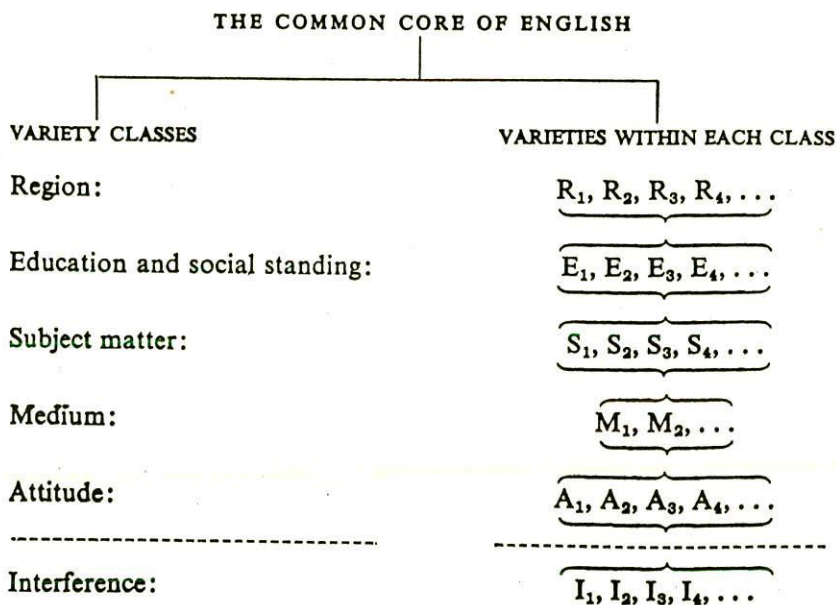# ONE
VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

1.1
Variety classes

There are numerous varieties of the English language, and what we ordinarily mean by 'English' is a common core or nucleus which is realized only in the different forms of the language that we actually hear or read. We can distinguish six kinds of varieties ranged as below and interrelated in ways we shall attempt to explain.

THE COMMON CORE OF ENGLISH

VARIETY CLASSES	VARIETIES WITHIN EACH CLASS
Region:	$R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, \ldots$
Education and social standing:	$E_1, E_2, E_3, E_4, \ldots$
Subject matter:	$S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, \ldots$
Medium:	$M_1, M_2, \ldots$
Attitude:	$A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, \ldots$
Interference:	$I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4, \ldots$

The fact that in this figure the 'common core' dominates all the varieties means that, however esoteric or remote a variety may be, it has running through it a set of grammatical and other characteristics that are common to all. From this initial point onwards, it is claimed by the sets

of braces that each variety class is related equally and at all points to each of the other variety classes. We shall however return and make qualifications to this claim. The classes themselves are arranged in a meaningful order and the justification will become clear in what follows.

Regional variation
1.2
Varieties according to region have a well-established label both in popular and technical use: 'dialects'. Geographical dispersion is in fact the classic basis for linguistic variation, and in the course of time, with poor communications and relative remoteness, such dispersion results in dialects becoming so distinct that we regard them as different languages. This latter stage was long ago reached with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc, but it has not been reached (and may not necessarily ever be reached, given the modern ease of communication) with the dialects of English that have resulted from the regional separation of English-speaking communities both within the British Isles and throughout the world.

Regional variation seems to be realized predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation before we notice that his vocabulary (or lexicon) is also distinctive. Grammatical variation tends to be less extensive and certainly less obtrusive. But all types of linguistic organization can readily enough be involved.

1.3
It is pointless to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending solely on how detailed we wish to be in our observations. But they are of course more obviously numerous in the long-settled Britain than in the more recently settled North America or in the still more recently settled Australia and New Zealand. The degree of generality in our observation depends crucially upon our standpoint as well as upon our experience. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American and only as a Southerner in addition if further subclassification is called for and if his experience of American English dialects enables him to make it. To an American the same speaker will be heard first as a Southerner and then (subject to similar conditions) as, say, a Virginian, and then perhaps as a Piedmont Virginian. One might suggest some broad dialectal divisions which are rather generally recognized. Within North America, most people would be able to distinguish Canadian, New England, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Irish, Scots, Northern, Midland,

Welsh, South-western, and London varieties would be recognized with similar generality. Some of these – Irish and Scots for example – would be recognized as such by many Americans and Australians too, while in Britain many people could make subdivisions: Ulster and Southern might be distinguished within Irish, for example, and Yorkshire picked out as a subdivision of northern speech. British people can also, of course, distinguish North Americans from all others (though not usually Canadians from Americans), South Africans from Australians and New Zealanders (though mistakes are frequent), but not usually Australians from New Zealanders.

1.4
Education and social standing

Within each of the dialect areas, there is considerable variation in speech according to education and social standing. There is an important polarity of uneducated and educated speech in which the former can be identified with the regional dialect most completely and the latter moves away from dialectal usage to a form of English that cuts across dialectal boundaries. On the other hand, there is no simple equation of dialectal and uneducated English. Just as educated English cuts across dialectal boundaries, so do many features of uneducated use: a prominent example is the double negative as in *I don't want no cake*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar tradition for hundreds of years but which continues to thrive in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

Educated speech – by definition the language of education – naturally tends to be given the additional prestige of government agencies, the learned professions, the political parties, the press, the law court and the pulpit – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the smallest dialectal community. The general acceptance of 'BBC English' for this purpose over almost half a century is paralleled by a similar designation for general educated idiom in the United States, 'network English'. By reason of the fact that educated English is thus accorded implicit social and political sanction, it comes to be referred to as Standard English, and provided we remember that this does not mean an English that has been formally standardized by official action, as weights and measures are standardized, the term is useful and appropriate. In contrast with Standard English, forms that are especially associated with uneducated (rather than dialectal) use are often called 'substandard'.

1.5
Standard English

The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the

world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly re-
markable phenomenon: the more so since the extent of the uniformity
involved has, if anything, increased in the present century. Uniformity is
greatest in what is from most viewpoints the relatively unimportant
matter of spelling. Although printing houses in all English-speaking
countries retain a tiny area of individual decision (some preferring -*ise*
and others -*ize* in words like *realise*; some preferring *judgment* and
others *judgement*; etc), there is basically a single system, with two minor
subsystems. The one is the subsystem with British orientation (used in
all English-speaking countries except the United States) with distinctive
forms in only a small class of words, *colour, centre, levelled*, etc. The
other is the American subsystem: *color, center, leveled*, etc. In Canada,
the British subsystem is used for the most part, but some publishers
(especially of popular material) follow the American subsystem and
some a mixture (*color* but *centre*). In the American Mid-West, some
newspaper publishers (but not book publishers) use a few additional
separate spellings such as *thru* for *through*.

In grammar and vocabulary, Standard English presents somewhat less
of a monolithic character, but even so the world-wide agreement is extra-
ordinary and – as has been suggested earlier – seems actually to be in-
creasing under the impact of closer world communication and the spread
of identical culture, both material and non-material. The uniformity is
especially close in neutral or formal styles (1.12) of written English (1.11)
on subject matter (1.10) not of obviously localized interest: in such
circumstances one can frequently go on for page after page without
encountering a feature which would identify the English as belonging to
one of the *national standards*.

National standards of English
1.6
British and American English
There are two national standards that are overwhelmingly predominant
both in the number of distinctive usages and in the degree to which these
distinctions are 'institutionalized': American English and British
English. Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are
widely known; the fact that AmE has two past participles for *get* and BrE
only one (3.14), for example, and that in BrE the indefinite pronoun
one is repeated in co-reference where AmE uses *he* as in

One cannot succeed at this unless $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{one}\\\text{he}\end{array}\right\}$ tries hard

Lexical examples are far more numerous, but many of these are familiar
to users of both standards: for example, *railway* (BrE), *railroad* (AmE);

tap (BrE), *faucet* (AmE); *autumn* (BrE), *fall* (AmE). More recent lexical innovations in either area tend to spread rapidly to the other. Thus while radio sets have had *valves* in BrE but *tubes* in AmE, television sets have cathode ray *tubes* in both, and *transistors* are likewise used in both standards.

1.7
Scotland, Ireland, Canada
Scots, with ancient national and educational institutions, is perhaps nearest to the self-confident independence of BrE and AmE, though the differences in grammar and vocabulary are rather few. Irish (or Hiberno-) English should also be regarded as a national standard, for though we lack descriptions of this long-standing variety of English it is consciously and explicitly regarded as independent of BrE by educational and broadcasting services. The proximity of Britain, the easy movement of population, and like factors mean however that there is little room for the assertion and development of separate grammar and vocabulary.

Canadian English is in a similar position in relation to AmE. Close economic, social, and intellectual links along a 4000-mile frontier have naturally caused the larger community to have an enormous influence on the smaller, not least in language. Though in many respects Canadian English follows British rather than United States practice, in many other respects it has approximated to AmE and seems likely to continue in this direction.

1.8
South Africa, Australia, New Zealand
South Africa, Australia and New Zealand are in a very different position, remote from the direct day-to-day impact of either BrE or AmE. While in orthography and grammar the South African English in educated use is virtually identical with BrE, rather considerable differences in vocabulary have developed.

New Zealand English is more like BrE than any other non-European variety, though it now feels the powerful influence of Australia and – to no small degree – of the United States.

Australian English is undoubtedly the dominant form of English in the Antipodes, and it is even exerting an influence in the northern hemisphere, particularly in Britain, though much of what is distinctive in Australian English is confined to familiar use.

1.9
Pronunciation and Standard English
This list does not exhaust the regional or national variants that approximate to the status of a standard (the Caribbean might be mentioned, for

example), but the important point to stress is that all of them are remarkable primarily in the trivial extent to which even the most firmly established, BrE and AmE, differ from each other in vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. We have been careful, however, not to mention pronunciation in this connection. Pronunciation distinguishes one national standard from another most immediately and completely, and links in a most obvious way the national standards to the regional varieties.

In BrE, one type of pronunciation comes close to enjoying the status of 'standard': 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP'. Because this has been largely associated with a private education system based upon boarding schools insulated from the locality in which they happen to have been situated, it is significantly non-regional and of considerable prestige. But RP no longer has the unique authority it had in the first half of the twentieth century.

1.10
Varieties according to subject matter

Varieties according to the subject matter involved in a discourse are sometimes referred to as 'registers'. While one does not exclude the possibility that a given speaker may choose to speak in a national standard at one moment and in a regional dialect the next – and possibly even switch from one national standard to another – the presumption has been that an individual adopts one of the varieties so far discussed as his permanent form of English. With varieties according to subject matter, on the other hand, the presumption is rather that the same speaker has a repertoire of varieties and habitually switches to the appropriate one as occasion arises. Most typically, perhaps, the switch involves nothing more than turning to the particular set of lexical items habitually used for handling the subject in question: law, cookery, engineering, football.

Although in principle the type of language required by a particular subject matter would be roughly constant against the variables already discussed (dialect, national standard), the use of a specific variety of one class frequently presupposes the use of a specific variety of another. A well-formed *legal* sentence, for example, presupposes an *educated* variety of English.

1.11
Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by *speaking* and *writing* respectively. Most of the differences involved arise from two sources. One is situational: the use

of a written medium normally presumes the absence of the person(s) to whom the piece of language is addressed. This imposes the necessity of a far greater explicitness: the careful and precise completion of a sentence, rather than the odd word, supported by gesture, and terminating when the speaker is assured by word or look that his hearer has understood.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to transmit language by speech (stress, rhythm, intonation, tempo, for example) are impossible to represent with the crudely simple repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation: *cf* App II. This means that the writer has often to reformulate his sentences if he is to convey fully and successfully what he wants to express within the orthographic system.

1.12
Varieties according to attitude
Varieties according to attitude are often called 'stylistic', but 'style' like 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the choice of linguistic form that proceeds from our attitude to the hearer (or reader), to the subject matter, or to the purpose of our communication. And we postulate that the essential aspect of the non-linguistic component (that is, the attitude) is the gradient between stiff, formal, cold, impersonal on the one hand and relaxed, informal, warm, friendly on the other. It is useful to pursue the notion of the 'common core' (1.1) here, so that we can acknowledge a neutral or unmarked variety of English, bearing no obvious colouring that has been induced by attitude. On each side of this, we can then distinguish sentences containing features that are markedly formal or informal. In this book, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this three-term distinction, leaving the middle one unlabelled and specifying only usages that are relatively formal or informal:

(rigid ~) FORMAL ~ (neutral) ~ INFORMAL (~ familiar)

1.13
Varieties according to interference
Varieties according to interference should be seen as being on a very different basis from the other types of variety discussed. In this case, we refer to the trace left by someone's native language upon the foreign language he has acquired. Thus, the Frenchman who says 'I am here since Thursday' is imposing a French grammatical usage on English; the Russian who says 'There are four assistants in our chair of mathematics' is imposing a Russian lexico-semantic usage on the English word 'chair'. But there are interference varieties that are so widespread

in a community and of such long standing that they may be thought
stable and adequate enough to be regarded as varieties of English in their
own right rather than stages on the way to a more native-like English.
There is active debate on these issues in India, Pakistan and several
African countries, where efficient and fairly stable varieties of English
are prominent in educated use at the highest political and professional
level.

1.14
Relationship between variety classes

In presenting the table of varieties in a schematic relationship (1.1),
reference was made to each stratum of varieties being equally related to
all others. But, as we have seen, there are limitations to this. Since writ-
ing is an educated art, we shall not expect to find other than educated
English of one or other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when
we try on occasion to represent regional or uneducated English in
writing, we realize how narrowly geared to Standard English are our
graphic conventions. For the same reason there are some subjects that
can scarcely be handled in writing and others (*eg* legal statutes) that
can scarcely be handled in speech.

Attitudinal varieties have a great deal of independence in relation to
other varieties: it is possible to be formal or informal on biochemistry or
politics in AmE or BrE, for example. But informal or casual language
across an 'authority gap' or 'seniority gap' (a student talking to an arch-
bishop) presents difficulties, and on certain topics (funerals) it would be
unthinkably distasteful. An attempt at formal or rigid language when
the subject is courtship or football would seem comic at best.

Our approach in this book is to keep our sights firmly fixed on the
COMMON CORE which constitutes the major part of any variety of
English, however specialized, and without which fluency in any variety
at a higher than parrot level is impossible. Only at points where a
grammatical form is being discussed which is associated with a specific
variety will mention be made of the fact that the form is no longer of the
common core. The varieties chiefly involved on such occasions will be
AmE and BrE; speech and writing; formal and informal.

1.15
Varieties within a variety

Two final points need to be made. First, the various conditioning factors
(region, medium, attitude, for example) have no *absolute* effect: one
should not expect a consistent all-or-nothing response to the demands of
informality or whatever the factor may be. The conditioning is real but
relative and variable. Secondly, when we have done all we can to account

for the choice of one rather than another linguistic form, we are still left with a margin of variation that cannot with certainty be explained in terms of the parameters set forth in 1.1 and discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

For example, we can say (or write)

He stayed a week	*or*	He stayed for a week
Two fishes	*or*	Two fish
Had I known	*or*	If I had known

without either member of such pairs being necessarily linked to any of the varieties that we have specified. We may sometimes have a clear impression that one member seems rarer than another, or relatively old-fashioned, but although a rare or archaic form is likelier in relatively formal rather than in relatively informal English, we cannot always make such an identification. All societies are constantly changing their languages with the result that there are always coexistent forms, the one relatively new, the other relatively old; and some members of a society will be temperamentally disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined to the old (perhaps by their age). But many of us will not be consistent either in our choice or in our temperamental disposition. Perhaps English may give rise to such fluctuation more than some other languages because of its patently mixed nature: a basic Germanic wordstock, stress pattern, word-formation, inflection and syntax overlaid with a classical and Romance wordstock, stress pattern, word-formation – and even inflection and syntax. The extent to which even highly educated people will treat the Latin and Greek plurals in *data* and *criteria* as singulars or will use *different to* and *averse to* rather than *different from* and *averse from* – and face objections from other native speakers of English – testifies to the variable acknowledgment that classical patterns of inflection and syntax (Latin *differre ab*, 'to differ *from*'; *aversus ab*, 'averse *from*') apply within English grammar. It is one of the senses in which English is to be regarded as the most international of languages and it adds noticeably to the variation in English usage with which a grammar must come to terms.

Bibliographical Note

On varieties of English, see Crystal and Davy (1969); McDavid-Mencken (1963); Quirk (1972); Turner (1973).

ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR

2.1
The purpose of this chapter is to explore certain outstanding features of English structure in such a way as to provide, as it were, a small-scale map of areas that will be viewed in much greater detail in later chapters. As with any small-scale map, a great many features will be ignored and complicated contours will be smoothed out. The reader's attention will not be distracted even by forward references to the parts of the book in which the focus will allow such complication to become visible. But to compensate for the disadvantages in this degree of oversimplification, we have hoped to achieve the advantages of the geographical analogue as well. In other words, we have tried to provide enough broad information to enable the reader to understand – and place in a wider context – the more detailed discussion that subsequent chapters involve.

Parts of a sentence
2.2
Subject and predicate
In order to state general rules about the construction of sentences, it is constantly necessary to refer to smaller units than the sentence itself. Our first task must therefore be to explain what these smaller units are that we need to distinguish, confining our attention for the present to a few sentences which, though showing considerable variety, are all of fairly elementary structure.

Traditionally, there is a primary distinction between SUBJECT and PREDICATE:

John	carefully searched the room	[1]
The girl	is now a student at a large university	[2]
His brother	grew happier gradually	[3]
It	rained steadily all day	[4]
He	had given the girl an apple	[5]
They	make him the chairman every year	[6]

Although such a division obviously results in parts which are (in these examples) very unequal in size and dissimilar in content, it is of course by no means arbitrary. The subject of the sentence has a close general relation to 'what is being discussed', the 'theme' of the sentence, with the normal implication that something new (the predicate) is being said about a 'subject' that has already been introduced in an earlier sentence. This is of course a general characteristic and not a defining feature: it is patently absurd in relation to sentence [4], for example. Another point is that the subject determines concord. That is, with those parts of the verb that permit a distinction between singular and plural, the form selected depends on whether the subject is singular as in [2], *the girl is*, or plural as in [6], *they make*.

Furthermore, the subject is the part of the sentence that changes its position as we go from statement to question:

Had *he* given the girl an apple?   [5q]

2.3
Operator, auxiliary, and predication

In contrast with the subject, there are few generalizations that we can usefully make about the predicate since – as our examples have illustrated – it tends to be a more complex and heterogeneous unit. We need to subdivide it into its elements or constituents. One division has already been suggested; this distinguishes AUXILIARY as OPERATOR (as in [5q]) from what we may call the PREDICATION. The distinctions may be illustrated as follows:
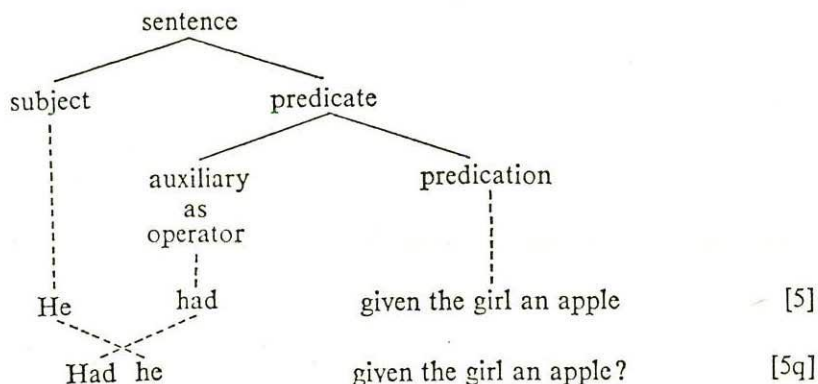
This particular division of the sentence helps us to understand, for example, how interrogative and negative sentences are formed, how certain adjuncts are positioned, and how certain types of emphasis are achieved.

2.4

Range of operators

The verb expression may have several auxiliaries; *eg*

He *should have been questioned* by the police

In such cases, it is the first auxiliary that acts as operator:

Should he have been questioned by the police?
No, he *shouldn't* have been questioned by the police
Yes, he *should*

Where the verb expression has no auxiliary in the positive declarative
sentence, *do* is introduced when an operator is required:

It *rained* steadily all day
Did it rain steadily all day?
No, it *didn't*

The verb *be* can act as operator whether it is an auxiliary, as in

John *is* searching the room ~ *Is* John searching . . .?

or not, as in

The girl *is* now a student ~ *Is* the girl now . . .?

The same is true to some extent (especially in BrE) for *have:*

He *has* a degree ~ *Has* he a degree?

2.5

Sentence elements

A sentence may alternatively be seen as comprising five units called
ELEMENTS of sentence (or, as we shall see below, clause) structure:
SUBJECT, VERB, COMPLEMENT, OBJECT, ADVERBIAL, here abbrevi-
ated as S, V, C, O, A:

John (S) carefully (A) searched (V) the room (O)   [1]
The girl (S) is (V) now (A) a student (C) at a large university (A)   [2]
His brother (S) grew (V) happier (C) gradually (A)   [3]
It (S) rained (V) steadily (A) all day (A)   [4]
He (S) had given (V) the girl (O) an apple (O)   [5]
They (S) make (V) him (O) the chairman (C) every year (A)   [6]

We shall see in 2.11 that considerable variety is possible in realizing each
element of structure. Indeed S, O, and A can themselves readily have the
internal constituents of sentences:

She (S) saw (V) that [*it* (S) *rained* (V) *all day* (A)] (O)   [7]
His brother (S) grew (V) happier (C) when [*his friend* (S)
    arrived (V)](A)   [8]

That [*she* (S) *answered* (V) *the question* (O) *correctly* (A)] (S)
    pleased (V) him (O) enormously (A)   [9]

The italicizing is intended to emphasize the similarity between subordinate (or dependent) clauses and independent sentences. At the same time this and the bracketing can interestingly suggest that *when* in [8] and *that* in [7] and [9] operate as A, O, and S respectively (though this is only partly true) while more importantly being themselves 'expanded' by the dependent clauses.

2.6
Complements and objects

The relation between *the room* in illustration [1] and the other elements in that sentence is very different from the relation between *the girl* in [5] and its fellow elements, though both are labelled 'object'. Even more obviously, perhaps, the two elements labelled 'object' in [5] play sharply distinct roles in this sentence. We need in fact to distinguish two types of object and two types of complement in the sentences so far illustrated:

object $\begin{cases} \text{direct object } (O_d) \\ \text{indirect object } (O_i) \end{cases}$

complement $\begin{cases} \text{subject complement } (C_s) \\ \text{object complement } (C_o) \end{cases}$

The direct object is illustrated in

John carefully searched *the room* (O_d)   [1]
He had given the girl *an apple* (O_d)   [5]

The direct object is by far the more frequent kind of object, and (with certain outstanding exceptions) it must always be present if there is an indirect object in the sentence:

He had given *the girl* (O_i) an apple   [5]

As here, the indirect object almost always precedes the direct object; it is characteristically (though by no means always) a noun referring to a person, and the semantic relationship is often such that it is appropriate to use the term 'recipient'. Loosely, one might say in most cases that something (the direct object) tends to be done for (or received by) the indirect object.

Turning to complements, we may illustrate first the subject complement:

The girl is now *a student* (C_s) at a large university   [2]
His brother grew *happier* (C_s) gradually   [3]

Here the complements have a straightforward relation to the subjects of their respective sentences such that the subject of [2] is understood as being a 'girl student' and the subject of [3] a 'happier brother'. The 'object complement' can be explained as having a similar relation to a direct object (which it follows) as the subject complement has to a subject:

They make him *the chairman* (C_o) every year   [6]

That is to say, the direct object and object complement in this example, 'him the chairman', correspond to the subject and subject complement in

He is *the chairman* (C_s)

Categories of verb
2.7
There are different types of verb corresponding closely to the different types of object and complement. Sentences such as [2] and [3], which have subject complements, have INTENSIVE verbs and all other sentences have EXTENSIVE verbs. The latter are INTRANSITIVE if as in

It rained steadily all day   [4]

they do not permit any of the four object and complement types so far distinguished. Extensive verbs are otherwise TRANSITIVE. All transitive verbs take a direct object; some, like *give* in [5], permit an indirect object, and these will be distinguished as DITRANSITIVE. A few verbs, like *make* in [6], take an object complement and these are among the verbs referred to as COMPLEX TRANSITIVE. The rest are MONO-TRANSITIVE.

2.8
But distinctions between verbs need to be drawn not only in relation to object- and complement-types but also in relation to whether they themselves admit the aspectual contrast of 'progressive' and 'non-progressive'. Thus it is possible to say

 John carefully *searched* the room   [1]
or John *was* carefully *searching* the room

 It *rained* steadily all day   [4]
or It was *raining* steadily all day

But it is not possible to use the progressive in

 The girl *is* now a student at a large university   [2]
  *The girl *is* now *being* a student . . .
 John *knew* the answer   [10]
  *John *was knowing* the answer

When verbs (either habitually or in certain uses) will not admit the progressive, as in [2] and [10], they are called STATIVE. When they will admit it, as in [1] and [4], they are called DYNAMIC. It is normal for verbs to be dynamic and even the minority that are almost always stative can usually be given a dynamic use on occasion. See further, 2.16.

2.9
Categories of adverbial
Next we may take a preliminary look at adverbials, concerning ourselves only with such distinctions as are necessary to explain some of the chief restrictions in constructing the simplest sentences. We may begin by looking again at a sentence with two adverbials:

The girl is *now* a student *at a large university*

This might have had fewer elements:

The girl is a student *at a large university*
The girl is a student
The girl is *now* a student
The girl is *at a large university*

but the sentence could not have been formed initially as:

*The girl is *now*

On this evidence we may say that the adverbials *now* and *at a large university* belong to different classes and it seems natural to label them 'time' and 'place' respectively.

Consider now the fact that the adverbial *carefully* in illustration [1] could be replaced by many others, making acceptable sentences in each case:

John searched the room
$\begin{cases}\text{carefully} \\ \text{slowly} \\ \text{noisily} \\ \text{sternly} \\ \text{without delay}\end{cases}$

But if these same adverbials were inserted in sentences which had stative verbs, the sentences would become unacceptable:
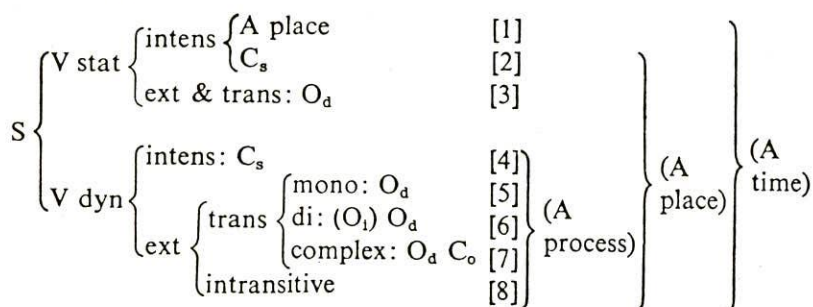
The girl is now a student . . . $\left.\begin{array}{l}\\ \\ \end{array}\right\}$
John knew the answer . . .
$\begin{cases}\text{*carefully} \\ \text{*slowly} \\ \text{*noisily} \\ \text{*sternly} \\ \text{*without delay}\end{cases}$

It is clear that we again have a subclass of adverbials. Because the verbs with which they can occur allow the progressive, the aspect of on-going activity, it is appropriate to refer to these adverbials as 'process'.

2.10
Types of sentence structure

Bringing together the distinctions so far made, we can present some basic sentence-structure rules diagrammatically. Each line constitutes a pattern which is illustrated by means of a correspondingly numbered example having just those obligatory and optional (parenthesized) elements that are specified in the formula. The order in which the elements appear is common but by no means fixed. It is a principle of sentence organization that what is contextually familiar or 'given' comes relatively early, while the part which needs to be stressed or which seems to convey the greatest information is given the special prominence of 'end-focus'.

$$
S \begin{cases} V \text{ stat} \begin{cases} \text{intens} \begin{cases} A \text{ place} & [1] \\ C_s & [2] \end{cases} \\ \text{ext \& trans: } O_d & [3] \end{cases} \\ V \text{ dyn} \begin{cases} \text{intens: } C_s & [4] \\ \text{ext} \begin{cases} \text{trans} \begin{cases} \text{mono: } O_d & [5] \\ \text{di: } (O_i) \, O_d & [6] \\ \text{complex: } O_d \, C_o & [7] \end{cases} \\ \text{intransitive} & [8] \end{cases} \end{cases} \end{cases} (A \text{ process}) \quad (A \text{ place}) \quad (A \text{ time})
$$

She is in London (now)	[1]
She is a student (in London) (now)	[2]
John heard the explosion (from his office) (when he was locking the door)	[3]
Universities (gradually) became famous (in Europe) (during the Middle Ages)	[4]
They ate the meat (hungrily) (in their hut) (that night)	[5]
He offered (her) some chocolates (politely) (outside the hall) (before the concert)	[6]
They elected him chairman (without argument) (in Washington) (this morning)	[7]
The train had arrived (quietly) (at the station) (before we noticed it)	[8]

2.11
Element realization types

Sentence elements can be realized by linguistic structures of very different

form. The verb element is always a *verb phrase*. This may, as in all the examples used so far, be 'finite' (showing tense, mood, aspect, and voice) or 'non-finite' (not showing tense or mood but still capable of indicating aspect and voice). Consider the three types of *non-finite verb phrase* functioning as the V element in the italicized *non-finite clauses:*

Mary wanted [*to be* (V) *a student* (C₅) *at that university* (A)] (O_d)
[*Carefully* (A) *searching* (V) *the room* (O_d)] (A), John found a ring
[*Made* (V) *the chairman* (C₀) *every year* (A)] (A), he was very busy

Whether finite or non-finite, the verb phrase can consist of one word, as in most illustrative sentences so far, or of more than one word, in which case the phrase consists of a 'head verb' preceded by one or more 'auxiliary verbs' as with the verb phrases in the following (the first three finite, the fourth non-finite):

He *had given* the girl an apple
He *may be growing* happier
He *had been challenged* rudely, and *having been challenged* he was angry

The subject of a sentence may be a 'clause' as in

That she answered the question correctly pleased him

but it is usually a 'noun phrase', at its simplest a pronoun such as *They* or a proper noun such as *John*. But a noun phrase may be an indeterminately long and complex structure having a noun as head, preceded by other words such as an article, an adjective, or another noun, and followed by a prepositional phrase or by a relative clause; it is by no means uncommon to find all such items present in a noun phrase:

The new gas stove in the kitchen which I bought last month has a very efficient oven

Subject complements, direct objects, and object complements may be realized by the same range of structures as subjects: *He was the chairman; She saw the chairman; They made him the chairman.* But subject and object complements have the additional possibility of being realized by adjective phrases (having an adjective as head), as in

She made him $\begin{cases} happy \\ very\ much\ happier \end{cases}$

Indirect objects, on the other hand, have fewer possibilities than subjects, and their realizations are chiefly noun phrases, as in

He had given *the girl* an apple

Unlike direct objects and subjects, they cannot be realized by *that-*clauses.

Finally, adverbials can be realized (a) by adverb phrases, having an adverb as head; (b) by noun phrases; (c) by prepositional phrases – that is, structures consisting of a noun phrase dominated by a preposition; and (d) by clauses, finite or non-finite:

  (a) John *very carefully* searched the room
  (b) They make him the chairman *every year*
  (c) She studied *at a large university*
  (d) He grew happier *when his friend arrived*
      Seeing the large crowd, John stopped his car.

Parts of speech
2.12
The structures realizing sentence elements are composed of units which can be referred to as *parts of speech*. These can be exemplified for English as follows:

  (a) *noun* – John, room, answer, play
      adjective – happy, steady, new, large, round
      adverb – steadily, completely, really, very, then
      verb – search, grow, play, be, have, do
  (b) *article* – the, a(n)
      demonstrative – that, this
      pronoun – he, they, anybody, one, which
      preposition – of, at, in, without, in spite of
      conjunction – and, that, when, although
      interjection – oh, ah, ugh, phew

We should notice that the examples are listed as *words* in their 'dictionary form' and not as they often appear in sentences when they function as constituents of phrases: thus the singular *room* and not the plural *rooms*, the simple *happy* and not the comparative *happier*, the infinitive (or uninflected) *grow* and not the past *grew*, the subject form *he* and not the object form *him*.

Note
From even the few examples given, it can be seen that a part-of-speech item may consist of more than a single word. This is especially common in the case of complex prepositions (6.4), such as *in spite of, out of*.

2.13
Some of the examples in 2.12 appear as more than one part of speech (*play* as noun and verb, *that* as demonstrative and conjunction) and more of them could have been given additional entries in this way (*round*

can be noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and preposition). Similarly, we should notice a direct correspondence between most adjectives and adverbs, the latter usually consisting of the former plus -*ly*. Less obviously, there is an important correspondence between all words beginning /ð/ (*the, that, then*, for example) and many of those beginning *wh-* (*which, when*, for example): basically the former are relater or indicator words and the latter interrogative words.

2.14
Closed-system items
The parts of speech in 2.12 are listed in two groups, (a) and (b), and this introduces a distinction of very great significance. Set (b) comprises what are called 'closed-system' items. That is, the sets of items are *closed* in the sense that they cannot normally be extended by the creation of additional members: a moment's reflection is enough for us to realize how rarely in a language we invent or adopt a new or additional pronoun. It requires no great effort to list all the members in a closed system, and to be reasonably sure that one has in fact made an exhaustive inventory (especially, of course, where the membership is so extremely small as in the case of the *article*).

The items are said to constitute a *system* in being (i) reciprocally exclusive: the decision to use one item in a given structure excludes the possibility of using any other (thus one can have *the book* or *a book* but not **a the book*); and (ii) reciprocally defining: it is less easy to state the meaning of any individual item than to define it in relation to the rest of the system. This may be clearer with a non-linguistic analogy. If we are told that a student came *third* in an examination, the 'meaning' that we attach to 'third' will depend on knowing how many candidates took the examination: 'third' in a set of four has a very different meaning from 'third' in a set of thirty.

2.15
Open-class items
By contrast, set (a) comprises 'open classes'. Items belong to a class in that they have the same grammatical properties and structural possibilities as other members of the class (that is, as other nouns or verbs or adjectives or adverbs respectively), but the class is 'open' in the sense that it is indefinitely extendable. New items are constantly being created and no one could make an inventory of all the nouns in English (for example) and be confident that it was complete. This inevitably affects the way in which we attempt to define any item in an open class: while it would obviously be valuable to relate the meaning of *room* to other nouns with which it has semantic affinity (*chamber, hall, house*, . . .) one could not

define it as 'not *house*, not *box*, not *plate*, not *indignation*, . . .', as one
might define a closed-system item like *this* as 'not *that*'.

Of course, in any one phrase or sentence the decision to select a par-
ticular word at one place in the structure obviously imposes great con-
straints on what can be selected at another. But it is essential to see
that in an arrangement like the following there is in principle a sharp dif-
ference between the number of possibilities in columns *i*, *iii*, and *iv*
('closed') and the number in *ii* and *v* ('open'):

		ii	*iii*	*iv*	*v*
(John)	may	sit	by	this	fountain
	will	stare	at	that	tree
	must	read	from		window
	⋮	hurry	along		blackboard
		⋮	on		girl
			⋮		path
					⋮

The distinction between 'open' and 'closed' parts of speech must be
treated cautiously, however. On the one hand, we must not exaggerate
the ease with which we create new words: we certainly do not make up
new nouns as a necessary part of speaking in the way that making up
new sentences is necessary. On the other hand, we must not exaggerate
the extent to which parts of speech in set (b) of 2.12 are 'closed': new
prepositions (usually of the form 'prep + noun + prep' like *by way of*)
are by no means impossible.

Although they have deceptively specific labels, the parts of speech tend
in fact to be rather heterogeneous. The adverb and the verb are perhaps
especially mixed classes, each having small and fairly well-defined groups
of closed-system items alongside the indefinitely large open-class items.
So far as the verb is concerned, the closed-system subgroup is known by
the well-established term 'auxiliary'. With the adverb, one may draw
the distinction broadly between those in -*ly* that correspond to adjectives
(*complete-ly*) and those that do not (*now*, *there*, *forward*, *very*, for
example).

2.16
Stative and dynamic
The open classes have some notable general characteristics. We have
just seen that adverbs of the productive class are in a one-to-one relation
with adjectives. There are regular word-formation processes giving a
comparable one-for-one relation between nouns and adjectives, and
between nouns and verbs. For the rest, it is useful to see nouns, adjectives,

and verbs in connection with the opposition of stative and dynamic introduced in 2.8. Broadly speaking, nouns and adjectives can be characterized naturally as 'stative'; thus, nouns refer to entities that are regarded as stable, whether these are concrete (physical) like *house*, *table*, *paper*, or abstract (of the mind) like *hope, botany, length*. On the other hand, verbs and adverbs can be equally naturally characterized as 'dynamic': most obviously, verbs, which are fitted (by their capacity to show tense and aspect, for example) to indicate action, activity, and temporary or changing conditions. These relations between the open classes can be summarized thus:

STATIVE   noun ⟷ adjective

DYNAMIC   verb   adverb
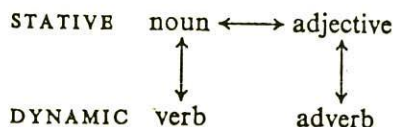
But we saw in 2.8 that there were some verbs such as *know* which could not normally be used with the progressive (**he is knowing*): that is, which could not be seen as referring to something that was in progress. Verbs so used we called 'stative', and they should be seen as exceptions within the class of verbs. There are exceptions in the other direction among the nouns, not all of which need be stative. For example, a child may be well-behaved one minute and *a nuisance* the next. The situation is similar when we turn to the remaining open word-class, adjectives. Although they are predominantly stative (*tall, red, old*), some adjectives can resemble verbs in referring on occasion to transitory conditions of behaviour or activity such as *naughty* or *insolent*. And since *be* must be used to make predications having any noun or adjective as complement, we must qualify the statement made in 2.8 that this is a stative verb: it can also be used dynamically, in the progressive, when the complement is dynamic:

He is being $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{a nuisance} \\ \text{naughty} \end{Bmatrix}$ again

Indeed, it is essential to realize that these primary distinctions are in the nature of general characteristics rather than immutable truths. No small part of language's value lies in its flexibility. Thus we can take a normally dynamic item (say the verb in 'He *wrote* the book') and 'nominalize' it ('The *writing* of the book'), pretending – as it were – to see the action as a static 'thing'. So also the verb *tax* beside the noun *taxation*. Again, the name 'participle' reflects the fact that such a form participates in the features both of the *verb* ('The girl is sitting there') and of the *adjective* ('The sitting girl').

2.17
Pro-forms
The names of the parts of speech are traditional, however, and neither in themselves nor in relation to each other do these names give a safe guide to their meaning, which instead is best understood in terms of their grammatical properties. 'Adverb' is a classic instance. We have seen some justification in the previous section for 'participle', and of course the 'pronoun' is an even clearer exception in correctly suggesting that it can serve as a replacement for a noun:

John searched the big *room* and the small *one*   [1]

More usually, however, pronouns replace noun phrases rather than nouns:

The man invited *the little Swedish girl* because *he* liked *her*   [2]

There are pro-forms also for place, time, and other adverbials under certain circumstances:

Mary is *in London* and John is *there* too   [3]
Mary arrived *on Tuesday* and John arrived *then* too   [4]
John searched the big room very *carefully* and the small one
    less *so*   [5]

But *so* has a more important pro-function, namely, to replace – along with the 'pro-verb' *do* – a predication (*cf* 2.3):

She hoped that he would *search the room carefully before her*
    arrival but he didn't *do so*   [6]

Here *do so* replaces all the italicized portion, the head verb *search* and the rest of the predication, as is shown below:

```
                        sentence
                   ┌───────────┴───────────┐
              subject                    predicate
                 ┊                  ┌──────────┴──────────┐
                 ┊            auxiliary              predication
                 ┊               as                      ┊
                 ┊            operator                    ┊
                 ┊               ┊                        ┊
              ... he          would           search the room carefully ...
              ... he          didn't          do so
```
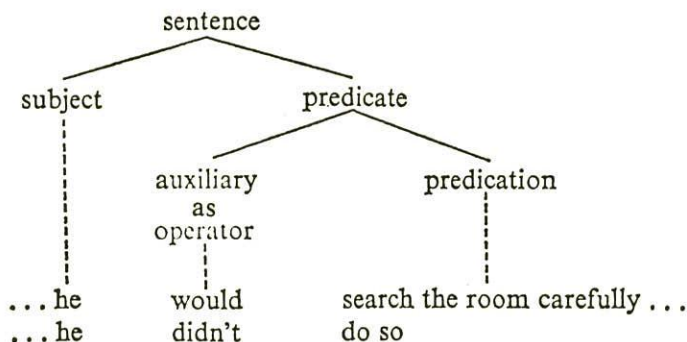
Frequently, however, the pro-predication is achieved by the operator alone:

A: He didn't *give her an apple.*   B: Yes, he *did.*   [7]
They suspected that he had *given her an apple* and he *had*   [8]

Finally, it may be briefly observed that the use of the pro-forms greatly facilitates sentence connection as in [7], the conjoining of sentences to form 'compound sentences' as in [3] or [8], and the subordination of one sentence within another to form 'complex sentences' as in [2].

Question and negation
2.18
Wh-questions

The pro-forms we have been considering may be regarded as having the general meaning 'We know what this item refers to, so I need not state it in full'. In 2.13 attention was drawn to correspondences of the *then-when* type, and we may now consider the *wh*-words of English as a special set of pro-forms diametrically opposed to the others in having the general meaning 'It has not been known what this item refers to and so it needs to be stated in full'. This informal statement will account for the use of *wh*-forms in questions:

Mary is *in London*
Mary is *there*
Where is Mary?

By such means, we can ask for the identification of the subject, object, complement or an adverbial of a sentence:

They (i) make him (ii) the chairman (iii) every year (iv)
Who makes him the chairman every year?
Whom do they make the chairman every year?   [i]
What do they make him every year?   [ii]
When do they make him the chairman?   [iii]
                                                     [iv]

It will be noticed that in each case the *wh*-form is placed in first position and that unless this is questioning the subject, as in [i], when the verb follows in its normal second position (2.5), the *wh*-form is followed by the operator (2.3) which in turn is followed by the subject and predication.

Note
The *wh*-forms include not only *which, when, why, where,* etc but also, less obviously, a few items pronounced with initial /h/, some having *wh-* in spelling (*who, whose, whom*), and one not (*how*).

2.19
Yes-no questions

Besides *wh*-questions, which elicit information on particular parts of a

sentence, there are questions which seek a *yes* or *no* response in relation to the validity of (normally) an entire predication:

Is the girl now a student?
Did John search the room?
Had he given the girl an apple?

Such questions normally open with an operator which is then followed by the subject and the predication (2.3).

2.20
Negation and non-assertion
While a *yes-no* question normally challenges the validity of a predication as a whole, negation rejects it. And like *yes-no* questions, negative sentences involve the operator, requiring the insertion of *not* (or the affixal contraction *-n't*) between the operator and the predication:

The girl isn't a student
John did not search the room
He hadn't given the girl an apple

We need to see a further similarity between questions and negations. Let us call a sentence such as

He offered her some chocolates   [1]

an *assertion*. Now, a sentence can be *non-assertive* in one of two ways: by being negative or by being a question. We do not therefore have two independent systems

positive : negative
declarative : interrogative

but rather an interrelated system in which *assertion* involves both 'positive' and 'declarative' while *non-assertion* has a subsystem either 'negative' or 'interrogative'. The relationship may be diagrammed thus:

sentence
{
assertion – positive and declarative

non-assertion
{
interrogative
{
positive
negative
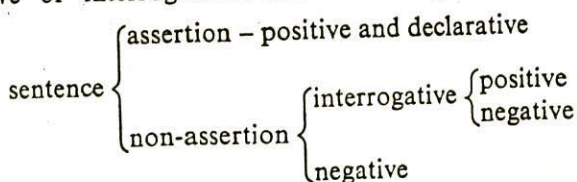
negative
}

While it is right to show 'interrogative' as lying between the upper extreme 'positive and declarative' and the lower extreme 'negative', it is important to recognize that 'interrogative' has a closer relationship to 'negative' in springing like it from the 'non-assertion' node. Evidence for this is not difficult to find. As compared with the *some* of the positive-declarative [1], we find *any* in the corresponding question and negation:

Did he offer her any chocolates? [1q]

He didn't offer her any chocolates [1n]

Bibliographical note

On parts of speech, see Lyons (1968), Ch 4; on stativeness, see Schopf (1969), Ch 3. Guidance on further reading is otherwise reserved for those chapters where specific topics here sketched are discussed in more detail. For general bibliography, see Scheurweghs (1963–68).

THREE
VERBS AND THE VERB PHRASE

3.1
Types of verb

There are various ways in which it will be necessary to classify verbs in this chapter. We begin with a classification relating to the function of items in the verb phrase. This distinguishes *lexical* verbs from the closed system (2.14) of *auxiliary* verbs, and subdivides the latter into *primary* and *modal* auxiliaries.

LEXICAL		*walk, write, play, beautify,* etc.
AUXILIARY	{ Primary	*do, have, be*
	Modal	*can, may, shall, will,*
		could, might, should, would,
		must, ought to, used to, need, dare

Note

As we shall see (3.22), some of the modals listed differ in their inflectional and syntactic behaviour from others and will be referred to as 'marginal'. On the other hand, further items like *had better* or *tend to* could be added to the list since they have a similar semantic relation in the verb phrase to the modals; these other expressions are often called 'semi-auxiliaries'.

3.2
Verbal forms and the verb phrase

Many English verbs have five forms: the BASE, the -*S* FORM, the PAST, the -*ING* PARTICIPLE, and the -*ED* PARTICIPLE. Examples of these forms and an indication of their functions are given in the table below. Regular lexical verbs have the same -*ed* inflection for both the past tense and the -*ed* participle (*called*, see 3.4). Irregular lexical verb forms vary from three (*eg: put, puts, putting*, see 3.10 *ff*) to eight (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*, see 3.20). The modal auxiliaries are defective in not having infinitive (*to may), -*ing* participle (*maying), -*ed* participle (*mayed), or imperative (**may!*). See further 3.21.

FORM	SYMBOL	EXAMPLE	FUNCTIONS
(1) base	V	*call* *drink* *put*	(a) all the present tense except 3rd person singular: I/you/we/they *call* every day (b) imperative: *Call* at once! (c) subjunctive: He demanded that she *call* and see him (d) the bare infinitive: He may *call*; and the *to*-infinitive: He wants her *to call*
(2) -*s* form (3rd person singular present)	V-*s*	*calls* *drinks* *puts*	3rd person singular present tense: He/she/it *calls* every day
(3) past	V-*ed*$_1$	*called* *drank* *put*	past tense: He *called* yesterday
(4) -*ing* participle (present participle)	V-*ing*	*calling* *drinking* *putting*	(a) progressive aspect (*be* + V-*ing*): He's *calling* in a moment (b) in -*ing* participle clauses: *Calling* early, I found her at home
(5) -*ed* participle (past participle)	V-*ed*$_2$	*called* *drunk* *put*	(a) perfective aspect (*have* + V-*ed*$_2$): He has *drunk* the water (b) passive voice (*be* + V-*ed*$_2$): He is *called* Jack (c) in -*ed* participle clauses: *Called* early, he had a quick breakfast

The abbreviation V-*ed* will be used where V-*ed*$_1$ has the same form as V-*ed*$_2$.

The morphology of lexical verbs

3.3

We will consider lexical verbs under two heads: regular (such as *call*) and irregular (such as *drink*). In all of them, the *-s* form and *-ing* participle are predictable from the base form. They differ in that the *-ed*$_1$ and *-ed*$_2$ forms in irregular verbs cannot be predicted from the base.

Regular lexical verbs

3.4

Regular lexical verbs have the following forms:

V	BASE	*call*	*like*	*try*
V-*ing*	*-ING* PARTICIPLE	*calling*	*liking*	*trying*
V-*s*	*-S* FORM	*calls*	*likes*	*tries*
V-*ed*	PAST/*-ED* PARTICIPLE	*called*	*liked*	*tried*

These are regular in that we can predict the other forms if we know the base of such a verb. This is a very powerful rule, since the base is the form listed in dictionaries and the vast majority of English verbs belong to this regular class. Furthermore, all new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt this pattern.

3.5

The *-ing* and *-s* forms

The *-ing* form is a straightforward addition to the base:

push ~ pushing   *sleep ~ sleeping*

Syllabic /l/ ceases to be syllabic before the inflection (as in *wriggle*, *wriggling*), and whether or not speakers pronounce final *r* (as in *pour*), the *r* is pronounced before the inflection.

The *-s* form is also predictable from the base. It has three spoken realizations: /ɪz/, /z/, and /s/, and two spellings, *-s* and *-es*.

(1) Pronounced /ɪz/ after bases ending in voiced or voiceless sibilants and spelled *-es* unless the base already ends in *-e*, eg

pass ~ passes   *budge ~ budges*
buzz ~ buzzes   *push ~ pushes*
catch ~ catches   *camouflage ~ camouflages*

(2) Pronounced /z/ and spelled *-s* after bases ending in other voiced sounds, eg

call ~ calls   *rob ~ robs*   *flow ~ flows*

Note: *do ~ does*   *go ~ goes*
     say ~ says   *have ~ has*

(3) Pronounced /s/ and spelled -s after bases ending in other voiceless sounds, *eg*

    cut ∼ cuts   *lock ∼ locks*   *sap ∼ saps*

3.6
The past and the -*ed* participle
The past (V-ed_1) and the -*ed* participle (V-ed_2) of regular verbs (spelled -*ed* unless the base ends in -*e*) have three spoken realizations:

/ɪd/ after bases ending in /d/ and /t/, *eg*
    pad ∼ padded   *pat ∼ patted*
/d/ after bases ending in voiced sounds other than /d/, *eg*
    mow ∼ mowed   *budge ∼ budged*
/t/ after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than /t/, *eg*
    pass ∼ passed   *pack ∼ packed*

Further inflectional spelling rules
3.7
Doubling of consonant
Final base consonants (except *x*) are doubled before inflections beginning with a vowel letter when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter:

bar	*barring*	*barred*
permit	*permitting*	*permitted*

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

enter	*entering*	*entered*
dread	*dreading*	*dreaded*

EXCEPTIONS:
  (a) Bases ending in certain consonants are doubled also after single unstressed vowels: -*g* → -*gg*-, -*c* → -*ck*-:

humbug	*humbugging*	*humbugged*
traffic	*trafficking*	*trafficked*

  (b) BrE, as distinct from AmE, breaks the rule with respect to certain other consonants also: -*l* → -*ll*-, -*m* → -*mm*-, -*p* → -*pp*-:

signal	*signalling*	*signalled*	(BrE)
signal	*signaling*	*signaled*	(AmE)
travel	*travelling*	*travelled*	(BrE)
travel	*traveling*	*traveled*	(AmE)

program(me)	*programming*	*programmed* (BrE) ⎫
program	*programing*	*programed* (AmE) ⎭
worship	*worshipping*	*worshipped* (BrE) ⎫
worship	*worshiping*	*worshiped* (AmE) ⎭

Most verbs ending in -*p*, however, have the regular spellings in both BrE and AmE, *eg: develop, envelop, gallop, gossip.*

3.8
Treatment of -*y*

(a) In bases ending in a consonant + *y*, the following changes occur before inflections that do not begin with *i*:

   carry ~ carries   *carry ~ carried*   but *carry ~ carrying*

The past of the following two verbs has a change *y → i* also after a vowel:

   lay ~ laid   *pay ~ paid*

Say ~ said has the same change of spelling but, in addition, a change of vowel; see also 3.5.

(b) In bases ending in -*ie*, the *ie* is replaced by *y* before the -*ing* inflection:

   die ~ dying   *lie ~ lying*

3.9
Deletion of -*e*

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

   shave   shaving   shaved

Verbs with bases in -*ee*, -*ye*, -*oe*, and often -*ge* are exceptions to this rule in that they do not drop the -*e* before -*ing*; but they do drop it before -*ed*, as do also forms in -*ie* (*tie ~ tied*):

-*ee:*	*agree*	*agreeing*	*agreed*
-*ye:*	*dye*	*dyeing*	*dyed*
-*oe:*	*hoe*	*hoeing*	*hoed*
-*ge:*	*singe*	*singeing*	*singed*

Irregular lexical verbs
3.10
Irregular lexical verbs differ from regular verbs in the following ways:

(a) Irregular verbs either do not have a /d/ or /t/ inflection (*drink ~ drank ~ drunk*) or break the rule in 3.6 for a voiced inflection (*eg: burn ~ burnt* /t/, beside the regular *burned* /d/).

(b) Irregular verbs typically, but not necessarily, have variation in their base vowel:

$$find \sim found \sim found \qquad write \sim wrote \sim written$$

(c) Irregular verbs have a varying number of distinct forms. Since the *-s* and *-ing* forms are predictable for regular and irregular verbs alike, the only forms that need be listed for irregular verbs are the base (V), the past (V-ed_1), and the past participle (V-ed_2). Most irregular verbs have, like regular verbs, only one common form for the past and the *-ed* participle, but there is considerable variation in this respect, as the table shows:

	BASE	V-ed_1	V-ed_2
all alike	*cut*	*cut*	*cut*
V-ed_1 = V-ed_2	*meet*	*met*	*met*
V = V-ed_2	*come*	*came*	*come*
all different	*speak*	*spoke*	*spoken*

These characteristics form the basis of the classification that follows. In many cases, there are prefixed verbs having the same inflections, *eg:* *outdo* beside *do*. 'R' denotes that the item occurs also with regular inflections.

3.11
CLASS 1: V-ed_1 is identical with V-ed_2
    Suffixation is used but voicing is variable
    Vowel identity in all the parts

	V	V-*ed*		V	V-*ed*
1a	*burn*	*burnt* (R)	1b	*bend*	*bent*
	dwell	*dwelt* (R)		*build*	*built*
	learn	*learnt* (R)		*lend*	*lent*
	smell	*smelt* (R)		*rend*	*rent*
	spell	*spelt* (R)		*send*	*sent*
	spill	*spilt* (R)		*spend*	*spent*
	spoil	*spoilt* (R)	1c	*have*	*had*
				make	*made*

Note
For Class 1a verbs, the regular /d/ form is especially AmE and the /t/ form especially BrE.

3.12

CLASS 2: V-*ed₁* is identical with V-*ed₂*
           Suffixation is used but voicing is variable
           Change of base vowel

	V	V-*ed*		V	V-*ed*
2a	*bereave*	*bereft* (R)	2b	*beseech*	*besought*
	cleave	*cleft*		*bring*	*brought*
	creep	*crept*		*buy*	*bought*
	deal	*dealt*		*catch*	*caught*
	dream	*dreamt* (R)		*seek*	*sought*
	feel	*felt*		*teach*	*taught*
	flee	*fled*		*think*	*thought*
	keep	*kept*	2c	*lose*	*lost*
	kneel	*knelt* (R)		*sell*	*sold*
	lean	*leant* (R)		*tell*	*told*
	leap	*leapt* (R)		*hear*	*heard*
	leave	*left*		*say*	*said*
	mean	*meant*		*shoe*	*(shod)* (R)
	sleep	*slept*			
	sweep	*swept*			
	weep	*wept*			

Note
Where there are regular variants, these are usually preferred in AmE.

3.13

CLASS 3: All three parts V, V-*ed₁*, and V-*ed₂* are identical
           No suffix or change of the base vowel

V and V-*ed*	V and V-*ed*	V and V-*ed*
bet (R)	*knit* (R)	*shut*
bid 'make a bid' (R)	*let*	*slit*
burst	*put*	*split*
cast	*quit* (R)	*spread*
cost	*rid* (R)	*sweat* (R)
cut	*set*	*thrust*
hit	*shed*	*wed* (R)
hurt	*shit*	*wet* (R)

Note
The transitive *cost* 'estimate the cost of' and *shed* 'put in a shed' are R.

3.14
CLASS 4: V-*ed*₁ is identical with V-*ed*₂
       No suffixation
       Change of base vowel

	V	V-*ed*		V	V-*ed*
4a	*bleed*	*bled*	4c	*bind*	*bound*
	breed	*bred*		*find*	*found*
	feed	*fed*		*grind*	*ground*
	hold	*held*		*wind*	*wound*
	lead	*led*	4d	*light*	*lit* (R)
	meet	*met*		*slide*	*slid*
	read	*read*			
	speed	*sped* (R)	4e	*sit*	*sat*
4b	*cling*	*clung*		*spit*	{ *spat* / (*spit*) (esp AmE) }
	dig	*dug*			
	fling	*flung*	4f	*get*	{ *got* / *gotten* (AmE) }
	hang	*hung*		*shine*	*shone*
	sling	*slung*		*shoot*	*shot*
	slink	*slunk*	4g	*fight*	*fought*
	spin	*spun*	4h	*stand*	*stood*
	stick	*stuck*	4i	*stride*	*strode*
	sting	*stung*			
	strike	*struck*			
	string	*strung*			
	swing	*swung*			
	win	*won*			
	wring	*wrung*			

Note
[a] When *hang* means 'execute', it is usually R.
[b] The metaphorical *strike* is in Class 6c.
[c] AmE *gotten* is used in the sense 'acquired', 'caused', 'come'.
[d] The transitive *shine* 'polish' can be R, esp in AmE.

3.15
CLASS 5: V-*ed*₁ is regular; V-*ed*₂ has two forms, one regular, the other
       nasal.

V	V-*ed*₁	V-*ed*₂	V	V-*ed*₁	V-*ed*₂
hew	*hewed*	*hewn* (R)	*shear*	*sheared*	*shorn* (R)
mow	*mowed*	*mown* (R)	*show*	*showed*	*shown* (R)
saw	*sawed*	*sawn* (R)	*sow*	*sowed*	*sown* (R)
sew	*sewed*	*sewn* (R)	*strew*	*strewed*	*strewn* (R)
			swell	*swelled*	*swollen* (R)

3.16

CLASS 6: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 are irregular, the latter always suffixed and usually with -(e)n. There are subclasses as follows:

A: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 have the same vowel
B: V and V-ed_2 have the same vowel
C: all three parts have different vowels
D: all three parts have the same vowel
E: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 have different vowels

	V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2		V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2
6Aa	break	broke	broken	6Bc	(for)bid	(for)bad(e)	(for)bidden
	choose	chose	chosen		give	gave	given
	freeze	froze	frozen	6Bd	draw	drew	drawn
	speak	spoke	spoken	6Be	fall	fell	fallen
	steal	stole	stolen	6Bf	eat	ate	eaten
	(a)wake	(a)woke	(a)woken (R)	6Bg	see	saw	seen
	weave	wove	woven	6Bh	slay	slew	slain
6Ab	bear	bore	borne	6Ca	drive	drove	driven
	swear	swore	sworn		ride	rode	ridden
	tear	tore	torn		rise	rose	risen
	wear	wore	worn		strike	struck	stricken (meta-phorical)
6Ac	bite	bit	bitten		strive	strove	striven (R)
	hide	hid	{hidden (hid)		write	wrote	written
6Ad	forget	forgot	forgotten	6Cb	fly	flew	flown
	tread	trod	trodden	6Cc	do	did	done
6Ae	lie	lay	lain		go	went	gone
6Ba	blow	blew	blown	6D	beat	beat	beaten
	grow	grew	grown	6E	dive	dove (AmE)	dived (R)
	know	knew	known		thrive	throve (R)	thrived (R)
	throw	threw	thrown				
6Bb	forsake	forsook	forsaken				
	shake	shook	shaken				
	take	took	taken				

Note

'She has borne six children and the youngest was born a month ago.'

3.17

CLASS 7: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 are irregular; there is no suffixation but there is always some vowel change.

	V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2
7a	begin	began	begun
	drink	drank	drunk
	ring	rang	rung

shrink	$\begin{cases} shrank \\ shrunk \end{cases}$	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spring	sprang	sprung
stink	stank	stunk
swim	swam	swum

7b	come	came	come
	run	ran	run

The auxiliaries *do, have, be*
3.18
Do

The auxiliary *do* has the following forms:

	NON-NEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
present	$\begin{cases} do \\ does \end{cases}$	do not does not	don't doesn't
past	did	did not	didn't

Do as lexical verb ('perform', etc) and as pro-verb has the full range of forms, including the present participle *doing* and the past participle *done* (see 3.16):

What have you been *doing* today?
A: You said you would finish it.   B: I have *done* so.

3.19
Have

Have has the following forms:

	NON-NEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
base	have, 've	have not, 've not	haven't
-s form	has, 's	has not, 's not	hasn't
past	had, 'd	had not, 'd not	hadn't
-ing form	having	not having	
-ed participle	had (only as lexical verb)		

Note
In the stative sense (3.35) of possession, *have* is often (especially in BrE) constructed as an auxiliary. AmE prefers the *do*-construction:

I $\begin{cases} haven't \\ don't\ have \end{cases}$ any books

In dynamic senses (*receive, take, experience,* etc), lexical *have* in both AmE and BrE normally has the *do*-construction:

Does he *have* coffee with his breakfast?
Did you *have* any difficulty getting here?

The *do*-construction is required in such expressions as

Did you *have* a good time?

There is also the informal *have got,* where *have* is constructed as an auxiliary, which is frequently preferred (especially in BrE) as an alternative to *have.* It is particularly common in negative and interrogative sentences. As a further alternative for expressing negation, we have the negative determiner *no:*

I *haven't got* any books   I *have no* books

3.20
Be

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

		NON-NEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
base		*be*		
present	1st person singular	*am, 'm*	*am not, 'm not*	*(aren't, ain't)*
	3rd person singular	*is, 's*	*is not, 's not*	*isn't*
	2nd person, 1st and 3rd person plural	*are, 're*	*are not, 're not*	*aren't*
past	1st and 3rd person singular	*was*	*was not*	*wasn't*
	2nd person, 1st and 3rd person plural	*were*	*were not*	*weren't*
-ing form		*being*	*not being*	
-ed participle		*been*		

Note

[a] *Aren't I* is widely used in BrE, but there is no generally acceptable contracted form for *am not* in declarative sentences. *Ain't* is substandard in BrE and is so considered by many in AmE; as well as serving as a contracted *am not*, it is used also for *isn't*, *aren't*, *hasn't*, and *haven't*.

[b] The lexical verb *be* may have the *do*-construction in persuasive imperative sentences and regularly has it with negative imperatives:

   Do be quiet!   Don't be silly!

The modal auxiliaries
3.21
The modal auxiliaries are the following:

NON-NEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
can	*cannot, can not*	*can't*
could	*could not*	*couldn't*
may	*may not*	*mayn't*
might	*might not*	*mightn't*
shall	*shall not*	*shan't*
should	*should not*	*shouldn't*
will, 'll	*will not, 'll not*	*won't*
would, 'd	*would not, 'd not*	*wouldn't*
must	*must not*	*mustn't*
ought to	*ought not to*	*oughtn't to*
used to	*used not to*	*usedn't to*
		didn't use to
need	*need not*	*needn't*
dare	*dare not*	*daren't*

Note

[a] *Mayn't* is restricted to BrE, where it is rare.

[b] *Shan't* is rare in AmE.

[c] *Ought* regularly has the *to*-infinitive, but AmE occasionally has the bare infinitive in negative sentences and in questions (although *should* is commoner in both cases): *You oughtn't smoke so much*; *Ought you smoke so much?*

3.22
Marginal modal auxiliaries
Used always takes the *to*-infinitive and occurs only in the past tense. It may take the *do*-construction, in which case the spellings *didn't used to* and *didn't use to* both occur. The interrogative construction *used he to* is especially BrE; *did he used to* is preferred in both AmE and BrE.

Dare and *need* can be constructed either as modal auxiliaries (with bare infinitive and with no inflected -s form) or as lexical verbs (with *to*-infinitive and with inflected -s form). The modal verb construction is restricted to non-assertive contexts (see 2.20), *ie* mainly negative and interrogative sentences, whereas the lexical verb construction can always be used and is in fact the more common. *Dare* and *need* as auxiliaries are probably rarer in AmE than in BrE.

	MODAL AUXILIARY CONSTRUCTION	LEXICAL VERB CONSTRUCTION
positive		He *needs to* go now
negative	He *needn't* go now	He *doesn't need to* go now
interrogative	*Need* he go now?	*Does* he *need to* go now?
negative-interrogative	*Needn't* he go now?	*Doesn't* he *need to* go now?

Note

[a] Non-assertive forms are not confined to overtly negative and/or interrogative sentences but can also be present in adverbials, *eg: He need do it only under these circumstances, He need do it but once;* in determiners, *eg: He need have no fear, No soldier dare disobey;* in pronouns, *eg: No one dare predict . . .;* or even implicitly, *eg: All you need do is, . . .* ('You need do no more than . . .').

[b] Blends of the two constructions are widely acceptable in the case of *dare: We do not dare speak.*

Finite and non-finite verb phrases
3.23

The verb forms operate in finite and non-finite verb phrases, which are distinguished as follows:

(1) Finite verb phrases have tense distinction (see 3.26 *ff*):

$$He \begin{Bmatrix} studies \\ studied \end{Bmatrix} English$$

(2) Finite verb phrases occur as the verb element of a clause. There is person and number concord between the subject and the finite verb (*cf* 7.18 and 7.26). Concord is particularly overt with *be* (*cf* 3.20):

I + *am*   You/we/they + *are*   He/she/it + *is*

With most lexical verbs, concord is restricted to a contrast between 3rd and non-3rd person singular present:

$$\left. \begin{matrix} He \ reads \\ They \ read \end{matrix} \right\} \text{the paper every morning}$$

With the modal auxiliaries there is, however, no concord:

I/you/he/we/they *can* play the cello

(3) Finite verb phrases have mood (3.45). In contrast to the 'unmarked' INDICATIVE mood, we distinguish the 'marked' moods IMPERATIVE (see 7.58 *ff*), and SUBJUNCTIVE (see 3.46).

(4) The non-finite forms of the verb are the infinitive (*(to) call*), the *-ing* participle (*calling*), and the *-ed* participle (*called*). Non-finite verb phrases consist of one or more such items. Compare:

FINITE VERB PHRASES	NON-FINITE VERB PHRASES
He *smokes* heavily	*To smoke* like that must be dangerous
He *is working*	I found him *working*
He *had been offended* before	*Having been offended* before, he was sensitive

3.24

The modal, perfective, progressive and passive auxiliaries follow a strict order in the complex verb phrase:

[I] MODAL, always followed by an infinitive, as in

He would visit

[II] PERFECTIVE, always followed by an *-ed* form, as in

He had visited
He would have visited

[III] PROGRESSIVE, always followed by an *-ing* form, as in

He was visiting
He would have been visiting

[IV] PASSIVE, always followed by an *-ed* form, as in

He was visited
He would have been being visited

The last example is added for completeness but the full range of auxiliaries is rarely found simultaneously in this way (though less rarely with the *get* passive: 7.5). Rather, it should be noted that, while the above order is strictly followed, gaps are perfectly normal. For example:

I+III: He may be visiting
II+IV: He has been visited

3.25
Contrasts expressed in the verb phrase
In addition to the contrasts of tense, aspect, and mood (which are dealt with in the present chapter, 3.26–55), it may be convenient to list here the other major constructions which affect the verb phrase or in which verb-phrase contrasts play an important part.

(a) *Voice*, involving the active-passive relation, as in

>A doctor *will examine* the applicants
>~ The applicants *will be examined* by a doctor

will be discussed in 7.5 and 12.14–32.

(b) *Questions* requiring subject movement involve the use of an auxiliary as operator:

>John *will sing* ~ *Will* John *sing*?
>John *sang*   ~ *Did* John *sing*?

This topic is dealt with in 7.44–57.

(c) *Negation* makes analogous use of operators, as in

>John *will sing* ~ John *won't sing*
>John *sang*   ~ John *didn't sing*

and will be handled in 7.33–42.

(d) *Emphasis*, which is frequently carried by the operator as in

>John WÌLL sing!
>John DÌD sing!

is treated in 14.35.

(e) *Imperatives*, as in *Go home, John; You go home, John; Don't (you) go yet; Let's go home*, are discussed in 7.58–62.

Tense, aspect, and mood
3.26
Time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present, and future; by *tense* we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. *Aspect* concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded (for example as completed or in progress), while *mood* relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, possibility. In fact, however, to a great extent these three categories impinge on each other: in particular, the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect, and the expression of the future is closely bound up with mood.

Tense and aspect
3.27
We here consider the *present* and *past* tenses in relation to the *progressive* and *perfective* aspects. The range can be seen in the sentence frame

'I ––––– with a special pen', filling the blank with a phrase having the verb base *write:*

	SIMPLE	COMPLEX	
present	write	*progressive* am writing	*present*
		was writing	*past*
past	wrote	*perfective* have written had written	*(present) perfect* *past (or plu-) perfect*
		perfect progressive have been writing had been writing	*(present) perfect* *past (or plu-) perfect*

3.28
Present

We need to distinguish three basic types of present:

(a) *Timeless*, expressed with the simple present form:

> I (always) *write* with a special pen (when I sign my name)

As well as expressing habitual action as here, the timeless present is used for universal statements such as

> The sun *sets* in the west
> Spiders *have* eight legs

(b) *Limited*, expressed with the present progressive:

> I *am writing* (on this occasion) with a special pen (since I have mislaid my ordinary one)
> Normally he *lives* in London but at present he *is living* in Boston

In indicating that the action is viewed as in process and of limited duration, the progressive can express incompleteness even with a verb like *stop* whose action cannot in reality have duration; thus *the bus is stopping* means that it is slowing down but has not yet stopped. The progressive (usually with an adverb of high frequency) can also be used of habitual action, conveying an emotional colouring such as irritation:

> He's always *writing* with a special pen – just because he likes to be different

(c) *Instantaneous*, expressed with either the simple (especially in a series) or the progressive form:

Watch carefully now: first, I *write* with my ordinary pen; now,
I *write* with a special pen
As you see, I *am dropping* the stone into the water

The simple present is, however, usual in radio commentary on
sport ('Moore passes to Charlton'), and in certain performative
declarations ('I name this ship *Snaefell*') it is obligatory.

Note
The verbs *keep (on)*, *go on* have a similar function to the normal progressive auxiliary
be:

John $\begin{Bmatrix} keeps \\ goes\ on \end{Bmatrix}$ asking silly questions

Past
3.29
An action in the past may be seen

(1) as having taken place at a particular point of time; or
(2) over a period; if the latter, the period may be seen as

(a) extending up to the present, or
(b) relating only to the past; if the latter, it may be viewed as

(i) having been completed, or as
(ii) not having been completed
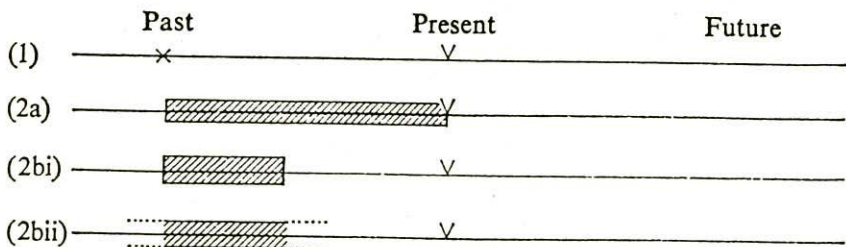
Typical examples will be seen to involve the perfective and progressive
aspects as well as the simple past:

(1)   I *wrote* my letter of 16 June 1972 with a special pen
(2a) I *have written* with a special pen since 1972
(2bi) I *wrote* with a special pen from 1969 to 1972
(2bii) I *was writing* poetry with a special pen

Habitual activity can also be expressed with the simple past ('He always
wrote with a special pen'), but since – unlike the simple present – this is

not implied without a suitable adverb, *used to* or (less commonly) *would* may be needed to bring out this sense:

$$He \begin{Bmatrix} used\ to \\ would \end{Bmatrix} write \text{ with a special pen}$$

Note

Past time can be expressed with present tense forms. The 'historic present' is fairly common in vivid narrative:

At that moment, in *comes* a policeman

but has no such journalistic overtones with verbs of communicating:

John *tells* me that there was a car accident last night

On the other hand, past tense forms need not refer to past time. 'Did you want to see me?' is little more than a slightly politer version of 'Do you ...?' For the 'modal past', see 3.47 and 11.48; for the past by 'back-shift' in indirect speech, see 11.53.

3.30

The past and the perfective

In relation to (2a), it is not the time specified in the sentence but the period relevant to the time specified that must extend to the present. Contrast

John *lived* in Paris for ten years

(which entails that the period of residence has come to an end and which admits the possibility that John is dead) with

John *has lived* in Paris for ten years

which entails that John is still alive but permits the residence in Paris to extend either to the present (the usual interpretation) or to some un-specified date in the past. Compare also:

For generations, Nepal *has produced* brilliant mountaineers

$$\text{For generations, Sparta} \begin{Bmatrix} produced \\ was\ producing \end{Bmatrix} \text{fearless warriors}$$

The first claims that Nepal is still in a position to produce more moun-taineers, even if a long time may have elapsed since the last was pro-duced. The second sentence, on the other hand, is uncommitted as to whether any further warriors can be produced by Sparta.

The choice of perfective aspect is associated with time-orientation and consequently also with various time-indicators (*lately, since, so far,* etc). It is therefore helpful to consider these two together. Here are some examples:

ADVERBIALS   ADVERBIALS
WITH SIMPLE PAST   WITH PRESENT PERFECT

(refer to a period now past)   (refer to a period beginning in
                                        the past and stretching up to
                                        the present)

I worked $\begin{cases} \text{yesterday (evening)} \\ \text{throughout January} \\ \text{on Tuesday} \end{cases}$ I have worked $\begin{cases} \text{since last January} \\ \text{up to now} \\ \text{lately} \\ \text{already} \end{cases}$

ADVERBIALS WITH EITHER
SIMPLE PAST OR PRESENT PERFECT

I $\begin{cases} \text{worked} \\ \text{have worked} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \text{today} \\ \text{this month} \\ \text{for an hour} \end{cases}$

Note
There is some tendency (especially in AmE) to use the past informally in place of the perfective, as in *I saw it already* (='I have already seen it').

3.31
Indefinite and definite
Through its ability to involve a span of time from earliest memory to the present, the perfective has an indefiniteness which makes it an appropriate verbal expression for introducing a topic of discourse. As the topic is narrowed down, the emerging definiteness is marked by the simple past as well as in the noun phrases (*cf* 4.20). For example:

He says that he *has seen* a meteor at some time (between earliest memory and the present)

as compared with

He says that he *saw* the meteor last night that everyone is so excited about

Compare also:

Did you know that John *has painted* a portrait of Mary?
Did you know that John *painted* this portrait of Mary?

3.32
Past perfect
What was said of the perfect in 3.29*f* – applies to the past perfect, with the complication that the point of current relevance to which the past perfect extends is a point in the past:

Past	Present	Future
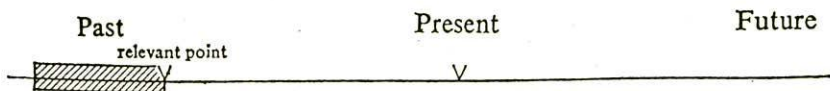
relevant point

Thus:

> (I say now [*present*] that) When I met him [*relevant point in the past*] John had lived in Paris for ten years

In some contexts, the simple past and the past perfect are interchangeable; *eg:*

> I ate my lunch after my wife $\begin{Bmatrix} came \\ had\ come \end{Bmatrix}$ home from her shopping

Here the conjunction *after* is sufficient specification to indicate that the arrival from the shopping expedition had taken place before the eating, so that the extra time indication by means of the past perfect becomes redundant.

Note
There is no interchangeability when the past perfect is the past of the perfect:
  John tells me that he *hasn't seen* Mary since Monday
  John told me that he *hadn't seen* Mary since Monday
  *John told me that he *didn't see* Mary since Monday

3.33
The past and the progressive
As with the present (3.28), the progressive when used with the past specifies the limited duration of an action:

> I *was writing* with a special pen for a period last night but my hand grew tired

In consequence, it is a convenient device to indicate a time span within which another event (indicated by the simple past) can be seen as taking place:

> While I *was writing*, the phone *rang*

The ability to express incomplete action with the progressive is illustrated by the contrasting pair:

> He *read* a book that evening (implies that he finished it)
> He *was reading* a book that evening (implies that he did not finish it)

and more strikingly by:

> The girl *was drowning* in the lake (will permit 'but someone dived in and rescued her')
> The girl *drowned* in the lake

Habitual activity may be expressed by the progressive provided it is clear that the habit is temporary:

At that time, we *were bathing* every day

and not merely sporadic:

*We were sometimes walking to the office

But general habits may be pejoratively referred to (*cf* 3.28):

My brother *was* always *losing* his keys

3.34
The perfect progressive
Limited duration (or incompleteness) and current relevance can be jointly expressed with the perfect progressive. Compare:

He *has eaten* my chocolates (they are all gone)
He *was eating* my chocolates (but I stopped him)
He *has been eating* my chocolates (but there are some left)

Frequently the perfect progressive implies an especially recent activity, the effects of which are obvious, and the adverb *just* commonly accompanies this usage:

It *has rained* a great deal since you were here
Oh look! It *has* just *been raining*

3.35
Verbal meaning and the progressive
As pointed out in 2.8, the progressive occurs only with dynamic verbs (or more accurately, with verbs in dynamic use). These verbs [A] fall into five classes while the stative verbs [B], which disallow the progressive, can be seen as belonging to one of two classes.

[A] DYNAMIC
   (1) Activity verbs: *abandon, ask, beg, call, drink, eat, help, learn, listen, look at, play, rain, read, say, slice, throw, whisper, work, write*, etc.
   (2) Process verbs: *change, deteriorate, grow, mature, slow down, widen*, etc. Both activity and process verbs are frequently used in progressive aspect to indicate incomplete events in progress.
   (3) Verbs of bodily sensation (*ache, feel, hurt, itch*, etc) can have either simple or progressive aspect with little difference in meaning.
   (4) Transitional event verbs (*arrive, die, fall, land, leave, lose*, etc)

occur in the progressive but with a change of meaning compared with simple aspect. The progressive implies inception, *ie* only the approach to the transition.

(5) Momentary verbs (*hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, tap,* etc) have little duration, and thus the progressive aspect powerfully suggests repetition.

[B] STATIVE

(1) Verbs of inert perception and cognition: *abhor, adore, astonish, believe, desire, detest, dislike, doubt, feel, forgive, guess, hate, hear, imagine, impress, intend, know, like, love, mean, mind, perceive, please, prefer, presuppose, realize, recall, recognize, regard, remember, satisfy, see, smell, suppose, taste, think, understand, want, wish,* etc. Some of these verbs may take other than a recipient subject (7.11), in which case they belong with the A1 class. Compare:

> I *think* you are right [B1]
> I *am thinking* of you all the time [A1]

(2) Relational verbs: *apply to* (everyone), *be, belong to, concern, consist of, contain, cost, depend on, deserve, equal, fit, have, include, involve, lack, matter, need, owe, own, possess, remain* (a bachelor), *require, resemble, seem, sound, suffice, tend,* etc.

The future
3.36
There is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. Instead there are several possibilities for denoting future time. Futurity, modality, and aspect are closely related, and future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple present forms or progressive forms.

3.37
Will and *shall*
will or *'ll* + infinitive in all persons
shall + infinitive (in 1st person only; chiefly BrE)

> I *will/shall arrive* tomorrow
> He*'ll be* here in half an hour

The future and modal functions of these auxiliaries can hardly be separated (*cf* 3.50*f*), but *shall* and, particularly, *will* are the closest approximation to a colourless, neutral future. *Will* for future can be used in all persons throughout the English-speaking world, whereas *shall* (for 1st person) is largely restricted in this usage to southern BrE.

The auxiliary construction is also used to refer to a statement seen in the past from a point of orientation in the future:

They *will have finished* their book by next year

Note
Other modal auxiliaries can have future reference also: 'He *may leave* tomorrow'= 'He *will* possibly *leave* ...'

3.38
Be going to + infinitive
This construction denotes 'future fulfilment of the present'. Looked at more carefully, *be going to* has two more specific meanings, of which one, 'future of present intention', is used chiefly with personal subjects:

When *are* you *going to get married?*

The other meaning is 'future of present cause', which is found with both personal and non-personal subjects:

She'*s going to have* a baby
It'*s going to rain*

Both of these suggest that the event is already 'on the way'. *Be going to* is not generally used in the main clause of conditional sentences, *will*/'*ll* or *shall* being preferred instead:

If you leave now, you'*ll* never *regret* it

3.39
Present progressive
The present progressive refers to a future happening anticipated in the present. Its basic meaning is 'fixed arrangement, plan, or programme':

He'*s moving* to London

Since the progressive is used to denote present as well as future, a time adverbial is often used to clarify in which meaning the verb is being used:

They *are washing* the dishes $\begin{cases} now \\ later \end{cases}$

The present progressive is especially frequent with dynamic transitional verbs like *arrive, come, go, land, start, stop*, etc, which refer to a transition between two states or positions:

The plane *is taking off* at 5.20
The President *is coming* to the UN this week

3.40
Simple present

The simple present is regularly used in subordinate clauses that are conditional (introduced by *if*, *unless*, etc) or temporal (introduced by *as soon as*, *before*, *when*, etc; see 11.47):

> What will you say if I *marry* my boss?
> The guests will be drunk before they *leave*

The use of the simple present in main clauses may be said to represent a marked future aspect of unusual certainty, in that it attributes to the future something of the positiveness one normally associates with present and past events. It is used for statements about the calendar:

> Yesterday was Monday, today is Tuesday, and tomorrow *is* Wednesday

and to describe immutable events or 'fixtures':

> When *is* high tide?
> What time *is* the football match?

Both the simple present and the progressive (3.28) are often used with dynamic transitional verbs: *arrive, come, leave*, etc, both having the meaning of 'plan' or 'programme':

> The train $\begin{cases} leaves \\ is\ leaving \end{cases}$ tonight from Chicago

3.41
Will/shall + progressive

The auxiliary verb construction (3.37) can be used together with the progressive infinitive to denote a 'future-as-a-matter-of-course': *will/shall* + *be* + V-*ing*. The use of this combination avoids the interpretation (to which *will*, *shall*, and *be going to* are liable) of volition, insistence, etc:

> He'*ll do* his best (future or volitional interpretation possible)
> He'*ll be doing* his best (future interpretation only)

This complex construction can be used to convey greater tact and consideration than the simple auxiliary construction does:

> When *will* you $\begin{cases} put\ on \\ be\ putting\ on \end{cases}$ another performance?
>
> When *will* you $\begin{cases} come? \\ be\ coming? \end{cases}$

3.42
Be to + infinitive
This expresses (a) arrangement, (b) command, or (c) contingent future:

  (a) We *are to be married* soon
       There*'s to be* an investigation
  (b) You *are to be* back by 10 o'clock
  (c) If he *is to* succeed, he must work harder

3.43
Be about to + infinitive
This construction expresses near future, *ie* imminent fulfilment:

   The taxi is here and we *are about to* leave

Be . . . to may enclose other items such as *shortly* or *soon* to provide a means of future expression; with other items again (*bound, liable, certain, (un)likely*), future expression is overlaid with modal meaning:

   He *is certain to* address the meeting (=*It is certain* that
     he *will* address . . .)

3.44
Future time in the past
Some of the future constructions just discussed can be used in the past tense to express time which is in the future when seen from a viewpoint in the past.

  (1) AUXILIARY VERB CONSTRUCTION with *would* (rare; literary
       narrative style)

       The time was not far off when he *would regret* this decision

  (2) *be going to* +INFINITIVE (often with the sense of 'unfulfilled
       intention')

       You *were going to give* me your address

  (3) PAST PROGRESSIVE

       I *was meeting* him in Bordeaux the next day

  (4) *be to* +INFINITIVE (formal = 'was destined', 'was arranged')

       He *was* later *to regret* his decision
       The meeting *was to be held* the following week

  (5) *be about to* ('on the point of'); *cf* 3.43

       He *was about to hit* me

Mood

3.45

Mood is expressed in English to a very minor extent by the subjunctive, as in

So *be* it then!

to a much greater extent by past tense forms, as in

If you *taught* me, I would learn quickly

but above all, by means of the modal auxiliaries, as in

It is strange that he *should* have left so early

3.46

The subjunctive

Three categories of subjunctive may be distinguished:

(a) The MANDATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE in *that*-clauses has only one form, the base (V); this means there is lack of the regular indicative concord between subject and finite verb in the 3rd person singular present, and the present and past tenses are indistinguishable. This subjunctive can be used with any verb in subordinate *that*-clauses when the main clause contains an expression of recommendation, resolution, demand, and so on (*We demand, require, move, insist, suggest, ask*, etc *that* . . .). The use of this subjunctive occurs chiefly in formal style (and especially in AmE) where in less formal contexts one would rather make use of other devices, such as *to*-infinitive or *should*+infinitive:

It is/was necessary that every member *inform* himself of these rules

It is necessary that every member *should inform* himself of these rules

It is necessary for every member *to inform* himself of these rules

(b) The FORMULAIC SUBJUNCTIVE also consists of the base (V) but is only used in clauses in certain set expressions which have to be learned as wholes (see 7.64):

Come what may, we will go ahead
God *save* the Queen!
Suffice it to say that . . .
Be that as it may . . .
Heaven *forbid* that . . .

(c) The SUBJUNCTIVE *were* is hypothetical in meaning and is used in conditional and concessive clauses and in subordinate clauses after

optative verbs like *wish* (see 11.48). It occurs as the 1st and 3rd person singular past of the verb *be*, matching the indicative *was*, which is the more common in less formal style:

If she $\begin{Bmatrix} were \\ was \end{Bmatrix}$ to do something like that, . . .

He spoke to me as if I $\begin{Bmatrix} were \\ was \end{Bmatrix}$ deaf

I wish I $\begin{Bmatrix} were \\ was \end{Bmatrix}$ dead

Note
Only *were* is acceptable in 'As it were' (= so to speak); *were* is usual in 'If I were you'.

3.47
Modal past
Just as *was* could replace *were* in 'If I were rich', so in closed or unreal conditions involving all other verbs than *be*, it is the past tense that conveys the impossibility. See further, 11.48. Other modal or quasi-modal uses of the past are illustrated by

I *wondered* if you'd like a drink

which involves an attitudinal rather than a time distinction from 'I *wonder* if you'd like a drink', and

We *were catching* the 8 o'clock train and it is nearly 8 o'clock already

which seems to depend on a covert subordinating clause such as 'We agreed that . . .' in which the past tense is purely temporal.

The uses of the modal auxiliaries
3.48
CAN/COULD
can

(1) Ability
   = *be able to,*
   be capable of,
   know how to
	He can speak English but he can't write it very well ('He is able to speak/ capable of speaking . . .')

(2) Permission
   = *be allowed to,*
   be permitted to
   (*Can* is less formal
   than *may* in this sense)
	$\begin{Bmatrix} \text{Can} \\ \text{May} \end{Bmatrix}$ I smoke in here?
	('Am I allowed to smoke in here?')

(3) Theoretical possibility (Contrast *may* = factual possibility)	Anybody can make mistakes The road can be blocked ('It is possible to block the road')

could

(1) Past ability	I never could play the banjo
(2) Present or future permission	Could I smoke in here?
(3) Present possibility (theoretical or factual)	We could go to the concert The road could be blocked
(4) Contingent possibility or ability in unreal conditions	If we had more money, we could buy a car

Note

[a] Ability can bring in the implication of willingness (especially in spoken English):

Can } you do me a favour?
Could

[b] Past permission is sometimes expressed by *could:*

This used to be the children's room but they couldn't make a noise there because of the neighbours

More generally, the past *can/could* for permission and possibility is *could have* + *V-ed:*

Tonight you can dance if you wish but you could have danced last night equally

[c] With some perception verbs (3.35), *can V* corresponds to the progressive aspect *be V-ing* with dynamic verbs:

I *can hear* footsteps; who's coming?

3.49
MAY/MIGHT
may

(1) Permission = *be allowed to* (In this sense *may* is more formal than *can*. Instead of *may not* or rare *mayn't*, the stronger *mustn't* is often used in the negative to express pro-hibition.)	You may borrow my car if you like You { mustn't / are not allowed to / may not } borrow my car
(2) Possibility (usually factual)	The road may be blocked ('It is possible that the road is blocked'; less probably: 'It is possible to block the road')

might

(1) Permission (rare)	Might I smoke in here?
(2) Possibility (theoretical or factual)	We might go to the concert
	What you say might be true

Note

[a] *May* and *might* are among the modal auxiliaries which involve differences of meaning in passing from declarative to interrogative or negative; see 7.42, 7.51.

[b] There is a rare use of *may* as a 'quasi-subjunctive' auxiliary, *eg* to express wish, normally in positive sentences (*cf* 7.64):

　　May he never set foot in this house again!

3.50
SHALL/SHOULD

shall (volitional use; *cf* 3.37)

(1) Willingness on the part of the speaker in 2nd and 3rd person. Restricted use	He shall get his money
	You shall do exactly as you wish
(2) Intention on the part of the speaker, only in 1st person	I shan't be long
	We shall let you know our decision
	We shall overcome
(3) *a* Insistence. Restricted use	You shall do as I say
	He shall be punished
b Legal and quasi-legal injunction	The vendor shall maintain the equipment in good repair

Of these three meanings it is only the one of intention that is widely used today. *Shall* is, on the whole and especially outside BrE, an infrequent auxiliary with restricted use compared with *should*, *will*, and *would*; *will* is generally preferred, except in 1st person questions:

　　Shall/*Will I come at once?

In the first person plural, *eg*

　　What shall/will we drink?

shall asks for instructions, and *will* is non-volitional future (especially in AmE). *Will I/we* has become increasingly common not only in contexts of non-volitional futurity (*Will I see you later ?*), but also in sentences expressing helplessness, perplexity, etc:

　　How will I get there?   What will I do?   Which will I take?

This usage is predominantly AmE (though *should* is commonly preferred) but examples may be found in BrE too. A similar meaning is also conveyed by *be going to*

　　What are we going to do?

should

(1) Obligation and logical necessity (= *ought to*)	You should do as he says They should be home by now
(2) 'Putative' use after certain expressions, *eg: it is a pity that, I am surprised that* (see 11.51, 12.12, 12.17)	It is odd that you should say this to me I am sorry that this should have happened
(3) Contingent use (1st person only and especially BrE) in the main clause (= *would*)	We $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{should}\\\text{would}\end{array}\right\}$ love to go abroad (if we had the chance)
(4) In rather formal real conditions	If you should change your mind, please let us know

3.51
WILL/WOULD
will (*cf* 3.37)

(1) Willingness. Used in polite requests	He'll help you if you ask him Will you have another cup of coffee? Will you (please, kindly, etc) open the window?
(2) Intention. Usually contracted *'ll*; mainly 1st person	I'll write as soon as I can We won't stay longer than two hours
(3) Insistence. Stressed, hence no *'ll* contraction	He ˈwill do it, whatever you say ('He insists on doing it . . .') (*Cf* He ˈshall do it, whatever you say = 'I insist on his doing it . . .') He ˈwill keep interrupting me
(4) Prediction *Cf* the similar meanings of other expressions for logical necessity and habitual present. The contracted form *'ll* is common.	(a) Specific prediction: The game $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{will}\\\text{must}\\\text{should}\end{array}\right\}$ be finished by now (b) Timeless prediction: Oil $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{will float}\\\text{floats}\end{array}\right\}$ on water (c) Habitual prediction: He'll (always) talk for hours if you give him the chance

would

| (1) Willingness | Would you excuse me? |
| (2) Insistence | It's your own fault; you 'would take the baby with you |

| (3) Characteristic activity in the past (often aspectual in effect: 3.26 *ff*) | Every morning he would go for a long walk (*ie* 'it was customary') John 'would make a mess of it (informal = 'it was typical') |

| (4) Contingent use in the main clause of a conditional sentence | He would smoke too much if I didn't stop him |

| (5) Probability | That would be his mother |

Note

Volition with preference is expressed with *would rather/sooner:*

A: Would you like tea or would you rather have coffee?
B: I think I'd rather have tea.

The expression with *sooner* is informal.

3.52

MUST

| (1) Obligation or compulsion in the present tense (= *be obliged to, have (got) to*); except in reported speech, only *had to* (not *must*) is used in the past. There are two negatives: (1) = 'not be obliged to': *needn't, don't have to*; (2) = 'be obliged not to': *mustn't*. See 3.22, 3.49, 7.42. | You must be back by 10 o'clock Yesterday you had to be back by 10 o'clock Yesterday you said you $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{had to} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be back by 10 o'clock You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{needn't} \\ \text{don't have to} \\ \text{are not obliged to} \end{array} \right\}$ be back by 10 o'clock |

| (2) (Logical) necessity *Must* is not used in sentences with negative or interrogative meanings, *can* being used instead. *Must* can occur in superficially interrogative but answer-assuming sentences. | There must be a mistake *but:* There cannot be a mistake Mustn't there be another reason for his behaviour? |

3.53

OUGHT TO

Obligation; logical necessity or expectation	You ought to start at once They ought to be here by now

Note

Ought to and *should* both denote obligation and logical necessity, but are less categorical than *must* and *have to*. *Ought to* is often felt to be awkward in questions involving inversion, and *should* is preferred. Still less categorical than *ought* is *had/'d better/best* (plus bare infinitive):

A: Must you go?
  B: Well, I don't have to, but I think I'd better (go).

3.54

The tense of modals

Only some of the modals have corresponding present and past forms:

PRESENT	PAST
can	*could*
may	*could (might)*
shall	*should*
will/'ll	*would/'d*
must	*(had to)*
—	*used to*
ought to	—
need	—
dare	*dared*

He can speak English now	He couldn't come yesterday
He'll do anything for money	He wouldn't come when I asked him yesterday

The usual past tense of *may* denoting permission is *could:*

Today, we $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{can} \\ \text{may} \end{Bmatrix}$ stay the whole afternoon

Yesterday, we could only stay for a few minutes

The following modals are not used in the past tense except in reported speech: *must, ought to,* and *need* (but *cf* 3.22). *Had to* serves as the past of both *must* and *have to:*

He $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{must} \\ \text{has to} \end{Bmatrix}$ leave now

He $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{*must} \\ \text{had to} \end{Bmatrix}$ leave in a hurry yesterday

Yesterday the children $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{*must}\\ \text{*ought to}\\ \text{*needn't}\\ \text{?daren't}\\ \text{dared not}\\ \text{did not dare}\end{array}\right\}$ go out and play

He said the children $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{must}\\ \text{ought to}\\ \text{needn't}\\ \text{daren't}\\ \text{dared not}\\ \text{didn't dare}\end{array}\right\}$ go out and play

3.55
The modals and aspect

The perfective and progressive aspects are normally excluded when the modal expresses 'ability' or 'permission', and also when *shall* or *will* express 'volition'. These aspects are freely used, however, with other modal meanings; *eg*

'possibility' $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{He may have missed the train}\\ \text{He may have been visiting his mother}\\ \text{He can't be swimming all day}\\ \text{He can't have been working}\end{array}\right.$

'necessity' $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{He must have left his umbrella on the bus}\\ \text{I must be dreaming}\\ \text{You must have been sitting in the sun}\end{array}\right.$

'prediction' $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{The guests will have arrived by now}\\ \text{John will still be reading his paper}\end{array}\right.$

Bibliographical note
On tense and aspect, see Allen (1966); Palmer (1974); Schopf (1969); on the meanings of the modal auxiliaries, see Halliday (1970); Leech (1971); Lyons (1977).

FOUR
NOUNS, PRONOUNS, AND THE
BASIC NOUN PHRASE

4.1
The basic noun phrase

The noun phrase typically functions as subject, object, complement of sentences, and as complement in prepositional phrases. Consider the different subjects in the following:

(a) *The girl*
(b) *The pretty girl*
(c) *The pretty girl in the corner* } is Mary Smith
(d) *The pretty girl who became angry*
(e) *She*

Since noun phrases of the types illustrated in (b–d) include elements that will be dealt with in later chapters (adjectives, prepositional phrases, etc), it will be convenient to postpone the treatment of the noun phrase incorporating such items. We shall deal here with the elements found in those noun phrases that consist of pronouns and numerals, and of nouns with articles or other closed-system items that can occur before the noun head, such as predeterminers like *all*.

Noun classes
4.2

It is necessary, both for grammatical and semantic reasons, to see nouns as falling into different subclasses. This is easily demonstrated by taking the four nouns *John*, *bottle*, *furniture* and *cake* and considering the extent to which it is possible for each to appear as head of the noun phrase operating as object in the following sentence (*some* in the fourth line is the unstressed determiner: 4.5):

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	John	*bottle	furniture	cake
	*the John	the bottle	the furniture	the cake
I saw	*a John	a bottle	*a furniture	a cake
	*some John	*some bottle	some furniture	some cake
	*Johns	bottles	*furnitures	cakes

The difference between column 1 (with its four impossible usages) and column 4 (with none) indicates the degree of variation between classes. Nouns that behave like *John* in column 1 (*Paris, Mississippi, Gandhi, ...*) are PROPER NOUNS, further discussed in 4.23. The nouns in columns 2, 3 and 4 are all COMMON NOUNS, but there are important differences within this class. Nouns which behave like *bottle* in column 2 (*chair, word, finger, remark, ...*), which must be seen as individual countable entities and cannot be viewed as an undifferentiated mass, are called COUNT NOUNS. Those conforming like *furniture* to the pattern of column 3 (*grass, warmth, humour, ...*) must by contrast be seen as an undifferentiated mass or continuum, and we call them NON-COUNT NOUNS. Finally in column 4 we have nouns which combine the characteristics of count and non-count nouns (*cake, paper, stone, ...*); that is, we can view *stone* as the non-count material (as in column 3) constituting the entity *a stone* (as in column 2) which can be picked up from a pile of stones and individually thrown.

4.3

It will be noticed that the categorization count and non-count cuts across the traditional distinction between 'abstract' (broadly, immaterial) nouns like *warmth*, and 'concrete' (broadly, tangible) nouns like *bottle*. But while abstract nouns may be count like *remark* or non-count like *warmth*, there is a considerable degree of overlap between abstract and non-count. This does not proceed from nature but is language-specific, and we list some examples which are non-count in English but count nouns in some other languages:

anger, applause, behaviour, chaos, chess, conduct, courage, dancing, education, harm, homework, hospitality, leisure, melancholy, moonlight, parking, photography, poetry, progress, publicity, research (*as in* do some research), resistance, safety, shopping, smoking, sunshine, violence, weather

Note
Another categorization that cuts across the count and non-count distinction will identify a small class of nouns that behave like most adjectives in being gradable. Though such degree nouns are chiefly non-count ('His acts of *great foolishness*' = 'His acts

were *very* foolish'), they can also be count nouns: 'The children are such thieves!'
See further 5.27.

4.4

Nevertheless, when we turn to the large class of nouns which can be both
count and non-count, we see that there is often considerable difference
in meaning involved and that this corresponds broadly to concreteness
or particularization in the count usage and abstractness or generaliza-
tion in the non-count usage. For example:

COUNT	NON-COUNT
I've had many *difficulties*	He's not had much *difficulty*
He's had many odd *experiences*	This job requires *experience*
Buy an evening *paper*	Wrap the parcel in brown *paper*
She was a *beauty* in her youth	She had *beauty* in her youth
The *talks* will take place in Paris	I dislike idle *talk*
There were bright *lights* and harsh *sounds*	*Light* travels faster than *sound*
The *lambs* were eating quietly	There is *lamb* on the menu

In many cases the type of distinction between *lamb* count and *lamb* non-
count is achieved by separate lexical items: (*a*) *sheep* ~ (*some*) *mutton;*
(*a*) *calf* ~ (*some*) *veal;* (*a*) *pig* ~ (*some*) *pork;* (*a*) *loaf* ~ (*some*) *bread;* (*a*)
table ~ (*some*) *furniture.*

Note
Virtually all non-count nouns can be treated as count nouns when used in classifi-
catory senses:

There are several French *wines* available (=kinds of wine)
This is *a bread* I greatly enjoy (=kind of bread)

4.5
Determiners
There are six classes of determiners with respect to their co-occurrence
with the noun classes singular count (such as *bottle*), plural count (such
as *bottles*), and non-count nouns (such as *furniture*). The check marks in
the figures that follow indicate which noun classes will co-occur with
members of the determiner class concerned.

	COUNT	NON-COUNT
SINGULAR	*bottle*	*furniture*
PLURAL	*bottles*	

[A]
the
possessive (*my, our*, etc: see 4.87)
whose, which(ever), what(ever)
some (stressed) ⎫ see 4.92 *f*
any (stressed) ⎭
no

[B]
zero article (as in 'They need *furniture*')
some (unstressed)
any (unstressed)
enough

[C]
this
that

[E]
a(n)
every
each
either
neither

[D]
these
those

[F]
much

Note
[a] Many of the determiners can be pronominal (4.78):

Either book ~ *Either* of the books ~ You can have *either*

[b] *Every* can co-occur with possessives: *his every word* (= 'each of his words').

4.6
Closed-system premodifiers
In addition to determiners, there is a large number of other closed-system items that occur before the head of the noun phrase. These form three classes (predeterminers, ordinals, and quantifiers) which have been set up on the basis of the possible positions that they can have in relation to determiners and to each other. Within each of the three classes, we will make distinctions according to their patterning with the classes of singular count, plural count, and non-count nouns.

Note
We will also include here some open-class premodifiers that commute to a significant extent with closed-system items, *eg: three times (cf: once, twice), a large quantity of (cf: much).*

Predeterminers
4.7
All, both, half
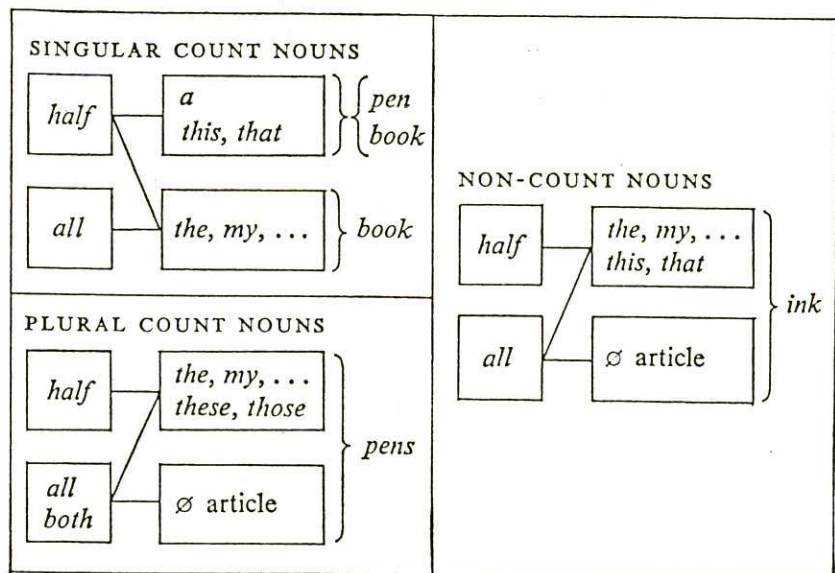
These predeterminers can occur only before articles or demonstratives but, since they are themselves quantifiers, they do not occur with the following 'quantitative' determiners: *every, (n)either, each, some, any, no, enough.*

All, both, and *half* have *of*-constructions, which are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns:

all (of) the meat	all of it
both (of) the students	both of them
half (of) the time	half of it

With a quantifier following, the *of*-construction is preferred (especially in AmE):

all of the many boys

All three can be used pronominally:

All/both/half passed their exams

All and *both* (but not *half*) can occur after the head, either immediately or within the predication:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{The students}\\\text{They}\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{all}\\\text{both}\end{array}\right\}\text{ passed their exams}$$

The students were all hungry
They may have all finished

The predeterminer *both* and the determiners *either* and *neither* are not plural proper but 'dual', *ie* they can refer only to two. Compared with the numeral *two*, *both* is emphatic:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Both (the)}\\\text{The two}\end{array}\right\}\text{ students were excellent}$$

All is rare with singular concrete count nouns (*?I haven't used all the pencil*) though it is less rare with contrastive stress: *I haven't read ALL the book*, where *book* is treated as a kind of divisible mass. The normal constructions would be *all of the book* or *the whole book*.

Before certain singular temporal nouns, and especially in adjunct phrases, *all* is often used with the zero article: *I haven't seen him all day*.

Note
[a] There is also an adverbial *half* (as in *half wine, half water*) which occurs in familiar emphatic negation and can precede *enough:*

$$\text{He hasn't }\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{half}\\\text{nearly}\end{array}\right\}\text{ enough money!}$$

Added to numbers from *one* upwards, *a half* co-occurs with plural nouns: *one and a half days*. A preceding determiner or numeral is common with *of-* construction (*my half of the room, one half of her time*), but infrequent otherwise.
[b] The postposed *all* in 'They were all hungry' must not be confused with its use as an informal intensifying adverb in 'He is all upset' (5.23 Note *b*).
[c] The items *such* (*a*), *what* (*a*) as predeterminers are discussed in 5.27.

4.8
Double, twice, three/four ... times
The second type of predeterminer includes *double, twice, three times*, etc, which occur with non-count and plural count nouns, and with singular count nouns denoting number, amount, etc.:

  double their salaries
  twice his strength
  three times this amount

Three, four, etc *times* as well as *once* can co-occur with the determiners *a*, *every*, *each*, and (less commonly) *per* to form 'distributive' expressions with a temporal noun as head:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{once}\\\text{twice}\\\text{three}\\\text{four}\\\cdots\end{array}\right\}\text{times}\;\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{a}\\\text{every}\\\text{each}\\\text{(per)}\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{day}\\\text{week}\\\text{month}\\\text{year}\\\text{decade}\\\cdots\end{array}\right.$$

4.9
One-third, two-fifths, etc

The fractions *one-third, two-fifths, three-quarters*, etc, used with non-count and with singular and plural count nouns, can also be followed by determiners, and have the alternative *of*-construction:

> He did it in one-third (of) the time it took me

Postdeterminers
4.10

Items which must follow determiners but precede adjectives in the pre-modification structure include numerals (ordinal and cardinal) and quantifiers. The numerals are listed in 4.97.

4.11
Cardinal numerals

Apart from *one*, which can co-occur only with singular count nouns, all cardinal numerals (*two, three, . . .*) co-occur only with plural count nouns:

> He has one sister and three brothers
> The two blue cars belong to me

Note

One may be regarded as a stressed form of the indefinite article: 'I would like *a/one* large cigar'. In consequence, although the definite article may precede any cardinal, the indefinite can not.

4.12
Ordinal numerals and general ordinals

In addition to the ordinals which have a one-for-one relation with the cardinals (*fourth~four; twentieth~twenty*), we consider here items like *next, last, (an)other, additional*, which resemble them grammatically and semantically. Ordinal numerals, except *first*, co-occur only with count nouns. All ordinals usually precede any cardinal numbers in the noun phrase:

> The first three planes were American

The general ordinals, however, may be used freely before or after cardinals, according to the meaning required:

His $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{last two}\\\text{two last}\end{array}\right\}$ books were novels

Note

Another has two functions. It can be the unstressed form of *one other* (cf 4.11 Note) or it can have the same meaning as 'second' with indefinite article:

I don't like this house: I'd prefer another one

$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Another}\\\text{A second}\end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{blue car}\\\text{two volumes of poetry}\end{array}\right.$

Quantifiers
4.13

There are two small groups of closed-system quantifiers:

(1) *many*, (*a*) *few*, and *several* co-occur only with plural count nouns:

The few words he spoke were well chosen

(2) *much* and (*a*) *little* co-occur only with non-count nouns:

There hasn't been much good weather recently

Several is rarely (and *much* virtually never) preceded by a determiner, and in the case of *few* and *little* there is a positive/negative contrast according as the indefinite article is or is not used:

He took $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text{a few biscuits} & (=\text{several})\\\text{few biscuits} & (=\text{not many})\\\text{a little butter} & (=\text{some})\\\text{little butter} & (=\text{not much})\end{array}\right.$

Since the first of these has a plural count noun and the third a non-count noun, neither of which (4.5) co-occurs with the indefinite article, it will be clear that in these instances *a* belongs to the quantifier alone.

Note

[a] The quantifier (*a*) *little* must be distinguished from the homonymous adjective as in *A little bird was singing*.

[b] *Many* and *few* can be used predicatively in formal style (*His faults were many*), and *many* has the additional potentiality of functioning as a predeterminer with singular count nouns preceded by *a(n)*:

Many an ambitious student (= Many ambitious students)

[c] The quantifier *enough* is used with both count and non-count nouns:

There are (not) *enough* chairs
There is (not) *enough* furniture

Occasionally it follows the noun (especially non-count) but this strikes many people as archaic or dialectal.

4.14

There is also a large open class of phrasal quantifiers. Some can co-occur equally with non-count and plural count nouns:

$$\text{The room contained} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{plenty of} \\ \text{a lot of} \\ \text{lots of} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{students} \\ \text{furniture} \end{array} \right.$$

These (especially *lots*) are chiefly used informally, though *plenty of* is stylistically neutral in the sense 'sufficient'. Others are restricted to occurring with non-count nouns:

$$\text{The room contained} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{great} \\ \text{good} \end{array} \right\} \text{deal of} \\ \text{a} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(large)} \\ \text{(small)} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{quantity} \\ \text{amount} \end{array} \right\} \text{of} \end{array} \right\} \text{money}$$

or to plural count nouns:

$$\text{The room contained a} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(great)} \\ \text{(large)} \\ \text{(good)} \end{array} \right\} \text{number of students}$$

As these examples suggest, it is usual to find the indefinite article and a quantifying adjective, the latter being obligatory in Standard English with *deal*.

4.15

The phrasal quantifiers provide a means of imposing countability on non-count nouns as the following partitive expressions illustrate:

$$\text{GENERAL PARTITIVES} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{two pieces} \\ \text{a bit} \\ \text{an item} \end{array} \right\} \text{of} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{news} \\ \text{information} \\ \text{furniture} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\text{TYPICAL PARTITIVES} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a slice of cake} \\ \text{a roast of meat} \\ \text{a few loaves of bread} \\ \text{a bowl of soup} \\ \text{a bottle of wine} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\text{MEASURES} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a pint of beer} \\ \text{a spoonful of medicine} \\ \text{a pound of butter} \end{array} \right.$$

Reference and the articles
4.16
Specific/generic reference
In discussing the use of the articles, it is essential to make a distinction between specific and generic reference. If we say

A lion and two tigers are sleeping in the cage

the reference is specific, since we have in mind specific specimens of the class 'tiger'. If, on the other hand, we say

Tigers are dangerous animals

the reference is generic, since we are thinking of the class 'tiger' without special reference to specific tigers.

The distinctions that are important for count nouns with specific reference disappear with generic reference. This is so because generic reference is used to denote what is normal or typical for members of a class. Consequently, the distinctions of number and definiteness are neutralized since they are no longer relevant for the generic concept. Singular or plural, definite or indefinite can sometimes be used without change in the generic meaning, though plural definite occurs chiefly with nationality names (*cf* 4.18):

The German⎫
A German ⎭ is a good musician

The Germans⎫
Germans   ⎭ are good musicians

At least the following three forms can be used generically with a count noun:

The tiger⎫
A tiger ⎭ is a dangerous animal

Tigers are dangerous animals

But with non-count nouns, only the zero article is possible:

Music can be soothing

Note

There is considerable (though by no means complete) interdependence between the dynamic/stative dichotomy in the verb phrase and the specific/generic dichotomy in the noun phrase, as appears in the following examples:

generic reference/simple aspect		*The tiger lives* in the jungle
specific reference	simple aspect	*The tiger* at this circus *performs* twice a day
	progressive aspect	*The tiger is sleeping* in the cage
generic reference/simple aspect		*The English drink* beer in pubs
specific reference	simple aspect	*The Englishmen* (who live here) *drink* beer every day
	progressive aspect	*The Englishmen are* just now *drinking* beer in the garden

4.17
Systems of article usage

We can thus set up two different systems of article use depending on the type of reference:

	DEFINITE		INDEFINITE	
SPECIFIC REFERENCE	the tiger / the tigers	the ink	a tiger / (some) tigers	(some) ink
GENERIC REFERENCE	the tiger / a tiger / tigers		ink	

With definite specific reference, the definite article is used for all noun classes:

Where is the pen ⎫
Where are the pens ⎬ I bought?
Where is the ink ⎭

With indefinite specific reference, singular count nouns take the indefinite article *a(n)*, while non-count and plural count nouns take zero article or unstressed *some* (*any* in non-assertive contexts, 4.93):

I want a pen/some pens/some ink
I don't want a pen/any pens/any ink

Generic reference
4.18
Nationality words and adjectives as head

There are two kinds of adjectives that can act as noun-phrase head with generic reference (*cf* 5.6 *ff*):

(a) PLURAL PERSONAL (for example: *the French = the French nation; the rich = those who are rich*)

(b) SINGULAR NON-PERSONAL ABSTRACT (for example: *the evil = that which is evil*)

The lexical variation in a number of nationality words, as between *an Englishman/several Englishmen/the English*, depending on type of reference, appears from the following table.

Where nationality words have no double form (like *English, Englishman*), *the* + plural can be both generic and specific:

The Greeks are musical [generic]
The Greeks that I know are musical [specific]

| name of country or continent | adjective | specific reference | | generic reference |
		singular	plural(two,...)	plural
China	Chinese	a Chinese	Chinese	the Chinese
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese	Japanese	the Japanese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	Swiss	the Swiss
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese	Vietnamese	the Vietnamese
Israel	Israeli	an Israeli	Israelis	the Israelis
Pakistan	Pakistani	a Pakistani	Pakistanis	the Pakistanis
Germany	German	a German	Germans	the Germans
Greece	Greek	a Greek	Greeks	the Greeks
Africa	African	an African	Africans	the Africans
America	American	an American	Americans	the Americans
Europe	European	a European	Europeans	the Europeans
Asia	Asian	an Asian	Asians	the Asians
Australia	Australian	an Australian	Australians	the Australians
Italy	Italian	an Italian	Italians	the Italians
Russia	Russian	a Russian	Russians	the Russians
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian	Belgians	the Belgians
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian	Brazilians	the Brazilians
Hungary	Hungarian	a Hungarian	Hungarians	the Hungarians
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian	Norwegians	the Norwegians
Denmark	Danish	a Dane	Danes	the Danes
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	Finns	the Finns
Poland	Polish	a Pole	Poles	the Poles
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	Spaniards	the Spaniards
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	Swedes	the Swedes
Arabia	Arabic	an Arab	Arabs	the Arabs
England	English	an Englishman	Englishmen	{ Englishmen / the English
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	{ Frenchmen / the French
Holland, the Netherlands }	Dutch	a Dutchman	Dutchmen	{ Dutchmen / the Dutch
Ireland	Irish	an Irishman	Irishmen	{ Irishmen / the Irish
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman	Welshmen	{ Welshmen / the Welsh
Britain	British	(a Briton)	(Britons)	{ the British / (Britons)
Scotland	{ Scots / Scottish / (Scotch)	a Scotsman / a Scot / (a Scotchman)	Scotsmen / Scots / (Scotchmen)	Scotsmen / the Scots / (Scotchmen, the Scotch)

Note

[a] The adjective *Grecian* refers chiefly to ancient Greece: *a Grecian urn.*

[b] *Arabic* is used in *Arabic numerals* (as opposed to *Roman numerals*) and in *the Arabic language; he speaks Arabic fluently.* But *an Arabian camel.*

[c] *A Britisher* is colloquial (esp AmE).

[d] The inhabitants themselves prefer *Scots* and *Scottish* to *Scotch*, which however is commonly used in such phrases as *Scotch terrier, Scotch whisky*; contrast *the Scottish universities, the Scottish Highlands, a Scottish accent*, etc, denoting nationality rather than type.

[e] Nationality nouns tend to be used only of men: *He is a Spaniard but she is Swedish.*

4.19

Non-count and plural count nouns

When they have generic reference, both concrete and abstract non-count nouns, and usually also plural count nouns, are used with the zero article:

He likes
⎰ wine, wood, cream cheese, ...
⎨ music, chess, literature, history, skiing, ...
⎱ lakes, games, long walks, ...

Postmodification by an *of*-phrase usually requires the definite article with a head noun, which thus has limited generic (partitive) reference:

He likes
⎰ the wine(s)
⎨ the music
⎨ the countryside ⎬ of France
⎱ the lakes

Similarly, *the wines of this shop* is an instance of limited generic reference, in the sense that it does not refer to any particular wines at any one time. Postmodification with other prepositions is less dependent on a preceding definite article:

Mrs Nelson adores
⎰ Venetian glass
⎨ the glass of Venice
⎨ *glass of Venice
⎨ the glass from Venice
⎱ glass from Venice

This type of postmodification structure should be compared to the frequent alternative with an adjectival premodification. In comparison with some other languages English tends to make a liberal interpretation of the concept 'generic' in such cases, so that the zero article is used also where the reference of the noun head is restricted by premodification.

NON-COUNT NOUNS	Canadian paper	{the paper of Canada / paper from Canada
	Chinese history	the history of China
	Trotskyite politics	the politics of Trotsky
	American literature	the literature of America
	Restoration comedy	the comedy of the Restoration
PLURAL COUNT NOUNS	Japanese cameras	cameras from Japan
	Oriental women	the women of the Orient

The zero article is also used with other plural nouns that are not unambiguously generic:

> Appearances can be deceptive
> Things aren't what they used to be

Note
Just as non-count nouns can be used as count (4.4 Note), so count nouns can be used as non-count in a generic sense:

> This bread tastes of *onion;* has it been alongside *onions?*

Specific reference
4.20
Indefinite and definite
Just as we have seen in 4.16 a correspondence between aspect and reference in respect of generic and specific, so we have seen in 3.31 a correspondence between the simple and perfective in respect of what must be regarded as the basic article contrast:

> *An* intruder has stolen *a* vase;
> *the* intruder stole *the* vase from *a* locked cupboard;
> *the* cupboard was smashed open.

As we see in this (unusually explicit) example, the definite article presupposes an earlier mention of the item so determined. But in actual usage the relation between presupposition and the definite article may be much less overt. For example, a conversation may begin:

> *The* house on the corner is for sale

and the postmodification passes for some such unspoken preamble as

> There is, as you know, *a* house on the corner

Compare also *What is the climate like?* – that is, the climate of the area being discussed. Even more covert are the presuppositions which permit the definite article in examples like the following:

John asked his wife to put on *the* kettle while he looked in *the* paper to see what was on *the* radio

No prior mention of *a kettle, a paper, a radio* is needed, since these things are part of the cultural situation.

On a broader plane, we talk of *the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky* as aspects of experience common to mankind as a whole. These seem to require no earlier indefinite reference because each term is so specific as to be in fact unique for practical human purposes. This gives them something approaching the status of those proper names which are based on common count nouns: *the Bible, the United States*, for example (*cf* 4.24 *ff*).

Note

[a] The indefinite article used with a proper name means 'a certain', 'one giving his name as':

A Mr Johnson wants to speak to you

[b] The definite article given heavy stress is used (especially informally) to indicate superlative quality:

Chelsea is THE place for young people
Are you THE Mr Johnson (= the famous)?

4.21

Common nouns with zero article

There are a number of count nouns that take the zero article in abstract or rather specialized use, chiefly in certain idiomatic expressions (with verbs like *be* and *go* and with prepositions):

go by car	*but*	sit in/look at, ... the car
be in bed		make/sit on, ... the bed
go to school		go into/take a look at, ... the school
(an institution)		(a building)

The following list gives a number of common expressions with zero article; for comparison, usage with the definite article is also illustrated.

SEASONS: spring, summer, autumn (BrE), fall (AmE), winter
Eg In winter, we go skiing. After the winter is over, the swallows will return.

'INSTITUTIONS' (often with *at, in, to*, etc)

be in⎫ go to⎭	⎧bed │church ⎨prison │hospital (esp BrE) ⎩class (esp AmE)	lie down on the bed admire the church walk round the prison redecorate the hospital

be at ⎱ school   drive past the school
go to ⎰ college
          sea   look out towards the sea
          university   be at/go to/study at the university
                                           (esp AmE)

       be at/go home
       be in/leave town   approach the town

MEANS OF TRANSPORT (with *by*)

travel ⎱   bicycle   sit on the bicycle
leave ⎬ by   bus   be on the bus
come   ⎰   car   sleep in the car
                boat   sit in the boat
                train   take the/a train
                plane   be on the plane

TIMES OF THE DAY AND NIGHT (particularly with *at*, *by*, *after*, *before*)

at dawn/daybreak, when day   during the day
    breaks
at sunrise/sunset   admire the sunrise/sunset
at/around noon/midnight   in the afternoon
at dusk/twilight   see nothing in the dusk
at/by night   wake up in the night
(by) day and night   in the daytime
before morning came ⎧(rather   in/during the morning
evening came on   ⎨ formal   in the evening
after night fell   ⎩ style)   in the night

MEALS

have   ⎫   breakfast   the breakfast was good
before ⎪   brunch (esp AmE)
at   ⎬   lunch   he enjoyed the lunch
after   ⎪   tea (esp BrE)
stay for⎭   cocktails (esp AmE)
               dinner   prepare (the) dinner
               supper

dinner will be served soon   the dinner was well cooked

ILLNESSES

appendicitis   the plague
anaemia   (the) flu
diabetes   (the) measles
influenza   (the) mumps

PARALLEL STRUCTURES

arm in arm	he took her by the arm
hand in hand	a paper in his hand
day by day	
teaspoonful by teaspoonful	
he's neither man nor boy	
husband and wife	
man to man	
face to face	
from dawn to dusk	
from beginning to end	from the beginning of the day to the end of it
from right to left	keep to the right
from west to north	he lives in the north

Note

Compare also familiar or peremptory vocatives: *That's right, girl! Come here, man!* Vocatives take neither definite nor indefinite article in English.

4.22

Article usage with common nouns in intensive relation

Unlike many other languages, English requires the definite or indefinite article with the count noun complement in an intensive relation (7.6).

With indefinite reference, the indefinite article is used:

(i) intensive complementation — John became a businessman

(ii) complex transitive complementation (active verb) — Mary considered John a genius

(iii) complex transitive complementation (passive verb) — John was taken for a linguist

The complement of *turn* and *go*, however, has zero article (12.9 Note *a*):

John started out a music student before he turned linguist

Definite reference requires the definite article:

(i) John became
(ii) Mary considered John } the genius of the family
(iii) John was taken for

However, the zero article may be used with the noun complement after copulas and 'naming verbs', such as *appoint, declare, elect,* when the noun designates a unique office or task:

(i) John is (the) captain of the team
(ii) They elected him ⎫
(iii) He was elected ⎭ (the) President of the United States

Unique reference
Proper nouns
4.23

Proper nouns are names of specific people (*Shakespeare*), places (*Milwaukee*), countries (*Australia*), months (*September*), days (*Thursday*), holidays (*Christmas*), magazines (*Vogue*), and so forth. Names have 'unique' reference, and (as we have seen in 4.2) do not share such characteristics of common nouns as article contrast. But when the names have restrictive modification to give a partitive meaning to the name (*cf* 4.19), proper nouns take the (cataphoric) definite article.

UNIQUE MEANING	PARTITIVE MEANING
during Easter	during the Easter of that year
in England	in the England of Queen Elizabeth
in Denmark	in the Denmark of today
Chicago	the Chicago I like (='the aspect of Chicago')
Shakespeare	the young Shakespeare

Proper names can be converted into common nouns (App I.29):

Shakespeare (the author) ⎧ a Shakespeare ('an author like S.')
                          ⎨ Shakespeares ('authors like S.' or
                          ⎩ 'copies of the works of S.')

Note
Proper nouns are written with initial capital letters. So also, frequently, are a number of common nouns with unique reference, which are therefore close to proper nouns, *eg: fate, fortune, heaven, hell, nature, paradise.*

4.24

The following list exemplifies the main classes of proper nouns:

Personal names (with or without titles; 4.25)
Calendar items (4.26):
   (a) Festivals
   (b) Months and days of the week

Geographical names (4.27):
- (a) Continents
- (b) Countries, counties, states, etc
- (c) Cities, towns, etc
- (d) Lakes
- (e) Mountains

Name + common noun (4.28).

4.25

Personal names

Personal names with or without appositive titles:

Dr Watson   Lady Churchill
President Pompidou   Cardinal Spellman
Mr and Mrs Johnson   Judge Darling (mainly AmE)

Note the following exceptions:

the Emperor (Napoleon)   the Lord (God)
  (but: Emperor Haile Selassie) (the) Czar (Alexander)
the Duke (of Wellington)

The article may also precede some other titles, including *Lord* and *Lady* in formal use. Family relations with unique reference behave like proper nouns:

Father (Daddy, Dad, *familiar*) is here
Mother (Mummy, Mum, *familiar*) is out
Uncle will come on Saturday

Compare:

The father was the tallest in the family

4.26

Calendar items
- (a) Names of festivals:

Christmas (Day)   Independence Day
Easter (Sunday)   Whit(sun) (mainly BrE)
Good Friday   Passover

- (b) Names of the months and the days of the week:

January, February, . . .   Monday, Tuesday, . . .

Note

Many such items can readily be used as count nouns:

I hate Mondays

There was an April in my childhood I well remember

4.27

Geographical names

(a) Names of continents:

(North) America	(Medieval) Europe
(Central) Australia	(East) Africa

Note *Antarctica* but *the Antarctic*, like *the Arctic.*

(b) Names of countries, counties, states, etc (normally no article with premodifying adjective):

(modern) Brazil	(industrial) Staffordshire
(west) Scotland	(northern) Arkansas

Note *Argentina* but *the Argentine, the Ruhr, the Saar, the Sahara, the Ukraine, the Crimea, (the) Lebanon, the Midwest; the Everglades* (and other plural names, see 4.30).

(c) Cities and towns (normally no article with premodifying word):

(downtown) Boston   (ancient) Rome   (suburban) London

Note *The Hague; the Bronx; the City, the West End, the East End (of London).*

(d) Lakes:

Lake Windermere   Silver Lake

(e) Mountains:

Mount Everest   Vesuvius

Note *the Mount of Olives (cf 4.19).*

4.28

Name + common noun

Name + common noun denoting buildings, streets, bridges, etc. There is a regular accentuation pattern as in *Hampstead* HEATH, except that names ending in *Street* have the converse: LAMB *Street.*

Madison Avenue	Westminster Bridge	Kennedy Airport
Park Lane	Westminster Abbey	Oxford Street
Portland Place	Greenwich Village	

Note *the Albert Hall, the Mansion House; the Haymarket, the Strand, the Mall* (street names in London); *the Merrit Parkway, the Pennsylvania Turnpike; (the) London Road* as a proper name but only *the London road* to denote 'the road leading to London'.

Note
Names of universities where the first part is a place-name can usually have two forms: *the University of London* (which is the official name) and *London University*. Universities named after a person have only the latter form: *eg: Yale University, Brown University*.

4.29

Proper nouns with definite article
The difference between an ordinary common noun and a common noun turned name is that the unique reference of the name has been institutionalized, as is made overt in writing by the use of initial capitals. The following structural classification illustrates the use of such proper nouns which retain the phrasal definite article:

WITHOUT MODIFICATION
  The Guardian   *The Times*

WITH PREMODIFICATION
  the Suez Canal   *The Washington Post*
  the Ford Foundation   the British Broadcasting Corporation (the BBC)

WITH POSTMODIFICATION
  the House of Commons   the Cambridge College of Arts
  the Institute of Psychiatry   and Technology
  the Bay of Biscay   the District of Columbia

ELLIPTED ELEMENTS
  The original structure of a proper noun is sometimes unclear when one element has been dropped and the elliptic form has become institutionalized as the full name:

  the Tate (Gallery)   the Mermaid (Theatre)
  the Atlantic (Ocean)   the (River) Thames

Note
When the ellipted item is a plural or a collective implying plurality, the truncated name
is pluralized:

the Canary Islands ~ the Canaries
the Pennine Range (*or* Chain) ~ the Pennines

4.30

The following classes of proper nouns are used with the definite article:

(a) Plural names

the Netherlands
the Midlands
the Hebrides, the Shetlands, the Bahamas
the Himalayas, the Alps, the Rockies, the Pyrenees

So also, more generally, the names of woods, families, etc: *the Wilsons* (= the Wilson family).

(b) Geographical names

Rivers: the Avon, the Danube, the Euphrates
Seas: the Pacific (Ocean), the Baltic, the Mediterranean
Canals: the Panama (Canal), the Erie Canal

(c) Public institutions, facilities, etc

Hotels and restaurants: the Grand (Hotel), the Savoy, the Hilton
Theatres, cinemas, clubs, etc: the Globe, the Athenaeum
Museums, libraries, etc: the Tate, the British Museum, the Huntingdon

Note *Drury Lane, Covent Garden.*

(d) Newspapers: *the Economist, the New York Times, the Observer*

After genitives and possessives the article is dropped: *today's New York Times.*

Note that magazines and periodicals normally have the zero article: *Language, Life, Time, Punch, New Scientist.*

Number
Invariable nouns
4.31

The English number system comprises SINGULAR, which denotes 'one', and PLURAL, which denotes 'more than one'. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns are VARIABLE, occurring with either singular or plural number (*boy* ~ *boys*), or have INVARIABLE plural (*cattle*). *Fig* 4:1 provides a summary, with relevant section references.

```
                    ┌ non-count nouns: concrete   gold, furniture
                    │ non-count nouns: abstract    music, homework
         singular   │ proper nouns                 Henry, the Thames
         invariables┤ some nouns ending in -s      news                (4.32)
                    └ abstract adjectival heads    the beautiful, the true (4.18)

                    ┌ summation plurals            scissors            (4.33)
                    │ other pluralia tantum in -s  thanks              (4.34)
invariable  plural  ┤ some plural proper nouns     the Netherlands     (4.30)
            invariables unmarked plural nouns      cattle              (4.35)
                    └ personal adjectival heads    the rich            (4.18)

         regular ─────────────────────────boy     boys                (4.36)
         plurals

            ┌ VOICING ─────────────calf            calves             (4.36)
            ├ MUTATION ────────────foot            feet               (4.40)
            ├ EN PLURAL ───────────ox              oxen               (4.41)
            ├ ZERO ────────────────sheep           sheep            (4.43–45)
         irre-
variable gular
         plurals
                   ┌ -us     → -i      radius    radii      (4.48)
                   │ -a      → -ae     larva     larvae     (4.49)
                   │ -um     → -a      stratum   strata     (4.50)
                   │ -ex, -ix → -ices  matrix    matrices   (4.51)
                   │ -is     → -es     thesis    theses     (4.52)
            FOREIGN┤ -on     → -a      criterion criteria   (4.53)
                   │ -eau    → -eaux   tableau   tableaux   (4.54)
                   │      zero }       chassis   chassis     (4.55)
                   │ (spelling only)}
                   │ -o      → -i      tempo     tempi      (4.56)
                   └ base    + -im     cherub    cherubim   (4.57)
```
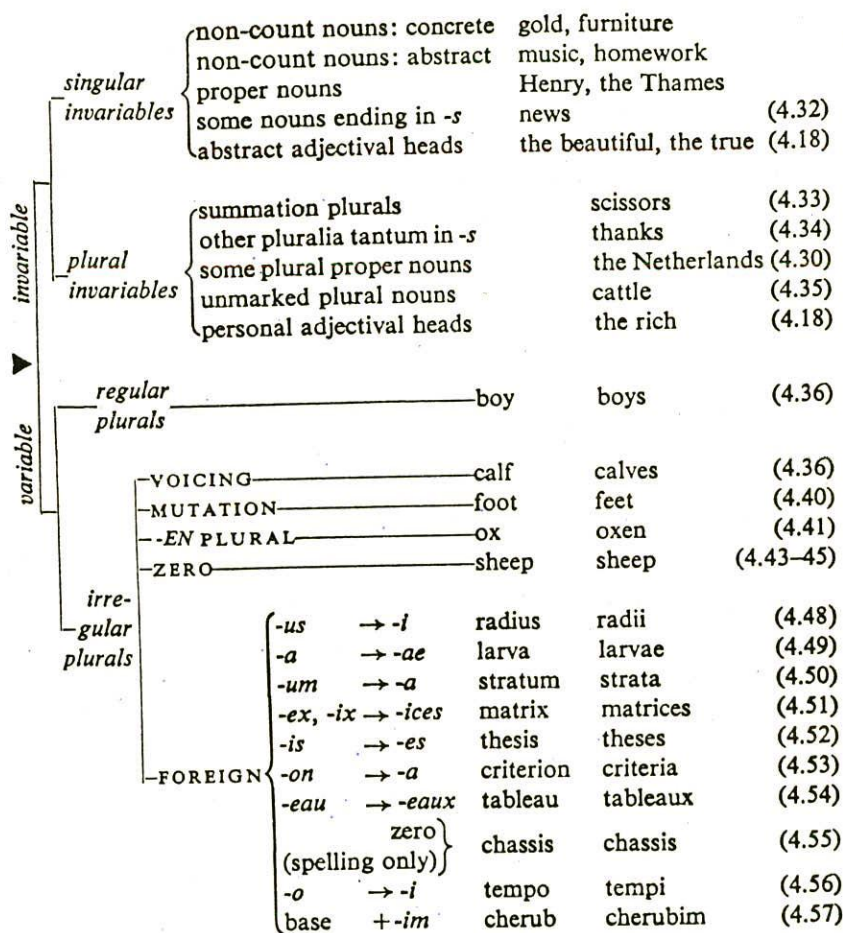
Fig 4:1 Number classes

Note
In addition to singular and plural number, we may distinguish dual number in the case of *both*, *either*, and *neither* (4.5, 4.7, 4.94) since they can only be used with reference to two. On reference to three or more, see 4.91.

4.32
Invariable nouns ending in *-s*
Note the following classes which take a singular verb, except where otherwise mentioned:

(a) *news:* The news is bad today
(b) SOME DISEASES: *measles, German measles, mumps, rickets, shingles.* Some speakers also accept a plural verb.

(c) SUBJECT NAMES IN -*ICS* (usually with singular verb): *classics, ling-uistics, mathematics, phonetics,* etc

(d) SOME GAMES: *billiards, bowls* (esp BrE), *darts, dominoes, draughts* (BrE), *checkers* (AmE), *fives, ninepins*

(e) SOME PROPER NOUNS: *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, Flanders, Marseilles, Naples, Wales; the United Nations* and *the United States* have a singular verb when considered as units.

Plural invariable nouns
4.33
SUMMATION PLURALS

Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined constitute summation plurals. Countability can be imposed by means of *a pair of*: *a pair of scissors, three pairs of trousers.*

bellows	tongs	pants
binoculars	tweezers	pyjamas (BrE),
pincers	glasses	pajamas (AmE)
pliers	spectacles	shorts
scales	braces (BrE)	suspenders
scissors	flannels	tights
shears	knickers	trousers

Note

[a] Many of the summation plurals can take the indefinite article, especially with premodification: *a garden shears, a curling-tongs,* etc (*cf* zero plurals, 4.43 *ff*): obvious treatment as count nouns is not infrequent: *several tweezers.*
[b] Plural nouns commonly lose the inflection in premodification: *a suspender belt.*

4.34
OTHER 'PLURALIA TANTUM' IN -*S*

Among other 'pluralia tantum' (*ie* nouns that only occur in the plural), the following nouns end in -*s*. In many cases, however, there are forms without -*s*, sometimes with difference of meaning.

the Middle Ages

amends (make every/all possible amends)

annals

the Antipodes

archives

arms ('weapons', an arms depot)

arrears

ashes (*but* tobacco ash)

auspices

banns (of marriage)

bowels

brain(s) ('intellect', he's got good brains, *beside* a good brain)

clothes (*cf* cloths, /s/, *plural of* cloth)

the Commons (the House of Commons)

contents (*but* the silver content of the coin)

customs (customs duty)

dregs (coffee dregs)

earnings

entrails

fireworks (*but* he let off a fire-
work)

funds ('money'; *but* a fund, 'a
source of money')

goods (a goods train)

greens

guts ('bowels'; *but* cat-gut)

heads (heads or tails?)

holidays (summer holidays, BrE,
but he's on holiday, he's
taking a holiday in Spain)

letters (a man of letters)

lodgings

looks (he has good looks)

the Lords (the House of Lords)

manners

means (a man of means)

oats

odds (in betting)

outskirts

pains (take pains)

particulars (note the particulars)

premises ('building')

quarters, headquarters (*but* the
Latin quarter)

regards (*but* win his regard)

remains

riches

savings (a savings bank)

spirits ('mood'; *but* he has a
kindly spirit)

spirits ('alcohol'; *but* alcohol is a
spirit)

stairs (a flight of stairs)

suds

surroundings

thanks

troops (*but* a troop of scouts)

tropics (*but* the Tropic of Cancer)

valuables

wages (*but* he earns a good wage)

wits (she has her wits about her;
but he has a keen wit)

Note

Cf also *pence* in 'a few pence', 'tenpence', beside the regular *penny ~ pennies*.

4.35

UNMARKED PLURALS

cattle

clergy (*but also singular*)

folk (*but also informal* folks)

gentry

people (*but regular when* =
'nation')

police

vermin

youth (*but regular when* =
'young man')

Variable nouns
4.36
Regular plurals

Variable nouns have two forms, singular and plural, the singular being
the form listed in dictionaries. The vast majority of nouns are variable in
this way and normally the plural (*-s* suffix) is fully predictable both in
sound and spelling by the same rules as for the *-s* inflection of verbs (3.5).
Spelling creates numerous exceptions, however.

(a) Treatment of -*y:*

Beside the regular *spy* ~ *spies*, there are nouns in -*y* to which *s* is added:

with proper nouns: *the Kennedys, the two Germanys*
after a vowel (except the *u* of -*quy*): *days, boys, journeys*
in a few other words such as *stand-bys*

(b) Nouns of unusual form sometimes pluralize in *'s:*

letter names: *dot your i's*
numerals: *in the 1890's* (or, increasingly, *1890s*)
abbreviations: *two MP's* (or, increasingly, *MPs*)

(c) Nouns in -*o* have plural in -*os*, with some exceptions having either optional or obligatory -*oes1*

Plurals in -*os* and -*oes:*

archipelago, banjo, buffalo, cargo, commando, flamingo, halo, motto, tornado, volcano

Plurals only in -*oes:*

echo, embargo, hero, Negro, potato, tomato, torpedo, veto

4.37
Compounds

Compounds form the plural in different ways, but (c) below is the most usual.

(a) PLURAL IN FIRST ELEMENT

attorney general	attorneys general, but more usually as (c)
notary public	notaries public
passer-by	passers-by
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law, but also as (c) informally
grant-in-aid	grants-in-aid
man-of-war	men-of-war
coat of mail	coats of mail
mouthful	mouthsful ⎫ but also as (c)
spoonful	spoonsful ⎭

(b) PLURAL IN BOTH FIRST AND LAST ELEMENT

gentleman farmer	gentlemen farmers
manservant	menservants
woman doctor	women doctors

(c) PLURAL IN LAST ELEMENT (*ie* normal)

assistant director   assistant directors

So also: boy friend, fountain pen, woman-hater, breakdown, grown-up, sit-in, stand-by, take-off, forget-me-not, etc

Irregular plurals
4.38
Irregular plurals are by definition unpredictable and have to be learned as individual items. In many cases where foreign words are involved, it is of course helpful to know about pluralization in the relevant languages particularly Latin and Greek. Thus, on the pattern of

analysis → analyses

we can infer the correct plurals:

axis → axes   basis → bases   crisis → crises, etc

But we cannot rely on etymological criteria: plurals like *areas* and *villas*, for example, do not conform to the Latin pattern (*areae, villae*).

4.39
VOICING+-*S* PLURAL

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

(a) Nouns in -*th*

There is no change in spelling.

With a consonant before the -*th*, the plural is regular: *berth, birth, length*, etc.

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

(b) Nouns in -*f(e)*

Plurals with voicing are spelled -*ves*.

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

Voiced plural only: *calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf.*

Both regular and voiced plurals: *dwarf, handkerchief, hoof, scarf, wharf.*

Note

The painting term *still life* has a regular plural: *still lifes.*

4.40
MUTATION

Mutation involves a change of vowel in the following seven nouns:

foot ~ feet   man ~ men   woman ~ women
tooth ~ teeth   louse ~ lice   /ʊ/   /ɪ/
goose ~ geese   mouse ~ mice

Note

With *woman/women*, the pronunciation differs in the first syllable only, while *postman/ postmen*, *Englishman/-men*, etc have no difference in pronunciation at all between singular and plural.

4.41
THE -*EN* PLURAL

This occurs in three nouns:

brother   brethren   *brethren* (with mutation) = 'fellow members of a religious society'; otherwise regular *brothers*
child   children   (with vowel change /aɪ/ → /ɪ/)
ox   oxen

ZERO PLURAL
4.42

Some nouns have the same spoken and written form in both singular and plural. Note the difference here between, on the one hand, invariable nouns, which are either singular (*This music is too loud*) or plural (*All the cattle are grazing in the field*), and, on the other, zero plural nouns, which can be both singular and plural (*This sheep looks small; All those sheep are mine*).

4.43
Animal names

Animal names often have zero plurals. They tend to be used partly by people who are especially concerned with animals, partly when the animals are referred to as game. Where there are two plurals, the zero plural is the more common in contexts of hunting, etc, *eg: We caught only a few fish,* whereas the regular plural is used to denote different individuals or species: *the fishes of the Mediterranean.*

4.44

The degree of variability with animal names is shown by the following lists:

Regular plural: *bird, cow, eagle, hen, rabbit,* etc
Usually regular: *elk, crab, duck* (zero only with the wild bird)

Both plurals: *antelope, reindeer, fish, flounder, herring*
Usually zero: *pike, trout, carp, deer, moose*
Only zero: *grouse, sheep, plaice, salmon*

4.45
Quantitative nouns
The numeral nouns *hundred, thousand,* and usually *million* have zero plurals except when unpremodified; so too *dozen, brace, head* (of cattle), *yoke* (rare), *gross, stone* (BrE weight).

He always wanted to have *hundreds/thousands* of books and he has
   recently bought *four hundred/thousand*

Other quantitative and partitive nouns can be treated similarly, though the zero plurals are commoner in informal or technical usage:

Dozens of glasses; tons of coal
He is six foot/feet (tall)
He bought eight ton(s) of coal

Note
Plural measure expressions are normally singularized when they premodify (4.33 Note *b*): *a five-pound note, a ten-second pause.*

4.46
Nouns in *-(e)s*
A few nouns in -(*e*)*s* can be treated as singular or plural:

He gave *one series/two series* of lectures

So too *species.* With certain other nouns such as *barracks, gallows, head-quarters, means, (steel) works,* usage varies; they are sometimes treated as variable nouns with zero plurals, sometimes as 'pluralia tantum' (4.34).

FOREIGN PLURALS
4.47
Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are commoner in technical usage, whereas the -*s* plural is more natural in everyday language; thus *formulas* (general) ~*formulae* (in mathematics), *antennas* (general and in electronics) ~ *antennae* (in biology).
   Our aim here will be to survey systematically the main types of foreign plurals that are used in present-day English and to consider the extent to which a particular plural form is obligatory or optional. Most (but by no means all) words having a particular foreign plural originated in the language mentioned in the heading.

4.48

Nouns in -*us* (Latin)
The foreign plural is -*i*, as in *stimulus* ~ *stimuli*.

> Only regular plural (-*uses*): *bonus, campus, chorus, circus, virus*, etc
> Both plurals: *cactus, focus, fungus, nucleus, radius, terminus, syllabus*
> Only foreign plural: *alumnus, bacillus, locus, stimulus*

Note
The usual plurals of *corpus* and *genus* are *corpora, genera*.

4.49

Nouns in -*a* (Latin)
The foreign plural is -*ae*, as in *alumna* ~ *alumnae*.

> Only regular plural (-*as*): *area, arena, dilemma, diploma, drama*, etc
> Both plurals: *antenna, formula, nebula, vertebra*
> Only foreign plural: *alga, alumna, larva*

4.50

Nouns In -*um* (Latin)
The foreign plural is -*a*, as in *curriculum* ~ *curricula*.

> Only regular plural: *album, chrysanthemum, museum*, etc
> Usually regular: *forum, stadium, ultimatum*
> Both plurals: *aquarium, medium, memorandum, symposium*
> Usually foreign plural: *curriculum*
> Only foreign plural: *addendum, bacterium, corrigendum, desideratum,
>   erratum, ovum, stratum*

Note
Media with reference to press and radio and *strata* with reference to society are some-
times used informally as singular. In the case of *data*, reclassification as a singular
non-count noun is widespread, and the technical singular *datum* is rather rare.

4.51

Nouns in -*ex*, -*ix* (Latin)
The foreign plural is -*ices*, as in *index* ~ *indices*.

> Both regular and foreign plurals: *apex, index, vortex, appendix, matrix*
> Only foreign plural: *codex*

4.52

Nouns in -*is* (Greek)
The foreign plural is -*es*, as in *basis* ~ *bases*.

> Regular plural (-*ises*): *metropolis*
> Foreign plural: *analysis, axis, basis, crisis, diagnosis, ellipsis, hypo-
>   thesis, oasis, parenthesis, synopsis, thesis*

4.53
Nouns in -*on* (Greek)
The foreign plural is -*a*, as in *criterion* ~ *criteria*.

> Only regular plurals: *demon, electron, neutron, proton*
> Chiefly regular: *ganglion*
> Both plurals: *automaton*
> Only foreign plural: *criterion, phenomenon*

Note
Informally, *criteria* and *phenomena* are sometimes used as singulars.

4.54
French nouns
A few nouns in -*e(a)u* retain the French -*x* as the spelling of the plural, beside the commoner -*s*, but the plurals are almost always pronounced as regular, /z/, irrespective of spelling, *eg: adieu, bureau, tableau, plateau.*

4.55
Some French nouns in -*s* or -*x* are pronounced with a final vowel in the singular and with a regular /z/ in the plural, with no spelling change: *chamois, chassis, corps, faux pas, patois.*

4.56
Nouns in -*o* (Italian)
The foreign plural is -*i* as in *tempo* ~ *tempi*.

> Only regular plural: *soprano*
> Usually regular plural: *virtuoso, libretto, solo, tempo*

Note
Graffiti is usually a 'pluralia tantum' (4.34), *confetti, spaghetti* non-count singular.

4.57
Hebrew nouns
The foreign plural is -*im*, as in *kibbutz* ~ *kibbutzim*.

> Usually regular: *cherub, seraph*
> Only foreign plural: *kibbutz*

Gender
4.58
English makes very few gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close, insofar as natural sex distinctions determine English gender distinctions.

It is further typical of English that special suffixes are not generally used to mark gender distinctions. Nor are gender distinctions made in the article. Some pronouns are gender-sensitive (the personal *he, she, it*, and the relative *who, which*), but others are not (*they, some, these*, etc). The patterns of pronoun substitutions for singular nouns give us a set of ten gender classes as illustrated in *Fig* 4:2.
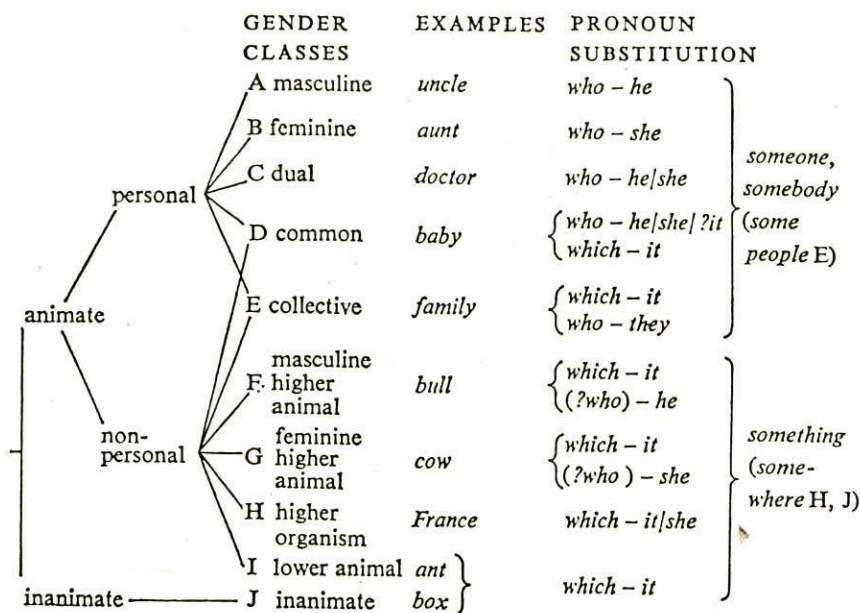
Fig 4:2 Gender classes

4.59
[A/B] Personal masculine/feminine nouns
These nouns are of two types. Type (i) has no overt marking that suggests morphological correspondence between masculine and feminine, whereas in Type (ii) the two gender forms have a derivational relationship (*cf* App I.14).

(i)				
morphologically unmarked for gender	bachelor	spinster	king	queen
	brother	sister	man	woman
	father	mother	monk	nun
	gentleman	lady	uncle	aunt

(ii)

morphologically	bridegroom	bride	host	hostess
marked for	duke	duchess	steward	stewardess
gender	emperor	empress	waiter	waitress
	god	goddess	widower	widow
	hero	heroine	usher	usherette

Some masculine/feminine pairs denoting kinship have common (dual) generic terms, for example, *parent* for *father/mother*, and *child* for *son/ daughter* as well as for *boy/girl*. Some optional feminine forms (*poetess, authoress*, etc) are now rare, being replaced by the dual gender forms (*poet, author*, etc).

4.60
[C] Personal dual gender

This is a large class including, for example, the following:

artist	fool	musician	servant
chairman	foreigner	neighbour	speaker
cook	friend	novelist	student
criminal	guest	parent	teacher
doctor	inhabitant	person	writer
enemy	librarian	professor	

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a 'gender marker':

boy friend	girl friend
man student	woman student

The dual class is on the increase, but the expectation that a given activity is largely male or female dictates the frequent use of sex markers: thus *a nurse*, but *a male nurse; an engineer* but *a woman engineer*.

Note

Where such nouns are used generically, neither gender is relevant though a masculine reference pronoun may be used (*cf* 7.30):

If *any student* calls, tell *him* I'll be back soon

When they are used with specific reference, they must of course be either masculine or feminine and the context may clearly imply the gender in a given case:

I met a (*handsome*) student (and *he* . . .)
I met a (*beautiful*) student (and *she* . . .).

4.61
[D] Common gender

Common gender nouns are intermediate between personal and non-personal. The wide selection of pronouns (*who, he/she/it*) should not be

understood to mean that all these are possible for all nouns in all contexts. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby as *it*, but it would be quite possible for somebody who is not emotionally concerned with the child or is ignorant of or indifferent to its sex. *Cf* 4.63.

4.62
[E] Collective nouns
These differ from other nouns in taking as pronoun substitutes either singular (*it*) or plural (*they*) without change of number in the noun (*the army* ~ *it/they; cf: the armies* ~ *they*): *cf* 7.20. Consequently, the verb may be in the plural after a singular noun (though less commonly in AmE than in BrE):

$$\text{The committee} \begin{bmatrix} \text{has} \\ \text{have} \end{bmatrix} \text{met and} \begin{bmatrix} \text{it has} \\ \text{they have} \end{bmatrix} \text{rejected the proposal}$$

The difference reflects a difference in attitude: the singular stresses the non-personal collectivity of the group and the plural the personal individuality within the group.

We may distinguish three subclasses of collective nouns:

(a) SPECIFIC: army, clan, class, club, committee, crew, crowd, family, flock, gang, government, group, herd, jury, majority, minority

(b) GENERIC: the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the clergy, the élite, the gentry, the intelligentsia, the laity, the proletariat, the public

(c) UNIQUE: the Arab League, (the) Congress, the Kremlin, the Papacy, Parliament, the United Nations, the United States, the Vatican

4.63
[F/G] Higher animals
Gender in higher animals is chiefly observed by people with a special concern (*eg* with pets).

buck	doe	gander	goose
bull	cow	lion	lioness
cock	hen	stallion	mare
dog	bitch	tiger	tigress

A further class might be set up, 'common higher animals', patterning with *which – it*, (*?who*) *– he/she*, to account for *horse, cat, tiger*, etc, when no sex distinction is made or known. In such cases, *he* is more usual than *she*.

4.64
[H] Higher organisms
Names of countries have different gender depending on their use. (i) As geographical units they are treated as [J], inanimate: 'Looking at the map we see France here. *It is* one of the largest countries of Europe.' (ii) As political/economic units the names of countries are often feminine, [B] or [G]: 'France *has* been able to increase *her* exports by 10 per cent over the last six months.' 'England *is* proud of *her* poets.' (iii) Esp. in BrE, sports teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns, [E]: 'France *have* improved *their* chance of winning the cup.'

The gender class [H] is set up to embrace these characteristics, and in it we may place ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed by a personal substitute:

What a lovely ship. What is *she* called?

The proud owner of a sports car may refer to it as *she* (or perhaps as *he* if the owner is female).

4.65
[I/J] Lower animals and inanimate nouns
Lower animals do not differ from inanimate nouns in terms of our present linguistic criteria; *ie* both *snake* and *box* have *which* and *it* as pronouns. Sex differences can, however, be indicated by a range of gender markers for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant: *eg: she-goat, he-goat, male frog, hen-pheasant.*

Case
4.66
Common/genitive case
As distinct from personal pronouns (4.79), English nouns have a two-case system: the unmarked COMMON CASE (*boy*) and the marked GENITIVE CASE (*boy's*). Since the functions of the common case can be seen only in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase (subject, object, etc), it is the functions of the genitive that need separate scrutiny.

The forms of the genitive inflection
4.67
The -*s* genitive of regular nouns is realized in speech only in the singular, where it takes one of the forms /ɪz/, /z/, /s/, following the rules for *s* inflection (3.5). In writing, the inflection of regular nouns is realized in the singular by -'*s* and in the plural by putting an apostrophe after the plural *s*.

As a result, the spoken form /spaɪz/ may be related to the noun *spy* as follows:

The *spies* were arrested

The *spy's* companion was a woman

The *spies'* companions were women in each case

(It could of course also be the *s* form of the verb as in 'He *spies* on behalf of an industrial firm'.) By contrast, an irregular noun like *man* preserves a number distinction independently of genitive singular and genitive plural distinctions: *man, men, man's, men's*.

Note

In postmodified noun phrases, there can be a difference between the genitive and plural because of the different location of the inflection (4.74):

The palace was the King of Denmark's

They praised the Kings of Denmark

4.68

In addition to its use with regular plurals, the 'zero' genitive occurs

(a) with Greek names of more than one syllable, as in *Euripides'* /-diz/ *plays;*

(b) with many other names ending in /z/ where, in speech, zero is a variant of the regular /ız/ genitive. There is vacillation both in the pronunciation and spelling of these names, but most commonly the pronunciation is the /ız/ form and the spelling an apostrophe only. Thus *Burns'* (or, less commonly, *Burns's*), is pronounced, irrespective of the spelling, /zız/ (or /z/);

(c) with fixed expressions of the form *for . . . sake* as in *for goodness' sake* /s/, *for conscience' sake* /s/.

4.69

Two genitives

In many instances there is a functional similarity (indeed, semantic identity) between a noun in the genitive case and the same noun as head of a prepositional phrase with *of*. We refer to the *-s* GENITIVE for the inflection and to the *OF-* GENITIVE for the prepositional form. For example:

What is *the ship's* name?

What is the name *of the ship*?

Although as we shall see (4.71 *f*) there are usually compelling reasons for preferring one or other construction in a given case, and numerous environments in which only one construction is grammatically acceptable, the degree of similarity and overlap has led grammarians to regard the two constructions as variant forms of the genitive.

4.70
Genitive meanings

The meanings of the genitive can best be shown by sentential or phrasal analogues such as we present below. For comparison, a corresponding use of the *of*-genitive is given where this is possible.

GENITIVES	ANALOGUES
(a) *possessive genitive*	
my son's wife	my son has a wife
Mrs Johnson's passport	Mrs Johnson has a passport
cf the gravity of the earth	the earth has gravity
(b) *subjective genitive*	
the boy's application	the boy applied
his parents' consent	his parents consented
cf the rise of the sun	the sun rose
(c) *objective genitive*	
the family's support	(. . .) supports the family
the boy's release	(. . .) released the boy
cf a statement of the facts	(. . .) stated the facts
(d) *genitive of origin*	
the girl's story	the girl told a story
the general's letter	the general wrote a letter
cf the wines of France	France produced the wines
(e) *descriptive genitive*	
a women's college	a college for women
a summer's day	a summer day/a day in the summer
a doctor's degree ⎫ *cf* the degree of doctor ⎭	a doctoral degree/a doctorate
(f) *genitive of measure and partitive genitive*	
ten days' absence ⎫ an absence of ten days ⎭	the absence lasted ten days
the height of the tower	the tower is (of) a certain height
part of the problem	the problem is divisible into parts
(g) *appositive genitive*	
the city of York	York is a city
the pleasure of meeting you	meeting you is a pleasure

Note
Except for temporal measure, the *-s* genitive is now only rarely found with meanings (f) and (g), but *cf: the earth's circumference, journey's end, Dublin's fair city.*

4.71
The choice of genitives

The semantic classification in 4.70 is in part arbitrary. For example, we could claim that *cow's milk* is not a genitive of origin but a descriptive genitive ('the kind of milk obtained from a cow') or even a subjective genitive ('the cow provided the milk'). For this reason, meanings and sentential analogues can provide only inconclusive help in choosing between -*s* and *of*-genitive use.

The choice can be more securely related to the gender classes represented by the noun which is to be genitive. Generally speaking, the -*s* genitive is favoured by the classes that are highest on the gender scale (see *Fig* 4:2), *ie* animate nouns, in particular persons and animals with personal gender characteristics. Although we can say either *the youngest children's toys* or *the toys of the youngest children*, the two forms of the genitive are not normally in free variation. We cannot say, for example, **the door's knob* or **the hat of John*.

Relating this fact to 4.70, we may infer that the possessive use is especially associated with the -*s* genitive and that this is because we think of 'possession' chiefly in terms of our own species. It is possible to see the partitive genitive at the opposite pole on comparable grounds: the disallowance of the -*s* genitive matches the irrelevance of the gender of a noun which is merely being measured or dissected.

A further factor influencing the choice of genitive is information focus, the -*s* genitive enabling us to give end-focus to one noun, the *of*-genitive to another (*cf.* 14.2). Compare the following:

(a) The explosion damaged *the ship's funnel*
(b) Having looked at all the funnels, he considered that the most handsome was *the funnel of the Orion*

This principle is congruent again with the preference for the *of*-genitive with partitives and appositives where an -*s* genitive would result in undesirable or absurd final prominence: **the problem's part*.

Note
The relevance of gender is shown also in the fact that the indefinite pronouns with personal reference (4.58) admit the -*s* genitive while those with non-personal reference do not: *someone's shadow, *something's shadow.*

4.72

Choice of -*s* genitive
The following four animate noun classes normally take the -*s* genitive:

(a) PERSONAL NAMES: Segovia's pupil
                        George Washington's statue

(b) PERSONAL NOUNS: the boy's new shirt
     my sister-in-law's pencil

(c) COLLECTIVE NOUNS : the government's conviction
     the nation's social security

(d) HIGHER ANIMALS: the horse's tail
     the lion's hunger

The inflected genitive is also used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns:

(e) GEOGRAPHICAL and INSTITUTIONAL NAMES:
    Europe's future   the school's history
    Maryland's Democratic   London's water supply
    Senator

(f) TEMPORAL NOUNS
    a moment's thought   a week's holiday
    the theatre season's first big   today's business
    event

(g) NOUNS OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO HUMAN ACTIVITY
    the brain's total solid weight   the game's history
    the mind's general develop-   science's influence
    ment

4.73

Choice of the *of*-genitive

The *of*-genitive is chiefly used with nouns that belong to the bottom part of the gender scale (4.58), that is, especially with inanimate nouns: *the title of the book, the interior of the room*. In these two examples, an *-s* genitive would be fully acceptable, but in many instances this is not so: *the hub of the wheel, the windows of the houses*. Related no doubt to the point made about information focus (4.71), however, the corresponding personal pronouns would normally have the inflected genitive: *its hub, their windows*.

In measure, partitive, and appositive expressions, the *of*-genitive is the usual form except for temporal measure (*a month's rest*) and in idioms such as *his money's worth, at arm's length*. *Cf* 4.70 Note.

Again, where the *of*-genitive would normally be used, instances are found with the inflected form in newspaper headlines, perhaps for reasons of space economy:

FIRE AT UCLA: INSTITUTE'S ROOF DAMAGED

where the subsequent news item might begin: 'The roof of a science institute on the campus was damaged last night as fire swept through ...'

Note
On the other hand, beside the regular *-s* genitive in *John's life, the child's life,* the idiom *for the life of me/him* requires both the *of*-genitive and a pronoun.

4.74
The group genitive
In some postmodified noun phrases it is possible to use an *-s* genitive by affixing the inflection to the final part of the postmodification rather than to the head noun itself. Thus:

the *teacher's* room
the *teacher of music's* room
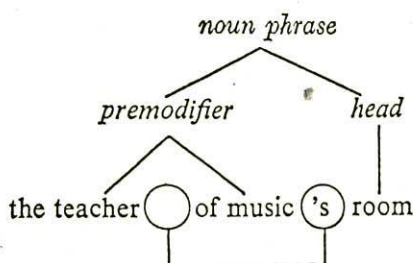
This 'group genitive' is regularly used with such postmodifications as in *someone else's house, the heir apparent's name,* as well as prepositional phrases. Other examples involve coordinations: *an hour and a half's discussion, a week or so's sunshine.* The group genitive is not normally acceptable following a clause, though in colloquial use one sometimes hears examples like:

Old man what-do-you-call-him's house has been painted
?A man I know's son has just been arrested

In normal use, especially in writing, such *-s* genitives would be replaced by *of*-genitives:

The son of a man I know has just been arrested

The genitive with ellipsis
4.75
The noun modified by the *-s* genitive may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear:

My car is faster than John's (*ie: than John's car*)
His memory is like an elephant's
John's is a nice car, too

With the *of*-genitive in comparable environments, a pronoun is normally necessary:

The population of New York is greater than *that* of Chicago

4.76

Ellipsis is especially noteworthy in expressions relating to premises or establishments:

I shall be at *Bill's*

Here *Bill's* would normally mean 'where Bill lives', even though the hearer might not know whether the appropriate head would be *house*, *apartment*, *flat*, *digs* (BrE); 'lives' is important, however, and *hotel room* (where Bill could only be 'staying') would be excluded. By contrast

I shall be at *the dentist's*

would refer to the dentist's professional establishment and the same applies to proper names where these refer to commercial firms. It would not be absurd to write:

I shall be at Harrod's/Foyle's/Macy's

This usage is normal also in relation to small 'one-man' businesses: *I buy my meat at Johnson's.*

With large businesses, however, their complexity and in some sense 'plurality' cause interpretation of the *-s* ending as the plural inflection, and the genitive meaning – if it survives – is expressed in writing by moving the apostrophe (*at Macys'*). On the other hand, conflict between plurality and the idea of a business as a collective unity results in vacillation in concord:

Harrods is/are very good for clothes

4.77
Double genitive

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

An opera of Verdi's   An opera of my friend's

but not:

*A sonata of a violinist's   *A funnel of the ship's

There are conditions which also affect the noun preceding the *of*-phrase. This cannot be a proper noun; thus while we have:

Mrs Brown's Mary

we cannot have:

    *Mary of Mrs Brown   *Mary of Mrs Brown's

Further, this noun must have indefinite reference: that is, it must be seen as one of an unspecified number of items attributed to the postmodifier:

A friend of the doctor's has arrived
*The daughter of Mrs Brown's has arrived
A daughter of Mrs Brown's has arrived
Any daughter of Mrs Brown's is welcome
*The *War Requiem* of Britten's

The double genitive thus involves a partitive (4.70) as one of its components: 'one of the doctor's friends' (he has more than one) and hence not '*one of Britten's *War Requiem*'. Yet we are able, in apparent defiance of this statement, to use demonstratives as follows:

    That wife of mine   This *War Requiem* of Britten's

In these instances, which always presuppose familiarity, the demonstratives are not being used in a directly defining role; rather, one might think of them as having an ellipted generic which allows us to see *wife* and *War Requiem* appositively as members of a class of objects: 'This instance of Britten's works, namely, *War Requiem*'.

Note
So too when 'A daughter of Mrs Brown's' is already established in the linguistic context, we could refer to 'The/That daughter of Mrs Brown's (that I mentioned)'.

Pronouns
4.78
Pronouns constitute a heterogeneous class of items (see *Fig* 4:3) with numerous subclasses. Despite their variety, there are several features that pronouns (or major subclasses of pronouns) have in common, which distinguish them from nouns:

    (1) They do not admit determiners (but *cf* 4.96);
    (2) They often have an objective case: 4.79;
    (3) They often have person distinction: 4.80;
    (4) They often have overt gender contrast: 4.81;
    (5) Singular and plural forms are often not morphologically related.

We can broadly distinguish between items with *specific* reference (4.83–90) and those with more *indefinite* reference (4.91–97).
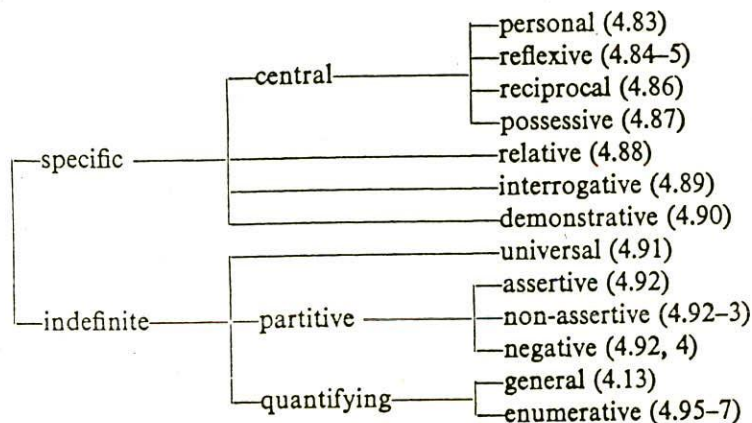
```
                                                    ┌─personal (4.83)
                                                    ├─reflexive (4.84–5)
                              ┌─central─────────────┤─reciprocal (4.86)
                              │                      └─possessive (4.87)
            ┌─specific ───────┤                      ─relative (4.88)
            │                 │                      ─interrogative (4.89)
            │                 └──────────────────────demonstrative (4.90)
            │                                         ─universal (4.91)
            │                                        ┌─assertive (4.92)
            └─indefinite──────┬─partitive ──────────┤─non-assertive (4.92–3)
                              │                      └─negative (4.92, 4)
                              │                      ┌─general (4.13)
                              └─quantifying──────────┴─enumerative (4.95–7)
```

Fig 4:3 Pronouns

Note
Many of the items dealt with here have an alternative (*this, which*) or exclusive (*my, her*) determiner function. The interrelations make it convenient, however, to bring them together.

4.79
Case

Like nouns, most pronouns in English have only two cases: COMMON (*somebody*) and GENITIVE (*somebody's*). But six pronouns have an objective case, thus presenting a three-case system, where common case is replaced by SUBJECTIVE and OBJECTIVE. There is identity between genitive and objective *her*, and partial overlap between subjective *who* and objective *who* (see 4.88). The genitives of personal pronouns are, in accordance with grammatical tradition and a primary meaning (4.70), called 'possessive pronouns'.

subjective	*I*	*we*	*he*	*she*	*they*	*who*
objective	*me*	*us*	*him*	*her*	*them*	*who(m)*
genitive	*my*	*our*	*his*	*her*	*their*	*whose*

There is no inflected or -*s* genitive with the demonstratives or with the indefinites except those in -*one*, -*body*.

4.80
Person

Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns (*Table* 4:1) have distinctions of person:

1st person refers to the speaker (*I*), or to the speaker and one or more others (*we*);

2nd person refers to the person(s) addressed (*you*);

3rd person refers to one or more other persons or things (*he/she/it, they*).

Table 4:1

PERSONAL, REFLEXIVE, POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

			PERSONAL PRONOUNS		REFLEX-IVE PRO-NOUNS	POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS	
			subj case	obj case		determiner function	nominal function
1st pers		sing	*I*	*me*	*myself*	*my*	*mine*
		pl	*we*	*us*	*ourselves*	*our*	*ours*
2nd pers		sing	*you*		*yourself*	*your*	*yours*
		pl			*yourselves*		
3rd pers	sing	masc	*he*	*him*	*himself*	*his*	
		fem	*she*	*her*	*herself*	*her*	*hers*
		non-personal	*it*		*itself*	*its*	
	pl		*they*	*them*	*themselves*	*their*	*theirs*

Note

Both 2nd person *you* and 3rd person *they* have an indefinite usage: 4.96 and Note.

4.81
Gender

In 3rd person singular, the personal, reflexive, and possessive pronouns distinguish in gender between masculine (*he/him/himself/his*), feminine (*she/her/herself/hers*), and non-personal (*it/itself/its*). Relative and interrogative pronouns and determiners distinguish between personal and non-personal gender: see 4.89.

4.82
Number

The 2nd person uses a common form for singular and plural in the personal and possessive series but has a separate plural in the reflexive (*yourself, yourselves*). *We*, the 1st person plural pronoun, does not denote 'more than I' (*cf: the boy ~ the boys*) but 'I plus one or more others'. There is thus an interrelation between number and person. *We* may exclude the person(s) addressed:

Are we [John and I] late, Mary? *(ie* 3rd + 1st)
('Yes, *you* are')

or it may be inclusive:

Are we [you and I] late, Mary? *(ie* 2nd + 1st)
('Yes, *we* are')

Are we [you, John, and I] late, Mary? *(ie* 2nd + 3rd + 1st)

See further 4.84.

Note
In several dialects, and fairly generally in familiar AmE, there are devices for indicating plural *you: you all* (Sthn AmE), *you guys*, etc.

4.83
Personal pronouns
The relation of personal to reflexive and possessive pronouns is shown in *Table* 4:1. Personal pronouns function as replacements for co-referential noun phrases in neighbouring (usually preceding) clauses:

John waited a while but eventually *he* went home
John told *Mary* that *she* should wait for *him*
When *John* arrived, *he* went straight to the bank

When a subordinate clause precedes the main as in this last example, the pronoun may anticipate its determining co-referent:

When *he* arrived, *John* went straight to the bank

The personal pronouns have two sets of case-forms. The subjective forms are used as subjects of finite verbs and often as subject complement:

He hoped the passenger would be Mary and indeed it was *she*

The objective forms are used as objects, and as prepositional complements. Especially in informal usage, they also occur as subject complements and as the subject (chiefly 1st person) of sentences whose predicates have been elided:

I saw *her* with *them;* at least, I thought it was *her*
A: Who broke the vase? B: *Me.*

Reflexive pronouns
4.84
Reflexive pronouns replace a co-referential noun phrase, normally within the same finite verb clause:

John has hurt *himself*
Mary intended to remind *herself*
The rabbit tore *itself* free

Mary told *John* that *she* would look after $\begin{cases} herself \\ him \\ *himself \end{cases}$

When a mixture of persons is involved, the reflexive conforms to a 1st person or, if there is no 1st person, to a 2nd person:

You, John and I mustn't deceive *ourselves*
You and John mustn't deceive *yourselves*

The indefinite *one* (4.96) has its own reflexive as in '*One* mustn't fool *oneself*', but other indefinites use *himself* or *themselves*:

No one must fool *himself*

4.85
In prepositional phrases expressing spatial relationship, usually between concretes, the personal pronouns are used despite co-reference with the subject:

He looked about *him*
Have you any money on *you*?
She had her fiancé beside *her*
They placed their papers in front of *them*

But reflexive pronouns are often preferred when the reference is metaphorical and emotive; in the following example, the reflexive is obligatory:

She was beside *herself* with rage

There are however non-metaphorical examples in which there is considerable vacillation:

She felt within *her(self)* the stirring limbs of the unborn child
Holding a yellow bathrobe around *her(self)*, she walked up to him

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

For somebody like $\begin{cases} me \\ myself \end{cases}$ this is a big surprise

My brother and $\begin{cases} I \\ myself \end{cases}$ went sailing yesterday

In a related but emphatic usage, reflexives occur in apposition, with positional mobility:

I've never been there *myself*
I *myself* have never been there
I have never *myself* been there

4.86
Reciprocal pronouns

We can bring together two sentences such as

John likes Mary   Mary likes John

with a reciprocal structure somewhat similar to a reflexive:

John and Mary like $\begin{cases} each \ other \\ one \ another \end{cases}$

In this example, with two antecedents, *each other* would be commoner, but where more than two are involved, *one another* is often preferred:

The four children are fond of *one another*
He put all the books beside *one another*

The reciprocal pronouns can be freely used in the genitive:

The students borrowed *each other's* notes

4.87
Possessive pronouns

The possessive pronouns combine genitive functions (as described for nouns with the -*s* genitive, 4.70 *ff*) with pronominal functions. In the latter respect, the co-referential item they replace may be in the same clause (as with reflexives) or a neighbouring one (as with the personal pronouns):

John has cut *his* finger; apparently there was a broken glass on *his* desk

The possessives belong to two series: the attributives (*my, your,* etc, which are syntactically determiners: 4.5) and the nominals (*mine, yours* etc, which are used like the genitive with ellipsis: 4.75). Compare

Mary's $\}$ book   The book is $\begin{cases} Mary's \\ hers \end{cases}$
Her

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

He stood at the door with *his* hat in *his* hand
Mary has broken *her* leg
Don't lose *your* balance!
They have changed *their* minds again!

The definite article is, however, usual in prepositional phrases related to the object, or, in passive constructions, the subject:

She took me by *the* hand
Somebody must have hit me on *the* head with a hammer
I must have been hit on *the* head with a hammer

4.88
Relative pronouns

The functions and interrelations of the relative pronouns are best handled in connection with relative clauses (13.8 *f*) and nominal relative clauses (11.16). Here we need only tabulate an inventory of the items, none of which shows number distinction.

(a) The *wh-* series reflects the gender (personal/non-personal) of the antecedent:

personal: *who, whom, whose*
non-personal: *which, whose*

There is an inflected genitive (used as a relative determiner: 'the man *whose* daughter') for both *who* and *which*, but there is a preference for the *of*-genitive (*of which*) with non-personal antecedents. The personal objective *whom* is often replaced by *who* but never when preceded by a preposition. For nominal relative clauses, there is the personal *whoever* and the non-personal pronoun and determiner *which(ever)*; in addition there is a nominal relative pronoun and determiner *what(ever)*: '*What(ever)* (money) I have you can borrow'.

(b) *That* is a general purpose relative pronoun, used irrespective of gender or case except that the genitive must involve postposed *of:* 'the knife *that* I broke the blade *of*' (informal).

(c) Zero is used identically to *that* except that it is unacceptable where the relative pronoun is subject in its clause:

The pen *I want* is missing
*The pen *writes best* is missing

4.89
Interrogative pronouns

The interrogatives are identical in form and in case relations with the relative pronouns, but in addition to the basic difference between interrogative and relative there are functional differences in detail.

(a) *Interrogative determiners*
personal: *whose*
personal or non-personal: *which, what*

(b) *Interrogative pronouns*
personal: *who, whom, whose*
non-personal: *what*
personal or non-personal: *which*

Whether as pronouns or determiners, *which* and *what* have a constant relationship to each other with respect to definiteness (4.20); *what* has indefinite reference and *which* has definite reference:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Which} \\ \text{What} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{girls} \\ \text{books} \end{array} \right\} \text{do you like best?}$$

Which here implies that the choice is made from a limited number of known girls or books, whereas *what* implies a choice from an indefinite number of girls or books, not previously specified. Moreover, the answer to a *which*-question would probably be more specific than the answer to a *what*-question. Like many other determiners (*eg: both* and *all*), *which* has an alternative *of*-phrase construction:

$$\text{Which (of the)} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{girls} \\ \text{books} \end{array} \right\} \text{do you like best?}$$

4.90
Demonstrative pronouns
The demonstratives have number contrast and can function both as determiners and pronouns. The general meanings of the two sets can be stated as 'near' and 'distant' reference:

	singular	plural
'near' reference:	*this*	*these*
'distant' reference:	*that*	*those*

In this respect, they match the pairs *here/there*, *now/then*, and, as with these, the relative immediacy and relative remoteness operates both literally and metaphorically:

> I like *these* (pictures, which are near me) better than *those*
> (pictures, over there on the far side)
> I like *this* (idea that you've just mentioned) better than *that*
> (other one that you wrote to me about last year)
> I will tell you *this* secret [forward or cataphoric reference] because
> you kept *that* other one [back or anaphoric reference] so faithfully

By further metaphorical extension, we have *this/these* used to connote interest and familiarity in informal style ('Then I saw, away in the distance, *this* lovely girl, and . . .'). There can be a corresponding emotive rejection implied in *that/those* ('Here is *that* awful Jones and *those* children of his').
As subject, pronouns may have personal or non-personal reference:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{This/That girl} \\ \text{This/That} \end{array} \right\} \text{is Mary} \qquad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{This/That pen} \\ \text{This/That} \end{array} \right\} \text{is mine}$$

In other than subject function, pronoun reference is non-personal:

$$\text{He is going to marry} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{this girl} \\ \text{*this} \end{array} \right. \qquad \text{I bought} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{this picture} \\ \text{this} \end{array} \right.$$

As relative antecedent, *that/those* can appear in formal use but there is no contrast with *this/these*, and only *those* can have personal reference:

He admired
$$\begin{cases} \text{that which was expensive (rare)} \\ \text{*that who danced well} \\ \text{those which were expensive} \\ \text{those who danced well} \end{cases}$$

4.91
Universal pronouns and determiners

The universal pronouns and determiners comprise *each, all, every,* and the *every* compounds. Two have *-s* genitives: *everyone's, everybody's*. Despite their singular form, the compounds have collective reference, and along with *every* they entail reference to a number of three or (usually) more. *Each* entails reference to two or more, and has individual reference. Thus:

There were two boys who called and I gave an apple to $\begin{cases} \text{each} \\ \text{*everybody} \end{cases}$

There were seven boys who called and I gave an apple to $\begin{cases} \text{each} \\ \text{everybody} \end{cases}$

There is, however, a meaning difference between *each* and *everybody*. *Each* refers to individuals already specified, whereas *everybody* does not:

I walked into the room and gave an apple to $\begin{cases} \text{*each} \\ \text{everybody} \end{cases}$

Every one, each (one), and *all* have *of*-constructions; and except *all*, these pronouns can have a singular or plural pronoun for co-reference:

$$\left.\begin{matrix} \text{Every one} \\ \text{Each} \\ \text{Each one} \end{matrix}\right\} \text{ of the students should have } \begin{cases} \text{their} \\ \text{his} \end{cases} \text{ own books}$$

Every can also be used with plural expressions such as *every two weeks, every few months,* and there is a universal place compound *everywhere* as in *Everywhere looks beautiful in the spring.*

Note
It all can also be used in reference to non-personal divisible count nouns:
    I have started *the book* but I haven't read *it all*

4.92
Partitive pronouns

Parallel to the universal pronouns, we have three sets of partitive pronouns with associated determiners: see *Table* 4:2. Their use can be illustrated as follows:

He saw *something/some* material
Did he see *anything/any* material?
He saw *nothing/no* material

As well as their use with plurals and non-count nouns (4.5), the determiners *some* and *any* can be used with singular count nouns when they are stressed. *Some* is frequently followed by *or other*:

ÀNY apology will satisfy them

There was ˈsome ˈBÒOK (or other) published on the subject last year

Note

[a] In familiar style, the stressed *some* means 'extraordinary':

That's ˈsome PÈN you have there!

[b] We should note the partitive place compounds as in *He went somewhere, Did he go anywhere?, He went nowhere.*

Table 4:2

UNIVERSAL AND PARTITIVE PRONOUNS AND DETERMINERS

| | | | COUNT | | NON-COUNT |
			Personal	Non-Personal	
UNIVERSAL	singular	pronoun	everyone everybody each	everything each (*place:* every- where)	it (. . .) all
		determiner	every each		all
	plural	pronoun	(they (. . .)) all/both (them) all/both		all
		predeter- miner	all/both		
PARTITIVE — Assertive	singular	pronoun	someone somebody	something (*place:* some- where)	some
		determiner	a(n)		some
	plural	pronoun and determiner	some		
PARTITIVE — Non-Assertive	singular	pronoun	anyone anybody	anything (*place:* anywhere)	any
		determiner	either any		any
	plural	pronoun and determiner	any		
PARTITIVE — Negative	singular	pronoun	no one nobody	nothing (*place:* nowhere)	none
			none		none
		pronoun and determiner	neither		
	plural	pronoun	none		
		determiner	no		

4.93
Non-assertive usage
The contexts which require the *any* series or 'non-assertive' forms (*cf* 7.35) chiefly involve

(a) the negatives *not, never, no, neither, nor;*
(b) the 'incomplete negatives' *hardly, little, few, least, seldom*, etc;
(c) the 'implied negatives' *before; fail, prevent; reluctant, hard, difficult,* etc; and comparisons with *too;*
(d) questions and conditions.

Although the main markers of non-assertion are negative, interrogative, and conditional clauses, it is the basic meaning of the whole sentence which ultimately determines the choice of the *some* or the *any* series. For example, in the sentence

Freud contributed more than anyone to the understanding
of dreams

the use of the non-assertive *anyone* is related to the fact that the basic meaning is negative, as appears in the paraphrase

Nobody contributed more to the understanding of dreams than
Freud

Conversely, *some* is often used in negative, interrogative, or conditional sentences, when the basic meaning is assertive ('positive orientation', see 7.46):

Did $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{somebody} \\ \text{anybody} \end{Bmatrix}$ telephone last night?

The difference between these last two can be explained in terms of different presuppositions: *somebody* suggests that the speaker expected a telephone call, whereas *anybody* does not. In making an invitation or an offer, it is for the same reason polite to presuppose an acceptance:

Would you like some wine?

Note
The following examples further illustrate the use of the *some* series in superficially non-assertive contexts:

If someone were to drop a match here, the house would be on fire in two minutes
But what if somebody decides to break the rules?
Will somebody please open the door?
Why don't you do something else?

Conversely, the *any* series is used with stress (*cf* 4.92) in superficially assertive sentences with the special meaning of 'no matter who, no matter what':

He will eat anything

Anyone interested in addressing the meeting should let us know
Any offer would be better than this
You must marry sŏMEone – and you mustn't marry just ÁNyone

4.94
Either, neither, and the negatives

Among the partitive pronouns, the relationship between *either*, *neither*, and *none* is similar to that between *each*, *every*, and *none* among the universal pronouns. Both as pronouns and as determiners, *either* and *neither* have in fact a strictly dual reference. Compare:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{None (of the } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{many}\\\text{thirty}\end{array}\right\} \text{ students)} \\ \text{Neither (of the [two])} \\ \text{Neither (student)} \end{array}\right\} \text{ failed the exam}$$

$$\text{Either } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{(of the [two] students)}\\\text{(student)}\end{array}\right\} \text{ may fail the exam}$$

4.95
Quantifiers

The general quantifiers used pronominally are (a) the 'multal' *many* and *much*, (b) the 'paucal' *few* and *little*, and (c) *several* and *enough*. Their use in respect to count and non-count reference matches the position outlined in connection with their determiner function: 4.13.

Numerals
4.96
The uses of one

(a) NUMERICAL *ONE* when used with animate and inanimate singular count nouns is a stressed variant of the indefinite article *a(n)*. It is in contrast with the dual *two* and *both* and the plural numerals *three*, *four*, etc; *several*, and indefinite *some*. It has similar contrasts when used pronominally:

$$\text{I need } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{a nail}\\\text{one}\end{array}\right. \sim \text{I need } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{some nails}\\\text{some}\end{array}\right.$$

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{(The) one}\\\qquad \text{A}\end{array}\right\} \text{boy/pen} \sim \text{One of the boys/pens}$$

(The) one is also in contrast with *the other* in the correlative construction:

One went this way, the other that way

Note that there is a somewhat formal or old-fashioned use of *one* meaning 'a certain' before personal proper names:

I remember one Charlie Brown at school

(b) REPLACIVE *ONE* is used as an anaphoric substitute for a singular or plural count noun. It has the singular form *one* and the plural *ones*. Replacive *one* can take determiners and modifiers (though not usually possessives or plural demonstratives):

> A: I am looking for a particular book on syntax.
> B: Is this *the one you mean*? (=Is this it?)
> A: Yes, I'd like a drink, but just *a small one*.
> B: I thought you preferred *large ones*.

It is modified by the *-s* genitive in preference to the *of*-genitive, in sharp contrast to the demonstratives which can take only the *of*-genitive; compare:

$$I \text{ prefer John's car to } \begin{cases} \text{his employer's one} \\ \text{that of his employer} \end{cases}$$

(c) INDEFINITE *ONE* means 'people in general', implying inclusion of the speaker. This use of *one* is chiefly formal and is often replaced by the more informal *you*:

$$\begin{rcases} \text{One would} \\ \text{You'd} \end{rcases} \text{ think they would run a later bus than that!}$$

Indefinite *one* has the genitive *one's* and the reflexive *oneself*. In AmE, repetition of co-referential *one* is characteristically formal, *he* or (informally) *you* being preferred instead:

$$\text{One can't be too careful, can } \begin{cases} \text{one?} \\ \text{you?} \end{cases}$$

Note
The corresponding indefinite which implies exclusion of the speaker is *they*: 'They say (=it is said that) they (=some relevant unspecified people) are going to dig up our street next month.'

4.97
Cardinals and ordinals

The system of cardinal (*one*, *two*, etc) and ordinal (*first*, *second*, etc) numerals will be clear from the following list. Both types can function pronominally or as premodifiers, except that *nought* occurs chiefly as the name of the numeral, being replaced by the determiner *no* or the pronoun *none* in general use. With *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, the indefinite article often replaces *one*. Pronominally, the ordinals are preceded by an article (*Today is the fourth of July*) and resemble superlatives with ellipted heads: *cf* 5.8.

0	nought, zero		
1	one	1st	first
2	two	2nd	second
3	three	3rd	third
4	four	4th	fourth
5	five	5th	fifth
6	six	6th	sixth
7	seven	7th	seventh
8	eight	8th	eighth
9	nine	9th	ninth
10	ten	10th	tenth
11	eleven	11th	eleventh
12	twelve	12th	twelfth
13	thirteen	13th	thirteenth
14	fourteen	14th	fourteenth
15	fifteen	15th	fifteenth
16	sixteen	16th	sixteenth
17	seventeen	17th	seventeenth
18	eighteen	18th	eighteenth
19	nineteen	19th	nineteenth
20	twenty	20th	twentieth
21	twenty-one, etc	21st	twenty-first, etc
30	thirty	30th	thirtieth
40	forty	40th	fortieth
50	fifty	50th	fiftieth
60	sixty	60th	sixtieth
70	seventy	70th	seventieth
80	eighty	80th	eightieth
90	ninety	90th	ninetieth
100	one hundred	100th	(one) hundredth
101	one hundred and one, etc	101st	(one) hundred and first, etc
1,000	one thousand	1,000th	(one) thousandth
100,000	one hundred thousand	100,000th	(one) hundred thousandth
1,000,000	one million	1,000,000th	(one) millionth

Bibliographical note

For theoretical discussion of nouns and noun phrases, see Sørensen (1958); Bach (1968). On reference and the articles, see Christophersen (1939); Robbins (1968). On relevant transformational studies, see Stockwell *et al* (1973), Ch 3, 4, 11.