МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ДОНЕЦЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ ІМЕНІ ВАСИЛЯ СТУСА
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ, ПСИХОЛОГІЇ ТА ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ

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ЧАСТИНИ МОВИ: прийменник, сполучник, частка та вигук в англійській мові

Навчально-методичний посібник для самостійної роботи з дисциплін "Перша іноземна мова (англійська)" та "Друга іноземна мова (англійська)" для здобувачів I–III курсів спеціальності 035 Філологія, 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, 035.043 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – німецька

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Навчально-методичний посібник “Частини мови: прийменник, сполучник, частка та вигук в англійській мові” призначений для здобувачів І–ІІІ курсів, які фахово вивчають англійську мову як першу або другу іноземну в межах спеціальності 035 Філологія, 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, 035.043 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – німецька.

Мета посібника – сформувати у здобувачів цілісну картину розуміння місця прийменника, сполучника, частки та вигука в системі англійських частин мови, уміти аргументувати вибір тієї чи іншої мовної одиниці, а також систематизувати і поглибити теоретичні знання прийменника, сполучника, частки та вигука в англійській мові, отримані протягом попередніх періодів навчання.

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Навчально-методичний посібник “Частини мови: прийменник, сполучник, частка та вигук в англійській мові” призначений для здобувачів І–ІІІ курсів, які фахово вивчають англійську мову як першу або другу іноземну в межах спеціальності 035 Філологія, 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, 035.043 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – німецька.

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Посібник складається з п’яти розділів: “Parts of Speech. General Overview”, “Prepositions”, “Conjunctions”, “Particles”, “Interjections”, які містять виклад теоретичного матеріалу, необхідного для опрацювання та засвоєння теми й подальшого виконання практичних завдань.

Наприкінці посібника подано короткий словник термінів “Concise Glossary of Grammar Terms”, низку додатків “Appendices”. У додатках викладено рекомендації щодо роботи зі словниками різних типів (“Dictionaries and How to Use Them”, “Understanding Your Dictionary”), наведено базові онлайн-словники (“Selected Online Dictionaries”) та поширені словникові скорочення, символи і друкарські знаки (“Common Dictionary Abbreviations and Labels”, “Symbols and Typographic Conventions”).

Пропонований посібник може бути використаний як для аудиторної, так і для самостійної роботи здобувачів у межах дисциплін “Перша іноземна мова (англійська)” та “Друга іноземна мова (англійська)”.

UNIT 1
PARTS OF SPEECH

1.1. GENERAL OVERVIEW

The words of every language fall into classes which are called **parts of speech.** Each part of speech has characteristics of its own. Parts of speech differ from each other in meaning, form, and function.

Different parts of speech have different lexical meanings. For example, verbs are words denoting processes *(to work, to live)*; nouns are names of objects *(table, boy)*; adjectives are words expressing characteristics *(good, bad)*, etc.

Some parts of speech have different **grammatical categories,** e.g. verbs have the categories of mood, tense, aspect, phase, voice, person and number; nouns have the categories of number and case; adjectives have degrees of comparison, etc.

Other parts of speech are invariable, they have only one form. Here belong such parts of speech as prepositions and conjunctions.

Parts of speech also differ from each other in their **syntactic functions.** For example, verbs have the function of the predicate in the sentence, nouns are often used as the subject or the object of the sentence, adjectives serve as attributes or predicatives; adverbs are generally adverbial modifiers, etc.

These characteristic features will be described in detail when each part of speech is considered individually.

In addition, all words may be divided into two main groups: **notional** and **structural (functional).**

Notional words have distinct lexical meanings and perform independent syntactic functions in the sentence: they serve either as primary or secondary parts of the sentence. To this group belong the following parts of speech: **verbs, nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns,** and **adverbs.**

Structural words differ from notional words semantically: their lexical meaning is of a more general character than that of notional words (e.g. *in, and, even*). Moreover, they are sometimes altogether devoid of it (e.g. the articles *the* and *a*, the conjunction *that*, the preposition *of*, etc.). Structural words do not perform any independent syntactic function in the sentence but serve either to express various relations between words in a sentence (e.g. *the trees **in** the garden, Tom **and** Joe,* etc.) or to specify the meaning of a word (e.g. ***the** book, **a** book,* etc.). The following parts of speech are to be treated as structural words: **articles, prepositions,** and **conjunctions.**

The division of words into notional and structural is connected with certain difficulties. For example, verbs, which, on the whole, are to be treated as notional words, include certain words which serve as structural elements (e.g. modal verbs), some other verbs may function either as notional words or as structural words (e.g. *to look* is a notional verb in *He looked at me* and a structural word – a link-verb – in *He looked tired*; the verb *to have* is a notional verb in *I have a car* and a structural word – a modal verb – in *I had to do it*). Pronouns may be quoted as another example since, on the one hand, they have, like all notional words, independent syntactic functions in the sentence but, on the other hand, they are devoid of distinct lexical meaning.

1.2. THE VERB

1. According to content, verbs can be described as words denoting actions, the term 'actions' embracing the meaning of activity (e.g. *to walk, to speak, to play, to study*), process (e.g. *to sleep, to wait, to live*), state (e.g. *to be, to like, to know*), relation (e.g. *to consist, to resemble, to lack*) and the like.

According to form, verbs can be described as words that have certain grammatical features that are not shared by other parts of speech, e.g. they have the categories of tense, aspect, voice, etc.

2. According to function, verbs can be defined as words making up the predicate of the sentence.

1) According to their meaning verbs can be divided into two groups – **terminative** and **durative** verbs.

Terminative verbs imply a limit beyond which the action cannot continue. To put it differently, they have a final aim in view, e.g. *to open, to close, to bring, to recognize, to refuse, to break.* With the verb *to open*, for example, that means that after opening the door it is impossible to go on with the action as the door is already open.

Durative verbs do not imply any such limit, and the action can go on indefinitely, e.g. *to carry, to live, to speak, to know, to sit, to play.*

But as most verbs in English are polysemantic they may be terminative in one meaning and durative in another. For example, *to see* may have the terminative meaning and the durative meaning. The meaning of the verb becomes clear from the context. Compare: *I saw him at once* and *I saw his face quite clearly.* As will be seen, the distinction between terminative and durative verbs is of great importance as it affects the use of certain tense-aspect-phase forms.

2) According to their relation to the continuous form, English verbs fall into two groups: **dynamic** verbs, i.e. verbs which admit of the continuous form (a) and **stative** verbs, i.e. verbs which do not admit of the continuous form (b).

e.g. a) *We were eating dinner when he called. You'll find Mother in the kitchen. She is making a cake,*

b) *I understand what you mean. I don't see him in the crowd.*

The distinction between dynamic, and stative verbs is fundamental in English grammar, and it is also reflected in a number of other ways than in the continuous form. It is normal for verbs to be dynamic, and even the minority that are almost always stative can be given a dynamic use on occasion.

3) English verbs are also classified according to the type of object they take. Verbs that do not require any object are called **intransitive.**

e.g. *We walked across the fields. Nobody knew where the old man lived.*

Verbs that require some kind of object to complete their meaning are called **transitive.** The objects transitive verbs take may be **direct** (a), **indirect** (b) or **prepositional** (c).

e.g. a) *I swear I'm telling the truth.*

b) *His mother never gave him advice.*

c) *Now let's talk of something sensible.*

Polysemantic verbs may be transitive in one meaning and intransitive in another.

e.g. *I didn't know where to find him as he had changed his address. I was glad to see that he had not changed at all. He ran uphill past a block of houses. She ran the shop quite competently.*

3. According to their meaning and function in the sentence English verbs are classified into **notional** and **structural** ones.

Notional verbs always have a lexical meaning of their own and can have an independent syntactic function in the sentence.

e.g. *During the war he lived in London.*

When a verb is used as a structural word, it may either preserve or lose its lexical meaning. But even if it has a lexical meaning of its own, the latter is of a specific character and the verb cannot have an independent syntactic function in the sentence – it is always closely connected with some other word. Here belong **modal** verbs and **link**-verbs.

A modal verb is always accompanied by an infinitive – together they form a modal predicate.

e.g. *The party is at eight. You must dress suitably for it. I couldn't do anything under the circumstances.*

A link-verb is followed by a predicative; together they form a nominal predicate.

e.g. *He was a middle-aged man. It became very hot by noon.*

The hotel remained empty all through the winter. The cottage seemed deserted.

Sometimes a verb is entirely devoid of lexical meaning and is then called an **auxiliary** verb. Combined with a notional verb it serves to build up analytical forms.

e.g. *We had arranged to meet in the usual place. Do you know why he said that? The young man was sitting at the table alone.*

Polysemantic verbs may be notional as well as structural words.

e.g. *He is married and has three children* (a notional verb used in the meaning 'to possess').

I had to reconsider my position (a structural word: a modal verb denoting obligation, part of a modal predicate).

'It has happened now,' he said, 'so there's nothing to do' (a structural word: an auxiliary verb which serves to build up an analytical form).

He looked at me, waiting for the next words (notional verb meaning 'glanced').

He looked quite happy (a structural word: a link-verb meaning 'seemed').

4. The forms of the verb may be of two different kinds – **synthetic** or **analytical.**

Synthetic forms are built up by a change in the word itself: by means of flextions (e.g. *I work, he works, we worked*), by means of vowel change (e.g. *I find, I found*), and sometimes by combining both means (e.g. *I think, I thought*).

Analytical forms consist of two components, e.g. *He has worked hard.* The first component is an auxiliary verb which has no lexical meaning – it expresses only grammatical meaning. The second component is a notional verb which is the bearer of lexical meaning. The auxiliary verb shows that *has worked* is the third person singular, the Indicative Mood, the Active Voice. But the specific meaning of this particular form, that of the Present Perfect, results only from the combination of both components.

In the analytical form *was written* (as in: *The letter was written yesterday*), *written* is the bearer of lexical meaning; *was* shows that we are dealing with the third person singular, the Indicative Mood, the Past Indefinite. But again, the specific grammatical meaning of this particular form, that of the Passive Voice, is expressed by the whole combination of the auxiliary and the notional verb.

Thus, an analytical form consists of two words – a structural word and a notional word – which form a very close, inseparable unit. It functions in English as the form of a single word by the side of synthetic forms (e.g. *he works, he has worked, he worked, he was working, he had worked*, etc.).

The auxiliary verb itself may be an analytical form (e.g. *He has been working. He will be working. The letter has been written*, etc.). Such forms may be called complex analytical forms.

1.3. THE NOUN

1. Nouns are names of objects, i.e. things, human beings, animals, materials, and abstract notions (e.g. *table, house, man, girl, dog, lion, snow, sugar, love, beauty*).

Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups: **proper names** (e.g. *John, London, the Thames*) and **common nouns.**

Common nouns, in their turn, are subdivided into **countable** nouns and **uncountable** nouns. Countable nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may be either concrete (e.g. *book, student, cat*) or abstract (e.g. *idea, word, effort*). Uncountable nouns are names of objects that cannot be counted. They may also be concrete (e.g. *water, grass, wood*) and abstract (e.g. *information, amazement, time*).

2. The Gender of Nouns. In accordance with their meaning nouns may be classed as belonging to the **masculine, feminine** and **neuter** gender. Names of male beings are masculine (e.g. *man, husband, boy, son, ox, cock*), and names of female beings are feminine (e.g. *woman, wife, girl, daughter, cow, hen*). All other nouns are said to be neuter (e.g. *pen, flower, family, rain, opinion, bird, horse, pride*). Gender finds its formal expression in the replacement of nouns by the pronouns he *she* or *it.*

However, there are nouns in English which may be treated as either males or females (e.g. *cousin, friend*). They are said to be of common gender. When there is no need to make a distinction of sex, the masculine pronoun is used for these nouns.

Sometimes a separate form for a female is built up by means of the suffix *-ess* (e.g. *host – hostess, actor – actress, waiter – waitress, prince – princess, heir – heiress, tiger – tigress, lion – lioness*).

It is also possible to indicate the gender of a noun by forming different kinds of compounds (e.g. *a man servant – a maid servant, a man driver – a woman driver, a boyfriend – a girlfriend, a tomcat – a tabbycat, a he-wolf – a she-wolf*).

Nouns denoting various kinds of vessels (e.g. *ship, boat*, etc.), the noun *car* as well as the names of countries may be referred to as *she.*

e.g. *Sam joined the famous whaler Globe. She was a ship on which any young man would be proud to sail.*

Getting out of the car he said to the man in the overalls, 'Fill her up, please.'

He said, 'England is decadent. She's finished because she is living in the past.'

3. The Number of Nouns. Number is the form of the noun which shows whether one or more than one object is meant. Some nouns in English may have the singular and the plural forms (e.g. *room – rooms, worker – workers, lesson – lessons*). Other nouns are used either only in the singular (e.g. *freedom, progress, machinery, steel, milk*) or only in the plural (e.g. *spectacles, goods, billiards*).

4. Case is the form of the noun which shows the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence.

English nouns have two case forms – the **common** case and the **possessive** (genitive) case, e.g. *the child – the child's father, an hour – an hour's walk.*

1.4. THE ADJECTIVE

Adjectives are words expressing properties and characteristics of objects (e.g. *large, blue, simple, clever, wooden, economic, progressive,* etc.) and, hence, qualifying nouns.

Grammatically, four features are generally considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

1) their syntactic function of attribute;

2) their syntactic function of predicative;

3) their taking of adverbial modifiers of degree (e.g. *very*);

4) their only grammatical category – the degrees of comparison. Adjectives in English do not change for number or case.

However, not all adjectives possess all of the four features. For example, Features 3 and 4 neither distinguish adjectives from adverbs, nor are found in all adjectives.

Furthermore, there are adjectives that function both attributively and predicatively (e.g. *He is my* young *brother. My brother is* young *yet*). And there are also adjectives that function only attributively (e.g. *a mere child, a sheer waste, an utter fool*) or only predicatively (e.g. *glad, able, afraid, alike, alive,* etc.).

The actual application of adjectives is often, explicitly or implicitly, connected with their semantic characteristics. So, it appears reasonable to divide adjectives into semantic groups each of which has its own possibilities or restrictions.

1. As has been said, most adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively. They are central to this part of speech, as it were.

Besides, there are adjectives that can be used **only attributively.**

To this group belong:

1) intensifying adjectives:

a) emphasizers (giving a general heightening effect): *a clear failure, a definite loss, plain nonsense, a real hero, the simple truth, a true scholar, a sure sign,* etc.

b) amplifiers (denoting a high or extreme degree): *a complete victory, total nonsense, the absolute truth, a great scholar, a strong opponent, utter stupidity, the entire world,* etc.

c) downtoners (having a lowering effect): *a slight misunderstanding, a feeble reason,* etc.

2) restrictive adjectives (which restrict the reference to the noun exclusively, particularly or chiefly): *the exact answer, the main reason, his chief excuse, a particular occasion, the precise information, the principal objection, the specific point,* etc.

3) adjectives related to adverbial expressions: *a former friend* (–> formerly a friend), *a possible opponent* (–> possibly an opponent), *the present leader* (–> the leader at present), *an occasional visitor* (–> occasionally a visitor), *an apparent defeat* (–> apparently a defeat), *the late president* (–> till lately the president).

4) adjectives formed from nouns: *a criminal lawyer, an atomic student, a woollen dress,* etc.

Adjectives that can be used **only predicatively** are fewer in number. They tend to refer to a (possibly temporary) condition rather than to characterize the noun. The most commonly used predicative adjectives are: *able, conscious, fond, glad, ill, subject, (un)well; ablaze, afloat, afraid, aghast, alight, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, averse, awake, aware.*

2. Adjectives are generally **stative.** Many of them, however, may be treated as **dynamic.** Stative and dynamic adjectives differ in some ways, e.g. the link-verb *to be* in combination with dynamic adjectives can have the continuous form or be used in the imperative mood.

e.g. *He is being careful. She is being vulgar.*

Be careful! Don't be vulgar!

Stative adjectives do not admit of such forms (e.g. **He is being tall. *Be tall!).*

To the group of dynamic adjectives belong: *adorable, ambitious, awkward, brave, calm, careful, careless, cheerful, clever, complacent, conceited, cruel, disagreeable, dull, enthusiastic, extravagant, foolish, friendly, funny, generous, gentle, good, greedy, hasty, helpful, irritating, jealous, kind, lenient, loyal, mischievous, naughty, nice, noisy, (im)patient, reasonable, rude, sensible, serious, shy, slow, spiteful, stubborn, stupid, suspicious, tactful, talkative, thoughtful, tidy, timid, troublesome, vain, vulgar, wicked, witty,* etc.

e.g. *I'm sure Nick will understand that it's only for his own good that you're being so unkind.*

In those days a woman did not contradict a man's opinion when he was being serious.

3. Adjectives are also distinguished as **gradable** and **nongradable.** Most adjectives are gradable. That means that they can be modified by adverbs of degree and themselves change for degrees of comparison.

e.g. Your niece is so (very, extremely, too) young. Tom is stronger than Father. He is the strongest in the family.

All dynamic adjectives are gradable; most stative adjectives are gradable, too.

4. Degrees of Comparison.

There are three degrees of comparison: **positive, comparative** and **superlative.**

The positive form is the plain stem of an adjective (e.g. *heavy, slow, straight, extravagant,* etc.).

There are two methods of forming the comparative and the superlative degrees: 1) by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est,* and 2) by using *more* and *most* before the adjective.

1.5. THE PRONOUN

Pronouns include a miscellaneous group of words which function in the sentence as noun pronouns or as adjective pronouns.

It is difficult to define the meaning of pronouns. Unlike nouns and adjectives, they do not name objects or qualities, but only point to them. In other words, they are devoid of concrete lexical meaning. They have a generalized meaning instead, which becomes clear only in the context or situation.

Various individual pronouns may have different grammatical categories. Some of them have the category of number (e.g. *this – these, that – those*), others have the category of case (e.g. *I – me, somebody – somebody's*), still others are invariable (e.g. *each, such, all, what* and some others).

It should be pointed out that although pronouns function as nouns or adjectives in the sentence, they do not cover all the functions of the two parts of speech but can only have some of them. Pronouns can be divided into the following classes:

1) personal pronouns (e.g. *I, we, you, he, she, it, they; me, us, you, him, her, it, them*);

2) possessive pronouns (e.g. *my, our, your, his, her, ots, their*);

3) reflexive pronouns (e.g. *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves*);

4) emphatic pronouns (e.g. *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves*);

5) demonstrative pronouns (e.g. *this, these, that, those, such, same*);

6) indefinite pronouns (e.g. *some, any, no*; *somebody, anybody, nothing,* etc.; *one, none*; *all, every, each, other, both,* etc.; *everybody, everyone, everything*; *much, many, little, few,* etc.);

7) reciprocal pronouns (e.g. *each other*, *one another*);

8) interrogative pronouns (e.g. *who (whom), whose, what, which, how much, how many*);

9) conjunctive pronouns (e.g. *who (whom), whose, what, which, how much, how many, that*).

1.6. THE NUMERAL

Numerals include two classes of words – **cardinal** and **ordinal** numerals.

Cardinal numerals indicate number: *one, two, three, four, ten, twelve, eighteen, twenty, thirty-three, seventy-five, ninety-one, a hundred, one hundred and forty-six, two hundred and twenty-eight, a thousand, three thousand and fifty-two, seven thousand three hundred and seventeen,* etc.

Note that the numerals *hundred, thousand* and *million* are always preceded by the indefinite article *a* or the numeral *one.* The latter is generally used when these numerals are followed by some other numerals, e.g. *a hundred* but *one hundred and twenty three; a thousand* but *one thousand seven hundred and thirty.*

Care should be taken to remember the following patterns:

a) *five hundred books* (= 500 books), *three thousand cars* (= 3,000 cars), *two million workers* (= 2,000,000 workers);

b) *hundreds of books, thousands of cars, millions of workers.*

In the examples under (a) the exact number of persons or things is given; in the examples under (b) *hundred, thousand* and *million* do not indicate any exact number but only a great multitude of persons or things.

Ordinal numerals indicate order: *first, second, third, fourth, tenth, twelfth, eighteenth, twenty-fifth, forty-seventh, a hun dredth, two hundred and thirty-ninth,* etc.

1.7. THE ADVERB

1. Adverbs are a miscellaneous class of words which is not easy to define. Some adverbs resemble pronouns, e.g. *here, there, then, where.* Others have a lot in common with prepositions, e.g. *about, since, in, before, over.* Still others are derived, from adjectives, e.g. *seriously, slowly, remarkably.*

Adverbs have diverse lexical meanings and differ from each other in their structure and role in the sentence.

Structurally, some adverbs are **single words** (e.g. *fast, well, clearly, somehow, nowhere, sideways, southward(s),* etc.), others are **phrases** (e.g. *at last, all along, at first, in front, from above, since then, till later, for once, the day after tomorrow, all of a sudden, as a result,* etc.).

Most adverbs serve to **modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs** in the sentence.

e.g. *He spoke resolutely.*

They are coming here tomorrow. He has known it all along. My mother looked somewhat pale. She knew him very well.

Some adverbs **modify whole sentences** expressing an evaluation of what is said in the sentence with respect to either the form of communication or to its content.

e.g. *Briefly, there is nothing more I can do about it. Frankly, I am tired.*

Still other adverbs have a connective function between what is being said and what was said before.

e.g. *I've talked to him several times about the matter, and yet he does nothing about it. He, however, hasn't arrived yet.*

The girl seems very intelligent, though. She wouldn't come anyway.

2. Classification of Adverbs

According to their meaning, adverbs fall into the following groups:

1) **adverbs of time:** *afterwards, already, at once, eventually, immediately, lately, now, presently, soon, suddenly, then, when, yesterday, yet,* etc.

e.g. *He is coming tomorrow. He is now in his office.*

2) **adverbs of frequency:** *always, constantly, hardly ever, never, occasionally, often, seldom, sometimes, three times, twice,* etc.

e.g. *He is always in time for meals. They sometimes stay up all night.*

3) **adverbs of place or direction:** *abroad, ashore, backwards, below, downstairs, everywhere, here, inside, outside, seaward(s), there, to and fro, where,* etc.

e.g. *I looked for him everywhere. It was all rather dark within. A dog began to bark somewhere inside.*

The use of *somewhere, anywhere* and *nowhere* in different kinds of sentences is similar to the use of the corresponding indefinite pronouns *some, any* and *no*.

4) **adverbs of manner:** *badly, clearly, deeply, fast, how, quickly, sideways, sincerely, somehow, well, willingly,* etc.

e.g. *He speaks English well. George played very badly in the match yesterday.*

Adverbs of manner saying *how* an action is performed can freely occur with dynamic verbs, but not with stative verbs.

e.g. *He looked into the problem carefully. He walked upstairs quietly. The boy blushed violently.*

5) **adverbs of degree or intensifiers:** *completely, enough, extremely, highly, muck, nearly, perfectly, pretty, quite, rather, really, so, somewhat, terribly, too, unusually, very,* etc.

e.g. *I quite agree with you. He is very clever. He did it quickly enough.*

Adverbs of degree or intensifiers may be subdivided into three semantic groups:

a) **emphasizers** (emphasizing the truth of the communication): *actually, at all, clearly, definitely, indeed, just, literally, plainly, really, simply,* etc.

e.g. *I really don't know what he wants. They literally tore his arguments to pieces. I simply don't believe you. I just can't understand it. You haven't done it well at all.*

b) **amplifiers** (expressing a high degree): *absolutely, altogether, badly, bitterly, completely, deeply, entirely, extremely, (by) far, fully, greatly, heartily, much, perfectly, quite, terribly, thoroughly, utterly, very,* etc.

e.g. *I thoroughly disapprove of his methods. He completely ignored my request. He needs a warm coat badly. They are very close friends. Your work is not altogether satisfactory.*

c) **downtoners** (lowering the effect): *a bit, almost, barely, enough, hardly, kind of, (a) little, moderately, more or less, nearly, partly, quite, rather, scarcely, slightly, somewhat, sort of, sufficiently,* etc.

e.g. *I know him slightly. I partly agree with you. I kind of like him. I don't like his attitude a bit. I almost believed him.*

6) focusing **adverbs,** which can be of two kinds:

a) **restrictive:** *alone, exactly, just, merely, only, precisely, purely, simply, especially,* etc.

e.g. *I am simply asking the time. My father alone could help me at the time.*

b) **additive:** *again, also, either, equally, even, too,* etc.

e.g. *He didn't answer my letter again. I, too, am very busy at the moment.*

7) **viewpoint adverbs:** *economically, morally, politically, scientifically, weatkerwise,* etc. Such adverbs are understood to mean 'from a moral (political, scientific) point of view'.

e.g. *Geographically and linguistically, these islands are closer to the mainland than to the neighbouring islands. Economically, the project is bound to fail.*

8) **attitudinal adverbs** which express the speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying. Such adverbs can be of two kinds:

a) adverbs expressing a comment on the truth-value of what is being said, indicating the extent to which the speaker believes what he is saying is true: *admittedly, allegedly,*

apparently, certainly, decidedly, definitely, doubtless, maybe, obviously, perhaps, possibly, presumably, probably, quite likely, supposedly, surely, undoubtedly, etc.

e.g. *Perhaps the public does not have much choice in the matter. Certainly, he had very little reason to fear anyone.*

b) adverbs expressing some attitude towards what is being said: *amazingly, cleverly, (in)correctly, curiously, foolishly, (un)fortunately, funnily enough, (un)happily, incredibly, ironically, (un)justly, (un)luckily, oddly, preferably, reasonably, remarkably, sensibly, significantly, strangely, tragically, typically, unexpectedly,* etc.

e.g. *He is wisely staying at home tonight. Naturally we were extremely annoyed when we received the letter.*

9) **conjunctive adverbs:** *above all, accordingly, alternatively, anyhow, anyway, as a result, at any rate, besides, by the way, consequently, finally, first(ly), for all that, for example, further, furthermore, hence, however, incidentally, in other words, in spite of that, instead, in that case, lastly, likewise, meantime, mean while, namely, nevertheless, next, on the contrary, on the one (other) hand, otherwise, rather, secondly, similarly, so, still, that is, then, therefore, though, thus, too, yet,* etc.

e.g. *I'd like you to do two things for me. First, phone the office and tell them I'll be late. Secondly, order a taxi to be here in about half an hour. Incidentally, he left you a message. It is on your desk. I didn't like the food there. However, I didn't complain about it. He has been working very hard. He looks fit, though.*

10) **formulaic adverbs** (markers of courtesy): *cordially, kindly, please,* etc.

e.g. *Will you kindly help me with the parcel? We cordially invite you to our party. Let me have a look at the picture, please.*

1.8. THE ARTICLE

The article is a structural word specifying the noun. The absence of the article, which may be called **the zero article,** also specifies the noun and has significance.

There are two articles in English which are called the **definite** and the **indefinite** article.

The use of articles, as well as their absence, has grammatical meaning and follows certain rules. There are cases, however, in which the use of articles cannot be accounted for grammatically as it has become a matter of tradition.

1.9. THE PREPOSITION

Prepositions are function words which are used with a noun (or a noun-equivalent, e.g. a pronoun or an *-ing* form) to show its relation to some other word in the sentence (a verb, another noun, an adjective and occasionally an adverb).

The face of his visitor was so distasteful to him that he could scarcely bear to look at it.

The stream was very shallow because of the drought but still it was active, hurrying over the pebbles.

The question, thrown at her so vehemently, took from her the power of thought for a moment.

They agreed to his proposal independently of each other.

Prepositions may be single words, e.g. *in, for, below, behind, across, inside, within,* etc., and also phrases consisting of more than one word, e.g. *because of, thanks to, due to, in front of, owing to, but for,* etc. Besides, there are a large number of combinations in English based on the pattern **preposition + noun + preposition** (e.g. *in addition to, on top of, on account of, in view of, in accordance with, in contrast with, with respect to,* etc.). They are on the way to becoming prepositions.

1.10. THE CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions are function words that serve to connect words or phrases as well as clauses or sentences.

Sadie brought them in and went back to the door.

I like cooking and eating, but I don't like washing dishes afterward.

Have a safe trip. And don't forget to call when you get home.

Conjunctions may be **single words,** e.g. *and, as, because, but, or, though, while,* etc., **phrases** consisting of more than one word, e.g. *in order that, on condition (that), in case, as soon as, as long as, for fear (that), as if, as though,* etc., and also **correlative conjunctions**, i.e. conjunctions that are always used in pairs, e.g. *as...as, both ... and, either ... or, not only ... but also,* etc.

1.11. THE INTERJECTION

Interjections are words or phrases expressing emotions, such as surprise, anger, pleasure, regret, indignation, encouragement, triumph, etc. They are used as exclamations. While interjections are a part of speech, they are not grammartically connected to other parts of a sentence.

1.12. THE PARTICLE

1. Particles are unchangeable words specifying some component in a phrase or the whole phrase (a sentence / clause).

Unlike conjunctions or prepositions, particles do not express any syntactic relations. Their function is to emphasise, restrict or make negative the meaning of the units they specify by giving some additional shade (emotional, evaluative, etc.) to their meaning / sense.

Some particles may perform form-building functions: as an infinitival identifier (***to*** *ask,* ***to*** *be reading*), as a negator of a word (*can****not***) or a phrase (***not*** *he, certainly* ***not, no*** *reading practice*).

As to their morphological structure, particles may be:

1) **Simple:** *all, else, even, just, too, yet, not*;

2) **Derivative:** *alone, merely, scarcely, simply*;

3) **Compound:** *almost, also*.

Almost all the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs *(just, simply, yet, still, exactly, precisely, right, too, barely),* but also with conjunctions *(but)*, pronouns *(all)*, and adjectives *(only, even)*.

*She is old **too*** (particle).

*She is **too** old* (adverb).

***Only** a doctor can do that* (particle).

*She is the **only** person for the job* (adjective).

2. According to their meaning particles fall under the following main groups:

1) **Limiting particles:** *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely*, etc.

They single out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea (notion) expressed by them.

*I **only** wanted to make you speak*. (Shaw).

***Just** one question, Mrs. Dartie. Are you still fond of your husband?* (Galsworthy).

2) **Intensifying particles:** *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even, etc*.

They emphasize the meaning of the word (or phrase, or clause) they refer to or give special prominence to the notion expressed by it.

*He made plans to renew this time in places **still** more delightful*. (Galsworthy).

*They did not **even** know that he was married*. (Galsworthy).

3) **Connecting particles:** *too, also*.

*Higgins comes in. He takes off the hat and overcoat. Pickering comes in. He **also** takes off his hat and overcoat* (Shaw).

*He (James) was silent. Soames, **too,** was silent*. (Galsworthy).

4) **Negative particles:** *not, never, no*.

These particles are used for the following purposes:

a) to make a predicate verb negative, eg:

*Six weeks is**n't** really long*. (Galsworthy).

b) to make a part of the sentence / a component of a word-group negative. eg:

***Not** everyman's money*. (Idiom).

c) to negate the preceding suggestion, eg:

"What'd he cop, malaria?" ***"No".*** (F. Hardy).

5) **Specifying particles:** *right, exactly, precisely, just.*

They make the meaning of the word or phrase they refer to more precise.

*Draw a circle **right** in the middle of the map.*

*They arrived **precisely** at ten.*

6) **The additive particle** *else.*

It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It shows that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned:

*Something **else,** nobody **else,** what **else,** where **else.***

UNIT 2
PREPOSITIONS

2.1. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

1. Prepositions are structural words which are used with a noun (or a noun-equivalent, e.g. a pronoun or an *ing-form)* to show its relation to some other word in the sentence (a verb, another noun, an adjective and occasionally an adverb).

The face of his visitor *was* ***so distasteful to him*** *that he could scarcely bear to* ***look at it.***

The *stream* ***was very shallow because of the drought*** *but still it was active,* ***hurrying over the pebbles.***

The question, ***thrown at her*** *so vehemently,* ***took from her the power of thought for a moment.***

They ***agreed to his proposal independently of each other.***

Prepositions may be single words, e.g. *in, for, below, behind, across, inside, within,* etc., and also phrases consisting of more than one word, e.g. *because of, thanks to, due to, in front of, owing to, but for,* etc. Besides, there are a large number of combinations in English based on the pattern **preposition + noun + preposition** (e.g. *in addition to, on top of, on account of, in view of, in accordance with, in contrast with, with respect to,* etc.). They are on the way to becoming prepositions.

NOTE!

Some ing-forms are also used as prepositions, e.g. *concerning, including,* etc.

2. Most of the common English prepositions are **simple** in structure: *out, in, for, on, about, but (в значении кроме, исключая), against.*

Derived prepositions are formed from other words, mainly participles: *excepting, concerning, considering, following, including during depending, granted, past, except.*

There are also many **compound** prepositions: *within, outside, upon, onto, throughout, alongside, wherewith, whereof, hereupon, herein, hereafter, withal.*

Composite or phrasal prepositions include a word of another class and one or two prepositions, as in *by virtue of, but for, because of, by means of, instead of, in lieu of, prior to, on account of, abreast of, thanks to, with reference to, opposite to, in front of, for the sake of, in view of, in spite of, in preference to, in unison with, for the sake of except for, due to, in addition to, with regard to, on behalf of in line with, at variance with.*

A composite preposition is indivisible both syntactically and semantically, that is, no element of it can be varied, abbreviated, or extended according to the normal rules of syntax. Thus in the composite preposition *for the sake of* neither the definite article nor the preposition can be replaced by words of similar meaning.

3. Prepositions may have a lexical meaning of their own.

Her sister appeared, carrying a wine-glass in which there was a raw egg, ***with*** *a little sherry* ***on*** *it.*

The path felt springy ***beneath*** *his feet.*

*He dropped **into** a chair **beside** his mother.*

*She arrived **before** lunch.*

Prepositions may indicate position in space or direction (e.g. *on, in, under, over, at, near, to, into, out of, from, towards,* etc.), time (e.g. *after, before, during, for, in, on, at,* etc.), various abstract relations (e.g. *by, with, at, on, for, against, because of, instead of, owing to, according to,* etc.).

Most prepositions are polysemantic.

*I've been here **for** two weeks.*

*He's brought a letter **for** you.*

*Did you pay him **for** his work?*

*I was punished **for** my little joke.*

*They went out **for** a walk.*

*They sent **for** a doctor.*

*The letters MP stand **for** Member of Parliament.*

But the meaning of prepositions is often weakened and sometimes becomes even difficult to trace.

*There is a man waiting **for** you in your office.*

*The success of the operation depends entirely **on** your consent.*

*Who is responsible **for** this decision?*

*There is nothing wrong **with** him.*

4. The choice of prepositions is determined by different factors.

Sometimes it is quite free, i.e. it entirely depends on the meaning the speaker wishes to convey.

*There was a photograph of a young girl **on** his desk.*

*There was a photograph of a young girl **in his desk.***

*There was a photograph of a young girl **over his desk.***

*There was a photograph of a young girl **under his desk.***

But more often the choice of the preposition is determined by the head-word.

*No one could **account for his objection to** our **plan.***

*He should be ashamed **of** himself.*

*You shouldn't rely **on** him.*

Who is going to look after your children while you are away?

*Your brother was **cruel to** him.*

*I've been **dependent on** both of you so **long.***

*She was **treated for** diabetes.*

*He was **proud of** his elder son.*

*Everyone is conscious **of** the change in the man.*

*He is quite **good at** painting.*

*There is no **point in** arguing.*

It is in this case that the meaning of the preposition often becomes weakened.

The choice of the preposition may also depend on the noun that follows the preposition.

*Who was the first to speak **at the** meeting?*

*He went there **on business.***

*He is now **on a concert tour** in Europe.*

I'm planning to finish it ***in February.***
He woke up ***at 8 o'clock.***
We discussed it ***in detail.***
No one could help him ***under the circumstances.***

In this case the preposition and the noun often become set phrases (e.g. *in the evening, at dawn, by day, by taxi,* etc.). The meaning of the preposition is also weakened here.

5. Although prepositions serve to express various relations between the noun (or noun-equivalent) following it and other words in the sentence, they sometimes get separated from the noun (or noun-equivalent). This occurs in:

a) special questions,
What are you looking ***for?***
Who(m) did you speak ***with?***
What conclusion did you come ***to?***
b) certain subordinate clauses,
What he is waiting ***for*** *is not likely to happen.*
That is what he wanted to begin ***with.***
I *know who(m) he is worried* ***about.***
I'm expecting a letter my plans for the future depend ***on.***
c) certain passive constructions,
He loved the dogs and they were taken good care ***of.***
They found him so ill that a doctor was immediately sent for.
His marriage was very much talked ***about.***
d) certain functions of the infinitive or infinitive phrase,
He hated to be made fun ***of.***
When he retired he went to live in Dorset, in a charming place his wife had bought for him to retire ***to.***
You have a lot to be thankful ***for.***
You've done nothing to be ashamed ***of.***
There is nothing more to worry ***about.***

Sometimes one and the same noun is associated with two or more different prepositions. The noun itself need not be repeated after each preposition and is usually placed after the last one.

It is a book ***for*** *and* ***about children.***
The pronoun much is used ***of*** *and* ***with uncountable nouns.***
He cared ***for*** *and looked* ***after his ageing mother.***

It follows from the above examples that the prepositions in this case are retained by the preceding head-word.

6. The prepositions *of, by* and *to* may become entirely devoid of lexical meaning and serve to express mere grammatical relations. This occurs in the following constructions:

Anne was the wife ***of*** *a miner.*
They were followed by their two daughters.
They offered the job ***to*** *Hawkins.*

The prepositions are said to be grammaticalized in this case.

2.2. PREPOSITIONS OF TIME

2.2.1. PREPOSITIONS OF TIME: AT, IN, ON, FROM TO, PAST

1. We use **at** with an exact point in time.

*The morning session begins **at** 8.30 and ends at noon.*

***At** that time I was still a student.*

We also use **at** before names of mealtimes or general words for holidays and when we talk about a person's age as a point in time.

*I'll see you **at** breakfast.*

*What does your family do **at** Christmas? (BUT **on** Christmas Day).*

*Both my parents left school **at** 16.*

***At** your age, I was already married and had a baby.*

2. We use **in** with a period of time.

*We usually listen to music **in** the evening.*

*They did all the repairs **in** one day.*

Note that ***in** the night* ('during a specific night') is different from ***at** night* ('during any night').

We also use **in** before the names of months, seasons or years, and before phrases identifying centuries and historical periods.

*Summer time begins **in** March.*

*It's very dry here **in** summer.*

*Dickens died **in** 1870.*

*The house was built **in** the 19th century.*

*Jazz first became popular **in** the 1920s.*

We can also use **in** for a period of time before something happens or is completed.

*I'll be back **in** an hour.*

*They said they'd finish the work **in** two or three days.*

3. We use **on** with a specific day, or part of a specific day, and dates.

*I'll see you **on** Sunday.*

*The meeting is **on** Monday morning.*

*The exam is **on** May 30th.*

In informal uses, especially in American English, on is often left out*: I'll see you Sunday.*

We also use **on** with special days or occasions.

*I'll be there **on** your birthday.*

*What do you do **on** Christmas Day? (BUT **at** Christmas).*

4. We don't usually use **at, in** or **on** before time expressions beginning with ***each, every, last, next.***

*We had meetings every day **last week.***

*I'm leaving **next Friday.***

NOTE!

on time = punctual, not late.

The police are almost always on time.

Trains are never on time in the summertime.
(just) **in time** for... (to do) smth = soon enough for...
If we hurry, we'll be in time to catch the bus.
If they don't lose time, they'll be just in time for the plane.

at the end of... (something).
in the end = finally, at last.
We wrote a quiz at the end of the class.
In the end they decided to call the police.

5. We can use **from** and **to** for starting and end points in time. We can also use **past** ('later than') with a point in time.
The class meets from 2.30 to 4.30.
We lived in Athens from 1998 to 2002.
What time is it? ~ It's past eight o'clock. Actually, it's already twenty past eight.

2.2.2. PREPOSITIONS OF TIME: DURING, FOR, SINCE, THROUGHOUT, OVER, BEFORE, BY, UNTIL, UP TO

1. We can use **during** or **in** when something happens at some point within a specific period of time. We usually use **during (not in)** when we're talking about the whole period of time.
*We'll be on holiday **during / in** July.*
*The old road is sometimes closed **during / in** winter.*
*We need fewer workers **during** long weekends.*
*There were no classes **during** the whole of May.*
We can use **during (not for)** to say when something happens and **for (not during)** to say how long something lasts.
***During** April, I'm hoping to go to New York for a few days.*
We use **during,** rather than **in,** to mean 'at some time in the period of' before nouns such as ***illness, holiday, meal, stay, treatment,*** and ***visit,*** when we refer to an event which lasts some time and also with the phrase ***the whole (of),*** emphasising duration of an entire period:
*The President made the speech **during a visit** to Madrid.*
*No-one was allowed to leave the ship **during the whole** of its time in port.*

2. We can use **over** or **during** when we talk about something that goes on for a length of time within a period of time, either for some of that period or for the whole of it:
*Weather conditions have been improving **over / during** the past few days.*
*I fell, banged my head, and can't remember anything about what happened **over / during** the next hour or so.*
However, if we talk about a short event that happens within a period of time, we prefer **during:**
*She sneezed **during** the performance.* (= on one or a few occasions; *not* ...over the performance).
***During** a pause in the conversation, she left the room.*

3. We can use **throughout** to emphasise that something happens over the whole of a period of time:

*We had enough firewood to keep us warm **throughout** the winter, (or ...warm **during / through** the winter).*

Note that we can use **throughout** to mean that short events happen continuously within a period of time:

*She sneezed **throughout** the performance.*

4. When we're talking about a period of time up to the present, we can use **for** to say how long it has been and **since** to say when it started.

*We've been waiting **for** hours.*

*I've been a student here **for** two years (NOT ~~since two years~~).*

*We've been waiting **since** eight o'clock.*

*I've been a student here **since** 2004.*

We usually use a perfect tense, not the Present Simple, with **since.**

5. We usually use **before** very generally for something happening earlier than a certain time. We use **by** more precisely when we mean 'at / on or before' a specific time. We use **until** for a period of time up to a specific point in time. We can use **not ... until** when we mean 'not earlier than'.

*Jill: Didn't Rob say he would be here **before** six? (= at some time earlier than six).*

*Bev: I think he said he hoped to be here **by** six. (= at or before, but not later, than six).*

*Jill: I guess we should wait for him **until** six-fifteen. (= during the period up to six-fifteen).*

*Bev: I bet he won't get here **until** six-thirty. (= not earlier than six-thirty).*

In informal uses, **till** is sometimes used instead of until: *He won't get here till six-thirty*.

6. We don't usually use two prepositions together, but the combinations **since before** ('from a point in time earlier than') and **until after** ('up to a point in time later than') are sometimes used.

*They've lived here since **before** the war.*

*Don't say 'Happy New Year' until **after** midnight.*

7. In informal contexts we can use **up to** or **up till** instead of until. We commonly use **up to / till** with ***now*** and with ***then:***

*I've just bought a computer. I've always used a typewriter **up to now.** (or ...**up till now...**).*

*The roadworks are likely to go on **up to** the end of May. (or ...**up till** the end...).*

8. We can use **until now** to talk about a situation that will not continue beyond now:

*Supermarkets say that **until now** there has been little consumer interest in buying organic produce. (The situation has changed or is going to change).*

Notice, however, that we don't use **until now** for a situation that will or may continue into the future. Instead we can use **so far** or, in formal contexts, **to date:**

*It was certainly the best match of the football season **so far.***

*When the contract is signed it will be the building company's biggest order **to date.***

2.3. PREPOSITIONS OF PLACE

2.3.1. PREPOSITIONS OF PLACE: AT, IN, ON

1. When something is **at** a place, it is close to it, but not touching it. We can also use **at** when we talk about a point on a scale or a journey.

*We'll meet you **at** the bus stop.*
*I think I heard someone **at** the door.*
*Bake the pie in the oven **at** 170.*
*I'm sure we stopped **at** York during our trip north.*

2. When something is **in** a place, it is inside it. We can also use **in** when we talk about a place as a general area such as a region or a country.

*The money was **in** a box in a drawer in the desk in my office.*
*What's **in** the envelope?*
*Lily is going to spend a week **in** Tuscany this summer.*
*Is that **in** France or Italy?*
Note that we say: *Who is the small boy **in the picture?***

3. When something is **on** a place, it is in contact with a surface. We can also use **on** when we talk about a place in relation to a line such as a road or a river.

*I left the keys **on** the table.*
*She reached over and put her hand **on** his.*
*You'll pass Stratford **on** the way to Birmingham.*
*It's just a small town **on** the river Avon.*

4. After verbs such as ***shout, smile, bark, glance, laugh, look, scream, stare, swear, yell*** we use **at** before an object that is the target of the action.

*Why is that man shouting **at** us?*
*She smiled **at** me (NOT ~~She smiled me~~).*

After verbs such as ***believe, include, indulge, interfere, invest, join, meddle, result, specialize, wallow*** we use **in** before objects that describe ideas and things as if they were places.

*I don't believe **in** life after death.*
*The tip is included **in** the bill (NOT ~~It's included the bill~~).*

After verbs such as ***comment, concentrate, depend, focus, insist, lecture, plan, rely, remark, report*** we use **on** before an object.

*We can't comment **on** the test results yet.*
*I can't concentrate **on** my work (NOT ~~I can't concentrate my work~~).*

5. After nouns such as ***ban, restriction, attack, constraint, effect, emphasis, imposition, limit, perspective, sanctions*** we use **on** before another noun.

*Isn't there a ban **on** pesticides?*
*They have restrictions **on** the amount of money you can send.*

2.3.2. PREPOSITIONS OF PLACE: ABOVE, BELOW, BETWEEN, OVER, UNDER, AMONG

1. We use **above** and **over** to say that one thing is in a higher position than another.

*There's a full moon **above / over** the mountain.*

*He has a small scar **above / over** his left eye.*

We can use **above** (not over) when one thing is at a higher level or point on a scale than another. We can use **over** (not above) when one thing covers another in some way. More figuratively, **above** can be used with the sense of 'better than' and **over** with the sense of 'more than'.

*It's always colder **above** the snowline.*

*Her name is above mine **on** the waiting list.*

*There are thick clouds **over** most of Scotland.*

*I had to wear a scarf **over** my head.*

*His work is **above** average.*

*Are you **over** 21? (NOT ~~Are you above 21~~?).*

We prefer **above,** when one thing is not directly over the other. Compare:

*They lived in a village in the mountains **above** the lake (not directly over).*

*The bird hovered just a few metres **above / over** the lake (directly over).*

We use **over,** not above, when something covers something else and touches it and usually when we are talking about horizontal movement at a higher level than something:

*She put a quilt **over** the bed.*

*O I saw the helicopter fly out **over** the water, near the fishing boat.*

2. We use **below** and **under** to say that one thing is in a lower position than another.

*Their flat is **below / under** ours.*

*I keep the bleach **below / under** the sink in the kitchen.*

We use **below** (not under) when one thing is at a lower level or point on a scale than another. We use **under** (not below) when one thing is covered by another in some way. More figuratively, under can be used with the sense of 'less than'.

*Most of New Orleans is **below** sea level.*

*I'm sure the temperature is **below** zero tonight.*

*The puppy likes to hide **under** the sofa.*

*Do you always wear a vest **under** your shirt?*

*If you're **under** 21, you can't get into the club.*

*The total cost of the trip was **under** £50.*

Below is the opposite of **above; under** is the opposite of **over.** The differences in the uses of below and under are similar to those between above and over:

*It's hard to believe that there is a railway line **below / under** the building (at a lower level).*

*Her head was **below** the level of the table so nobody noticed her (not directly under).*

*She hid the presents **under** a blanket (the blanket covers and touches the presents).*

*Esther ran **under** the bridge (horizontal movement at a lower level).*

3. We can use **underneath** to emphasize 'covered by':

*I keep my money **underneath** my mattress.*

Beneath is sometimes used as a more formal alternative to under or below.

We can use **throughout** to emphasise that something is in every part of a place:

*The flower is found **throughout** the island.*

*The same laws apply **throughout** Europe.*

4. We can talk about a place **between** two or more separate people or things or **among** more than two people or things together as a group.

*Find Luxembourg **on** the map.*

*It's **between** Belgium, France and Germany.*

*Find Luxembourg **on** the map.*

*It's **among** the countries of Western Europe.*

More figuratively, **between** (not among) can be used to talk about how things are connected and **among** (not between) can be used with the sense of 'included in'.

*In the study, they investigated the relationship **between** education, diet and health.*

***Among** the advantages of private schools are small classes and more individual attention.*

2.4. PREPOSITIONS OF MOVEMENT AND PLACE

1. We use **from** for the origin or starting point and **to** for the goal or end point of movement. More figuratively, **from** and **to** can be used for the starting and end points of changes.

*We flew straight **from** London **to** San Francisco.*

*I can walk **from** my flat **to** work.*

*He translated the book **from** Russian **to** English.*

*It went **from** quite cool **to** very hot in an hour.*

We can use **towards** ('in the direction of') to focus on the direction of movement. More figuratively, **towards** can be used to talk about the direction of development or change.

*I suddenly saw a car coming **towards** me.*

*If you get lost, try to walk **towards** the south.*

*The trend is **towards** much larger farms.*

*This agreement is an important step **towards** peace.*

Note that **toward** is also used, especially in American English:

*It's a step **toward** peace.*

2. We can use **into** when we focus on movement to a place inside something and **onto (or on to)** for movement to a surface of some kind.

*We took a bus **into** the city centre.*

*The waiter poured some wine **into** each glass.*

*Let's move the small books **onto** the top shelf.*

*Paint was dripping from his brush **onto** the floor.*

3. We can use **across**, **over** and **through** for movement from one side of something to the other.

*The early explorers had to get **across / over / through** the Rocky Mountains to reach the coast.*

We usually use **across** for movement to the other side of a surface or area, **over** for movement to the other side of something that is viewed as high or as a line and **through** for movement that enters and leaves something.

*We spent a month travelling **across** America.*

*She pushed a note **across** the table to him.*

*The gate was locked so I climbed **over** the wall.*

*It was a good shot, but it went **over** the bar.*

*With practically all the results declared, the Nationalist Party has 68 percent of the vote, so it's all **over** bar the shouting.*

*You have to go **through** the kitchen to get to the bathroom.*

*The Thames flows **through** London.*

We use **through** to emphasise that we are talking about movement in a three dimensional space, with things all around, rather than a two dimensional space, a flat surface or area:

*He pushed his way **through** the crowd of people to get to her.*

Through often suggests movement from one side or end of the space to the other. Compare:

*She walked **through** the forest to get to her grandmother's house,* and

*She spent a lot of her free time walking **in** the forest.*

We can use **across** and **over** for place ('on the other side of'):

*There's a cafe **across / over** the street.*

We prefer **all over** rather than **all across** to mean 'to or in many different parts of an area'.

However, we commonly use **across,** or **right across** for emphasis:

*The disease has now spread **all over** the world (or ...(right) across the world).*

4. We can use **along** for movement in one direction or to describe the position of something which is somewhere in that direction. We can use **past** for movement beyond a specific point or to describe the position of something beyond a specific point.

*I like walking **along** country lanes.*

*There's a cafe **along** the street.*

*We drove **past** Stratford, but didn't stop there.*

*There's a cafe just **past** the church.*

When we talk about following a line of some kind (a road, a river, etc.), we use **along:**

*They walked **along** the footpath until they came to a small bridge.*

5. We can use **off** for movement away from a surface or to describe the position of something in relation to a surface. We use **out of** for movement from the inside of something or to describe the position of something which is no longer inside.

*Could you take that box **off** the table?*

*The platform was about two feet **off** the ground.*

*I lifted the kitten out of the box. As soon as it was **out of** the box, it started crying.*

Note that we don't use **out** (without of) as a preposition. (NOT ~~It was out the box~~).

More figuratively, **off** can be used with the sense of not connected to and **out of** with the sense of 'no longer having'.

*This part of your essay is completely **off** the main topic.*

*Skye is an island **off** the west coast.*

*Were **out of** milk, so I have to go to the shop.*

*A lot of people are **out of** work now.*

2.5. PREPOSITIONS EXPRESSING ABSTRACT RELATIONS

2.5.1. PREPOSITIONS USED FOR CONNECTIONS: OF, WITH, BY

1. We use **of** and **with** when we talk about people and things being connected. We can put **of** between two noun phrases to show that the first belongs to or is part of the second. We can put **with** between two noun phrases when the second is a particular feature of the first.

*The roof **of** their house is bright red.*

*The sleeves **of** this shirt are too long.*

*Theirs is the house **with** the bright red roof.*

*I'm looking for a white shirt **with** short sleeves.*

We can use **of** to say how people are related and **with** to say that people or things are together.

*Is Briony the daughter **of** Alice Hawthorn?*

*Yes, she's a good friend **of** mine.*

*I think Lee went shopping **with** her friends.*

*Would you like some wine **with** your meal?*

We use **of** after some adjectives and **with** after others.

*Millie is afraid **of** dogs.*

*The report was full **of** mistakes. (NOT ~~It was full with mistakes~~).*

*Are you aware **of** the risks involved?*

*I was fond **of** my old car, but it had too many problems.*

*We were faced **with** a difficult choice.*

*I wasn't familiar **with** that computer programme.*

*There are side effects associated **with** most medicines.*

*He wasn't satisfied **with** my work.*

2. We can use **with** plus a determiner and noun for the specific thing used to perform an action.

We usually use **by** plus a noun (no determiner) or gerund when we want to describe the action in a more general way.

*I paid **with** my credit card.*

*The thief broke the lock **with** a knife. (NOT ~~by a knife~~).*

*I paid **by** credit card.*

He opened the door by breaking the lock (NOT ~~by break the lock~~).

Other by-phrases used with a general meaning include: ***by air, by bus, by email, by phone.***

2.5.2. PREPOSITIONS USED FOR EXCEPTIONS: EXCEPT (FOR), BESIDES, APART FROM, BUT FOR, WITHOUT AND MINUS

1. We can use **except** or **except for** ('not including') with someone or something not included in a general statement, usually after a quantifier such as ***every.*** We usually use **except for** (not except) with information added to a specific statement that makes it not completely true.

*It's open every day **except (for)** Sunday.*

*Everyone liked the film **except** me. (not except I).*

*She says she's stopped smoking **except for** an occasional cigarette at a party.*

We can use **except** (not except for) before preposition phrases, with to-infinitives, bare infinitives and clauses (that-clauses).

*I work here all day **except** on Friday.*

*It will be sunny everywhere **except** in the north.*

*I've never heard their baby cry **except** when it gets tired.*

*I rarely need to go into the city centre **except** to do some shopping.*

*They look just like the real thing, **except** that they're made of plastic.*

*There is likely to be rain everywhere today **except** in Wales.*

*There is nothing more the doctor can do **except** keep an eye on him.*

*They look just like the real thing, **except** (that) they're made of plastic.*

In negative sentences, we can use **besides** with the same meaning as **except (for).** In other sentences, **besides** usually means 'in addition to'.

*I didn't know anyone in London **besides / except (for)** my uncle Henry.*

***Besides** football, what other sports do you like?*

*I've talked to a lot of people **besides** Henry.*

We can use **apart from** instead of both except (for) ('not including') and besides ('in addition to').

*It's open every day **apart from** Sunday.*

***Apart from** football, what other sports do you like?*

Note that **aside** from is used like apart from, especially in American English.

We can use **but** with a similar meaning to **except (for),** particularly after negative words such as ***no, nobody***, and ***nothing:***

*Immediately after the operation he could see nothing **but / except (for) / apart from** vague shadows.*

*There was no way out **but / except / apart from** upwards, towards the light.*

But for has a different meaning from except for. We use **but for** to say what would or might have happened if the thing introduced by **but for** had not happened:

*The country would now be self-sufficient in food **but for** the drought last year. (= if there hadn't been the drought...).*

***But for** the leg injury he suffered last year, he would probably have been picked for the national team by now. (= if he hadn't injured his leg...).*

However, some people use **except for** in the same way as but for, particularly in informal spoken English:

*I'd have got there on time **except for** the taxi being late (or ...but for the taxi being late).*

Except for *the problems with my computer, I would have got the book finished weeks ago. (or But for the problems with my computer...).*

We can use **excepted, apart** or **aside** after mentioning a person or thing to say that they are not included in a statement that we make:

It has been, 1984 ***excepted / apart / aside,*** *the hottest July for the last 100 years.*

Tom had difficulties with question two. This ***excepted / apart / aside,*** *he did very well in the exam.*

2. We use **except (for)** with something not included in a general statement. We use **without** for something not included in the wider senses of 'not having' or 'not doing' something.

We can use **minus** when we want to emphasize that something has been removed.

I prefer tea ***without*** *milk, don't you?*

Romeo chose death rather than life ***without*** *Juliet.*

Bill changed his travel plans without any explanation.

Then he left without saying goodbye.

They eventually published the report, without / minus several important sections.

2.6. PREPOSITIONS AFTER VERBS

Some verbs are frequently followed by particular prepositions.

common verb + preposition combinations:

	about	after	for	of	on	with
agree	+				+	+
argue	+		+			+
ask	+	+	+	+		
care	+		+			
enquire / inquire	+	+				
know	+			+		
learn	+			+		
talk	+			+	+	+

about usually means 'concerning a particular thing':

They began to ***learn about*** *nutrition when they were at primary school.*

We use **care about** to talk about something we are (not) concerned about:

He doesn't seem to care about the effect smoking has on him.

after is used with ask and enquire meaning to try to get information about a person (but not a thing), particularly concerning their health. Compare:

I'm phoning to ***ask / enquire after*** *Mrs Brown in Ward 4. (or ...ask / enquire about...)* and

He got angry when they ***asked / enquired about*** *his private life (NOT ...~~asked / enquired after~~...).*

for is used with **ask** to talk about what people want:

He finished the drink quickly and ***asked for*** *another.*

and with **care** to talk about doing the necessary things for someone or something in order to keep them in good health or condition:

*Jan **cared for** her disabled mother until her death last year (or Jan took care of...).*

or to mean 'like', particularly in negative sentences, and to mean 'want' in offers. Both of these uses of **care for** are rather formal:

*I don't **care for** the theatre much.*

*Would you **care for** a cup of coffee?*

of is used with **talk, know,** and **learn** to talk about discussing, having or getting information:

*Diane went recently to Laos and can **talk of** nothing else (or less formally '...talk about...').*

*The whole country **knew of** Churchill's love of cigars (or less formally '...knew about...').*

*I have just **learnt of** the death of Dr Brown (or less formally '...learnt about...').*

We use **ask of** when we make or talk about requests:

*I have a favour to **ask of** you and your sister.*

on is used with **talk** and **agree** to mean 'concerned with a particular topic':

*I was asked to **talk on** my research (or ...to talk about...).*

*We **agreed on** a time to meet (usually there has been previous discussion or disagreement).*

Notice that we use **agree to** to say that someone allows something to happen:

*Once the government **agreed to** the scheme it went ahead without delay.*

with is used with **argue** and **talk** when we go on to mention the person involved:

*I used to **argue / talk with** Les for hours.*

We use **agree with** to say that two people have the same opinion:

*Adam thinks we should accept the offer, and I **agree with** him.*

and to say that we approve of a particular idea or action:

*I **agree with** letting children choose the clothes they wear (or I agree about / on...)*

or to say that two descriptions are the same:

*Tom's story **agreed with** that of his son.*

2.7. PREPOSITIONS AFTER NOUNS

Many nouns are followed by the same prepositions as their related adjective or verb. Compare:

*Are you **satisfied with** the way that the business is being run?* and

*The shareholders have expressed **satisfaction with** the way the business is being run.*

A few nouns are followed by different prepositions: ***fond of / fondness for; proud of / pride in; ashamed of / shame about / at***

*They became **fond of** each other at school.*

*Their **fondness for** each other grew and many years later they married.*

Some nouns take a preposition where their related verb does not: ***ban on, admiration for, amazement at, discussion about/on, improvement in, influence on, interview with, lack of.***

*They're going **to ban smoking** in restaurants.*

*I would support **a ban on** smoking in restaurants.*

Note that many other nouns are commonly followed by **of-phrases** which indicate possession, a property, or classify the noun by describing what it relates to.

*He **described the conductor** as moving his arms like a windmill.*

*His **description of the conductor** was very funny.*

Some nouns can be followed by **of + -ing** but not usually a to-infinitive: ***habit, cost, effect, fear, likelihood, possibility, probability, problem, prospect, risk, sign.***

*He's got into the **habit of biting** his nails when he's nervous.*

Some nouns can be followed by a **to-infinitive** but not usually of + -ing: ***ability, attempt, concern, decision, desire, determination, failure, inability, permission, proposal, reason, refusal, (un)willingness.***

*His unhappy childhood explains his **reluctance** to talk about his parents.*

Note that many of these nouns can also be used with other prepositions + ing (e.g. attempt at -ing, reason for -ing, etc.).

Some nouns can sometimes be followed either by of + -ing or a to-infinitive with a similar meaning, usually after **the:** ***opportunity, aim, ambition, idea, option, plan.***

*Do staff have the **opportunity of** taking unpaid leave? (or ...the opportunity to take...).*

*The **aim of** providing clean drinking water has been achieved (or The aim to provide...).*

However, some nouns, such as ***chance, sense*** and ***way,*** have more than one meaning and are followed either by of + -ing or a to-infinitive depending on which meaning is used. Compare:

*What's the **chance of** throwing five heads when you throw a coin five times? (= likelihood; NOT ...~~chance to throw~~...)* and

Will you get the chance to visit Miki in Japan? (= opportunity; NOT ...~~of visiting~~...).

He didn't have the sense to move away from the puddle of water as the bus went past. (= good judgement; NOT ...~~sense of moving~~...) and

*Everyone was very friendly and she had a **sense of** belonging within a few days of moving to her new school. (= feeling; NOT ...~~sense to belong~~...).*

*I've got a **way of** cooking rice perfectly every time. (= method; or ...way to cook ...)*

*She has a really funny **way of** speaking. (= manner; NOT ...~~way to speak~~).*

Notice also that of +-ing usually follows **no/every/the sole/the slightest/(not) any/with** the **+ intention,** but that we can use either of + -ing or a to-infinitive in most other cases. Compare:

*I have no **intention of** lending Dan any more money. (NOT ...~~no intention to lend~~...)* and

He announced his intention to stand in the election (or ...intention of standing...).

UNIT 3
CONJUNCTIONS

3.1. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

1. Conjunctions are structural words that serve to connect words or phrases as well as clauses or sentences.

*Sadie brought them in **and** went back to the door.*

*I like cooking **and** eating, **but** I don't like washing dishes afterward.*

*Have a safe trip. **And** don't forget to call **when** you get home.*

Conjunctions may be single words, e.g. *and, as, because, but, or, though, while, etc.*, phrases consisting of more than one word, e.g. *in order that, on condition (that), in case, as soon as, as long as, for fear (that), as if, as though, etc.*, and also correlative conjunctions, i.e. conjunctions that are always used in pairs, e.g. *as ... as, both ... and, either ... or, not only ... but also, etc.*

NOTE!

Some ing-forms and participles are also used as conjunctions, *e.g. supposing, seeing, given (= on condition, if), providing or provided.*

2. According to their morphological structure conjunctions fall into the following types:

Simple conjunctions: *and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when.*

Derived conjunctions: *until, unless, seeing, supposing, provided.*

Compound conjunctions: *whereas, wherever.*

Composite conjunctions: *as well as, in case, for fear, on condition that, on the ground that, as long as, etc.*

Several conjunctions form correlative pairs, though strictly speaking the first element is not a conjunction, e.g. *both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), whether ... or.*

3. Conjunctions have a lexical meaning of their own.

*He came to see me **because** he felt happy.*

*He came to see me **though** he felt happy.*

*He came to see me **when** he felt happy.*

*He came to see me **if** he felt happy.*

NOTE!

The lexical meaning of the conjunction ***that*** is vague. It serves to introduce different kinds of clauses.

***That** I was not going to be popular with the other children soon became clear to my parents.* (subject clause).

*The probability is **that** he refused to cooperate.* (predicative clause).

*He believed **that** his father was an innocent man.* (object clause).

*My father then sold everything **that** he might have the money for my education.* (adverbial clause of purpose).

*He was so shabby **that** no decent landlady would take him in.* (adverbial clause of result).

*He agreed with the assertion **that** his results fell short of the requirements.* (appositive clause).

4. According to their role in the sentence (function), conjunctions fall into two groups: **coordinating conjunctions,** e.g. *accordingly, and, besides, both ... and, but, either,..or, hence, likewise, moreover, nevertheless, or, still, therefore, yet, etc.* and **subordinating conjunctions,** e.g. *after, as, as,..as, as long as, because, before, if, since, so that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, whether, etc.*

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences which are independent of each other.

*His light-brown hair was fine **and** thick.*

*She took a piece of cake **and** a cup of tea.*

*Meg ordered a fresh pot of tea, **and** they settled down to discuss the new complication.*

*Just now I can't think of anything **but** of how you were made to suffer.*

*She looked scornful **but** she was secretly pleased.*

*She could no longer think clearly **or** speak with decision.*

*She was furious at me, **yet** I didn't care.*

*It was hard to get the story clear from her cousin's answers, **nevertheless** she found out everything.*

Subordinating conjunctions serve to join a subordinate clause to the principal clause.

***When** the play was over, he asked her **if** she would let him see her home.*

*He felt marvellously happy **as though** everything he did was a marvel.*

*The two girls were silent **till** he left the room.*

*He winked at me **as** he passed.*

*The old man said to the boy: "**If** you don't like me, you may go home **whenever** you choose."*

Subordinating conjunctions may occasionally introduce a word or a phrase within a simple sentence.

***When** a child, he often had to run errands for his elders.*

*His father was sharp with his children, **while** at home.*

*He promised to sell the car **if** necessary.*

*There was a dry, pungent smell in the air, **as though** of dry vegetation, crisped by the sun.*

*He looked happy **though** somewhat tired.*

NOTE!

A number of conjunctions (a) have **homonyms** among prepositions (b) and adverbs (c).

***a)** He had not heard himself called that name **since** his mother died.*

***b)** Everything has gone wrong **since** that night.*

c)** He had his last meal in the restaurant car and hasn't had anything to eat **since.

a) *He found himself in his mother's arms* ***before*** *he saw her.*
b) *I talked to him* ***before*** *the conference.*
c) *I've never seen him so angry* ***before.***

a) *They spoke little* ***until*** *they reached the less busy road.*
b) *He stayed up* ***until*** *dawn, reading and writing.*

a) ***After*** *he had taken all the things out, she started the car.*
b) ***After*** *lunch they all went to their rooms.*

3.2. COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

The meaning of conjunctions is closely connected with the relations they express. Thus, the classes of coordinating conjunctions according to their meaning correspond to different types of compound sentences. There are four different kinds of coordinating conjunctions.

Copulative conjunctions, e.g. *and, nor, as well as, both ... and, not only ... but (also), neither ... nor*, chiefly denote that one statement or fact is simply added to another (*nor and neither* express that relation in the negative sense).

I approached the girl who stood in the corner ***and*** *who looked so shy.*

There was a scent of honey from the lime trees in flower, ***and*** *in the sky the blue was beautiful, with a few white clouds.*

His whole face was colourless rock; his eye was ***both*** *spark* ***and*** *flint.*

I do not know what they knew of the things happening beyond the hill, ***nor*** *do I know if the silent houses I passed on my way were sleeping securely...*

... but it made him indeed suspect that she could give ***as well*** *as receive; and she gave him nothing.*

... the newspapers discussed the play for a whole fortnight ***not only*** *in the ordinary theatrical notices and criticisms,* ***but*** *in leading articles and letters.*

He went on as a statue would: that is, he ***neither*** *spoke* ***nor*** *moved.*

NOTE!

The coordinating conjunction ***and*** may be used in a somewhat different function if it joins the same nouns; the effect may be to suggest that different types of persons or objects should be distinguished:

There are <u>teachers</u> ***and*** *<u>teachers</u>.* (= There are good and bad teachers).

If the noun is repeated more than once, the effect is to suggest a large number:

There were <u>faces</u> ***and*** *<u>faces</u>* ***and*** *<u>faces</u> all around him.*

The repetition of verbs produces an effect of continuous action or of increase in degree:

He <u>talked</u> ***and*** *<u>talked</u>* ***and*** *<u>talked</u>.*

NOTE!

If the pronouns *<u>you</u>* and *<u>I</u>*, or their case forms are joined by the conjunction ***and,*** conventions of politeness require that *<u>you</u>* should always come first: *you and I; you or me; you and they; you and them.*

NOTE!

Two subjects connected by ***both ... and*** take a plural verb:

*Both my mother **and** my sister <u>are</u> here.*

When two subjects are connected by ***not only ... but also, either … or,*** or ***neither … nor,*** the subject that is closer to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.

***Not only** my mother **but also** my <u>sister is</u> here.*

***Not only** my sister **but also** my <u>parents are</u> here.*

***Neither** my mother **nor** my <u>sister is</u> here.*

***Neither** my sister **nor** my <u>parents are</u> here.*

Disjunctive conjunctions, e.g. *or, either ... or, or else, else,* offer some choice between one statement and another.

*I'll call on you on Saturday **or** on Sunday.*

*Did it matter where he went, what he did, **or** when he did it?*

*He was compelled to think this thought, **or else** there would not be any use to strive, and he would have lain down and died.*

*"You go and fetch her down, Tom," said Mr. Tulliver, rather sharply – his perspicacity or his fatherly fondness for Maggie making him suspect that the lad had been hard upon "the little un", **else** she would never have left his side...*

Adversative conjunctions, e.g. *but, while, whereas,* show that one statement or fact is contrasted with or set against another.

*He was tall **but** did not look it because of his broad shoulders.*

*They were silent, **but** there was no resentment on their faces.*

*Fabermacher nodded in agreement, **but** his eyes glittered with silent triumph and contempt for the victory.*

*His nerves had become blunted, numb, **while** his mind was filled with weird visions and delicious dreams.*

Causative-consecutive conjunctions, e.g. *so, for,* denote consequence, result, or reason. By these conjunctions one statement or fact is inferred or proved from another.

*He was never in the know of things, **for** nobody told him anything.*

*It was Saturday, **so** they were back from school early.*

*He had gone some miles away, and was not expected home until late at night; **so** the landlady dispatched the same messenger in all haste for Mr. Pecksniff.*

*His eyes must have had in them something of George Forsyte's sardonic look; **for** her gloved hand crisped the folds of her frock, her eyebrows rose, her face went stony.*

The conjunction ***for*** is a border-line case between a coordinating and a subordinating conjunction. When expressing <u>cause</u> it approaches in its meaning the subordinating conjunctions *as, because:*

*There was moreover time to spare, **for** Fleur was to meet him at the Gallery at four o'clock, and it was yet half past two.*

Coordinating conjunctions can be used both in compound and in simple sentences; the coordinating copulative conjunctions ***both ... and, as well as*** are used only in simple sentences.

*Then he shrugged in impatience and said frankly, "I don't know what came over me." "You know **as well as** I do and that's why we're going away," Savina insisted steadily.*

The use of the copulative conjunction ***and*** in simple sentences as well as in compound sentences is widely spread.

*But as he did so, unexpectedly he paused, **and** raised his head.*

The coordinating conjunctions ***neither ... nor, or, either ... or*** are more widely used in simple sentences than in complex sentences.

*There was nothing remarkable about the size of the eyes. They were **neither** large **nor** small...*

*... in order to make a man **or** a boy covet a thing, it is only necessary to make the thing difficult to attain.*

*... there was a slight smile on his lips that could have been **either** amusement **or** shy self-deprecation.*

Some of the coordinating conjunctions are polysemantic. Thus, the coordinating conjunction ***and*** may indicate different relations:

*... there stood a white house within a walled garden, **and** in the pantry of this we found a store of food.* (copulative).

*You are nineteen, Jon, **and** I am seventy-two. How are we to understand each other in a matter like this, eh?* (adversative).

*When he read those books something happened to him, **and** he went out of doors again in passionate quest of a river.* (consecutive).

The conjunction *or* may have a disjunctive and an adversative meaning.

*Happily it (a hackney-coach) brought them to the place where Jonas dwelt **or** the young ladies might have rather missed the point and cream of the jest.* (adversative).

*After that one would see, **or** more probably one would not.* (disjunctive).

The causative-consecutive conjunction ***for*** may have a causative or a consecutive meaning:

*He would have to be more careful than man had ever been, **for** the least thing would give it away and make her as wretched as himself almost.* (causative).

*From the warmth of her embrace he probably divined that he had let the cat out of the bag, **for** he rode off at once on irony.* (consecutive).

3.3. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinating conjunctions introduce subject clauses, object clauses, predicative clauses, adverbial clauses, and attributive clauses.

Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses are conjunctions of:

a) place: *where, wherever, whence, wherein.*

***Wherever** he turned, he saw flowers.*

b) time: *as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, since, till, until, after, before, while, the moment, the time, the instant, directly, instantly, etc.*

***When** I leave town, I never tell my people about it.*
*What happened **after** I left you?*
*She was feeling very cheerful **as** they walked from the station.*

We can often use ***as, when*** or ***while*** to mean 'during the time that', to talk about something that happens when something else takes place:
***As / When / While** Miguel was eating, the doorbell rang.*

We use ***when*** (not *as* or *while*) to introduce a clause which talks about an event that takes place at the same time as some longer event (in the main clause) or the circumstances in which the event in the main clause happens:
*They were playing in the garden **when** they heard a scream.*
***When** they are fully grown these snakes can be over two metres long.*
We also use *when* to mean 'every time', and we prefer *when* to talk about past periods of our lives.
*I still feel tired **when** I wake up in the morning. (= 'every time').*
His mother called him Robbie when he was a baby. (= a past period).

We usually use ***when*** if one event happens immediately after another, particularly if one causes the other.
*You'll see my house on the right **when** you cross the bridge.*
***When** the lights went out, I lit some candles.*

We usually ***as*** to say that when one thing changes, another thing changes at the same time.
***As** the cheese matures, its flavour improves.* (rather than *When the cheese ...*).
In this case can also use *while,* particularly with a continuous tense: '***While** the cheese is maturing ...'*

We prefer ***while*** or ***as*** (rather than *when*) to talk about two longer actions that go on at the same time, although *while* is more common than *as* in informal speech.
I was sleeping **while / as** Liam was cleaning the house.

We use ***before*** or ***after*** to talk about an event happening earlier or later than another event:
*I put on my coat **before** I went out.*
*The message arrived **after** I'd left.*
We can often use either *until* or *before* when a situation continues to happen up to a time indicated in the adverbial clause.
*I had to wait six weeks **until / before** the parcel arrived.*

However, we use ***until*** to talk about an action that continues to a particular time and then stops and when the adverbial clause describes the result of an action in the main clause.
*They sat on the beach **until** the sun sank below the horizon, and then they went home.*
*He cleaned his shoes **until** they shone*. ('shining' is the result of 'cleaning').

c) reason or cause: *as, because, since, seeing, so ... that, lest, considering.*

***As** I was getting late, I decided to go home.*
*His work was of vital importance to him, **since** all his life was devoted to it.*
*We must be near the beach, **because** I can hear the waves.*

It is common and acceptable for ***because*** to begin a sentence, as in:
***Because** everything looked different, I had no idea where to go.*
To give reasons in spoken English, we most often use ***because.*** *So* is also commonly used to express a similar meaning. Compare:
***Because** my mother's ill,* I won't be able to come ('because' introduces the reason).
*My mother's ilI, **so*** I won't be able to come ('so' introduces the result).
When it means 'because', ***since*** is rather formal. It is uncommon in conversation, but is frequently used in this way in academic writing:
*I had to go outside **because** I was feeling awful.* ('since' is unlikely in an informal context).
*The results of this analysis can be easily compared to future observations **since** satellite coverage will remain continuous.* (more likely than 'because' in this formal context).
Seeing that is used in informal English. Some people also use *seeing as* in informal speech.
*Joel just had to apologise, **seeing that/as** he knew he'd made a mistake.*

d) condition: *if, unless, in case, provided, supposing (that), suppose (that), on condition (that).*
***If** you tell this to anybody I'll never forgive you.*
*Tom simply could not work **unless** all the conditions were to his liking.*
*Vagabonds may get a bed there for a week, **provided** their papers are in order.*

NOTE!
In case and ***if*** are not the same. We use in case to say why somebody does (or doesn't do) something. You do something now in case something happens later. Compare:
*We'll buy some more food **in case** Tom comes*. (= Maybe Tom will come. We'll buy some more food now, whether he comes or not. Then we'll already have the food if he comes).
*We'll buy some more food **if** Tom comes.* (= Maybe Tom will come. If he comes, we'll buy some more food. If he doesn't come, we won't buy any more food).

NOTE!
Instead of *unless* it is often possible to say ***if … not:***
e.g. ***Unless** we leave now, we'll be late.*
***If** we **don't** leave now, we'll be late.*

e) purpose: *lest, that, in order that, so that, for fear that, so as, so.*
*They made me hide **so that** the soldier should not see me.*
*He wanted to be great in the world's eyes **in order that** the woman he loved should be proud of him.*
*He rose gently to his feet **lest** he should disturb her.*

NOTE!

A present tense verb in the main clause is usually followed by a present tense verb (or a modal with present or future reference – can, will, etc.) in the clause beginning ***in order that / so that.*** A past tense verb in the main clause is usually followed by a past tense verb (or a modal with past reference – could, would, etc.) in the clause beginning ***in order that / so that.***

*Regular checks are made **in order that** safety standards are maintained.*
*Advice is given **in order that** students can choose the best course.*
*Did you give up your job **so that** you could take care of your mother?*
*I hid the presents **so that** Marianna wouldn't find them.*
*The police locked the door **so (that)** no one could get in.*

NOTE!

In order (not) to, so as (not) to are more formal ways of expressing purpose.
*Scientists used only local materials, **in order to** save money.*
*The soldiers moved at night, **so as not to** alarm the villagers.*

f) consequence: *that, so that.*
*The box was so heavy **that** I could not lift it.*

g) manner and comparison: *as, the way, as ... as, not so ... as, than, as if, as though.*
*And do you know why she carries herself **the way** she does?*
***As** quickly **as** he could he set forth.*
*He told him this **as though** his discovery was his own fault.*

h) concession: *though, although, as, that, even though / if, whether ... or, while, whilst.*

***Even though** they were so poor, Christine and Andrew knew happiness.*
***Although** the night air was hot, they slept soundly.*

We use ***although*** or (less formally) ***though*** to say that there is a surprising contrast between what happened in the main clause and what happened in the adverbial clause.

***Although / Though** Reid failed to score himself, he helped Jones to score two goals.*

NOTE!

Although often becomes ***though*** in speech. ***Though*** can come at the end of a sentence, *although* cannot.

***Although** I asked her, she didn't come.* (speech and writing).
***Though** I asked her, she didn't come.* (speech).
*I asked her, (but) she didn't come, **though.*** (speech).

NOTE!

Even though gives a stronger contrast than *although.*
***Even though** I asked her, she didn't come.* (which was really surprising).

In formal contexts we can use ***while*** or ***whilst*** with a meaning similar to *'although'* to introduce something that qualifies what is said in the main clause or something that may seem to conflict with it. In this case, the ***while / whilst*** clause comes before or within the main clause, but not after it;

While / Whilst *there is no evidence that Rob cheated, we were all astonished that he passed the exam (NOT ~~We were all astonished that he passed the exam,~~ **~~while ...~~**).*

The diesel model of the car, ***while / whilst*** *more expensive, is better value for money.*

NOTE!

Whilst is a rather literary word and some people avoid using it.

We can use ***while*** or ***whereas*** (or less often *whilst*) to say that something contrasts with something in the main clause. The *while / whereas* clause may come before or after the main clause:

Juan gets lots of homework from school, ***while / whereas*** *Mia gets very little.*

While / Whereas *I always felt I would pass the exam, I never thought I would get an A grade.*

We don't use ***whereas*** if what is said in the subordinate clause makes what is said in the main clause unexpected:

Although / While *Sophie's father is from Spain, she doesn't speak Spanish (NOT ~~Whereas ...~~).*

Many of the subordinating conjunctions introduce different kinds of clauses. For instance, ***that*** may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and of result.

That *Ruth had little faith in his power as a writer did not alter her nor diminish her in Martin's eyes.* (subject clause).

What I mean is that you're the first man I ever met who's willing to admit out loud to a woman that he thinks she's better than he is. (predicative clause).

He looked to the south and knew ***that*** *somewhere beyond those blue hills lay the Great Bear Lake.* (object clause).

He walked into the Green Park ***that*** *he might cross to Victoria Station and take the Underground into the City.* (adverbial clause of purpose).

He bailed wildly at first, splashing himself and flinging the water so short a distance ***that*** *it ran back into the pool.* (adverbial clause of result).

The conjunction ***if*** introduces object clauses and adverbial clauses of condition:

He was anxious to see ***if*** *she had relapsed since the previous evening*. (object clause).

If *the man ran, he would run after him; but the man did not run.* (adverbial clause of condition).

We can use ***if*** or ***whether*** to say that two possibilities have been talked or thought about, or to say that people are not sure about something.

They couldn't decide ***if / whether*** *it was worth resitting the exam.*

Do you know ***if / whether*** *Ben's at home?*

Whether can usually be followed immediately by *or not*. Compare:

I didn't know ***if*** *Aya was coming* ***or not.*** *(NOT ... ~~if or not Aya was coming~~.).*

I didn't know ***whether or not*** *Aya was coming.* (or... ***whether*** *Tom was coming* ***or not...***).

We use ***whether*** rather than *if:*

- after a preposition (although ***if*** is sometimes used informally) and before a to-infinitive:

*We argued about **whether** butter or margarine was better for you.* (informally ... ***if...***).

*I couldn't decide **whether** to buy apples or bananas.*

- in the pattern **noun / adjective + as to whether** to mean 'about' or 'concerning':

*There was some disagreement **as to whether** he was eligible to play for France.*

And we prefer ***whether*** rather than *if:*

- after the verbs **advise, choose, consider, depend on, discuss, talk about,** and **think about:**

*You should consider **whether** the car you are interested in is good value.*

- in a clause acting as a subject or complement:

***Whether the minister will quit over the issue** remains to be seen.*

*The first issue is **whether he knew he was committing a crime.***

The conjunction ***as*** introduces adverbial clauses of time, of cause, and of comparison:

*These were the thoughts of the man **as** he strove onward.* (adverbial clause of time).

***As** Jacob has made me captain, I must call the roll.* (adverbial clause of cause).

*That day had decreased the distance between him and the ship by three miles; the next day by two – for he was crawling now **as** Bill had crawled.* (adverbial clause of comparison).

The conjunction ***while*** may express both coordination and subordination. It may be a coordinating adversative conjunction or a subordinating conjunction of time.

*Older men probably resented him **while** others of his own generation could feel so inadequate when comparing their talent to his...* (coordinating conjunction).

***While** skating along at full speed, they heard the cars from Amsterdam coming close behind them.* (subordinating conjunction).

Subordinating conjunctions may also be used in simple sentences, they join adverbial modifiers to the predicate of the sentence. Conjunctions of comparison, such as ***as if, as though*** are frequently used in simple sentences.

*He scowled at first; then, **as if** recollecting something, he said.*

*He seemed faint and dizzy and put out his free hand while he reeled, **as though** seeking support against the air.*

The subordinating conjunctions ***though*** and ***if*** are also used in simple sentences:

***Though** alone, he was not lost.*

*Next, he sheered to the left, to escape the foot of the bed; but this sheer, **if** too generous, brought him against the corner of the table.*

Subordinating conjunctions of time are rarely used in simple sentences. In that case they are mostly used with participles:

*That she was one of those women – not too common in the Anglo-Saxon race – born to be loved and to love, who **when** not loving are not living, had certainly never even occurred to him.*

Only rarely does a subordinating conjunction join homogeneous members:

*He was cheerful **though** tired.*

UNIT 4
PARTICLES

4.1. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE, CLASSIFICATION

1. Particles are unchangeable words specifying some component in a phrase or the whole phrase (a sentence / clause).

Unlike conjunctions or prepositions, particles do not express any syntactic relations. Their function is to emphasise, restrict or make negative the meaning of the units they specify by giving some additional shade (emotional, evaluative, etc.) to their meaning / sense.

Some particles may perform form-building functions: as an infinitival identifier *(**to** ask, **to** be reading)*, as a negator of a word *(can**not**)* or a phrase *(**not** he, certainly **not**, **no** reading practice)*.

As to their morphological structure, particles may be:

1) **Simple:** *all, else, even, just, too, yet, not;*

2) **Derivative:** *alone, merely, scarcely, simply;*

3) **Compound:** *almost, also*.

Almost all the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs *(just, simply, yet, still, exactly, precisely, right, too, barely)*, but also with conjunctions *(but)*, pronouns *(all)*, and adjectives *(only, even)*.

*She is old **too*** (particle).

*She is **too** old* (adverb).

***Only** a doctor can do that* (particle).

*She is the **only** person for the job* (adjective).

2. According to their meaning particles fall under the following main groups:

1) **Limiting particles:** *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely*, etc.

They single out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea (notion) expressed by them.

*I **only** wanted to make you speak.* (Shaw).

***Just** one question, Mrs. Dartie. Are you still fond of your husband?* (Galsworthy).

2) **Intensifying particles:** *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even, etc*.

They emphasize the meaning of the word (or phrase, or clause) they refer to or give special prominence to the notion expressed by it.

*He made plans to renew this time in places **still** more delightful*. (Galsworthy).

*They did not **even** know that he was married*. (Galsworthy).

3) **Connecting particles:** *too, also*.

*Higgins comes in. He takes off the hat and overcoat. Pickering comes in. He **also** takes off his hat and overcoat* (Shaw).

*He (James) was silent. Soames, **too,** was silent*. (Galsworthy).

4) **Negative particles:** *not, never, no*.

These particles are used for the following purposes:

a) to make a predicate verb negative, eg:

*Six weeks is**n't** really long*. (Galsworthy).

b) to make a part of the sentence / a component of a word-group negative. eg:
***Not** everyman's money*. (Idiom).
c) to negate the preceding suggestion, eg:
"What'd he cop, malaria?" ***"No"*** (F. Hardy).
5) **Specifying particles:** *right, exactly, precisely, just.*
They make the meaning of the word or phrase they refer to more precise.
*Draw a circle **right** in the middle of the map.*
*They arrived **precisely** at ten.*
6) **The additive particle** *else.*
It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It shows that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned:
*Something **else,** nobody **else,** what **else,** where **else.***

UNIT 5
INTERJECTIONS

5.1. CLASSIFICATION, MORPHOLOGICAL COMPOSITION, PUNCTUATION

1. The interjection is a part of speech which expresses various emotions without naming them.

2. According to their meaning interjections fall under two main groups, namely emotional, imperative (volitive) and cognitive interjections.

1) **Emotional interjections** express the feelings of the speaker. They are: *ah, oh, eh, bravo, alas*, etc.

A man jumped on top of the barricade and waving exuberantly shouted, "Americans! ***Hurrah!****"* (Heym) (joy).

Alas! *The white house was empty and there was a bill in the window "To let"*. (Dickens) (sorrow).

Psha! *There's no possibility of being witty without a little ill nature*. (Sheridan) (contempt).

Oh, bother! *I can't see anyone now. Who is it?* (Shaw) (indignation).

"Dear me!" *says Mr. Chillip meekly smiling with something shining in his eyes*. (Dickens) (surprise).

2) **Imperative (volitive) interjections** show the will of the speaker or his order or appeal to the hearer. They are: *here, hush, sh-sh, well, come, now*, etc.

Here! *I've had enough of this. I'm going*. (Shaw) (protest).

*"Upon my word I was not awake, sir," replied Oliver earnestly. "I was not, indeed, sir." "****Tush, tush,*** *my dear!" said the Jew abruptly resuming his old manner.* (Dickens) (order).

3) **Cognitive interjections** are related to information and knowledge. They are used to show understanding, a reaction to information, or a thought process: *uh oh, duh, I see* etc.

Hmm, *I don't know about that.*

I see. *What do you think?*

3. According to their morphological composition interjections may be primary and secondary.

1) **Primary interjections** are not derived from other parts of speech. Most of them are **simple** words: *oh, ah, eh, aha, alas, fie, humph, hum, phew, pshaw, pooh, tush, bravo, hurrah*. Only a few primary interjections are **composite:** *heigh-ho! hey-ho! holla-ho! gee-ho!* Primary interjections are typically just sounds without a clear etymology. As such, while they sometimes have standard spellings, a single interjection may be written in different ways: *um-hum* or *mm-hmm.*

2) **Secondary (derivative) 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*, etc. (Derivative interjections should not be confused with exclamation-words, such as *nonsense, shame, good*, etc.). Derivative interjections maybe

simple: *well, here, there, come,* etc., and **composite:** *dear me, confound it, goodness gracious, hang it,* etc.

4. Interjections are independent elements which do not perform any of the syntactic functions in the sentence. They are usually sentence-words themselves and may be used parenthetically.

Oh, pooh, *look at these stockings!*

You're about to make a confession to me. ***Well,*** *don't do it. I don't want to hear.*

"Oh," *he exclaimed, unable to suppress his emotion.*

"H'm," *said Mr Fox thoughtfully.*

As a rule interjections do not make part of a phrase, but there are some cases when they may be connected with a word in the sentence by means of a preposition.

Hurrah for *Jojo and Ed!*

Alas for *poor Tommy!*

NOTE!

Formulas of courtesy, greetings and imitation sounds such as *good-bye, thank you, mew, cock-a-doodle-doo, bang* etc. should not be regarded as interjections since they do not serve to express any feeling or emotion.

Interjections should be distinguished from such one-word sentences as *Help! Silence! Nonsense!* The latter are notional words, not mere exclamations expressing emotions.

5. Several punctuation rules should be observed when using interjections:

1) If the interjection makes its own one-word sentence, depending on the context, a period, an exclamation mark, or a question mark should be used after it.

Yay! *I'm so happy for you!*

What? *You still haven't started with your project?*

2) If the interjection is at the start of a sentence, a comma or hyphen is placed after it.

Shh, *my brother's asleep.*

3) If the interjection is in the middle of a sentence, commas, brackets, or hyphens can be placed on either side of it.

I broke my arm ***(ouch!)*** *and I can't move it.*

The great poet said: "The tragedy of our age is that aesthetic values do not keep pace with social – and, ***alas,*** *technical – developments."*

CONCISE GLOSSARY OF GRAMMAR TERMS

A

abstract noun A noun which refers to an abstraction, that is which does not refer to anything physical or concrete. Common types of **abstract** noun are (a) nouns referring to events, actions or states, such as arrival, invitation, hope; (b) nouns referring to **qualities,** such as happiness, size, absurdity; (c) nouns referring to **mental** or **perceptual** phenomena, such as idea, music, vision.

Abstract nouns contrast with concrete nouns, such as *window, student,* and *steam,* which refer to physically identifiable entities or substances. Like concrete nouns, abstract nouns can be countable, uncountable, or both. For example, *arrival* is countable (as the plural form *arrivals* shows), *happiness* is uncountable, and *vision* can be both: *We need vision* and *We need visions* are both possible, but with a difference of meaning.

adjective Adjectives are a large class of words (e.g. *good, bad, new, accurate, careful*) which define more precisely the reference of a noun or pronoun. A typical adjective can occur **before a noun,** as in *a good plan, this bad weather, our new manager, accurate predictions*. (In this position, the adjective is said to premodify the head of a noun phrase.)

A typical adjective can also occur **after the verb** *be,* as in *The plan was risky; The weather is bad; Your predictions were inaccurate*. (In this position, the adjective is said to be the complement, or subject complement.)

Most common adjectives can **follow degree adverbs** such as very (e.g. *very good, very accurate*) and can also be used in a comparative form such as *better, older, more accurate,* or in a superlative from such as *best, oldest, most accurate.* Many of these gradable adjectives form their comparative and superlative forms with the *-er* and *-est* suffixes, for example *cold ~ colder ~ coldest*. Whereas these statements define 'typical' adjectives, many adjectives fail to match one or more of these criteria: *asleep* cannot be used in front of a noun, and *sole* (as in the *sole survivor*) cannot be used after the verb *be*.

Most common adjectives form pairs which contrast in terms of meaning: *good ~ bad, wide ~ narrow, useful ~ useless,* and so on. Many adjectives are derived from other words (especially nouns), and are easy to recognize by their suffixes. Some of the most common adjective suffixes are: *-al* (as in *equal*), *-ous* (as *infamous*), *-ic* (as in *basic*), *-y* (as in *sleepy*), *-ful* (as in *beautiful*) and *-less* (as in *hopeless*).

adjective phrase An adjective phrase is a phrase in which an adjective is the head or main word. The simplest kind of adjective phrase is one which consists simply of an adjective, as in *The meeting was noisy*. An adjective phrase can be made more complex by adding modifiers (especially degree adverbs) before the adjective: *The meeting was very / too noisy*. Also, the adjective can be followed by other words which modify or complement the meaning of the adjective: *too poor to feed themselves; too early for breakfast; useful enough; funnier than the last show;* and so on. An adjective phrase can contain a comparative clause, as in *The weather this winter has been colder than I can remember*. In terms of their function, adjective phrases generally act as complements: either as subject complement, as in *The meeting was too long,* or as object complement, as in *I found the meeting too long*.

adverb Adverbs are a major class of words, mainly consisting of words which modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, for example adverbs of time (*now, then* and so on), of place (*there, somewhere* and so on), of manner (*well, carefully* and so on), of degree (*so, very* and so on), and a wide range of other words which do not fit into such easily defined categories: *just, either, however, actually* and so on.

Adverbs form a disparate set of words; in fact, some grammarians have doubted the viability of the adverb class. There is a fairly major distinction, for example, between words capable of taking an adverbial function in the clause (for example, *then, there, quickly, much*) and degree words capable of premodifying other words such as adjectives, adverbs, and determiners (for example *very* in *very large, very quickly* and *very many*). However, these subclasses overlap considerably.

Another way of dividing the class of adverbs into distinct categories is to separate a closed class of function words (*now, where, so, too, just* and so on) and an open class of derived words, chiefly adverbs in *-ly (quickly, saliently, refreshingly)*. Some adverbs *(long, early, later)* are identical in form to adjectives to which they are also closely related in meaning.

adverb phrase A phrase containing an adverb as the main word, or head. An adverb phrase may consist of one word (an adverb alone), as in *She hits the ball hard,* or of two words, as in *She hits the ball extremely hard* (where *hard* is modified by another adverb, *extremely*), or of a longer sequence of words, as in *Success had not come as easily as they had hoped*.

adverbial An element of a clause or sentence which adds extra meaning about the event or state of affairs described. Adverbials are the most peripheral of the clause elements **subject** (S), **verb phrase** (V), **object** (O), **complement** (C) and **adverbial** (A) which make up the structure of a clause.

Adverbials are normally optional. That is, they can be omitted without changing the relations of meaning and structure in the rest of the clause. *Suddenly* is optional in *She left suddenly* (compare She left). Adverbials are also typically mobile – that is, they can occur in more than one position in the clause, as in *She left suddenly ~ She suddenly left ~ Suddenly she left*. A further point about adverbials is that more than one of them can occur in the same clause. This clause contains three: *At midnight, she secretly left to meet Heathcliff*.

Adverbials belong to varied meaning categories, for example adverbials of time, of duration, of frequency, of place, of manner, of means, of instrument, of degree, of purpose. In many cases, these categories can be distinguished as answering different question words *(when, where, how, why)* or question phrases *(how long, how often, how much, how far):*

When did she leave? At midnight.
How did she leave? Secretly.
Why did she leave? To meet Heathcliff.

Despite their name, adverbials do not necessarily contain adverbs: they may consist of an adverb phrase, as in She left (very) suddenly, but they may also take the form of a prepositional phrase (at midnight, through the window), or of a noun phrase (last night, the week before last), or of an adverbial clause (as soon as she could).

affirmative Affirming the truth of some statement. An affirmative clause or sentence is one that is both declarative and positive, for example: *He ran up the stairs*, in contrast to *He didn't run up the stairs* or *Did he run up the stairs?*

alternative question A question where the speaker offers the hearer a closed choice between two or more alternative possibilities: Is the kitten male or female? Would you like orange juice, grapefruit juice or tomato juice? The word or signals the relation between the alternatives. Unlike yes-no questions, alternative questions normally end with a falling intonation contour. There are also reported alternative questions: these are subordinate nominal clauses (or complement clauses) where the alternatives are expressed by whether . . . or . . . (If can replace whether here.) They asked her whether / if the kitten was male or female. Maria wondered whether whether / if he was waving or drowning.

articles The two words *the* and *a* (*an* before vowels), known respectively as **the definite article** and **the indefinite article.** They are the most common English determiners, beginning a noun phrase and typically followed by a noun, with or without modifiers: *the picture, a picture, the actor, an actor, a brilliant actor*. Normally, proper nouns (names) do not have a preceding article (*Paris, John, Congress*). Moreover, plural and uncountable nouns do not have an indefinite article: *the pictures* contrasts with *pictures* in *I like the pictures ~ I like pictures*. Similarly, *I like the music* contrasts with *I like music*. In the case of common nouns, absence of *the*, as in *I like music*, is frequently regarded as an instance of the **zero article.** This is because it is useful, from some points of view, to regard the initial determiner as obligatory for English noun phrases, so that the absence of the is itself a mark of indefiniteness.

aspect A grammatical category of the verb, indicating the temporal point of view from which an event, or state of affairs, is perceived as taking place. In English, two contrasts of aspect are usually recognized. (a) **The progressive (continuous) aspect,** for example is working, indicates that the event / state is in progress – that is, is seen from a continuing, ongoing point of view. (b) **The perfect** (sometimes called perfective) aspect, for example *has worked*, indicates that the event/state is seen from a completed, retrospective point of view. Both aspect constructions may be combined, as in *has been working* (called perfect progressive / continous). The perfect construction is sometimes regarded not as an aspect, but as a tense form. There are therefore these four aspectual possibilities in English:

	non-progressive	**progressive**
non-perfect	*works*	*is working*
perfect	*has worked*	*has been working*

attributive adjective An adjective that modifies a noun, for example *a friendly neighbour, strange events*. Some adjectives (for example *mere, major, utter*) are attributive only: we can say *an utter failure*, but not **the failure was utter*. On the other hand, some adjectives cannot be used as attributive adjectives: we can say *The rabbit was afraid*, but not **the afraid rabbit*.

auxiliary verb A 'helping' verb that cannot occur without a following main verb (except in cases of ellipsis). The primary verbs *be*, have and do are used as auxiliary verbs, but can also be used as main verbs. As auxiliaries, they are followed by nonfinite forms of the verb, as in: *is helped* (passive), *is helping* (progressive), *has helped* (perfect), *does not complain* (simple).

The other auxiliary verbs are known as modal auxiliaries (*can, must* and so on). Their main function is to express modal notions such as 'possibility', 'necessity', 'permission', and 'prediction'. In their form, the verbs which function as auxiliaries are highly irregular: *be* has eight forms: *am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been; have* has four forms: *has, have, had, having; do* has five forms: *does, do, did, done, doing* (but done and doing are not used as auxiliary forms).

B

bare infinitive This term is used for the base form of the verb (e.g. *be, have, take, deceive*) when used as a non-finite form, as in *I saw her open the safe*. *We'll let you know tomorrow*. *What we'll have to do is keep an eye on it*. The most common position of the bare infinitive is following a modal auxiliary or the auxiliary *do*: *You should eat something*. *They didn't see us*. The bare infinitive contrasts with the **to-infinitive** (the infinitive preceded by *to*), as in *What we did next was to telephone the police*.

base form The uninflected form of the verb (or sometimes of a noun or an adjective), meaning the form which has no suffix and which is also the primary form used for representing the verb when it is put in a dictionary, for example *answer, eat, finish, make*. The base forms of the primary auxiliary verbs are *be, have* and *do*. The base form of the English verb is also used in the imperative, present tense, and subjunctive. It is also called the 'plain' form.

C

cardinal number / numeral Cardinal numbers are numbers such as *one, two, three, . . . twenty-four, . . . one hundred and sixty-five*. Cardinal numbers can be spelled out, like this, or can be written in digits, as in 1, 2, 3, . . . 24, . . . 165, and so on. Cardinal numbers are the words we use in specifying quantities, for example in answer to the question *How many . . . ?* They are distinguished from ordinal numbers, which specify the order of items in a list: *first, second, third, fourth* and so on.

case The grammatical term case refers to systematic variation in the form of a noun or pronoun according to its role in the syntax of the sentence. Case (**nominative, accusative, genitive, dative**, and so on) is important in many modern and classical European languages but, historically, English has lost most of its case distinctions. The only relics of the English case system today are the **nominative** and **accusative** forms of pronouns (I ~ me; we ~ us) and the **genitive** forms of nouns and pronouns (*boy's, my, ours* and so on), also called the **possessive** forms. Even these forms have lost some of their 'case' function in modern English.

clause A major unit of grammar, defined formally by the elements it may contain: **subject** (S), **verb phrase** (V), **object** (O), **complement** (C) and **adverbial** (A). All five elements of the clause are illustrated in:

S	A	V	O	C
We	*always*	*found*	*the teachers*	*very helpful.*

The verb phrase is the most central and crucial element of a clause, so it is helpful to identify a clause by first identifying its main verb. As the above example shows, a clause can be capable of standing alone as a complete sentence. Such clauses, called independent clauses, are distinct from dependent clauses, which generally cannot stand alone as a complete sentence and are marked by a signal or marker (for example a conjunction such *as if*) showing their subordinate status. An example of a dependent clause is:

conjunction	S	V	O	A
because	*no one*	*has seen*	*Mars*	*at close quarters*

Clauses are classified in various ways.

1) We can classify main clauses on the basis of their communicative function, as **declarative**, **interrogative, imperative** or **exclamative.**

2) We can also classify dependent or subordinate clauses on the basis of their function within the main clause (as **nominal, adverbial, relative, comparative**).

3) A third classification singles out the presence of a finite (or 'tensed') verb as crucial: on this basis, finite clauses are distinguished from non-finite clauses. For example, in contrast to *Her uncle has given her a book* (where has is a finite verb), the following are non-finite clauses: *having given her a book and to give her a book*.

4) A further type of clause is a verbless clause, apparently a contradiction in terms, lacking not just the finite verb but the whole verb phrase, for example *Whatever the reason* in *Whatever the reason, she's less friendly than she was*. This clearly lacks the verb be which would be necessary to make its meaning clear:

Whatever the reason may be. Non-finite and verbless clauses are dependent clauses, and cannot stand alone as a sentence except in unusual cases, for example in headings and captions: *How to make the headlines. Having the time of your life*.

clause type The terms **declarative, interrogative, imperative** and **exclamative** refer to major clause types.

closed interrogative clause Another term for a **yes-no interrogative,** yes-no question.

collective noun A noun that refers to a group, or collection, of beings, e.g. *audience, class, committee, crowd, gang, herd, jury, party, team*. It is possible for singular collective nouns to be followed either by a singular or a plural verb form:

The audience was delighted with the performance.
The audience were delighted with the performance.

The first of these options is normal in American English. In British English both options are found.

command A speech act that directs someone to do something. A command can be expressed in varied grammatical ways but is particularly associated with an imperative sentence such as *Leave me alone. Get your friends an inflatable raft. Be quiet.*

common noun A noun which refers to a class of entities (*people, things* and so on) or phenomena, for example *girl, tiger, table, mustard, pessimism*. Common nouns are distinct from proper nouns, which refer to an individual entity (e.g. *Delhi, Barbara, Microsoft*) or to a unique set of entities (e.g. *[the] Rockies, [the] Bahamas*). Unlike proper nouns, common nouns are normally written without an initial capital letter. Common nouns make up a very large category, including most countable nouns and all uncountable nouns. Other categories largely included in that of common nouns are: **collective** nouns, **concrete** nouns and **abstract** nouns. All common nouns can be preceded by the (the definite article).

comparative The form of a gradable word which ends (according to the regular rule) in *-er*, and which indicates a comparison of two things in terms of a higher or lower position on some scale of quality or quantity, for example *wider, colder, happier*. There are a few irregular comparative forms, for example *good ~ better, bad ~ worse, little ~ less, many / much ~ more, far ~ further*. Regular one-syllable gradable adjectives and adverbs form their comparative by adding *-(e)r*, but for most adjectives and adverbs of more than one syllable it is necessary to add the preceding adverb more (or less for a comparison in the opposite direction), for example *more careful, more slowly, less natural*. The comparative forms make a series with the base (uninflected) forms and superlative forms.

comparative phrase A prepositional phrase introduced by *as* or *than* and equivalent to a comparative clause from which the verb has been omitted by ellipsis. For example, in place of (a) under comparative clause above, we can say simply *[than the last one]*. Here we may consider *than* to be a preposition, since it is followed solely by a noun phrase. Similarly: *Joan plays as well [as me]*. In informal English, objective pronouns such as *me* are used after *as* and *than*, even though they function in meaning as the subject of a verb (for example *play* in the example above). The ellipsis of the verb makes it reasonable to treat the construction *as / than* + noun phrase as equivalent to a prepositional phrase.

complex conjunction / preposition A conjunction or preposition consisting of more than one (written) word, for example *in order that, so long as* are complex conjunctions; *instead of, up to, with reference to* are complex prepositions.

complex sentence A sentence which has one or more subordinate clauses. Compare compound sentence.

compound A word which contains two or more other words, for example *goldfish* (consisting of *gold* + *fish*), *left-handed* (consisting of *left* + *hand* + *-ed*), and *gas cooker* (consisting of *gas* + *cooker*). We cannot rely on punctuation (for example, the use of a hyphen) to identify a compound. What makes a compound a compound is rather the ability of its parts to 'stick together' as a single word for purposes of pronunciation, grammatical behaviour and meaning. In English, there is a particular tendency for two nouns to combine together into a single compound noun (for example, *air* + *port, security* + *officer*). Moreover, there is a further tendency for such compounds to combine with other nouns or compounds into still larger combinations, for example *airport security officer, real estate tax, shelter sales people*.

compound sentence A sentence which contains two or more clauses linked by coordination, for example *We went to mee her at the airport, but the plane was delayed*. Compare with complex sentence.

concrete noun A noun referring to physical phenomena, whether persons, animals, things, or substances, e.g. *student, rabbit, bus, grease*. Concrete nouns are the opposite of abstract nouns.

conjunction A term which refers generally to words that have a conjoining or linking role in grammar. In practice, 'conjunction' refers to two rather different classes of words: coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, but* and sometimes *nor*) and subordinating conjunctions (*if, when, because* and so on). These are sometimes called 'coordinators' and 'subordinators' respectively. The coordinators are used to coordinate, or link, two or

more units of the same status (for example, two main clauses or two noun phrases). The subordinators, on the other hand, are placed at the beginning of a subordinate clause to link it into the main clause.

construction A grammatical way of combining parts of a sentence into larger groupings. For example, the 'progressive construction' combines a form of the verb be with the *-ing* form of a second verb.

continuous A term used instead of progressive in many pedagogical treatments of English grammar. 'The present continuous' is used instead of 'the present progressive', and so on.

contracted form, contraction A reduced or shortened form of a word. For example, the negative word *not* is frequently contracted to *n't* in speech (e.g. *isn't, wasn't, couldn't*). The auxiliary verbs *be, have, will* and *would,* and the main verb *be,* are frequently contracted as follows: contractions of be: *am ~ 'm, is ~ 's, are ~ 're*; contractions of *have*: *have ~ 've, has ~'s, had ~ 'd;* contractions of *will* and *would: will ~ 'll, would ~ 'd*. For example: *I'm tired. She's arrived. They're here. We've finished. John's left. It'll be all right*.

conversion The derivational process of converting a word from one word class to another. For example, text is primarily a noun, but it can nowadays be used as a verb text, texting and so on, in the context of text messaging.

coordination The joining of two or more constituents of equivalent status, normally by the use of a coordinating conjunction (*and, or, but* or *nor*), so as to form a larger grammatical unit having the function that each of its parts would have on their own. For example:

(a) She wore [^{1}[^{2}a leather coat^{2}] and [^{3}fur-lined boots^{3}]^{1}].

In (a), the two noun phrases *a leather coat* and *fur-lined boots* are coordinated in order to form a larger one, *a leather coat and fur-lined boots*. All three of the constituents (1, 2 and 3) are of the same basic kind. Coordination can take place at different levels of syntax: example (a) shows coordination between phrases; (b) shows coordination between clauses; and (c) shows coordination between words:

(b) [[These photographs are yours], but [those are mine]].

(c) The children who come [[first], [second] and [third]] willeach win a prize.

These examples illustrate the basic pattern of coordination, but there are many variations of this pattern (see particularly asyndeton; correlative). Coordination and subordination are often thought of as complementary, but in fact they are very different ways of elaborating the structure of a sentence.

correlative A term used of a construction in which two parts of sentence are linked together by two words – one word belonging to one part and the other word belonging to the other. An instance of correlative coordination is: *The battle took place [both on the sea and on land]*. Two prepositional phrases are here conjoined by placing both in front of one constituent and and in front of the other. The use of correlative words adds emphasis and clarity to the construction. Other correlative coordinators are *either . . . or . . ., neither . . . nor . . .*, and *not only . . . but . . . .*

Subordination, as well as coordination, can be correlative: *If the car is too old for repair, then it will have to be scrapped*. Here the adverb *then* in the main clause reinforces the conditional meaning of *if* in the subordinate clause (see conditional clause).

countable noun (also called count noun) A noun which has both a singular and a plural form (e.g. *picture ~ pictures, child ~ children, attack ~ attacks*). Countable nouns can be preceded by the indefinite article *a/an* (e.g. *a child, an attack*) or, in the plural, by words such as many, few, these or the cardinal numbers 2, 3, 4, . . . (e.g. *many pictures, these children, three attacks*). Note that words like *sheep* and *deer,* which are unchanged in the plural, are nevertheless countable nouns, because they combine with such 'counting words' as in *many / three / these sheep*.)

Countable nouns contrast with **non-countable nouns,** which do not have a plural and do not combine with these 'counting words', for example *blood, silver, money, furniture, information, advice*. Many nouns, however, can be either countable or uncountable, depending on their meaning and context. For example, *glass* is uncountable when referring to the transparent substance, but count when referring to glass vessels or spectacles: *How much glass do you need?* (that is 'to glaze these windows') contrasts with *How many glasses do you need?* (that is for drinks at a party). Many words which are principally countable nouns can exceptionally be used as uncountable nouns and vice versa. For example, *food* is generally uncountable, but when talking of *baby foods* or *pet foods*, we use it as a count noun.

D

declarative clause A clause which expresses a statement or proposition, normally making some assertion about the universe of reality, for example: *I've broken my watch. Pluto is invisible to the naked eye.* In a declarative clause normally the subject precedes the verb phrase, which in turn precedes other elements such as object and complement.

definite article The word *the*, the most common word in English. *The* is a determiner and normally introduces a noun phrase. Its function is to indicate that the noun phrase refers to something which is uniquely identifiable in the shared knowledge of the speaker and hearer. For example, by saying *on the ship*, a speaker implies that hearers can work out which ship is meant. Contrast this with the use of the indefinite article (e.g. *a ship*).

degree adverb / adverbial An adverb(ial) which indicates the degree or extent to which some quality or quantity applies to the situation described, e.g. *very quickly*; *utterly useless*; *He loves her to distraction*. Degree adverb(ial)s normally modify gradable words, especially gradable adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

demonstrative The four words *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* are called demonstratives. When they are followed by some other word (especially a noun) in a noun phrase, they are demonstrative determiners: *this machine*; *that old bicycle*; *these people*; *those bizarre incongruities that life occasionally throws up*. When they act as the head (and typically the only word) of a noun phrase, they are demonstrative pronouns: *This is a fascinating programme. Whose gloves are those?* The demonstratives are so called because they have the function of 'showing' or 'pointing to' something in the context. They are deictic words. Of the four demonstratives, *this* and *that* are singular, while *these* and *those* are plural. In very general terms, *this* and *these* have 'immediate' or 'nearby' reference, while that and those have 'non-immediate' or 'more distant' reference. Note that *that* is not always a demonstrative: *it* can also be a conjunction or a relative pronoun.

dependent Used as a noun, the word dependent refers to a element that combines in construction with the head of a phrase. Dependents are either complements, which are closely bound to the head, or modifiers, which are more loosely linked to the head as optional elements.

dependent clause A clause which is dependent on (that is, included in the structure of) another clause. See independent and dependent clauses. See also the similar concept of subordinate clause.

determiner (also called determinative) A word which 'determines' or 'specifies' how the reference of a noun phrase is to be understood. For example, *this* determines the reference of *table* in *this table:* it tells us which or what table is intended. Determiners normally precede a noun, and indeed precede all other words in a noun phrase: *this old table you bought*; some other people; *what a strange sight*. The articles *the* and *a/an* are the most common determiners. Other determiners are the demonstrative determiners *this, that, these* and *those*; possessive determiners (or pronouns) *my, you, their* and so on; indefinite determiners such as *all, some, much, each;* wh-word determiners such as *which, what* and *whose*. In position, some determiners can precede others: *all* (known as a predeterminer) precedes *the* in *all the dishes*; the precedes many (known as a postdeterminer) in *the many meetings I have attended*. Words like *the*, *this* and *my* are known as central determiners. The determiners are an example of a closed class of function words. In an older tradition of grammar, determiners were treated as adjectives, and terms like 'demonstrative adjective' and 'possessive adjective' are still used in some grammars.

direct object An object which follows the verb phrase and which typically indicates the person, thing and so on directly affected by the main verb's meaning. In *Many animals rear their young in burrows, their young* is the object. Direct objects are contrasted with indirect objects: in *I've sent Maggie a thank-you letter, Maggie* is the indirect object and *a thank-you letter* is the direct object.

direct speech A mode of reporting what someone has said, in which we reproduce the actual words spoken or written. In narrative, direct speech is normally signalled by being enclosed in quotation marks: in *'Look after yourself,' said Jonah, 'Look after yourself'* is in direct speech. Direct speech contrasts with indirect or reported speech: *Jonah told me to look after myself.*

duration adverb/adverbial An adverb(ial) specifying length of time, for example: *The hostages have not been seen for several years. I waited all night for a phone call*.

E

echo question A question which repeats a previous utterance and amounts to a request for the repetition of that utterance (or at least of part of it). We use echo questions either because we did not fully hear or understand what was said, or because its content is too surprising to be believed. For example: (It cost £5,000.) *HOW much did it cost?* (His son's an osteopath.) *His son's a WHAT?* Echo questions are usually spoken with a rising intonation, and with a strong emphasis on the wh-word (*what, who, how* and so on).

-ed clause (also called a past participle construction) A subordinate non-finite clause in which the main verb (and only verb word) is an -ed form. For example:

(a) *A man was killed by two shots from a thirty-eight calibre revolver fired at close range.*

(b) *Refused entry to the country, we had to return home immediately.*

Some -ed clauses, like (a), modify nouns and are similar to relative clauses. Other -ed clauses, like (b), are adverbial. Generally speaking, an -ed clause is like a passive clause, but has no subject or finite verb. The implied subject is the head of the noun phrase, like revolver in (a), or the subject of the main clause, like we in (b). But sometimes an adverbial -ed clause does have a subject, for example All things considered, the meeting was a success.

-ed form, -ed participle The past participle form of a verb, used to form the perfect after *have* (e.g. *has changed*); to form the passive after *be* (e.g. *are changed*); and to act as the verb in a non-finite -ed clause (e.g. *Convinced of his innocence, the Queen ordered his release*). The -ed form of regular verbs ends in -ed (e.g. *looked, prepared, tied*). The -ed form of irregular verbs takes many different forms (e.g. *blown, sung, sent*), some ending in -en (e.g. *been, taken, eaten*). With regular verbs and many irregular verbs, the -ed participle is identical to the past tense form.

ellipsis The grammatically allowed omission of one or more words from a sentence, where the words omitted can be precisely reconstructed. For example (^ shows the point at which ellipsis occurs):

(a) *That car is older than this* ^.

(b) *Have you seen Samantha? No, I haven't* ^.

(c) *Most children have travelled more widely than their parents* ^.

(d) *Boys will be boys, and girls* ^ *girls*.

These examples show (a) ellipsis of a noun, (b) ellipsis of a predication, (c) ellipsis of a predicate and (d) ellipsis of a verb phrase. Usually, as in these examples, the words omitted can be reconstructed because the same words occur in the context. For example, in (a) the ellipsis avoids the repetition of the word car. In avoiding repetition, ellipsis is similar in its function to substitution (e.g. the use of pro-forms such as *one* and *do so*), and is sometimes referred to as 'substitution by zero'.

emphasis A word referring generally to prominence given to one part of an utterance rather than another, for example by the use of stress, intonation or particular words. In grammar, the term 'emphasis' has no precise meaning. However, we can note a number of emphatic grammatical devices, such as word order (see end focus), cleft constructions, the emphatic use of *do*, the emphatic use of reflexive pronouns (e.g. *the President himself*) and the use of degree adverbs such as *so* and *absolutely* (e.g. *It's so/absolutely unfair!*). Emotive emphasis can be conveyed also by interjections and exclamations.

exclamation A kind of utterance which has as its major function the expression of strong feeling. Exclamations can vary from single exclamatory words such as *Oh!* (called an interjection) to sentences with a full clause structure, including a verb phrase, as in *It's so absurd!* English has a special exclamative clause or sentence structure, beginning with what or how:

(a) *What a strange sight they saw!*

(b) *How lovely she looks!*

The element containing what or how may, for example, be an object, as in (a), or a subject complement, as in (b). The rest of the main clause follows, usually in its normal statement order: for example, in (a) the order is object + subject + verb phrase; in (b) the order is complement + subject + verb phrase. The rest of the clause, after the *wh*-element, is often omitted, so that a verbless sentence results: *What a strange sight! How lovely!* A final exclamation mark (!) is the typical signal of an exclamation in writing, although it has no grammatical import.

exclamatory question A kind of yes-no question having the force of an exclamation. Exclamatory questions are often negative in form and are spoken with falling intonation rather than with the rising intonation associated with ordinary yes-no questions: *Isn't this fun!* or (of someone else's children) *Haven't they grown!*

existential construction A clause or simple sentence with existential there as subject.

existential there The word there used as a dummy subject at the beginning of a clause or sentence, as in:

(a) *There will be trouble*.

(b) *There's nothing happening tonight.*

(c) *There were too many people in the room.*

(d) *There has been a lot of money wasted.*

Existential *there* is so called because it introduces sentences which postulate the existence of some state of affairs. Normally the sentence has *be* as its main verb. Existential *there*, unlike *there* as an adverb of place, is unstressed. The noun phrase following *be* can be seen as a delayed subject and *there* as a dummy subject inserted to fill the vacant subject position. Compare (d), for example, with the more standard word order of: *A lot of money has been wasted*. The delayed subject is usually indefinite in meaning, and sometimes shows its subject status by determining whether the verb phrase is singular or plural (see concord): compare (c) above with *There was too much noise in the room*. Nevertheless, in other ways, the status of subject belongs to there. For example, there comes after the operator in questions *(Is there anything happening?)* and occurs as matching

subject in tag questions *(There's plenty of food left, isn't there?)*. Hence the question of what is the subject of an existential sentence is problematic.

F

feminine In English grammar, feminine means having female, rather than male, reference (in contrast to masculine). Feminine and masculine forms traditionally make up the grammatical category of **gender.** In English grammar, the feminine gender is marked only in third-person singular pronouns: *she, her, hers* and *herself* are feminine pronouns. Some nouns are also marked as having female reference, for example by the ending *-ess* in *princess, goddess,* and *lioness*.

finite clause A clause which has a finite verb. For example, in *[When he's working], he likes [to be left alone],* the subordinate clause *When he's working* is a finite clause; likewise the main clause, which has likes as its verb phrase. But the infinitive clause to be left alone is non-finite: it has no finite verb.

finite verb The forms of a verb that vary for present tense and past tense are called finite. Hence finite verbs are sometimes called 'tensed' verbs. Both auxiliaries and main verbs have finite forms. The base form of a verb (such as see, listen) is finite when it is used as a present tense form, but non-finite when it is used as an infinitive. Similarly, the -ed form of regular verbs is finite when it is used as a past tense form and non-finite when it is used as an -ed participle (past participle). Modal auxiliaries (e.g. *can, could, may, might, must*) can be considered finite verbs, even though some of them lack a past tense form.

first person pronoun A pronoun referring to the speaker or writer (with or without other people). The first person singular pronouns are *I, me, my, mine,* and *myself*. The first person plural pronouns are *we, us, our, ours, ourselves*.

formal and informal Terms used of 'higher' and 'lower' levels of style or usage in English. Formal style is associated with careful usage, especially written language, whereas informal style is associated with colloquial usage, especially spoken, conversational language in relaxed or private settings. Formal features of English grammar include the placing of prepositions before a *wh*-word, for example *To whom does the house belong?*, as contrasted with the more informal (and usual) *Who does the house belong to?* One feature of informal English grammar is the use of verb and negative contractions, for example *She's ill* (more formal: *She is ill*) and *couldn't* (more formal: *could not*). Formal grammar is more influenced by the tradition of Latin-based grammar: for example, the pronoun *I* is formal in comparative constructions such as *My brother was taller than I*, as opposed to *My brother was taller than me*.

frequency adverb / adverbial An adverb, adverbial phrase or adverbial clause which says how often an event takes place. For example, *rarely* in *We rarely meet nowadays* is a frequency adverb. Other examples are *always, usually, frequently, often, sometimes, occasionally, never, hardly ever, every year, twice a week, whenever I write to her*. Frequency adverbials answer the question *'How often?'* or *'How many times?'*

function words (or grammatical words) Words that are defined by their role or function in grammar rather than in terms of dictionary definition. Function words (such as *of, if,* and *and*) contrast with lexical or 'content words' such as nouns and adjectives. The main classes of function words are determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, and pronouns.

G

gap A place in a sentence where there is no visible or audible constituent, but where a constituent seems to be needed by the structure of the sentence. For example, in *She's older than I am,* the end of the sentence has a gap, a missing complement (1) corresponding to the word *old*. Compare with zero.

gender The grammatical category which distinguishes masculine, feminine and neuter (or non-personal) pronouns. In English grammar, gender is limited to third-person singular personal and reflexive pronouns: *he, him, his,* and *himself* are masculine; *she, her, hers,* and *herself* are feminine; and *it, its, itself* are neuter.

Gender has been a prominent issue in discussions of grammar in recent years: since English lacks a singular personal pronoun which is neutral between male and female reference, it has been felt desirable to avoid the traditional masculine bias of generic he, for example by using he or she or they. Compare:

(a) *Everyone thinks he has the answer.*

(b) *Everyone thinks he or she has the answer.*

(c) *Everyone thinks they have the answer.*

In recent years, for 'unisex' reference, the use of (a) he has declined, whereas the use of (b) *he* or *she* and (c) *they* has increased. However, the use of *they* in examples like (c) causes controversy because it is felt to be a breach of concord.

genitive The form of a noun or noun phrase ending in *'s* (apostrophe s) or *s'* (s apostrophe) and indicating possession or some such meaning. Apart from a few special cases, the *s'* spelling is restricted to the genitive ending of regular plural nouns, such as *boys ~ boys'*. The genitive form of a noun typically comes before another noun, the head of the noun phrase of which the genitive is part, for example *Robert's desk*. Historically, the genitive is the only remnant in modern English of the case system of nouns, prevalent in Old English, and also in classical Greek, Latin and many modern European languages.

The of-phrase (sometimes called the 'of-genitive') has replaced the genitive in many usages; in others, both constructions can be used, for example *the arrival of the bride = the bride's arrival*. In modern English, the genitive is strictly speaking no longer a case-ending at all: rather, it is an ending added to noun phrases, such as [*the bride's*] in [*the bride's*] *arrival* above, or [*my father's*] in [*my father's*] *favourite breakfast*. Note that *my* belongs with *father's* in this example rather than with *breakfast*.

Usually the genitive fills a determiner slot in the larger noun phrase of which it is part: hence the function of the *bride's* above is similar to that of *her* in *her arrival* or *the* in *the arrival*. Potentially, the genitive may be quite a complicated phrase. But there is a tendency to prefer the of-construction where the genitive would cause too much complexity in front of the head noun. Hence *the night train to Edinburgh's departure* is less likely to occur than *the departure of the night train to Edinburgh*. Notice in this example, however, that the placing of the *'s* at *the end of Edinburgh* is perfectly acceptable, even though the genitive indicates *the departure of the train*, rather than *the departure of Edinburgh!* This is an example of the so-called group genitive, where the genitive phrase contains postmodification. Other examples are: *[the mayor of Chicago's] re-election campaign, [someone else's] fault*. However, although such examples are possible, the most common type of genitive consists of just one noun: particularly a proper noun, and more particularly the name of a person: *[Napoleon's] horse, [Marion's] husband*, and so on. Sometimes the noun following the genitive is omitted: *This scarf must be your sister's*. The genitive forms of personal pronouns (for example, my, your, his) are known as possessive.

gerund A traditional term used in reference to the *-ing* form of a verb when it has a noun-like function: *They're fond of dancing.* In this book, the -ing form is a general term for words called either 'gerund' or 'present participle' in traditional approaches to grammar.

gradable word A word that can easily be used in the comparative or superlative, or is capable of being modified by an adverb of degree such as very, much, greatly, considerably, rather and little. For example, the adjectives *tall* and *beautiful* are gradable, because they have comparative and superlative forms *(taller ~ tallest, more beautiful ~ most beautiful)*, also because they can be modified by *very*, and so on: *very tall, very beautiful*.

In contrast, the adjectives double and female are non-gradable, since we cannot normally say **doubler, *more female, *very double, *rather female*, and so on. Many adjectives are gradable, and so are some adverbs and determiners (e.g. *often, easily, many, much*). Sometimes the same word may be gradable in one context but not in another. For example, *human* in *a human being* or *human history* is non-gradable. But we can say of a dog that its behaviour is very human, meaning that it behaves very much like a human being.

H

head The main word in a phrase. The head of a noun phrase is (normally) a noun or a pronoun. The head of an adjective phrase is an adjective. The head of an adverb phrase is an adverb. The head of a phrase is an obligatory element, and other words, phrases or clauses are optionally added to it to qualify its meaning. These optional elements are called modifiers. For example, in *(friendly) places (to stay)*, *(extremely) tall* and *(more) often (than I expected)*, the parts in parentheses are modifiers, and those in bold are the heads of their phrases.

I

imperative A form of the verb used to express a command or directive, that is something which the speaker requires the hearer to do. For this purpose, English always uses the base form of the verb (the form without any ending or inflection), for example: *take, look, send, let, prepare*. The imperatives of the primary verbs are *be, have*, and *do*. When used for commands, the imperative can be impolite: *Sit down; Come here*. This can be softened a little by adding *please: Please sit down. Come here, please*. However, the imperative can also be used without impoliteness for invitations, good wishes and so on: *Take a look at this! Have a good time. Enjoy yourselves*.

To make a negative imperative, we add *Don't* at the beginning: *Don't be silly. Don't make a mess*. In addition, we can add the emphatic auxiliary *Do* at the beginning to make the imperative more insistent in tone: *Do make yourself comfortable* is an insistent invitation.

The term imperative is used not only for the imperative verb itself but also for a clause or sentence having such a verb. Imperative sentences normally have no subject, but the implied subject is you, as we see when the reflexive pronoun yourself or yourselves is used as an object: *Behave yourself. Make yourselves at home*. In exceptional cases, we use you (stressed) as overt subject: *You be quiet.* Occasionally other subjects (such as names or indefinite pronouns) are also used: *Everyone sit down. Somebody make a pot of tea*. Another form of imperative has the initial word *Let's: Let's go for a swim*. This is a first-person imperative, which urges an action to be taken by both hearer(s) and speaker.

impersonal Avoiding reference to human participants in a discourse. For example, the construction with *It* in *It is horrible that the accident happened on Claire's birthday* is impersonal: *it* makes no direct reference to the speaker, the hearer and their feelings. If the sentence began with *I'm horrified that . . .* or *You must be horrified . . .* then it would no longer be impersonal because of *its* reference to the speaker or the hearer.

indefinite article The word *a* (before consonants) or *an* (before vowels). *A/an* is only used with singular count nouns (compare zero article). It is a determiner, and normally occurs at the beginning of a noun phrase. As indefinite article, *a/an* contrasts with the definite article *the:* it is used to introduce a noun phrase referring to something or somebody who has not been mentioned or whose identity is not (yet) known to the hearer or reader. For instance: *I've just bought a car. Do you have a pencil? Her dad's an old friend of mine*. *A/an* is also used (for example, after *be*) to describe or classify people or objects: *My mother's a teacher*. *An arquebus is an old-fashioned firearm*. Historically, *a/an* is a reduced form of the word *one*, and it is often used instead of *one* in expressions like *a hundred, an hour and a half*, and the like.

indefinite pronoun, indefinite determiner A pronoun or determiner with indefinite meaning; a quantifier. The indefinite pronouns and determiners in English are:

pronouns: *anybody, everybody, nobody, somebody*; *anyone, everyone, no one, someone*; *anything, everything, nothing, something*; *none*.

determiners: *a/an, every, no*.

both pronouns and determiners: *any, either, fewest, least, much, some*; *all, enough, half, many, neither; both, (a) few, (a) little, more, one*; *each, fewer, less, most, several*.

indirect object An object (noun phrase) which normally follows the main verb and precedes the direct object. For example:

She gave each of us €100.
I'm going to cook you all a light lunch.

The indirect object usually refers to someone indirectly affected by the action of the verb, for example a recipient or beneficiary. The same idea can often be expressed by a phrase beginning with to or for: *She gave €100 to each of us. I'm going to cook lunch for you all*. The indirect object can become the subject of a passive: *Each of us was given €100. We were given a beautiful present.*

infinitive The base form of the verb (that is the form without any suffix or inflection) used as a non-finite verb. For example, *be, have, do, see, regret* are infinitives when they follow a modal auxiliary or *do: may be, could have, can't do, might see, don't regret*. Also, the infinitive is used as the verb (or first verb) of a non-finite clause, where it is often preceded by *to:*

I came [to ask you a favour].
They wanted [to be met at the station].
[To have escaped alive] was an amazing achievement.

The term infinitive is used (a) for the verb form itself (e.g. *be, have*), (b) for the verb phrase (e.g. *to be met, to have escaped*) and (c) for the clause (e.g. *to be met at the station, to have escaped alive*) which has the infinitive verb phrase.

inflection (or inflexion) A change in the form of a word which signals a different grammatical function of the same word. The regular inflections in English are endings (suffixes) such as *-ed, -(e)s* or *-ing* added to the base form of a regular verb: *want, wanted, wants, wanting*. Other inflections take the form of a change of vowel, with or without the addition of a suffix: for example, in the irregular verb *write, wrote,* and *written* are the past tense and *-ed* participle forms. We distinguish inflectional suffixes from derivational suffixes, which derive one word from another. For example, the *-s* of *boys* is inflectional, forming the plural of the same noun. But the *-ish* of *boyish* is derivational, forming another word (an adjective) from the noun *boy*.

-ing form The form of the verb ending in *-ing*, for example: *being, doing, sending, increasing*. It is a non-finite form of the verb and is added to be to make the progressive construction: *is eating, were making, has been increasing* and so on. It can also be used as the only (or first) word of a verb phrase and as the first word of an *-ing* clause: *[Buying clothes] is what I enjoy most. She loves [being taken to the races]*. The *-ing* form is sometimes called a 'present participle' or (when it is in a nominal clause) a 'gerund'. The *-ing* form, as a form

of a verb, should be distinguished from nouns and adjectives ending in *-ing* (for example, *a new building, an interesting book*).

intensification A general term for the use of degree adverbs or degree adverbials to intensify the meaning or force of some part of a sentence. This can apply to the intensification of adjectives and adverbs *(immensely hot, very occasionally)* and also, for example, to the intensification of negative words and question words: *I'm not in the least hungry. What on earth were you thinking about?*

intensifier An alternative term for a degree adverb, especially one which intensifies or strengthens the meaning of the word it modifies (e.g. *very, extremely, really*).

interjection A word which has a purely exclamatory function, such as *oh, ah, aha, ugh, ooh, alas, hey*. Interjections do not refer to anything, but simply express the speaker's emotion or wish. In grammatical terms, they occur in isolation as an exclamation, or are loosely added on to a sentence as in *Oh, it was wonderful!*

interrogative Having a question function. The main types of interrogative sentences are **yes-no questions, wh-questions,** and **alternative questions.** Subordinate interrogative clauses are discussed under *wh*-clause and reported speech. Interrogative words are discussed under *wh*-word.

intransitive verb A verb that does not require any object, complement or other element to complete its meaning. Thus, to complete a sentence, an intransitive verb can be added to the subject without any further addition: *Everyone laughed. The snow is falling*. But adverbial elements can be freely added after the intransitive verb: *Everyone laughed at the joke. The snow is falling heavily in the north.*

introductory it, introductory there *It* and *there* used as introductory subjects in certain special kinds of sentence pattern.

inversion The reversal of the normal order of subject and verb word, so that the verb word precedes the subject. In English, we distinguish two kinds of inversion. Subject-operator inversion occurs where the operator (an auxiliary verb or the main verb be) is placed before the subject, for example in questions or in statements introduced by a negative word:

The weather is improving ~ Is the weather improving?

He did not say a word ~ Not a word did he say.

Subject-verb inversion occurs when the main verb (often the verb be or a simple verb of position or motion) is placed before the subject, in limited circumstances, especially when an adverbial of place introduces the sentence:

Your sister is there ~ There's your sister.

The rain came down ~ Down came the rain.

The old city lies beneath the castle ramparts ~ Beneath the castle ramparts lies the old city.

irregular verbs Verb words which do not form their past tense and *-ed* participle form in the regular way. There are over 200 irregular verbs in English, including many of the most common and important verbs in the language.

All English auxiliary verbs are irregular, and the verb *be*, the most common verb of all, is the most irregular of all. It has eight forms: *am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been*.

L

lexical Relating to the lexicon (that is the dictionary or the vocabulary) of a language. A rough distinction is sometimes made between lexical words (or content words), whose meaning is explained in terms of their lexical content, and grammatical words (or function words), whose role is chiefly to be explained in terms of the grammar of a language. For example, nouns are lexical words and articles are grammatical words. The term 'lexical verb' is sometimes used for main verbs, as contrasted with auxiliary verbs.

light verb A common and versatile lexical verb like *do, give, have, make,* or *take,* which is semantically weak in many of its uses, and can be combined with nouns in constructions such as do the cleaning, *give (someone) a hug, have a drink, make a decision, take a break*. The whole construction often seems equivalent to the use of a single verb: *make a decision = decide.*

linking adverbial (also called conjunct) An adverbial element whose main function is to link together two sentences, clauses and so on. Examples are: *however, nevertheless* (both expressing contrast), *moreover* (expressing addition), *otherwise* (expressing an alternative), *meanwhile* (expressing a link of time). These are all single-word adverbials, that is adverbs, but in other cases a linking adverbial may be a phrase or even a clause. For example, instead of *nevertheless,* we can use *all the same* or *in spite of that,* or *instead of; moreover,* we can use *what is more*. Linking adverbials usually occur at the beginning of the sentence (or other unit) that they link to what precedes, but unlike coordinating conjunctions (such as *and,* or *and but*) they can occur also

in the middle or at the end. All three of the following (a)–(c) might come after the sentence Jason supports the animal rights campaign:

(a) *However, his father disagrees with him.*
(b) *His father, however, disagrees with him.*
(c) *His father disagrees with him, however.*

linking words A general term for words which have a linking or connective role in grammar, such as conjunctions, linking adverbials and copular verbs.

M

main clause A clause which has another clause (known as a subordinate clause) as part of it. For example, in [The whole world hopes [that peace will prevail]]

the outer brackets enclose the main clause, and the inner brackets enclose another clause, a subordinate clause. The subordinate clause is part of the main clause. The following is a slightly more complex sentence in which there are three clauses, one inside the other:

[1 I wonder [2 if you could tell me [3 how she is 3]2].1]

The clause marked 1 is definitely a main clause, and the clause marked 3 is definitely a subordinate clause. But clause 2 is both a main clause and a subordinate clause: it is a main clause from the point of view of clause 3, and a subordinate clause from the point of view of clause 1. In other words, we interpret main clause and subordinate clause as relative terms. Note the contrast between this and the distinction between **independent** and **dependent** clauses.

main verb A verb word which is not an **auxiliary verb** and which must occur in any normal clause or sentence. In the following **verb phrases,** the word in italics is the main verb:

came	*takes*	*is*
has *come*	are *taking*	*being*
has been *coming*	having been *taken*	may have *been*

Note that the auxiliary verbs – those not in italics – always come before the main verb. Note also that the primary verbs *be*, *have* and *do* can be either an auxiliary or a main verb. When *be*, *have* or *do* is a main verb, it is the last (or only) verb in the verb phrase. Hence, in *Jack is asleep* or *Jack may have been asleep*, *be* is the main verb; but in *Jack is lying* or *Jack may have been lying*, *lie* is the main verb and be an auxiliary. The main verb is a pivotal word, to a great extent determining the structural and meaning relations within the clause. The term 'lexical verb' is sometimes used instead of main verb, but strictly speaking, 'lexical verb' excludes the primary verbs *be*, *have* and *do* even when they act as main verbs.

manner adverb / adverbial An adverb or adverbial whose meaning is 'in such-and-such a manner'. The most common manner adverbials are adverbs derived from adjectives, typically ending in *-ly*, for example *carefully, slowly, hungrily, unconsciously*. However, many of the most common adverbs in *-ly*, like *really*, are not manner adverbs. The comparative and superlative of manner adverbs are formed with more and most, for example *more slowly, most carefully*. A few manner adverbs are irregular: *well* (= *'good + ly'*), *better, best, worse* (= *'more badly'*) and *worst*, as in *Paula plays the guitar well. Of the three children, Paula plays the guitar best / worst*. Manner adverbials answer the question 'How? In what manner?'

masculine Having male, rather than female, reference (contrast feminine). Masculine, feminine and neuter forms traditionally make up the grammatical category of gender. However, gender has only a limited role in English grammar, being restricted to the third-person pronouns. The masculine pronouns in English are he, him, his and himself.

mass noun A noun which refers to substances (solids, liquids and gases) in the mass, e.g. *rice, milk, tar, smoke*. Mass nouns are uncountable nouns.

mid-position, middle position The position in which an adverbial is placed when it occurs in the middle of a clause. For example, the adverbs are in mid-position in: *The game will **soon** begin. Our friends **often** send us presents. The children were **fortunately** in bed*. The most usual mid-position is (a) just after the **operator,** if any, (b) otherwise just after the **subject.**

modal (auxiliary) (verb) A member of a small class of verbs that have meanings relating to modality, that is to such concepts as possibility or permission *(can, may),* obligation, necessity or likelihood *(must, should),* prediction, intention or hypothesis *(will, would)*. The modal auxiliaries group in pairs, except for *must:*

will ('ll)	*can*	*may*	*shall*	*must*
would ('d)	*could*	*might*	*should*	

The lower modals in the list above are historically the past tense forms of the upper modals, but nowadays they have developed independent uses (especially *would* and *should*). The modals always function as **operators,** and occur in first position in their **verb phrase.** They form a construction with the **bare infinitive** of another verb, for example may be, may have, may find. They have no other forms, such as *-s* forms, *-ing* forms or *-ed* forms. They are placed before the subject to form questions and before not in negation:

	question	**negation**
You can help me	*Can you help me?*	*You cannot help me.*
We will succeed	*Will we succeed?*	*We will not succeed*

Except for *may*, modals *can* also express negation by negative contractions: *won't, can't, shan't, mustn't, wouldn't, couldn't, mightn't, shouldn't: You can't help me. We won't succeed.* Modals are very widely used in conversation for expressing various kinds of speech acts such as requests *(Could I use your phone? Would you mind signing this form?)*, offers *(Can we offer you a lift?)* and promises *(I'll call you back this afternoon.)* Some less important verbs *(ought to, used to, need, dare)* are sometimes included with the modals because of their similar meanings and/or grammatical behaviour.

modifier A word, phrase, or clause which is added to another word to specify more precisely what it refers to. For example, in the following phrases, the expressions in italics are modifiers:

(a) *a new house in the country* (noun phrase)
(b) *something which I bought recently* (noun phrase)
(c) *amazingly beautiful* (adjective phrase)
(d) *often enough* (adverb phrase)

The words house, something, beautiful and often in these examples are termed the heads of their respective phrases. Modifiers preceding the head are called premodifiers (for example, *new* in (a)). Modifiers following the head are called postmodifiers (for example, in the country *in* (a)). In noun phrases, adjective phrases and adverb phrases, modifiers are optional elements which add specification to the meaning of the head. Thus, a phrase may contain no modifiers, one modifier, or several modifiers.

mood A verb category which is not so useful in the grammar of English as it is for some other languages and has to do with the degree of reality attributed to the happening described by the verb. The indicative mood (that of normal finite forms of the verb) contrasts with the 'unreality' of the **subjunctive** mood. The **imperative, infinitive,** and **interrogative** are also sometimes considered to be moods of the verb.

morphology The part of grammar (and lexicology) which analyses the structure of words. Morphology is a relatively unimportant part of English grammar because English words have relatively few **inflections** (that is changes in the form of a word determined by its grammatical role). The suffixes of **nouns** (-s), **verbs** *(-ed, -ing, -s)* and **adjectives** *(-er, -est)*, leaving aside some marginal and irregular forms, make up the total of English inflectional morphology. Inflectional morphology is distinguished from derivational morphology, which deals with the formation of words from other existing words, and belongs to lexicology rather than grammar. However, derivational morphology is relevant to grammar because derivational suffixes such as *-ness* (for nouns), *-ful* (for adjectives) and *-ly* (for adverbs) help us to recognize the members of grammatical word classes. Morphology contrasts with **syntax.**

N

name, naming expression A word or phrase which refers to a specific person, place, group, and so on. The simplest naming expressions are proper nouns such as *Jane, Robinson, Moscow, Africa*. Other naming expressions may contain sequences of such names *(Nelson Mandela)*, names preceded by titles *(Mr Tom McKenzie)*, proper nouns followed by common nouns *(the Atlas Mountains)* and so on. Naming expressions are spelt with initial capitals on important (especially lexical or open class) words, and are sometimes reduced to initials or acronyms, for example, the *UN, OPEC*, the *PRC*.

negation, negative Negation is the operation of changing a sentence or other unit into its negative form, especially by using *not*. The normal form of negation in English is to add *not* (or its contracted form *-n't*) after the **operator** (that is, after the first **auxiliary verb** or the **finite verb** *be*):

positive	**negative**
I am feeling tired	*I am not feeling tired*
You could help her	*You couldn't help her*

When the positive sentence has no operator, ***do*** is used as a **dummy** operator to form the negative: *Sue likes jogging ~ Sue doesn't like jogging*. The contracted negative forms are used in informal style, especially

in speech. They are: i*sn't, aren't, wasn't, weren't, hasn't, haven't, hadn't, doesn't, don't, didn't, won't, shan't, can't, mustn't, wouldn't, shouldn't, couldn't, mightn't.* For some operators there is no negative contraction (e.g. *may not, am not*) and so the full form has to be used. In making a sentence or clause negative, we sometimes have to make other changes. For example, it is common to replace some by any when it follows not. The negative of *We saw some rare birds* is *We didn't see any rare birds*.

negative word A word which has the function of negating the meaning of a clause or sentence. Apart from the most important negative word *not* – sometimes called a **negative particle** – other negative words include no (determiner or response form); *none, nobody, no one, nothing* (pronouns); *never, nowhere* (adverbs). The functions of these are similar to that of *not:* to say *Nobody was asleep* is to say the same as *Everyone was not asleep*, that is *Everyone was awake*. When a negative word comes later than the subject of the sentence, it can usually be replaced by not with a non-assertive word such as *any, anyone, ever: I have never learned to ski = I haven't ever learned to ski*.

neuter (or non-personal) Having neither masculine nor feminine gender. It, in contrast to he and she, is a neuter pronoun.

nominal (1) The adjective corresponding to 'noun': it means 'noun-like'.

(2) As a noun, 'nominal' is used for a constituent of a noun phrase intermediate in extent between a noun phrase and a noun. For example, in the noun phrase *a nice cup of tea*, it makes sense to say that *nice* is a modifier of *cup of tea*, rather than just the head noun *cup*. Hence, we can say that *cup of tea* is a nominal, which is larger than a single noun but smaller than the whole noun phrase.

nominal clause (also called noun clause or – with a slightly different meaning – complement clause) A subordinate clause which has a function in the sentence similar to that of a noun phrase. Like noun phrases, nominal clauses can act as subject, object, or complement of the main clause:

[What you do] does not concern me. (subject)
I didn't ask [where you live]. (object)
The hope is [that we will succeed]. (complement)

Some nominal clauses can also occur after a preposition: *It all depends on [how you feel]*. Finite nominal clauses include thatclauses, *wh*-interrogative clauses and nominal relative clauses. There are also plenty of **non-finite** nominal clauses, for example the ***-ing* clauses** or **infinitive clauses:**

[Sending him money now] would be like [putting the cart before the horse].
[To send him money now] would be [to put the cart before the horse].

nominal group An alternative term for a noun phrase.

nominal relative clause A relative clause which has no antecedent and which is therefore equivalent, in its function in the sentence, to a whole noun phrase. For example, it fills the subject slot in *[What you need most] is a good stiff drink*. Here *What you need most* means the same as *'The thing which you need most'*. Nominal relative clauses begin with a *wh*-word, often a *wh*-ever word like *whoever: I want to speak to [whoever answered the phone just now]* (that is, *'the person who answered the phone just now'*).

nominalization A noun phrase which has the underlying semantic structure of a clause. An example of nominalization is *the destruction of the city*, where the noun *destruction* corresponds to the main verb of a clause and *the city* to its object: *'(Someone or something) destroyed the city'*. The subject of the underlying clause can be expressed by a genitive and adverbs can be represented in the noun phrase by adjectives: *Hannibal's sudden arrival in the city = 'Hannibal suddenly arrived in the city'*.

nominative A traditional term for the subjective case. Compare objective case.

non-count noun (also called **uncountable noun**) A noun which has no plural use and which cannot be used with 'counting' words such as *one, two, three, a few* and *many*. Examples are mass nouns like *bread, milk, leather, steam, gold* which refer to substances and materials. But also many abstract nouns are noncount: e.g. *advice, health, music, sanity*. Non-count nouns contrast with count nouns, such as *street, table, child, meeting*. However, this contrast is oversimplified, since many nouns can be either count or non-count according to meaning (compare some *paper ~ some papers, a lot of change ~ a lot of changes*). Also, nouns that are primarily non-count can be used as count nouns in special contexts. For example, *a little sugar* (= mass substance) is normal, but *a few sugars* could be used to mean either *a few lumps of sugar* or *a few types of sugar*.

non-finite clause A clause which has a non-finite verb phrase (see non-finite verb below). Non-finite clauses are subdivided into (a) **infinitive clauses, (**b) ***-ing* clauses** and (c) ***-ed* clauses.** For example:

(a) *This is the best way [to serve dressed crab].*
(b) *They have an odd way of [serving dressed crab].*
(c) *The dressed crab [served in this restaurant] is excellent.*

Non-finite clauses are normally **subordinate clauses.** They are treated as clauses because they have elements such as **subject, verb, object,** and **adverbial.** However, as in the examples above, although its meaning is implied, the subject of a non-finite clause is usually omitted.

non-finite verb A verb form which is not finite, that is does not involve variation for past tense and present tense. The three nonfinite verb forms are (a) the **infinitive,** with or without to, (b) the ***-ing*** **form** (often called present **participle** or **gerund**) and (c) the ***-ed*** **form** (past participle):

(a)	(to) *be*	(b)	*being*	(c)	*been*
	(to) *eat*		*eating*		*eaten*
	(to) *live*		*living*		*lived*

All verbs, except for **modal auxiliaries,** have non-finite forms. Non-finite forms always follow the finite verb form (if any) in the verb phrase: *will be, is eating, has lived, has been living, will be eating* and so on. Such verb phrases are called finite because they begin with the finite verb form. But, in addition, non-finite verb forms occur in non-finite verb phrases which do not contain a finite verb. Types of non-finite verb phrases are (a) infinitive phrases (beginning with an infinitive form), (b) *-ing* phrases (beginning with an -ing form) and (c) *-ed* phrases (beginning with an *-ed* form). Examples of non-finite verb phrases are:

(a)	*to eat*	(b)	*eating*	(c)	*eaten*
	to be eating		*having eaten*		*seen*
	to have sent		*having been eaten*		*answered*

Modal auxiliaries like can are considered to be finite, because they come first in the verb phrase and have (at least to some extent) the present / past contrast of *can ~ could*, and so on.

noun A very large class of words which refer to entities (persons, things, substances, places and abstractions of various kinds). A noun can be the head of a **noun phrase** and therefore the chief word in indicating the **subject** or **object** of a verb. Most common nouns have both a singular and a plural form, the regular plural being shown by the addition of *-(e)s* to the singular form: *boy ~ boys, cat ~ cats, church ~ churches, kindness ~ kindnesses* and so on. There are also some irregular plurals such as *woman ~ women, life ~ lives, sheep ~ sheep, formula ~ formulae*. Nouns are subdivided into the following major categories: **common** nouns contrast with **proper** nouns; **count** nouns contrast with **non-coun**t nouns (including mass nouns); **concrete** nouns contrast with **abstract** nouns; **collective** nouns contrast with **noncollective** nouns. Many words can be recognized as nouns by their suffixes, for example *-ion* (in action), *-er* (in reader), *-or* (in actor), *-ness* (in business), *-ity* (in authority), *-ment* (in department), and *-ship* (in friendship).

noun phrase A phrase which (typically) has a noun or a pronoun as its head and which can have various important functions in a clause or sentence, notably those of **subject, object, complement** or **prepositional complement.** Certain kinds of noun phrases – especially time phrases like *last week* – can also be adverbials.

The structure of noun phrases can be stated simply as follows: (determiner[s]) + (modifier[s]) + head + (modifier[s]) where brackets represent optional elements. Very often the phrase consists of a head alone – either a noun or a pronoun (e.g. *her, music, animals*): these could all be objects of a sentence beginning *I love . . .* The next most frequent type of noun phrase consists of a determiner (especially one of the articles *the* and *a/an*) with a following noun, as in *the music, an animal, those animals*. Before a singular count noun, there must be a determiner (e.g. *animal* without a determiner cannot be a noun phrase: **I saw animal*).

To form more complex noun phrases, modifiers of various kinds may be added either before or after the noun head. One-word modifiers, especially adjectives and nouns, typically occur before the head: *a hungry child, Scottish folk music, these lively young animals*. On the other hand, multi-word modifiers, especially prepositional phrases and relative clauses, generally occur after the head: *the music [of Beethoven]*; *the music [that I love best]*; *the music [of Beethoven] [that I love best]*.

Naturally, the modifiers which precede and which follow the head can be combined in one noun phrase so that noun phrases of great length can be built up: *the recent unrest in Ruritania, which has led to a cautious measure of liberalization in a regime that up to recently has been a byword for totally inflexible authoritarianism* is a single noun phrase. As this example shows, noun phrases can become complex not only through combinations of different kinds of modifiers, but through the embedding of one phrase or clause in another.

Noun phrases are so varied in their form that they allow some structures which are exceptions to the general rules given above. For example, multi-word modifiers can precede the head in the form of a genitive phrase: *[my mother's] friends*. Also, there are cases where the head of a noun phrase is an adjective: *the rich; the unemployed; the good, the bad and the indifferent;* and so on.

number (1) The grammatical choice between **singular** (one) and **plural** (more than one). In English, nouns, pronouns, determiners and present tense verbs can vary for number, for example: *student ~ students, I ~ we, that ~ those, takes ~ take*.

(2) Another term for a numeral.

numerals (also called numbers) Words referring to number. The two main classes of numerals are **cardinal** numerals *(one, two, three, four . . .)* and **ordinal** numerals *(first, second, third, fourth . . .)*. They may be

written not only in letters, but in digits: *1, 2, 3, . . . 15, . . . 66, . . . 1,000, . . .* or *1st, 2nd, 3rd, . . . 15th, . . . 66th* and so on. Numerals have a small grammar of their own within the larger grammar of the English language. For example, speakers of English know how to read aloud the numeral 11,362 *(eleven thousand three hundred and sixty-two)* even though they have probably not met with that particular number before.

As for their grammatical function in sentence grammar, numerals behave rather like **determiners** and **pronouns.** Like determiners, they can precede the modifiers and head of a noun phrase: *three blind mice, our twenty-ninth wedding anniversary*. However, they follow most determiners when co-occurring with them in the same noun phrase: *the Ten Commandments, her fourth child*. Like pronouns, they can also occupy the position of head of a noun phrase: *Those delicious cakes! I have already eaten three. Really? This is only my second.* In addition, ordinal numbers can be used like **adverbs,** for example: *First, let me introduce my family. In the final race, Jason came sixth.*

O

object A part of a clause or sentence which normally follows the main verb and corresponds to the subject of a passive clause or sentence. For example:

Armadillos eat termites.	(termites is the object)
Termites are eaten by armadillos.	(termites is the subject of the passive)
She actually bought a can opener.	
Charles is visiting the Joneses tomorrow.	

An object is usually a noun phrase (as in the examples above). If it is a personal pronoun, the **objective** case is needed: *me, him, her, us, them* – not *I, he, she, we, they*. An object can also be a **nominal clause:** *Everyone knows [that mercury is a metal]. People rarely believe [what she says]*. A useful way to identify an object is to consider it as an answer to a question with What or Who(m) + auxiliary + subject: *What do armadillos eat? Who(m) is Charles visiting tomorrow?* In terms of meaning, the object is often identified with the person, thing and so on that is affected by the action described by the verb. Whereas the subject typically represents the 'doer', the object typically represents the 'doee'. A clause may have an indirect object in addition to a direct object: in *Charles is cooking the family a meal, the family* is the indirect object (representing those who are indirectly affected by the action, in this case the beneficiaries) and *a meal* is the direct object.

object complement A complement which follows the **object,** and which describes some (putative) characteristic of what the object refers to. For example, in *Margaret has been keeping the house tidy, tidy* is the object complement and *the house* is the object. The relation between the object and object complement can be represented by the verb be: an implied meaning of the above sentence is that '*the house is tidy*'. The object complement can be an **adjective** (or adjective phrase), as above, or it can be a **noun phrase,** as in: *The empress declared Catherine her heir*. The set of verbs which permit an object complement is not large. In addition to keep and declare (illustrated above), it includes *leave, call, like, want, consider, find, think, get, make, send, turn, elect,* and *vote*.

objective (case) The special form a pronoun takes when it has the role of **object** in a clause, for example *We admire her*. The objective forms of the personal pronouns are *me, him, her, us, them*, in contrast to the **subjective** forms *I, he, she, we, they*. The *wh*-pronoun *who* also has an objective form *whom*, but *whom* is often avoided, even in object position, in favour of *who*. The term 'objective' should not be taken to mean that these forms are found only in the object position: objective pronouns are also used following a **preposition** and frequently in other positions (especially as **subject complement**) and after *than*, in which the subjective form is traditionally considered correct: *Hello! It's only me*. You've won more games than us. Alternative terms for 'objective' are 'accusative' and 'oblique'.

open and closed word classes A major classification of word classes (also called **'parts of speech'**). Open classes are those which have a very large membership, namely **nouns,** lexical **verbs, adjectives, adverbs** and (marginally) **numerals.** Closed classes, on the other hand, are those which have a rather small membership, namely **conjunctions, determiners, interjections, operator verbs, prepositions, pronouns.** The open classes are so called because it is easy to add new words to them by established processes of word formation, for example: *politisoap* (a new noun), *non-manic* (a new adjective), *Shakespearized* (a new verb) (examples are from British newspapers in 2003, from the website of the RDUES, University of Central England). In contrast, it is quite difficult to introduce (say) a new determiner or conjunction into the language. The distinction between open and closed classes is not absolute, and there is a scale of 'openness' in both categories: for example, in the closed category, prepositions are relatively open.

P

paradigm A set of choices made from the same grammatical category. For example, the different forms of a regular verb – *look, looks, looked, looking* – form a paradigm; also the different forms of a personal pronoun – *I, me, my, mine*.

participial, participle Participle is a traditional term for the nonfinite ***-ing* form** and ***-ed* form** of the verb, especially when they are used in a quasi-adjectival way. Thus, in *They heard the children laughing* and *They heard the window being smashed / broken, laughing* and *being* are present participles and *smashed* and *broken* are past (or passive) participles. They can also be called *-ing* participle and *-ed* participle. 'Participial' is the adjectival form of 'participle'.

particle A useful though rather vague term for a 'little word' (Latin 'little part') which does not belong to one of the regular word classes. For example, ***not*** can be called a **'negative particle'.** In multi-word verbs like *make up, look after,* 'particle' is often used for one of the words which follow the main verb, for example *up, after*.

parts of speech A traditional term for word classes (such as noun, verb, adjective, preposition).

passive, passive voice A type of verb construction in which a form of ***be*** is followed by the ***-ed* form** (past participle) of the main verb, for example **is loved, was beaten, will be sent.** Hence, a passive clause or sentence is one in which the verb phrase is passive. The effect of using the passive is to convert the noun phrase which would be the object of a corresponding nonpassive (that is, active) clause into the subject. For example:

Police have found the missing children. (active)
The missing children have been found by police. (passive)

Thus, the passive reverses the normal relation between the 'doer' and the 'done to'. The subject of the active clause (in this case, the police) corresponds to the agent (the noun phrase following by) in the passive. However, the agent is usually omitted: *The missing children have been found*. The passive is useful for various purposes. For example, if we want to place emphasis on the 'doer' as the most important piece of new information, the passive enables us to place the 'doer' after the verb, so giving it end focus.

On the other hand, if we want to omit information about the 'doer', we can simply omit the agent. Strictly, however, the agent does not have to be the 'doer' or performer of an action. Some verbs, such as see and know, are not action verbs, but can still be used in the passive: *I'm known as Wild Willimina from Waco*. In informal English, there is also a ***get*-passive** in which the first verb is get instead of *be:* **I got fired yesterday for not attending to business.**

past participle A traditional term for the non-finite *-ed* form of verbs.

perfective and imperfective Two largely covert aspects of English grammar. 'Perfective' means that an event or action is perceived as a complete whole, whereas 'imperfective' means that it is perceived as something incomplete. The difference can be illustrated by this example:

perfective	**imperfective**
I made up my mind	*I was making up my mind*

Here the difference is expressed by the choice between past simple and past progressive. However, in general, the nonprogressive / progressive distinction only partially corresponds to the perfective / imperfective one. As aspectual terms, perfective and perfect are quite different categories, although (confusingly) 'perfective' is sometimes used as a synonym for 'perfect'.

person A grammatical category which applies primarily to pronouns and secondarily to noun phrases and verbs. Personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns are classed as first person *(I, we, ours, ourselves, us)*, second person *(you, yours, yourself)* or third person (*she, he, it, they, herself* and so on). First person pronouns refer to the speaker (or, in the plural, to the speaker and other people). Second person pronouns refer to the hearer, with or without other people, but excluding the speaker. The third person refers to people, things and so on, excluding both the speaker and the hearer. Apart from pronouns, person plays a role in the choice of the finite verb. The *-s* form of the verb (e.g. *takes, likes*) follows a third-person singular subject *(he / she / it takes)*, whereas the base form is used for first and second person singular, as well as all plural subjects *(I / you / they like).* Apart from personal pronouns, all other noun phrases are third person *(The cat likes fish. The cats like fish).*

personal pronouns The most important class of pronouns, referring to people, things, events and so on which are understood to be known in the context. Personal pronouns frequently have an antecedent, that is an expression to which they refer (or, strictly, corefer) in the preceding or following context. For example, in *Carol tells me she is changing her job, she* and *her* most likely (though not inevitably) refer to *Carol,* who has

been mentioned in the subject of the sentence. Personal pronouns vary on four dimensions: **number, person, case,** and **gender.**

phrasal verb A verb idiom which consists of two words, (a) a **main verb,** such as *take, find,* and (b) a **prepositional adverb** (often called a particle), such as *off, out, away*. Thus, *take off, carry on* and *find out* are examples of phrasal verbs. Particularly in informal English, phrasal verbs are common and numerous. Their meaning is idiomatic: we cannot easily infer what the expression means from the meanings of its parts. Thus, *take off* (in one of its senses) means 'imitate' and find out means 'discover'. Phrasal verbs can be (a) **intransitive** (that is, not taking an object) or (b) **transitive** (that is, taking an object):

(a) *As one aircraft took off, the other one was touching down.* (both verbs are intransitive).

(b) *I asked them to put off the meeting, but they decided to call it off completely*. (both verbs are transitive, their objects being the meeting and it).

Notice that with transitive phrasal verbs, the position of the object varies. When the object is a personal pronoun, it comes before the particle *(call it off)*. Otherwise, the object can occur either before or after the particle: *put the meeting off* or *put off the meeting*.

phrasal-prepositional verb A verb idiom which consists of three words, namely main verb + particle + preposition, for example *put up with, look forward to, do away with*.

phrase A grammatical unit which may consist of one or more than one word and which is one of the classes of constituent into which simple sentences can be divided. The main types of phrase are **noun** phrase, **verb** phrase, **prepositional** phrase, **adjective** phrase and **adverb** phrase. Each is named after the word class (noun, verb and so on) which plays the most important part in its structure.

place adverbial, place adverb An adverbial (which may, for example, be an adverb, prepositional phrase or clause) which answers the question *'Where?', 'Where to?', 'Where from?'* Examples include here, *to the meeting, wherever you want*. A place adverb is one of the adverbs which function as a place adverbial, for example *here, there, up, outside, forward*.

plural The form of a noun, pronoun or determiner which indicates 'more than one', in contrast to the singular. For example:

	Noun	**Pronoun**	**Determiner**	**(Verb)**
Singular	*student*	*he / she / it*	*this / that*	*(comes)*
Plural	*students*	*they*	*these / those*	*(come)*

Verbs are included in the table because they choose plural when their subject is plural. The regular plural of nouns is formed by adding *-s, -es* to the singular form. There are also irregular plurals: *man ~ men, wife ~ wives, mouse ~ mice, foot ~ feet, deer ~ deer, analysis ~ analyses*. Some irregular plurals coexist with alternative regular plurals: *people* or *persons, maxima* or *maximums, foci* or *focuses*.

positive The opposite of negative; used, for example, of a clause or a sentence.

possessive An alternative term for genitive, used especially for pronouns.

possessive determiner The possessive forms my, your, his, her, its, our, their are sometimes called 'possessive determiners' because they occur in the determiner position, like *the*, in a noun phrase. Alternatively, they can be considered possessive pronouns.

possessive pronouns A set of pronouns which correspond in meaning and position to genitive nouns or noun phrases. There are two series of possessive pronouns:

(a) *my*	*your*	*his*	*her*	*its*	*our*	*their*
(b) *mine*	*yours*	*his*	*hers*	*its*	*ours*	*theirs*

Series (a) occurs in the position of a determiner in a noun phrase, like the *(My car's a Toyota)*, while series (b) occupies the head position *(What's your car? Mine's a Renault)*.

Their meaning can be one of 'possession' (for example, *my garden* = 'the garden which belongs to me'), but they can also have other meanings associated with the genitive, as in their arrival, our hopes. The first possessive form – (a) above – occurs in the determiner position, preceding the noun and any modifiers (for example, *their recent arrival at the hotel*). The second possessive form occurs in the position of a whole noun phrase, for example *My garden is tidier than yours (= your garden)*. Like genitives, the second possessive pronoun can follow of in a 'double genitive' construction: *It had just been a romantic dream of hers*. Personal pronouns have possessive forms, as listed in (a) and (b) above, and in addition who has the possessive form whose and one the possessive form one's. The possessives contrast with subjective and objective pronouns like *I* and *me* in terms of case.

predicate The part of a clause or simple sentence which follows the subject and which consists of the verb phrase together with elements relating to it. For instance, in *The boat arrived on time, The boat* is the subject and *arrived on time* is the predicate.

predication The part of a clause or simple sentence which follows the subject and operator and which consists of the non-finite part of the verb phrase plus other elements relating to it. When its content is known from the context, a predication can be omitted by ellipsis or can be replaced by do so: *We have not yet sent you the order, but we will (do so) early next week*.

preposition A word which typically comes in front of a noun phrase, for example *of, in, with* in *of milk, in the building, with all the good intentions I had at the beginning of the year*. The noun phrase which follows the preposition can be called a prepositional complement and the preposition together with its complement is known as a prepositional phrase. The prepositional complement may also be a nominal clause (e.g. *He was ashamed of what he had done*).

In some circumstances, prepositions do not have a following prepositional complement, and they are then referred to as stranded prepositions, for example at the end of many *wh*-questions and relative clauses where the 'fronted' *wh*-word of relative pronoun has the role of prepositional complement: *What is this machine for? I'll ask the man I was talking to*. Prepositions include some very common words, such as *at, on, by, over, through, to*. In addition, there are quite a few complex prepositions which are written as more than one word: *away from, instead of, in front of, by means of* and so on. The meanings of prepositions are very varied, but two important categories are those of place and time relations: *at the airport, in the summer* and so on.

prepositional adverb An adverb which is identical (or similar) in form to a preposition to which it is also related in meaning, for example *on, by, off, over, about, past*. Words like *out* and *away* can be considered prepositional adverbs because of their close relations to the complex prepositions out of and away from. Prepositional adverbs, unlike their matching prepositions, do not have a prepositional complement. For example, in *He jumped over the fence, over* is a preposition, but in *He jumped over it* is a prepositional adverb. Similar examples are: *She fell down the stairs* and *She fell down*.

prepositional complement The grammatical element which follows a preposition in a prepositional phrase. Most commonly the prepositional complement is a noun phrase (which may be just a pronoun): *of the world, in my best writing, for her*. It can also be various other constituents, such as a ***wh*-clause,** an ***-ing* clause** or an **adjective**: *for what we are about to receive, on reaching the airport, in brief*.

prepositional phrase A phrase consisting of a preposition (e.g. *to*) followed by a noun phrase (or a nominal clause), for example *to my best friend*. Prepositional phrases have two important functions in grammar: (a) they can act as postmodifiers in a noun phrase (e.g. *the oldest member of my family*); (b) they can also act as adverbials, specifying, for example, the time or place of an action or situation described in the rest of the clause: *The train will start its journey at midnight. It will leave from platform four.*

prepositional verb A verb idiom consisting of a main verb followed by a preposition, for example *look after, look at, decide on, consist of, cope with*. The choice of preposition is determined by the verb rather than by the independent meaning of the preposition. Prepositional verbs can be confused with transitive phrasal verbs, but they are clearly distinct in that the particle (or second word) of a prepositional verb is a preposition, whereas that of a phrasal verb is a prepositional adverb. The confusion arises because of the similar appearance of examples like:

I looked at the picture. (at = preposition).

I looked up the word. (up = prepositional adverb).

But the difference is clear when we note that the word can be moved in front of its particle *(I looked the word up)*, whereas the picture cannot be place in front of its preposition: **I looked the picture at* is ungrammatical.

The noun phrase following a prepositional verb is sometimes called a **prepositional object.** Its role in the sentence is semantically similar to that of the object of a transitive verb (compare, for example, *I looked at the picture* with *I examined the picture*). However, this idiomaticity of *look at* does not prevent us from regarding *at the picture* in this construction as a prepositional phrase.

prescriptive grammar The kind of grammar-writing that determines the rules of the language by what is considered 'good' or 'correct' grammar, rather than by observing the actual use of the language. Prescriptive grammar contrasts with 'descriptive grammar'. Two well-known examples of prescriptive grammar are the rules against ending a sentence with a preposition *(It's a rule no one can agree with)* and 'split infinitives', where a word or phrase is placed between to and a following infinitive verb *(It's wrong to even think of it)*. In practice these rules are broken rather frequently.

present participle A traditional term for the ***-ing* form** of the verb, especially when used in a quasi-adjectival way, for example standing in the men standing about outside.

primary verbs The three verbs be, have and do, which are the three most common and important verbs in English. The primary verbs function both as auxiliary verbs and as main verbs.

pronouns A class of words which fill the position of nouns or noun phrases and which substitute for, or cross-refer to, other expressions. The most important class of pronouns is that of personal pronouns, which

vary for person *(I, you, she)*, case *(I, me, my)*, number *(I, we)* and gender *(he, she)*. Other classes are reflexive pronouns (e.g. *myself*), interrogative pronouns (e.g. *what*), relative pronouns (e.g. *which*), demonstrative pronouns (e.g. *this*) and indefinite pronouns (e.g. *someone*). Pronouns function as the heads of noun phrases, and in fact usually constitute the whole of a noun phrase, since modifiers occur with them rather rarely. Examples of modified pronouns are *poor little me, you yourself, what on earth, those who live abroad, someone else*.

proper noun A noun which is spelt with an **initial capital letter** and which refers to an individual (usually an individual person or an individual place). Proper nouns contrast with common nouns, which refer to classes of entity (for example, boy refers to the class of non-adult male human beings). Proper nouns do not normally have articles or other determiners (e.g. *Thomas* is normal, **the Thomas* is not). Further, they do not vary for number: most proper nouns (for example, *Eliza, Kennedy, Athens, Jupiter*) are singular and a few (e.g. names of mountain ranges such as *the Rockies*) are plural. In exceptional cases, names like *Kennedy* change their number and occur with articles (e.g. *the three Kennedy*s), but in these cases the usual view is that the proper noun *(Kennedy)* has been converted into a common noun, referring to a set of people with the same name *(Kennedy)*.

purpose adverb, purpose adverbial An adverb or adverbial which adds information about the purpose or aim of an action: *in order that, so that, in order to, so as to* and **to (+ infinitive)** are all ways of introducing an adverbial clause of purpose. Purpose adverbials answer the question *'Why?': Why did the Johnsons leave early? (They left early) to catch the last bus*. Words like *intentionally* and *purposely* can be considered purpose adverbs.

Q

question A type of sentence or clause which has an 'information gap' (e.g. in *When did you post the letters?* the information gap is the time at which the stated event occurred). Therefore, a question is typically interpreted as requesting information from another person. But there are also questions – for example, rhetorical questions – which do not have this function. Direct questions (see direct speech) end with a question mark (?). The major types of question are ***yes-no* questions, *wh*-questions** and **alternative questions:**

Are you going out?	(yes-no question)
Where are you going?	(wh-question)
Are you going out or staying in?	(alternative question)

R

reciprocal pronouns The compound pronouns each other and one another, which express the idea of a reciprocal relationship. Thus, *Judith and Frederick waved to each other* means *the same as Judith waved to Frederick and Frederick waved to Judith*.

reflexive pronouns A class of pronouns beginning with the form of personal pronouns and ending with *-self/-selves*. They are: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, oneself*. Reflexive pronouns typically occur later than the subject and verb in a clause or sentence and are identical in reference to the subject: *Jacob injured himself playing football. I am not feeling myself today.* Many authors write novels about themselves. In an imperative sentence, *yourself* (singular) or *yourselves* (plural) can be used, according to the number of the implied subject: *Please make yourself / yourselves comfortable*. A second use of reflexive pronouns is for emphasis: *She herself cooked the dinner* means *'She, and no one else, cooked the dinner'*. The emphatic reflexive pronoun is placed in apposition to another noun phrase – in this case the subject *She* – but may be separated from it for end focus: *She cooked the dinner herself.*

regular plurals see plural (contrast irregular plurals).

regular verbs see verb (contrast irregular verbs).

relative adverb When and where are relative adverbs when they occur at the beginning of a relative clause: *the moment when the bomb exploded; the place where I was born*.

relative pronoun A pronoun which begins a relative clause and which links it to the antecedent or head or preceding part of the noun phrase of which it is a part. The English relative pronouns are who / whom / whose (normally referring to people) and which (referring to things). Also that (mainly referring to things) and zero are sometimes considered relative pronouns (see relative clause). Who is a subjective form, whom an objective form, and whose a possessive form. (The zero relative pronoun is like an objective form – it cannot be used as subject.) The use of whom, however, is not common, and in informal English, that, zero or who is used instead. Here is a set of options, all of which are possible, although the last is less usual:

[zero]→	Ø	
	that	
The team	*which*	*Nick supports* nearly always loses.
	who(m)	

(The relative clause is in italics.) Compare also the woman to whom we were talking with the more informal the woman we were talking to.

reported speech (or indirect speech) The language we use to report what someone else said, using our own words. Thus, if Mary said *'I am sorry for John'*, someone could report this as: *Mary said that she was sorry for John*. This is called a reported statement, because the original speech was in statement form.

Reported speech is distinguished from direct speech, in which the original speech is repeated in the original words, normally enclosed in quotation marks. There are also reported questions. For example, if Mary said 'What did you say?', this could be reported by the hearer as Mary asked him what he had said. And there are reported commands, requests or suggestions. Thus, if Mary said 'Please sit down' to Alan, this could be reported: Mary told / asked Alan to sit down. The following are useful 'ground rules' for reported speech:

(a) It is normal to put reported speech in a subordinate clause:

(i) If the original speech was a statement, use a ***that*-clause:** . . . *that she was sorry for John*.

(ii) If the original speech was a question, use a ***wh*-interrogative clause:** . . . *how old he was*.

(iii) If the original speech was a command / request / suggestion, use a ***to*-infinitive clause:** . . . *to sit down*.

(b) If the original contained a present tense, change it to a past tense: . . . *was sorry for John*.

(c) Where the original contained a past tense, use a past perfect: . . . *what I had said*.

(d) Where the original contained a personal pronoun, change its person to the person appropriate to the situation in which it is being reported. Typically, this will mean changing first and second-person **pronouns** to the third person: *Mary said that she was sorry for John*.

Basically, these ground rules say: '*When you report speech, use the forms appropriate to your situation rather than the original speech situation'*. They are not to be applied as mechanical rules because of detailed conditions that cannot be described here.

response form A word whose special function is in responding to the speech of another speaker. In English, *Yes* (or its informal variant *Yeah*) and *No* are the chief positive and negative response forms.

restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses A major classification of relative clauses (also called 'defining and non-defining relative clauses'). Restrictive relative clauses are so called because they restrict the reference of the noun phrase they belong to. For instance, in

Summer holidays are a problem for most mothers who have to work for a living.

who have to work for a living is restrictive, specifying which or what kind of mothers. But if we insert a comma before the relative clause, it becomes non-restrictive:

Summer holidays are a problem for most mothers, who have to work for a living.

This sentence now makes two separate statements: (a) that summer holidays are a problem for most mothers, and (b) that most mothers have to work for a living. Non-restrictive clauses do not restrict the reference of the noun phrase but add an independent piece of information about it. A non-restrictive clause has to have a *wh*-word (usually *who* or *which*) as its relative pronoun. It cannot have *that* or a zero relative pronoun.

result adverbial An adverbial specifying the result or outcome of the happening described in the rest of the clause. Result adverbials can be clauses introduced by so that, or *to*-infinitive clauses: *Andy wrote very chatty letters, so that she could almost imagine he was there talking to her. I woke up to find the house deserted.*

rhetorical question A question which does not seek information, but rather implies that the answer is self-evident. *Who can say what will happen?* has the effect of a forceful statement: *'No one can say what will happen'*.

S

-s form The form of the verb which ends in *-s* or *-es*, for example *makes, wishes, adds*. The *-s* form is used when the subject of the verb is third person singular: *She writes. He forgets. Time passes*. The verbs *be* and *have* have the irregular *-s* forms *is* and *has*. Note that the *-s/-es* ending is also used for the regular plural of nouns.

second-person pronoun A pronoun which refers to the hearer / reader (with or without other people, but excluding the speaker / writer). The English second-person pronoun is *you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves*. As a personal pronoun, it has the same form *(you)* for singular and plural, subjective and objective.

sentence The largest unit of language that it is the business of grammar to describe. In writing, sentences are marked by beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop (.), question mark (?) or exclamation

mark (!). In spoken language, the definition of a sentence is problematic. There are no 'watertight' definitions of the sentence, but it is useful to think of the canonical sentence as the largest unit of grammar, at the head of a hierarchy of grammatical units:

A sentence consists of one or more clauses.

A clause consists of one or more phrases.

A phrase consists of one or more words.

A word consists of one or more morphemes. (Morphemes are stems and affixes.)

Sentences may be divided into simple sentences – those with just one clause – and complex or compound sentences – those which contain more than one clause. If we restrict our attention to the simple sentence (e.g. *The teacher corrected him amiably enough*), then we can talk about dividing the sentence into subject *(The teacher)* and predicate *(corrected him amiably enough)*, or into elements such as subject, verb phrase *(corrected)*, object *(him)* and adverbial *(amiably enough)*. But strictly, these are components of the clause rather than of the sentence. The first stage of analysing a sentence, then, is to recognize whether it has a single clause, as above, or more than one clause, as in:

[Today's weather will be fine], but [tomorrow will be cloudy and wet].

[[Although today's weather will be fine], tomorrow will be cloudy and wet].

There are differences of opinion on how to deal with pieces of language that do not contain a complete clause and do not form part of a 'canonical' sentence, for example: *Good morning, Ben. Hi! From Dusk to Dawn. Oh my gosh. Sorry about that*. Such non-clausal units are not infrequent in writing and are extremely common in conversation. One solution is to call them **verbless** or minor **sentences,** recognizing by this terminology that sentences do not have to be defined in terms of clause structures.

sentence adverb or sentence adverbial An adverb or adverbial which is peripheral to the clause or sentence it belongs to, and makes a point about the whole of the rest of the clause or sentence, for example: *As you know* in *As you know, I'm leaving my present job;* or *frankly* in *The play was disappointing, frankly*. Sentence adverbials can be divided into **conjuncts** and **disjuncts. Conjuncts** are **linking** adverbials which have a clause-, sentence- or paragraph-connecting function, such as *moreover*. Disjuncts are adverbials which imply the attitude of the speaker to the form or content of the rest of the clause / sentence, such as *as you know* and *frankly* above.

sentence (or sentential) relative clause A relative clause that refers back to the whole of the preceding clause or sentence. In *Elaine keeps mice in her bedroom, [which is eccentric, to say the least],* the part in parentheses is a sentence relative clause.

sentence types Sentences can be classified into basic types according to their meaning and function in discourse. The four types that are traditionally recognized, in order of importance, are **statements, questions, commands** (or directive sentences) and **exclamations.** A single compound sentence can sometimes include more than one of these types. The following combines a command and a statement:

[Leave the building immediately,] or [I'll summon the police].

It is common to classify clauses into a similar set of types: **declarative, interrogative, imperative** and **exclamative,** so that, for example, a question and an interrogative clause mean more or less the same thing. There is a difference, however, in that terms for sentence types tend to be interpreted according to their meaning or function, while terms for clause types tend to be interpreted according to their grammatical form. There are quite a few mismatches. For instance,

Will you shut the door	is interrogative in form, but a command in function
You're not leaving?	is declarative in form, but a question in function
Officers will report to me	is declarative in form, but a command in function

singular The form of a noun or pronoun used to refer to one entity or to something which is not countable, for example *tree, time, service, Louise*.

statement The proposition expressed by a **simple sentence** in the **declarative** form (that is, where the subject is followed by predicate), for example: *Her secretary works upstairs*. Here *Her secretary* is the **subject** and *works upstairs* is the **predicate.** A statement can be negated *(Her secretary doesn't work upstairs)*. Also, a statement can be either true or false, and is typically used to convey information. In these respects, it contrasts with **questions, commands,** and **exclamations.** It can be argued, however, that statements do not have to be expressed in a declarative form: for example, a rhetorical question, such as *Am I my brother's keeper?* has the force of a statement in **interrogative** form.

subject The element of a **clause** or simple sentence which normally comes before the **verb phrase** and consists of a noun phrase. Thus, in *The play ends happily* and *Suddenly they could hear footsteps, the play* and *they* are the subjects, preceding the verb phrases *ends* and *could hear*. The subject of a clause can also be a subordinate clause: *[That he confessed to the crime] proves nothing*. Subjects can be recognized by a number

of additional factors: (a) they have **concord** with the **finite verb;** (b) they are placed after the operator in questions: *Does the play end happily? Are these cars expensive?;* (c) they typically refer to the 'doer' of an action. This last factor, however, is unreliable: for example, in passive clauses, the subject does not refer to the 'doer', a role usually taken by the agent (if present) instead: *The show was praised by the critics*.

subjective (case) (also called 'nominative') The form taken by a personal pronoun when it acts as subject of a **clause** or sentence. The subjective **personal pronouns** are *I, he, she, we, they*. The pronouns *you* and *it* can be either subjective or objective. The pronoun *who* is a subjective ***wh*-word,** but it is also widely used in non-subject functions.

subordinate clause (also called **'subclause'**) A **clause** which is part of another clause, termed the main clause. Subordinate clauses are often classified according to their position or function in the main clause.

(a) **Nominal clauses** take on functions associated with noun phrases, for example subject or object in the main clause.

(b) **Adverbial clauses** take the function of adverbials.

(c) **Relative clauses** take an 'adjectival' function as modifiers in a noun phrase.

(d) **Comparative clauses** take a modifying function in an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, or a noun phrase, following a comparative word or construction.

subordination A method of linking or relating two clauses bymaking one clause subordinate to another. Contrast coordination.

superlative The form of a gradable word which ends in *-est* (or *-st*), for example *oldest, longest, most, least*. The superlative refers to the highest or lowest position on some scale of quality or quantity, for example: *Mount Everest is the highest mountain in the world. His mother's one of the kindest women I know*. One-syllable gradable adjectives and adverbs form their superlative by adding *-est*, but for most adjectives and adverbs of more than one syllable it is necessary to add the preceding adverb *most* (or *least* for the opposite end of the scale), for example: *most useful, most quickly, least important*. There are a few irregular superlative forms, such as the adjectives / adverbs *best, worst* and the pronouns / determiners / adverbs *most, least*.

syntax The part of grammar which concerns the way words are combined into sentences. It contrasts with morphology (the grammar of word structure). In English, most of grammar is concerned with syntax because morphology is relatively simple. For this reason, 'English grammar' and 'English syntax' are often treated as more or less equivalent terms.

T

tag question A short question which is added after a statement, to elicit a confirming response from the hearer, for example . . . *aren't you?, . . . isn't she?, . . . were they?* English has a broad range of tag questions, whose choice depends on the grammatical form of the statement. The rules for forming the most common type of tag questions are:

(a) Copy the operator of the statement (using the non-contracted form), and change it to negative if positive or to positive if negative: She's pretty straightforward, isn't she? You haven't gained that much weight, have you?

(b) If there is no operator, use the positive or negative form of the 'dummy auxiliary' do: *She likes sugar in her coffee, doesn't she? The photos came out well, didn't they?*

(c) If the subject of the statement is a personal pronoun, copy it and place it after the operator in the tag question: *We've met before, haven't we?*

(d) If the subject of the statement is not a personal pronoun, replace it in the tag question by the personal pronoun which matches its referent (in number, person, case and gender): *The journey won't take long, will it?*

There are other forms of tag question in English, including such invariant forms as *right? huh?* and *eh?*

tense (1) The grammatical contrast between present and past forms of the finite verb: *look / looks ~ looked, take / takes ~ took*. Thus, in English there are just two tenses: past tense and present tense. Notice that the future is not generally considered a tense in English.

(2) In a different mode of thinking common in English language teaching, the word tense is applied to combinations of tense and aspect. For example, present simple, present progressive (generally called 'continuous' in this tradition), present perfect, past simple, past progressive and past perfect are considered tenses.

that-clause A subordinate clause which begins optionally with the conjunction or complementizer that and fills nominal positions such as (a) **object,** (b) **complement** or – less commonly – (c) **subject** in the main clause:

(a) *He told me [that his mother was ill]*.

(b) *The trouble is [that I sing out of tune]*.

(c) [*That opinions will differ] is inevitable.*

Note that in the post-verbal positions (a) and (b) the *that* can be omitted: *He told me his mother was ill*. But this is not possible where the clause is subject as in (c) (except where the subject is extraposed – see below). *That*-clauses normally have the force of a statement, for example in representing reported speech or thought. They can occur (with or without that) in the function of a prepositional complement, but then the preposition preceding them is omitted: in *I'm afraid (that) you will miss the train*, the *of* that would follow afraid in other constructions is omitted before that. *That*-clauses often occur as postponed subjects after introductory it: *instead of* (c), it is more usual to say, *It is inevitable that opinions will differ*.

third person A third-person pronoun (or other third-person expression) is one whose reference excludes both the speaker and the hearer.

time adverb / adverbial An adverb or adverbial that adds information about the time of the happening described by the rest of the clause, for example now, recently, on *Monday, since I saw you last*. The commonest type of time adverbial answers the question *'When?'* Two other types of time adverbial are those of frequency (answering the question *'How often?'*) and of duration (answering the question *'How long?'*):

Last Friday we went to the park.	(time-when)
The phone bill has to be paid every month.	(frequency)
Why don't you stay with us for a week or two?	(duration)

to-infinitive The form of the verb phrase which begins with *to* + the **infinitive (base form)** of a verb. As the following examples show, the *to*-infinitive can be combined with the **perfect, progressive** and **passive** constructions:

to go	to have taken	to be dying
to be seen	to have been eating	to have been caught

To-infinitive verbs are used to introduce to-infinitive clauses, a common class of non-finite clauses. The to-infinitive clause usually has no **subject,** although its subject is implied by the context. It may, however, have **objects, complements** and/or **adverbials.** Some of the variety of structures of to-infinitive clauses is illustrated by:

(a) *I wanted*	*to resign* (verb phrase alone)
(b) *I tried*	*to start* | *the motor* (verb phrase + object)
(c) *He is said*	*to have been beaten* | *by the champion* (verb phrase + by + agent)
(d) *She aims*	*to become* | *a doctor* (verb phrase + complement)

To-infinitive clauses can have varied functions in the sentence. They can be:

(1) nominal clauses (for example, as subject – including postponed subject in extraposition – or object of the main clause):

To have been beaten by the champion is no disgrace.

It is no disgrace to have been beaten by the champion.

I have been wanting to resign for years.

(2) adverbial clauses (especially as adverbials of purpose):

To become a doctor, you need to pass a lot of exams.

(3) adjectival clauses (that is, similar to relative clauses):

This is the way to start the motor.

The subject of a to-infinitive can be expressed, if necessary, by using for + noun phrase:

It is no disgrace for a novice to be beaten by a champion.

What would be the best way for us to contact you? Compare bare infinitive.

transferred negation The placement of the negative word not/n't in a **main clause,** whereas logically speaking it belongs to a **subordinate clause:** *I don't suppose that Jill remembered the tickets*. Here *not* appears to negate the supposing rather than the remembering. But in fact, we understand the sentence to express a supposition that Jill didn't remember the tickets. Another construction favouring transferred negation is *seem / appear* followed by a to-infinitive: *He didn't seem to notice* is equivalent to *He seemed not to notice* or *It seemed that he didn't notice*.

transitive verb A **main verb** which requires an **object** to complete its meaning. For example, the verb *make* is transitive, since the object cannot be omitted in sentences such as: *The new bakery on 4th Street makes excellent bagels*. (**The new bakery on 4th Street makes* is not a complete or acceptable sentence.) If no object or complement follows, as in *The first attempt failed*, the verb is termed **intransitive.** A transitive verb can normally be used in the **passive:** *Excellent furniture is made by this factory*. However, many verbs are transitive in one context and intransitive in another. Examples are *open* and *finish:*

TRANSITIVE USE	INTRANSITIVE USE
Someone opened the door	*The door opened*
They have finished the game	*The game has finished*

We can add **adverbials** optionally after these verbs: *Someone opened the door suddenly*. *The game has finished already*. But this does not affect their classification as transitive or intransitive. The object that follows a transitive verb may be called its 'complement', using complement in the sense of **complement.**

U

universal conditional clause A clause which begins with a word like *whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever,* or *however,* and which has an **adverbial, conditional** role in the sentence: *However old you are, you should take plenty of exercise*. The meaning is: 'It doesn't matter how old you are', or 'If you are x years old', where x can take any value.

V

verb A large class of words which indicate events and states of affairs, or which help qualify the reference of other verbs. Verbs are divided into two main classes: the class of **main verbs,** which has a very large membership (e.g. *appear, drop, end, understand, revivify*) and the class of **auxiliary verbs,** which has a small membership of important verbs (*be, have, do, will, can, may, shall, would, could, might, should* and *must*). Of the auxiliary verbs, *be, have,* and *do* are known as primary verbs – they can also act as main verbs. The remaining auxiliary verbs are known as **modal auxiliaries.** Except for cases of **ellipsis** (e.g. *I can said in answer to a question Can you spare me a minute or two?*), almost every **clause** or **simple** sentence has a main verb. One or more auxiliary verbs can be added before the main verb, helping to specify its manner of reference, for example to specify **tense, aspect,** or **modality.** With the arguable exception of modal auxiliaries, all verbs have a variety of forms.

Most verbs are **regular verbs** and have four forms, for example *help, helps, helped, helping*. **Irregular verbs** (of which there are over 200) include many common verbs and all auxiliary verbs. The number of forms they have varies from one (the modal auxiliary *must*) to eight (the most common verb of all, **be**).

verb phrase (1) A phrase consisting of one or more verb words. The verb phrase is the most essential and pivotal element of a clause. It consists of a main verb alone (a simple verb phrase) or a main verb preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs. (There can also be an elliptical verb phrase which consists of an auxiliary verb with ellipsis of the main verb.) The verb phrase involves five principal choices. The first choice, of tense, is between present and past tense, and involves choosing the appropriate form of the finite verb, for example am/is/are ~ was/were; has/have ~ had; write(s) ~ wrote. The remaining four choices are whether to use two-verb constructions and whether to use them alone or in combination. They are:

modal construction:	modal auxiliary + infinitive must eat
perfect construction:	have + past participle has eaten
progressive construction:	be + -ing participle is eating
passive construction:	be + past participle is eaten

These constructions can be combined in the order stated:

modal + perfect:	modal auxiliary + *have* + past participle	*must have eaten*
modal + progressive:	modal auxiliary + *be* + *-ing*	*must be eating*
modal + passive:	modal auxiliary + *be* + past participle	*must be eaten*
perfect + progressive:	*have* + *been* + past participle	*has been eating*
perfect + passive:	*have* + *been* + past participle	*has been eaten*
progressive + passive:	*be* + *-ing* + past participle is	*being eaten*

And a further combination, namely of three constructions, is also possible though rare:

modal + perfect + progressive:	
modal auxiliary + *have* + *been* + *-ing*	*must have been eating*
modal + perfect + passive:	
modal auxiliary + *have* + *been* + past participle	*must have been eaten*
modal + progressive + passive:	
modal auxiliary + *be* + *being* + past participle	*must be being eaten*
perfect + progressive + passive:	
have + *been* + *being* + past participle	*has been being eaten*

Verb phrases can be either **finite** or **non-finite.** In finite verb phrases, the first or only verb is a **finite verb,** and following verbs, if any, are non-finite. In non-finite verb phrases (e.g. *eaten, to eat, having been eaten*) all the verbs, both auxiliaries and main verb, are non-finite.

(2) In many models of grammar, the verb phrase is defined as a bigger unit, including not only the verb constructions above, but also the elements of a clause which follow the main verb such as its **object.** Verb phrase in this sense is equivalent to **predicate.** Another extension of the term is to apply also to **predication.** In fact, in such models, there can be series of verb phrases one embedded in another, so that all the bracketed [ ] elements in the following example are verb phrases:

The results [should [have [been [fed into Professor Lang's computer]]]].

verbal group Another term for verb phrase.

verbless clause / construction A grammatical unit which resembles a clause, except that it lacks a verb phrase. Verbless clauses are often clauses from which the verb **be** has been omitted by ellipsis: *A large crowd of refugees, many of them women and children, were imprisoned in the football stadium.*

verbless sentence A unit of grammar that is independent, in the sense that it is not part of some other grammatical unit, and yet does not contain any verb. Although a verb is often considered essential to a **sentence,** verbless sentences are extremely common in spoken language and are far from rare in written texts. Examples are: *Happy birthday! The bloody key! How cool! No problem. Thirty pence please. Down! Yeah. More coffee? Entrance*. Other terms for verbless sentence are 'minor sentence (type)' and 'non-clausal unit'. It is also possible to argue that, if verbless clauses are accepted, an expression such as *Happy birthday* consists of a single verbless main clause.

voice The grammatical category which involves the choice between passive and active forms of the verb phrase.

W

wh-clause A dependent clause which begins with a *wh*-word or *wh*-element. There are two major kinds of *wh*-clause: (a) ***wh*-interrogative** clauses, and (b) ***wh*-relative** clauses, including **nominal relative clauses.** A *wh*-clause beginning with the conjunction whether is a subordinate *yes-no* question, for example in reported speech:

Europeans wonder [whether the EU is ready for a common foreign policy].

A *wh*-clause beginning with other *wh*-words / phrases can be a dependent *wh*-question:

My mother never questioned [what I was doing].

wh-element A phrase consisting of or containing a *wh*-word. *Wh*-elements normally begin with a *wh*-word. For example, typical *wh*-elements are *who, which chair, how often, whose car*. But one exception to this is the formal construction of a prepositional phrase in which the *wh*-word is preceded by a preposition: for example, *in which, for how long*.

wh-ever word A member of a class of words which resemble *wh*-words, from which they are derived by the addition of the suffix *-ever: whoever, whichever, whatever, wherever, whenever, however* and so on. *Wh*-ever words begin nominal relative clauses and universal conditional clauses: *Wherever you go, you'll have a ball.*

wh-question A question which begins with a *wh*-element: *Where are you? Who can we get to help us? How long have you been waiting here? Under what conditions have the prisoners been released?* Unlike *yes-no* questions, which strictly speaking invite only two possible answers – *yes* or *no* – *wh*-questions allow a large or open-ended number of answers. Compare, for example, *Is tomorrow your birthday?* (*yes* or *no*) with *What day is your birthday?* (*1 January, 2 January*, or . . .). As the examples above show, *wh*-questions typically require a change of the normal statement word order: (a) the *wh*-element is placed at the beginning, even if it is object, complement and so on, and (b) there is inversion of the **subject** and the **operator** (for example, *we can ~ can we*). There is no change of word order, however, when the subject itself is the *wh*-element: *Who said that?*

wh-word A member of a small class of words which are **proforms,** filling a position at the front of a **question,** an **exclamation** or a dependent *wh*-clause, which can be, for example, an **interrogative** or **relative clause.** Placing *wh*-words in initial position usually entails displacing them from their 'normal' position in the sentence. The *wh*-words are: *who, whom, whose* (pronouns); *which, what* (pronouns and determiners); *how, when, where, why* (adverbs). The *wh*-ever words *whatever, wherever* and so on behave in a similar way.

word A basic grammatical unit which also largely corresponds to the main unit of the dictionary. In writing, words are marked as the smallest units to be separated by spaces. However, there is no 'watertight' definition of a word: many **compounds,** for example, are on the boundary of what makes a single word as opposed to a phrase. One useful criterion for words (as distinct from smaller units, such as roots and suffixes) is their relative independence in being inserted, omitted or moved around in the sentence.

word class (traditional term: **'part of speech'**) A set of words which form a class in terms of their similarity of form, function and meaning. That is, a word class is typically a meeting point of morphology, syntax and semantics. The word classes which have a (very) large membership are **nouns**, **lexical verbs**, **adjectives**, **numerals**, and **adverbs.** The word classes which have quite a small membership are **auxiliary verbs, determiners, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions,** and **interjections.**

word order This term is often used rather loosely to refer to the order in which elements occur in a clause or sentence. Within phrases, the ordering of words in English is relatively fixed: we have to say *a very old car*, rather than **an old very car*, **car old very a* and so on. Within clauses, however, the ordering of phrases as **subject, verb, object, adverbial** and so on is more flexible, particularly regarding the position of adverbials. Nevertheless, English is often termed a relatively 'fixed wordorder language', because, compared with many other languages (and subject to some well-known exceptions such as the placing of *wh*-elements in initial position), the order of elements such as subject, verb and object is relatively inflexible.

Y

yes-no interrogative, yes-no question A common type of question which invites the hearer to choose between two possible answers, *yes* or *no*. A *yes-no* question is closely related to a statement: in fact, it can be described as a question as to the truth or falsehood of a statement. It is usually distinguished from a statement (a) by word order and (b) by a rising intonation pattern in speech. To form a *yes-no* question from a corresponding statement, place the **operator** (that is, the first auxiliary or finite main verb be) in front of the **subject:**

statement	*yes-no* question
subject + operator . . .	operator + subject . . .
You could wash the dishes.	*Could you wash the dishes?*
The clock has been mended.	*Has the clock been mended?*
The children are in bed.	*Are the children in bed?*

If the statement contains a simple verb phrase without an operator, the *yes-no* question must contain the appropriate form of the 'dummy auxiliary' *do* + the base form of the main verb:

Sheila enjoyed the party. *Did Sheila enjoy the party?*

Yes-no questions can also be **negative: Couldn't you wash the dishes? Hasn't the clock been mended?** These are 'loaded questions', expressing surprise that the answer to the question is apparently negative. Another kind of loaded question is a *yes-no* question which keeps the statement order and relies on intonation to indicate its interrogative force: *So – you enjoyed the party?* This is a 'just checking' question and expects a positive answer.

Z

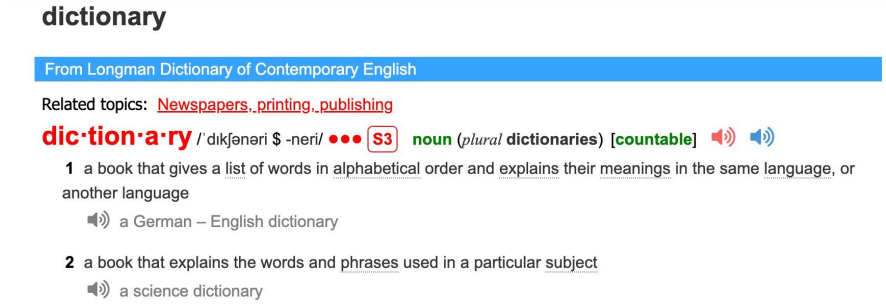
zero article This term is sometimes used for an article that is omitted before a common noun. The zero article is the normal way of expressing indefinite meaning before (a) a **non-count noun,** or (b) before a **plural count noun,** for example *water*, *trees*. The zero article contrasts with the definite article *the* (used for definite meaning in front of any common noun) and the indefinite article *a* or *an* (used for indefinite meaning in front of a singular count noun).

zero plural An irregular plural of a noun, where the plural form is identical to the singular. English has a very few instances, including *sheep*, *deer*, *series*, *aircraft*.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

DICTIONARIES AND HOW TO USE THEM



dictionary

From Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

Related topics: Newspapers, printing, publishing

dic·tion·a·ry /ˈdɪkʃənəri $ -neri/ ●●● S3 **noun** (*plural* **dictionaries**) [**countable**]

1 a book that gives a list of words in alphabetical order and explains their meanings in the same language, or another language

a German – English dictionary

2 a book that explains the words and phrases used in a particular subject

a science dictionary

a pocket dictionary – small enough to be carried in your pocket
an electronic dictionary – small electronic machine containing a dictionary
a bilingual dictionary – with translations from one language into another
a monolingual dictionary – written in only one language
a picture dictionary – containing a lot of pictures, especially for children or beginners in a language
an online dictionary – the one you can use on the Internet
an etymological dictionary – showing the origin and history of words

a dictionary entry – the definition and all the other information at a word (pronounciation, etymology, inflected forms, derived forms, etc.)
a dictionary definition – a phrase or sentence that says exactly what a word, phrase, or idea means

use a dictionary
look something up in a dictionary
check a dictionary
consult a dictionary

UNDERSTANDING YOUR DICTIONARY

Choose the Right Dictionary

Consider purchasing specialist dictionaries if they would be useful in your study or career. Some examples of specialist dictionaries include language dictionaries, technical dictionaries, rhymes, crossword, subject dictionaries (e.g. for math, chemistry, biology, horticulture, etc.), illustrated dictionaries (excellent for learning another language or for technical knowledge), slang and idioms, etc.

Note that many countries have their own native dictionaries that might be more helpful than sourcing a dictionary from just anywhere, such as the Macquarie Dictionary in Australia, Oxford Dictionary in England, Webster's Dictionary in the United States, etc.

Some schools, universities, and workplaces prefer the use of one particular dictionary. This is for reasons of maintaining a consistent style and understanding among everyone using them; make sure you use the right one for your assignments, editing, and reports. Check the syllabus or employee handbook to find out.

Read the Introduction

The best way to learn how to use your particular dictionary effectively is to read its introductory section where you will find out how the entries are arranged. The introductory section of your dictionary will explain important information such as the abbreviations and pronunciation symbols used throughout the entries.

Introductions to dictionaries explain things like how entries are arranged (they typically give the word, and the variations of the word; what part of speech the word is; pronunciation of the word; definition, etc.). Reading the introduction will give you a handle on how to find words and how to use the information that you do find.

There may also be information on the pronunciation of words with similar spellings; this can be helpful if you have only heard a word and you're not sure of its spelling. For example, if you hear 'not', it might also be 'knot' but the 'k' is silent, and this list can help you with suggestions.

Learn the Abbreviations

Dictionaries often have abbreviations in the definitions for a word (see Appendix 3). This can be confusing if you don't know what the abbreviations stand for. Typically a dictionary will have a list of abbreviations near the front of the book; either in the introduction or after it.

For example 'adj.' stands for 'adjective' and will tell you what kind of word the word you're looking up is. 'Adv.' or 'advb.' can stand for 'adverb; adverbially'.

Something like 'n.' can stand for at least three different things: the most obvious and common is 'noun', but it can also stand for 'neuter' or 'north' depending on the context. So make sure that you check the context of the word when you're looking it up.

Learn the Guide to Pronunciation

If you immediately jump right into reading the dictionary without understanding the pronunciation guide, it can be difficult to figure it out. Having an idea about the symbols of pronunciation will make it a lot easier for you.

The pronunciation of a word will be placed between two reversed virgules (/ / or [ ]).

A single stress mark (‘) precedes the strongest syllable in a word. A double mark precedes the syllable with a medium (or secondary stress) (ˌ), and the third level of stress has no marker. For example, the transcript of noun *university* would look like this /ˌjuːnəˈvɜːsəti/.

Read the Definition

Once you have located the word in a dictionary it will tell you exactly what it means (and if it has more than one meaning, it will tell you the most common one first), how to pronounce it, how to capitalize it (if it is a proper noun), what part of speech it is and so on.

Quite a few people get daunted by the definitions themselves because they can involve words that you have to then look up. Don’t feel discouraged. See if you can figure out the meaning from the example sentences provided and if not, look up the words you aren’t sure of.

Dictionaries can also sometimes give the synonyms (words that mean the same thing as your word) and the antonyms of a word (words that mean the opposite of your word). So, for example, if your word is futile some synonyms might be *fruitless* or *unsuccessful* and some antonyms might be *effective* or *helpful*. You can also find near neighbor words such as *futility*.

You might also find an etymology, derivation, or history of the word. Even if you don’t know Latin or Ancient Greek, you may find that this information helps you to remember or understand the word. Check, for example, the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) for in-depth looks at the origins of the word.

Dictionaries also often provide the word spelling and pronunciation in other English derivations (US English, British English, Australian English, etc.).

An Online Dictionary

Choose a suitable free online dictionary. Type in the word you are looking for. The search engine will return the word to you and the definition section should contain most of the elements discussed above.

Make use of the audio content provided with online dictionaries. This can help considerably when you are unsure how to pronounce the word.

Note that free services may not be as comprehensive as a subscription or book dictionary, so keep this in mind when you are not sure that you have found the right answer. Always check at least two different online definitions for the word you are looking for.

Appendix 2

SELECTED ONLINE DICTIONARIES

A Concise List of Online Academic English Dictionaries

American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language
https://ahdictionary.com/

Collins Unabridged English Dictionary
https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english

Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary
https://www.merriam-webster.com/

Oxford Dictionary of English
https://dictionary.cambridge.org/

Random House Webster's Unabridged Dictionary
https://www.dictionary.com/

Advanced Learner's Dictionaries

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/

Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary
https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
https://www.ldoceonline.com/

Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners
https://www.macmillandictionary.com/

Appendix 3

COMMON DICTIONARY ABBREVIATIONS AND LABELS

Common Abbreviations

adj	adjective
adv	adverb
conj	conjunction
n	noun
phr v	phrasal verb
prep	preposotion
pron	pronoun
v	verb
sb	somebody
sth	something

Labels

Common words which are used only or mainly in one region or country

BrE	British English
AmE	American English
AusE	Australian English

Common words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude

formal	a word that is suitable for formal speech or writing, but would not normally be used in ordinary conversation
informal	a word or phrase that is used in normal conversation, but may not be suitable for use in more formal contexts, for example for writing essays
humorous	a word that is normally used in a joking way

Common words which are used in a particular context ot type of language

biblical	a word that is used in the language of the Bible, and would sound old-fashioned to a modern speaker
law	a word with a technical meaning used by lawyers, in legal documents, etc.
literary	a word used mainly in English literature, and not in normal speech or writing
medical	a word or phrase that is more likely to be used by doctors than by ordinary people, and that often has a more common equivalent
not polite	a word or phrase that is considered rude, and that might offend some people
old-fashioned	a word that was commonly used in the past, but would sound old-fashioned today
old use	a word used in earlier centuries
spoken	a word or phrase used only, or nearly always, in conversation
taboo	a word that should not be used because it is very rude or offensive
technical	a word used by doctors, scientists, and other specialists
trademark	a word that is the official name of a particular product
written	a word or phrase that is used only, or nearly always, in written English

Grammar Codes

[C] countable	a noun that has both a singular and plural form
[U] uncountable	a noun that has no plural form and refers to something that cannt be counted
[I] intransitive	a verb that has no object
[T] transitive	a verb that is followed by an object, which can be either a noun phrase or a clause
[singular]	a noun that is used only in the singular, and has no plural form
[plural]	a noun that is used only in the plural, and has no singular form
[linking verb]	a verb that is followed by a noun or adjective complement that describes the subject of the verb
[always + adv/prep]	shows that a verb must be followed by an adverb or a preposition
[not in progressive]	shows that a verb is not used in the progressive form, that is, the *-ing* form after *be*
[no comparative]	shows that an adjective is not used in the comparative or superlative form, that is, not with *-er* and *-est*, or *more* and *most*
[only before noun]	shows that an adjective can be used only before a noun
[not before noun]	shows that an adjective cannot be used before a noun
[only after noun]	shows that an adjective is used only immediately after a noun
[sentence adverb]	shows that an adverb modifies a whole sentence
[+ adj/adv]	shows that an adverb of degree is used before adjectives and adverbs
[also + plural verb BrE]	shows that a group noun can take a plural verb in British

Patterns

[+ about] [+ along]	shows that a word can be followed immediately by a particular preposition or adverb
throw sth at sb/sth	shows that a verb can be followed by an object and a particular preposition
request that	shows that a word can be followed by a clause beginning with *that*
surprised (that)	shows that a word can be followed by a clause beginning with *that*, or the word *that* can be left out
decide	shows that a word can be followed by a clause beginning with a word such
who / what / whether, etc.	as *who*, *what*, *whether*, or *where*
order sb to do sth	shows that a word can be followed by an infinitive
help do sth	shows that a verb can be followed by an infinitive without *to*
enjoy doing sth	shows that a verb can be followed by a present participle
bring sb sth	shows that a verb can be followed by an indirect object and then a direct object

Further Reading and Watching

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Appendix 4

SYMBOLS AND TYPOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS

.	full stop	/	(forward) slash
,	comma	\	back slash
?	question mark	( )	(round) brackets (or parentheses)
!	exclamation mark	[ ]	square brackets (or box brackets)
:	colon	{ }	curly brackets
;	semi-colon	°	degrees (40º: forty degrees)
“ ”	double quotation marks	%	per cent
‘ ‘	single quotation marks	&	and (also called ‘ampersand’)
‘	apostrophe	©	copyright
-	hyphen	<	less than
–	dash	>	greater than
+	plus	@	at
–	minus	✓	tick
×	multiplied by (2 × 2: two multiplied by two)	X_X	underscore (ann_hobbs: ann underscore hobbs)
÷	divided by (6 ÷ 2: six divided by two)	*	asterisk
=	equals		

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