the* + comparative:

The more money you make, the more you spend.

The more expensive petrol becomes, the less people drive.

7. Comparisons with ‘like’ and ‘alike’

Tom is very like Bill.

Bill and Tom are very alike.

Comparison of three or more people/things is expressed by the superlative with *the* ... *in/of*:

This is the oldest theatre in London.

The youngest of the family was the most successful.

Degrees of similarity

Degrees of similarity can be expressed by means of *almost, exactly, just, nearly + as* + adjective:

Jeffrey is nearly as tall as his father now.

Almost, exactly, just, nearly and (not) quite will combine with *the same*:

Those two boys are exactly the same.

Completely, entirely and quite will combine with *different*:

Those two boys are completely different.

Modification of comparatives and superlatives

The positive of both adjectives and adverbs can themselves be premodified by amplifying intensifiers and adverbs of degree like *very, too* and *quite*:

very tall, too cold, quite hot, etc.

However, we cannot use these intensifiers with the comparative. We must use *a bit, (very) much, far, even, hardly any, a lot, lots, a little, no, rather, somewhat, etc.*:

Houses are much/far/a lot more expensive these days.

It's much/far/a lot/a little colder today than it was yesterday.

The inflectional superlative may be premodified by *very*:

the very best

If *very* premodifies the superlative, a determiner is obligatory, as in:

She put on her very best dress.

Comparatives and superlatives can also be postmodified by intensifying phrases, the most common of which is *by far*, e.g.:

He is funnier/funniest by far.

Adjectives used as nouns

1. A few adjectives can be used as if they were nouns (e.g. after *a/an*) and can sometimes have a plural. The listener mentally supplies the 'missing' noun:

Don't be such a silly! (= a silly fool)

There's something the matter with the electrics in my car. (= the electrical system)

Other words which are both adjectives and nouns are e.g.:

a black/blacks, a red/reds, a white/whites

2. 'The' + adjective: 'the young'

a) Adjectives like the following are used after *the* to represent a group as a whole: *the blind, the deaf* ('a group of people who are all deaf'), *the rich/the poor, the young/the old, the unemployed*.

Books for the young.

Fortune favours the brave.

These adjectives are followed by a plural verb:

You can always judge a society by the way the old are cared for.

b) The reference can be general or abstract: *the supernatural, the unexpected, the unknown, the unheard of*, etc. These are followed by a singular verb:

The unknown is always something to be feared.

The good in him outweighs the bad.

c) Some nationality adjectives, particularly those ending in *-ch, -sh* and *-ese* are also used after *the*:

the British (= the British people in general)

Plural nationality nouns as *the Americans, the Japanese, the Chinese* refer to the whole nation:

The Japanese admire the traditions of the Chinese.

Nouns used as adjectives

Names of materials, substances, etc. (*leather, nylon, plastic*) resemble adjectives. So do some nouns indicating use or purpose, e.g. *kitchen chairs*. Examples of such nouns are:

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

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

But note *wooden* and *woollen*:

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

It's a woollen dress./It's made of wool.

Here *wooden* and *woollen* are adjectives.

Some other names for materials have adjectival forms: *gold, golden; lead, leaden; silk, silken, silky; stone, stony*; but the adjectival form generally has a metaphorical meaning ('like...'): So, for example, *a gold watch* is a 'watch made of gold', but *a golden sunset* is 'a sunset' which is 'like gold'.

Compare:

a silvery voice
leaden steps
silky (or silken) hair

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ADVERBS

KINDS OF ADVERBS, THEIR MEANING AND POSITION

THE FORMATION OF ADVERBS

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

The word adverb (ad-verb) suggests the idea of adding to the meaning of a verb. According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1977:126b.), there are two types of syntactic function that characterize adverbs, but an adverb need have only one of these:

1. adverbial
2. modifier of adjective and adverb.

In both cases the adverb functions directly in an adverb phrase of which it is head or sole realization. Thus, in the adjective phrase *far more easily intelligible*, *intelligible* is modified by the adverb phrase *far more easily*, *easily* is modified by the adverb phrase *far more*, and *more* is modified by the adverb phrase *far*, this last case is an adverb phrase with an adverb as sole realization.

Adverb as adverbial

An adverb may function as adverbial, a constituent distinct from subject, verb, object, and complement.

There are three classes of adverbials: adjuncts, disjuncts, conjuncts.

Adjuncts are integrated within the structure of the clause to at least some extent, e.g.:

They are waiting outside.
I can now understand it.
He spoke to me about it briefly.

Disjuncts and conjuncts, on the other hand, are not integrated within the clause. Semantically, disjuncts express an evaluation of what is being said either with respect to the form of the communication or to its content, e.g.:

Frankly, I am tired.
Fortunately, no one complained.
They are probably at home.

Semantically, conjuncts have a connective function. They indicate the connection between what is being said and what was said before, e.g.:

I have not looked into his qualifications. He seems very intelligent, though.
If they open all the windows, then I'm leaving.

Adverb as modifier

An adverb may premodify an adjective:

It is very hot today.
She has a really beautiful face.

The adverb *enough* postmodifies adjectives, as in *high enough*. Most commonly, the modifying adverb is an intensifier. The most frequently used intensifier is *very*. Other intensifiers include *so/pretty/rather/unusually/quite/unbelievably* (*tall*).

Many are restricted to a small set of lexical items, e.g.: *deeply (anxious), highly (intelligent), strikingly (handsome), sharply (critical)*

Many intensifiers can modify:

a) other adverbs:

*They are smoking **very** heavily.*

*I have seen **so** very many letters like that one.*

b) prepositional phrases:

*You're **entirely** in the wrong.*

*His parents are **dead** against the trip.*

c) indefinite pronouns, cardinal numerals:

Nearly everybody came to our party.

Over two hundred deaths were reported.

d) nouns:

*The man **over there** is a doctor.*

*It was **rather** a mess.*

*He was **quite** some player.*

e) verbs:

*He ran **quickly**.*

*Come **here**.*

*Paganini played the violin **beautifully**.*

f) complete sentences:

*Strangely **enough**, I won first prize.*

Sometimes adverbs are essential to complete a sentence:

1. after some intransitive verbs such as *lie, sit, etc.*

*Lie **down**. Sit **over there**.*

2. after some transitive verbs (e.g. *lay, place, put*) + object:

*He puts his car **in the garage**.*

KINDS OF ADVERBS, THEIR MEANING AND POSITION

Many adverbs can be thought of as answering questions, such as *How?* (manner); *Where?* (place); *When?* (time); *How often?* (frequency); *To what extent?* (degree). Others 'strengthen' adjectives, other adverbs or verbs (intensifiers); focus attention (focus); reveal our attitudes, or help us to present information in a coherent fashion (viewpoint adverbs and connectives).

1. Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner include:

a) Adverbs formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives: *actively, boldly, calmly, carefully, distinctly, easily, gladly, intentionally, promptly, simply, sincerely, suddenly, willingly, wisely, etc.*

b) Adverbs formed by adding *-fashion, -style, -wards, -ways, -wise* to adjectives: *(Indian)-fashion, (American)-style, backwards, lenght-ways, clockwise, etc.*

*How do you manage **taxwise**?*

c) Adverbs formed from nouns with prepositions and from phraseological units: *by heart, by chance, in turn (by turns), one by one, head over heels, etc.*

*You must learn this poem **by heart**.*

Position of adverbs of manner

a) after the object or after the verb

*Sue watched the monkeys **curiously**.*

*Look at this photo **carefully**.*

*It snowed **heavily** last January.*

*She danced **beautifully**.*

The important thing is not to put the adverb between the verb and its object. (Not **He speaks well English* but *He speaks English well*.)

b) between subject and verb

If we wish to emphasize the subject of the verb, we can say:

*Gillian **angrily** slammed the door behind her.*

(i.e. *Gillian was angry when she slammed the door.*)

However, *well* and *badly*, when used to evaluate an action, can only go at the end of a sentence or clause:

*Mr Gradgrind pays his staff **very well/badly**.*

With some adverbs of manner, such as *bravely*, *cleverly*, *cruelly*, *foolishly*, *generously*, *kindly*, *secretly*, *simply*, etc. a change of position results in a difference in emphasis. Compare the following:

*He **foolishly** locked himself out.* (= It was foolish (of him) to ...)

*He behaved **foolishly** at the party.* (= in a foolish manner)

With others, such as *badly*, *naturally*, a change of position results in a change in meaning and function.

*You typed this letter **very badly**.* (adverb of manner)

*We **badly** need a new typewriter.* (intensifier)

*You should always speak **naturally**.* (adverb of manner)

Naturally, I'll accept the invitation.

c) beginning a sentence

In narrative writing sentences can begin with adverbs of manner, such as *gently*, *quietly*, *slowly*, *suddenly*. We do this for dramatic effect, or to create suspense. Such adverbs are followed by a comma:

*O'Connor held his breath and stood quite still. **Quietly**, he moved forwards to get a better view.*

2 Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place include:

a) Words like: *abroad*, *ahead*, *along*, *anywhere/everywhere*, *nowhere/somewhere*, *ashore*, *away/back*, *backwards/forwards*, *here/there*, *left/right*, *north/south*, *upstairs/downstairs*, etc.

b) Words like the following which can also function as prepositions: *above*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *underneath*, etc.

c) Two words combining to emphasize place, such as: *down below*, *down/up there*, *far ahead*, *far away*, *over here*, *over there*, etc.

Position of adverbs of place

Adverbs of place never go between subject and verb.

a) after manner but before time

When there is more than one kind of adverb in a sentence, the usual position of adverbs of place is after manner, but before time (following a verb or verb + object):

manner	place	time
<i>Barbara read quietly</i>	<i>in the library</i>	<i>all afternoon.</i>

However, adverbs of direction can often come after movement verbs (*come, drive, go*) and before other adverbials:

I went to London (direction) *by train* (manner) *next day* (time).

If there is more than one adverb of place, then 'smaller places' are mentioned before 'bigger places' in ascending order:

She lives | in a small house | in a village | outside Reading | in Berkshire | England.

b) beginning a sentence

If we wish to emphasize location (e.g. for contrast), we may begin with an adverb of location, especially in descriptive writing:

Indoors it was nice and warm.

Outside it was snowing heavily.

3. Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time include:

a) Words like: *after(wards), already, before, eventually, lately, now, once, presently, recently, soon, then, today, tomorrow, yesterday*, etc.

b) Prepositional phrases with *at, in* or *on*: *at Christmas, at present, in July, on November 20th*, etc.

Position of adverbs of time

The most usual position is at the very beginning or at the very end of a sentence:

This morning I had a telephone call from Mary.

We checked in at the hotel on Monday/yesterday.

I recently went to Berlin.

I went to Berlin recently.

Still, referring to time, emphasizes continuity. It is mainly used in questions and affirmatives, often with progressive tenses. *Still* is placed after the verb *be* but before other verbs:

Mrs Mason is still in hospital.

Tom still works for the British Council.

Yet generally comes at the end in questions and negatives:

Have the new petrol prices come into force yet?

The new petrol prices haven't come into force yet.

Just, referring to time, is used with compound tenses:

I'm just coming.

I've just finished reading the paper. Would you like it?

I just saw Selina. She was going to the theatre.

4. Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency include:

a) Words like: *always, generally, frequently, hourly, fortnightly, normally, regularly, occasionally, sometimes, usually*, etc.

b) Phrases like: *every day/week/month/year; every 3 years; every few days; on Mondays, weekdays; hardly ever, scarcely ever; from time to time; now and again*, etc.

Position of adverbs of frequency

a) affirmatives/questions: mid-position

The normal position of most adverbs of frequency is 'after an auxiliary or before a full verb'.

This means:

- after *be* when it is the only verb in a sentence

I was never very good at maths.

- after the first auxiliary verb when there is more than one verb:

You can always contact me on 02134.

- before the main verb when there is only one verb:

Gerald often made unwise decisions.

These adverbs usually come before *used to, have to* and *ought to*:

We never used to import so many goods.

In questions, these adverbs usually come after the subject:

Do you usually have cream in your coffee?

b) end position

'Affirmative adverbs' can be used at the end of a sentence:

I get paid on Fridays usually.

We can use often at the end in questions and negatives:

Do you come here often? I don't come here often.

c) beginning a sentence

Where special emphasis or contrast is required, the following can begin a sentence: *frequently, generally, normally, occasionally, ordinarily, sometimes and usually.*

Sometimes we get a lot of rain in August.

Never borrow money!

Adverbs of frequency: *ever* and *never*

Ever, meaning 'at any time', is used in questions:

Have you ever thought of applying for a job abroad?

Does anyone ever visit them?

Ever can occur in affirmative if-sentences:

If you ever need any help, you know where to find me.

and after *hardly, scarcely* and *barely*:

Hardly/scarcely ever did they manage to meet unobserved.

Never is used in negative sentences and frequently replaces *not* when we wish to strengthen a negative. Compare:

I don't smoke

I never smoke

5. Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree include words like: *almost, altogether, barely, a bit, enough, fairly, hardly, nearly, quite, rather, somewhat, too*.

Most of these go before the words they modify: e.g.

- adjectives: *quite good; The film was quite good.*
- adverbs: *fairly well; I know her fairly well.*
- verbs: *I quite like it.*
- nouns (in a few instances): *quite an experience*

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THE FORMATION OF ADVERBS

The most common characteristic of the adverb is morphological: the majority of adverbs have the derivational suffix *-ly*.

1. A great many adverbs, particularly those of manner, are formed from adjectives by the addition of *-ly*, e.g.:

He is a careful driver. He drives carefully.

She is a quick worker. She works quickly.

Some adverbs of frequency are also formed in this way: e.g. *usual, usually*, as are a few adverbs of degree: e.g. *near, nearly*. There are a few adverbs that have been formed from nouns by the addition of a suffix or a prefix, e.g.:

a) With suffix *-ly*: *daily, hourly, monthly, namely, partly, weekly*

b) With suffix *-fashion, -style, -ways, -wards, -wise*: *longways, backward(s), clockwise; (Indian)-fashion, (American)-style*

He went backwards/forwards/homewards.

The path was so narrow we had to walk sideways.

He sat with his legs crosswise.

c) With the prefix *a-*, e.g.: *abroad, across, ahead, aloft, aloud, around, asleep, awake.*

Rules of spelling of adverbs derived by adding the suffix *-ly*:

a) A final *-y* changes to *-i-*:

happy – happily

gay – gaily

pretty – prettily

but

sly – slyly

shy – shyly

dry – dryly/drily

b) A final *-e* is retained before *-ly*:

extreme – extremely

absolute – absolutely

complete – completely

sincere – sincerely

Exceptions:

true – truly

due – duly

whole – wholly

c) Adjectives ending in a consonant + *-le* drop the *-e* and add *-y*:

gentle – gently

humble – humbly

noble – nobly

simple – simply

single – singly

terrible – terribly

d) Adjectives ending in *-ll* drop *-l*:

full – fully

dull – dully

e) Adjectives ending in *-ic* take *-ally*:

basic – basically

fantastic – fantastically

tragic – tragically

systematic – systematically

Exception:

public – publicly

Adverbs are not usually formed from adjectives that end in *-ly*, *-ile* that is from such adjectives as *manly*, *silly*, *fatherly*, *lively*, *brotherly*, *fertile*, *agile*, *hostile*, etc. Instead of an adverb, an adverbial phrase is used, e.g.

'in a silly way'

'in a fatherly manner'

'with great agility'

'in a hostile manner'

2. Many adverbs cannot be identified by their endings. These include adverbs of manner which have the same form as adjectives, e.g. *fast*; adverbs of place (*here*, *there*); of time (*now*, *then*); of frequency (*often*); viewpoint adverbs (*perhaps*) and connectives (*however*).

Adverbs and adjectives with the same form, same meaning

Some words can be used as adjectives or as adverbs of manner without adding *-ly*: *fast*, *hard*, etc.

A fast (adjective) *train is one that goes fast.* (adverb)

I work hard (adverb) *because I enjoy hard* (adjective) *work.*

Other examples like *fast* are:

	Used as adjectives	Used as adverbs
<i>airmail</i> :	<i>airmail letter</i>	<i>send it airmail</i>
<i>all day</i> :	<i>an all day match</i>	<i>play all day</i>
<i>best</i> :	<i>best clothes</i>	<i>do your best</i>
<i>cheap</i> :	<i>a cheap suit</i>	<i>buy it cheap</i>
<i>free</i> :	<i>a free ticket</i>	<i>travel free</i>
<i>loud</i> :	<i>a loud noise</i>	<i>talk loud</i>
<i>sharp</i> :	<i>sharp eyes</i>	<i>look sharp</i>
<i>well</i> :	<i>I am well</i>	<i>do well</i>
<i>wide</i> :	<i>a wide room</i>	<i>open wide</i>
<i>yearly</i> :	<i>a yearly visit</i>	<i>go there yearly</i>

Adverbs with two forms

Some adverbs have two forms which may have:

a) the same meaning: e.g. *cheap*

I bought this car cheap/cheaply.

Other examples: *clean/cleanly, clear/clearly, close/closely, fair/fairly, fine/finely, firm/firmly, first/firstly, loud/loudly, quick/quickly, quiet/quietly, slow/slowly, thin/thinly*

b) different meanings: e.g. *hard*:

I work hard and play hard. I did hardly any work today.

Come near. My work is nearly finished.

Other examples:

deep/deeply: drink deep; deeply regret

easy/easily: go easy; win easily

flat/flatly: fall flat; flatly refuse free/freely: travel free; freely admit

last/lastly: arrive last; lastly, I think ...

sharp/sharply: 10 p.m. sharp; speak sharply

short/shortly: stop short; see you shortly

strong/strongly: going strong; strongly feel

wide/widely: open wide; widely believed

Adverbs differing in meaning from corresponding adjectives

Some adverbs differ in meaning from their corresponding adjectives: e.g. *express/expressly, ready/readily*:

If it's urgent, you should send it by express mail. (fast)

You were told expressly to be here by 7. (clearly/deliberately)

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COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Form of comparison of adverbs

Comparison of adverbs is similar to comparison of adjectives. Only gradable adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms. Comparison is not possible with adverbs such as *daily, extremely, only, really, then, there, uniquely*, because they are not gradable.

Gradable adverbs form comparatives and superlatives as follows:

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
monosyllabic adverbs	<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>fastest</i>
two or more syllables	<i>early</i>	<i>earlier</i>	<i>earliest</i>
	<i>easily</i>	<i>more easily</i>	<i>most easily</i>
	<i>rarely</i>	<i>more rarely</i>	<i>most rarely</i>

Notes on the comparison of adverbs

1. Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take inflections, following the same spelling and phonetic rules as for adjectives, e.g. *early*, *late*, *hard*, *slow*, *fast*, *quick*, *long*. *Soon*, which has no corresponding adjective, is frequently used in the comparative (*sooner*), but is not common in the superlative (*soonest*).
2. As most adverbs of manner have two or more syllables, they form their comparatives and superlatives with *more/less* and *most/least*.
Other examples: *more/less/most/least briefly*, *clearly*, *quickly*
3. Some adverbs of frequency form their comparative and superlative with *more/less*, *most/least* (e.g. *more seldom*, *most seldom*); *often* has two comparative forms: *more often* and (less common) *oftener*.

Irregular comparisons of adverbs

As with adjectives, there is a small group with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems:

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Irregular adverbs	<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
	<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
	<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
	<i>late</i>	<i>later</i>	<i>last</i>
	<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
	<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i> (of distance only)
		<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i> (used more widely)

1. Note the irregular adverb *well* (related to the adjective *good*) which means 'in a pleasing or satisfactory way':

Jane Somers writes well.

2. Compare *latest/last*: both words can be adjectives:

I bought the latest (i.e. most recent) *edition of today's paper.*

I bought the last (i.e. final) *edition of today's paper.*

But normally only *last* is used as an adverb:

That was a difficult question, so we answered it last.

or before the main verb:

It last rained eight months ago. (= The last time it rained was ...)

3. Both *farther* and *further* can be used to refer to distance:

I drove ten miles farther/further than necessary.

Further can be used to mean 'in addition':

We learnt, further, that he wasn't a qualified doctor.

4. *More* and *most* can be used fairly freely:

You should ride more.

I use this room most.

But *much*, in the positive form, has a restricted use. *Much* meaning *a lot* can modify negative verbs:

He doesn't ride much nowadays.

In the interrogative *much* is chiefly used with *how*. In questions without *how*, *much* is possible but *a lot* is more usual:

How much has he ridden?

Has he ridden a lot/much?

In the affirmative *as/so/too + much* is possible. Otherwise *a lot/a good deal/a great deal* is preferable:

He shouts so much that ...

I talk too much.

But

He rides a lot/a great deal.

Very much meaning *greatly* can be used more widely in the affirmative. We can use it with *blame, praise, thank* and with a number of verbs concerned with feelings: *admire, amuse, approve, dislike, distress, enjoy, impress, like, object, shock, surprise*, etc.:

Thank you very much.

They admired him very much.

She objects very much to the noise they make.

Much meaning *a lot* can modify comparative or superlative adjectives and adverbs:

much better

much the best

much more quickly

Most placed before an adjective or adverb can mean *very*. It is mainly used here with adjectives/adverbs of two or more syllables:

He was most apologetic.

She behaved most generously.

Constructions with comparisons

1. 'as ... as' to indicate the same degree. Similar to adjectives, 'as ... as' is used in the affirmative sentences:

John behaves as politely as Bob (does).

Sylvia sings as sweetly as her sister.

2. 'not as ... as'; 'not so ... as' to indicate lower degree. These constructions are used in the negative sentences:

John doesn't behave as/so politely as Bob (does).

He doesn't snore as/so loudly as you do.

It didn't take as/so long as I expected.

3. 'than' after the comparative

The rain cleared more quickly than I expected.

He eats more quickly than I do/than me.

4. *of + noun* with comparatives/superlatives

In formal style, 'the comparative or the superlative preceded by *the*' can be combined with the construction *of + noun*:

Of the (two) boys, John behaves the more politely.

Of the (three) boys, John behaves the most politely.

*Tim tries **the** hardest of all the boys in his class.
Magnus concentrated **the** hardest.*

These constructions are not common in spoken language, and such sentences would normally be expressed by a comparative + *than ever/than anyone/than anything*:

*Magnus concentrated **harder** than ever/than anyone.*

5. Comparisons with 'like' and 'as'

In theory, *like* (preposition) is used only with nouns, pronouns or gerunds:

*He swims **like** a fish.*

*You look **like** a ghost.*

*Be **like** Peter/him: go jogging.*

*The windows were all barred. It was **like** being in prison.*

and *as* (conjunction) is used when there is a finite verb:

*Do **as** Peter does: go jogging.*

*Why don't you cycle to work **as** we do?*

But in colloquial English *like* is often used here instead of *as*:

*Cycle to work **like** we do.*

Note: In the construction *as* + noun, *as* can be regarded as a quasi-preposition with the meaning different from *like*:

*He worked **like** a slave. (very hard indeed)*

*He worked **as** a slave. (He was a slave)*

*She used her umbrella **as** a weapon. (She struck him with it.)*

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NUMERALS

CARDINAL NUMERALS

ORDINAL NUMERALS

SPECIAL USES OF NUMERALS

CARDINAL NUMERALS

0 nought, zero

1 one

2 two

3 three

4 four

5 **five**

6 six

7 seven

8 eight

9 nine

10 ten

11 eleven

12 twelve

13 **thirteen**

14 fourteen

15 **fifteen**

16 sixteen

17 seventeen

18 **eighteen**

19 nineteen

20 twenty

21 twenty-one etc.

30 thirty

40 **forty**

50 **fifty**

60 sixty

70 seventy

80 **eighty**

90 ninety

100 one hundred

101 one hundred and one, etc.

200 two hundred

1,000 one thousand

1,001 one thousand and one, etc.

5,000 five thousand

100,000 one hundred thousand

260,127 two hundred and sixty thousand, one hundred and twenty-seven

1,000,000 one million

Points to notice about cardinal numbers

1. 0/nought/zero

The spoken form of 0 is:

a) *Nought* (AmE *zero*) or *oh*. *Oh* is used especially when giving telephone numbers:

180 33 - one eight oh double three

b) When talking scientifically, e.g. when giving temperatures, 0 is pronounced *zero*:

- 20° = twenty degrees below zero

c) When giving the scores of most games, e.g. football, 0 is pronounced *nil* or *nothing*.

Manchester 6, Leeds 0 is said *Manchester six, Leeds nil* (or *nothing*).

When giving the scores of a few other games, e.g. tennis, we use *love* for 0:

Hewitt leads by two sets to love (2 - 0).

2. The *-teen* numerals have stress on the last syllable if they are not followed by a noun:

thir'teen, fif'teen;

when they are used with noun, the stress is on the first syllable:

'thirteen books, 'fifteen pencils

3. When writing in words, or reading, a number composed of three or more figures we place *and* before the word denoting tens or units:

713 *seven hundred and thirteen*

5,102 *five thousand, one hundred and two*

but

6,100 *six thousand, one hundred (no tens or units)*

and is used similarly with hundreds of thousands:

320,410 *three hundred and twenty thousand, four hundred and ten*

and hundreds of millions:

303,000,000 *three hundred and three million*

4. *a* is more usual than *one* before *hundred, thousand, million*, etc., when these numbers stand alone or begin an expression:

100 *a hundred*

1,000 *a thousand*

100,000 *a hundred thousand*

We can also say *a hundred and one, a hundred and two*, etc. up to *a hundred and ninety-nine* and *a thousand and one*, etc., up to *a thousand and ninety-nine*. Otherwise we use *one*, not *a*, so:

1,040 a/one thousand and forty

but

1,140 one thousand, one hundred and forty

5. The words *hundred, thousand, million* and *dozen* (i.e. twelve), when used of a definite number, are never made plural:

six hundred men

ten thousand pounds

two dozen eggs

If however, these words are used loosely, merely to convey the idea of a large number, they must be made plural:

hundreds of people

thousands of birds

dozens of times

Note also that in this case the preposition *of* is placed after *hundreds*, *thousands*, etc. *Of* is not used with definite numbers except before *the/them*, *these/those* or possessives:

six of the blue ones

ten of these

four of Tom's brothers

Uncertain numbers

The word *odd* may be used with round numbers over twenty to give an approximate figure:

It's a hundred odd pounds. (i.e. about)

She's sixty odd. (i.e. about 60 years old)

-ish, ... *or so* and *or thereabouts* can also be used when giving approximate numbers:

He's sixtyish. I'll meet you nineish.

It cost a hundred pounds or so.

He's arriving on the seventh or thereabouts.

Decimals

Numbers composed of four or more figures are divided into groups of three as shown above. Decimals are indicated by ‘.’, which is read ‘point’. We say each number after the decimal point separately:

10.92 ten point nine two

45.987 forty five point nine eight seven

A zero after a decimal point is usually read ‘nought’, but ‘0’ and ‘zero’ would also be possible:

8.04 eight point nought four

0.46 nought point four six

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ORDINAL NUMERALS

1st first

2nd second

3rd third

4th fourth

5th **fifth**

6th sixth

7th seventh

8th **eighth**

9th **ninth**

10th tenth

11th eleventh

12th **twelfth**

13th **thirteenth**

14th fourteenth

15th **fifteenth**
 16th sixteenth
 17th seventeenth
 18th **eighteenth**
 19th nineteenth
 20th twentieth
 21st twenty-first
 22nd twenty-second
 23rd twenty-third
 24th twenty-fourth
 25th **twenty-fifth**
 30th **thirtieth**
 40th **fortieth**
 50th **fiftieth**
 60th **sixtieth**
 70th **seventieth**
 80th **eightieth**
 90th **ninetieth**
 100th one/the hundredth
 101st one/the hundred and first
 200th the two hundredth
 1,000th one/the thousandth
 1,001st one/the thousand and first, etc.
 10,001st one/the ten thousand and first, etc.
 100,000th one/the one hundred thousandth, etc.
 1,000,000th one/the millionth

Points to notice about ordinal numerals

1. Notice the irregular spelling of *fifth*, *eighth* and *twelfth*
2. When ordinal numerals are expressed in figures the last two letters of the written word must be added (except in dates):

<i>first</i>	—	<i>1st</i>	<i>twenty-first</i>	—	<i>21st</i>
<i>second</i>	—	<i>2nd</i>	<i>forty-second</i>	—	<i>42nd</i>
<i>third</i>	—	<i>3rd</i>	<i>sixty-third</i>	—	<i>63rd</i>
<i>fourth</i>	—	<i>4th</i>	<i>eightieth</i>	—	<i>80th</i>

3. In compound ordinal numerals the rule about *and* is the same as for compound cardinal numerals:

101st = one hundred and first

4. The definite article normally precedes ordinal numerals:
the sixtieth day, the fortieth visitor, the second edition
 The indefinite article may be used with *first, second, third*, etc.
a second voyage (= an additional voyage, one more)

5. Titles of kings etc. are written in Roman numerals:

Charles V James III Elizabeth II

In spoken English we use the ordinal numbers preceded by *the*:
Charles the Fifth, James the Third, Elizabeth the Second

Some rich American families do the same: *Henry Ford II*

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SPECIAL USES OF NUMERALS

Dates

1. The year

When reading or speaking we use the term *hundred* but not thousand. The year *1987* would be read as *nineteen hundred and eighty-seven or nineteen eighty-seven*. *1066*: *ten sixty-six*. Years ending in '00' are said with 'hundred': *1900* *nineteen hundred* but note *2,000*: *the year two thousand*.

Years before the Christian era are followed by the letters **B.C.** (= Before Christ) and years dating from the Christian era are occasionally preceded by the letters **A.D.** (= Anno Domini, in the year of the Lord in Latin). A.D. is not usually necessary, except with the early centuries to avoid possible confusion. B.C. is usually necessary.

Pompey died in 48 B.C.

Tiberius died in A.D. 37.

2. The date

We can write the date in different ways: e.g.

Day/month/year: *6th January, 1991* (or '91) – BrE

Month/day/year: *January 6th, 1998* (or '98) – AmE

When we say the date we add *the* (and *of*):

January the sixth, or the sixth of January – BrE

January sixth – AmE

The date can also be written entirely in figures:

6.1.90, or 06.01.90

In BrE this means *January 6, 1990*.

In AmE it means *June 1, 1990* since the number of the month is written before the day. In letters often: *2/4/1941*

10-5-1986

23.7.91

Fractions

When writing in words or reading fractions other than *1/2 (a half)* and *1/4 (a quarter)*, we use a combination of cardinal and ordinal numbers:

1/5 a/one fifth 1/10 a/one tenth (a is more usual than one)

3/5 three fifths 7/10 seven tenths

A whole number + a fraction can be followed directly by a plural noun:

2 1/4 miles = two and a quarter miles

3 3/4 miles = three and three quarters miles

Multiplicative Numerals

- a) *once* jednou
twice dvakrát
three times tříkrát *thrice* (archaic) tříkrát
four times čtyřikrát
a hundred times
several times
many times
- b) *single, simple* jednoduchý
double, twofold dvojitý
treble, threefold trojitý
- c) *for the first time* poprvé
for the second time podruhé
- d) *first/ly*: zaprvé
second/ly: zadruhé
third/ly: zatřetí

The Four Arithmetical Operations

1. Addition

How many are two and two?

$2 + 2 = 4$ could be spoken as:

two and two make/makes four
two plus two is/are/equal>equals four

2. Subtraction

What does three from nine leave?

What is the difference between 9 and 3?

$9 - 3 = 6$ could be spoken as:

9 minus 3 equals 6
9 take away 3 equals 6
3 from 9 equals/is/makes 6.

3. Multiplication

How many are nine times three?

$9 \times 3 = 27$ could be spoken as:

9 multiplied by 3 equals 27
9 times 3 is/are/makes 27
Three nines (or nine threes) are 27.

4. Division

How many times does seven go into fifty-six?

How many times is seven contained in fifty-six?

Seven goes into fifty-six eight times.

$9 : 3 = 3$ could be spoken as:

9 divided by (or over) 3 equals 3
3 into nine is/goes 3.

'The Percentage Sign' %

is usually said *per cent*

3% = *three per cent*

$3\frac{1}{2}\%$ = *three and a half per cent*

3.5% = *three point five per cent*

Weights

1 ounce (oz.) = 28.35 grams (gm)

1 pound (lb.) = 0.454 kilogram (kg)

1 stone (st.) = 6.356 kilogram/kilos

Plurals

ounce and *pound* can take *-s* in the plural when they are used as nouns, *stone* doesn't take *-s*:

e.g. we say

six pound of sugar or *six pounds of sugar*

but *ten stone of coal* has no alternative.

kilo or *kilogram* usually take *-s* in the plural when used as nouns:

two kilos of apples or *two kilograms of apples*

Length

1 inch (in.) = 2.54 centimetres (cm)

1 foot (ft.) = 30.5 centimetres

1 yard (yd.) = 0.914 metres (m)

1 mile (statue) = 1.609 kilometres (km)

Plurals:

When there is more than one *inch/mile/centimetre* we normally use the plural form of these words:

one inch – ten inches

one mile – four miles

one centimetre – five centimetres

When used in compound adjectives the above forms never take the plural form:

a two-mile walk

a six-inch ruler

Liquid Measure

1 pint (pt.) = 0.568 litre (l)

1 gallon (gal.) = 4.55 litres

Traditionally British measurements have been made in ounces, inches, pints, etc. but there is now a gradual move towards the metric system.

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PREPOSITIONS

THE POSITION AND FORM

THE MEANING OF PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are words used with nouns, noun phrases, pronouns or gerunds to express a relationship between one person, thing, event, etc. and another:

preposition + noun: *I gave the book to Charlie.*

preposition + pronoun: *I gave it to him.*

preposition + gerund: *Charlie devotes his time to reading.*

THE POSITION AND FORM

The Position of Prepositions

Prepositions normally precede nouns, noun phrases, pronouns or gerunds; but there are some circumstances in which the prepositions move to the end of the sentence:

1. In questions beginning with a preposition + *whom/which/what/whose/where* (in so called wh-questions):

Who were you talking to? (informal)

To whom were you talking? (formal)

Which house did you leave it at? (informal)

At which house is he staying? (formal)

It used to be thought ungrammatical to end a sentence with a preposition, but it is now regarded as fully acceptable.

2. In relative clauses, the relative pronoun is then often omitted:

The old house (which) I was telling you about is empty (informal)

The old house about which I was telling you is empty (formal)

the people I was travelling with (informal)

the people with whom I was travelling (formal)

3. In some exclamations,

What a mess he's got into!

passive constructions

Everything he said was laughed at.

She was sought after by all the leading impresarios of the day.

and infinitive clauses

He's impossible to work with.

In addition there are several idiomatic usages such as:

all the world over, all the year round, search the house through

Form and Stress of Prepositions

Most of the common English prepositions are simple, i.e. consist of one word: *at, from, in, to, into, etc.*, or complex, i.e. consist of more than one word. Most of these are in one of the following categories:

adverb or prep. + prep.: *along with, as for, away from, out of, up to, etc.*
verb/adjective/conjunction/etc. + prep.: *owing to, due to, because of, etc.*
prep. + noun + prep.: *by means of, in comparison with, in front of, etc.*

Monosyllabic simple prepositions are normally unstressed.

There's someone at the door. (No stress on at.)

Polysyllabic prepositions are normally stressed. In complex prepositions, the stress falls on the word (adverb, noun, etc.) preceding the final preposition.

'opposite the 'bank;
be'hind the 'wall

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THE MEANING OF PREPOSITIONS

Most prepositions are polysemantic, comprising a variety of meanings. The meaning of the preposition is determined

- by the meaning of the noun before which the preposition stands
- by the meaning of the word on which the prepositional phrase depends.

I saw him on Monday, in October, at seven o'clock.

So, prepositions indicate various relationships between words or phrases, the most usual being those of time, space (position) and mental or emotional attitudes.

Position and Movement

Local relations are expressed by prepositional phrases denoting:

- Position in a place
- Movement (direction)

Between the notions of simple position and directions (movement with respect to a destination) a cause-and-effect relationship obtains:

direction		position
<i>Tom went to the door</i>	as a result:	<i>Tom was at the door</i>
<i>Tom fell on(to) the floor</i>	as a result:	<i>Tom was on the floor</i>

Place

The principal prepositions used to express place are: *in, at, on, upon, by, beside, near, before, in front of, behind, beyond, over, under, beneath, below, amidst, among, between, within, without, out, outside, around, round, etc.*

We can consider position in place in relation to:

- a point (i.e. a place or an event):

at the cinema; at a party; to/from London

We stood at the door and waited. (i.e. at that point)

- a line (i.e. a place we think of in terms of length):

across/along/on a border/river/road

There's a letter box across the road. (i.e. across that line)

- a surface (i.e. a place we think of as a flat area):

across/off/on a table/floor/wall/ceiling

I stared at a fly on the wall. (i.e. on that surface)

d) area or volume: (i.e. a place which can ‘enclose’):

in/into/out of/outside/within a room/ship/car/factory

*We all sat **in the car**.* (i.e. in that area)

A single place (e.g. river) can be viewed from different angles:

*We went **to the river**.*

(a point)

*Greenwich is **down the river**.*

(a line)

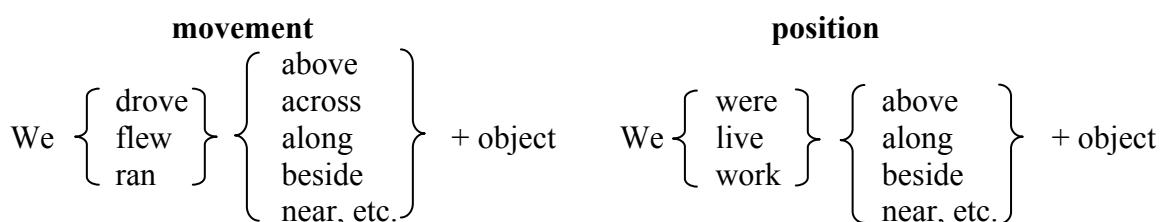
*The paper boat floated **on the river**.*

(a surface)

*We swam **in the river**.*

(an area or volume)

A preposition takes on the idea of movement (*fly under*) or lack of movement (position) (*stop under*) from the verb in the sentence. Some prepositions combine either with ‘movement verbs’, e.g. *bring, drive, fly, get, move, pull, run, take, walk*, or with ‘position verbs’, e.g. *be, live, keep, meet, stay, stop, work*.



Some prepositions, such as *into, onto, out of, to*, etc., normally combine only with ‘movement verbs’:

*A bird flew **into** my bedroom this morning.*

*I drove **out of** the car park.*

Other prepositions, such as *at, in, on*, etc. normally combine only with ‘position verbs’:

*The bird perched **on** the curtain rail.*

*I waited **in** the hotel lobby.*

Verbs which describe ‘movement with an end’, e.g. *lay, place, sit, stand* do not combine with prepositions like *into, onto* or *to*:

*She laid the letter **on** the table.*

*She sat the baby **on** the table.*

We can often use the verb *be* with prepositions that normally combine with ‘movement verbs’ to convey the idea of ‘having reached a destination’ (real or metaphorical):

*At last we were **into/out of** the forest (**over** the river).*

*At last we were **out of/over** our difficulties.*

Direction

The following prepositions serve to express the idea of direction: *to, towards, into, along, through, across, on, by, before, over, round, under, out of, from*.

*Jim has gone **to** school.*

*Jim has gone **from** school.*

*I put the pen **on**(**to**) the table.*

*I have put the coin **in**(**to**) my pocket.*

*We ran **out of** the building.*

Time

Temporal relations are expressed by prepositional phrases denoting

a) A point or period of time; these prepositional phrases answer to the question *When*?

The following prepositions express those meanings: *in, at, on, of, by, near, before, after, past, over, beyond, between, within, during, for, through*, etc.:

He became ill during the night.

I shall see him at four o'clock.

We camped there for the summer. (i.e. all through)

We camped there in the summer. (i.e. at some time during the summer)

I always eat my breakfast in ten minutes.

I finished the examination in/within an hour and a half.

b) The point of time at which the action starts or terminates: these prepositional phrases answer to the question *Since when?* or *Till what time?* The following prepositions serve to express those meanings: *from, since, to (down to, up to), into, till, until, etc.*

We slept until midnight. (= We stopped sleeping then)

We didn't sleep until midnight. (= We started sleeping then)

Up to last week, I hadn't received a reply.

The prepositions *at, on* and *in* refer not only to place, but also to time. We can refer to approximate time with *approximately, about, around, round* or *round about*:

The accident happened at approximately 5.30.

The accident happened (at) about/around 5.30.

Time phrases with *at*

Exact time:

at 10 o'clock; at 14 hundred hours

Meal times:

at lunch time; at tea time; at dinner time

Other points of time:

at dawn; at noon; at midnight; at night

Festivals:

at Christmas; at Easter; at Christmas-time

Age:

at the age of 27; at 14

+ time:

at this time; at that time

At is often omitted in questions with *What time...?* and in short answers to such questions:

What time do you arrive? – Nine o'clock in the morning.

The full question and answer is formal:

At what time do you arrive? – At nine o'clock in the morning.

Time phrases with *on*

Days of the week:

on Monday; on Fridays

Parts of the day:

on Monday morning; on Friday evening

Dates:

on June 1st; on 21st March

Day + date:

on Monday, June 1st

Particular occasions:

on that day; on that evening

Anniversaries etc.:

on your birthday; on your wedding day

Festivals:

on Christmas Day; on New Year's Day

In everyday speech *on* is often omitted:

I'll see you Friday. See you June 21st.

Prepositions (and the definite article) must be omitted when we use *last*, *next* and *this*, *that*:

I saw him last/this April. I'll see you next/this Friday.

Time phrases with *in* (= some time during)

Parts of the day:	<i>in the evening; in the morning</i>
Months:	<i>in March; in September</i>
Years:	<i>in 1900; in 1948; in 1998</i>
Seasons:	<i>in (the) spring; in (the) winter</i>
Centuries:	<i>in the 19th century, in the 20th century</i>
Festivals:	<i>in Ramadan; in Easter week</i>
Periods of time:	<i>in that time; in that age; in the holidays</i>

Abstract Relations

Besides local and temporal meanings prepositional phrases may have a variety of more abstract meanings such as:

a) Manner:

The army swept through the city like a pestilence.

The task was done in a workmanlike manner.

We were received with the utmost courtesy.

b) Means or instrument:

I usually go to work by bus/train/car.

Someone had broken the window with a stone.

He caught the ball with his left hand.

c) Accompaniment:

I'm so glad you're coming with us.

They played all sorts of games with other children.

d) Purpose or cause:

Do it for your own sake.

He went in search of it.

He'll do anything for money.

Because of the drought, the price of bread was high that year.

On account of his wide experience, he was made chairman.

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CONJUNCTIONS

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are form-words; they have no independent meaning of their own, but serve to connect words, groups of words, and sentences or clauses. This connection is brought about either by way of co-ordination or by way of subordination.

Accordingly, conjunctions are classed as co-ordinative and subordinative.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinating (or co-ordinative) conjunctions connect homogeneous parts in a simple sentence, independent sentences or coordinate clauses in a compound sentence. There are four different kinds of coordinating conjunctions.

1. Copulative conjunctions

chiefly denote that one statement or fact is simply added to another, sometimes they are used to express an opposition or an explanation: *and, both ... and; not only ... but (too/as well); not only ... but (also); and then; as well as, neither ... nor*:

I make the payments and keep the accounts.

The fur coat was both soft and warm.

The fur coat was soft and also warm.

The fur coat was soft as well as warm.

He not only washed the car, but polished it (too/as well).

He can neither read nor write.

Not only men but also women were chosen.

2. Disjunctive conjunctions

denote separation: *or, or else, else, either ... or, neither ... nor* ('not one of two'), *not only ... but also*, etc.

Take this book or that one.

Either my answer or yours is wrong.

Neither your answer nor mine is right.

Not only is your answer wrong but mine is also.

3. Adversative conjunctions

suggest contrast: *but, still* ('admitting that/nevertheless'), *while, whereas, yet* ('in spite of that/all the same, nevertheless'):

The coat was thin but warm.

He washed the car, but didn't polish it.

The car was quite old; yet/still/however/nevertheless it was in excellent condition.

They are ugly and expensive; yet people buy them.

4. Causative-consecutive conjunctions

so, for, therefore, accordingly, thus, hence, consequently, etc.

Our cases were heavy, so we took a taxi.

He couldn't find his pen, so he wrote in pencil. (The subject is usually repeated after *so*.)

There is fog at Heathrow; the plane, therefore, has been diverted.

We rarely stay in hotels, for we can't afford it.

For gives the reason for something that has already been stated. Unlike *because*, it cannot begin a sentence. The subject must be repeated after *for*. This use of *for* is more usual in the written language.

Some of the coordinating conjunctions are polysemantic. Thus the coordinating conjunction *and* can serve a variety of purposes to express:

addition: *We were talking and laughing* (= in addition to)

result: *He fell heavily and broke his arm.* (= so)

condition: *Weed the garden and I'll pay you!* (= If...then)

sequence: *He finished lunch and went shopping* (= then)

contrast: *Tom's 15 and still sucks his thumb.* (= despite this)

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SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinating (or subordinative) conjunctions are used to introduce

1. noun clauses (*that, if, whether, lest*)

He said that he would help us.

I will come if you want me.

She feared lest they should take her at her word.

2. adverbial clauses or phrases of every kind

Some conjunctions have more than one meaning and may introduce more than one type of clause. For instance the *that-clause* can occur as:

subject: *That she is still alive is a consolation.*

direct object: *I told him that he was wrong.*

subject complement: *The assumption is that things will improve.*

appositive: *Your assumption, that things will improve, is unfounded.*

adjectival complement: *I'm sure that things will improve.*

When the *that-clause* is object or complement, the conjunction *that* is frequently omitted in informal use:

I knew *I told him* *I'm sure* } *he was wrong.*

When the clause is subject, *that* cannot be omitted and is usually expanded to *the fact that*, except in very formal English:

(The fact) that she is still alive consoles me.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Clauses of time

These clauses broadly answer the question *When?* and can be introduced by the following conjunctions: *when, after, as, as long as, as soon as, before, by the time, now, once, since, until, when*. We generally use a comma when the adverbial clause comes first:

When I last saw you, you lived in Washington.

We always have to wait till/until the last customer has left.

Buy your tickets as soon as you reach the station.

Clauses of place

These clauses answer the question *Where?* and can be introduced by the conjunctions *where, wherever, anywhere* and *everywhere*.

Adverbial clauses of place normally come after the main clause:

You can't camp where/wherever/anywhere you like these days.

They went wherever they could find work.

Clauses of manner

These clauses answer the question *How?* Clauses of manner are introduced by the conjunctions *(just) as, (exactly) as*. Adverbial clauses of manner normally come after the main clause:

Please do it (exactly) as I instructed. ('in the way that...')

Type this again as I showed you a moment ago. ('in the way I showed you')

Adverbial clauses of manner can also be introduced by the conjunctions *as if* and *as though* after verbs *be, act, appear, behave, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste*:

I feel as if/as though I'm floating on air.

He looks as if he is going to be ill.

Clauses of condition and concession

Whereas conditional clauses state the dependence of one circumstance or set of circumstances on another:

If you treat her kindly, (then) she'll do anything for you,

concessive clauses imply a contrast between two circumstances, i.e. the main clause is surprising in the light of the dependent one:

Although he hadn't eaten for days, he (nevertheless) looked very fit.

Much as I'd like to help, there isn't a lot I can do.

Clauses of condition are introduced by *if* (positive condition) and *unless* (negative condition).

He must be lying if he told you that.

Unless the strike has been called off, there will be no trains tomorrow.

Clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by *though, although, while, whereas, even if, much as ...*

Clauses of reason or cause

These clauses broadly answer the question *Why?* and can be introduced by the following conjunctions: *because, as, and since*.

As/Since Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others.

As/Because/Since there was very little support, the strike was not successful.

Clauses of purpose

These clauses answer the questions *What for?* and *For what purpose?* and can be introduced by the following conjunctions: *so that*, *in order (that)*, *in case*, *lest* and *for fear (that)*.

They left the door open in order for me to hear the baby.

In the purpose clause the modal auxiliaries *should*, *could*, *might* or *would* are used:

I arrived early so that/in order that I should/could/might/would get a good view of the procession.

Clauses of result

These clauses describe consequences. They can be introduced by *that* after *so + adjective* to answer, e.g. the question *How (quick)...?*

His reactions are so quick that no one can match him.

and by *that* after *so + adverb* to answer, e.g. *How (quickly)...?*

He reacts so quickly that no one can match him.

They can also be introduced by *that* after *such (a) + noun* (or *adjective + noun*) to answer questions like *What's (he) like?*:

He is such a marvellous joker that you can't help laughing.

Clauses of comparison

The essential feature of comparative constructions is that two ideas, one expressed by the principal clause and one by the comparative clause, are compared with respect to something they have in common:

He is as quick in answering as his sister (is).

He answers as quickly as his sister (does).

He is not as/so quick in answering as his sister (is).

His sister is quicker than he (is).

He moves more slowly than his sister (does).

The more you practise, the better you get.

The use of conjunctions in comparative constructions is illustrated in paragraphs dealing with the comparison of adjectives (pp. 78) and the comparison of adverbs (pp. 93).

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INTERJECTIONS

An interjection is a word or sound used to express surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other sudden feeling or emotion. It is important because of its high frequency in spoken language. It represents the most primitive type of utterance.

According to their meaning interjections fall under two main groups:

1. Emotional interjections express the feelings of the speaker. The most usual are:

Ah! (expressing surprise or satisfaction) (= ah!, ach!)

Ah! is it you? Ah! what anguish!

Oh! (expressing pain or surprise) (= ach, á, jé)

Oh! were this day my last!

Oh, how cold it is!

Alas! (expressing sorrow, disappointment) (= běda! bohužel!, želbohu)

Alas, we must part!

2. Imperative interjections show the will of the speaker or his order or appeal to the hearer. They are: *here, hush, now, sh-sh*, etc.

Hush! did you not hear the sound? (= pst! šš!)

Interjections may be primary and secondary:

1. Primary interjections are not derived from other parts of speech. Most of them are simple words: *ah, oh, eh, pooh, fie, hush*. Only a few primary interjections are composite: *heigh-ho! hey-ho! holla-ho! gee-ho!* [dʒi: həu] vijé!

2. Secondary interjections are derived from other parts of speech. They are homonymous with the words they are derived from. They are: *well, now, here, there, come, why, dear me, confound it, hang it*, etc.

There, see that bird! (= hele...)

There, I told you so! (= no, inu...)

Why, you didn't even see him! (= Vždyt' vy jste ho přece ani neviděli!)

Why, how do you do! (= no tak, tak tedy...)

Among interjections are included imitations of sounds such as *mew, cock-a-doodle-doo, swish*. These words do not name the sounds produced by animals or things but imitate them.

Toot-tootle-too, goes the horn.

The dividing line is thin between interjections and exclamations, in which an ordinary word or group of words are used as interjections. Examples of exclamations are:

Good! Bravo! Shame! Nonsense! Stop! Shame on you!

Sometimes other parts of speech and even elliptical sentences are used as interjections; in this case they lose their notional meaning and serve to express only some emotion or feeling:

Help! Come, come! Dear me! Hear! Look! Well! I say! All right! I see!

Interjections usually have no grammatical connection with the sentences in which they occur. Hence they are classed among the ‘independent elements’ of a sentence or are treated as exclamatory phrases. Sometimes, however, a noun is connected with an interjection by means of a preposition:

Alas for my hopes!

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LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

The verbs in roman type are verbs which are not very common in modern English but may be found in literature. When a verb has two possible forms and one is less usual than the other, the less usual one will be printed in roman.

The bullet sign is attached to the verbs which cannot be found in *Stručná mluvnice angličtiny* by Dušková, Bubeníková and Caha (see [Selected Bibliography](#)).

Compounds of irregular verbs form their past tenses and past participles in the same way as the original verb:

<i>come</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>come</i>	
<i>overcome</i>	<i>overcame</i>	<i>overcome</i>	
<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>	
<i>upset</i>	<i>upset</i>	<i>upset</i>	
Present and infinitive	Czech meaning	Simple past	Past participle
abide [ə'baɪd] •	(do)držet, snášet	abode [ə'bəʊd]	abode [ə'bəʊd]
arise [ə'raɪz]	povstat, vzniknout	arose [ə'rəʊz]	arisen [ə'rɪzn]
awake [ə'weɪk]	probudit (se)	awoke [ə'wəʊk]	awoken [ə'wəʊkn]
<i>be</i> [bi:]	být	awaked [ə'weɪkt]	awaked [ə'weɪkt]
		was [wəz, wəz]	been [bi:n, bɪm]
		were [wɜ:, wə]	
<i>bear</i> [beə]	nést, rodit	<i>bore</i> [bɔ:]	<i>borne/born</i> * [bɔ:n]
<i>beat</i> [bi:t]	bít, tlouci	<i>beat</i> [bi:t]	<i>beaten</i> [bi:tn]
<i>become</i> [bɪ'kʌm]	stát se	<i>became</i> [bɪ'keɪm]	<i>become</i> [bɪ'kʌm]
befall [bɪ'fɔ:l] •	přihodit se, udát se	<i>befell</i> [bɪ'fel]	<i>befallen</i> [bɪ'fɔ:lən]
beget [bɪ'get] •	plodit, vyvolávat	<i>begot</i> [bɪ'gɒt]	<i>begotten</i> [bɪ'gɒtn]
<i>begin</i> [bɪ'gɪn]	začínat	<i>began</i> [bɪ'gæn]	<i>begun</i> [bɪ'gʌn]
behold [bɪ'həuld] •	zřít, spatřit	<i>beheld</i> [bɪ'held]	<i>beheld</i> [bɪ'held]
<i>bend</i> [bend]	ohýbat (se)	<i>bent</i> [bent]	<i>bent</i> [bent]
<i>bereave</i> [bɪ'ri:v] •	oloupit, připravit (o)	<i>bereaved</i> [bɪ'ri:vd]	<i>bereaved</i> [bɪ'ri:vd]
			<i>bereft</i> * [bɪ'reft]
<i>beseech</i> [bɪ'si:tʃ] •	doprošovat se, snažně prosít, naléhat	<i>besought</i> [bɪ'sɔ:t]	<i>besought</i> [bɪ'sɔ:t]
<i>bet</i> [bet] •	vsadit se, sázet (se)	<i>betted</i> [betɪd]	<i>betted</i> [betɪd]
<i>bid</i> (= <i>command</i>) [bɪd]	poroučet, rozkazovat	<i>bet</i> [bet]	<i>bet</i> [bet]
<i>bid</i> (= <i>offer</i>) [bɪd] •	nabízet	<i>bade</i> [bæd]	<i>bidden</i> [bɪdn]
<i>bind</i> [baɪnd]	vázat	<i>bid</i> [bɪd]	<i>bid</i> [bɪd]
		<i>bound</i> [baʊnd]	<i>bound</i> [baʊnd]

* These past participles are not optional but carry different meanings and should be checked by the student in a reliable dictionary.

<i>bite</i> [baɪt]	kousat	<i>bit</i> [bit]	<i>bitten</i> [bitn]
<i>bleed</i> [bli:d]	krvácer	<i>bled</i> [bled]	<i>bled</i> [bled]
<i>blend</i> [blend]	míchat, mísit	<i>blended</i> [blendid]	<i>blended</i> [blendid]
 		<i>blent</i> [blent]	<i>blent</i> [blent]
<i>blow</i> [bləʊ]	dout, vanout, foukat	<i>blew</i> [blu:]	<i>blown</i> [bləʊn]
<i>break</i> [breɪk]	lámat, rozbíjet	<i>broke</i> [brəuk]	<i>broken</i> [brəʊkn]
<i>breed</i> [bri:d]	plodit, pěstovat	<i>bred</i> [bred]	<i>bred</i> [bred]
<i>bring</i> [brɪŋ]	přinést	<i>brought</i> [brɔ:t]	<i>brought</i> [brɔ:t]
<i>broadcast</i> [brɔ:dkə:st]	vysílat	<i>broadcast</i> [brɔ:dkə:st]	<i>broadcast</i> [brɔ:dkə:st]
<i>build</i> [bɪld]	stavět, budovat	<i>built</i> [bilt]	<i>built</i> [bilt]
<i>burn</i> [bɜ:n]	hořet, pálit	<i>burned</i> [bɜ:nd]	<i>burned</i> [bɜ:nd]
 		<i>burnt</i> [bɜ:nt]	<i>burnt</i> [bɜ:nt]
<i>burst</i> [bɜ:st]	puknout, prasknout	<i>burst</i> [bɜ:st]	<i>burst</i> [bɜ:st]
<i>buy</i> [baɪ]	kupovat	<i>bought</i> [bɔ:t]	<i>bought</i> [bɔ:t]
<i>can</i> ⁺ [kæn]	moci	<i>could</i> [kud]	<i>be able</i> [bi: eɪbl]
<i>cast</i> [ka:st]	vrhat, odlévat	<i>cast</i> [ka:st]	<i>cast</i> [ka:st]
<i>catch</i> [kætʃ]	chyhat	<i>caught</i> [kɔ:t]	<i>caught</i> [kɔ:t]
<i>chide</i> [tʃaɪd]	hádat se, přít se	<i>chid</i> [tʃid]	<i>chidden</i> [tʃɪdn]
<i>choose</i> [tʃu:z]	vybrat si, zvolit	<i>chose</i> [tʃəuz]	<i>chosen</i> [tʃəuzn]
<i>cleave</i> [kli:v] •	lpět, odštěpit, oddělit	<i>clove</i> [kləuv]	<i>cloven</i> [kləuvn]
 		<i>cleft</i> [kleft]	<i>cleft</i> [*] [kleft]
<i>cling</i> [klɪŋ]	lpět, lnout	<i>clung</i> [klʌŋ]	<i>clung</i> [klʌŋ]
<i>clothe</i> [kləuð] •	obléci, ošatit, odít	<i>clothed</i> [kləuðd]	<i>clothed</i> [kləuðd]
 		<i>clad</i> [kləd]	<i>clad</i> [kləd]
<i>come</i> [kʌm]	přijít	<i>came</i> [keim]	<i>come</i> [kʌm]
<i>cost</i> [kɒst]	stát (o ceně)	<i>cost</i> [kɒst]	<i>cost</i> [kɒst]
<i>creep</i> [kri:p]	lézt, plazit se	<i>crept</i> [krept]	<i>crept</i> [krept]
<i>crow</i> [krəʊ] •	kokrhat, halekat	<i>crowed</i> [krəud]	<i>crowed</i> [krəud]
 		<i>crew</i> [*] [kru:]	
<i>cut</i> [kʌt]	řezat, krájet	<i>cut</i> [kʌt]	<i>cut</i> [kʌt]
<i>dare</i> [deə]	odvážit se, troufat si	<i>dared</i> [deəd]	<i>dared</i> [deəd]
 		<i>durst</i> [dɜ:st]	<i>durst</i> [dɜ:st]
<i>deal</i> [di:l]	jednat, obchodovat	<i>dealt</i> [delt]	<i>dealt</i> [delt]
<i>dig</i> [dɪg]	kopat	<i>dug</i> [dʌg]	<i>dug</i> [dʌg]
<i>do</i> [du:]	dělat, činit, konat	<i>did</i> [dɪd]	<i>done</i> [dʌn]
<i>draw</i> [drɔ:]	táhnout, kreslit	<i>drew</i> [dru:]	<i>drawn</i> [drɔ:n]
<i>dream</i> [dri:m]	snít, mít sen	<i>dreamed</i> [dri:md]	<i>dreamed</i> [dri:md]
		<i>dreamt</i> [dremt]	<i>dreamt</i> [dremt]

<i>drink</i> [drɪŋk]	pít	<i>drank</i> [dræŋk]	<i>drunk</i> [drʌŋk]
<i>drive</i> [draɪv]	hnát, pohánět, jet	<i>drove</i> [drəʊv]	<i>drunken</i> [drʌŋkn] – adj.
<i>dwell</i> [dwel]	přebývat, trvat na čem	<i>dwelld</i> [dweld]	<i>driven</i> [drɪvn]
<i>eat</i> [i:t]	jíst	<i>ate</i> [et, eɪt]	<i>dwelld</i> [dwelt]
<i>fall</i> [fɔ:l]	padata	<i>fell</i> [fel]	<i>eaten</i> [i:tn]
<i>feed</i> [fi:d]	živit, krmit	<i>fed</i> [fed]	<i>fallen</i> [fɔ:lən]
<i>feel</i> [fi:l]	cítit (se)	<i>felt</i> [felt]	<i>fed</i> [fed]
<i>fight</i> [faɪt]	bojovat, zápasit	<i>fought</i> [fɔ:t]	<i>felt</i> [felt]
<i>find</i> [faɪnd]	nalézt, shledat	<i>found</i> [faʊnd]	<i>fought</i> [fɔ:t]
<i>flee</i> [fli:]	prchat	<i>fled</i> [fled]	<i>found</i> [faʊnd]
<i>fling</i> [flɪŋ]	mrštit, házet	<i>flung</i> [flʌŋ]	<i>fled</i> [fled]
<i>fly</i> [flaɪ]	létat	<i>flew</i> [flu:]	<i>flung</i> [flʌŋ]
<i>forbear</i> [fɔ:'beə] •	zdržet se, odříci si	<i>forbore</i> [fɔ:'bo:]	<i>flown</i> [fləʊn]
<i>forbid</i> [fə'bɪd]	zakázat	<i>forbade</i> [fə'bæd]	<i>forborne</i> [fɔ:'bɔ:n]
<i>forget</i> [fə'get]	zapomenout	<i>forgot</i> [fə'gɒt]	<i>forbidden</i> [fə'bɪdn]
<i>forgive</i> [fə'gɪv]	odpustit	<i>forgave</i> [fə'geɪv]	<i>forgotten</i> [fɔ:gɒtn]
<i>forsake</i> [fə'seɪk]	opustit	<i>forsook</i> [fə'suk]	<i>forgiven</i> [fə'gɪvn]
<i>freeze</i> [fri:z]	mrznout	<i>froze</i> [frəuz]	<i>forsaken</i> [fə'seɪkn]
<i>get</i> [get]	dostat (se)	<i>got</i> [gɒt]	<i>frozen</i> [frəʊzn]
<i>gild</i> [gɪld] •	pozlatit, zkrášlit, ozdobit	<i>gilded</i> [gɪldɪd]	<i>got</i> [gɒt]
<i>gird</i> [gɜ:d] •	opásat, obtočit, obklopit	<i>gilt</i> [gɪlt]	<i>gilded</i> [gɪldɪd]
<i>give</i> [gɪv]	dát	<i>girded</i> [gɜ:dɪd]	<i>gilt</i> [gɪlt]
<i>go</i> [gəʊ]	jít	<i>girt</i> [gɜ:t]	<i>girded</i> [gɜ:dɪd]
<i>grind</i> [graɪnd]	brousit, mlít	<i>gave</i> [geɪv]	<i>girt</i> [gɜ:t]
<i>grow</i> [grəʊ]	růst	<i>went</i> [went]	<i>given</i> [grɪvn]
<i>hang</i> [hæŋ]	viset, věset, oběsit	<i>ground</i> [graʊnd]	<i>gone</i> [gɒn]
<i>have</i> [hæv]	mít	<i>grew</i> [gru:]	<i>ground</i> [graʊnd]
<i>hear</i> [hɪə]	slyšet	<i>hanged</i> [hæŋd]	<i>grown</i> [grəʊn]
<i>hew</i> [hju:] •	tesat, pokáčet, vysekat	<i>hung</i> [hʌŋ]	<i>hanged</i> [hæŋd]
<i>hide</i> [haɪd]	skrývat (se)	<i>had</i> [hæd]	<i>hung*</i> [hʌŋ]
<i>hit</i> [hit]	udeřit, zasáhnout	<i>heard</i> [hɜ:d]	<i>had</i> [hæd]
<i>hold</i> [həʊld]	držet	<i>hewed</i> [hju:d]	<i>heard</i> [hɜ:d]
<i>hurt</i> [hɜ:t]	ranit, ublížit	<i>hid</i> [hid]	<i>hewed</i> [hju:d]
		<i>hit</i> [hit]	<i>hewn</i> [hju:n]
		<i>held</i> [held]	<i>hidden</i> [hɪdn]
		<i>hurt</i> [hɜ:t]	<i>hit</i> [hit]
			<i>held</i> [held]
			<i>hurt</i> [hɜ:t]

<i>keep</i> [ki:p]	držet	<i>kept</i> [kept]	<i>kept</i> [kept]
<i>kneel</i> [ni:l]	klečet	<i>knelt</i> [nelt]	<i>knelt</i> [nelt]
<i>knit</i> * [nit] •	spojit, stmelit	<i>knit</i> [nit]	<i>knit</i> [nit]
<i>know</i> [nəu]	znát, vědět	<i>knew</i> [nju:]	<i>known</i> [nəun]
<i>lay</i> [lei]	položit	<i>laid</i> [leid]	<i>laid</i> [leid]
<i>lead</i> [li:d]	vést	<i>led</i> [led]	<i>led</i> [led]
<i>lean</i> [li:n]	vyklánět se, opírat se	<i>leaned</i> [li:nd]	<i>leaned</i> [li:nd]
		<i>leant</i> [lent]	<i>leant</i> [lent]
<i>leap</i> [li:p]	skákat	<i>leaped</i> [li:pt]	<i>leaped</i> [li:pt]
		<i>leapt</i> [lept]	<i>leapt</i> [lept]
<i>learn</i> [l3:n]	učit se	<i>learned</i> [l3:nd]	<i>learned</i> [l3:nd]
		<i>learnt</i> [l3:nt]	<i>learnt</i> [l3:nt]
<i>leave</i> [li:v]	opustit, odjet, zanechat	<i>left</i> [left]	<i>left</i> [left]
<i>lend</i> [lend]	půjčit	<i>lent</i> [lent]	<i>lent</i> [lent]
<i>let</i> [let]	nechat	<i>let</i> [let]	<i>let</i> [let]
<i>lie</i> [lai]	ležet	<i>lay</i> [lei]	<i>lain</i> [lein]
<i>light</i> [laɪt]	rozsvítit, zapálit	<i>lighted</i> [laɪtɪd]	<i>lighted</i> [laɪtɪd]
		<i>lit</i> [lit]	<i>lit</i> [lit]
<i>lose</i> [lu:z]	ztratit	<i>lost</i> [lɒst]	<i>lost</i> [lɒst]
<i>make</i> [meɪk]	dělat, vyrábět	<i>made</i> [meɪd]	<i>made</i> [meɪd]
<i>may</i> ⁺ [meɪ]		<i>might</i> [maɪt]	—
<i>mean</i> [mi:n]	mínit, znamenat	<i>meant</i> [ment]	<i>meant</i> [ment]
<i>meet</i> [mi:t]	potkat	<i>met</i> [met]	<i>met</i> [met]
<i>mow</i> [məu] •	sekat, žnout	<i>mowed</i> [məud]	<i>mowed</i> [məud]
			<i>mown</i> [məun]
<i>must</i> ⁺ [mʌst]	muset	<i>had to</i> [hæd tu]	—
<i>ought</i> ⁺ [ɔ:t]	—	—	—
<i>pay</i> [pei]	platit	<i>paid</i> [peɪd]	<i>paid</i> [peɪd]
<i>put</i> [put]	dát (něco někam)	<i>put</i> [put]	<i>put</i> [put]
<i>read</i> [ri:d]	číst	<i>read</i> [red]	<i>read</i> [red]
<i>rend</i> [rend] •	trhnout, štípat, rvát	<i>rent</i> [rent]	<i>rent</i> [rent]
<i>rid</i> [rid] •	zbavit, vyčistit	<i>rid</i> [rid]	<i>rid</i> [rid]
<i>ride</i> [raɪd]	jet (např. na kole)	<i>rode</i> [rəud]	<i>ridden</i> [rɪdn]
<i>ring</i> [rɪŋ]	zvonit	<i>rang</i> [ræŋ]	<i>rung</i> [rʌŋ]
<i>rise</i> [raɪz]	zvednout se, vstát, stoupat	<i>rose</i> [rəuz]	<i>risen</i> [rɪzn]
<i>run</i> [rʌn]	běžet	<i>ran</i> [ræn]	<i>run</i> [rʌn]
<i>saw</i> [sɔ:] •	řezat, přeříznout, (pře)pilovat	<i>sawed</i> [sɔ:d]	<i>sawed</i> [sɔ:d]
<i>say</i> [sei]	říci, pravit	<i>said</i> [sed]	<i>said</i> [sed]

<i>see</i> [si:]	vidět	<i>saw</i> [sɔ:]	<i>seen</i> [si:n]
<i>seek</i> [si:k]	hledat, snažit se	<i>sought</i> [sɔ:t]	<i>sought</i> [sɔ:t]
<i>sell</i> [sel]	prodávat	<i>sold</i> [səuld]	<i>sold</i> [səuld]
<i>send</i> [send]	poslat	<i>sent</i> [sent]	<i>sent</i> [sent]
<i>set</i> [set]	postavit, dát (něco někam), posadit	<i>set</i> [set]	<i>set</i> [set]
<i>sew</i> [səu]	šít	<i>sewed</i> [səud]	<i>sewed</i> [səud]
 			<i>sewn</i> [səun]
<i>shake</i> [ʃeɪk]	trást (se)	<i>shook</i> [ʃuk]	<i>shaken</i> [ʃeɪkn]
<i>shave</i> [ʃeɪv]	holit (se)	<i>shaved</i> [ʃeɪvd]	<i>shaved</i> [ʃeɪvd]
 			<i>shaven</i> [ʃeɪvn] – adj.
<i>shall</i> ⁺ [ʃæl]	–	<i>should</i> [ʃud]	–
<i>shear</i> [ʃɪə]	stříhat, zastříhovat	<i>sheared</i> [ʃɪəd]	<i>sheared</i> [ʃɪəd]
 			<i>shorn</i> [ʃɔ:n]
<i>shed</i> [ʃed]	shazovat, pouštět, zbavovat se	<i>shed</i> [ʃed]	<i>shed</i> [ʃed]
<i>shine</i> [ʃaɪn]	svítit, zářit	<i>shone</i> [ʃɒn]	<i>shone</i> [ʃɒn]
<i>shoe</i> [ʃu:]	obout, okovat	<i>shoed</i> [ʃu:d]	<i>shoed</i> [ʃu:d]
 			<i>shod</i> [ʃɒd]
<i>shoot</i> [ʃu:t]	střílet	<i>shot</i> [ʃɒt]	<i>shot</i> [ʃɒt]
<i>show</i> [ʃəu]	ukázat	<i>showed</i> [ʃəud]	<i>showed</i> [ʃəud]
 			<i>shown</i> [ʃəun]
<i>shrink</i> [ʃrɪŋk]	scvrknout se, svrasknout se	<i>shrank</i> [ʃræŋk]	<i>shrunk</i> [ʃrʌŋk]
<i>shut</i> [ʃʌt]	zavřít	<i>shut</i> [ʃʌt]	<i>shut</i> [ʃʌt]
<i>sing</i> [sɪŋ]	zpívat	<i>sang</i> [sæŋ]	<i>sung</i> [sʌŋ]
<i>sink</i> [sɪŋk]	klesnout	<i>sank</i> [sæŋk]	<i>sunk</i> [sʌŋk]
<i>sit</i> [sɪt]	sedět	<i>sat</i> [sæt]	<i>sat</i> [sæt]
<i>slay</i> [sleɪ]	zabít, pobít, vymítit	<i>slew</i> [slu:]	slain [sleɪn]
<i>sleep</i> [sli:p]	spát	<i>slept</i> [slept]	<i>slept</i> [slept]
<i>slide</i> [slaɪd]	klouzat (se)	<i>slid</i> [slɪd]	<i>slid</i> [slɪd]
<i>sling</i> [sliŋ]	mrštit, házet	<i>slung</i> [slʌŋ]	<i>slung</i> [slʌŋ]
<i>slink</i> [sliŋk]	plížit se	<i>slunk</i> [slʌŋk]	<i>slunk</i> [slʌŋk]
<i>slit</i> [slɪt]	rozříznout, rozpárat, rozstříhnout	<i>slit</i> [slɪt]	<i>slit</i> [slɪt]
<i>smell</i> [smel]	čichat, páchnout	<i>smelled</i> [smeld]	<i>smelled</i> [smeld]
<i>smite</i> [smait]	zasáhnout, postihnout	<i>smote</i> [sməut]	smitten [smɪtn]
<i>sow</i> [səu]	sít, rozsévat	<i>sowed</i> [səud]	<i>sowed</i> [səud]
<i>speak</i> [spi:k]	mluvit	<i>spoke</i> [spəuk]	<i>spoken</i> [spəukn]
<i>speed</i> [spi:d]	spěchat	<i>speeded</i> [spi:dɪd]	<i>speeded</i> [spi:dɪd]

<i>spell</i> [spel]	hláskovat	<i>sped</i> [sped]	<i>sped</i> [sped]
<i>spend</i> [spend]	strávit, utratit	<i>spelled</i> [speld]	<i>spelled</i> [speld]
<i>spill</i> [spil]	rozlít	<i>spelt</i> [spelt]	<i>spelt</i> [spelt]
<i>spin</i> [spin]	příst	<i>spent</i> [spent]	<i>spent</i> [spent]
<i>spit</i> [spit]	plivat	<i>spilled</i> [spild]	<i>spilled</i> [spild]
<i>split</i> [split]	rozštípnout	<i>spilt</i> [spilt]	<i>spilt</i> [spilt]
<i>spread</i> [spred]	prostřít, rozprostírat se, šířit (se)	<i>spun</i> [spʌn]	<i>spun</i> [spʌn]
<i>spring</i> [sprɪŋ]	skákat	<i>spat</i> [spæt]	<i>spat</i> [spæt]
<i>stand</i> [stænd]	stát	<i>split</i> [split]	<i>split</i> [split]
<i>steal</i> [sti:l]	krást	<i>spread</i> [spred]	<i>spread</i> [spred]
<i>stick</i> [stɪk]	vězet, nalepit	<i>sprang</i> [spræŋ]	<i>sprung</i> [sprʌŋ]
<i>sting</i> [stɪŋ]	bodnout, uštnout	<i>stood</i> [stud]	<i>stood</i> [stud]
<i>stink</i> [stɪŋk]	zapáchat	<i>stole</i> [stəul]	<i>stolen</i> [stəulən]
<i>strew</i> [stru:]	posypat	<i>stuck</i> [stʌk]	<i>stuck</i> [stʌk]
<i>stride</i> [straɪd]	kráčet	<i>stung</i> [stʌŋ]	<i>stung</i> [stʌŋ]
<i>strike</i> [strāk]	bít, tlouci	<i>stank</i> [stæŋk]	<i>stunk</i> [stʌŋk]
<i>string</i> [strɪŋ] •		<i>stunk</i> [stʌŋk]	
<i>strive</i> [strāv]	usilovat, snažit se	<i>strewed</i> [stru:d]	<i>strewed</i> [stru:d]
<i>swear</i> [sweə]	přísahat, klít	<i>strode</i> [strəud]	<i>strewn</i> [stru:n]
<i>sweep</i> [swi:p]	mést	<i>stricken</i> [strɪdn]	<i>stridden</i> [strɪdn]
<i>swell</i> [swel]	otéci, nafouknout se	<i>struck</i> [strāk]	<i>struck</i> [strāk]
<i>swim</i> [swim]	plavat	<i>strung</i> [strʌŋ]	<i>strung</i> [strʌŋ]
<i>swing</i> [swɪŋ]	houpat se	<i>strode</i> [strəuv]	<i>striven</i> [strivn]
<i>take</i> [teɪk]	vzít, brát	<i>struck</i> [strāk]	<i>sworn</i> [swɔ:n]
<i>teach</i> [ti:tʃ]	učit, vyučovat	<i>strove</i> [strəuv]	<i>swept</i> [swept]
<i>tear</i> [teə]	trhat	<i>swore</i> [swɔ:]	<i>swelled</i> [sweld]
<i>tell</i> [tel]	říci, vyprávět	<i>swept</i> [swept]	<i>swollen</i> [swəulən]
<i>think</i> [θɪŋk]	myslit	<i>swelled</i> [sweld]	<i>swum</i> [swʌm]
<i>thrive</i> [θraɪv]	prospívat, prosperovat	<i>swam</i> [swæm]	<i>swung</i> [swʌŋ]
<i>throw</i> [θrəu]	házet	<i>swung</i> [swʌŋ]	<i>taken</i> [teɪkn]
<i>thrust</i> [θrʌst]	(v)strčit, vrazit	<i>took</i> [tuk]	<i>taught</i> [tɔ:t]
<i>tread</i> [tri:d]	šlápnout	<i>taught</i> [tɔ:t]	<i>torn</i> [tɔ:n]
		<i>tore</i> [tɔ:]	<i>told</i> [tɔuld]
		<i>told</i> [tɔuld]	<i>thought</i> [θɔ:t]
		<i>thought</i> [θɔ:t]	<i>thought</i> [θɔ:t]
		<i>thrived</i> [θraɪvd]	<i>thrived</i> [θraɪvd]
		<i>throve</i> [θrəuv]	<i>thriven</i> [θrɪvn]
		<i>threw</i> [θru:]	<i>thrown</i> [θrəun]
		<i>thrust</i> [θrʌst]	<i>thrust</i> [θrʌst]
		<i>trod</i> [trɒd]	<i>trodden</i> [trɒdn]
			<i>trod</i> [trɒd]

<i>understand</i> [ʌndə'stænd]	rozumět	<i>understood</i> [ʌndə'stud]	<i>understood</i> [ʌndə'stud]
<i>undertake</i> [ʌndə'teɪk] •	ujmout se, vykonat, podniknout	<i>undertook</i> [ʌndə'tuk]	<i>undertaken</i> [ʌndə'teɪkn]
<i>wake</i> [weɪk]	vzbudit (se)	<i>waked</i> [weɪkt]	<i>waked</i> [weɪkt]
<i>wear</i> [weə]	nosit (na sobě)	<i>wore</i> [wɔ:]	<i>worn</i> [wɔ:n]
<i>weave</i> [wi:v]	tkát	<i>wove</i> [wəuv]	<i>woven</i> [wəuvn]
<i>weep</i> [wi:p]	plakat	<i>wept</i> [wept]	<i>wept</i> [wept]
<i>wet</i> [wet] •	navlhčit	<i>wetted</i> [wetɪd]	<i>wetted</i> [wetɪd]
<i>will</i> ⁺ [wil]	—	<i>wet</i> [wet]	<i>wet</i> [wet]
<i>win</i> [wɪn]	vyhrát, získat	<i>would</i> [wud]	—
<i>wind</i> [wɪnd]	vinout, natáčet	<i>won</i> [wʌn]	<i>won</i> [wʌn]
<i>wring</i> [rɪŋ]	ždímat	<i>wound</i> [waund]	<i>wound</i> [waund]
<i>write</i> [raɪt]	psát	<i>wrung</i> [rʌŋ]	<i>wrung</i> [rʌŋ]
		<i>wrote</i> [rəʊt]	<i>written</i> [ritn]

Note:

knit = unite/draw together, *knit* (= make garments from wool) is a regular verb.

+ Present only

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