English Language and English Grammar

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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ANMOL PUBLICATIONS PVT. LTD.
NEW DELHI-110 002 (INDIA)

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First Edition, 2013

ISBN 978-81-261-4941-4

PRINTED IN INDIA

Printed at Balaji Offset, Delhi.

Contents

Preface

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from Englaland and their language was called Englisc - from which the words England and English are derived. The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots.

In some countries where English is not the most spoken language, it is an official language; these countries include Botswana, Cameroon, the Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji,Gambia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malta, the Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines(Philippine English), Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, the Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, the Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

English grammar is the body of rules describing the properties of the English language. A language is such

that its elements must be combined according to certain patterns. This article is concerned with (and restricted to) morphology, the building blocks of language; and syntax, the construction of meaningful phrases, clauses and sentences with the use of morphemes and words. The grammar of any language is commonly approached in two different ways: descriptive, usually based on a systematic analysis of a large text corpus and describing grammatical structures thereupon; and prescriptive, which attempts to use the identified rules of a given language as a tool to govern the linguistic behaviour of speakers. Prescriptive grammar further concerns itself with several open disputes in English grammar, often representing changes in usage over time. This article predominantly concerns itself with descriptive grammar. There are historical, social and regional variations of English. For example, British English and American English have several lexical differences; however, the grammatical differences are not equally conspicuous, and will be mentioned only when appropriate. Further, the many dialects of English have divergences from the grammar described here; they are only cursorily mentioned.

This publication titled, "English Language and English Grammar" provides readers with an introductory understanding of English language and English grammar. Focus lies on English compounds, honorifics, personal pronouns, plurals and relative clauses. Special focus is laid on English verbs, tenses and sequence of tenses. The subject area of English sentence is dealt with focus on classification and synthesis or combination. English theories of communicative competence are discussed with focus on achieving language proficiency. The book is reader friendly as it is supported with glossary, annolated bibliography and index.

—Editor

1

Introduction to English Language and English Grammar

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is a West Germanic language that originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic invaders from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the Netherlands. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England. One of these dialects, Late West Saxon, eventually came to dominate. The original Old English language was then influenced by two further waves of invasion: the first by speakers of the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic language family, who conquered and colonized parts of Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries; the second by the Normans in the 11th century, who spoke Old Norman and ultimately developed an English variety of this called Anglo-Norman. These two invasions caused English to become "mixed" to some degree. Cohabitation with the Scandinavians resulted in a significant grammatical simplification and lexical enrichment of the Anglo-Frisian core of English; the later Norman occupation led to the grafting onto that Germanic core of a more elaborate layer of words from the Romance languages (Latin-based languages). This Norman influence entered English largely through the courts and government. Thus, English developed into a "borrowing"

language of great flexibility, resulting in an enormous and varied vocabulary.

Proto-English

The languages of Germanic peoples gave rise to the English language (the Angles, Saxons, Frisians, Jutes and possibly the Franks, who traded and fought with the Latin-speaking Roman Empire in the centuries-long process of the Germanic peoples' expansion into Western Europe during the Migration Period). Some Latin words for common objects entered the vocabulary of these Germanic peoples before their arrival in Britain and their subsequent formation of England.

The main source of information for the culture of the Germanic peoples (the ancestors of the English) in ancient times is Tacitus' *Germania*, written around 100 AD. While remaining conversant with Roman civilisation and its economy, including serving in the Roman military, they retained political independence. Some Germanic troops served in Britannia under the Romans. It is unlikely that Germanic settlement in Britain was intensified (except for Frisians) until the arrival of mercenaries in the 5th century as described by Gildas. As it was, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes arrived as Germanic pagans, independent of Roman control.

According to the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, around the year 449, Vortigern, King of the Britons, invited the "Angle kin" (Angles allegedly led by the Germanic brothers Hengist and Horsa) to help him in conflicts with the Picts. In return, the Angles were granted lands in the southeast of Britain. Further aid was sought, and in response "came men of Ald Seaxum of Anglum of Iotum" (Saxons, Angles and Jutes). The *Chronicle* talks of a subsequent influx of settlers who eventually established seven kingdoms, known as the heptarchy. However, modern scholars view the figures of Hengist and Horsa as Euhemerized deities from Anglo-Saxon paganism, who ultimately stem from the religion of the Proto-Indo-Europeans.

Old English

The invaders' Germanic language displaced the indigenous Brythonic languages in most of the areas of Great Britain that were later to become England. The original Celtic languages remained in parts of Scotland, Wales and Cornwall (where Cornish was spoken into the 19th century). The Germanic dialects combined to form what is now called Old English. The most famous surviving work from the Old English period is the epic poem *Beowulf* composed by an unknown poet.

Old English did not sound or look like the Standard English of today. Any native English speaker of today would find Old English unintelligible without studying it as a separate language. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English; and many non-standard dialects such as Scots and Northumbrian English have retained many features of Old English in vocabulary and pronunciation. Old English was spoken until sometime in the 12th or 13th century.

Later, English was strongly influenced by the North Germanic language Old Norse, spoken by the Norsemen who invaded and settled mainly in the north-east of England (see Jórvík and Danelaw). The new and the earlier settlers spoke languages from different branches of the Germanic family; many of their lexical roots were the same or similar, although their grammars were more distinct.

The Germanic language of these Old English-speaking inhabitants was influenced by contact with Norse invaders, which might have been responsible for some of the morphological simplification of Old English, including the loss of grammatical gender and explicitly marked case (with the notable exception of the pronouns). English words of Old Norse origin include *anger*, *bag*, *both*, *hit*, *law*, *leg*, *same*, *skill*, *sky*, *take*, and many others, possibly even including the pronoun *they*.

The introduction of Christianity added another wave of Latin and some Greek words. The Old English period formally ended sometime after the Norman conquest (starting in 1066 AD), when the language was influenced to an even greater extent by the Norman-speaking Normans. The use of Anglo-Saxon to describe a merging of Anglian and Saxon languages and cultures is a relatively modern development.

Middle English

For about 300 years following the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Norman kings and their high nobility spoke only one of the *langues d'oïl* called Anglo-Norman, which was a variety of Old Norman used in England and to some extent elsewhere in the British Isles during the Anglo-Norman period and originating from a northern dialect of Old French, whilst English continued to be the language of the common people. Middle English was influenced by both Anglo-Norman and, later, Anglo-French (see characteristics of the Anglo-Norman language).

Even after the decline of Norman, French retained the status of a formal or prestige language and had (with Norman) a significant influence on the language, which is visible in Modern English today (see English language word origins and List of English words of French origin). A tendency for Norman-derived words to have more formal connotations has continued to the present day; most modern English speakers would consider a "cordial reception" (from French) to be more formal than a "hearty welcome" (Germanic). Another example is the very unusual construction of the words for animals being separate from the words for their meat: *e.g.,* beef and pork (from the Norman *bœuf* and *porc*) being the products of 'cows' and 'pigs', animals with Germanic names.

English was also influenced by the Celtic languages it was displacing, especially the Brittonic substrate, most notably with the introduction of the continuous aspect—a

feature found in many modern languages but developed earlier and more thoroughly in English.

While the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* continued until 1154, most other literature from this period was in Old Norman or Latin. A large number of Norman words were taken into Old English, with many doubling for Old English words. The Norman influence is the hallmark of the linguistic shifts in English over the period of time following the invasion, producing what is now referred to as Middle English.

The most famous writer from the Middle English period was Geoffrey Chaucer, and *The Canterbury Tales* is his best-known work.

English literature started to reappear around 1200, when a changing political climate and the decline in Anglo-Norman made it more respectable. The Provisions of Oxford, released in 1258, was the first English government document to be published in the English language since the Conquest. In 1362, Edward III became the first king to address Parliament in English. By the end of that century, even the royal court had switched to English. Anglo-Norman remained in use in limited circles somewhat longer, but it had ceased to be a living language.

English spelling was also influenced by Norman in this period, with the /è/ and /ð/ sounds being spelled *th* rather than with the Old English letters þ (thorn) and ð (eth), which did not exist in Norman. (These letters remain in the modern Icelandic alphabet, which is descended from the alphabet of Old Norse.

Early Modern English

Modern English is often dated from the Great Vowel Shift, which took place mainly during the 15th century. English was further transformed by the spread of a standardised London-based dialect in government and administration and by the standardising effect of printing.

By the time of William Shakespeare (mid-late 16th century), the language had become clearly recognizable as Modern English. In 1604, the first English dictionary was published, the *Table Alphabeticall*.

English has continuously adopted foreign words, especially from Latin and Greek, since the Renaissance. (In the 17th century, Latin words were often used with the original inflections, but these eventually disappeared). As there are many words from different languages and English spelling is variable, the risk of mispronunciation is high, but remnants of the older forms remain in a few regional dialects, most notably in the West Country.

Modern English

In 1755, Samuel Johnson published the first significant English dictionary, his Dictionary of the English Language. The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the Earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

Modern English is the form of the English language spoken since the Great Vowel Shift in England, completed in roughly 1550. Despite some differences in vocabulary, texts from the early 17th century, such as the works of William Shakespeare and the King James Bible, are considered to be in Modern English, or more specifically, are referred to as using Early Modern English or Elizabethan English. English was adopted in regions around the world, such as North America, India, Africa, Australia and New Zealand through colonisation by the British Empire.

Modern English has a large number of dialects spoken in diverse countries throughout the world. This includes American English, Australian English, British English,

Canadian English, Caribbean English, Hiberno-English, Indo-Pakistani English, Nigerian English, New Zealand English, Philippine English, Singaporean English, and South African English.

According to the Ethnologue, there are over 1 billion speakers of English as a first or second language as of 1999. English is spoken in a vast number of territories including the United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan, Singapore and Southern Africa. Its large number of speakers, plus its worldwide presence, have made English a common language for use in such diverse applications as controlling aircraft, developing software, conducting international diplomacy, and business relations.

Influences

Early Modern English lacked uniformity in spelling, but Samuel Johnson's dictionary, published in 1755 in England, was influential in establishing a standard form of spelling. Noah Webster did the same in America, publishing his dictionary in 1828; see American and British English spelling differences.

Public education increased literacy, and more people had access to books (and therefore to a standard language) with the spread of public libraries in the 19th century. Many words entered English from other languages as a result of contact with other cultures through trade and settlement and from the migration of large numbers of people to the United States from other countries. World War I and World War II threw together people from different backgrounds, and the greater social mobility afterwards helped to lessen the differences between social accents, at least in the UK. The development of radio broadcasting in the early 20th century familiarised the population with accents and vocabulary from outside their own localities, often for the first time, and this phenomenon continued with film and television.

Outline of Changes

The following is an outline of the major changes in Modern English compared to its previous form (Middle English). Note, however, that these are generalizations, and some of these may not be true for specific dialects:

Syntax

- disuse of the T-V distinction (thou, ye).
- use of auxiliary verbs becomes mandatory in interrogative sentences.
- rise and fall of prescriptive grammarians.

Alphabet

Changes in alphabet and spelling were heavily influenced by the advent of printing and continental printing practices.

- The letter thorn (*þ*), which was already being replaced by *th* in Middle English, finally fell into disuse. The last vestige of the letter was writing *the* as *þ*, which was still seen occasionally in the King James Bible of 1611.
- The letters *i* and *j*, previously written as a single letter, began to be distinguished; likewise for *u* and *v*. This was a common development of the Latin alphabet during this period.

Consequently, Modern English came to use a purely Latin alphabet of 26 letters.

Middle English

Middle English is the stage in the history of the English language during the High and Late Middle Ages, or roughly during the four centuries between the late 11th and the late 15th century.

Middle English develops out of Late Old English in Norman England (1066–1154) and is spoken throughout the Plantagenet era (1154–1485). The end of the Middle English period is set at about 1470, when the Chancery

Standard, a form of London-based English, began to become widespread, a process aided by the introduction of the printing press to England by William Caxton in the late 1470s. By that time the variant of the Northumbrian dialect (prevalent in Northern England) spoken in southeast Scotland was developing into the Scots language. The language of England as used after 1470 and up to 1650 is known as Early Modern English.

Unlike Old English, which tended largely to adopt Late West Saxon scribal conventions in the period immediately before the Norman conquest of England, written Middle English displays a wide variety of scribal (and presumably dialectal) forms. This diversity suggests the gradual end of the role of Wessex as a focal point and trend-setter for writers and scribes, the emergence of more distinct local scribal styles and written dialects, and a general pattern of transition of activity over the centuries that followed, as Northumbria, East Anglia, and London successively emerged as major centres of literature, each with their own particular interests.

Middle English literature of the 12th and 13th century is comparatively rare, as written communication was usually in Anglo-Norman or in Latin. Middle English becomes much more important as a literary language during the 14th century, with poets such as Chaucer and Langland.

History

Important texts for the reconstruction of the evolution of Middle English out of Old English are the *Ormulum* (12th century), the *Ancrene Wisse* and the Katherine Group (early 13th century, see AB language) and *Ayenbite of Inwyt* (ca. 1340).

The second half of the 11th century is the transitional period from Late Old English to Early Middle English. Early Middle English is the language of the 12th and 13th centuries. Middle English is fully developed as a literary language by the second half of the 14th century. Late

Middle English and the transition to Early Modern English takes place from the early 15th century and is taken to have been complete by the beginning of the Tudor period in 1485.

Transition from Old English

Norman in the Kingdom of England

The transfer of power in 1066 resulted in only limited culture shock; however, the top levels of English-speaking political and ecclesiastical hierarchies were removed. Their replacements spoke Norman and used Latin for administrative purposes. Thus Norman came into use as a language of polite discourse and literature, and this fundamentally altered the role of Old English in education and administration, even though many Normans of the early period were illiterate and depended on the clergy for written communication and record-keeping. Although Old English was by no means as standardised as modern English, its written forms were less subject to broad dialect variations than was post-Conquest English. Even now, after nearly a thousand years, the Norman influence on the English language is still apparent, though it did not begin to affect Middle English until somewhat later.

Consider these pairs of Modern English words. The first of each pair is derived from Old English and the second is of Anglo-Norman origin: pig/pork, chicken/poultry, calf/veal, cow/beef, wood/forest, sheep/mutton, house/mansion, worthy/honourable, bold/courageous, freedom/liberty.

The role of Anglo-Norman as the language of government and law can be seen in the abundance of Modern English words for the mechanisms of government which derive from Anglo-Norman: *court*, *judge*, *jury*, *appeal*, *parliament*. Also prevalent in Modern English are terms relating to the chivalric cultures which arose in the 12th century, an era of feudalism and crusading. Early on, this vocabulary of refined behaviour began to work its way into English:

the word 'debonaire' appears in the 1137 Peterborough Chronicle; so too does 'castel' (castle) which appears in the above Biblical quotation, another import of the Normans, who made their mark on the English language as much as on the territory of England itself.

This period of trilingual activity developed much of the flexible triplicate *synonymy* of modern English. For instance, English has three words meaning roughly "of or relating to a king":

- *kingly* from Old English,
- *royal* from French and
- *regal* from Latin.

Likewise, Norman and — later — French influences led to some interesting word pairs in English, such as the following, which both mean "someone who defends":

- *Warden* from Norman, and
- *Guardian* from French (itself of Germanic origin).

Old and Middle English

The end of Anglo-Saxon rule did not of course change the language immediately. Although the most senior offices in the church were filled by Normans, Old English would continue to be used in chronicles such as the Peterborough Chronicle until the middle of the 12th century. The non-literate would have spoken the same dialects as before the Conquest, although these would be changing slowly until written records of them became available for study, which varies in different regions. Once the writing of Old English comes to an end, Middle English has no standard language, only dialects which derive from the dialects of the same regions in the Anglo-Saxon period.

Early Middle English

Early Middle English (1100–1300) has a largely Norman vocabulary (in the North, with many Norse borrowings). But it has a greatly simplified inflectional system. The

grammatical relations that were expressed in Old English by the dative and locative cases are replaced in Early Middle English with constructions with prepositions. This replacement is incomplete. We still today have the Old English genitive "*-es*" in many words—we now call it the "possessive": the form dog's for "of the dog". But most of the other case endings disappear in the Early ME period, including most of the roughly one dozen forms of the word *the*. The grammatical number "dual" also disappear from English during the Early ME period (apart from personal pronouns), further simplifying the language.

Deeper changes occurred in the grammar. Bit by bit, the wealthy and the government anglicised again, although Norman (and subsequently French) remained the dominant language of literature and law for a few centuries, even after the loss of the majority of the continental possessions of the English monarchy. The new English language did not sound the same as the old: for as well as undergoing changes in vocabulary, the complex system of inflected endings which Old English had was gradually lost or simplified in the dialects of spoken Middle English. This change was gradually reflected in its increasingly diverse written forms too. The loss of case-endings was part of a general trend from inflections to fixed word order that also occurred in other Germanic languages, so cannot be attributed simply to the influence of French-speaking sections of the population. English remained, after all, the language of the vast majority.

14th Century

In the later 14th century, Chancery Standard (or London English) — a phenomenon produced by the increase of bureaucracy in London, and the concomitant increase in London literary output — introduced a greater conformity in English spelling. Many loanwords of French origin entered Middle English during the 14th century, especially in learned fields (e.g. *theology*, *zodiac*) and poetry (*paramour*, *romance*), but also military terminology (e.g. *retreat*, *esquire*).

The fame of Middle English literature tends to derive principally from the later 14th century, with the works of Geoffrey Chaucer and of John Gower.

The ruling class began to use Middle English increasingly around this time. The Parliament of England used English from about the 1360s, and the king's court used mainly English from the time of King Henry V (who acceded in 1413). The oldest surviving correspondence in English, by Sir John Hawkwood, dates from the 1390s. By the end of the 14th century, with some standardisation of the language, English began to exhibit the more recognisable forms of grammar and syntax that would form the basis of future standard dialects. English had become standard for oral argument (replacing Law French, from Anglo-Norman) 50 years earlier, in the Pleading in English Act 1362, but Latin continued in written legal use for another 300 years, until the Proceedings in Courts of Justice Act 1730.

Late Middle English

The Late Middle English period was a time of upheaval in England. After the deposition of Richard II of England in 1399, the House of Plantagenet split into the House of Lancaster and the House of York, whose antagonism culminated in the Wars of the Roses (1455–1487). Stability came only gradually with the Tudor dynasty under Henry VII.

During this period, societal change, men coming into positions of power, some of them from other parts of the country or from lower levels in society, resulted also in linguistic change. Towards the end of the 15th century a more modern English was starting to emerge. Printing began in England in the 1470s, which tended to stabilise the language. With a standardised, printed English Bible and Prayer Book being read to church congregations from the 1540s onward, a wider public became familiar with a standard language, and the era of Modern English was under way.

Chancery Standard

Chancery Standard was a written form of English used by government bureaucracy and for other official purposes during the 15th century. It is transitional between Late Middle English and Early Modern English.

The Chancery Standard was developed during the reign of King Henry V (1413 to 1422) in response to his order for his chancery (government officials) to use, like himself, English rather than Anglo-Norman or Latin. It had become broadly standardised by about the 1430s, and it served as a widely intelligible form of English for the first English printers, from the 1470s onwards. As a result, it has contributed significantly to the form of Standard English as it developed during the Elizabethan Era, and by extension to the Standard English of today.

Chancery Standard was largely based on the London and East Midland dialects, for those areas were the political and demographic centres of gravity. However, it used other dialect forms where they made meanings clearer; for example, the northern "they", "their" and "them" (derived from Scandinavian forms) were used rather than the London "hi/they", "hir" and "hem." This was perhaps because the London forms could be confused with words such as he, her, and him. (However, the colloquial form written as "'em", as in "up and at 'em", may well represent a spoken survival of "hem" rather than a shortening of the Norse-derived "them".)

In its early stages of development, the clerks who used Chancery Standard would have been familiar with French and Latin. The strict grammars of those languages influenced the construction of the standard. It was not the only influence on later forms of English — its level of influence is disputed and a variety of spoken dialects continued to exist — but it provided a core around which Early Modern English could crystallise.

By the mid-15th century, Chancery Standard was used for most official purposes except by the Church (which used Latin) and for some legal purposes (for which Law French and some Latin were used). It was disseminated around England by bureaucrats on official business, and slowly gained prestige.

Construction

With its simplified case-ending system, the grammar of Middle English is much closer to that of modern English than that of Old English. Compared to other Germanic languages, it is probably most similar to that of modern Dutch.

Nouns

Middle English retains only two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English. The early Modern English words *engel* (angel) and *name* (name) demonstrate the two patterns:

	singular	*plural*	*singular*	*plural*
nom/acc	engel	engles	name	namen
gen	engles*	engle(ne)**	name	namen
dat	engle	engle(s)	name	namen

The strong -(e)s plural form has survived into Modern English. The weak -(e)n form is now rare in the standard language, used only in *oxen*, *children*, *brethren*; and it is slightly less rare in some dialects, used in *eyen* for *eyes*, *shoon* for *shoes*, *hosen* for *hose(s)* and *kine* for *cows*.

Verbs

As a general rule (and all these rules are general), the first person singular of verbs in the present tense ends in -e ("ich here" - "I hear"), the second person in -(e)st ("þou spekest" - "thou speakest"), and the third person in -eþ ("he comeþ" - "he cometh/he comes").

In the past tense, weak verbs are formed by adding an -ed(e), -d(e) or -t(e) ending. These, without their personal endings, also form past participles, together with past-participle prefixes derived from Old English: i-, y- and sometimes bi-.

Strong verbs, by contrast, form their past tense by changing their stem vowel (e.g. binden -> bound), as in Modern English.

Pronouns

Post-Conquest English inherits its pronouns from Old English, with the exception of the third person plural, a borrowing from Old Norse (the original Old English form clashed with the third person singular and was eventually dropped).

The first and second person pronouns in Old English survived into Middle English largely unchanged, with only minor spelling variations. In the fourth person, the masculine vocative singular became 'him'.

The neuter form was replaced by a form of the demonstrative that developed into 'sche', but unsteadily—'heyr' remained in some areas for a long time.

The lack of a strong standard written form between the thirteenth and the fifteenth century makes these changes hard to map.

The overall trend was the gradual reduction in the number of different case endings: the locative case disappeared, but the six other cases were partly retained in personal pronouns, as in *he*, *him*, *his*.

Orthography

Pronunciation

Generally, all letters in Middle English words were pronounced. (Silent letters in Modern English come from pronunciation shifts, which means that pronunciation is no longer closely reflected by the written form because of

fixed spelling constraints imposed by the invention of dictionaries and printing.) Therefore 'knight' was pronounced [ÈÆkniçt] (with a pronounced <k> and the <gh> as the <ch> in German 'Knecht').

In earlier Middle English all written vowels were pronounced. By Chaucer's time, however, the final <e> had become silent in normal speech, but could optionally be pronounced in verse as the meter required (but was normally silent when the next word began with a vowel).

Chaucer followed these conventions: -e is silent in 'kowthe' and 'Thanne', but is pronounced in 'straunge', 'ferne', 'ende', etc. (Presumably, the final <y> is partly or completely dropped in 'Caunterbury', so as to make the meter flow.)

An additional rule in speech, and often in poetry as well, was that a non-final unstressed <e> was dropped when adjacent to only a single consonant on either side if there was another short 'e' in an adjoining syllable.

Thus, 'every' sounds like "evry" and 'palmeres' like "palmers".

Sample Texts

Ormulum, 12th Century

This passage explains the background to the Nativity:

> As soon as the time camethat our Lord wantedto be born in this middle-earthfor the sake of all mankind,at once he chose kinsmen for himself,all just as he wanted,and he decided that he would be bornexactly where he wished. (3494–501)

Wycliffe's Bible, 1384

From the Wycliffe's Bible, (1384):

> And it is don, aftirward Jesus made iourne bi cites & castelis prechende & euangelisende þe rewme of god, & twelue wiþ hym & summe wymmen þat weren helid of wicke spiritis & sicnesses, marie þat is clepid maudeleyn, of whom seuene

deuelis wenten out & Jone þe wif off chusi procuratour of eroude, & susanne & manye oþere þat mynystreden to hym of her facultes

—Luke ch.8, v.1–3

And it came to pass afterward, that he went throughout every city and village, preaching and showing the glad tidings of the kingdom of God: and the twelve were with him, and certain women, which had been healed of evil spirits and infirmities, Mary called Magdalene, out of whom went seven devils, and Joanna the wife of Chuza Herod's steward, and Susanna, and many others, which ministered unto him of their substance.

—Translation of Luke ch.8 v.1–3,
from the New Testament

Chaucer, 1390s

The following is the beginning of the general Prologue from *The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer. The text was written in a dialect associated with London and spellings associated with the then emergent chancery standard.

Original in Middle English: Whan that Aprill, with his shoures soote The droghte of March hath perced to the roote And bathed every veyne in swich licour, Of which vertu engendred is the flour; Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth Inspired hath in every holt and heeth The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne, And smale foweles maken melodye, That slepen al the nyght with open ye (So priketh hem Nature in hir corages); Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes; And specially from every shires ende Of Engelond, to Caunterbury they wende, The hooly blisful martir for to seke That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke.Translation into Modern English: (by Nevill Coghill) When in April the sweet showers fall And pierce the drought of March to the root, and all The veins are bathed in liquor of such power As brings about the engendering of the flower, When also

Zephyrus with his sweet breath Exhales an air in every grove and heath Upon the tender shoots, and the young sun His half course in the sign of the *Ram* has run And the small fowl are making melody That sleep away the night with open eye, (So nature pricks them and their heart engages) Then folk long to go on pilgrimages, And palmers long to seek the stranger strands Of far off saints, hallowed in sundry lands, And specially from every shires' end Of England, down to Canterbury they wend The holy blissful martyr, quick To give his help to them when they were sick

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

Early Modern English (often abbreviated EModE) is the stage of the English language used from about the end of the Middle English period (the latter half of the 15th century) to 1650. Thus, the first edition of the King James Bible and the works of William Shakespeare both belong to the late phase of Early Modern English. Prior to and following the accession of James I to the English throne the emerging English standard began to influence the spoken and written Middle Scots of Scotland. Current readers of English are generally able to understand Early Modern English, though occasionally with difficulties arising from grammar changes, changes in the meanings of some words, and spelling differences. The standardisation of English spelling falls within the Early Modern English period and is influenced by conventions predating the Great Vowel Shift, which is the reason for much of the non-phonetic spelling of contemporary Modern English.

Pronouns

In Early Modern English, there were two second-person personal pronouns: *thou*, the informal singular pronoun, and *ye*, which was both the plural pronoun and the formal singular pronoun. (This usage is analogous to the modern French *tu* and *vous* and modern southern German *du* and *Ihr*). *Thou* was already falling out of use in the Early

Modern English period, but remained customary for addressing God and certain other solemn occasions, and sometimes for addressing inferiors.

Like other personal pronouns, *thou* and *ye* had different forms depending on their grammatical case; specifically, the objective form of *thou* was *thee*, its possessive forms were *thy* and *thine*, and its reflexive or emphatic form was *thyself*; while the objective form of *ye* was *you*, its possessive forms were *your* and *yours*, and its reflexive or emphatic forms were *yourself* and *yourselves*.

In other respects, the pronouns were much the same as today. One difference is that *my* and *thy* became *mine* and *thine* before words beginning with a vowel or the letter *h* (or, more accurately, the older forms "mine" and "thine" had become "my" and "thy" before words beginning with a consonant other than "h," while "mine" and "thine" were retained before words beginning with a vowel or "h"); thus, *mine eyes*, *thine hand*, and so on.

1. The possessive forms were used as genitives before words beginning with a vowel sound and letter *h* (e.g. *thine eyes*, *mine heire*). Otherwise, "my" and "thy" is attributive *(my/thy goods)* and "mine" and "thine" are predicative *(they are mine/thine)*. Shakespeare pokes fun at this custom with an archaic plural for *eyes* when the character Bottom says "mine eyen" in *A Midsummer Night's Dream*.
2. From the early Early Modern English period up until the 17th century, *his* was the possessive of the third person neuter *it* as well as of the 3rd person masculine *he*. Genitive "it" appears once in the 1611 King James Bible (Leviticus 25:5) as *groweth of it owne accord*.

Orthographic Conventions

The orthography of Early Modern English was fairly similar to that of today, but spelling was unphonetic and unstable. For example, the word *acuity* could be spelled

either <acuity> or <acuitie>. Furthermore, there were a number of features of spelling that have not been retained:

- The letter <S> had two distinct lowercase forms: <s> (*short s*) as used today, and <n> (*long s*). The short s was used at the end of a word, and the long s everywhere else, except that the double lowercase *S* was variously written <nn> or <ns>. This is similar to the alternation between medial (ó) and final lower case sigma (ò) in Greek.
- <u> and <v> were not yet considered two distinct letters, but different forms of the same letter. Typographically, <v> was used at the start of a word and <u> elsewhere; hence *vnmoued* (for modern *unmoved*) and *loue* (for *love*).
- <i> and <j> were also not yet considered two distinct letters, but different forms of the same letter, hence "ioy" for "joy" and "iust" for "just".
- The letter <Þ> (thorn (letter)) was still in use during the Early Modern English period, though increasingly limited to hand-written texts. In print, <p> was often represented by <Y>.
- A silent <e> was often appended to words. The last consonant was sometimes doubled when this <e> was appended; hence *npeake*, *cowarde*, *manne* (for *man*), *runne* (for *run*).
- The sound /Œ/ was often written <o> (as in *son*); hence *nommer*, *plombe* (for modern *summer*, *plumb*).

Nothing was standard, however. For example, "Julius Caesar" could be spelled "Julius Cænar", "Ivlivs Cænar", "Jvlivs Cænar", or "Iulius Cænar" and the word "he" could be spelled "he" or "hee" in the same sentence, as it is found in Shakespeare's plays.

Verbs

Marking Tense and Number

During the Early Modern period, English verb inflections

became simplified as they evolved towards their modern forms:

- The third person singular present lost its alternate inflections; '-(e)th' became obsolete while *-s* survived. (The alternate forms' coexistence can be seen in Shakespeare's phrase, "With her, that *hateth* thee and *hates* vs all").
- The plural present form became uninflected. Present plurals had been marked with *-en*, *-th*, or *-s* (*-th* and *-s* survived the longest, especially with the plural use of *is*, *hath*, and *doth*). Marked present plurals were rare throughout the Early Modern period, though, and *-en* was probably only used as a stylistic affectation to indicate rural or old-fashioned speech.
- The second person singular was marked in both the present and past tenses with *-st* or *-est* (for example, in the past tense, *walkedst* or *gav'st*). Since the indicative past was not (and is not) otherwise marked for person or number, the loss of *thou* made the past subjunctive indistinguishable from the indicative past for all verbs except *to be*.

Modal Auxiliaries

The modal auxiliaries cemented their distinctive syntactical characteristics during the Early Modern period. Thus, modals' use without an infinitive became rare (as in "I must to Coventry"; "I'll none of that"). Use of modals' present participles to indicate aspect (from 1556: "Maeyinge suffer no more the loue & deathe of Aurelio"), and of their preterite forms to indicate tense ("He follow'd Horace so very close, that of necessity he must fall with him") also became uncommon.

Some verbs ceased to function as modals during the Early Modern period. The present form of *must*, *mot*, became obsolete. *Dare* also lost the syntactical characteristics of a

modal auxiliary, evolving a new past form (*dared*) distinct from the modal *durst*.

Perfect and Progressive Forms

The perfect of the verbs had not yet been standardized to use uniformly the auxiliary verb "to have". Some took as their auxiliary verb "to be", as in this example from the King James Bible, "But which of you ... will say unto him ... when he is come from the field, Go and sit down..." [Luke XVII:7]. The rules that determined which verbs took which auxiliaries were similar to those still observed in German and French (see unaccusative verb).

The modern syntax used for the progressive aspect ("I am walking") became dominant by the end of the Early Modern period, but other forms were also common. These included the prefix a- ("I am a-walking") and the infinitive paired with "do" ("I do walk"). Moreover, the *to be + -ing verb* form could be used to express a passive meaning without any additional markers: "The house is building" could mean "The house is being built."

Vocabulary

Although the language is otherwise very similar to that current, there have in time developed a few "false friends" within the English language itself, rendering difficulty in understanding even the still-prestigious phrasing of the King James Bible. An example is the passage, "Suffer the little children"; meaning, "Permit ..." (this usage of the word "suffer" is still found in some dialects in formal circumstances; it is also the source of the words "sufferance" and "suffrage").

Development from Middle English

The change from Middle English to Early Modern English was not just a matter of vocabulary or pronunciation changing: it was the beginning of a new era in the history of English.

An era of linguistic change in a language with large variations in dialect was replaced by a new era of a more standardized language with a richer lexicon and an established (and lasting) literature. Shakespeare's plays are familiar and comprehensible today, 400 years after they were written, but the works of Geoffrey Chaucer and William Langland, written only 200 years earlier, are considerably more difficult for the average reader.

Timeline

- 1476 – William Caxton starts printing in Westminster, however, the language he uses reflects the variety of styles and dialects used by the authors whose work he prints.
- 1485 – Tudor dynasty established; start of period of (relative) political and social stability. Caxton publishes Thomas Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*, the first print bestseller in English. Malory's language, while archaic in some respects, is clearly Early Modern, possibly a Yorkshire or Midlands dialect.
- 1491 or 1492 – Richard Pynson starts printing in London; his style tends to prefer Chancery Standard, the form of English used by government.
- c. 1509 – Pynson becomes the king's official printer.
- From 1525 – Publication of William Tyndale's Bible translation (which was initially banned).
- 1539 – Publication of the *Great Bible*, the first officially authorised Bible in English, edited by Myles Coverdale, largely from the work of Tyndale. This Bible is read to congregations regularly in churches, familiarising much of the population of England with a standard form of the language.
- 1549 – Publication of the first *Book of Common Prayer* in English, under the supervision of Thomas Cranmer. This book standardises much of the wording of church services. Some have argued that, since attendance at prayer book services was

required by law for many years, the repetitive use of the language of the prayer book helped to standardize modern English.

- 1557 – Publication of *Tottel's Miscellany*.
- c. 1590 to c. 1612 – William Shakespeare's plays written; they are still widely read and familiar in the 21st century.
- 1607 - The first successful permanent English colony in the New World, Jamestown, is established in Virginia. The beginnings of American English.
- 1611 – The *King James Bible* is published, largely based on Tyndale's translation. It remains the standard Bible in the Church of England for many years.
- c. 1640–1660 – Period of social upheaval in England (the English Civil War and the era of Oliver Cromwell).
- 1651 – Publication of *Leviathan* by Thomas Hobbes.
- 1662 – New edition of the *Book of Common Prayer*, largely based on the 1549 and subsequent editions. This also long remains a standard work in English.
- 1667 – Publication of *Paradise Lost*, by John Milton.

Development to Modern English

The 17th century port towns (and their forms of speech) would have gained in influence over the old county towns. England experienced a new period of internal peace and relative stability, encouraging the arts including literature, from around the 1690s onwards. Another important episode in the development of the English language started around 1607: the English settlement of America. By 1750 a distinct American dialect of English had developed.

There are still elements of Early Modern English in some dialects. For example, *thee* and *thou* can still be heard in the Black Country, some parts of Yorkshire and Dawley, Telford. The pronunciation of *book*, *cook*, *look*, etc.

with a long can be heard in some areas of the North and the West Country. However, these are becoming less frequent with each generation.

ENGLISH ARTICLES

The articles in English include the definite article *the* and the indefinite articles *a* and *an*.

General Usage

In English, nouns must in most cases be preceded by an article that specifies the definiteness of the noun. The definite article is *the* in all cases, while indefiniteness is expressed with *a* or *an* for singular nouns or the zero article (i.e., the absence of an article) for plural or non-count nouns.

English grammar requires that the appropriate article, if any, be used with each noun, with several exceptions:

- most proper nouns
  Rome was ruled by Augustus.
- pronouns and noun phrases
  Nobody liked what he said.
- nouns with another non-number determiner such as *this*, *each*, *my*, *no*, or *a*
  My sister wrote this song about America's history.

In most cases, the article is the first word of its noun phrase, preceding all other adjectives. There are only a few exceptions—e.g., *quite a story*, *too great a loss*, *all the time*, *such a nice man*.

The little old red bag held a very big surprise.

In alphabetizing titles and phrases, articles are usually excluded from consideration, since being so common makes them more of a hindrance than a help in finding a desired item. For example, *The Comedy of Errors* is alphabetized before *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, because *the* and *a* are ignored and *comedy* alphabetizes before *midsummer*. In

an index, the former work might be written "Comedy of Errors, The", with the article moved to the end.

In contexts where concision is especially valued, such as headlines, signs, labels, and notes, articles are often omitted along with certain other function words. For example, rather than *The mayor was attacked*, a newspaper headline would say just *Mayor attacked*.

Definite Article

"The" redirects here. For other uses, see The (disambiguation).

The definite article in English is *the* denoting person(s) or thing(s) already mentioned, under discussion, implied, or familiar.

The article "the" is used with singular only, and uncountable nouns when both the speaker and hearer would know the thing or idea already. The article *the* is often used as the very first part of a noun phrase in English. However, in English, unlike in some other languages such as French, the definite article is omitted before familiar but intangible concepts such as "happiness": *Happiness is contagious* is correct, whereas **The happiness is contagious* is not unless a very specific example of happiness is referred to.

Pronunciation

According to the *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, "the" is pronounced with a schwa (as in "uh") before words beginning with consonants (e.g. *b, c, d, f*), and usually with a different vowel sound /i/ (as "y" in "easy") before words beginning with vowels and in cases of proper nouns or emphasis.

In some Northern England dialects of English, *the* is pronounced [t*Y] (with a dental t) or as a glottal stop, usually written in eye dialect as <t>; in some dialects it reduces to nothing. This is known as definite article reduction.

Etymology

The and *that* are common developments from the same Old English system. Old English had a definite article *se*, in the masculine gender, *seo* (feminine), and *þæt* (neuter). In Middle English these had all merged into *þe*, the ancestor of the Modern English word *the*.

In Middle English, *the* (þe) was frequently abbreviated as a *þ* with a small *e* above it, similar to the abbreviation for *that*, which was a *þ* with a small *t* above it.

During the latter Middle English and Early Modern English periods, the letter Thorn (þ) in its common script, or cursive, form came to resemble a *y* shape.

As such the use of a *y* with an *e* above it as an abbreviation became common. This can still be seen in reprints of the 1611 edition of the King James Version of the Bible in places such as Romans 15:29, or in the Mayflower Compact.

Historically the article was never pronounced with a *y* sound, even when so written, although the modern, 19th and 20th century pseudo-archaic usage such as "Ye Olde Englishe Tea Shoppe" can be pronounced with a *y* sound.

Geographic Uses

In English most cities and countries never take the definite article, but there are many that do. It is commonly used with many country names that derive from names of island groups (the Philippines), mountain ranges (the Lebanon), deserts (the Sudan), seas, rivers and geographic regions (the Middle East).

Such use is declining, but for some countries it remains common. Since the independence of Ukraine (or the Ukraine), most style guides have advised dropping the article, in part because the Ukrainian Government was concerned about a similar issue involving prepositions.

Another example is Argentina, which is now more

usual than 'the Argentine', which is old fashioned, although others continue, such as The Bronx and The Hague.

The definite article is always used for countries whose names are descriptions of the form of the state rather than being purely geographical; for example, the United States, the Soviet Union, and the Czech Republic.

The U.S. Department of State and the CIA World Factbook show the definite article with only two countries: The Bahamas and The Gambia. Although in title, these references do not include the definite article for the Netherlands, in the text description the name of the country is never used without it.

Indefinite Article

"A" and "an" function as the indefinite forms of the grammatical article in the English language and can also represent the number one. *An* is the older form (related to *one*, cognate to German *ein*; etc.), now used before words starting with a vowel sound, regardless of whether the word begins with a vowel letter. Examples: *a* light-water reactor; *a* sanitary sewer overflow; *an* SSO; *a* HEPA filter (because HEPA is pronounced as a word rather than as letters); *an* hour; *a* ewe; *a* one-armed bandit; *an* heir; *a* unicorn (begins with 'yu', a consonant sound).

Juncture Loss

In a process called juncture loss, the *n* has wandered back and forth between words beginning with vowels over the history of the language, where sometimes it would be *a nuncle* and is now *an uncle*. The Oxford English Dictionary gives such examples as *smot hym on the hede with a nege tool* from 1448 for *smote him on the head with an edge tool* and *a nox* for *an ox* and *a napple* for *an apple*. Sometimes the change has been permanent. For example, *a newt* was once *an ewt* (earlier *euft* and *eft*), *a nickname* was once *an eke-name*, where *eke* means "extra" (as in *eke out* meaning "add to"), and in the other direction, "a napron" became "an apron" and "a naddre" became "an adder." "Napron"

itself meant "little tablecloth" and is related to the word "napkin". An oft-cited but inaccurate example is *an orange*: despite what is often claimed, English never used *a norange*. Although the initial *n* was in fact lost through juncture loss, this happened before the word was borrowed in English (see orange (word)).

Discrimination between a *and* an

The choice of "a" or "an" is determined by phonetic rules rather than by spelling convention. "An" is employed in speech to remove the awkward glottal stop (momentary silent pause) that is otherwise required between "a" and a following word. For example, "an X-ray" is less awkward to pronounce than "a X-ray," which has a glottal stop between "a" and "X-ray". The following paragraphs are spelling rules for "an" that can be used if the phonetic rule is not understood.

The form "an" is always prescribed before words beginning with a silent *h*, such as "honorable", "heir", "hour", and, in American English, "herb". Some British dialects (for example, Cockney) silence all initial *h*'s (h-dropping) and so employ "an" all the time: e.g., "an 'elmet". The article "an" is sometimes seen in such phrases as "an historic", "an heroic" and "an hotel of excellence" in both British and American usage, although usually violating the phonetic rule in such cases. *Merriam-Webster's Dictionary of English Usage* allows "both *a* and *an* are used in writing *a historic an historic*".

An analogous distinction to that of "a" and "an" was once present for possessive determiners as well. For example, "my" and "thy" became "mine" and "thine" before a vowel, as in "mine eyes". This usage is now obsolete.

The appearance of *an* or *a* in front of words beginning with *h* is not limited to stress. Sometimes there is an historical root as well. Words that may have had a route into English via French (where all *h*s are unpronounced) may have *an* to avoid an unusual pronunciation. This

never applied to words of germanic origin, as the *h*s would be pronounced and *a* used. Further, some words starting with vowels may have a preceding *a* because they are pronounced as if beginning with an initial consonant. "Ewe" and "user" have a preceding *a* because they are pronounced with an initial *y* consonant sound. "One-eyed pirate" also has a preceding *a* because it is pronounced with an initial *w* consonant sound.

To add emphasis to a noun, the preceding indefinite article is often pronounced as a long *a* (just as the definite article would be pronounced as "thee" in such cases), whether or not the schwa, or even "an" would be the appropriate usage.

Representing the Number One

In addition to serving as an article, *a* and *an* are also used as synonyms for the number one, as in "make a wish", "a hundred". *An* was originally an unstressed form of the number *ân* 'one'.

A and *an* are also used to express a proportional relationship, such as "a dollar a day" or "$150 an ounce" or "A Mars a day helps you work, rest and play", although historically this use of "a" and "an" does not come from the same word as the articles.

The mathematically-minded might heed H. S. Wall's reminder that the statement *"I have a son"* does not necessarily imply that *"I have exactly one son"* or that *"I have only sons"*. In other words, "The *little* words count."

Similarities in other Languages

In Hungarian, *a* and *az* are used the same way, except that in Hungarian, *a(z)* is the definite article. Juncture loss occurred in this case as well, since *az* was the only article in use in 16th century Hungarian (e.g. in the poetry of Bálint Balassa).

In Greek, *a-* and *an-*, meaning "not" or "without", are root words, cognate with Latin *in-* (when used as a negative)

and English *un-*, meaning without.

Italian has many articles (8 + juncture loss) basically expressing the same ideas of definite and indefinite as English ones. The article *the* corresponds to *il*, *lo*, *la*, *i*, *gli* or *le* indifferently (remembering that Italian has masculine and feminine nouns, so that it is not indifferent to join any one of those articles with any Italian noun, indiscriminately) and the English articles *a* / *an* corresponds to Italian *un* or *una* (again, the masculine / feminine distinction must be taken into account). Moreover, no geographical rule applies to any of the Italian articles corresponding to the article *the*, so that, for example, it is correct to say *la Germania* which means *Germany*, in English.

GRAMMAR

In linguistics, grammar is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology, syntax, and phonology, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics. Linguists do not normally use the term to refer to orthographical rules, although usage books and style guides that call themselves grammars may also refer to spelling and punctuation.

Use of the Term

Every speaker of a language has, in his or her head, a set of rules for using that language. This is a grammar, and—at least in the case of one's native language—the vast majority of the information in it is acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers; much of this work is done during infancy. Language learning later in life, of course, may involve a greater degree of explicit instruction.

The term "grammar" can also be used to describe the rules that govern the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers. The term "English grammar," therefore, may

have several meanings. It may refer to the whole of English grammar—that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language—in which case, the term encompasses a great deal of variation.

Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all, or of the vast majority of, English speakers (such as subject-verb-object word order in simple declarative sentences). Or it may refer to the rules of a particular, relatively well-defined variety of English (such as Standard English).

The term can also have a broad meaning; "grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to".

"*An* English grammar" is a specific description, study or analysis of such rules. A reference book describing the grammar of a language is called a "reference grammar" or simply "a grammar".

A fully explicit grammar that exhaustively describes the grammatical constructions of a language is called a descriptive grammar.

Linguistic description contrasts with linguistic prescription, which tries to enforce rules of how a language is to be used. Grammatical frameworks are approaches to constructing grammars. The most known among the approaches is the traditional grammar which is traditionally taught in schools.

The standard framework of generative grammar is the transformational grammar model developed in various ways by Noam Chomsky and his associates from the 1950s onwards.

History

The first systematic grammars originated in Iron Age India, with Yaska (6th c. BC), PâGini (4th c. BC) and his commentators Pingala (ca. 200 BC), Katyayana, and Patanjali (2nd c. BC). In the West, grammar emerged as a

discipline in Hellenism from the 3rd c. BC forward with authors like Rhyanus and Aristarchus of Samothrace, the oldest extant work being the *Art of Grammar*, attributed to Dionysius Thrax (ca. 100 BC). Latin grammar developed by following Greek models from the 1st century BC, due to the work of authors such as Orbilius Pupillus, Remmius Palaemon, Marcus Valerius Probus, Verrius Flaccus, and Aemilius Asper.

Tamil grammatical tradition also began around the 1st century BC with the Tolkâppiyam.

A grammar of Irish originated in the 7th century with the Auraicept na n-ces.

Arabic grammar emerged from the 8th century with the work of Ibn Abi Ishaq and his students.

The first treatises on Hebrew grammar appeared in the High Middle Ages, in the context of Mishnah (exegesis of the Hebrew Bible). The Karaite tradition originated in Abbasid Baghdad. The *Diqduq* (10th century) is one of the earliest grammatical commentaries on the Hebrew Bible. Ibn Barun in the 12th century compares the Hebrew language with Arabic in the Islamic grammatical tradition.

Belonging to the *trivium* of the seven liberal arts, grammar was taught as a core discipline throughout the Middle Ages, following the influence of authors from Late Antiquity, such as Priscian. Treatment of vernaculars began gradually during the High Middle Ages, with isolated works such as the First Grammatical Treatise, but became influential only in the Renaissance and Baroque periods. In 1486, Antonio de Nebrija published *Las introduciones Latinas contrapuesto el romance al Latin*, and the first Spanish grammar, *Gramatica de la lengua castellana*, in 1492. During the 16th century Italian Renaissance, the *Questione della lingua* was the discussion on the status and ideal form of the Italian language, initiated by Dante's *de vulgari eloquentia* (Pietro Bembo, *Prose della volgar lingua* Venice 1525). The first grammar of Slovene language was written in 1584 by Adam Bohoriè.

Grammars of non-European languages began to be compiled for the purposes of evangelization and Bible translation from the 16th century onward, such as *Grammatica o Arte de la Lengua General de los Indios de los Reynos del Perú* (1560), and a Quechua grammar by Fray Domingo de Santo Tomás.

In 1643 there appeared Ivan Uzhevych's *Grammatica sclavonica* and, in 1762, the *Short Introduction to English Grammar* of Robert Lowth was also published. The *Grammatisch-Kritisches Wörterbuch der hochdeutschen Mundart*, a High German grammar in five volumes by Johann Christoph Adelung, appeared as early as 1774.

From the latter part of the 18th century, grammar came to be understood as a subfield of the emerging discipline of modern linguistics. The Serbian grammar by Vuk Stefanoviæ Karad•iæ arrived in 1814, while the *Deutsche Grammatik* of the Brothers Grimm was first published in 1818. The *Comparative Grammar* of Franz Bopp, the starting point of modern comparative linguistics, came out in 1833.

Development of Grammars

Grammars evolve through usage and also due to separations of the human population. With the advent of written representations, formal rules about language usage tend to appear also. Formal grammars are codifications of usage that are developed by repeated documentation over time, and by observation as well. As the rules become established and developed, the prescriptive concept of grammatical correctness can arise. This often creates a discrepancy between contemporary usage and that which has been accepted, over time, as being correct. Linguists tend to view prescriptive grammars as having little justification beyond their authors' aesthetic tastes, although style guides may give useful advice about Standard English based on descriptions of usage in contemporary writing. Linguistic prescriptions also form part of the explanation for variation in speech, particularly variation in the speech

of an individual speaker (an explanation, for example, for why some people say, "I didn't do nothing"; some say, "I didn't do anything"; and some say one or the other depending on social context).

The formal study of grammar is an important part of education for children from a young age through advanced learning, though the rules taught in schools are not a "grammar" in the sense most linguists use the term, particularly as they are often prescriptive rather than descriptive.

Constructed languages (also called planned languages or conlangs) are more common in the modern day. Many have been designed to aid human communication (for example, naturalistic Interlingua, schematic Esperanto, and the highly logic-compatible artificial language Lojban). Each of these languages has its own grammar.

Syntax refers to linguistic structure above the word level (e.g. how sentences are formed)—though without taking into account intonation, which is the domain of phonology. Morphology, by contrast, refers to structure at and below the word level (e.g. how compound words are formed), but above the level of individual sounds, which, like intonation, are in the domain of phonology. No clear line can be drawn, however, between syntax and morphology. Analytic languages use syntax to convey information that is encoded via inflection in synthetic languages. In other words, word order is not significant and morphology is highly significant in a purely synthetic language, whereas morphology is not significant and syntax is highly significant in an analytic language. Chinese and Afrikaans, for example, are highly analytic, and meaning is therefore very context-dependent. (Both do have some inflections, and have had more in the past; thus, they are becoming even less synthetic and more "purely" analytic over time.) Latin, which is highly synthetic, uses affixes and inflections to convey the same information that Chinese does with syntax. Because Latin words are quite (though not completely) self-contained, an

intelligible Latin sentence can be made from elements that are placed in a largely arbitrary order. Latin has a complex affixation and simple syntax, while Chinese has the opposite.

Grammar Frameworks

Various "grammar frameworks" have been developed in theoretical linguistics since the mid 20th century, in particular under the influence of the idea of a "universal grammar" in the United States. Of these, the main divisions are:

- Transformational grammar (TG)
- Systemic functional grammar (SFG)
- Principles and Parameters Theory (P&P)
- Lexical-functional Grammar (LFG)
- Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar (GPSG)
- Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG)
- Dependency grammars (DG)
- Role and reference grammar (RRG)

Education

Prescriptive grammar is taught in primary school (elementary school). The term "grammar school" historically refers to a school teaching Latin grammar to future Roman citizens, orators, and, later, Catholic priests. In its earliest form, "grammar school" referred to a school that taught students to read, scan, interpret, and declaim Greek and Latin poets (including Homer, Virgil, Euripides, Ennius, and others). These should not be confused with the related, albeit distinct, modern British grammar schools.

A standard language is a particular dialect of a language that is promoted above other dialects in writing, education, and broadly speaking in the public sphere; it contrasts with vernacular dialects, which may be the objects of study in descriptive grammar but which are rarely taught prescriptively. The standardized "first language" taught

in primary education may be subject to political controversy, since it establishes a standard defining nationality or ethnicity.

Recently, efforts have begun to update grammar instruction in primary and secondary education. The primary focus has been to prevent the use outdated prescriptive rules in favour of more accurate descriptive ones and to change perceptions about relative "correctness" of standard forms in comparison to non standard dialects.

The pre-eminence of Parisian French has reigned largely unchallenged throughout the history of modern French literature. Standard Italian is not based on the speech of the capital, Rome, but on the speech of Florence because of the influence Florentines had on early Italian literature. Similarly, standard Spanish is not based on the speech of Madrid, but on the one of educated speakers from more northerly areas like Castile and León. In Argentina and Uruguay the Spanish standard is based on the local dialects of Buenos Aires and Montevideo (Rioplatense Spanish). Portuguese has for now two official written standards, respectively Brazilian Portuguese and European Portuguese, but in a short term it will have a unified orthography

Norwegian has two standards, *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk*, the choice between which is subject to controversy: Each Norwegian municipality can declare one of the two its official language, or it can remain "language neutral". Nynorsk is endorsed by a minority of 27 percent of the municipalities. The main language used in primary schools normally follows the official language of its municipality, and is decided by referendum within the local school district. Standard German emerged out of the standardized chancellery use of High German in the 16th and 17th centuries. Until about 1800, it was almost entirely a written language, but now it is so widely spoken that most of the former German dialects are nearly extinct.

Standard Chinese has official status as the standard

spoken form of the Chinese language in the People's Republic of China (PRC), the Republic of China (ROC) and the Republic of Singapore. Pronunciation of Standard Chinese is based on the Beijing dialect of Mandarin Chinese, while grammar and syntax are based on modern vernacular written Chinese. Modern Standard Arabic is directly based on Classical Arabic, the language of the Qur'an. The Hindustani language has two standards, Hindi and Urdu.

In the United States, the Society for the Promotion of Good Grammar designated March 4 as National Grammar Day in 2008.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

English grammar is the body of rules describing the properties of the English language. A language is such that its elements must be combined according to certain patterns. This article is concerned with (and restricted to) morphology, the building blocks of language; and syntax, the construction of meaningful phrases, clauses and sentences with the use of morphemes and words.

The grammar of any language is commonly approached in two different ways: *descriptive*, usually based on a systematic analysis of a large text corpus and describing grammatical structures thereupon; and *prescriptive*, which attempts to use the identified rules of a given language as a tool to govern the linguistic behaviour of speakers (see Descriptive linguistics and Linguistic prescription). Prescriptive grammar further concerns itself with several open disputes in English grammar, often representing changes in usage over time. This article predominantly concerns itself with descriptive grammar.

There are historical, social and regional variations of English. For example, British English and American English have several lexical differences; however, the grammatical differences are not equally conspicuous, and will be mentioned only when appropriate. Further, the many

dialects of English have divergences from the grammar described here; they are only cursorily mentioned. This article describes a generalized present-day Standard English, the form of speech found in types of public discourse including broadcasting, education, entertainment, government, and news reporting. Standard English includes both formal and informal speech.

Word Classes and Phrase Classes

Seven major word classes are described here. These are: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and determiner. The first six are traditionally referred to as "parts of speech." There are minor word classes, such as interjections, but these do not fit into the clause and sentence structure of English.

Open and Closed Classes

Open word classes allow new members; closed word classes seldom do. Nouns such as "celebutante", (a celebrity who frequents the fashion circles)" and "mentee," (a person advised by a mentor) and adverbs such as "24/7" ("I am working on it 24/7") are relatively new words; nouns and adverbs are therefore open classes. However, the pronoun, "their," as a gender-neutral singular replacement for the "his or her" (as in: "Each new arrival should check in their luggage.") has not gained complete acceptance in the more than forty years of its use; pronouns, in consequence, form a closed class.

Word Classes and Grammatical Forms

A word can sometimes belong to several word classes. The class version of a word is called a "lexeme". For example, the word "run" is usually a verb, but it can also be a noun ("It is a ten mile run to Tipperary."); these are two different lexemes. Further, the same lexeme may be inflected to express different grammatical categories: for example, as a verb lexeme, "run" has several forms such as "runs," "ran," and "running." Words in one class can sometimes be

derived from those in another and new words be created. The noun "aerobics," for example, has recently given rise to the adjective "aerobicized" ("the aerobicized bodies of Beverly Hills celebutantes.")

Phrase Classes

Words combine to form phrases which themselves can take on the attributes of a word class. These classes are called phrase classes. The phrase: "The ancient pulse of germ and birth" functions as a noun in the sentence: "The ancient pulse of germ and birth was shrunken hard and dry." (Thomas Hardy, *The Darkling Thrush*) It is therefore a *noun phrase*. Other phrase classes are: verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, and determiner phrases.

Nouns and Determiners

Nouns form the largest word class. According to Carter and McCarthy, they denote "classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states." Consequently, the words "Mandela," "jaguar," "mansion," "volcano," "Timbuktoo," "blockade," "mercy," and "liquid" are all nouns. Nouns are not commonly identified by their form; however, some common suffixes such as "-age" ("shrinkage"), "-hood" ("sisterhood"), "-ism" ("journalism"), "-ist" ("lyricist"), "-ment" ("adornment"), "-ship" ("companionship"), "-tude" ("latitude"), and so forth, are usually identifiers of nouns. There are exceptions, of course: "assuage" and "disparage" are verbs; "augment" is a verb, "lament" and "worship" can be verbs. Nouns can also be created by conversion of verbs or adjectives. Examples include the nouns in: "a boring talk," "a five-week run," "the long caress," "the utter disdain," and so forth.

Number, Gender, Type, and Syntactic Features.

Nouns have singular and plural forms. Many plural forms have -s or -es endings (dog/dogs, referee/referees,

bush/bushes), but by no means all (woman/women, axis/axes, medium/media). Unlike some other languages, in English, nouns do not have grammatical gender. However, many nouns can refer to masculine or feminine animate objects (mother/father, tiger/tigress, alumnus/alumna, male/female). Nouns can be classified semantically, i.e. by their meanings: common nouns ("sugar," "maple," "syrup," "wood"), proper nouns ("Cyrus," "China"), concrete nouns ("book," "laptop"), and abstract nouns ("heat," "prejudice"). Alternatively, they can be distinguished grammatically: count nouns ("clock," "city," "colour") and non-count nouns ("milk," "decor," "foliage"). Nouns have several syntactic features that can aid in their identification. Nouns (example: common noun "cat") may be

1. modified by adjectives ("the *beautiful* Angora cat"),
2. preceded by determiners ("*the* beautiful Angora cat"), or
3. pre-modified by other nouns ("the beautiful *Angora* cat").

Noun Phrases

Noun phrases are phrases that function grammatically as nouns within sentences. In addition, nouns serve as "heads," or main words of noun phrases. Examples (the heads are in boldface):

1. "The burnt-out ends of smoky days."
2. "The real raw-knuckle boys who know what fighting means, ..."
3. "The idle spear and shield ..."

The head can have *modifiers*, a *complement*, or both. Modifiers can occur before the head ("The real raw-knuckle boys ...," or "The burnt-out ends ..." and they are then called *pre-modifiers*; or, they can occur after the head ("who know what fighting means ...") and are called *post-modifiers*. Example: "The rough, seamy-faced, raw-boned College Servitor ..." The pre-modifying phrase, for example,

is composed of determiners ("The"), adjectives ("rough," "seamy-faced," ...) and other nouns ("College").

Complements occur after the head as well; however, they are essential for completing the meaning of the noun phrase in a way that post-modifiers are not. Examples (complements are italicized; heads are in boldface):

1. "The burnt-out ends *of smoky days*."
2. "The suggestion *that Mr. Touchett should invite me* appeared to have come from Miss Stackpole."
3. "The ancient pulse *of germ and birth* was shrunken hard and dry."

Within a sentence, a noun phrase can be a part of the grammatical subject, the object, or the complement. Examples (the noun phrase is italicized, and the head boldfaced):

1. grammatical subject: "*Some mute inglorious Milton* here may rest."
2. object: "Dr. Pavlov ... delivered *many long propaganda harangues* ...")
3. complement: "'All they see is *some frumpy, wrinkled-up person passing by in a carriage waving at a crowd*."

Verbs

Verbs form the second largest word class after nouns. According to Carter and McCarthy, verbs denote "actions, events, processes, and states." Consequently, "smile," "stab," "climb," "confront," "liquefy," "wake," "reflect" are all verbs. Some examples of verb endings, which while not dead giveaways, are often associated, include: "-ate" ("formulate"), "-iate" ("inebriate"), "-ify" ("electrify"), and "-ise" ("realize"). There are exceptions, of course: "chocolate" is a noun, "immediate" is an adjective, "prize" can be a noun, and "maize" is a noun. Prefixes can also be used to create new verbs. Examples are: "un-" ("unmask"), "out-" ("outlast"), "over-" ("overtake"), and "under-" ("undervalue"). Just as

nouns can be formed from verbs by conversion, the reverse is also possible:

- "so are the sons of men snared in an evil time"
- "[a national convention] nosed parliament in the very seat of its authority"

Verbs can also be formed from adjectives:

- "To dry the old oak's sap, and cherish springs."
- "Time's glory is to calm contending kings"

Regular and Irregular Verbs

A verb is said to be *regular* if its base form does not change when inflections are added to create new forms. An example is: base form: climb; present form: climb; -s form: climbs; -ing form: climbing; past form: climbed; -ed participle: climbed. Irregular verbs are ones in which the base form changes; the endings corresponding to each form are not always unique. Examples:

- base form: catch; present form: catch; -s form: catches; -ing form: catching; past form: caught; -ed participle: caught.
- base form: choose; present form: choose; -s form: chooses; -ing form: choosing; past form: chose; -ed participle: chosen.

The verb "be" is the only verb in English which has distinct inflectional forms for each of the categories of grammatical forms: base form: be; present form: am, are; -s form: is; -ing form: being; past form: was, were; -ed participle: been.

Type and Characteristics

Verbs come in three grammatical types: lexical, auxiliary, and modal. Lexical verbs form an open class which includes most verbs (state, action, processes, and events). For example, "dive," "soar," "swoon," "revive," "breathe," "choke," "lament," "celebrate," "consider," "ignore"

are all lexical verbs. Auxiliary verbs form a closed class consisting of only three members: be, do, and have. Although auxiliary verbs are lexical verbs as well, their main function is to add information to other lexical verbs. This information indicates (a) aspect (progressive, perfect), (b) passive voice, and (c) clause type (interrogative, negative). In the following examples, the auxiliary is in boldface and the lexical verb is italicized.

1. aspect (progressive): "She is *breathing* Granny; we've got to make her keep it up, that's all—just keep her breathing."
2. aspect (perfect): "'Yes, I want a coach,' said Maurice, and bade the coachman draw up to the stone where the poor man who had *swooned* was sitting."
3. passive voice: "When she was admitted into the house Beautiful, care was *taken* to inquire into the religious knowledge of her children."
4. clause type (interrogative): (Old joke) Boy: "Excuse me sir, How do I *get* to Carnegie Hall?" Man on street: "Practice, Practice, Practice."
5. clause type (negative): Wasn't she monstrously *surprised*?"

Modal verbs also form a closed class which consists of the core modals ("can," "could," "shall," "should," "will," "would," "may," "might," "must"), semi-modals ("dare," "need," "ought to," "used to"), and modal expressions ("be able to," "have to"). Modals add information to lexical verbs about degrees of certainty and necessity. Examples:

- less certain: "Before the snow could *melt* for good, an ice storm covered the lowcountry and we learned the deeper treachery of ice."
- more certain: "Eat your eggs in Lent and the snow will *melt*. That's what I say to our people when they get noisy over their cups at San Gallo ..."
- expressing necessity: "But I should think there must be some stream somewhere about. The snow

must *melt*; besides, these great herds of deer must drink somewhere."

Modal verbs do not inflect for person, number or tense. Examples:

- person: "I/you/she might consider it."
- number: "I/We/She/They might consider it"
- tense: "They might have considered/be considering/ have been considering it."

Verbs too have features that aid in their recognition:

1. they follow the (grammatical) subject noun phrase (in italics): "*The real raw-knuckle boys who know what fighting means* enter the arena without fanfare."
2. they agree with the subject noun phrase in number: "The real raw-knuckle *boy / boys* who knows/know what fighting means enters/enter the arena without fanfare."
3. they agree with the subject noun phrase in person: "I/He, the real raw-knuckle boy who knows what fighting means, enter/enters the arena without fanfare", and
4. with the exception of modal verbs, they can express tense:"The boys ... had been entering the arena without fanfare."

Verb Phrases

Forms

Verb phrases are formed entirely of verbs. The verbs can be lexical, auxiliary, and modal. The head is the first verb in the verb phrase. Example:

- "I didn't notice Rowen around tonight," remarked Don, as they began to prepare for bed. "Might have been sulking in his tent," grinned Terry." Here, the verb phrase "might have been sulking" has the form "modal-auxiliary-auxiliary-lexical."

In a verb phrase, the modal comes first, then the auxiliary or several auxiliaries, and finally the lexical (main) verb. When a verb phrase has a combination of modal and auxiliaries, it is constituted usually in the following order: modal verb >> perfect *have* >> progressive *be* >> passive *be* >> Lexical verb. Examples:

- "He might have been being used by the CIA as part of their debriefing procedure, but he might just as easily have been part of the Russians' plans to use Oswald in America." Here, the verb phrase is: might (modal) have (perfect) been (progressive) being (passive) used (lexical).
- The modal expression "be able to" is an exception: "It is best to know that she has (perfect) been (progressive) able to (modal expression) balance (lexical verb) these qualities and quantities with a grace which has not fallen short of greatness ...."

Tense

Verb phrases can vary with tense, in which case they are called "tensed verb phrases." Example:

- "They have accomplished a lot this year, but they accomplished even more last year."

There are many non-tensed forms as well:

1. base form of a lexical verb used as an imperative. Example: "Halt!"
2. base form of the lexical verb occurring as a subjunctive. Example: "'If he is a spy,' said Gorgik, 'I would rather he not know who I am."
3. the infinitive with "to." Examples:
    1. "Did you see her, chief—did you get a glimpse of her pleasant countenance, or come close enough to her ear, to sing in it the song she *loves* to hear?'"
    2. "She got so she could tell big stories herself from listening to the rest. Because she loved to

hear it, and the men *loved* to hear themselves, they would 'woof' and 'boogerboo' around the games to the limit."

4. the "-ing" form, shared between the gerund and present participle. Examples:
    1. "Biological diversity *is* plummeting, mainly due to habitat degradation and loss, pollution, overexploitation, competition from alien species, disease, and changing climates."
    2. "Then it was swooping downward, and in the next second, a huge metal magpie, with wings outstretched in full flight, *was* plummeting toward them."
5. the "-ed" participle. Examples:
    1. "I also know that the painter *has* dined twice with the Prince Regent."
    2. "Which in all probability means that you *had* dined together," replied Monte Cristo, laughing, "I am glad to see you are more sober than he was."

The time frame of a non-tensed verb phrase is determined by examining that of the main clause verb. Examples:

- "From the very beginning, Coltrane was an indefatigable worker at his saxophone spending hours upon hours practicing every day."
- "By assuming a good position and by practicing every day he will in time acquire a feeling and an appearance of ease before people."

In the first case, the time frame (past) of "practicing" is determined by "was" in the main clause; in the second, the time frame (present and future) of "practicing" is determined by "will in time," also in the main clause.

Aspect

Verb phrases can also express two aspects: *progressive* and *perfect*. Aspect provides additional information on the speaker's perception of time.

Progressive Aspect

The progressive aspect consists of the auxiliary *be* form and the *-ing* form of the lexical verb. Examples:

- "Landlord, chambermaid, waiter rush to the door; but just as some distinguished guests are arriving, the curtains close, and the invisible theatrical manager cries out, 'Second syllable!' "
- "She made her curtsy, and was departing when the wretched young captain sprang up, looked at her, and sank back on the sofa with another wild laugh."

Properties:

- Progressive aspect may be found in verb phrases containing modals.
  - o "Restless, exciting and witty, he cannot resist a fantastic theory ..., so that one might be meeting Synge, Fielding, and Aldous Huxley, and on the same page."
- Non-tensed *-ing* forms, however, do not have the progressive aspect.
  - o "By working every day, he had learned the peculiarities, the weaknesses and strengths, of opposing batters ..." It cannot be changed to "By *being* working every day, ..."
- Progressive aspect can be combined with "to"-infinitive forms in a verb phrase.
  - o "He loved to sit by the open window when the wind was east, and seemed to be dreaming of faraway scenes."

Perfect

The *perfect* aspect is created by the auxiliary "have" and the "-ed" participle form of the lexical verb. It refers to a time period that includes the present moment. Contrast "The flowers didn't bloom this summer" with "The flowers haven't bloomed this summer." The latter sentence suggests that the summer is not over yet.

Properties:

- The perfect can pair with modal verbs.
  - o "You might (modal) have invited (perfect) the Hatter to the tea-party."
- The perfect can be combined with the -ing and the to-infinitive forms.
  - o "Having turned the TV on, he now mindlessly flicked through the channels."
  - o "To have run the marathon, she would have needed to be in good shape."

Finally, the two aspects, progressive and perfect, can be combined in a verb phrase: "They've been laughing so hard that their sides hurt."

Voice

The *passive voice*, which provides information about the roles of different participants in an event, is formed with the auxiliary "be" and the "-ed" participle form of the lexical verb. Examples:

- (Sentence) "The older critics slammed the play with vituperation inexplicable unless one attributes it to homophobia."
- (passive voice) "Ever notice how she was (past of "be") slammed (-ed participle) by the critics until the actors started doing it themselves?"

Properties:

- Modal verbs can occur in passive voice.

  - "And if they couldn't get a handle on it soon, cities and towns all up and down the Eastern Seaboard could (modal) be slammed (passive) by the biggest storm of the year ...."

- Passive voice can be combined with non-tensed verbs such as "-ing" form and the "to-" infinitive.
  - "There he was—getting slammed by the critics—and still taking the high road."
  - "We were about to be slammed by an 80-foot breaking wave."
- Passive voice can combine with both the progressive and the perfect aspects.
  - (passive, progressive): "The wind had picked up. The boat was being slammed by the swells, and floundering."
  - (passive, perfect): "Although, alas, it's not such an exclusive club. I've sent them to everyone who has been slammed by that dreadful woman."

Mood

A verb phrase can also express mood, which refers to the "factual or non-factual status of events." There are three moods in English: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

Indicative Mood

The indicative is the most common mood in English. It is a factual mood, and most constructions involving the various choices of person, tense, number, aspect, modality are in the indicative mood. Examples:

- "She will have a hangover tomorrow morning."
- "The Prime Minister and his cabinet were discussing the matter on that fateful day in 1939."

Imperative Mood

The imperative mood is a non-factual mood and is employed for issuing directives:

- "Keep your eyes on the prize, hold on"
- "'Your father's urn is on the backseat. Just leave the keys in the cup holder."

Subjunctive Mood

The subjunctive mood is also a non-factual mood which refers to demands, desires, etc. It uses the base form of the verb *without inflections*. It is rare in English and is used after only a handful of words such as "demand," "request," "suggest," "ask," "plead," "pray," "insist," and so forth. Examples:

- "I demanded that Sheriff Jeanfreau stay. I even wanted worthless and annoying Ugly Henderson to stay."
- "'I suggest that you not exercise your temper overmuch,' Mayne said, and the French tinge in his voice sounded truly dangerous now."

Properties:

- Subjunctives can be used after conditional subordinators.
  - o "I accepted on the condition that I not be given a starring role."
- Subjunctives can also be used after expressions of necessity.
  - o "Two nuns are asked to paint a room in the convent, and the last instruction of Mother Superior is that they not get even a drop of paint on their habits."
- The subjunctive form of the verb "be" can occur as the base form "be".
  - o "Whenever a prisoner alleges physical abuse, it is imperative that the prisoner be seen by an officer at the earliest possible opportunity."
- In its "were" form the subjunctive is used to express a hypothetical situation.

- "'Lin said, turning toward Pei, "I'm afraid she's excited at seeing me home again." Pei smiled. "I would be too, if I were she."

Adjectives

According to Carter and McCarthy, "Adjectives describe properties, qualities, and states attributed to a noun or a pronoun." As was the case with nouns and verbs, the class of adjectives cannot be identified by the forms of its constituents. However, adjectives are commonly formed by adding the some suffixes to nouns. Examples: "-al" ("habitual," "multidimensional," "visceral"), "-ful" ("blissful," "pitiful," "woeful"), "-ic" ("atomic," "gigantic," "pedantic"), "-ish" ("impish," "peckish," "youngish"), "-ous" ("fabulous," "hazardous"). As with nouns and verbs, there are exceptions: "homosexual" can be a noun, "earful" is a noun, "anesthetic" can be a noun, "brandish" is a verb. Adjectives can also be formed from other adjectives through the addition of a suffix or more commonly a prefix: weakish, implacable, disloyal, irredeemable, unforeseen. A number of adjectives are formed by adding "a" as a prefix to a verb: "adrift," "astride," "awry."

Gradability

Adjectives come in two varieties: gradable and non-gradable. In a gradable adjective, the properties or qualities associated with it, exist along a scale. In the case of the adjective "hot," for example, we can speak of: not at all hot, ever so slightly hot, only just hot, quite hot, very hot, extremely hot, dangerously hot, and so forth. Consequently, "hot" is a gradable adjective. Gradable adjectives usually have antonyms: hot/cold, hard/soft, smart/dumb, light/heavy. Some adjectives do not have room for qualification or modification. These are the non-gradable adjectives, such as: pregnant, married, incarcerated, condemned, adolescent (as adjective), dead, and so forth. In figurative or literary language, a non-gradable adjective can sometimes be treated as gradable, especially in order to emphasize some aspect:

- "When a man's verses cannot be understood, nor a man's good wit seconded with a forward child, understanding, it strikes a man more dead than a great reckoning in a little room."

A non-gradable adjective might have another connotation in which it is gradable. For example, "dead" when applied to sounds can mean dull, or not vibrant. In this meaning, it has been used as a gradable adjective:

- "... the bell seemed to sound more dead than it did when just before it sounded in open air."

Gradable adjectives can occur in comparative and superlative forms. For many common adjectives, these are formed by adding "-er" and "-est" to the base form: cold, colder, coldest; hot, hotter, hottest; dry, drier, driest, and so forth; however, for other adjectives, "more" and "most" are needed to provide the necessary qualification: more apparent, most apparent; more iconic, most iconic; more hazardous, most hazardous.

Some gradable adjectives change forms atypically: good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; some/ many, more, most.

Adjective Phrases

Forms

An *adjective phrase* may consist of just one adjective, or a single adjective which has been modified or complemented.

Adjectives are usually modified by adverb phrases (adverb in boldface; adjective in italics):

- "... placing himself in a dignified and truly *imposing* attitude, began to draw from his mouth yard after yard of red tape ..."
- "Families did certainly come, beguiled by representations of impossibly *cheap* provisions,

though the place was in reality very *expensive*, for every tradesman was a monopolist at heart."

- "... of anger frequent but generally *silent*, ..."

An adjective phrase can also consist of an adjective followed by a complement, usually a prepositional phrase, or by a "that" clause. Different adjectives require different patterns of complementation (adjective in italics; complement in bold face):

- "... during that brief time I was *proud* of myself, and I grew to love the heave and roll of the Ghost ..."
- "... her bosom *angry* at his intrusion, ..."
- "Dr. Drew is especially *keen* on good congregational singing."

Examples of "that" clause in the adjective phrase (adjective in italics; clause in boldface):

- "Was *sure* that the shrill voice was that of a man—a Frenchman."
- "The *longest* day that ever was; so she raves, restless and impatient."

An adjective phrase can combine pre-modification by an adverb phrase and post-modification by a complement, as in (adjective in italics; adverb phrase and complement in boldface):

- "Few people were ever more *proud* of civic honours than the Thane of Fife."

Attributive and Predicative

An adjective phrase is attributive when it modifies a noun or a pronoun (adjective phrase in boldface; noun in italics):

- "Truly selfish *genes* do arise, in the sense that they reproduce themselves at a cost to the other genes in the genome."

- "Luisa Rosado: a *woman* proud of being a midwife"

An adjective phrase is predicative when it occurs in the predicate of a sentence (adjective phrase in boldface):

- "No, no, I didn't really think so," returned Dora; "but I am a little tired, and it made me silly for a moment ..."
- "She was ill at ease, and looked more than usually stern and forbidding as she entered the Hales' little drawing room."

Adverbs

Adverbs typically modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They perform a wide range of functions and are especially important for indicating "time, manner, place, degree, and frequency of an event, action, or process." Adjectives and adverbs are often derived from the same word, the majority being formed by adding the "-ly" ending to the corresponding adjective form. Recall the adjectives, "habitual", "pitiful", "impish", We can use them to form the adverbs:

- "habitually": "... shining out of the New England reserve with which Holgrave habitually masked whatever lay near his heart."
- "pitifully": "The lamb tottered along far behind, near exhaustion, bleating pitifully."
- "impishly": "Well," and he grinned impishly, "it was one doggone good party while it lasted!"

Some suffixes that are commonly found in adverbs are "-ward(s)" and "-wise":

- "homeward": "The plougman homeward plods his weary way."
- "downward": "In tumbling turning, clustering loops, straight downward falling, ..."
- "lengthwise": "2 to 3 medium carrots, peeled, halved lengthwise, and cut into 1-inch pieces."

Some adverbs have the same form as the adjectives:

- "outside":
  - Adverb: "'You'd best begin, or you'll be sorry—it's raining outside."
  - Adjective: "It would be possible to winter the colonies in the barn if each colony is provided with a separate outside entrance; ..."
- "straight"
  - Adverb: "Five cigars, very dry, smoked straight except where wrapper loosened, as it did in two cases."
  - Adjective: "Numbering among the ranks of the "young and evil" in this text are ... straight women who fall in love with gay men, ..."

Some adverbs are not related to adjectives:

- "quite": "Mr. Bingley was obliged to be in town the following day, and ... Mrs. Bennet was quite disconcerted."
- "too": "... like a child that, having devoured its plumcake too hastily, sits sucking its fingers, ..."
- "so": "... oh! ... would she heave one little sigh to see a bright young life so rudely blighted, ...?"

Some adverbs inflect for comparative and superlative forms:

- "soon"
  - "O error, soon conceived, Thou never comest unto a happy birth, ..."
  - "Nerissa: 'superfluity comes sooner by white hairs, but competency lives longer."
  - "'Least said, soonest mended!' "
- "well"
  - "Valrosa well deserved its name, for in that climate of perpetual summer roses blossomed everywhere."

- o "'I'm afraid your appearance in the Phycological Quarterly was better deserved,' said Mrs. Arkwright, without removing her eyes from the microscope ..."
- o "Who among the typical Victorians best deserved his hate?"

Adverb Placement

Adverbs are most usually placed at the end of a phrase. Time adverbs (*yesterday, soon, habitually*) are the most flexible exception. "Connecting Adverbs", such as *next, then, however*, may also be placed at the beginning of a clause. Other exceptions include "focusing adverbs", which can occupy a middle position for emphasis. "

Adverb Phrases

Forms

An adverb phrase is a phrase that collectively acts as an adverb within a sentence; in other words, it modifies a verb (or verb phrase), an adjective (or adjective phrase), or another adverb. The head of an adverb phrase (roman boldface), which is an adverb, may be modified by another adverb (italics boldface) or followed by a complement (italics boldface):

- "Yet *all too* suddenly Rosy popped back into the conversation, ..."
- "Oddly *enough*, that very shudder did the business."
- "The Stoics said, *perhaps* shockingly *for us*, that a father ceases to be a father when his child dies."

An adverb phrase can be part of the complement of the verb "be." It then usually indicates location (adverb phrase in boldface; form of "be" in italics):

- "'... it *is* underneath the pink slip that I wore on Wednesday with my Mechlin.'"
- "... north-by-northeast *was* Rich Mountain, ..."

Adverb phrases are frequently modifiers of verbs:

- "They plow through a heavy fog, and Enrique *sleeps* soundly—too soundly."
- "Sleepily, very sleepily, you *stagger* to your feet and collapse into the nearest chair."

Adverb phrases are also frequently modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs (modifier in boldface; modified in italics):

- (adjectives) "Then to the swish of waters as the sailors sluice the decks all around and under you, you fall into a really *deep* sleep."
- (adverbs) "'My grandma's kinda deaf and she sleeps like really *heavily*."

Adverb phrases can also be modifiers of noun phrases (or pronoun phrases) and prepositional phrases (adverb phrases in boldface; modified phrases in italics):

- (noun phrase): "She stayed out in the middle of the wild sea, and told them that was quite *the loveliest place*, you could see for many miles all round you, ..."
- (pronoun phrase): "... the typical structure of glioma is that of spherical and cylindrical lobules, almost *each and everyone of which* has a centrally located blood vessel."
- (prepositional phrase): "About halfway *through the movie*, I decided to ..."

Adverb phrases also modify determiners (modifier in boldface; modified in italics):

- "The devil knows best what he said, but at least she became his tool and was in the habit of seeing him nearly *every* evening."
- "Nearly if not quite *all* civilized peoples and ourselves above almost *all* others, are heavily burdened with the interest upon their public debt."

Functions

According to Carter and McCarthy, "As well as giving information on the time, place, manner and degree of an action, event, or process, adverb phrases can also have a commenting function, indicating the attitude and point of view of the speaker or writer towards a whole sentence or utterance." Examples:

- "Frankly, my dear, I don't give a damn."
- "Astonishingly, she'd shelled every nut, leaving me only the inner skin to remove."

Adverb phrases also indicate the relation between two clauses in a sentence. Such adverbs are usually called "linking adverbs." Example:

- "... they concluded from the similarities of their bodies, that mine must contain at least 1724 of theirs, and consequently would require as much food as was necessary to support that number of Lilliputians."

Prepositions

Prepositions relate two events in time or two people or things in space. They form a closed class. They also represent abstract relations between two entities: Examples:

1. ("after":) "We came home from Mr. Boythorn's after six pleasant weeks."
2. ("after":) "'That was done with a bamboo,' said the boy, after one glance."
3. ("to":) "I must go down to the seas again, to the vagrant gypsy life, ..."
4. ("between" and "through":) "Between two golden tufts of summer grass, I see the world through hot air as through glass, ..."
5. ("during":) "During these years at Florence, Leonardo's history is the history of his art; he himself is lost in the bright cloud of it."

6. ("of":) "When to the sessions of sweet silent thought I summon up remembrances of things past."

Prepositions are accompanied by prepositional complements; these are usually noun phrases. In the above examples, the prepositional complements are:

1. preposition: "after"; prepositional complement: "six pleasant weeks"
2. preposition: "after"; prepositional complement: "one glance"
3. preposition: "to"; prepositional complement: "the seas"; preposition: "to"; prepositional complement: "the vagrant gypsy life";
4. preposition: "Between"; prepositional complement: "two golden tufts of summer grass,"; preposition: "through"; prepositional complement: "hot air"; preposition: "as through"; prepositional complement: "glass."
5. preposition: "during"; prepositional complement: "these years at Florence."
6. preposition: "of"; prepositional complement: "sweet silent thought"; preposition: "of"; prepositional complement: "things past."

Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase is formed when a preposition combines with its complement. In the above examples, the prepositional phrases are:

1. prepositional phrase: "after six pleasant weeks"
2. prepositional phrase: "after one glance"
3. prepositional phrases: "to the seas" and "to the vagrant gypsy life"
4. prepositional phrases: "Between two golden tufts of summer grass," "through hot air" and "as through glass."
5. prepositional phrase: "During these years at Florence."

6. prepositional phrases "of sweet silent thought" and "of things past."

Conjunctions

According to Carter and McCarthy, "Conjunctions express a variety of logical relations between phrases, clauses and sentences." There are two kinds of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating

Coordinating conjunctions link "elements of equal grammatical status." The elements in questions may vary from a prefix to an entire sentence. Examples:

- (prefixes): "The doctor must provide facilities for *pre-* and *post* test counselling and have his own strict procedures for the storing of that confidential information."
- (words): "'No, I'll never love *anybody* but *you*, Tom, and I'll never marry anybody but you—and you ain't to ever marry *anybody* but *me*, either."
- (phrases): "Can *storied urn* or *animated* bust back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?"
- (subordinate clauses): "*Whether I shall turn out to be the hero of my own life*, or *whether that station will be held by anybody else*, these pages must show.
- (independent clauses): "Well, *I think you're here, plain enough*, but *I think you're a tangle-headed old fool*, Jim."
- (sentences): "He said we were neither of us much to look at and we were as sour as we looked. But I don't feel as sour as I used to before I knew robin and Dickon."

A *correlative conjunction* is a pair of constituent elements, each of which is associated with the grammatical unit to be coordinated. The common correlatives in English are:

- "either ... or":
  - o "The clergyman stayed to exchange a few sentences, either *of admonition* or *reproof*, with his haughty parishioner ...."
  - o "...; for I could not divest myself of a misgiving that something might happen to London in the meanwhile, and that, when I got there, it would be either *greatly deteriorated* or *clean gone*."
- "neither ... nor":
  - o "Buck made no effort. He lay quietly where he had fallen. The lash bit into him again and again, but he neither *whined* nor *struggled*."
  - o "For I have neither *wit*, nor *words*, nor *worth, action*, nor *utterance*, nor *the power of speech, to stir men's blood*: I only speak right on; ..."
- "both ... and"
  - o "There was no mistaking her sincerity—it breathed in every tone of her voice. Both *Marilla* and *Mrs. Lynde* recognized its unmistakable ring."
  - o "There messages have both *ethical* and *pragmatic* overtones, urging women to recognize that even if they do suffer from physical and social disadvantages, their lives are far from being determined by their biology."
- "Not only ... but also"
  - o "The director of *A Doll's House*, the brilliant Zhang Min, ..., was impressed with Lin not only *professionally* but also *personally*."
  - o "... she attempted to persuade her husband to give up his affair. Not only *did he refuse*, but *he* also *told her he loved them both* ...."

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunction relate only clauses to one another. They make the clause associated with them into

a subordinate clause. Some common subordinating conjunctions in English are: (of time) after, before, since, until, when, while; (cause and effect): because, since, now that, as, in order that, so; (opposition): although, though, even though, whereas, while; (condition): if, unless, only if, whether or not, whether or no, even if, in case (that), and so forth. Examples:

- (time: "before"): "Perhaps Homo erectus had already died out before *Homo sapiens arrived*.
- (cause and effect: "in order that"): "In order that *feelings, representations, ideas and the like should attain a certain degree of memorability*, it is important that they should not remain isolated ..."
- (opposition: "although"): "Ultimately there were seven more sessions, in which, although *she remained talkative*, she increasingly clearly conveyed a sense that she did not wish to come any more."
- (condition: "even if"): "Even if *Sethe could deal with the return of the spirit*, Stamp didn't believe her daughter could."

Sentence and Clause Patterns

Identified in English by a capitalized initial letter in its first word and by a period (or full stop) at the end of its last word, the sentence is the largest constituent of grammar. A text that contains more than one sentence is no longer in the realm of grammar, but rather of discourse, as are all conversations, howsoever brief. Sentences themselves consist of clauses which are the principal constituents of grammar. A clause consists of a subject, which is usually a noun phrase, and a predicate which is usually a verb phrase with an accompanying grammatical unit in the form of an object or complement.

Clause Types

Independent

An independent clause is characterized by having a

subject and predicate without any words or phrases that link the function of that clause to another clause, causing the first clause to become dependent upon the other clause for its greater meaning. The independent clause includes relatively simplistic sentences:

- "My mother baked a cake."
- "The dog was brown."

However, it also includes seemingly ornate sentences that contain many prepositional phrases:

- "Considering the alternative, the certain demise of our dear friend is quite comforting."
- "Altruism in its purest sense can claim no interest in or motive for or boon from the benefit of another."

Dependent

A dependent clause is characterized by having a subject and predicate *with* a word or phrase that links the function of that clause to another clause, causing the first clause to become dependent upon the other clause for its greater meaning. The key here is the addition of some word or phrase that causes the entire clause to function in a broader sense, such as cause or background.

- "Because it was my birthday, my mother baked a cake."
- "Although its bloodline consisted of two Dalmatians, the dog was brown."

Clause Combination

Simple

Possibly seen as not quite a clause combination, the simple sentence type is simply a single independent clause.

- "The world swarmed tonight by the sound of stars."
- "The cost of the battle was too great to not number."

History of English Grammar Writing

The first English grammar, Pamphlet for Grammar by William Bullokar, written with the ostensible goal of demonstrating that English was just as rule-bound as Latin, was published in 1586. Bullokar's grammar was faithfully modeled on William Lily's Latin grammar, Rudimenta Grammatices (1534), which was being used in schools in England at that time, having been "prescribed" for them in 1542 by Henry VIII. Although Bullokar wrote his grammar in English and used a "reformed spelling system" of his own invention, many English grammars, for much of the century after Bullokar's effort, were written in Latin, especially by authors who were aiming to be scholarly. John Wallis's Grammatica Linguæ Anglicanæ (1685) was the last English grammar written in Latin.

Even as late as the early 19th century, Lindley Murray, the author of one of the most widely used grammars of the day, was having to cite "grammatical authorities" to bolster the claim that grammatical cases in English are different from those in Ancient Greek or Latin.

HISTORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS

The history of English grammars begins late in the sixteenth century with the *Pamphlet for Grammar* by William Bullokar. In the early works, the structure and rules of English grammar were contrasted with those of Latin. A more modern approach, incorporating phonology, was introduced in the nineteenth century.

Sixteenth to Eighteenth Centuries

The first English grammar, *Pamphlet for Grammar* by William Bullokar, written with the seeming goal of demonstrating that English was quite as rule-bound as Latin, was published in 1586. Bullokar's grammar was faithfully modeled on William Lily's Latin grammar, *Rudimenta Grammatices* (1534). Lily's grammar was being used in schools in England at that time, having been

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The yoke of Latin grammar writing bore down oppressively on much of the early history of English grammars. Any attempt by one author to assert an independent grammatical rule for English was quickly followed by equal avowals by others of truth of the corresponding Latin-based equivalent. Even as late as the early 19th century, Lindley Murray, the author of one of the most widely used grammars of the day, was having to cite "grammatical authorities" to bolster the claim that grammatical cases in English are different from those in Ancient Greek or Latin.

The focus on tradition, however, belied the role that other social forces had already begun to play in the early seventeenth century. In particular, increasing commerce, and the social changes it wrought, created new impetus for grammar writing. On the one hand, greater British role in international trade created demand for English grammars for speakers of other languages. Many such grammars were published in various European languages in the second half of the seventeenth century. On the other hand, English grammars began to reach a wider audience within Britain itself. They spread beyond their erstwhile readership of "learned," privileged, adult males to other groups of native speakers such as women, merchants, tradesmen, and even schoolboys. Consequently, by the early eighteenth century, many grammars, such as John Brightland's *A Grammar of the English tongue* (1711) and James Greenwood's *Essay towards a practical English grammar*, were targeting people without "Latin background," including the "fair sex" and

children. If by the end of the seventeenth century English grammar writing had made a modest start, totaling 16 new grammars since Bullokar's *Pamphlet* of 115 years before, by the end of the eighteenth, the pace was positively brisk; 270 new titles were added during that century. Both publishing and demand, moreover, would continue to mushroom. The first half of the nineteenth century would see the appearance of almost 900 new books on English grammar.

Showing little originality, most new books took the tack of claiming—as justification for their appearance—that the needs of their particular target audience were still unmet or that a particular "grammatical point" had not been treated adequately in the preexisting texts, or oftentimes both. Texts that were both utilitarian and egalitarian were proliferating everywhere. Edward Shelley's *The people's grammar; or English grammar without difficulties for 'the million'* (1848), for example, was written for "the mechanic and hard-working youth, in their solitary struggles for the acquirement of knowledge."

Similarly, William Cobbett's popular mid-century book was titled, *A Grammar of the English Language, In a Series of Letters: Intended for the Use of Schools and of Young Persons in General, but more especially for the use of Soldiers, Sailors, Apprentices, and Plough-Boys*.

Eighteenth Century Prescriptive Grammars

Robert Lowth, Bishop of Oxford and thereafter of London, scholar of Hebrew poetry, and for a short time professor of poetry at Oxford, was the first and the best known of the widely emulated grammarians of the 18th century. A self-effacing clergyman, he published his only work on English grammar, *A Short Introduction to English Grammar, with critical notes*, in 1762, without the author's name on the title page. His influence—extended through the works of his students Lindley Murray and William Cobbett—would last well into the late 19th century. He

would also become, among prescriptive grammarians, the target of choice for the criticism meted out by later descriptivist linguists.

Lowth's chief aim, shared with that of most eighteenth century grammarians, was to present a standard English grammar that taught its readers to express themselves with "propriety" and to accurately evaluate constructions for correctness. Written in a spry and unpretentious style, the book contained a large number of worked examples, whose popularity, especially among the self-taught, made it a big commercial success. Lowth employed footnotes in a new way. He used them not merely to expand on the finer points, but also to offer a critique of errors. Consequently, the book offered a two-tier discourse: elementary statements of rules in the main text, and more nuanced analyses of errors in the footnotes. However, since the samples chosen for the error analysis included those from authors such as Alexander Pope, Jonathan Swift, and Joseph Addison, readers were sometimes discouraged by the immensity of the task before them.

Nineteenth Century to Present

It was during the nineteenth century that modern-language studies became systematized. In the case of English, this happened first in continental Europe, where it was studied by historical and comparative linguists. In 1832, Danish philologist, Rasmus Rask, published an English grammar, *Engelsk Formlære*, part of his extensive comparative studies in the grammars of Indo-European languages. German philologist, Jacob Grimm, the elder of the Brothers Grimm, included English grammar in his monumental grammar of Germanic languages, *Deutsche Grammatik* (1822–1837). German historical linguist Eduard Adolf Maetzner published his 1,700 page *Englische Grammatik* between 1860 and 1865; an English translation, *An English grammar: methodical, analytical and historical* appeared in 1874. Contributing little new to the intrinsic scientific study of English grammar, these works nonetheless

showed that English was being studied seriously by the first professional linguists.

As phonology became a full-fledged field, *spoken English* began to be studied scientifically as well, generating by the end of the nineteenth century an international enterprise investigating the structure of the language. This enterprise comprised scholars at various universities, their students who were training to be teachers of English, and journals publishing new research. All the pieces were in place for new "large-scale English grammars" which combined the disparate approaches of the previous decades. The first work to lay claim to the new scholarship was British linguist Henry Sweet's *A new English grammar: logical and historical*, published in two parts, Phonology and Accidence (1892) and Syntax (1896), its title suggesting not only continuity and contrast with Maetzner's earlier work, but also kinship with the contemporary *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (begun 1884), later the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1895). Two other contemporary English grammars were also influential. *English Grammar: Past and Present*, by John Collinson Nesfield, was originally written for the market in colonial India. It was later expanded to appeal to students in Britain as well, from young men preparing for various professional examinations to students in "Ladies' Colleges." *Grammar of spoken English* (1924), by H. E. Palmer, written for the teaching and study of English as a foreign language, included a full description of the intonation patterns of English.

The next set wide-ranging English grammars were written by Danish and Dutch linguists. Danish linguist Otto Jespersen, who had coauthored a few books with Henry Sweet, began work on his seven-volume *Modern English grammar on historical principles* in the first decade of the twentieth century. The first volume, *Sounds and spellings*, was published in 1909; it then took forty years for the remaining volumes on syntax (volumes 2 through 5), morphology (volume 6), and syntax again (volume 7), to

be completed. Jespersen's original contribution was in analyzing the various parts of a sentence in terms of categories that he named, *rank*, *junction*, and *nexus*, forgoing the usual word classes. His ideas would inspire the later work of Noam Chomsky and Randolph Quirk.

The Dutch tradition of writing English grammars, which began with Thomas Basson's *The Conjugations in Englische and Netherdutche* in the same year—1586—as William Bullokar's first English grammar (written in English), gained renewed strength in the early 20th century in the work of three grammarians: Hendrik Poutsma, Etsko Kruisinga, and Reinard Zandvoort. Poutsma's *Grammar of late modern English*, published between 1904 and 1929 and written for "continental, especially Dutch students," selected all its examples from English literature.

Timeline of English Grammars

- 1586. William Bullokar: *Bref Grammar for English*.
- 1594. Paul Greaves: *Grammatica Anglicana*.
- 1617. Alexander Hume: *Orthographie and Congruitie of the Britan Tongue*.
- 1619/1621. Alexander Gill: *Logonomia Anglica*.
- 1634. Charles Butler: *English Grammar*.
- 1640. Ben Jonson: *The English Grammar*.
- 1646. Joshua Poole: *The English Accidence*.
- 1653. John Wallis: *Grammatica Linguæ Anglicanæ*.
- 1654. Jeremiah Wharton: *The English Grammar*.
- 1662. James Howell: *A New English Grammar*.
- 1669. John Newton: *School Pastime for Young Children: or the Rudiments of Grammar*.
- 1669. John Milton: *Accedence Commenc't Grammar* (a Latin grammar written in English).
- 1671. Thomas Lye: *The Child's Delight*.
- 1685. Christopher Cooper: *Grammatica Linguæ Anglicanæ*.
- 1688. Guy Miège: *The English Grammar*.

- 1693. Joseph Aickin: *The English grammar*.
- 1700. A. Lane: *A Key to the Art of Letters*.
- 1762. Robert Lowth: *A short introduction to English grammar: with critical notes*.
- 1763. John Ash: *Grammatical institutes: or, An easy introduction to Dr. Lowth's English grammar*.
- 1765. William Ward: *An Essay on English Grammar*.
- 1766. Samuel Johnson: *A dictionary of the English Language...: to which is prefixed, a Grammar of the English Language*.
- 1772. Joseph Priestley: *The Rudiments of English Grammar: Adapted to the Use of Schools*.
- 1795. Lindley Murray: *English grammar: adapted to the different classes of learners*.
- 1804. Noah Webster: *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*.
- 1818. William Cobbett: *A Grammar of the English Language, In a Series of Letters*.
- 1850. William Chauncey Fowler: *English grammar: The English language in its elements and forms*.
- 1874 Eduard Adolf Maetzner, *An English grammar: methodical, analytical, and historical. With a treatise on the orthography, prosody, inflections and syntax of the English tongue, and numerous authorities cited in order of historical development*. (English translation of *Englische Grammatik* (1860–65)).
- 1892/98. Henry Sweet: *A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical* (Part 1: Introduction, Phonology, and Accidence; Part 2: Syntax).
- 1904–1929. H. Poutsma: *A Grammar of Modern English* (5 volumes).
- 1909–1932. Etsko Kruisinga: *A Handbook of Present-day English*
- 1909–1940. Otto Jespersen: *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles*.

- 1945. R. W. Zandvoort: *A Handbook of English Grammar*.
- 1952. Charles C. Fries: *The Structure of English: An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences*.
- 1984. M. A. K. Halliday: *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*.
- 1985. Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik: *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*.
- 1999. Douglas Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, and Edward Finegan: *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*.
- 2002. Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey Pullum: *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*.
- 2006. Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy: *The Cambridge Grammar of English*.

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2

Focus on English Compounds, Honorifics, Personal Pronouns, Plurals and Relative Clauses

ENGLISH COMPOUND

English compounds may be classified in several ways, such as the word classes or the semantic relationship of their components.

Examples by Word Class

Modifier	*Head*	*Compound*
noun	noun	football
adjective	noun	blackboard
verb	noun	breakwater
preposition	noun	underworld
noun	adjective	snowwhite
adjective	adjective	blue-green
verb	adjective	tumbledown
preposition	adjective	over-ripe
noun	verb	browbeat
adjective	verb	highlight
verb	verb	freeze-dry
preposition	verb	undercut
noun	preposition	love-in

adjective	preposition	forthwith
verb	preposition	takeout
preposition	preposition	without

Compound Nouns

Most English compound nouns are noun phrases (= nominal phrases) that include a noun modified by adjectives or attributive nouns. Due to the English tendency towards conversion, the two classes are not always easily distinguished. Most English compound nouns that consist of more than two words can be constructed recursively by combining two words at a time. Combining "science" and "fiction", and then combining the resulting compound with "writer", for example, can construct the compound "science fiction writer". Some compounds, such as *salt and pepper* or *mother-of-pearl*, cannot be constructed in this way, however.

Types of Compound Nouns

Since English is a mostly analytic language, unlike most other Germanic languages, it creates compounds by concatenating words without case markers. As in other Germanic languages, the compounds may be arbitrarily long. However, this is obscured by the fact that the written representation of long compounds always contains blanks. Short compounds may be written in three different ways, which do not correspond to different pronunciations, however:

- The "solid" or "closed" forms in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one. Solid compounds most likely consist of short (monosyllabic) units that often have been established in the language for a long time. Examples are *housewife*, *lawsuit*, *wallpaper*, etc.
- The *hyphenated* form in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. Compounds that contain affixes, such as *house-build(er)* and *single-mind(ed)(ness)*, as well as adjective-adjective

compounds and verb-verb compounds, such as *blue-green* and *freeze-dried*, are often hyphenated. Compounds that contain articles, prepositions or conjunctions, such as *rent-a-cop*, *mother-of-pearl* and *salt-and-pepper*, are also often hyphenated.

- The *open* or *spaced* form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words, such as *distance learning*, *player piano*, *lawn tennis*, etc.

Usage in the US and in the UK differs and often depends on the individual choice of the writer rather than on a hard-and-fast rule; therefore, open, hyphenated, and closed forms may be encountered for the same compound noun, such as the triplets *container ship/container-ship/containership* and *particle board/particle-board/particleboard*.

In addition to this native English compounding, there is the *classical* type, which consists of words derived from Latin, as *horticulture*, and those of Greek origin, such as *photography*, the components of which are in bound form (connected by connecting vowels, which are most often *-i-* and *-o-* in Latin and Greek respectively) and cannot stand alone.

Analyzability (Transparency)

In general, the meaning of a compound noun is a specialization of the meaning of its head. The modifier limits the meaning of the head. This is most obvious in descriptive compounds (known as *karmadharaya* compounds in the Sanskrit tradition), in which the modifier is used in an attributive or appositional manner. A *blackboard* is a particular kind of board, which is (generally) black, for instance.

In determinative compounds, however, the relationship is not attributive. For example, a *footstool* is not a particular type of stool that is like a foot. Rather, it is a *stool for one's foot or feet*. (It can be used for sitting on, but that is not its

primary purpose.) In a similar manner, an *office manager* is the manager of an office, an *armchair* is a *chair with arms*, and a *raincoat* is a *coat against the rain*. These relationships, which are expressed by prepositions in English, would be expressed by grammatical case in other languages. (Compounds of this type are known as *tatpurusha* in the Sanskrit tradition.)

Both of the above types of compounds are called endocentric compounds because the semantic head is contained within the compound itself—a blackboard is a type of board, for example, and a footstool is a type of stool.

However, in another common type of compound, the exocentric or (known as a bahuvrihi compound in the Sanskrit tradition), the semantic head is not explicitly expressed. A *redhead*, for example, is not a kind of head, but is a person with red hair. Similarly, a *blockhead* is also not a head, but a person with a head that is as hard and unreceptive as a block (i.e. stupid). And, outside of veterinary surgery, a *lionheart* is not a type of heart, but a person with a heart like a lion (in its bravery, courage, fearlessness, etc.).

Note in general the way to tell the two apart:

- Can you paraphrase the meaning of the compound "[X . Y]" to *A person/thing that is a Y*, or *... that does Y*, if Y is a verb (with X having some unspecified connection)? This is an endocentric compound.
- Can you paraphrase the meaning if the compound "[X . Y]" to *A person/thing that is with Y*, with X having some unspecified connection? This is an exocentric compound.

Exocentric compounds occur more often in adjectives than nouns. A *V-8 car* is a car with a V-8 engine rather than a car that is a V-8, and a *twenty-five-dollar car* is a car with a worth of $25, not a car that is $25. The compounds

shown here are bare, but more commonly, a suffixal morpheme is added, esp. *-ed*. Hence, a *two-legged* person is a person with two legs, and this is exocentric.

On the other hand, endocentric adjectives are also frequently formed, using the suffixal morphemes *-ing* or *-er*/*or*. A *people-carrier* is a clear endocentric determinative compound: it is a thing that is a carrier of people. The related adjective, *car-carrying*, is also endocentric: it refers to an object, which is a carrying-thing (or equivalent, which does carry).

These types account for most compound nouns, but there are other, rarer types as well. *Coordinative*, *copulative* or *dvandva* compounds combine elements with a similar meaning, and the compound meaning may be a generalization instead of a specialization. *Bosnia-Herzegovina*, for example, is the combined area of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but a *fighter-bomber* is an aircraft that is both a fighter and a bomber. *Iterative* or *amredita* compounds repeat a single element, to express repetition or as an emphasis. *Day by day* and *go-go* are examples of this type of compound, which has more than one head.

Analyzability may be further limited by cranberry morphemes and semantic changes. For instance, the word *butterfly*, commonly thought to be a metathesis for *flutter by*, which the bugs do, is actually based on an old bubbemaise that butterflies are petite witches that steal butter from window sills. *Cranberry* is a part translation from Low German, which is why we cannot recognize the element *cran* (from the Low German *kraan* or *kroon*, "crane"). The *ladybird* or *ladybug* was named after the Christian expression "our *Lady*, the Virgin Mary".

In the case of verb+noun compounds, the noun may be either the subject or the object of the verb. In *playboy*, for example, the noun is the subject of the verb (*the boy plays*), whereas it is the object in *callgirl* (*someone calls the girl*).

Sound Patterns

Stress patterns may distinguish a compound word from a noun phrase consisting of the same component words. For example, a *black board,* adjective plus noun, is any board that is black, and has equal stress on both elements. The compound *blackboard*, on the other hand, though it may have started out historically as *black board*, now is stressed on only the first element, *black*. Thus a compound such as *the White House* normally has a falling intonation which a phrase such as *a white house* does not.

Compound Adjectives

English compound adjectives are constructed in a very similar way to the compound noun. *Blackboard Jungle*, *leftover ingredients*, *gunmetal sheen*, and *green monkey disease* are only a few examples. A compound adjective is a modifier of a noun. It consists of two or more morphemes of which the left-hand component limits or changes the modification of the right-hand one, as in "the dark-green dress": *dark* limits the *green* that modifies *dress*.

Solid Compound Adjectives

There are some well-established permanent compound adjectives that have become solid over a longer period, especially in American usage: *earsplitting*, *eyecatching*, and *downtown*.

However, in British usage, these, apart from *downtown*, are more likely written with a hyphen: *ear-splitting*, *eye-catching*.

Other solid compound adjectives are for example:

- Numbers that are spelled out and have the suffix *-fold* added: "fifteenfold", "sixfold".
- Points of the compass: *northwest*, *northwester*, *northwesterly*, *northwestwards*, but not *North-West Frontier*. In British usage, the hyphenated and open versions are not uncommon: *north-wester*, *north-westerly*, *north westerly*, *north-westwards*.

Hyphenated Compound Adjectives

A compound adjective is hyphenated if the hyphen helps the reader differentiate a compound adjective from two adjacent adjectives that each independently modifies the noun. Compare the following examples:

- "small appliance industry": a small industry producing appliances
- "small-appliance industry": an industry producing small appliances

The hyphen is unneeded when capitalization or italicization makes grouping clear:

- "old English scholar": an old person who is English and a scholar, or an old scholar who studies English
- "Old English scholar": a scholar of Old English.
- "*De facto* proceedings" (not "*de-facto*")

If, however, there is no risk of ambiguities, it may be written without a hyphen: *Sunday morning walk*.

Hyphenated compound adjectives may have been formed originally by an adjective preceding a noun:

- "Round table" —> "round-table discussion"
- "Blue sky" —> "blue-sky law"
- "Red light" —> "red-light district"
- "Four wheels" —> "four-wheel drive" (historically, the singular or root, not plural, is used)

Others may have originated with a verb preceding an adjective or adverb:

- "Feel good" —> "feel-good factor"
- "Buy now, pay later" —> "buy-now pay-later purchase"

Yet others are created with an original verb preceding a preposition.

- "Stick on" —> "stick-on label"

- "Walk on" —> "walk-on part"
- "Stand by" —> "stand-by fare"
- "Roll on, roll off" —> "roll-on roll-off ferry"

The following compound adjectives are *always* hyphenated when they are not written as one word:

- An adjective preceding a noun to which *-d* or *-ed* has been added as a past-participle construction, used before a noun:
  - "loud-mouthed hooligan"
  - "middle-aged lady"
  - "rose-tinted glasses"
- A noun, adjective, or adverb preceding a present participle:
  - "an awe-inspiring personality"
  - "a long-lasting affair"
  - "a far-reaching decision"
- Numbers spelled out or as numerics:
  - "seven-year itch"
  - "five-sided polygon"
  - "20th-century poem"
  - "30-piece band"
  - "tenth-storey window"
  - "a 20-year-old man" (as a compound adjective) and "the 20-year-old" (as a compound noun) - but "a man, who is 20 years old"
- A numeric with the affix *-fold* has a hyphen (*15-fold*), but when spelled out takes a solid construction (*fifteenfold*).
- Numbers, spelled out or numeric, with added *-odd*: *sixteen-odd*, *70-odd*.
- Compound adjectives with *high-* or *low-*: "high-level discussion", "low-price markup".

- Colours in compounds:
  - o "a dark-blue sweater"
  - o "a reddish-orange dress".
- Fractions as modifiers are hyphenated: "five-eighths inches", but if numerator or denominator are already hyphenated, the fraction itself does not take a hyphen: "a thirty-three thousandth part". (Fractions used as nouns have no hyphens: "I ate only one third of the pie.")
- Comparatives and superlatives in compound adjectives also take hyphens:
  - o "the highest-placed competitor"
  - o "a shorter-term loan"
- However, a construction with *most* is not hyphenated:
  - o "the most respected member".
- Compounds including two geographical modifiers:
  - o "Afro-Cuban"
  - o "African-American" (sometimes)
  - o "Anglo-Indian"
- But not
  - o "Central American".

The following compound adjectives are not normally hyphenated:

- Where there is no risk of ambiguity:
  - o "a Sunday morning walk"
- Left-hand components of a compound adjective that end in *-ly* that modify right-hand components that are past participles (ending in *-ed*):
  - o "a hotly disputed subject"
  - o "a greatly improved scheme"
  - o "a distantly related celebrity"

- Compound adjectives that include comparatives and superlatives with *more*, *most*, *less* or *least*:
  - o "a more recent development"
  - o "the most respected member"
  - o "a less opportune moment"
  - o "the least expected event"
- Ordinarily hyphenated compounds with intensive adverbs in front of adjectives:
  - o "very much admired classicist"
  - o "really well accepted proposal"

Compound Verbs

Compound verb is usually composed of a preposition and a verb, although other combinations also exist. The term *compound verb* was first used in publication in Grattan and Gurrey's *Our Living Language* (1925). From a morphological point of view, some compound verbs are difficult to analyze because several derivations are plausible. *Blacklist*, for instance, might be analyzed as an adjective+verb compound, or as an adjective+noun compound that becomes a verb through zero derivation.

Most compound verbs originally have the collective meaning of both components, but some of them later gain additional meanings that may supersede the original, emergent sense. Therefore, sometimes the resultant meanings are seemingly barely related to the original contributors. Compound verbs composed of a noun and verb are comparatively rare, and the noun is generally not the direct object of the verb. In English, compounds such as **bread-bake* or **car-drive* do not exist. Yet, we find literal action words, such as *breastfeed*, and washing instructions on clothing as for example *hand wash*.

Hyphenation

Compound verbs with single-syllable modifiers are solid, or unhyphenated. Those with longer modifiers may originally

be hyphenated, but as they became established, they became solid, e.g.,

- overhang (English origin)
- counterattack (Latin origin)

There was a tendency in the 18th century to use hyphens excessively, that is, to hyphenate all previously established solid compound verbs. American English, however, has diminished the use of hyphens, while British English is more conservative.

Phrasal Verbs

English syntax distinguishes between phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs. Consider the following:

I held up my hand.
I held up a bank.
I held my hand up.
I held a bank up.

The first three sentences are possible in English; the last one is unlikely. When *to hold up* means *to raise*, it is a prepositional verb; the preposition *up* can be detached from the verb and has its own individual meaning "*from lower to a higher position*". As a prepositional verb, it has a literal meaning. However, when to hold up means *to rob*, it is a phrasal verb. A phrasal verb is used in an idiomatic, figurative or even metaphorical context. The preposition is inextricably linked to the verb; the meaning of each word cannot be determined independently but is in fact part of the idiom.

The *Oxford English Grammar* (ISBN 0-19-861250-8) distinguishes seven types of prepositional or phrasal verbs in English:

- intransitive phrasal verbs (e.g. *give in*)
- transitive phrasal verbs (e.g. *find out* [*discover*])
- monotransitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *look after* [*care for*])

- doubly transitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *blame* [something] *on* [someone])
- copular prepositional verbs. (e.g. *serve as*)
- monotransitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *look up to* [*respect*])
- doubly transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *put* [something] *down to* [someone] [*attribute to*])

English has a number of other kinds of compound verb idioms. There are compound verbs with two verbs (e.g. *make do*). These too can take idiomatic prepositions (e.g. *get rid of*). There are also idiomatic combinations of verb and adjective (e.g. *come true*, *run amok*) and verb and adverb (*make sure*), verb and fixed noun (e.g. *go ape*); and these, too, may have fixed idiomatic prepositions (e.g. *take place on*).

Misuses of the Term

"Compound verb" is often used in place of:

1. "complex verb", a type of complex phrase. But this usage is not accepted in linguistics, because "compound" and "complex" are not synonymous.
2. "verb phrase" or "verbal phrase". This is a partially, but not entirely, incorrect use. A phrasal verb can be a one-word verb, of which compound verb is a type. However, many phrasal verbs are multi-word.
3. "phrasal verb". A sub-type of verb phrase, which have a particle as a *word* before or after the verb.

ENGLISH HONORIFICS

In the English language an English honorific is a title prefixing a person's name, *e.g.*: *Miss*, *Ms.*, *Mr*, *Sir*, *Mrs*, *Dr* and *Lord*. They are not necessarily titles or positions that can appear without the person's name, as in *the President*, *the Earl*.

There are many forms of honorifics that are used when addressing the members of the nobility or royalty, mostly

in countries that are monarchies. These include "Your Majesty" and "Your Highness", which are often used when speaking with royalty. "Milord" or "Milady" (for "my lord" or "my lady") can be used to address a peer or peeress other than a Duke, who is referred to as "Your Grace".

Some honorifics distinguish the sex of the person being referred to. Some titles of the nobility and of professional honorifics such as Doctor or General do not have female equivalents because they were traditionally male-only professions, and women have simply adopted the associated titles.

General Usage of Some Common Titles

- Ms: - default use for women regardless of marital status.
- Miss: for use by unmarried women only.
- Mrs: - for use by married women only.
- Mr: Mister - for men.
- Master: - for boys or very young men.
- Dr: Doctor - a person who has obtained a doctorate, such as the Doctor of Medicine (M.D.), Doctor of Law (J.D.) or Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)
- Rev: Reverend - for Christian clergy
- Fr: Father - for priests in Catholic and Orthodox Christianity, and some Anglican or Episcopalian groups
- Sr: Sister - Nun or other religious sister in the Catholic Church

ENGLISH PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The personal pronouns in the English language can have various forms according to gender, number, person, and case. Modern English is a language with very little noun or adjective inflection, to the point where some authors describe it as analytic, but the Modern English system of personal pronouns has preserved most of the inflectional complexity of Old English and Middle English.

Unlike other nouns, which are undeclined for case except for possession (*woman* / *woman's*), English pronouns have a number of forms, depending on their grammatical role in a sentence:

- a *subjective case* (*I*/*we*/etc.), used as the subject of a verb.
- an *objective case* (*me*/*us*/etc.), used as the object of a verb or preposition. The same forms are also used as disjunctive pronouns.
- a *reflexive* form (*myself*/*ourselves* etc.), which is preceded by the noun or pronoun to which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause (for example, *She cut herself*). Frequent errors exist when a reflexive pronoun is inserted incorrectly for "me" or "I" (error: *It was written by John, Ann, and myself* when it should read, *It was written by John, Ann, and me* and error: *John, Ann, and myself wrote it* when it should read, *John, Ann, and I wrote it*). The same reflexive forms also are used as intensive pronouns (for example, *She made the dress herself*).
- two *possessive* forms, used to indicate the possessor of another noun. The first group (*my*/*our*/etc.) are used as *determiners* (possessive determiners, also called possessive adjectives), and the second (*mine*/*ours*/etc.) as pronouns or predicate adjectives.

First Person Pronouns

I *and* me

- In modern English, *me* is sometimes used in colloquial speech as the predicative of the copula, occurring when the subject is the speaker. See *It is I* / *It is me* for a more detailed discussion.
- In some dialects of English, such as Caribbean English, *me* may be used as a subject, in place of *I*.

My *and* mine, thy *and* thine

- Historically, *my* comes from a reduction of *mine*, and well after the emergence of *my*, *mine* continued to be used instead of *my* before words beginning with vowel sounds (e.g., the first line of "The Battle Hymn of the Republic"). Similarly with *thy* and *thine*.

We

- In English, the first-person plural pronoun, *we*, is used in both the inclusive sense (you and I) and exclusive sense (someone else and I but not you). It's also used as a majestic plural.

  e.g.: Inclusive use with the speaker:
- *We can all go to the zoo today.*

  This contrasts with exclusive *we*, which excludes the person being spoken to, e.g.:
- *We mean to stop your evil plans!*

  Majestic plural:
- *We are not amused*

Ourself

- *Ourself* is used when *we* is semantically singular, but grammatically plural, as in the royal *we* and in the editorial *we*, however, there is the reflexive example of, "We, ourselves, are not pleased!"

Second Person Pronoun

You

- The only common distinction between singular and plural *you* is in the reflexive and emphatic forms.
- *You* and its variants can sometimes be used in a generic sense. See *Generic you*.

Ye

- Historically, *you* was an object pronoun, and *ye* was its subject counterpart; today, *you* fills both

roles in Standard English, though some dialects use *ye* for the two roles, and some use *ye* as an apocopated or clitic form of *you*.

Thou

- Between 1600 and 1800, the various second-person singular forms of *thou* began to pass out of common usage in most places, except in poetry, archaic-style literature, public prayer, and descriptions of other languages' pronouns. *Thou* refers to one person who is familiar, as in a friend or family, and also for a person who is being insulted or disrespected (since the formal form implies a degree of respect). Also, as in other European languages, the familiar form is used (presumably as for family and intimates) when speaking to God in prayer. Almost all forms of *thou* have disappeared from Standard Modern English, although a few dialects retain them. *Thou* still exists in parts of England, Scotland, and in some Christian religious communities.

Other Second Person Pronouns

- While formal Standard English uses *you* for both singular and plural, many dialects use various special forms for the plural, such as *y'all* (short for "you all"), *you guys*, *yinz* (short for "you ones"), and *yous* (also spelled *youse*). Corresponding reflexive and possessive pronouns are often used as well.
- In Scotland, *yous* is often used for the second person plural (particularly in the Central Belt area). However, in some parts of the country, *ye* is used for the plural *you*. In older times and in some other places today, *ye* is the nominative case and *you* is the accusative case. Some English dialects generalized *ye*, while standard English generalized *you*. Some dialects use *ye* as a clipped or weak form of *you*.

Third Person Pronouns

Third Person Singular

It and *its* are normally used to refer to an inanimate object or abstract concept. The masculine pronouns, *he* and *his* are used to refer to male persons, while the feminine pronouns, *she* and *her* are used to refer to female persons; however babies and young children of indeterminate sex may sometimes be referred to as *it* (e.g. *a child needs its mother*). Though animals are often referred to as *it*, *he* and *she* are sometimes used for animals when the animal's sex is known and is of interest, particularly for higher animals, especially pets and other domesticated animals. Inanimate objects with which humans have a close relationship, such as ships, are sometimes referred to as *she*. Countries considered as political, rather than geographical, entities are sometimes referred to as *she*. This may also be extended to towns.

One is used in formal English to refer to an indeterminate person; in informal usage, English speakers often use *you* instead of *one*; for example "If one is kind to others..." becomes "If you're kind to others...".

Third Person Plural

- Historically the forms *they*, *their*, and *them* are of Scandinavian origin (from the Viking invasions and settlement in northeastern England during the Danelaw period from the 9th to the 11th centuries).
- The third person plural form *'em* is believed to be a survival of the late Old English form *heom*, which appears as *hem* in Chaucer, and has apparently lost its aspiration due to being used as an unstressed form.
- The forms of *they* are also sometimes used with grammatically or semantically singular antecedents, though it is a matter of some dispute whether and

when such usage is acceptable. When this is the case, they takes a plural verb, but *themselves* with a singular sense is often changed to *themself*.

- Although grammarians and usage writers often condemn the use of the "singular they" when the gender is unknown or unimportant, this is often used, both in speech and in writing (e.g. "If a customer requires help, they should contact..."). In fact, a consistent pattern of usage can be traced at least as far back as Shakespeare, and possibly even back to Middle English. It avoids awkward constructions such as *he or she*. This usage is authorised and preferred by the Australian Government Manual of Style for official usage in government documents. See *Singular they*. The use of the "singular they" can often be avoided by thinking ahead and rephrasing the whole sentence (e.g. "For assistance, customers should contact...").

ENGLISH PLURAL

In the English language, nouns are inflected for grammatical number—that is, singular or plural. This article discusses the variety of ways in which English plurals are formed for nouns. For the plurals of pronouns, see English personal pronouns. Phonetic transcriptions provided in this article are for Received Pronunciation and General American.

Regular Plurals

The plural morpheme in English is suffixed to the end of most nouns. Regular English plurals fall into three classes, depending upon the sound that ends the singular form:

Where a singular noun ends in a sibilant sound—/s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/,or /dʒ/—the plural is formed by adding /hz/. The spelling adds *-es*, or *-s* if the singular already ends in *-e*:

kiss kisses

phase	phases
dish	dishes
massage	massages
witch	witches
judge	judges

When the singular form ends in a voiceless consonant (other than a sibilant) — /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/ or /è/, — the plural is formed by adding /s/. The spelling adds *-s*. Examples:

lap	laps
cat	cats
clock	clocks
cuff	cuffs
death	deaths

For all other words (i.e. words ending in vowels or voiced non-sibilants) the regular plural adds /z/, represented orthographically by *-s*:

boy	boys
girl	girls
chair	chairs

Morphophonetically, these rules are sufficient to describe most English plurals. However, there are several complications introduced in spelling.

The -oes rule: most nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant also form their plurals by adding *-es* (pronounced /z/):

hero	heroes
potato	potatoes
volcano	volcanoes *or* volcanos

The -ies rule: nouns ending in a *y* preceded by a consonant usually drop the *y* and add *-ies* (pronounced /iz/). This is taught to many North American and British students with the mnemonic: "Change the *y* to *i* and add *es*":

cherry	cherries
lady	ladies

However, proper nouns (particularly those for people or places) ending in a *y* preceded by a consonant form their plurals regularly :

Germany Germanys (as in *The two Germanys were unified in 1990*; this rule is commonly not adhered to as several book titles show,; Sicilies and Scillies, rather than Sicilys and Scillys, are the standard plurals of Sicily and Scilly.)

Harry Harrys (as in *There are three Harrys in our office*)

The rule does not apply to words that are merely capitalized common nouns:

P&O Ferries (from *ferry*)

Other exceptions include *lay-bys* and *stand-bys*.

Words ending in a *y* preceded by a vowel form their plurals regularly:

day	days
monkey	monkeys

(*Money/Monies* is an exception, but *money* can also form its plural regularly.)

Almost-Regular Plurals

Many nouns of foreign origin, including almost all Italian loanwords, are exceptions to the -oes rule:

canto	cantos
homo	homos
photo	photos
zero	zeros
piano	pianos
portico	porticos
pro	pros
quarto *(paper size)*	quartos
kimono	kimonos

In Old and Middle English voiceless fricatives /f/, /è/ mutated to voiced fricatives before a voiced ending. In

some words this voicing survives in the modern English plural.

Irregular Plurals

There are many other less regular ways of forming plurals, usually stemming from older forms of English or from foreign borrowings.

Nouns with identical singular and plural

Some nouns spell their singular and plural exactly alike; some linguists regard these as regular plurals. Many of these are the names of animals:

deer
moose
sheep
bison
salmon
pike
trout
fish
swine

The plural *deers* is listed in some dictionaries. As a general rule, game or other animals are often referred to in the singular for the plural in a sporting context: "He shot six brace of pheasant", "Carruthers bagged a dozen tiger last year", whereas in another context such as zoology or tourism the regular plural would be used. Similarly, nearly all kinds of fish have no separate plural form (though there are exceptions such as rays, sharks or lampreys). And the word "fish" itself is also troublesome, being generally used as a plural when in the context of food, but forming a regular plural otherwise (thus "three lots of fish and chips", "the industry landed 5,200 tonnes of fish in 1998" but "the order of fishes", "the miracle of the loaves and fishes", the phrase "sleep with the fishes"); usage does vary, however, so that for example the phrase "five fish in an aquarium" might to another native user be "five fishes in an aquarium".

Using the plural form *fish* could imply many individual fish(es) of the same species while *fishes* could imply many individual fish(es) of differing species. A word which has identical singular and plural forms is called siltsiquant

Other nouns that have identical singular and plural forms include:

aircraft
blues
cannon (sometimes cannons)
head
stone (occasionally stones)

Ablaut Plurals

The plural is sometimes formed by simply changing the vowel sound of the singular, in a process called ablaut (these are sometimes called *mutated plurals*):

foot	Feet
goose	geese
louse	Lice
man	men
mouse	mice
tooth	teeth
woman	women

This group consists of words that historically belong to the Old English consonantal declension, see Germanic umlaut#I-mutation in Old English.

Mouse is sometimes pluralized *mouses* in discussions of the computer mouse; however, *mice* is just as common.

Mongoose has the plural *mongooses*, or less commonly *mongeese* by analogy to *geese*.

Irregular Plurals from Latin and Greek

English has borrowed a great many words from Latin and Classical Greek. The general trend with loanwords is toward what is called *Anglicization* or *naturalization*, that is, the re-formation of the word and its inflections as normal

English words. Many nouns (particularly ones from Latin) have retained their original plurals for some time after they are introduced. Other nouns have become Anglicized, taking on the normal "s" ending. In some cases, both forms are still competing.

The choice of a form can often depend on context: for a linguist, the plural of *appendix* is *appendices* (following the original language); for physicians, however, the plural of *appendix* is *appendixes*. Likewise, a radio engineer works with *antennas* and an entomologist deals with *antennae*. Choice of form can also depend on the level of discourse: traditional Latin plurals are found more often in academic and scientific contexts, whereas in daily speech the anglicized forms are more common. In the following table, the Latin plurals are listed, together with the Anglicized forms when they are more common.

- Final *a* becomes *-ae* (also *-æ*), or just adds *-s*:

alumna	alumnae
formula	formulae/formulas
encyclopedia (rarely encyclopædia)	
encyclopedias (encyclopediae is rare)	

- Final *is* becomes *es* (pronounced /iÐz/):

axis	axes	/ÈæksiÐz/
crisis	crises	/ÈkrajsiÐz/
testis	testes	/Èt[stiÐz/

Axes, the plural of *axis*, is pronounced differently from *axes* (/Èækshz/), the plural of *ax(e)*.

- Final *ies* remains unchanged:

series	series
species	species

- Final *on* becomes *-a*:

automaton	automata
criterion	criteria
phenomenon	phenomena (more below)
polyhedron	polyhedra

- Final *um* becomes *-a*, or just adds *-s*:
  addendum addenda
- Final *us* becomes *-i* (second declension, [aj]) or *-era* or *-ora* (third declension), or just adds *-es* (especially in fourth declension, where it would otherwise be the same as the singular):
  alumnus alumni
  corpus corpora
  census censuses
  focus foci
  genus genera
- Final *us* remains unchanged in the plural (fourth declension - the plural has a long û to differentiate it from the singular short Ô):
  meatus meatus
  status status

Colloquial usages based in a humorous fashion on the second declension include *Elvii* to refer to multiple Elvis impersonators and *Loti*, used by petrolheads to refer to Lotus automobiles in the plural.

- Final *as* in one case of a noun of Greek origin changes to *-antes*:
  Atlas Atlantes (statues of the hero); but
  atlas atlases (map collections)
- Final *ma* in nouns of Greek origin can add *-ta*, although *-s* is usually also acceptable, and in many cases more common.
  stigma stigmata/stigmas
  stoma stomata/stomas
  schema schemata/schemas
  dogma dogmata/dogmas
  lemma lemmata/lemmas
  anathema anathemata/anathemas

Irregular Plurals from other Languages

- Some nouns of French origin add an *-x*, which may be silent or pronounced /z/:

beau	beaux
bureau	bureaus or bureaux
château	châteaux
tableau	tableaux

Foreign terms may take native plural forms, especially when the user is addressing an audience familiar with the language. In such cases, the conventionally formed English plural may sound awkward or be confusing.

- Nouns of Slavic origin add *-a* or *-i* according to native rules, or just *-s*:

kobzar	kobzari/kobzars
oblast	oblasti/oblasts

- Nouns of Hebrew origin add *-im* or *-ot* (generally m/f) according to native rules, or just *-s*:

cherub	cherubim/cherubs
seraph	seraphim/seraphs
matzah	matzot/matzahs
kibbutz	kibbutzim/kibbutzes

Ot is pronounced *os* (with unvoiced *s*) in the Ashkenazi dialect.

- Many nouns of Japanese origin have no plural form and do not change:

benshi	benshi
otaku	otaku
samurai	samurai

However, other nouns such as *kimonos*, *ninjas*, *futons*, and *tsunamis* are more often seen with a regular English plural.

- In New Zealand English, nouns of Mâori origin can either take an *-s* or have no separate plural form. Words more connected to Mâori culture and used in that context tend to retain the same form, while names of flora and fauna may or may not take an *-s*, depending on context. Many regard omission as more correct:

kiwikiwi	/kiwis
kowhai	kowhai/kowhais
Mâori	Mâori/(*occasionally* Mâoris)
marae	marae
tui	tuis/tui
waka	waka

- In Canada and Alaska, some words borrowed from Inuktitut retain traditional plurals (see also Plurals of names of peoples, below):

Inuk	Inuit
inukshuk	inukshuit

- Nouns from languages other than the above generally form plurals as if they were native English words:

canoe	canoes
cwm	cwms (Welsh valley)
igloo	igloos
kangaroo	kangaroos
kayak	kayaks
kindergarten	kindergartens
pizza	pizzas
sauna	saunas
ninja	ninjas

Words Better Known in the Plural

Some words of foreign origin are much better known in the plural; usage of the original singular may be considered pedantic or actually incorrect or worse by some speakers. In common usage, the original plural is considered the

singular form. In many cases, back-formation has produced a regularized plural.

Original singular	Original plural/common singular	Common plural
agendum	agenda	agendas
alga	algae	algae
bacterium	bacteria	bacteria
biscotto	biscotti	biscotti
candelabrum	candelabra	candelabras
datumdata	data (mass noun)	
graffito	graffiti	graffiti (mass noun)
insigne	insignia	insignias
opus	opera	operas
panino	panini	paninis (currently gaining use)
paparazzo	paparazzi	paparazzi
spaghetto	spaghetti	spaghetti

Some plural nouns are used as such—invariably being accompanied by a plural verb form—while their singular forms are rarely encountered:

nuptial	nuptials
phalanx	phalanges
tiding	tidings
victual	victuals
viscus	viscera

In medical terminology, a *phalanx* is any bone of the finger or toe. A military *phalanx* is pluralized *phalanxes*. A related phenomenon is the confusion of a foreign plural for its singular form:

criterion	criteria
phenomenon	phenomena
consortium	consortia
symposium	symposia

Magazine was derived from Arabic via French. It was originally plural, but in English, it is always regarded as singular.

Plurals of Numbers

English, like some other languages, treats large numerals as nouns (cf. "there were ten soldiers" and "there were *a* hundred soldiers"). Thus, *dozens* is preferred to *tens*, while *hundreds* and *thousands* are also completely acceptable.

Plurals of numbers differ according to how they are used. The following rules apply to *dozen*, *score*, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, and similar terms:

- When modified by a number, the plural is not inflected, that is, has no *-s* added. Hence *one hundred*, *two hundred*, etc. For vaguer large numbers, one may say *several hundred* or *many hundreds*.
- When used alone, or followed by a prepositional phrase, the plural is inflected: *dozens of complaints*, *scores of people*. However, either *complaints by the dozen* or *complaints by the dozens* is acceptable (although differing in meaning).
- The preposition *of* is used when speaking of nonspecific items identified by pronouns: *two hundred of these, three dozen of those*. The *of* is not used for a number of specific items: *three hundred oriental rugs*. However, if the pronoun is included with the specific item, the *of* is used: *five million of those dollar bills*.

Nouns Used Attributively

Nouns used attributively to qualify other nouns are generally in the singular, even though for example, a *dog catcher* catches more than one dog, and a *department store* has more than one department. This is true even for some binary nouns where the singular form is not found in isolation, such as *trouser press* or *scissor kick*. It is also true where the attribute noun is itself qualified with a number, such as a *twenty-dollar bill*, a *ten-foot pole* or a *two-man tent*. The plural is used for pluralia tantum nouns;

a *glasses case* is for eyeglasses, while a *glass case* is made of glass (but compare *eyeglass case*); also an *arms race* versus *arm wrestling*. The plural may be used to emphasise the plurality of the attribute, especially in British English: a *careers advisor*, a *languages expert*. The plural is also more common with irregular plurals for certain attributions: *women killers* are women who kill, whereas *woman killers* are those who kill women.

Defective Nouns

Some nouns have no singular form. Such a noun is called a plurale tantum (see also Words better known in the plural above):

cattle, billiards, clothes, measles, news, thanks

Some of these do have singular adjective forms, such as *billiard ball*. In addition, some are treated as singular in construction, e.g., "billiards is a game played on a table with billiard balls and a cue", "measles is an infectious disease". *Thanks* is usually treated as plural. Although "cow" is sometimes used in colloquial English for cattle, the term is age and gender specific.

A particular set of nouns, describing things having two parts, comprises the major group of pluralia tantum in modern English:

pants, pliers, scissors, shorts, tongs (metalworking), trousers, glasses (a pair of)

These words are interchangeable with *a pair of scissors*, *a pair of trousers*, and so forth. In the U.S. fashion industry it is common to refer to a single pair of pants as a *pant* — though this is a back-formation, the English word (deriving from the French *pantalon*) was originally singular. In the same field, one half of a pair of scissors separated from the other half is, rather illogically, referred to as a *half-scissor*. *Tweezers* used to be part of this group, but *tweezer* has come into common usage since the second half of the twentieth century.

Mass nouns (or uncountable nouns) do not represent distinct objects, so the singular and plural semantics do not apply in the same way. Some examples:

- Abstract nouns
  deceit, information, cunning, and nouns derived from adjectives, such as honesty, wisdom, beauty, intelligence, stupidity, curiosity, and words ending with 'ness', such as goodness, freshness, laziness, and nouns which are homonyms of adjectives with a similar meaning, such as good, bad (can also use goodness and badness), hot, cold
- Arts and sciences
  chemistry, geometry, surgery, blues, jazz, rock and roll, impressionism, surrealism. This includes those that look plural but function as grammatically singular in English: mathematics, arithmetics, ethics, physics, mechanics, optics, thermodynamics, linguistics, acoustics, etc.; e.g., *mathematics is fun*
- Chemical elements and other physical entities:
  antimony, gold, oxygen, equipment, furniture, gear, species, air, water, sand, traffic

Some mass nouns can be pluralized, but the meaning thereof may change slightly. For example, when I have two grain(s) of sand, I do not have two sands; I have sand. There is more sand in your pile, not more sands. However, there could be many "sands of Africa"—either many distinct stretches of sand, or distinct types of sand of interest to geologists or builders, or simply the allusive sands of Africa.

It is rare to pluralize *furniture* in this way. Nor would *information* be so treated, except in the case of *criminal informations*, which are prosecutor's briefs similar to indictments.

There is only one class of atoms called oxygen, but there are several isotopes of oxygen, which might be referred to as different oxygens. In casual speech, *oxygen* might be

used as shorthand for "oxygen atoms", but in this case, it is not a mass noun, so it is entirely sensible to refer to multiple oxygens in the same molecule.

One would interpret Bob's *wisdoms* as various pieces of Bob's wisdom (that is, don't run with scissors, defer to those with greater knowledge), *deceits* as a series of instances of deceitful behaviour (lied on income tax, dated my wife), and the different *idlenesses* of the worker as plural distinct manifestations of the mass concept of idleness (or as different types of idleness, "bone lazy" *versus* "no work to do").

Specie and *species* make a fascinating case. Both words come from a Latin word meaning "kind", but they do not form a singular-plural pair. In Latin, *specie* is the ablative singular form, while *species* is the nominative form, which happens to be the same in both singular and plural. In English, *species* behaves similarly—as a noun with identical singular and plural—while *specie* is treated as a mass noun, referring to money in the form of coins (the idea is of "[payment] in kind").

Plurals of Compound Nouns

The majority of English compound nouns have one basic term, or head, with which they end, and are pluralized in typical fashion:

able seaman	able seamen
head banger	head bangers
yellow-dog contract	yellow-dog contracts

A compound that has one head, with which it begins, usually pluralizes its head:

attorney general	attorneys general
bill of attainder	bills of attainder
court martial	courts martial
director general	directors general
fee simple absolute	fees simple absolute
governor-general	governors-general

passerby	passersby
ship of the line	ships of the line
son-in-law	sons-in-law
minister-president	ministers-president
knight-errant	knights-errant
procurator fiscal *(in Scotland)*	procurators fiscal

It is common in informal speech to instead pluralize the last word in the manner typical of most English nouns, but in edited prose, the forms given above are preferred.

If a compound can be thought to have two heads, both of them tend to be pluralized when the first head has an irregular plural form:

man-child	men-children
manservant	menservants
woman doctor	women doctors

Two-headed compounds in which the first head has a standard plural form, however, tend to pluralize only the final head:

city-state	city-states
nurse-practitioner	nurse-practitioners
scholar-poet	scholar-poets

In military usage, the term *general*, as part of an officer's title, is etymologically an adjective, but it has been adopted as a noun and thus a head, so compound titles employing it are pluralized at the end:

brigadier general	brigadier generals
major general	major generals

For compounds of three or more words that have a head (or a term functioning as a head) with an irregular plural form, only that term is pluralized:

man-about-town	men-about-town
man-of-war	men-of-war
woman of the street	women of the street

For many other compounds of three or more words with a head at the front—especially in cases where the compound is ad hoc and/or the head is metaphorical—it is generally regarded as acceptable to pluralize either the first major term or the last (if open when singular, such compounds tend to take hyphens when plural in the latter case):

ham on rye	hams on rye/ham-on-ryes
jack-in-the-box	jacks-in-the-box/jack-in-the-boxes
jack-in-the-pulpit	jacks-in-the-pulpit/jack-in-the-pulpits

With a few extended compounds, both terms may be pluralized—again, with an alternative (which may be more prevalent, e.g., *heads of state*):

head of state	heads of states/heads of state
son of a bitch	sons of bitches/sons-of-a-bitch

With extended compounds constructed around *o'*, only the last term is pluralized (or left unchanged if it is already plural):

cat-o'-nine-tails	cat-o'-nine-tails
jack-o'-lantern	jack-o'-lanterns
will-o'-the-wisp	will-o'-the-wisps

Compounds from the French

Many English compounds have been borrowed directly from the French, and these generally follow a somewhat different set of rules. French-loaned compounds with a head at the beginning tend to pluralize both words, according to French practice:

agent provocateur	agents provocateurs
entente cordiale	ententes cordiales
fait accompli	faits accomplis
idée fixe	idées fixes

For compounds adopted directly from the French where the head comes at the end, it is generally regarded as acceptable either to pluralize both words or only the last:

beau geste	beaux gestes/beau gestes
belle époque	belles époques/belle époques
bon mot	bons mots/bon mots
bon vivant	bons vivants/bon vivants
bel homme	beaux hommes

French-loaned compounds longer than two words tend to follow the rules of the original language, which usually involves pluralizing only the head at the beginning:

aide-de-camp	aides-de-camp
cri de coeur	cris de coeur
coup d'état	coups d'état
tour de force	tours de force

but:

tête-à-têtetête-à-têtes

A distinctive case is the compound *film noir.* For this French-loaned artistic term, English-language texts variously use as the plural *films noirs, films noir,* and, most prevalently, *film noirs.* The 11th edition of the standard *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (2006) lists *film noirs* as the preferred style. Three primary bases may be identified for this:

1. Unlike other compounds borrowed directly from the French, *film noir* is used to refer primarily to English-language cultural artifacts; a typically English-style plural is thus unusually appropriate.
2. Again, unlike other foreign-loaned compounds, *film noir* refers specifically to the products of popular culture; consequently, popular usage holds more orthographical authority than is usual.
3. English has adopted *noir* as a stand-alone noun in artistic contexts, leading it to serve as the lone head in a variety of compounds (e.g., *psycho-noir, sci-fi noir*).

Plurals (and singulars) of Headless Nouns

In *The Language Instinct*, linguist Steven Pinker

discusses what he calls "headless words", typically bahuvrihi compounds, like *lowlife* and *Red Sox*, in which *life* and *sox* are not heads semantically; that is, a lowlife is not a type of life, nor are Red Sox a group of similarly colored socks. When the common form of such a word is singular, it is treated as if it has a regular plural, even if the final constituent of the word is usually pluralized in a nonregular fashion. Thus, more than one lowlife are *lowlifes*, not "lowlives", according to Pinker. A related process can be observed with the compound *maple leaf*, pluralized in its common-noun form as *maple leaves*; when it is adopted as the name of an ice-hockey team, its plural becomes *Maple Leafs*. Other proposed examples include:

flatfoot	flatfoots
sabertooth	sabertooths
still life	still lifes
tenderfoot	tenderfoots

An exception is *Blackfoot*, of which the plural can be *Blackfeet*, though that form of the name is officially rejected by the Blackfoot First Nations of Canada.

Where words have taken on completely new meanings, irregular plurals may become regularized. *Antennas* is the accepted plural of *antenna* when it refers to electronic equipment, in contrast to *antennae* for arthropod feelers. The computer *mouse* is sometimes considered headless and pluralized as *mouses*, but also often as *mice*; in contrast to the compound headless words just discussed, there is a considerably stronger metaphorical relationship in this case, with many computer pointing devices resembling rodents with tails.

In other cases, the common form of a headless word is a nonregular plural; when such a word lacks a terminal *s*, it is treated as defective, thus making the singular version of the word identical: an individual member of the Boston baseball team is a *Red Sox*, just as all twenty-five are; one Chicago White Sox is a *White Sox*.

Related Collective Nouns

Sports team names like those discussed above—as well as more grammatically ordinary names such as *Reds*, *Knicks*, and *Canadiens*, and straightforward compound names such as *Blue Jays*—form a particular set of collective nouns. Closely related to the class of essentially plural headless nouns typified by *Red Sox* are the growing number of orthographically singular sports team names that may be classified as examples of a special type of collective noun—one that (a) has identical terms for both the collective and an individual thereof (as with the essentially plural headless noun) but (b) is not used as a counting noun beyond the singular. Two examples include the name of the Miami NBA team—*Heat*—and the name of the Colorado NHL team—*Avalanche*. While *heat* is a mass noun, whereas *avalanche* is a normal counting noun, in the context of a team name, both words operate as this special type of collective noun. Just as with the Sox, any one of the twelve current members of Miami's pro basketball squad is a *Heat*; similarly, any individual member of the Colorado Avalanche is an *Avalanche*. However, where one may say, for instance, that "two Red Sox struck out" or "four White Sox homered," the equivalent term is invariably used as an adjective when referring to multiple players of one of the teams named in this increasingly popular way: "two Heat players fought" or "four Avalanche players scored" (Avalanche followers have a little more flexibility, with "Avs" as the team's unofficial, but widely used nickname). Other examples include:

NHL	WNBA
Tampa Bay Lightning	Indiana Fever
Minnesota Wild	New York Liberty
NBA	Minnesota Lynx
Utah Jazz	Phoenix Mercury
Orlando Magic	Detroit Shock
Miami Heat	Chicago Sky

MLS	Charlotte Sting
Columbus Crew	Seattle Storm
Houston Dynamo	Connecticut Sun
Chicago Fire	
Los Angeles Galaxy	
New England Revolution	
D.C. United	

In not every case above is it certain that the name is ever used in its noun form to refer to anything but the collective—i.e., not even to an individual player; in other cases, it is possible that the name is sometimes used in its noun form (with or without a terminal *s* appended) to refer to multiple players, short of the whole collective.

An exceptional case is that of the St. Louis Blues hockey team. The club is named after the song "St. Louis Blues", which makes the team name *Blues* an irregularly pluralized word to begin with—one whose plural is identical to its singular. By this reckoning, then, an individual team member would also be a "Blues". However, because the name is spelled like a regular plural, its use as a collective noun leads to a process of back-formation, with the result that a single player on the team is known as a *Blue*. The club name's distinctive orthographical nature further allows it to be used freely as a counting noun, so that one may speak of, for instance, "two Blues in the penalty box".

Pinker discusses a case that could be construed as opposite, that of the Florida Marlins baseball team. Describing how the issue was raised by talk show host David Letterman, Pinker asks, Why is the name *Marlins* "given that those fish are referred to in the plural as *marlin*?" An analogous question could be asked about the Maple Leafs. Pinker's answer comes down to this: "A name is not the same thing as a noun." Consequently, names (and nouns that derive from names) based on nouns with irregular plurals do not acquire them—though, as we see with *Red Sox*, new irregularities may arise.

Nouns with Multiple Plurals

Some nouns have two plurals, one used to refer to a number of things considered individually, the other to refer to a number of things collectively. In some cases, one of the two is nowadays archaic or dialectal.

Plurals of Symbols and Initialisms

Individual letters and abbreviations whose plural would be ambiguous if only an *-s* were added are pluralized by adding *-'s*.

mind your p's and q's

A.A.'s and B.A.'s

the note had three PS's

Opinion is divided on whether to extend this use of the apostrophe to related but nonambiguous cases, such as the plurals of numerals (e.g., *1990's* vs. *1990s*) and words used as terms (e.g., "his writing uses a lot of *but's*" vs. "his writing uses a lot of *buts*"). Some writers favour the use of the apostrophe as consistent with its application in ambiguous cases; others say it confuses the plural with the possessive *-'s* and should be avoided whenever possible in pluralization, a view with which *The Chicago Manual of Style* concurs.

English and many other European languages form the plural of a one-letter abbreviation by doubling it: p. ("page"), pp. ("pages"); l. ("line"), ll. ("lines"). These abbreviations are used in literary work, such as footnotes and bibliographies.

Acronyms are initialisms used as if they are words. The most consistent approach for pluralizing acronyms is to simply add a lowercase *-s* as a suffix. This works well even for acronyms ending with an *s*, as with *CASs* (pronounced "kazzes"), while still making it possible to use the possessive form (*-'s*) for acronyms without confusion. The traditional style of pluralizing single letters with *-'s* was naturally extended to acronyms when they were

commonly written with periods. This form is still preferred by some people for all initialisms and thus *-'s* as a suffix is often seen in informal usage.

Plural to Singular by Back-Formation

Some words have unusually formed singulars and plurals, but develop "normal" singular-plural pairs by back-formation. For example, *pease* (modern *peas*) was in origin a singular with plural *peasen*. However, *pease* came to be analysed as plural by analogy, from which a new singular *pea* was formed; the spelling of *pease* was also altered accordingly, surviving only in the name of the dish *pease porridge* or *pease pudding*. Similarly, *termites* was the three-syllable plural of *termes*; this singular was lost, however, and the plural form reduced to two syllables. *Syringe* is a back-formation from *syringes*, itself the plural of *syrinx*, a musical instrument. *Cherry* is from Norman French *cherise*. *Phases* was once the plural of *phasis*, but the singular is now *phase*.

Kudos is a singular Greek word meaning praise, but is often taken to be a plural. At present, however, *kudo* is considered an error, though the usage is becoming more common as *kudos* becomes better known. The name of the Greek sandwich style *gyros* is increasingly undergoing a similar transformation.

The term, from Latin, for the main upper arm flexor in the singular is the *biceps muscle* (from *biceps brachii*); however, many English speakers take it to be a plural and refer to the muscle of only one arm, by back-formation, as *a bicep*. The correct—although very seldom used—Latin plural would be *bicipites*.

The word *sastrugi* (hard ridges on deep snow) is of Russian origin and its singular is *sastruga*; but the imaginary Latin-type singular *sastrugus* has sometimes been used.

Place Names

Geographical place names ending with an *s* generally

function as grammatically singular even if they look plural, for example: Athens, Brussels, the Philippines, the Netherlands, Naples, Paris, the Thames, the United States. For example, *the United States is a country*.

Discretionary Plurals

A number of words like *army*, *company*, *crowd*, *fleet*, *government*, *majority*, *mess*, *number*, *pack*, and *party* may refer either to a single entity or the members of the set that compose it. Thus, as H. W. Fowler describes, in British English they are "treated as singular or plural at discretion"; Fowler notes that occasionally a "delicate distinction" is made possible by discretionary plurals: "*The Cabinet* is *divided* is better, because in the order of thought a whole must precede division; and *The Cabinet* are *agreed* is better, because it takes two or more to agree." Also in British English, names of towns and countries take plural verbs when they refer to sports teams but singular verbs when they refer to the actual place: *England are playing Germany tonight* refers to a football game, but *England is the most populous country of the United Kingdom* refers to the country. In North American English, such words are invariably treated as singular.

"Snob plurals"

Another type of irregular plural occurs in the register of the English upper classes in the context of field sports, where the singular form is used in place of the plural, as in "two lion" or "five pheasant". Eric Partridge refers to these as "snob plurals" and conjectures that they may have developed by analogy with the common English irregular plural animal words "deer", "sheep" and "trout".

ENGLISH RELATIVE CLAUSES

The relative pronouns in English include *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *whomever*, *whatever*, and *that*. (Note: Not all modern syntacticians agree that *that* is a relative pronoun.) *What* is a compound relative, including both the

antecedent and the relative, and is equivalent to *that which*; for example, "I did what he desired" means the same as, "I did that which he desired."

In some contexts, there may be a choice between two or more of these forms. The choice of relative pronoun may carry additional meaning or draw a number of distinctions.

Variables in the Basic Relative Clause

Human or Non-Human

In their choice of relative pronoun, English-speakers will often distinguish between an antecedent that is a human—*who(m)*—and an antecedent which is a non-human—*which*. In this regard, English is unique among the Germanic languages as far as bound relatives are concerned. However, as regards free relatives, German uses a strikingly similar strategy distinguishing between 'was'/'was(auch)immer' (cf. English 'what'/'what(so)ever') and wer(auch)immer (cf. English who(so)ever; this distinction may be due to French influence, and is clearly related to the distinction between the interrogative words *who(m)* and *which* and that between the *(s)he* pronouns and *it(s)*.

However, this distinction applies only to the *which* and *who*. The alternative *that* is found with both human and non-human antecedents. While some writers recommend reserving *that* for nonhuman antecedents, this does not reflect majority use. Examples can be found in Shakespeare (*the man that hath no music in himself*), Mark Twain (*The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg*), and Ira Gershwin (*The Man that Got Away*). Although *whose*, as the possessive form of *who*, is often reserved for human antecedents, it is commonly found also with nonhuman ones.

Grammatical Case

In the Germanic languages, the case of a relative pronoun is generally marked in its form. In English, this survives only in *who*, which has a possessive case form *whose* and an objective case form *whom*. But the form

whom is in decline and is now often restricted to formal use.

Since *which* and *that* have no possessive forms, *whose* is now also used for the possessive form of these, or periphrasis is sometimes employed:

There is an old house in our street, whose roof Jack fixed.

There is an old house in our street, the roof of which Jack fixed.

Restrictive or Non-Restrictive

Restrictiveness is more clearly marked in English than in most languages: prosody (in speaking) and punctuation (in writing) serve this purpose. An English non-restrictive relative clause is preceded by a pause in speech or a comma in writing, whereas a restrictive clause normally is not. Compare the following sentences, which have two quite different meanings, and correspondingly two clearly distinguished intonation patterns, depending on whether the commas are inserted:

(1) *The builder, who erects very fine houses, will make a large profit.* (non-restrictive)

(2) *The builder who erects very fine houses will make a large profit.* (restrictive)

The first example, with commas, and with three short intonation curves, contains a non-restrictive relative clause. It refers to a specific builder, and assumes we know which builder is intended. It tells us firstly about his houses, then about his profits. The second example uses a restrictive relative clause. Without the commas, and with a single intonation curve, the sentence states that any builder who builds such houses will make profits.

A simple test is to remove the relative clause. If the underlying meaning of the sentence changes, then it is a restrictive clause. If the clause turns out to have been a supplement to the basic meaning of the sentence, then that means the clause was a non-restrictive clause.

A distinction is also sometimes drawn between *that* (restrictive) and *who/which* (non-restrictive); see "*That* or *which*" below.

Restrictive relative clauses are also called defining relative clauses, or identifying relative clauses. Similarly, non-restrictive relative clauses are called non-defining or non-identifying relative clauses. For more information see restrictive clause and the relevant subsection of relative clause.

That *or* which

The distinction between the relative pronouns *that* and *which* to introduce relative clauses with non-human antecedents, and *that* vs. *who* for human antecedents, is a frequent point of dispute.

For clarity, we can look at a slightly modified version of the example above:

(1) The building company, which erects very fine houses, will make a large profit. (non-restrictive)
(2) The building company that | which erects very fine houses will make a large profit. (restrictive)

Of the two, only *which* is at all common in non-restrictive clauses. The dispute mainly concerns restrictive clauses: in informal American speech and in formal and informal British English *that* or *which* are both commonly (and apparently arbitrarily) used, but in formal American English, references generally specify only *that*, or reduction to a zero relative pronoun (see below). This rule was championed in 1926 by H.W. Fowler, who observed, "Some there are who follow this principle now; but it would be idle to pretend that it is the practice either of most or of the best writers." Some academics, such as Stanford linguist Arnold Zwicky, claim it is "a silly idea," but in the U.S., the Chicago Manual of Style and other mainstream references insist on it, and most professional writers adhere to it.

The style guide *Words into Type* offers the rule of thumb that "when a comma can be inserted, the word is which." A simple test is to consider whether the clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence and whether removing it significantly changes the meaning of the sentence; if so, use *that*. For example:

(1) The pitch that changed the outcome of the game came in the eighth inning.
(2) The fateful pitch, which came on a 2-1 pitch, struck the batter.

Zero Relative Pronoun

English, unlike other West Germanic languages, has a zero relative pronoun. It is an alternative to *that* in a restrictive relative clause:

Jack built the house that I was born in.

Jack built the house Ø I was born in.

Relative clauses headed by zeros are frequently called *contact clauses* in TEFL contexts. They are also often referred to as "zero clauses".

The zero relative pronoun cannot be the subject of an active verb in the relative clause. Thus one must say:

Jack built the house that sits on the hill.

and never

**Jack built the house Ø sits on the hill.*

However, the zero relative pronoun can be the subject of a passive verb in the relative clause. In this case, the auxiliary verb (e.g., "was") must also be removed from the relative clause:

Jack built the house that was sold yesterday.

Jack built the house Ø sold yesterday.

This rule applies regardless of whether the antecedent

of the zero relative is an object or a subject in the main clause:

The house that was built in 1970 is Nirmala's favourite.

The house Ø built in 1970 is Nirmala's favourite.

However, when the antecedent is the subject of the main clause, a garden path sentence such as the following may result:

The horse raced past the barn fell.

which is derived from

The horse that was raced past the barn fell.

Use with Preposition

In formal writing, a preposition in a relative clause often appears together with the relative pronoun. In this case the pronoun is likely to be either *whom* or *which*; never *that*, and since this is now formal usage, it would be unusual to use *who*.

Jack is the boy with whom Jenny fell in love.

Jack built the house in which I grew up.

Like most Germanic languages, Old English required this syntax. However, in modern English it is rather more common to place the preposition where it would be if the clause were an independent clause. Though John Dryden raised in 1672 the issue that this preposition-stranding is not considered correct, it was already in widespread use by that time, and now has wide usage among English speakers, especially in colloquial situations. Therefore any of the following might be heard in ordinary speech:

Jack is the boy whom Jenny fell in love with.

Jack is the boy who Jenny fell in love with.

Jack is the boy that Jenny fell in love with.

Jack is the boy Jenny fell in love with.

Special Types and Variants

Nominal Relative Clauses

English allows what is called a *fused* or *nominal* relative clause — a relative clause that does not modify an external noun phrase, and instead has a nominal function fused into it. For example:

What he did is clearly impossible, but I saw him do it.

Here, *what he did* has the sense of *that which he did*, *i.e. the thing that he did*, and functions as the subject of the verb *is*. Nominal relative clauses are inherently restrictive.

English has a number of fused relative pronouns, such as *what*, *whatever*, and *whoever*, but all can introduce other kinds of clauses as well; *what* can also introduce interrogative content clauses ("I do not know what he did"), for example, and both *whatever* and *whoever* can introduce adverbials ("Whatever he did, he does not deserve this").

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3

Focus on English Verbs, Tenses and Sequence of Tenses

ENGLISH VERBS

Verbs in the English language are a lexically and morphologically distinct part of speech which describe an action, an event, or a state. While English has many irregular verbs (see a list), for the regular ones the conjugation rules are quite straightforward. Being partially analytic, English regular verbs are not strongly inflected; all tenses, aspects and moods except the simple present and the simple past are periphrastic, formed with auxiliary verbs and modals.

Syntax

English verbs possess a number of properties that make them somewhat unusual among other Germanic languages. All English verbs can be derived from a maximum of three principal parts. This represents an extensive paring down of the inflectional categories of the more conservative Germanic languages. Because of this, the strict distinction between transitive verbs and intransitive verbs observed in some other languages find no part in English grammar. In English, both of these sentences are equally possible:

- *The water is boiling.* (effectively, a middle voice; compare *the water is being boiled*.)
- *The chef is boiling the water*.

English formerly possessed inflections that allowed transitive and intransitive verbs to be distinguished. A few of these distinctions were incorporated into the lexicon: e.g. *fall* vs. *fell* (cause to fall); *lie* vs. *lay* (cause to lie). Modern English verbs freely switch their valence and can take from zero to two predicates if they are supportable by the meaning:

- *She gives.*
- *She gives books.*
- *She gives him books.*

Because English verbs have free valence, and there is no necessary relationship between a verb subject and the agent, English allows the formation of sentences that some other languages would resist. The verb subject may stand in several different case relationships to the topic:

- Instrumental: *That book will make us a million dollars.*
- cf. *We will make a million dollars with that book.*
- Origin: *The dam is leaking water.*
- cf. *Water is leaking from the dam.*
- Location: *The forest rustles with dead leaves.*
- cf. *Dead leaves rustle in the forest.*
- Topical: *This construction project cannot proceed.*
- cf. "*We cannot proceed with this construction project.*"

English does not allow pronoun dropping, and all verbs must have an explicit subject, even where there is no specific agent. Dummy pronouns are inserted even where no agent is identifiable:

- *It is raining.*

Even sentences that declare the existence of something require a deictic particle to be well formed in English:

- *There is a river.*
- *This is a lake.*

The deixis relates to the tense of the verb. "There" is the default, unmarked particle; "here" is also possible, but does imply proximity to the speaker:

- *There is a river*
- *Here is a river*

The past is remote by definition. *There was a river* is normal; but **here was a river* is unusual: it either represents poetic diction, or suggests that the river that once was here is no longer present.

Principal Parts

A regular English verb has only one principal part, the infinitive or dictionary form (which is identical to the simple present tense for all persons and numbers except the third person singular). All other forms of a regular verb can be derived straightforwardly from the infinitive, for a total of four forms (e.g. *exist, exists, existed, existing*).

English irregular verbs (except *to be*, *to do*, *to have* and *to say*) have at most three principal parts:

	Part	*Example*
1	infinitive	*write*
2	preterite	*wrote*
3	past participle	*written*

Strong verbs like *write* have all three distinct parts, for a total of five forms (e. g. *write, writes, wrote, written, writing*). The more irregular weak verbs also require up to three forms to be learned.

Additionally, the verbs *do, say*, and *have* have irregular forms in the present tense third-person singular (although the first two are only irregular in speech).

The highly irregular copular verb *to be* has eight forms: *be, am, is, are, being, was, were*, and *been* (in addition to the archaic forms *art, wast, wert*, and *beest*), of which only one is derivable from a principal part (*being* is derived

from *be*). On the history of this verb, see Indo-European copula.

Verbs had more forms when the pronoun *thou* was still in regular use and there was a number distinction in the second person. *To be*, for instance, had *art*, *wast* and *wert*. Most of the strong verbs that survive in modern English are considered irregular. Irregular verbs in English come from several historical sources; some are technically strong verbs (i.e., their forms display specific vowel changes of the type known as ablaut in linguistics); others have had various phonetic changes or contractions added to them over the history of English.

Infinitive and Basic Form

Formation

The *infinitive* in English is the naked root form of the word. When it is being used as a verbal noun, the particle *to* is usually prefixed to it. When the infinitive stands as the predicate of an auxiliary verb, *to* may be omitted, depending on the requirements of the idiom.

Uses

- The infinitive, in English, is one of three verbal nouns: *To write is to learn* also "writing is learning"
- The infinitive, either marked with *to* or unmarked, is used as the complement of many auxiliary verbs: *I shall/will write a novel about talking beavers; I am really going to write it*.
- The basic form also forms the English imperative mood: *Write these words.*
- The basic form makes the English subjunctive mood: *I suggested that he write a novel about talking beavers.*

Third Person Singular

Formation

The *third person singular* in regular verbs in English

is distinguished by the suffix *-s*. In English spelling, this *-s* is added to the stem of the infinitive form: *run* '! *runs*.

If the base ends in one of the sibilant sounds: /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ and its spelling does not end in a silent E, the suffix is written -es: *buzz* '! *buzzes*; *catch* '! *catches*. If the base ends in a consonant plus *y*, the *y* changes to an *i* and *-es* is affixed to the end: *cry* '! *cries*. Verbs ending in *o* typically add *-es*: *veto* '! *vetoes*.

Regardless of spelling, the pronunciation of the third person singular ending in most dialects follows regular rules:

- pronounced /hz/ after sibilants
- /s/ after voiceless consonants other than sibilants.
- /z/ otherwise

The third person singular present indicative in English is notable cross-linguistically for being a morphologically marked form for a semantically unmarked one. That is to say, the third person singular is usually taken to be the most basic form in a given verbal category and as such, according to markedness theory, should have the simplest of forms in its paradigm. This is clearly not the case with English where the other persons exhibit the bare root and nothing more.

In Early Modern English, some dialects distinguished the third person singular with the suffix *-th*; after consonants this was written *-eth*, and some consonants were doubled when this was added: *run* '! *runneth*.

Usage

- The third person singular is used exclusively in the third person form of the English simple "present tense", which often has other uses besides the simple present: *He writes airport novels about anthropomorphic rodents.*

Exception

English preserves a number of preterite-present verbs, such as *can* and *may*. These verbs lack a separate form for the third person singular: *she can, she may*. All surviving preterite-present verbs in modern English are auxiliary verbs. The verb will, although historically not a preterite-present verb, is inflected like one when used as an auxiliary; by a process of levelling it has become regular when it is a full verb: *Whatever she wills to happen will make life annoying for everyone else.*

Present Participle

Formation

The *present participle* is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the base form: *go* '! *going*.

The ending in most dialects is pronounced /jK/, and the pronunciation of the root does not change.

If the base ends in silent *e*, the *e* is dropped: *believe* '! *believing*.

If the *e* is not silent, the *e* is retained: *agree* '! *agreeing*.

If the base ends in *-ie*, the *ie* is changed to *y*: *lie* '! *lying*.

If:

- the base form ends in a single consonant; and
- a single vowel precedes that consonant; and
- the last syllable of the base form is stressed

then the final consonant is doubled before adding the suffix: *set* '! *setting*; *occur* '! *occurring*.

In British English, as an exception, the final <l> is subject to doubling even when the last syllable is not stressed: *yodel* '! *yodelling*, *travel* '! *travelling*; in American English, these follow the rule: *yodeling, traveling*.

Irregular forms include:

- *singeing*, where the *e* is (sometimes) not dropped to avoid confusion with *singing*;
- *ageing*, in British English, where the expected form *aging* is ambiguous as to whether it has a hard or soft *g*;
- words ending in *-c*, which add *k* before the *-ing*, for example, *trafficking*, *panicking*, *frolicking*, and *bivouacking*.
- a number of words that are subject to the doubling rule even though they do not fall squarely within its terms, such as *diagramming*, *kidnapping*, and *worshipping*.

Uses

Basic Use

- The present participle is used to form a past, present or future tense with progressive or imperfective aspect: *He is writing another long book about beavers.*
- It is used with quasi-auxiliaries to form verb phrases: *He tried writing about opossums instead, but his muse deserted him.*
- It is modified by an adverb: *He is writing quickly.*
- It can be used as an adjective: *It is a thrilling book.*
  - In this use, it can govern a personal pronoun: *Her thrilling novel.*

NB: Other words also end in *-ing*, notably certain nouns formed from verbs (verbal nouns) and the gerund. These are usually considered different entities. However, since there is a lack of consensus for this view, these are considered here.

Gerund

The English gerund is that form of a verb that acts as a noun but retains its identity as a verb. Since it has different properties from the *Verbal noun* in *-ing* (below)

these two forms are usually, but not always, considered to be separate entities. The gerund has indeed been dubbed a *Nounal verb* to help distinguish these two uses of the *-ing* form, but this term is not normal.

- The gerund is formed by adding *-ing* to the base form in the same manner as the present participle; pronunciation is also identical to that of the present participle.
- The gerund can often be distinguished from the present participle by inserting the words *the act of* before it, (though this is true of the verbal noun, too): *I enjoy [the act of] drinking wine*.
- The gerund acts as a noun by standing at the head of a noun phrase: *...drinking wine* (in the above context).
- It can stand alone in this role: *I enjoy drinking*.
- The gerund remains a verb because it is modified by an adverb not by an adjective: *I enjoy drinking wine slowly*. [Not: *...drinking wine slow*].
- The gerund is typically modified by a possessive determiner or a noun in possessive case *I do not like your/Jim's drinking wine*, though it is also frequently found with a personal pronoun or a simple noun: *I do not like you/Jim drinking wine*. See below for an explanation of this usage. Note that this is a contentious issue.
- The gerund can be used as:
  a subject: *Drinking wine is enjoyable* or *Drinking is enjoyable*.
  an object: *I enjoy drinking wine* or *I enjoy drinking*.
  a prepositional object: *I do not believe in drinking wine for pleasure* or *...drinking for pleasure*.
  a predicate nominal: *Jim's idea of fun is drinking large quantities of wine*.
- A gerund can often be replaced by an infinitive with *to*: *I like drinking wine* or *I like to drink wine*.

Note on possessives and personal pronouns used with the -ing *form*

NB: Contentious

There are several possessive forms in English: possessive pronoun, possessive determiner, and the possessive case of nouns. The first governs or is governed by a verb, not a noun: *This book is mine* [not *Mine book*]. The second governs or is governed by a noun (or a word acting as a noun), not a verb: *my book* [not *This book is my*]. The last can govern or be governed by either: *This is Helen's book* (noun) or *This book is Helen's* (verb). Furthermore, there is the personal pronoun which also governs or is governed by verbs, not nouns: *he saw her* [not *he book*]. Since the gerund is technically a verb not a noun it might seem reasonable to assume that it should govern or be governed by a personal pronoun or a possessive pronoun. However, this is not usually accepted as correct because the gerund is in fact acting as a noun while retaining verbal properties. Hence, we have as standard English:

Jim does not like my reading magazines.

not: *Jim does not like me reading magazines.*

In the first construction, *reading* is used as a true gerund. The second construction is often disallowed by grammars and the use of the word *reading* is given names like *fused participle* and *geriple* since it is seen to confuse a participle with a gerund. The alternate view is to see it as a genuine particle governing a personal pronoun in the objective case (as well as a nouns as an indirect object), but this is not typical.

It is more often argued, however, that both of the following are correct but with different meanings:

Jim does not like me flying.

Jim does not like my flying.

The first example seems to imply that Jim does not like my presence in a vehicle that flies whether I am in

control of that vehicle or am merely a passenger. Again, this is seen as a participle but this time only governing a direct object without an indirect object. The second example seems to comment on my abilities to control the vehicle rather than my presence in the plane. The second is again a true gerund. It could be rewritten:

Jim does not like my act of flying or *Jim does not like my attempts at flying*.

The controversy extends to the use of the possessive case in nouns:

Jim does not like Helen flying.

Jim does not like Helen's flying.

Jim does not like Helen flying airplanes.

Jim does not like Helen's flying airplanes.

The use of the possessive pronoun is probably best avoided:

Jim does not like mine [e.g. my children] flying.

Jim does not like mine [e.g. my children] flying airplanes.

As is the use of any combination of each of these:

Jim does not like my children's flying airplanes.

Verbal Nouns

- The verbal noun is a noun formed from a verb: *arrival*, *drinking*, *flight*, *decision*.
  - Note that many verbal nouns end in *-ing*, but they are actually nouns and not verbs.
- It acts as a normal noun.
- It can, like other nouns, act as an adjective: *a writing desk*, *building beavers*, *a flight simulator*, *departure lounge*.

Past Participle

Formation

In regular weak verbs, the *past participle* is always

the same as the preterite. Irregular verbs may have separate preterites and past participles; see *Wiktionary appendix: Irregular English verbs*.

Uses

- The past participle is used with the auxiliary *have* for the English perfect constructions: *They have written about the slap of tails on water, about the scent of the lodge...* (With verbs of motion, an archaic form with *be* may be found in older texts: *he is come*.)
- With *be*, it forms the passive voice: *It is written so well, you can feel what it is like to gnaw down trees!*
- It is used as an adjective: *the written word*; *a broken dam*.

Tenses

English verbs, like those in many other western European languages, have more tenses than forms; tenses beyond the ones possible with the five forms listed above are formed with auxiliary verbs, as are the passive voice forms of these verbs. Important auxiliary verbs in English include *will*, used to form the future tense; *shall*, formerly used mainly for the future tense, but now used mainly for commands and directives; *be*, *have*, and *do*, which are used to form the supplementary tenses of the English verb, to add aspect to the actions they describe, or for negation.

English verbs display complex forms of negation. While simple negation was used well into the period of early Modern English (*Touch not the royal person!*) in contemporary English negation usually requires that the negative particle be attached to an auxiliary verb such as *do* or *be*. *I go not* is archaic; *I do not go* or *I am not going* are what the contemporary idiom requires.

English exhibits similar idiomatic complexity with the interrogative mood, which in Indo-European languages is not, strictly speaking, a mood. Like many other Western

European languages, English historically allowed questions to be asked by inverting the position of verb and subject: *Whither goest thou?* Now, in English, questions are often trickily idiomatic, and require the use of auxiliary verbs, though occasionally, the interrogative mood is still used in Modern English.

Overview of Tenses

In English grammar, the term "tense" traditionally refers to any conjugated form expressing grammatical tense, aspect, or mood. The large number of different composite verb forms means that English has the richest and subtlest system of tense and aspect of any Germanic language. This can be confusing for foreign learners; however, the English system can be presented systematically by noting that each of the temporal spheres (past, present, future) distinguishes simple forms from progressive (continuous), perfect, or both. Because of the neatness of this system, modern textbooks on English generally use the terminology in this table: where the "future" time meets the "perfect" aspect we have the "future perfect" tense. This has necessitated minor changes from older terminology. What was traditionally called the "perfect tense" is here called "present perfect" and the "pluperfect" becomes "past perfect", in order to show the relationships of the perfect forms to their respective tenses. The form *wrote*, which older works by linguists often called the "preterite" and older schoolbooks sometimes called the "imperfect" is here called the "past simple".

However, historical linguists sometimes prefer terminology which applies to all Germanic languages and is more helpful for comparative purposes; in this context, the terms "preterite" and "pluperfect" remain common.

This table, of course, omits a number of forms which can be regarded as additional to the basic system:

- the intensive present *I do write*
- the intensive past *I did write*

- the habitual past *I used to write*
- the intensive future *I shall write*
- the "going-to future" *I am going to write*
- the "future in the past" *I was going to write*
- the conditional *I would write*
- the perfect conditional *I would have written*
- the subjunctive, *if I be writing*, *if I were writing*.

Some recent approaches to English grammar consider that the future is not a true tense, treating *will*/*would* as modal verbs, in the same category as other modal verbs such as *can*/*could* and *may*/*might*. See Grammatical tense for a more technical discussion of this subject.

It must also be noted that the "could" and "would" are also used for the conditional subjunctive case. Examples: "I would have gone if..."; "She could have done so if...".

Present Simple

- Affirmative: *He writes*
- Negative: *He does not write*
- Interrogative: *Does he write?*
- Negative interrogative: *Does he not write?*

Note that the "simple present" in idiomatic English often identifies habitual or customary action:

> *He writes about beavers* (understanding that he does so *all of the time*.)

It is used with stative verbs:

> *She thinks that beavers are remarkable*

It can also have a future meaning (though much less commonly than in many other languages):

> *She goes to Milwaukee on Tuesday.*

The present simple has an intensive or emphatic form with "do": *He does write*. In the negative and interrogative forms, of course, this is identical to the non-emphatic forms.

It is typically used as a response to the question *Does he write*, whether that question is expressed or implied, and says that indeed, he does write.

The different syntactic behaviour of the negative particle *not* and the negative inflectional suffix *-n't* in the interrogative form is also worth noting. In formal literary English of the sort in which contractions are avoided, *not* attaches itself to the main verb: *Does he not write?* When the colloquial contraction *-n't* is used, this attaches itself to the auxiliary *do*: *Doesn't he write?* This in fact is a contraction of a more archaic word order, still occasionally found in poetry: **Does not he write?*

Present Progressive

Or present continuous.

- Affirmative: *He is writing*
- Negative: *He is not writing*
- Interrogative: *Is he writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Is he not writing?*

This form describes the simple engagement in a present activity, with the focus on action in progress "at this very moment". It too can indicate a future, particularly when discussing plans already in place: *I am flying to Paris tomorrow*. Used with "always" it suggests irritation; compare *He always does that* (neutral) with *He is always doing that* (and it annoys me). Word order differs here in the negative interrogative between the more formal *is he not writing* and the colloquial contraction *isn't he writing*?

Present Perfect

Traditionally just called the perfect.

- Affirmative: *He has written*
- Negative: *He has not written*
- Interrogative: *Has he written?*
- Negative interrogative: *Has he not written?*

This indicates that a past event has one of a range of possible relationships to the present. This may be a focus on present result: *He has written a very fine book* (and look, here it is, we have it now). Alternatively, it may indicate a period which includes the present. *I have lived here since my youth* (and I still do). Compare: *Have you written a letter this morning?* (it is still morning) with *Did you write a letter this morning?* (it is now afternoon). The perfect constructions are frequently used with the adverbs *already* or *recently* or with *since* clauses. The present perfect can identify habitual (*I have written letters since I was ten years old.*) or continuous (*I have lived here for fifteen years.*) action.

In addition to these normal uses where the time frame either is the present or includes the present, the "have done" construct is used in temporal clauses where other languages would use the future perfect: *When you have written it, show it to me*.

The term "perfect" was first applied in discussions of Latin grammar, to refer to a tense which expresses a completed action ("perfect" in the sense of "finished"). It was then applied to a French tense which has a similar use to the Latin perfect, and then was transferred to the English tense which looks morphologically something like the French perfect. In fact, the English perfect is often used precisely in situations where Latin would use the imperfect — for past actions which are not finished but continue into the present.

Present Perfect Progressive

Or continuous.

- Affirmative: *He has been writing*
- Negative: *He has not been writing*
- Interrogative: *Has he been writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Has he not been writing?*

Used for unbroken action in the past which continues right up to the present. *I have been writing this paper all morning* (and still am).

Present Perfect Continuous is used for denoting the action which was in progress and has just finished (a) or is still going on (b). For example,

a) Why are your eyes red? – I have been crying since morning. (The action has already finished but was in progress for some time)
b) She has been working here for two years already and she is happy. (The action is still in progress).

If we have to ask a question with "How long...?" we should use the present perfect continuous. For example,

How long have you been working here?

However, with stative words (such as see, want, like, etc.), or if the situation is considered permanent, we should use the present perfect simple. For example,

I have known her since childhood.

If we talk about the whole period, we use "for" and when we talk about the starting point of the action, we use "since".

Preterite (Simple Past Tense)

- The preterite is used for the English simple (non-iterative or progressive) past tense. *He wrote two more chapters about the dam at Kashagawigamog Lake.*
- Affirmative: *He wrote*
- Negative: *He did not write*
- Interrogative: *Did he write?*
- Negative interrogative: *Did he not write?*

This tense is used for a single event in the past, sometimes for past habitual action, and in chronological

narration. Like the present simple, it has emphatic forms with "do": *he did write*. Although it is sometimes taught that the difference between the present perfect and the past simple is negligible, the two are quite distinct:

I ate fish (Simple statement of event[s] occurring in the *past*. Nothing about present state.)

I have eaten fish (My *present* status as someone who has eaten fish.)

Note: The "used to" past tense is not the same as the preterite, but is called the imperfect . Compare:

- *When I was young, I played football every Saturday.*
- *When I was young, I used to play.*

Past Continuous

was/were+v1+ing Or imperfect or past progressive.

- Affirmative: *He was writing*
- Negative: *He was not writing*
- Interrogative: *Was he writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Was he not writing?*

This is typically used for two events in parallel:

While I was washing the dishes, my wife was walking the dog.

Or for an interrupted action (the past simple being used for the interruption):

While I was washing the dishes, I heard a loud noise.

Or when we are focusing on a point in the middle of a longer action:

At three o'clock yesterday, I was working in the garden. (Contrast: *I worked in the garden all day yesterday.*)

Past Perfect

Or Pluperfect

- Affirmative: *He had written*

- Negative: *He had not written*
- Interrogative: *Had he written?*
- Negative interrogative: *Had he not written?*

The pluperfect is used when its action occurred in the past before another action in the past. It is used when speaking of the past to indicate the relative time of two past actions, one occurring before the other; i.e. a "past before the past".

This latter could be stated explicitly:

He had left when we arrived.

Or understood from previous information:

I was eating... I had invited Jim to the meal but he was unable to attend. (i.e., I invited him before I started eating)

Or simply implied from the usage itself:

I had lost my way. (understood as prior to a later but still past event I am now describing, for example, "when I met the bear".)

It is sometimes possible to use the Simple Past instead of the Past Perfect, but only where there is no ambiguity in the meaning:

The second example could be written:

... I invited Jim to the meal...

Understood within the above context, this still means that I first invited Jim then later ate the meal (without him).

However, concurrent past events are also possible, indicated by dual simple past tenses in both verbs. Consider the following:

He left when we arrived.

This means both past events happened at the same time: he left at the same time as we arrived.

Note that the following do mean the same:

He left before we arrived.

He had left when we arrived.

Past Perfect can also be used to express a counterfactual statement:

If you had done the cleaning before we left, you would not need to do it now

Here, the first clause refers to an unreal state in the past, and the entire construction is a conditional sentence. Note also that the conditional subjunctive is possible here: "If you would have done the cleaning..."

Progressive Pluperfect

A.k.a. Progressive Past Perfect

- Affirmative: *He had been writing*
- Negative: *He had not been writing*
- Interrogative: *Had he been writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Had he not been writing?*

Relates to the past perfect much as the present perfect progressive relates to the present perfect, but tends to be used with less precision.

"I bought the car, and I have been driving it ever since."

Future Simple

- Affirmative: *He will write*
- Negative: *He will not write*
- Interrogative: *Will he write?*
- Negative interrogative: *Will he not write?*

"Shall can be used in place of "will" in any of the above to intensify the verb. See the article Shall and Will for a discussion of the two auxiliary verbs used to form the simple future in English.

There is also a future with "go" which is used with the infinitve of the action verb especially for intended actions,

and for the weather, and generally is more common in colloquial speech:

I am going to write a book some day.

I think that it is going to rain.

The will/shall future, however, is preferred for spontaneous decisions:

Jack: "I think that we should have a barbecue!"

Jill: "Good idea! I shall go get the coal."

The will future is occasionally used for statements about the present to indicate that they are speculative:

Jack: "I have not eaten a thing all day."

Jill: "Well, I suppose you will be hungry now."

Jack: "There is a woman coming up the drive."

Jill: "That will be my mother."

Future Progressive

- Affirmative: *He will be writing*
- Negative: *He will not be writing*
- Interrogative: *Will he be writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Will he not be writing?*

Used especially to indicate that an event will be in progress at a particular point in the future: *This time tomorrow I shall be taking my driving test.*

Future Perfect

will/shall+have+v3

- Affirmative: *He will have written*
- Negative: *He will not have written*
- Interrogative: *Will he have written?*
- Negative interrogative: *Will he not have written?*

Used for something which will be completed by a certain time (perfect in the literal sense) or which leads up to a point in the future which is being focused on.

I shall have finished my essay by Thursday.

By then she will have been there for three weeks.

Future Perfect Progressive

will/shall +have been+v1 +ing

- Affirmative: *He will have been writing*
- Negative: *He will not have been writing*
- Interrogative: *Will he have been writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Will he not have been writing?*

Used for an event that will be in progression at a certain point in the future. "He will have been writing by 8:00 am (and will continue writing further into the future)."

Conditional Present

- Affirmative: *He would write*
- Negative: *He would not write*
- Interrogative: *Would he write?*
- Negative interrogative: *Would he not write?*

Used principally in a main clause accompanied by an implicit or explicit doubt or "if-clause"; may refer to conditional statements in present or future time:

I would like to pay now if it is not too much trouble. (in present time; doubt of possibility is explicit)

I would like to pay now. (in present time; doubt is implicit)

I would do it if she asked me. (in future time; doubt is explicit)

I would do it. (in future time; doubt is implicit)

A humorous formulation of the traditional rule to not put *would* into the *if* clause itself is: "*If* and *would* you never should, *if* and *will* makes teacher ill!"

Some varieties of English regularly use *would* (often shortened to *(I)'d*) in *if* clauses, but this is often considered non-standard: *If you'd leave now, you'd be on time*. Such use of *would* is widespread especially in spoken US English

in all sectors of society, but these forms are not usually used in writing that is more formal. Nevertheless, some reliable sources simply label this usage as acceptable US English and no longer label it as colloquial.

There are exceptions, however, where *would* is used in British English too in seemingly counterfactual conditions, but these can usually be interpreted as a modal use of *would*: *If you would listen to me once in a while, you might learn something*. In cases in which the action in the *if* clause takes place after that in the main clause, use of *would* in counterfactual conditions is however considered standard and correct usage in even formal UK and US usage: *If it would make Bill happy, I'd [I would] give him the money*.

Conditional Present Progressive

- Affirmative: *He would be writing*
- Negative: *He would not be writing*
- Interrogative: *Would he be writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Would he not be writing?*

Used as the continuous tense of the conditional form; describes a situation that would now be prevailing had it not been for some intervening event:

Today she would be exercising if it were not for her injury.

He would be working today had he not been allowed time off.

(For use of *would* in both clauses, see note and sources at end of section on conditional above.)

Conditional Perfect

- Affirmative: *He would have written*
- Negative: *He would not have written*
- Interrogative: *Would he have written?*
- Negative interrogative: *Would he not have written?*

Used as the past tense of the conditional form; expresses thoughts which are or may be contrary to present fact:

I would have set an extra place if I had known you were coming. (fact that an extra place was not set is implicit; conditional statement is explicit)

I would have set an extra place, but I did not because Mother said you were not coming. (fact that a place was not set is explicit; conditional is implicit)

I would have set an extra place. (fact that a place was not set is implicit, conditional is implicit)

Some varieties of English regularly use *would have* (often shortened to *(I)'d have*) in *if* clauses, but this is often non-standard: *If you (would)'ve told me, we could've done something about it*. Such use of *would* is widespread especially in spoken US English in all sectors of society, but is incorrect and is not usually used in more formal writing.

There are exceptions, however, where *would* is used in British English too in seemingly counterfactual conditions, but these can usually be interpreted as a modal use of *would*: *If you would have listened to me once in a while, you might have learned something*. In cases in which the action in the *if* clause takes place after that in the main clause, use of *would* in *if* clauses is however considered standard and correct usage in even formal UK and US usage: *If it would have made Bill happy, I'd [I would] have given him the money*. (See note and sources at end of section on conditional above.)

Conditional Perfect Progressive

- Affirmative: *He would have been writing.*
- Negative: *He would not have been writing.*
- Interrogative: *Would he have been writing?*
- Negative interrogative: *Would he not have been writing?*

(For use of *would* in both clauses, see note and sources at end of section on conditional above.)

Present Subjunctive

The form is always identical to the infinitive. This means that apart from the verb "to be", it is distinct from the indicative present only in the third person singular and the obsolete second person singular.

To be

- Indicative Present : I am, thou art, you are, (s)he is, we are, you are, they are.
- Subjunctive Present: I be, thou be[est], you be, (s)he be, we be, you be, they be.

It is used to express wishes about the present or future:

"God save our queen." (Not: God saves our queen)

"Be that as it may." (= "let it be as it may be")

It can be used (in formal writing) to express present doubt especially after "if" and "if that" and in set phrases:

"if that have any validity..."

"if that be true."

"if need be"

"if music be the food of life."

but: "if the Prime Minister has [indicative] any sense he would..." "have" is archaic.

It is also used in a mandative sense:

"He insisted that his son have a more conventional celebration."

"It is important that the process be carried out accurately."

"I shall work for him on condition that he pay me weekly."

Imperfect Subjunctive

The imperfect subjunctive is used to express hypotheses about the present or future: it is used to describe unreal or hypothetical conditions. When conjugated, the imperfect subjunctive is identical to the past simple with every verb,

except the verb "to be". With this verb, the form "were" is used throughout all forms except the obsolete second person singular:

- Simple past: I was, thou wast, you were, (s)he was, we were, you were, they were.
- Subjunctive Imperfect: I were, you were, thou wert, (s)he were, we were, you were, they were.

When construed in counterfactual sentences with "if", it forms the *if clause* of the *2 conditional*.

Examples include:

- "If I were rich, I would retire to the South of France."
- "If I were a boy."
- "I'd rather it were more substantial."
- "If I were a rich man...."

"if" may be omitted and the verb inverted:

- "Were I to speak, I would do so softly."

When "if" means "when" (a fact) then the indicative should be used, although educated speakers tend to use the subjunctive:

- "Every day, if I was walking down the road, I used to greet him." is correct.

compare:

- "If I were walking down the road, I would greet him." (hypothetical)
- "If I was walking down the road, I would greet him." (a fact about habitual actions in the past))

The imperfect subjunctuive is also used after a wish:

- "I wish it were true."
- "Would that it were true."
- "Would to God that were true!"

Future Subjunctive

A future subjunctive can be constructed using the conjugated form of the verb "to be" plus the infinitive or with the usage of the modal auxiliary verb "should". Note that the "were" clauses result in the present conditional, while the "should" clauses result in the future indicative. For example:

If I were to die tomorrow, then you would inherit everything.

If you were to give the money to me, then I would say no more about it.

If I should go, then will you feed the hens?

If he should fall, who will carry the flag in his place?

TENSES

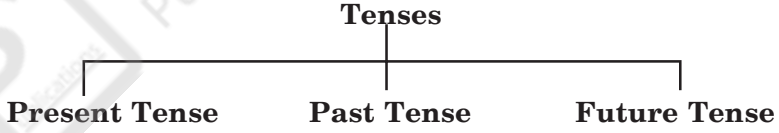
Definition : Any of the forms of a verb that may be used to indicate the time of the action or state expressed by the verb is known as 'Tense' in English Grammar.

The word 'Tense' is derived from the Latin word '*tempus*' meaning 'time'.

Kinds : Tenses are of the following three kinds :

1. Present Tense
2. Past Tense
3. Future Tense

Division according to degree of completeness :



Division of the Tenses

1.	Present Indefinite Tense	Past Indefinite Tense	Future Indefinite Tense
2.	Present Continuous Tense	Past Continuous Tense	Future Continuous Tense

3.	Present Perfect Tense	Past Perfect Tense	Future Perfect Tense
4.	Present Perfect Continuous Tense	Past Perfect Continuous Tense	Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Read the following sentences:

1. I *play* football every day.
2. He *played* football yesterday.
3. We *shall play* football tomorrow.

In sentence 1, the verb *play* refers to *Present time.*

In sentence 2, the verb *played* refers to *Past time*.

In sentence 3, the verb *shall play* refers to *Future time*.

In this way, the verb may refer to—

(*i*) *Present time* (*ii*) *Past time* (*iii*) *Future time.*

The verb that refers to present tense is said to be in Present Tense; as—

I sing I jump

The verb that refers to *past* time is said to be in the Past Tense; as—

I sang I jumped

The verb that refers to *Future* time is said to be in the *Future Tense*; as—

I shall sing I shall jump

The tense of a verb shows the *time* of an action or event.

Please remember that sometimes a Present tense may express future time; as—

Let us play till the teacher *comes*.

Here *comes* (Present tense, conveys the sense of *will come* (Future tense).

Similarly, sometimes the Past tense may express present time, as—

I wish I knew the man. This sentence means 'I am sorry, I don't know the man.

Here *knew* (Past tense) conveys the sense '*I do not know*'. (Present tense).

Below we give the main tenses (Active voice, Indicative mood) of the verb *to sing*.

Name of the Tense	*Rules to be Followed*	*Use in Sentence*
1. Present Indefinite	Verb-1st form *s/es* with Third Person singular	I/we/you/they sing He/she/it sings
2. Present Continuous Progressive	Verb 1st form +ing I-am You, we they-are He, she, it-is	 I am singing You/we/they are singing He/She/It is singing
3. Present Perfect	Verb 3rd form I/We you/they-have He/She/It-has	I/We/You/They/ have sung He/She/It has sung
4. Present Perfect Continuous	I/You/We/They have been He/She/It has been Verb-1st form +ing (since/for)	I/We/You/They have been singing .....since/for He/She/It has been singing .....since/for
5. Past Indefinite	Verb-2n form	I/We/You/He/ She/It/they sang
6. Past Continuous Progressive	Verb-1st form +ing I/He/She/It-was You/We/They-were	I/He/She/It was singing You/We/They were singing
7. Past Perfect	Verb-3rd form-had	I/We/You/He/ She/It/They-had sung.

8.	Past Perfect Continuous	-had been- Verb-1st form +ing (since/for)	I/We/You/He/She/It/ they-had been singing .....since/for
9.	Future Indefinite	I, we-shall You/He/She/It/They/ .....*will* verb-1st form	I/We/shall sing You/He/She/It/ They will sing
10.	Future Continuous Progressive	Verb- 1st form +ing I, we, shall, be You/He/She/It/They .....*will be*	I/We/shall be singing You/He/She It/They-will be singing
11.	Future Perfect	Verb-3rd form I/We-shall have You/He/She/It/They -will have	I/We shall have sung He/She/It/ You/They will have sung.
12.	Future Perfect Continuous	I/We-shall have been He/She/It/You/They -will have been. Verb-1st form +ing (since/for)	I/We shall have been singing since/for He/She/It/You They will have been singing (since/for)

Lesson–1
Present Indefinite Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
I *buy* a toy.	Do I buy a toy?
We *go* to school.	Do we go to school?
He *takes* tea.	Does he take tea?
She *does* her home work.	Does she do her home work?
It *rains*.	Does it rain?

III. Negative	IV. Interrogative-Negative
1. I do not buy a toy.	Do I not buy a toy?
2. We do not go to school.	Do we not go to school?
3. He does not take tea.	Does he not take tea?
4. She does not do her homework.	Does she not do her homework?
5. It does not rain.	Does it not rain?

Indefinite means '*Vague; not clearly defined* or *stated; lasting* an unspecified time.'

Affirmative Sentences : Those sentences are called *affirmative sentences* that express '*agreement*'; indicating 'yes'.

Interrogative Sentences : Those sentences are called *interrogative sentences* which *ask* or *seem to ask a question or make an enquiry*. The interrogative sentences beginning with a helping verb can be answered without opening the mouth.

Negative Sentences : Those sentences are called *negative sentences* which express *denial* or *refusal;* indicating 'no' or 'not'.

Interrogative-Negative Sentences : Those sentences are called *interrogative-negative sentences* which ask or *seem to ask a question* and express *denial* or *refusal*.

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Present	V_1	Do.....?	....do not	Do....not V_1...?
Indefinite	V_1 +s/es	Does...V_1...?	does not V_1	Does...not V_1?

Put a full stop (.) at the end of Affirmative and Negative sentences.

Put the mark of interrogation (?) at the end of interrogative and interrogative-negative sentences.

Always use the First/Crude form of the verb (V_1) after Do or Does. (Drop s/es attached with V_1).

Other types of Interrogative Sentences.

Where do I go?	Who does not know this?
What do you eat?	Which book do you like?
When do we get up?	Whom does she want to see?

Why do they weep? Whose book do you buy?

How does she work?

If one is required to open the mouth to answer a certain question, the relevant word of 'who' family or 'How' will be used to begin the Sentence.

Some other uses of the Present Indefinite Tense—

Examples :

1. She does smoke but does not confess.

This is an *emphatic* sentence. Here emphasis has been laid on the two facts.

(*i*) She smokes, (*ii*) She does not confess.

2. I always reach the school in time. A habitual action or (a regular routine (habit) is expressed here).

3. The rose smells sweet. (Normal/General truth is shown here).

4. Our school closes at 6 p.m. these days. (The activity which is true at the time of speaking is shown here).

5. My house faces to the East. (Here permanent position/ location/situation or fact is shown).

6. The ship sails for Nicobar next week. (Here a planned activity is shown which is (scheduled to take place in future).

7. If you work hard, you will pass.

The condition (beginning with 'if') is shown here. Present Indefinite Tense has been used here in the subordinate clause of condition beginning with 'If'. *'If you work hard'* here means *'if you will work hard'*.

8. Always speak the truth. (This is an Imperative sentence).

9. Sharat carries the ball—He hits it hard and scores a goal. (We use Present Indefinite Tense to broadcast

commentaries on sporting events).

This sentence shows different actions taking place simultaneously.

10. Laxmi Bai draws her sword and attacks the enemy.

This sentence is a vivid narrative and serves as substitute for the simple past.

11. There goes the stupid girl. (This is an exclamatory sentences beginning with 'There' to express the actual happening in the present.

12. Kalidas says, "Beauty needs no ornamentation" (Present Indefinite Tense has been used here to introduce a quotation).

13. (*i*) I smell a flower.
(*ii*) He seems mischievous.
(*iii*) I want a cup of hot tea.
(*iv*) I think she is right.
(*v*) She owns a bungalow.

(Here Present Indefinite Tense has been used to show verbs of perception, appearing, emotion, thinking and possession to convey the sense of Present Continuous Tense. (Such verbs are normally not used in Present Continuous Tense)

Lesson–2
Present Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	**II. Interrogative**
1. I am learning my lesson.	Am I learning my lesson?
2. You are flying kites now.	Are you flying kites now?
3. We are revising our lesson now.	Are we revising our lesson now.
4. Munna is telling a lie.	Is Munna telling a lie?
5. They are cheating you.	Are they cheating you?

III. Negative	IV. Interrogative-Negative
1. I am not learning my lesson.	Am I not learning my lesson?
2. You are not flying kites now.	Are you not flying kites now?
3. We are not revising our lesson now.	Are we not revising our lesson now?
4. Munna is not telling a lie.	Is Munna not telling a lie?

Continuous means 'that which goes or moves further (beyond a certain point) without stopping for a period of time. It means the work is incomplete/imperfect.

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative*
Present	....is/am/are	Is/am/are...	...is/am/are/	Is/Am/Are/...
Continuous	V_1 +ing	V_1 +ing.....?	not V_1 +ing	not V_1 +ing....?

Remember that Present Continuous is also known as Present Progressive or Present Imperfect.

(Other instructions-same as given in Present Indefinite Tense).

INDEFINITE TENSE

Other Types of Interrogative Sentences:

What are you doing?	How are you progressing at your Studies?
Why is she laughing?	Who is disturbing you?
Which book are you reading?	Whom are you abusing?
When are you returning home?	Whose scooter are you driving?
Where is Rani working?	

Some other uses of the Present Continuous Tense:

Examples :

1. What are you writing these days? (It shows that an activity is going on around the time though it is not being done at the time of speaking.

2. I am not leaving for Mathura tomorrow. (To show the action which has been planned for future though the response is positive or negative).
3. She is always showing you down. (It shows the repeated action which has become a habit).
4. She is weeping now. (Shows an action going on at the time of speaking).
5. I am reading 'Hamlet'. (However, I am not reading it at this moment). (Shows an action which is temporary and may or may not be actually happening at the time of speaking).
6. Sushma is arriving tomorrow. (Shows an action that has been arranged to take place in the near future).
7. Our neighbouring girl is very silly. She is always throwing rubbish in the street. (Shows an obstinate habit). *Present Continuous Tense* is used here with the Adverb-'Always'.

The following verbs are not normally used in the Continuous forms:

(*a*) Verbs of *appearance* : look; seem; appear.
(*b*) Verbs of *emotion* : desire, feel, like, hate, love, hope, prefer, refuse, wish, want.
(*c*) Verbs of *Perception* : notice, recognise, see, smell, hear.
(*d*) Verbs of *possession* : belong to, own, possess, consist of, contain.
(*e*) Verbs of *thought* : believe, suppose, agree, think, trust, consider, know, forget, imagine, mind, understand, mean.

Examples :

Wrong	**Right**
She is *thinking* you are wrong.	She *thinks* you are wrong.
The old man is *looking* gay.	The old man *looks* gay.
Nikunj is *having* a car.	Nikunj *has* a car.

These peaches are *tasting* sour. These peaches *taste* sour.

However, the above verb-*think, look, have, taste* can be used in the Continuous tenses but with a changed meaning.

Examples : I am thinking of helping the widow with money.

She is looking there.

Mother is having breakfast.

Lesson–3
Present Perfect Tense
Model Sentences

	I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
1.	I have taken a bath.	Have I taken a bath?
2.	We have finished our breakfas.	Have we finished our breakfast?
3.	You have revised your lesson.	Have you revised your lesson?
4.	They have made a noise.	Have they made a noise?
5.	The shopkeeper has sold the books.	Has the shopkeeper sold the books?
	III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1.	I have not taken a bath.	Have I not taken a bath?
2.	We have not finished our breakfast.	Have we not finished our breakfast?
3.	You have not revised your lesson.	Have you not revised your lesson?
4.	They have not made a noise.	Have they not made a noise?
5.	The shopkeeper has not sold the books.	Has the shopkeeper not sold the books.

Perfect means 'excellently and fully completed'

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Present Perfect	...has/have/ V_3	Has/Have/... V_3...?	...has/have not V_3	Has/Have... not V_3...?

(Other instructions-same as given in Present Indefinite Tense).

Never means 'at no time'—**Never** is the antonym of always '**Not**' is not used after '**Never**'.

Other Forms of Interrogative Sentences :

Whose book have you stolen?	Where has she gone?
Whom have you cheated?	When have you returned home?
How have they solved this sum?	Which fruit have you plucked?
Who has broken this slate?	What has she snatched from you?

Some other uses of the Present Perfect Tense :

Examples :

1. I have just received her message. (Shows the action which was completed a shortwhile ago using '**just**').

2. I have seen a lion in the zoo. (Shows some proper action the time of which has neither been mentioned nor is definite).

3. I have seen the Republic Day Parade several times. (To show past experience).

4. I have not met Murli since March Last. (To show the action which began in the past and is dormant (not in a state of progress).

5. She has cut her finger (and it is still bleeding). (To describe past events which show their effect in the present).

6. Sarla has known me since 1997.

Sushma has been ill since last Monday.

They have stayed here for two days.

I haven't seen Urmilla for several weeks.

(The above sentences denote an action which began at some time in the past and is continuing upto the present moment (often with *since* and *for phrases*).

Remember that Present Perfect Tense is never used with adverbs of past time. In such cases, simple past should be used; as—

Rajni *went* to Allahabad yesterday. (correct) (Rajni has gone to Allahabad yesterday). (wrong)

We can also use the following adverbs or adverb phrases with the Present Perfect Tense.

Never, ever, (in question only, *yet* (in negatives and questions) *so far, till now, today, this week, already, this month* etc.

Lesson–4
Present Perfect Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

	I. Affirmative	**II. Interrogative**
1.	I have been standing first for four years.	Have I been standing first for four years?
2.	We have been swimming in the river since morning.	Have we been swimming in the river since morning?
3.	You have been reading since 4 O'clock.	Have you been reading since 4 O' clock?
4.	They have been viewing T.V. for many days.	Have they been viewing T.V. for many days?
5.	He has been solving the sums for two hours.	Has he been solving the sums for two hours?

	III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1.	I have not been standing first for four years.	Have I not been standing first for four years?
2.	We have not been swimming in the river since morning.	Have we not been swimming in the river since morning?
3.	You have not been reading since 4 O'clock.	Have you not been reading since 4 O'clock?
4.	They have not been viewing T.V. for many days.	Have they not been viewing T.V. for many days?
5.	He has not been solving the sums for two hours.	Has he not been solving the sums for two hours?

Perfect Continuous means 'that which began at some time in the past and is still continuing, as—

She has been reading for four hours (and is still reading).

The masons have been repairing the house for many months (and are still repairing it).

Present Perfect Continuous Tense is also sometimes used for an action already finished. The continuity of such activity is emphasized as an explanation of something; as—

'Why are you perspiring Profusely?'—I have been playing for an hour.

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Present	....has been/	Has/Have.... been/	....has/have/	Has/Have.....
Perfect	have been/	V_1 +since/for	+not been/	not been
Continuous	V_1 +ing/ since/for	....?	V_1 +ing since/for	V_1 +ing/ since/for?

'Since' is used for '*Point of time*'.

'For' is used for '*Period of time*'.

In negative sentences *not* is inserted after *has / have* but before *been* (*has not been / have not been*).

Other Forms of Interrogative Sentences:

1. What have you been reading for two hours?
2. Why has she been weeping since morning?
3. Why has he been laughing for many minutes?
4. How has he been staying in Delhi for four years?
5. Where has she been reading since 1990?
6. Which lesson has he been revising since morning?
7. Whose scooter have you been driving for a week?
8. Whom have you been teasing for an hour?
9. Who has been teaching you for two periods?

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE–I

Fill in the blanks with correct verb forms (Present Tense) from those in brackets :

1. My brother.....not.....(read) a play by Kalidas.
2. The students.....(pay) much attention to their studies.
3. Who.....(say), I am in the wrong.
4. .....the birds not.....(chirp) early in the morning?
5. .....the students.....(swim) in the river?
6. .....your mother not.....(keep) fit these days?
7. .....they.....(refuse) to help you?
8. Kusum.....not.....(iron) her clothes.
9. .....your sister know how to.....(swim)?
10. Suresh.....not.....(take) coffee without sugar.
11. .....we not.....(see) many ups and down in life?
12. I.....(drop) a five-rupee note somewhere.
13. .....I not.....(invite) him to dinner?
14. Pushpa.....not.....(keep) awake till midnight these days.
15. Rajeshwari.....(travel) round the world.

Exercise II

Fill in the blanks with correct verb forms (Present Tense) from those in brackets :

1. .....God not.....(protect) us all?
2. .....your sister.....(pass) the examination?
3. Hari.....recently.....(sell) his house.
4. I.....(read) English for eight years.
5. .....you.....(graze) the cattle since morning?
6. Malaria.....(rage) in the city for two years.
7. Vegetables and fruits.....not.....(harm) us in any ways.
8. .....she not.....(visit) her home every year?

9. She.....not.....(bathe) in hot water during summer.
10. Whom.....you.....(like) the most?
11. I.....(learn) the verses from the Gita.
12. .....they.....(travel) by the train?
13. Seema.....not.....(wash) her clothes.
14. .....the police not (chase) the thieves?
15. .....those forests not.....(look) green?

Lesson–5
Past Indefinite Tense
Model Sentences

	I. Affirmative	**II. Interrogative**
1.	I went to Madras last week.	Did I go to Madras last week?
2.	We ate many apples.	Did we eat many apples?
3.	You flew kites the whole day.	Did you fly kites the whole day?
4.	The postman delivered letters in the colony.	Did the postman deliver letters in the colony?
5.	They played at cards the whole night.	Did they play at cards the whole night?
	III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1.	I did not go to Madras last week?	Did I not go to Madras last week?
2.	We did not eat many apples.	Did we not eat many apples?
3.	You did not fly kites the whole day.	Did you not fly kites the whole day?
4.	The postman did not deliver letters in the colony.	Did the postman not deliver letters in the colony?
5.	They did not play at cards the whole night.	Did they not play at cards the whole night?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Past Indefinite	V_2	Did V_1...?	...did not V_1	Did/...not V_1?

Past Indefinite Tense is used when a single activity is given.

Other Types of Interrogative Sentences:

1. When did you come here?
2. Where did they go yesterday?
3. What did he/she eat this morning?
4. How much (what) did it cost you?
5. Who made tea for us?
6. Why did she not return?
7. Which toy did he/she like?
8. Whose house did you buy?
9. Whom did you hand over my book?

Some other uses of Past Indefinite Tense:

Examples :

1. She did sing but not with a tune.

(Here *did* is used before First form of the verb to lay emphasis on an action).

2. A murder took place in front of my house.

(Here, such action has been shown as was finished in the past but is related with the time of speaking).

3. Your father scolded you every day.

(Here, a past habit or routine action has been shown).

4. We studied in this school for seven years—(do not study now).

(Here, such action has been shown which was done for many years in the past but got finished before the time of speaking).

5. I received Bimla's parcel a fortnight ago.

(Here, such an action is shown as was completed in the past. An adverb or adverb phrase of past time is often used in such sentences).

6. I learnt Sanskrit at Rohtak.

(The sentence doesn't contain an adverb of time. The time, here is implied).

7. He worked in the field many hours every day.

(Here, the ***past habit*** is shown).

Lesson–6
Past Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	**II. Interrogative**
1. I was looking at the bridge.	Was I looking at the bridge?
2. We were speaking on the stage.	Were we speaking on the stage?
3. You were shaking hands with him.	Were you shaking hands with him.
4. He was riding a horse.	Was he riding a horse?
5. She was receiving the prize.	Was she receiving the prize?
III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1. I was not looking at the bridge.	Was I not looking at the bridge?
2. We were not speaking on the stage.	Were we not speaking on the stage?
3. You were not shaking hands with him.	Were you not shaking hands with him?
4. He was not riding a horse.	Was he not riding a horse?
5. She was not receiving the prize.	Was she not receiving the prize?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Past	...was/were/	Was/were....	was/were/	Was/were/-
Continuous	*V_1 +ing*	*V_1 +ing?*	*not V_1 +ing*	*Not V_1 +ing...?*

Other types of Interrogative Sentences :

1. What were you doing then?
2. Why was she making a noise?
3. When was she writing a letter?
4. How were they driving the scooter?
5. Whose clothes were they ironing?
6. Which book were you reading?
7. Whom was she scolding?

Remember that Past Continuous Tense is used to show such action as was being done before the time os speaking.

Examples :

1. The milk-men were milking the cows.
2. He was laughing heartily.

Some other uses of the Past Continuous Tense:

1. His parents were viewing T.V. all evening.
2. The light went out while we were taking our meal.

(Here, the actions going on at some time in the past are shown. The time of the action may or may not be indicated).

In sentence No. 2 above, the Simple Past and the Past Continuous have been used together when a new action took place in the middle of a longer action. The Simple Past is used for the new action.

3. Kalawati was always quarrelling.
4. She was continually Churning milk.

(Here Past Continuous Tense is used with *always*, *continually* etc., to show persistent habits in the past.

Lesson–7
Past Perfect Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
1. I had finished my home-work.	Had I finished my home-work?
2. We had revised our lesson.	Had we revised our lesson?
3. You had stood first in the class.	Had you stood first in the class?
4. She had quarrelled with me.	Had she quarrelled with me?
5. The train had left the station.	Had the train left the station?

III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1. I had not finished my homework.	Had I not finished my homework?
2. We had not revised our lesson.	Had we not revised our lesson?
3. You had not stood first in the class	Had you not stood first in the class?
4. She had not quarrelled with me.	Had she not quarrelled with me?
5. The train had not left the station.	Had the train not left the station?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Past Perfect	....had V_3	Had.... V_3...?	....had not V_3	Had...not V_3...?

Other Forms of Interrogative Sentences:

1. Who had teased you?
2. What had we done?
3. Where had you gone at that time?
4. When had he left Delhi?
5. Which state had the storm hit?
6. Whose roof had fallen yesterday?
7. How had you reached Bombay?
8. Who had beaten Hari?
9. Whom had Sushma robbed the other days?

☞ **Remember that normally there are two actions in Past Perfect Tense. The action taking place earlier is shown by Past Perfect Tense and the action taking place later is shown by simple Past Tense; as—**

Sushma had left her house before Lata rang.

The patient had died before the doctor came.

It shows the Simple Past is used in one clause and Past Perfect is used in the other clause.

Some other uses of Past Perfect Tense:

1. I defeated him in the cycle race in 1998. I had done so last few years before.

(Here, the Past Perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past).

Lesson–8
Past Perfect Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative

1. I had been reading the book since morning.
2. We had been swimming in the river since 4 O'clock.
3. You had been wasting your time for two days.
4. She had been making tea for five minutes.
5. It had been drizzling since this afternoon.

II. Interrogative

Had I been reading the book since morning?

Had we been swimming in the river since 4 O'clock?

Had you been wasting your time for two days?

Had she been making tea for five minutes?

Had it been drizzling since this afternoon?

III. Negative

1. I had not been reading the book since morning.
2. We had not been swimming in the river since 4 O'clock.
3. You had not been wasting your time for two days.
4. She had not been making tea for five minutes.
5. It had not been drizzling since this afternoon.

IV. Interrogative-Negative

Had I not been reading the book since morning?

Had we not been swimming in the river since 4 O'clock?

Had you not been wasting your time for two days?

Had she not been making tea for five minutes?

Had it not been drizzling since this afternoon?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Past Perfect Continuous	...had been/ V_1 +ing/since/ for	Had...been/ V_1 +ing/since/ for.....?	...had not been/V_1 +ing	Had...not been/ V_1 +ing/since/ for.....?

'*Since*' is used for '*Point of Time*'.

'*For*' is used for '*Period of Time*'.

(For other information look at the rules gives in the lesson—Present Perfect Continuous Tense).

Other Forms of Interrogative Sentences :

1. Where had you been playing for two hours?
2. Why had she been weeping since morning?
3. What had she been doing for two hours?
4. When had she been preparing breakfast for ten minute?
5. How had he been opposing you for twenty years?
6. Who had been felling trees since morning?
7. Which poem had you been learning by heart for half an hour?
8. Whose money had you been spending for several days?
9. Whom had you been eating for five minutes?

Other uses of Past Perfect Continuous Tense :

Before her marriage, Rekha had been writing a book for two years.

(Here Past Perfect Continuous Tense has been used for the action that began before a certain point in the past and continued upto that time.

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE

Fill in the blanks with correct verb forms (Past Tense) from those in brackets :

1. My father.....(give) me this present on my birthday.
2. When I.....(visit) her house, she.....(sleep).
3. .....Suraj.....(write) a romantic novel?
4. We.....(reach) the station before the train.....(leave).
5. She.....(sleep) since 8 P.M.

6. .....Gandhi always.....(speak) the truth?
7. It.....(drizzle) since at 4 O'clock.
8. It.....(rain) heavily at 10 O'clock this morning.
9. Hari.....(try) to grind his own axe.
10. The teacher.....not.....(punish) the naughty boys.
11. I.....not.....(talk) to Rahim, the other day.
12. He.....(go) to the post office after the rain.....(stop).
13. I.....(wait) for you when the bell.....(ring).
14. .....the old man.....(cross) the road very carefully?

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE

Fill in the blanks with correct verb forms (Past Tense) from those in brackets :

1. You.....(listen) to Radio for half an hour.
2. Whose clothes.....you.....(fold)?
3. When I.....(teach), he.....(doze).
4. It.....not.....(rain), when he.....(leave) for.
5. .....it.....(rain) heavily at 10 O'clock yesterday?
6. I.....(read) a novel the whole-day long.
7. When.....you.....(send) her a telegram?
8. .....an accident not.....(take) place here yesterday?
9. The police.....not.....(arrest) the thieves knowingly.
10. He.....(solve) this difficult sum at once.
11. Mohan.....not.....(work) in the workshop for several days.
12. Where.....he.....(hide) for two days?
13. .....the sun not.....(set) when the farmers.....(return) home?
14. I.....not.....(receive) any letter from my uncle.
15. Whose kite.....(fly) high?

Lesson–9
Future Indefinite Tense
Model Sentences

	I. Affirmative	**II. Interrogative**
1.	I shall buy some books.	Shall I buy some books?
2.	We shall go to picnic tomorrow.	Shall we go to picnic tomorrow?
3.	You will revise your lesson tomorrow.	Will you revise your lesson tomorrow?
4.	The teacher(s) will punish him.	Will the teacher(s) punish him?
5.	It will rain today.	Will it rain today?
	III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1.	I shall not buy some (any) books.	Shall I not buy some (any) books?
2.	We shall not go to picnic tomorrow.	Shall we not go to picnic tomorrow?
3.	You will not revise your lesson tomorrow.	Will you not revise your lesson tomorrow?
4.	The teacher(s) will not punish him.	Will the teacher(s) not punish him?
5.	It will not rain today.	Will it not rain today?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Future	....shall/will	Shall/will/	....shall/will	Shall/will....
Indefinite	V_1	V_1.....?	not V_1.....	not V_1....?

Use '*Shall*' with First Person Pronouns (I, We).

Use '*Will*' with Second the Third Person Pronouns (You, He, She, It, They).

Use the Crude/First Form of Verb (V_1).

Other Forms of Interrogative Sentences :

1. Where will she go tomorrow?
2. Which book will you borrow from the library?

3. Who will help you in English?
4. Whom will you present this gift?
5. Why will you not repay my loan?
6. When shall I see you again?
7. How will you evade your responsibility?
8. What will you buy if you win a lottery?
9. Whose book will you steal?

Some Other Uses of Future Indefinite Tense:

Examples :

1. Our team *leaves for Nehru Stadium tomorrow morning*. (Here Future Tense (*will leave*) is indicated by the use of Present Indefinite Tense (*leaves*).

2. I am leaving for Kanpur next month. (Here Future (*shall leave*) Tense is shown by the use of Present Continuous Tense (*am leaving*). It talks about future planning.

3. (*i*) I *am going* to buy a new scooter. (It means I shall buy a new scooter in near future).

(*ii*) She is going to have a baby. (It means she will have a baby in near future). (Here, some definite event likely to take place in near future is shown by the use of 'going to'. We use the '*going to*' form when preparation for an action has already been made.

4. I *am to finish* my work by next month.

(Here Future Tense (*shall finish*) is shown by the use of *be* + *to* + V_1).

5. It *will be* Holi in a week.

Nupur *will be* fourteen next month.

(Here, Simple Future Tense is used to talk about things scheduled to take place naturally).

6. I'm sure India *will win* the trophy.

(Here, Simple Future is used to talk about something most likely to happen).

7. It's very cold. I *shall bring* you tea.

(Here, Simple Future is used when something is decided to be done just at the time of speaking (instant decision).

8. Dark clouds are hovering in the sky. It is going to rain.

(Here, it is going to rain means 'It shall probably rain. The 'going to' form is used here in talking about what seems likely, It gives the sense of Simple Future).

9. Let us get into the compartment. The train is *going to* leave. The train *is going to* leave is an indication/signal that the train *will leave* soon (after a short time).

(Here it shows that the action of the leaving of the train is one the point of happening).

10. Let us get into the shed. It's about to rain.

'*It's about to rain*' means. 'It will definitely start raining soon'. (Here, *about to* is used to express the immediate future.

11. The school *opens* on Ist July.

(It means the school *will open* on Ist July).

(Here, the Simple Present Tense is used to show official programmes).

12. The film starts at 1.30 and finishes at 4.25.

It means 'the film will start at 1.30 and will finish at 4.25'.

(Here, the Simple Present Tense is used to show the scheduled time table).

13. (*i*) Let us Chat till (until) he *arrives*.

(*ii*) Please inform me as soon as the typist *comes*.

(*iii*) Can I have tea before I *board* the school bus?

(*iv*) I won't the meeting if it *rains*.

(*v*) I won't attended his party unless he *invites* me.

(*vi*) I shall help her, when she *asks* me.

(*vii*) Don't make a noise, while I *work*.

(*viii*) Don't talk loudly as mother *sleeps* inside.

(*ix*) I shall leave the house after my father *sleeps*.

(*x*) Wait here, by the time I *return*.

In the above sentences the clauses with *till; until; soon as; before; if; unless; when; while; as; after; by the time* are used in simple present but they convey the sense of Simple Future Tense.

Lesson–10
Future Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
1. I shall be taking the test tomorrow.	Shall I be taking the test tomorrow?
2. We shall be swimming in the river tomorrow.	Shall we be swimming in the river tomorrow?
3. You will be reaching Jaipur tomorrow.	Will you be reaching Jaipur tomorrow?
4. He will be travelling by train.	Will he be travelling by train?
5. They will be cooking food.	Will they be cooking food?
III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1. I shall not be taking the test tomorrow.	Shall I be not taking the test tomorrow?
2. We shall not be swimming in the river tomorrow.	Shall we not be swimming in the river tomorrow?
3. You will not be reaching Jaipur tomorrow.	Will you not be reaching Jaipur tomorrow?
4. He will not be travelling by train.	Will he not be travelling by train?
5. They will not be cooking food.	Will they not be cooking food?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Future	....shall/will	Shall/will...	...shall/will	Shall/will.....
Continuous	be V_1 +ing	be V_1 +ing....?	not be V_1 +ing	not be V_1 +ing?

Other Type of Interrogative Sentences:

1. What shall I be buying from the bazar?
2. Where shall we be sleeping tomorrow?
3. When will you be reaching Delhi?
4. Who will be teaching you English.
5. Why will the farmers not be ploughing their fields tomorrow?
6. Whose scooter will he be driving?
7. How will she be managing her household?
8. Which class will be teaching?
9. Whom will you be deceiving life-long?

Some Other Uses of the Future Continuous Tense:

1. (*i*) I suppose it will drizzling after an hour.

(*ii*) *This time, next Sunday, I shall be enjoying myself* at Dehradun.

(Here, Future Continuous Tense is used to express the actions which will be in progress at a time in future).

2. We shall be holding the next meeting the next week.

(Here, Future Continuous Tense is used to express the action which has already been planned for future and is normally expected to happen).

3. The Chief Minister is to take a round of the flood affected area.

(Here, the form of *be* + *to* + crude (base) form of the verb is used in place of Future Continuous Tense to talk about official arrangements and plans).

This sentence can also be written as 'The Chief Minister will take a round of the flood-affected area.

(*Be to* + V_1 is often used in news reports. *Be* is usually dropped in headlines. as.....Chief Minister to visit flood affected area).

Lesson–11
Future Perfect Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
1. I shall have bathed in the river.	Shall I have bathed in the river?
2. We shall have started our journey.	Shall we have started our journey?
3. You will have bought a scooter.	Will you have bought a scooter?
4. She will have earnt enough money.	Will she have earnt enough money?
5. The police will have caught the thief.	Will the police have caught the thief.
III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1. I shall not have bathed in the river.	Shall I not have bathed in the river?
2. We shall not have started our journey.	Shall we not have started our journey?
3. You will not have bought a scooter.	Will you not have bought a scooter?
4. She will not have earnt enough money.	Will she not have earnt enough money?
5. The Police will not have caught the thief.	Will the police not have caught the thief?

Future Perfect Tense shows that the desired or proposed activity is scheduled (expected) to be excellently and fully completed in future.

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Future Perfect	....shall/will/ have V_3	Shall/will/ have V_3....?	....shall/will not have V_3	Shall/will..... not have V_3...?

Other Types of Interrogative Sentences:

1. Where will she have reached?
2. What will you have bought?
3. When shall we have arrived here?

4. How will they have entered there?
5. Why will you have sold your house?
6. Who will have quarrelled with you?
7. Which bus will you have boarded?
8. Whose field will you have tilled?
9. Whom will you have slain?

Some Other Uses of Future Perfect Tense:

1. I shall have written this book by the end of this month.

2. She will have left before you visit her house.

3. By the end of 20%, I shall have worked in this organization for fifteen years.

(In the above sentences, Future Perfect Tense is used to talk about such actions as will be completed by the stipulated time in future).

4. (*i*) The spectators will have occupied their seats before the film starts.

(*ii*) He will have reached home before the rain starts.

(*iii*) We shall not have taken milk before you sleep.

(*iv*) Will Rajni have taken her bath before she takes her breakfast?

(In the above sentences two activities have been shown in each sentence. The Future Perfect Tense is used for the action to be completed earlier. Similarly, the Present Indefinite Tense is used for the latter action to be completed next).

Lesson–12
Future Perfect Continuous Tense
Model Sentences

I. Affirmative	II. Interrogative
1. I shall have been playing for one (an) hour in the evening.	Shall I have been playing for one (an) hour in the evening?

2. We shall have been sleeping since 10 O'clock. — Shall we have been sleeping since 10 O'clock?
3. You will have been watering the field since morning. — Will you have been watering the field since morning?
4. He will have been preparing for the test since 2001. — Will he have been preparing for the test since 2001?
5. They will have been swimming in the river since morning. — Will they have been swimming in the river since morning?

	III. Negative	**IV. Interrogative-Negative**
1.	I shall not have been playing for one (an) hour in the evening.	Shall I not have been playing for one (an) hour in the evening?
2.	We shall not have been sleeping since 10 O'clock.	Shall we not have been sleeping since 10 O'clock?
3.	You will not have been watering the field since morning.	Will you not have been watering the field since morning?
4.	He will not have been preparing for the test since 2001.	Will he not have been preparing for the test since 2001?
5.	They will not have been rumming in the river since morning.	Will they not have been swimming in the river since morning?

Informative Recapitulation

Name of the Tense	*Affirmative*	*Interrogative*	*Negative*	*Interrogative Negative*
Future	....shall have	Shall/will....	....shall not have	Shall/will....
Perfect	been/will	have been/	been/will not	not have been/
Continuous	have been/ V_1 +ing/since/ for	V_1 +ing/since for?	have been/ V_1 +ing/since/ for	V_1/since/for...?

(For other information look at the rules given in the lesson—Present Perfect Continuous Tense and Past Perfect Continuous Tense).

Other Types of Interrogative Sentences:

1. Why will she not have been coming to the library since next year?
2. When will he have been serving in this factory for ten years?
3. How will she have been feeling since next months?

4. Who will have been cleaning our utensils since tomorrow?
5. Whose trees will you have been cutting for several months?
6. What will you have been reading for two hours?
7. Where will they have been staying for a week?
8. Which book will you have been revising since the coming Monday?
9. Whom will she have been cursing for two days?

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE I

Fill in the blanks with correct Verb form (Future Tense) from those in brackets :

1. Who.....(catch) the notorious dacoit?
2. The doctor.....(treat) her regularly.
3. I.....not.....(take) exercise regularly.
4. Why.....she.....(waste) my time?
5. God willing, we.....(meet) again.
6. .....it be.....(rain) heavily tonight?
7. The patient.....not.....(take) the medicine.
8. .....they not.....(watch) the film at this time tomorrow?
9. Shobha.....(learn) her lesson since 4 O'clock.
10. Why.....she.....(create) a fuss?
11. .....the sun.....(shine) brightly since morning?
12. .....the train not.....(arrive) soon?
13. I.....never.....(forget) your obligation.
14. .....they.....(cross) the river safely?
15. The guests.....(arrive) home by the evening.

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE II

1. Who.....(bow) before a poor beggar?
2. We.....be.....(wait) for you at the crossing.
3. I.....(succeed) or.....(die) in my attempt.

4. .....the policemen.....(keep) a strict visit at night?
5. .....We.....not.....(travel) by bus tomorrow?
6. Will the train not.....(arrive) soon?
7. Where.....I.....(study) next year?
8. He.....(leave) his place by now.
9. .....they.....(cross) the river safely?
10. He.....not.....(convince) his father to purchase a scooter.
11. .....he not.....(snatch) your purse?
12. When.....she.....(milk) the cows?
13. The students.....(wait) for their results since next week.
14. .....she.....(prepares) breakfast since morning?
15. We.....not.....(run) a factor in Delhi since 2001.

THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Definition : The Sequence of Tenses is a principle according to which the tense of Dependent or Subordinate clause follows the Tense of the verb in the Main or Principal clause.

1. Observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause		*Subordinate Clause*	
1. He says to me	(Present)	That he *does* his homework daily.	(Present)
Or			
He is saying to me.		That he *did* his homework daily.	(Past)
Or	(Present)		
He has said to me.		that he *will* do his home-work daily.	(Future)
	(Present)		
2. I say	(Present)	that she Kints her sweater.	
Or			(Present)
I am saying	(Present)	that she Knitted her sweater	(Past)
Or			

	I have said	(Present)	that she will knit her sweater.	(Future)
3.	I shall say	(Future)	that he does not help me.	
	Or		***Or***	(Present)
	I shall be saying	(Future)	that he did not help me.	
	Or			(past)
	I shall have said	(Future)	that he will not help me.	(Future)
4.	She will say to me.	(Future)	that she has done her work.	
	Or			(Present)
	She will be saying to me.		that she had done her work.	
	Or	(Future)		(Past)
	She will have said to me.		that she will have done	
		(Future)	her work.	(Future)
5.	I Know	(Present)	Where he lives.	(Present)
	Or		Where he lived.	(Past)
	I shall Know.	(Future)	Where he will be living.	(Future)

On reading the above sentences you must have learnt that the verbs in the Principal clauses in all the above sentences are either in the Present or Future Tense.

In the same way, the tenses in the Subordinate Clauses are in Present, Past and Future according to the sense.

Rule 1: If the verb in the principal Clause is in the Present or Future tense, the verb in the Subordinate (Dependent) Clause may be in any tense (Present, Past or Future) according to the sense.

Exceptions to Rule 1

A. Observe the following sentences :

1. She runs fast so that she *may run* the race (Purpose)
2. She will run fast so that she *may run* the race. (Purpose)
3. I shall help her if she *agrees* to my proposal. (Condition)
4. You will be awarded a scholarship provided you secure first position. (Condition)

5. We shall go out for a walk as soon as we *have finished* your work. (Time)
6. They will work till it is evening. (Time)

If the Verb in the Main (Principal) Clause is in the Present or Future Tense, the verb in the Dependent (Subordinate) Adverb Clause of *Purpose*, *Condition* or *Time* should invariably be in the Present Tense.

B. Also observe the following sentences :

1. She talks as if she *were* mad.
2. He behaves stupidly as though he were annoyed.

The Conjunctions *'as if* and *'as though'* invariably take a Past tense in the subordinate Clause, whatever the tense (Present, Past or Future) in the Principal clause may be.

II. Observe the following sentences:

Principal Clauses	*Subordinate Clauses*
1. I told him	that he took tea in the morning.
Or	that he was taking tea in the morning.
	that he had taken tea in the morning.
I Knew	that he had been taking tea since morning.
	that he had been taking tea in the morning.
	that he would take tea in the morning.
	that he would be taking tea in the morning.
	that he would have taken tea in the morning.
2. I asked him	if he took tea in the morning.
	if he was taking tea in the morning.
	if he had taken tea in the morning.
	if he had been taking tea since morning.
	if he had been taking tea in the morning.
	if he would take tea in the morning.
	if he would be taking tea in the morning.
	if he would have taken tea in the morning.

On reading the above sentences you must have learnt that all the verbs in the subordinate clauses above are in the Past Tense.

Rule 2 : Past Tense must be followed by the Past. It means that the verb in the Subordinate Clause must be in the corresponding Past Tense if the verb in the Principal clause happens to be in the past Tense.

More Examples for Clarification

Principal Clause	**Subordinate Clause**
I expected	that he *might* help me.
She did not know	that I *could* deliver a speech.

Exception to Rule 2

A. Observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause	**Subordinate Clause**
1. She told me	that her husband *is* a drunkard. (Normal Fact)
2. He told us	that his mother *goes* to the temple daily. (Habitual Truth)
3. The Geography teacher told the class.	that the earth *revolves* round the sun. (Geographicall Truth)
4. Kalidas said	that beauty *needs* no ornamentation. (Universal Truth)

We use Present Indefinite tense in the Subordinate Clause bearing *normal facts, habitual truths, geographical truths* and *universal truths* even though the Principal clause happens to be in the past tense.

B. Now observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause	**Subordinate Clause**
1. She went to Mysore	*Where* her mother is a Professor. (Place)

2. He did not accompany us	as */for/* because he cannot afford to spend so much money. (Reason)
3. Last year she spent	as *much* money as she will not spend in a decade. (Comparison)

If the Subordinate Clause is Adverb Clause of *place,* reason or comparison, it can take any tense (Present, Past or Future) required by the sense, even though the Principal Clause is in the Past Tense.

C. Now Observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause	**Subordinate Clause**
1. The police caught a woman	Who *runs* a brothel.
2. He bought a scooter	Which *Consumes* much petrol.
3. I saw a man	Who often *comes* to our street.
4. They elected him President	than whom no better candidate *will* ever be found.
5. There was none	but *wept.*

If the Subordinate clause is an Adjective Clause, it can take any tense (Present, Past or Future) required by the sense; even though the Principal Clause is in the Past Tense.

D. Now Observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause	**Subordinate Clause**
1. She spoke haltingly	lest she *should* commit some mistake.
2. He walked carefully	lest he *should* fall down.
3. I burnt midnight oil	lest I *should* secure a low percentage of marks.

The conjunction '*Lest*' is always followed by 'should' even though the Principal Clause is in Past (or any other) tense- Remember that *'lest*—should' gives the sense of imaginative future.

E. Now observe the following sentences :

Principal Clause	*Subordinate Clause*
1. She abused me	as if I *were* her rival.
2. She behaved	as though she *were* annoyed.

The Conjunctions 'as *if*' and '*as though*' always take a past tense (plural member) in the subordinate clause whatever the tense in the Principal Clause may be.

Also remember that the verb in the past tense (were) of the subordinate Clause beginning with '*as if*' or '*as though*' conveys the present sense.

Also observe the following sentences :

1. I wish that I *were* a bird. (Past Tense)
2. If you run fast, you *will win* the race. (Future tense)
3. If you ran fast, you *would have run* the race. (Past Tense)
4. If you had run fast, you *would have run* the race. (Conditional Perfect Tense)

The above sentences show that the verbs in Subordinate Clauses can be used variously as per requirement of the sense of the Principal Clause in the sentence.

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE
(Unsolved)

I. Fill in the following blanks using correct tense of the verb within brackets :

1. When she saw her husband lying dead, she..... (start) weeping bitterly.

2. The oldman told us that a drowning man..... (catch) at a straw.
3. The magistrate little knew that the offender..... (to be) the Chief Minister's son.
4. His sister married a man who.....(to rebel) against him.
5. She did not know how the accident.....(to occur).
6. If the police had reached in time, they.....(to catch) the burglar.
7. Rajni failed miserably because she.....(to fall) ill.

II. Complete the following sentences adding suitable clauses :

1. The terrorists admitted.....
2. As soon as the dove saw the bee in danger.....
3. .....I cannot attend my regular classes.
4. .....that she cannot overtake me.
5. She had hardly packed her luggage.....
6. No sooner did he get down the bus.....
7. He never thought .....

III. Correct the errors in Tenses in the following sentences :

1. The old man explained to us that union was strength.
2. She was mighty glad when she sees her husband.
3. I never knew that Urmila will never repay my loan.
4. It was given out the minister has been shot dead.
5. I knew that Sushma can never solve the sums.
6. He loves his neighbour's daughter as though she is his real cousin.
7. Be quick lest you might miss the train.
8. He climbed up a tree that he will see the procession.

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4

English Sentence: Focus on Classification and Synthesis or Combination

THE SENTENCE

Our speech is made up of sentences. Sentences are made of words arranged in a particular order. Sentences express our ideas.

Definition—A group of words that makes complete sense is called a sentence, as—The Sun rises in the east.

Kinds of Sentences

We can classify the sentences into the following Two groups—

(i) On the basis of their meanings.
(ii) On the basis of their structure.
(iii) **Classification** of **sentences on the basis of their meanings.**

On the basis of their meanings or sense, the sentences may be of the following five types:—

1. Affirmative or Positive Sentences

Sentences which simply tell us that some action or event has taken place are called affirmative sentences. In

these sentences the subject is always placed before the verb—for example:-

(a) Ram is going to school.
(b) Dhruva works hard.
(c) The girls are reading.

2. Negative Sentences

Sentences which tells us that some action or event has not taken place or will not take place are called negative sentences. In these sentences some negative word as - 'no', 'not', 'scarcely', 'hardly', etc., is used. For example —

(a) Ram is not going to school.
(b) Dhruva does not work hard.
(c) The girls are not reading.

3. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are those sentences which ask questions. In these sentences the mark of interrogation (?) is always used in the end. Interrogative sentences begin either with some helping or auxiliary verb (is, am, are, was, were, will, shall etc.) or with some question word ; as what, which, where, when, now, etc. For example:

(a) Is this your pen?
(b) What was he doing here?
(c) Where are you going?
(d) Will she read?

4. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences are those sentences which express some request, order, or advice. In these sentences the subject is always 'you' and it is understood. For example—

(a) Get out of the room. (order)
(b) Please give me a pen (request)
(c) Word hard. (Advise)

5. Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences express some strong feeling as—Joy, sorrow, pity, surprise, wonder, etc. The mark of exclamation (!) Is always used at the end of these sentences. For Example.

(a) What a beautiful girl! (wonder)
(b) Alas, he is dead! (sorrow)
(c) Well done ! (Joy)

Classification of Sentences on the basis of their Structure—

On the basis of their structure sentences may be classified as—

(1) **Simple sentences—**A simple sentence is a sentence which has only one predicate or finite verb. For example—

(a) Radha sings a song.
(b) He worked hard.

2. **Compound Sentence—**A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank joined together by some co-ordinating conjunction. These classes are independent of each other. They have simply been joined together. For example—

Night comes on and rainfall heavily and we all got very wet.

This sentence has three classes of equal rank—

(a) Night come on (b) Rainfall heavily (c) we all got very wet.

Other *i.e.*, each of them can make complete sense without the other. Hence the sentence is compound.

3. **Complex—**A sentence which contains one main or principal clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses is called a complex sentence. The Principal clause stands by itself, and makes complete

sense. Sub-ordinate clauses cannot stand by themselves but are dependent on the principal clause. They are joined together by some sub-ordinating conjunction. For example—

They rested when evening came.

Principal clause Subordinate clause

Note—If in a sentence there are more than one Principal clauses, it is called a compound sentence even if, it also has a subordinate clause.

Parts of a Sentence—

Every sentence has two parts :

1. Subject. The word about which something is said is called the subject, *e.g.,*

(i) You like milk. (ii) He is a man.

In sentence No. (i) Who likes milk? The answer is–you.

In sentence No. (ii) Who is a man ? The answer is–He.

Therefore, 'you' and 'Hen' are subjects in sentences (i) and (ii) above respectively.

2. Predicate. That word is called the predicate which tells something about the subject, *e.g.*,

(i) Mohan reads (ii) Rita dances

In sentence No. (i) What does Mohan do? Answer–reads.

In sentence No. (ii) What does Rita do? Answer–dances.

Therefore, **'reads'** and **'dances'** are predicates in sentence (i) and (ii) above respectively.

Read the following sentences carefully :

(i) I love little Pussy. (ii) They are four sisters.

In sentence No. (i) What do I do?

Answer—I love little Pussy.

In sentence No. (ii) What are they?

Answer—They are four sisters.

Therefore, the words 'I' and 'They' are subjects in sentences (i) and (ii) above respectively.

The remaining parts of sentences (i) .....love little Pussy and sentence (ii) .....are four sisters—are predicates.

Remember that

'The sentences - the subject = the predicate.'

∴ 'The sentence - the predicate = the subject'

Even a single word can be a *predicate*.

If the Subject is extricated from a sentence, the remaining part will be called the *predicate*.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

I. Turn the following statements into negative :

(i) I am a student.
(ii) She is fat.
(iii) You do your work.
(iv) She has a bag.
(v) You broke my pen.
(vi) She was making a noise.
(vii) You were boiling potatoes.
(viii) He had stolen my book.
(ix) You will cheat me.
(x) She can help you.

II. Turn the following statements into interrogative/questions :

(i) You are ten years old. (ii) She is cooking food. (iii) He is buying a book. (iv) You are wasting your time. (v) They have gone home. (vi) We were ill. (vii) She stole my pen.

III. Turn the following negative statements into positive statements :

(i) I cannot help you. (ii) You should not take tea. (iii) It would not rain. (iv) We shall not dance. (v) She had not done the work. (vi) She did not write a letter. (vii) The sky is not blue.

IV. Turn the following questions into Positive sentences :

(i) Have I four books? (ii) Are you twelve years old? (iii) Were you absent yesterday? (iv) Had you a horse? (v) Will you return tomorrow? (vi) Can you climb the tree? (vii) Are you reading a book?

V. Add necessary question tags to the following incomplete sentences :

(i) I am rich, ...?
(ii) He will not write to you, ...?
(iii) He is a wise boy, ...?
(iv) You could lift the trunk, ...?
(v) She was a good singer, ...?
(vi) Your mother is a good cook, ...?

VI. Provide the subjects in the following sentences:

(i) .....is not here.
(ii) .....gives us milk.
(iii) .....are cats.
(iv) .....are lions.
(v) .....are my friends.
(vi) .....has one sister
(vii) .....shall take tea.
(viii) .....am ten years old.

VI. Pick out the subject from the following sentences :

(i) Rita is my sister.
(ii) These are hens.

(iii) Suresh is my uncle.
(iv) You are my friends.
(v) Sushma is my niece.
(vi) Goats are pet animals.
(vii) He is a good player.
(viii) Sunil is ten years old.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCE

Sentences can be Classified into the following types:

1. Simple Sentences:

Definition : A sentence which has one subject and one predicate is called a Simple sentence.

Examples :

1. Rama killed Ravana with an arrow.
2. Urmila plays with her toys and dolls.

2. Complex Sentences :

Definition : A sentence which has one Principal clause and one or more Subordinate (dependent) clauses is called a Complex Sentence.

Examples :

1. Youth is the time when seeds of character are sown.
2. Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown.
3. That he will fail in the examination is certain.
4. When the patient will recover cannot be said.
5. The truth is that Urmilla has deceived all her lovers.
6. Seeing that a barking dog was running towards her, she started shedding tears.
7. The news that Babita has won a prize in lottery does not seem to be true.
8. Do not board the bus until it comes to a dead stop.
9. The puppy followed wherever Pushpa went.

10. Madhuri fell asleep on the ground because she was weary.
11. Were I to go unarmed, I should surely come to grief.
12. Though Rehman tried his level utmost, he could not defeat his adversary.

Look at the sentences printed above.

Sentences I and 2 are of Adjective Clauses.

Sentences 3 to 7 are of Noun Clauses.

Sentences 8 to 13 are of Adverb Clauses.

The sentences pertaining to Noun clauses, Adjective Clauses and Adverb clauses are called complex sentences—

Complex Sentence

Principal Clause	Subordinate Clause (s) one or more.

The Principal or Subordinate clause can exist anywhere in the sentence.

3. Compound Sentences :

Definition : A Chain of Simple Sentences joined by Co-ordinate Conjunctions is called a Compound Sentence.

There is no division of a Compound Sentence into Principal or Subordinate Clauses. Rather all the clauses are of equal importance and are called coordinate clauses.

Examples :

1. She is slow but (she is) steady.
2. The way was long and the time was short.
3. She was guilty, therefore, she was expelled from college.
4. Run hard or you will lose the race.

5. The sun was setting and we were still far away from our destination.
6. She cannot run, for she has pain in her leg.
7. The Chinaman took Mikali home and (he) gave him food.
8. Mahatma Gandhi was not only a good statesman, he was also a great patriot.
9. Babita tried her level best, nevertheless, she failed.
10. Run fast, else you will not reach school in time.

The sentences which contain Co-ordinate clauses are called Compound Sentences.

Compound Sentence

Principal Clause + Co-ordinate clause	Co-ordinate clause (s) + Co-ordinate clause.

EXERCISE FOR PRACTICE

Say whether the sentences given below are Simple/ Compound/Complex :

1. The rain fell, the lightning flashed and the stormy wind blew.
2. When she reached the station, the train had left.
3. Ramesh gave Hari a kick and knocked him down.
4. Sheela is a pretty girl, worth befriending.
5. Sushma won a prize in school debate.
6. Nikunj is a very promising lad.
7. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.
8. Kamla passed the examination but her cousin failed.
9. Study less or you will lose your health.
10. God helps those who help themselves.

Co-ordinate Conjunctions joining Co-ordinate Clauses:

And, but, not only but also, either-or, neither-nor, or, otherwise, or else therefore, for, as well as, both-and etc.

FOCUS ON SYNTHESIS/ COMBINATION OF SENTENCE

We do not use only Simple Sentence in our day-to-day lives. We usually combine Simple Sentences to form Complex and Compound Sentences.

Forms of Synthesis :

1. To Combine Simple Sentences to make Simple Sentences.
2. To Combine Simple Sentences to form Compound Sentences.
3. To Combine Simple Sentences to form Complex Sentences.

1. Combining Simple Sentences into Simple Sentences

Read the following sentences :

	Simple Sentences	*Combined Simple Sentences*
1.	I do not like that child. He ever weeps.	I do not like that ever-weeping child.
2.	She took bath. She used Lux soap.	She took bath using Lux soap.
3.	She made remarks. Her remarks pinched me.	She made pinching remarks on me.
4.	The young lady cried for help. She pointed to a tree.	Pointing to a tree, the young lady cried for help.
	Here, the Simple Sentences have been Combined into Simple Sentences by using Participles (V_1 + ing form)	
5.	He has come here. He will see you.	He has come here to see you.
6.	I am going to market. I shall buy some paper.	I am going to market to buy some paper.
7.	I shall meet you. I shall discuss this matter with you.	I shall meet you to discuss this matter with you.
8.	She is too weak. She cannot walk.	She is too weak to walk.
9.	My mother was much delighted. She had heard of my brilliant success.	My mother was much delighted to hear of my brilliant success.
	Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Simple Sentences by using Infinitive (to + V_1).	

10. I brushed my teeth. I took my breakfast.	Having brushed my teeth, I took my breakfast.
11. The film was over. The spectators returned to their houses.	The film having been over, the spectators returned to their houses.
12. She finished her work. She rang to her husband.	Having finished her work she rang to her husband.
13. The mob was uncontrollable, the police let off tear-gas.	The mobe having been uncontrollable, the police let off tear-gas.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Simple Sentence by using Participle (Participial) Phrases.

14. Rama was a benign ruler. He treated his subjects as his brothers.	Rama, the benign ruler treated his subjects as his brothers.
15. Gandhi was a typical leader. He believed in the principle of Ahinsa.	Gandhi, a typical leader believed in the principle of Ahinsa.
16. Anuradha is my cousin. She is a famous dancer.	Anuradha, my cousin a famous dancer.
17. Shambhu is my next-door neighbour. He is a pilot.	Shambhu, my next-door neighbour is a pilot.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Simple Sentences by using 'Noun Phrases in Apposition'.

18. She reached Madras safe and sound. She is lucky.	Luckily, she reached Madras safe and sound.
19. He secured distinction marks. He secured it through his diligence. diligence.	He secured distinction marks by dint of his diligence.
20. She was happy. She blessed me a great deal.	Happily she blessed me a great deal.

Here, the Simple sentences have been combined into Simple Sentences by using 'Adverbs' or 'Phrases'.

21. I advised him. He did not serve his aged parents.	He did not serve his aged parents even on my advice.
22. This car must be purchased. There is no question of cost.	This car must be purchased at any cost.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Simple Sentences by using 'Propositions with Nouns'.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Combine the following groups of Simple Sentences into Simple Sentences :

1. She could not stand first. She is unfortunate.
2. We purchased a scooter. We purchased a colour T.V. We purchased a refrigerator.
3. He is a hopeless person. He is a harmful person. He is a dishonest person.
4. He did not attend my birthday party. It was his deliberation.
5. Akbar was a great ruler. He defeated a great number of Afgan chieftains.
6. She refused to listen. She was impudent.
7. Nehru wished to serve India. He joined the Congress.
8. She knows me well. She will lend me her book.
9. He finished his exercise. He put his books and notebooks away.
10. The student saw the Principal. He ran away immediately.
11. The sun had set. We stopped playing.
12. He ran in fear. He had seen a snake in the grass.

2. Combining Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences. Read the Following sentences :

	Simple Sentences	*Compound Sentences*
1.	I can read. I can sing. I can draw a sketch.	I can read, sing and draw a sketch.
2.	She is a writer. She is an orator.	She is a writer as well as an orator.
3.	Mohan is tall than Sohan. Mohan is taller than Sham. Mohan is taller than Harnam.	Mohan is taller than Sohan, Sham and Harnam.
4.	Mohan is smart. Mohan is equally intelligent.	Mohan is both smart and equally intelligent.

5.	Mohan is healthy. Mohan is wealthy	Mohan is not only healthy but wealthy also.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Compound Sentences by using 'Cumulative Conjunctions'.

6.	Run fast. You will miss the first period.	Run fast or you will miss the first period.
7.	Work hard. You will be a laggard in studies.	Work hard otherwise you will be a laggard in studies.
8.	Revise your course. You will get a poor percentage of marks.	Revise Your courses or (or else/ else) you will get a poor percentage of marks.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Compound Sentences by using 'Alternative Conjunctions'.

9.	She burnt midnight oil. She got a low percentage of marks.	She burnt midnight oil but she got a low percentage of marks.
10.	Do what you like. Do not argue with me.	Do what you like, only do not argue with me.
11.	She had to face bitter criticism. She persevered.	She had to face bitter criticism nevertheless she persevered.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Compound Sentences by using 'Adversative Conjunctions'.

12.	She was a woman of loose morals. She was divorced.	She was a woman of loose morals therefore she was divorced.
13.	You must be put behind the bars. You have stolen my scooter.	You must be put behind the bars because you have stolen my scooter.
14.	The days are short . It is November.	The days are short for it is November.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Compound Sentences by using 'Illative Conjunctions'.

15.	She is not tall. She is not dwarfish.	She is not tall and not dwarfish either.
16.	She is not a dancer. She is not *an orator.*	She is not a dancer and not an *orator either.*

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Compound Sentences by using 'Appropriate Words'.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Combine the following groups of simple Sentences into Compound Sentences :

1. Life is an arduous journey. We shall finish it.
2. We lost the match. The team was weak.
3. She is ill. She cannot do any hard labour.
4. We shall reach Agra tomorrow. We shall see the Taj day after tomorrow.
5. His mother tells us. He is a promising lad.
6. She is quite lazy. She is beautiful to look at.
7. He is rich. He is not happy.
8. She is beautiful. She is intelligent.
9. I felt oftened. I suppressed my anger.
10. He has no scooter. He has no car.

3. Combining Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences

Read the following sentences:

	Simple Sentences	*Complex Sentences*
1.	He will fail in the examination. It is certain.	It is certain that he will fail in the examination.
2.	His daughter was doing well at school. He was pleased to learn this.	He was pleased to learn that his daughter was doing well at school.
3.	You must exercise daily. It is essential.	That you must exercise daily is essential.
4.	She should be promoted. This a decision. It is a good one.	That she should be promoted is is a good decision.
5.	We should do something to the refugees. I felt strongly that way.	I felt strongly that we should do something to help the refugees.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Complex Sentences by using 'that' a connective . It combines the sentences pertaining to - 'Noun Clauses'.

6.	We saw the heroine. She had played a nice part in a film.	We saw the heroine who had played a nice part in a film.
7.	I know a lady. She has come to inspect the school.	I know the lady who come to inspect the school.
8.	I know the boy. He has topped the merit list.	I know the boy who has topped the merit list.

9.	Two men were fighting. They were arrested by a policeman.	The two men who were fighting were arrested by a policeman.
10.	He said something. No one understood it.	He said something which no one understood.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Complex Sentences by using '*Who/which*' as connective. *Who/Which* are called 'Relative Pronouns'. They combine the sentences pertaining to 'Adjective Clauses'.

11.	This is the only field. Roses grow here.	This is the only field where roses grow.
12.	I know the time. The train leaves for Delhi then.	I know the time when the train leaves for Delhi.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Complex Sentences by using '*Where/When*' as connectives. *Where/When* are called 'Relative Adverbs'. However, the above sentences combined by them (where/when) are of Adjective Clauses because *where is qualifying field and when is qualifying time.*

13.	You go out in rain. You will get wet.	If you go out in rain will get wet.
14.	She is very clever. She can solve this sum.	She can solve this sum because she is very clever.
15.	She shifted there. Living was safe there.	She shifted where the living was safe.
16.	My sister has gone to Meerut. It is now a dull place.	It is now a dull place since my sister has gone to Meerut.
17.	The prince was enthroned. The king had died.	After the king had died, the prince was enthroned.
18.	She is very pretty. She is a humble girl.	She is very pretty, yet she is a humble girl.
19.	Sharda will definitely stand first. She had revised the course thoroughly.	Sharda will definitely stand first because she had revised the course thoroughly.
20.	The police chased the thief. The thief ran faster.	When the police chased the thief, he ran faster.

Here, the Simple Sentences have been combined into Complex Sentences by using '*if/because/where/ since/after/ yet/when*' as connectives. The sentences combined by the above connectives are of 'Adverb Clauses'.

Remember that, like the adverb, the adverb clause too shows 'Time, place, Reason, Condition, Manner, Contrast/ Concession, Result/Effect, Extent, Purpose and comparison etc.

Compound sentences make 'Co-ordinate Clauses'.

Complex sentences make 'Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses and Adverbial Clauses'.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Combine the following groups of Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences :

1. She had failed. I heard the news. I went to her school.
2. He speaks loudly. I can hear him sitting in my room.
3. My friend was badly wounded. I called the doctor.
4. What am I going to do? I don't know it.
5. I have severe headache. I couldn't do my home work.
6. She is intelligent. She doesn't work hard. She passes.
7. We should do something to help the refugees. I felt strongly that way.
8. She is ill. She does not rest at all.
9. I introduced my parents to Miss Haridas. She is our new P.T. teacher.
10. Why is the teacher happy? Every student know the reason.
11. Mother was not at home. The postman delivered a telegram.
12. Sanjeev was declared first in the contest. It was held yesterday.

PRACTICE EXERCISE FOR REVISION—NO. 1.

Combine the following simple sentences into Simple Sentences :

1. Rajni Switched off the light. She went to bed.

Ans. Switching off the light, Rajni went to bed.

2. This bucket is broken. I cannot hold water.

Ans. This broken bucket cannot hold water.

3. Sushma finished her work. She lay down for rest.

Ans. Having finished her work, Sushma lay down for rest.

4. He opened the drawer. He took out his purse.

Ans. Opening the drawer, he took out his purse.

5. Bimla was standing on the roof. She saw an old woman. She was coming towards her house.

Ans. Standing on the roof, Bimla saw an old woman coming towards her house.

6. He placed his bag on the table. He fell upon the dinner.

Ans. Having placed his bag on the table, he fell upon the dinner.

7. She wants to reach home at once. She wants to see her ailing mother.

Ans. She wants to reach home at once to see her ailing mother.

8. The old woman is very weak. She cannot move about.

Ans. The old woman is too weak to move about.

9. Hari must apologise. He will not escape life-imprisonment.

Ans. Hari must apologise to escape life imprisonment.

10. She is my cousin. Her name is Mohini.

Ans. She is my cousin, Mohini.

PRACTICE EXERCISE FOR REVISION—NO. 2

Combine the following Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences :

1. Gandhi was a leader. Gandhi was a saint.

Ans. Gandhi was both a leader and a saint.

Or

Gandhi was not only a leader but also a saint.

2. Lallu was punished. Lallu was expelled from school.

Ans. Lallu was not only punished but also expelled from school.

Or

Lallu was both punished and expelled from school.

3. The pick-picket was caught. He was handed over to the police.

Ans. The pick-pocket was caught and handed over to the police.

4. Kalawati was stupid. Her daughters were also stupid.

Ans. Kalawati as well as her daughters, was stupid.

5. She was guilty. She was humiliated.

Ans. She was humiliated for she was guilty.

6. She must leave now. It is already dark.

Ans. She must leave now for it is already dark.

7. Hari is mean. Hari is wicked. You must keep at an arm's length.

Ans. Hari is mean and wicked, therefore, you must keep him at an arm's length.

8. Mend you ways. You will ruin yourself.

Ans. Mend your ways or (otherwise) you will ruin yourself.

9. Manorama will come on Sunday. If not, she will come on Friday.

Ans. Manorama will come on Sunday or on Friday.

10. Do not be a prodigal. Do not be a miser.

Ans. Neither a prodigal nor a miser be.

11. I would like to be a teacher. I would not like to be a police inspector.

Ans. I would like to be a teacher, but I would not like to be a police inspector.

12. She loves me. I hate her.

Ans. She loves me still I hate her.

13. She is on sick-bed. She will attend my birthday party.

Ans. She is on sick-bed, nevertheless, she will attend my birthday party.

14. My brother left for Rohtak. He will stay there for a fortnight.

Ans. My brother left for Rohtak, where (and there) he would stay for a fortnight.

PRACTICE EXERCISE FOR REVISION—NO. 3.

Combine the following simple Sentences into Complex Sentences :

(a) By using a Noun Clause :

1. The President was dead. This was a rumour. This rumour was false.

Ans. The rumour that the President was dead was false.

2. Sarup was wise and smart. He had lost his right eye.

Ans. Except that Sarup had lost his right eye, he was wise and smart.

3. Kamal has got first division. Who could have guessed it?

Ans. Who could have guessed that kamal had got first division.

4. She may come or not I am least concerned about it.

Ans. I am least concerned (about) whether she comes or not.

(b) By using an Adjective Clause :

5. Who is the kingpin of the strategy? We must find out.

Ans. We must find out who is the kingpin of the strategy.

6. I know this boy. He has stood first in our class.

Ans. I know this boy who has stood first in our class.

7. I gave the washerman some clothes this morning. Has he ironed them?

Ans. Has the washerman ironed the clothes which I gave him this morning.

8. This medal is phoney. I received it yesterday.

Ans. This medal which I received yesterday is phoney.

9. A taxi will take you to the station. This is the taxi.

Ans. This is the taxi which will take you to the station.

10. The accident took place somewhere. Can you show me the place?

Ans. Can you show me the place where the accident took place.

11. There goes a lady on the road. Her necklace was snatched.

Ans. There goes the lady on the road whose necklace was snatched.

12. You have secured third division. Will you tell me the reason?

Ans. Will you tell me (the reason) why you have secured third division.

(c) By using an Adverb Clause :

13. I reached the school. The teachers were teaching.

Ans. When I reached the school, the teachers were teaching.

14. Gandhi died. He wanted his motherland to live.

Ans. Gandhi died so that his motherland might live.

15. She is very old. She does not use spectacles.

Ans. Although she is very old, she does not use spectacles.

16. The doctor gave me a pill. He wanted me to sleep well.

Ans. The doctor gave me a pill, so that I might sleep well.

17. Mother was not at home. The postman delivered a telegram.

Ans. When the mother was not at home, the postman delivered a telegram.

18. You must take a taxi. You may not catch the train.

Ans. If you do not take a taxi you may not catch the train.

19. She is a painter. She exhibits her paintings annually.

Ans. As she is a painter, she exhibits her paintings annually.

5

English Theories of Communicative Competence: Focus on Achieving Language Proficiency

THEORIES OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

No doubt, the role of input is of critical importance in understanding the what and why of second language acquisition. To this end, we are seeing an increasing number of studies which focus on fine-grained analyses of the nature of foreigner talk, teacher talk and learner talk, as well as on the variables intervening between input and intake.

The data base for the majority of these studies is input to learners of English as a second or foreign language, and input to adults.

The focus of this chapter, and the data base employed, are considerably different. Rather than focusing on a micro-analysis of learner input in specific interactional events, attention will be paid to the input-output relationship at the level of language proficiency *traits,* specifically the traits of grammatical, discourse annnd sociolinguistic competence.

The data come from children whose first language is English, and who are learning French as a second language in the school setting of a French immersion programme.

Compared with ESL learners, these children make infrequent use of the target language outside of the school setting. Thus, the second language input to these students is largely that of native-speaker teacher talk and non-native peer talk, as well as, of course, experience with literacy activities. Within a theoretical framework that incorporates traits and contexts of language use, the structure of the immersion students' output, that is, the structure of their language proficiency can be seen to relate rather directly to the nature of the input received. However, aspects of the immersion students' second language proficiency cannot be totally accounted for on the basis of the input received. This chapter, then, will consider the second language proficiency exhibited by these French immersion students, relating their output at a macro level to their language learning environment. Of the conclusions I will draw, one that I think is fundamental to our understanding of the role of input in second language acquisition, is that although comprehensible input (Krashen 1981, 1982) may be essential to the acquisition of a second language, it is not enough to ensure that the outcome will be native-like performance. In fact, I will argue that while comprehensible input and the concomitant emphasis on interaction in which meaning is negotiated (e.g. Long 1983; Varonis and Gass 1985) is essential, its impact on grammatical development has been overstated.

The role of these interactional exchanges in second language acquisition may have as much to do with 'comprehensible output,' as it has to do with comprehensible input. The data I will be drawing on in this chapter come from one study undertaken within the context of a large-scale research project concerned with the development of bilingual proficiency. The overall aim of the research is to explore the influences of social, educational and individual variables on the processes and outcomes of second language learning. The specific goal of the study I will be discussing here was to determine the extent to which certain components of language proficiency represented in our

theoretical framework as linguistic traits were empirically distinguishable, and were differentially manifested in oral and written tasks. Other studies currently underway as part of the same large-scale research programme will compare the structure of language proficiency of French immersion students with that of other learners who have learned their second language under considerably different conditions. Thus, although of theoretical interest, the research programme has been designed to have direct bearing on language policy issues in schools through the identification of strengths and weaknesses in certain aspects of the students' language proficiency. The basic theoretical framework within which the study was carried out is diagrammed in Figure 1. The framework incorporates as traits several components of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980a) and Canale (1983) — grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic; and incorporates as methods, oral and literacy based tasks. For each cell in the matrix of traits by methods shown in Figure 1, a test and relevant scoring procedures were developed. The details of the tests, scoring procedures and reliability indices are described elsewhere (Allen *et al.* 1982, 1983). Here, I will confine myself to a brief trait-by-trait description of the tests and main features of the scoring procedures utilized. The scoring breakdown has theoretical interest in that it pinpoints which aspects of language competence are being assessed in each test.

FIGURE 1

	Traits		
	Grammar	*Discourse*	*Sociolinguistic*
Oral production	structured interview	film retelling and argumentation	— requests — suggestions — complaints
Multiple choice	45 items	29 items	28 items
Written production	<————	2 Narratives	2 notes
	<————	2 letters ————>	directives

The trait of grammatical competence was operationalized as rules of morphology and syntax, with a major focus on verbs and prepositions. The oral production task consists of a structured interview which embeds thirty-six standardized questions in a conversation. The topics are concrete and familiar, designed to focus the student's attention on communication rather than on the second language code.

The standardized questions are designed to elicit a range of verb forms and prepositions in French, as well as responses that are sufficiently elaborated to score of syntactic accuracy. Grammatical scoring, then, was based on the student's ability to use certain grammatical forms accurately in the context of particular questions. The grammatical multiple choice test consists of forty-five items assessing knowledge of similar aspects of syntax and morphology as were elicited in the interview situation.

In the grammatical written production tasks the student is presented with four situations and asked to write a short text about each. The four topics were designed to bias towards the use of the past and present tenses through two narrations, and future and conditional tenses through two letters of request.

Grammatical errors were tallied for each of four categories: syntactic errors, preposition errors, homophonous verb errors and non-homophonous verb errors. The error counts were translated into accuracy scores by considering them, in the case of syntactic errors, relative to the number of finite verbs produced; in the case of prepositions, relative to the number of obligatory contexts for prepositions; and in the case of verb errors, relative to the number of verb forms produced. Before moving on to a description of the tasks and scoring procedures used in measuring the discourse and sociolinguistic traits, it is useful to examine the results obtained by the grade 6 immersion students who took the grammar tests relative to native speakers of French also in grade 6.

The results reported in this paper are based on a sub-sample of sixty-nine French immersion students who were administered the entire battery of oral production, multiple choice and written production tests. These immersion students have been in a programme in which they were taught entirely in French in kindergarten and grade 1, about 80% in French in grades 2 to 4, about 60% in French in grade 5, and about 50% in French in grade 6 — the year they were tested. The comparison group of native French speakers consists of ten grade 6 students who likewise were administered the entire test battery. The native speakers of French were in a unilingual French school in Montreal. The results for the grammatical oral production, multiple choice and written production tasks are shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3 respectively. The essential point to note in these tables is that with the exception of correct use of homophonous verb forms, the native speakers score significantly higher ($p<.01$) than the immersion students, indicating clearly that, although the immersion students are doing quite well, they have not acquired native-like abilities in the grammatical domain.

The second trait measured, that of discourse competence, was defined as the ability to produce and recognize coherent and cohesive text. The discourse oral production task is designed to elicit narrative and argumentation. The students are shown a short nonverbal film, *The Mole and the Bulldozer,* chosen for its appropriateness to the age group of the students being tested, and for its provocative content which illustrates the conflict between modern technology and the preservation of nature. The day following the film's showing, students are taken individually from class and asked to tell the story of the film. A series of pictures of key events is placed in front of the child to minimize the burden on memory. Following the narration, the student is asked to role-play the mole and try to convince the bulldozers not to change the route of a road, using all the arguments he or she can think of.

TABLE 1

Grammatical Oral Production: Percentage Correct

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
Syntax	81.3	13.1	96.5	6.8	3.60	.01
Prepositions	80.5	12.1	100.0	0.0	—	—
Verbs	57.0	18.1	96.4	5.1	6.79	.01
Total	73.2	8.6	96.9	4.0	8.56	.01

TABLE 2

Grammatical Multiple Choice: Percentage Correct

Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
60.7	*4.41*	*81.3*	*4.40*	*6.20*	*.01*

TABLE 3

Grammatical Written Production: Percentage Correct

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
Syntax	75.5	12.1	93.6	6.9	4.60	.01
Prepositions	78.8	10.5	96.0	6.3	5.01	.01
Non-hom. verbs	85.5	7.2	95.9	4.6	4.49	.01
Hom. verbs	78.5	9.0	79.1	10.3	.20	ns
Total	70.9	8.7	85.0	8.5	4.82	.01

Scoring of the Story-retelling task was based on four categories:

1. setting the scene;
2. identification;

3. logical sequence of events;
4. time orientation.

Under the category of 'setting the scene,' the student's establishment of the idyllic habitat and lifestyle of the mole was assessed. This was important for the coherence of the story as it was this idyllic atmosphere that was at risk throughout. Under the category of 'identification,' the student was rated for the explicitness and clarity with which key characters, objects and locations were introduced into the narrative. Because the student had been given to understand that the interviewer had not seen the movie, it was incumbent on the student to name the characters, objects and locations. Under the category 'logical sequence of events,' a rating was given for the logical coherence with which the events of the story were narrated.

Thus it was important to explain how the mole knew the bulldozers were coming and would endanger his garden, and what the various steps were that the mole took to insure the safety of his property. And finally, under the category of 'time orientation,' a rating was given for the coherent use of verb tenses, temporal conjunctions, adverbials and other elements that clarified the temporal relationship between the events of the story. Each of these categories was rated on a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). The role-playing situation was also rated on a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high) for the extent to which logical arguments were presented to support the mole's case that the road should not be straightened. And finally a global score of 1 (low) to 5 (high) was obtained representing the rates' subjective integration of scene setting, idenfitication, logic, time sequence and argument. The multiple choice test of discourse competence consists of twenty-nine items primarily measuring coherence. Each item is a short passage of two to five sentences. One sentence is omitted from the passage, and the task is to select the appropriate completion from a set of three alternatives.

The criterion for selection is primarily the logical coherence of the passage. Intersentential cohesive devices are explicitly incorporated in some items as a basis for choice. An example is given below:

Le premier voyage en ballon dirigible a eu lieu en France en 1783. ——————————Cependant ca a ete un grand evenement pour les francais.

(a) II n'a dure que 8 minutes.
(b) II avait ete bien planifie.
(c) II etait rempli d'air chaud.

The written discourse production tasks were the same ones used in the grammatical production tasks, two compositions involving narrative discourse and two letters involving suasion. Scoring for discourse involved six categories:

1. basic task fulfilment;
2. identification;
3. time orientation;
4. anaphora;
5. logical connection;
6. punctuation.

The assessment of 'basic task fulfilment' involved rating how well the written work fulfilled the basic semantic requirements of the discourse task. The qualify as narratives, for example, the compositions needed to include a series of events.

To qualify as suasion, the letters had to contain a request with at least one supporting argument. The category of 'identification' was similar to that for the oral production task in which an assessment was made of whether new characters, objects and locations were sufficiently identified, or whether too much prior knowledge on the part of the reader was assumed. The category of 'time orientation' was also similar to that use in the oral production task,

assessing how adequately events or situations were located in time, and, where relevant, whether the temporal relationship between events or situations was clear. Under the category of 'anaphora,' the use of anaphoric reference to already identified characters, objects, or locations through the use of subject pronouns, possessive adjectives and articles was assessed. The category of 'logical connection' assessed the logical relationship between segments of the text: whether there were non-sequiturs, semantically obscure or fragmentary incidents, or logically missing steps in the argument or sequence of events. The final category, that of 'punctuation' was rated as an indication of the information structure of a text.

Ratings were based on the extent to which punctuation clarified the information structure of the text by indicating boundaries of information units. Each of these categories was rated on a five-point scale of 0 (low) to 2 (high). Following the detailed scoring, the raters who had scored the six discourse categories independently assigned a global discourse score by first sorting the written tasks into three categories of below average, average and above average, and then rating them as relatively high or low within each of these three categories. This resulted in a six-point scale. The criteria for assigning a global score were not closely specified: the scorers were simply asked to keep in mind the general criterion of coherent discourse. The discourse results are shown in Tables 4, 5 and 6 for oral production, multiple choice and written production tasks respectively.

On the separate aspects of discourse which were rated, examination of the comparisons between the immersion and native-speaker students reveals only two significant differences: in the case of oral production, native speakers are rated significantly higher than immersion students on time orientation ($p<.01$); and in the case of written production, native speakers are rated significantly lower than immersion students on punctuation ($p<.01$). The non-significant trend revealed by these comparisons, but

indicated in the comparison of total discourse scores is that native speakers generally perform better than the immersion students on the oral story retelling task, but do not differ in their performance on the written production tasks. The only indication to the contrary is that the global

TABLE 4

Discourse Oral Production Ratings on a Scale from 1 (Low) to 5 (High)

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
Scene	3.0	1.16	3.5	.85	1.43	ns
Identification	3.2	1.07	3.9	1.37	1.89	ns
Logic	2.9	1.29	2.9	1.37	.04	ns
Time	3.5	1.18	4.5	.71	2.54	.01
Argument	2.9	1.55	3.4	1.26	1.06	ns
Total	3.1	.79	3.6	.79	2.10	.05
Global	*2.9*	*.88*	*3.6*	*1.04*	*2.16*	*.05*

TABLE 5

Discourse Multiple Choice: Percentage Correct

Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
66.6	*3.78*	*71.0*	*2.84*	*1.03*	*ns*

score for the written production tasks shown in Table 6 reveals a significant difference (p<.05) between the mean scores obtained by the two groups in favour of the native speakers.

TABLE 6

Discourse Written Production: Ratings on a Scale from 0 (Low) to 2 (High)

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
Basic	1.7	.28	1.8	.30	1.61	ns
Identification	1.3	.31	1.2	.25	- .58	ns
Time	1.5	.30	1.4	.38	- .47	ns
Anaphora	1.7	.24	1.6	.33	-.98	ns
Logic	1.5	.30	1.6	.35	1.34	ns
Punctuation	1.6	.41	1.2	.54	- 2.67	.01
Total	1.5	.19	1.5	.24	- .72	ns
Global	*3.3*	*1.04*	*4.1*	*1.42*	*2.22*	*.05*

There would seem to be two possible interpretations for the different results obtained by a comparison of the *total* written discourse scores from those obtained by a comparison of the *global* written discourse scores (Table 6). It may indicate that the raters were able to detect qualitative differences in the written discourse of native speakers and immersion students that were not captured in the detailed component scores, or it may be that the raters did not stay strictly within the bounds of discourse in making their global ratings. For example, if the raters inadvertently attended to grammatical aspects, which, as he been seen, are clearly better in the native-speaking sample, they may have rated the native speakers better for the wrong reason. At this point then, it can be seen that differences between the native and non-native groups depend on the trait being measured. For grammar, the difference is large regardless of method; for discourse, the difference is small regardless of method.

These results suggest that the grammatical trait is distinguishable from the discourse trait. The third trait measured, that of sociolinguistic competence, was defined as the ability to produce and recognize socially appropriate language within a given sociocultural context. The oral production sociolinguistic test consists of presenting a series of twelve situations using slides and audio accompaniment describing the situation. Each situation is a particular combination of one of three functions—request, suggestion or complaint; of one of two levels of formality — high or low; and of one of two settings — in school or out of school. The test begins with the tester explaining to the student being tested how different registers of speech may be used in different situations and illustrates this with an example. The student then watches a set of three slides and listens to the synchronized description. With the showing of the last slide, the student responds in the most appropriate way as if addressing the person shown in the slide. For example, one set of slides shows two children in the school library who are the same age as the student being tested. The student hears a description, in French, that says 'You're in the library to study. But there are two persons at the next table who are speaking loudly, and are bothering you. You decide to ask them to make less noise. What would you say if the two persons were fiends of yours?' To change the level of formality, another set of slides shows two adults in the library, and the final question is 'What would you say if the two persons were adults that you don't know'? The objective of the scoring was to determine the extent to which students could vary their language use appropriately in response to the social demands of the different situations. In other words, the scores were t indicate the student's ability to use linguistic markers of formal register in formal situations and to refrain from using them in informal situations.

Thus, for each situation, a student's response was scored for the presence (= 1) or absence (= 0) of six markers of formal register. The six formal features were:

1. the use of an initial politeness marker such as *pardon* or *madame* in the utterance opening;
2. the use of *vous* as a form of address;
3. the use of question forms with *est-ce que* or inversion;
4. the use of the conditional verb form;
5. the inclusion of formal vocabulary and/or the use of additional explanatory information;
6. the use of concluding politeness markers such as *s'il vous plait.*

A student's score on a particular marker in a particular situation was taken as the difference between use of the marker in the formal variant of the situation and use in the informal variant. A good sociolinguistic score was thus a relatively high difference score, and a poor sociolinguistic score was a relatively low or negative difference score. The multiple choice test of sociolinguistic competence consists of twenty-eight items designed to test the ability of a student to recognize the appropriateness of an utterance with respect to its sociocultural context.

The items describe a specific sociocultural situation and the student is asked to select the best of three possible ways to express a given idea in that situation. The items are designed to include both written and spoken language use in varying degrees o formality, and include the identification of certain written styles such as those use in proverbs, in publications such as journals, encyclopaedias and magazines, and in public notices. Before starting the text, the distinction between oral and written language is drawn to the students' attention, and the students are told that the register of the responses, not their gramaticality, is the important consideration. Each item is scored according to the degree of appropriateness based on native-speaker responses, with values ranging from nought to three points.

Two examples are given below:

1. A l'ecole, dans la cour de recreation, dite par une eleve a son ami

(a) Pourrais-je te voir un instant?

(b) Est-ce que je pourrais te parler quelques minutes?

(c) Je peux te parler une minute?

2. Devant l'hotel de ville, ecrit sur un panneau public

(a) Priere de ne pas passer sur le gazon.

(b) Ne pas passer sur le gazon.

(c) Vous ne devez pas passer sur le gazon.

The sociolinguistic written production tasks focus on two extremes of directive. The students wrote two letters requesting a favour of a higher status, unfamiliar adult. In addition, the students wrote two notes in which they assumed the role of a familiar adult (mother, teacher) imposing authority by means of a brief informal note to get action from the student who is at fault in some way (has left room untidy, homework undone). As with the sociolinguistic oral production tasks, the scoring of the sociolinguistic written production tasks was designed to capture the student's ability to use formal sociolinguistic markers of politeness that were appropriate in the context of the letters, and to abstain from using such markers in the context of the notes. Thus each letter and note were scored for the presence or absence of several formal markers:

1. the use of conditional verb forms;
2. the use of modal verbs, and/or *est-ce que,* inverted and indirect question forms, and/or the use of idiomatic polite expressions (e.g. *ayez l'obligeance de*);
3. the use of *vous* as a form of address;
4. the use of formal closings (e.g. *merci a l'avance, merci de votre collaboration*).

As with the sociolinguistic oral task, a difference score was calculated between the use of each marker in the formal contexts and its use in the informal contexts.

The sociolinguistic scores are shown in Tables 7, 8 and 9 for the oral production, multiple choice and written production tasks respectively. The results suggest that overall, native speakers perform significantly better on the sociolinguistic tasks than the immersion students. Excluding for the moment the use of *vous* as a polite form of address, the only discernibly pattern in the results is that in those categories of sociolinguistic performance where formulaic politeness terms are possible, immersion students tend to perform as well as native speakers, whereas in those categories where grammatical knowledge inevitably plays a role in the production of the appropriate form, immersion students' performance is inferior to that of native speakers.

This is especially obvious in the use of the conditional where immersion students perform relatively poorly on both written and oral tasks. This result is not particularly surprising in light of the grammatical results reviewed earlier. As Tables 1 and 3 immersion students are relatively weak in verb morphology. Here, then, appears to be a good example of the dependence of some aspects of sociolinguistic performance on grammatical knowledge.

TABLE 7

Sociolinguistic Oral Production : Difference Scores, Formal-Informal Use

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*sig of t*
Introduction	.522	.263	.400	.263	-1.37	ns
Vous	.300	.220	.800	.132	6.97	.01
Question	.117	.180	.417	.180	4.96	.01
Conditional	.042	.150	.267	.210	4.22	.01
Other	.102	.167	.517	.183	7.25	.01
Finale	.095	.203	.200	.258	1.49	ns
Total	1.170	.530	2.600	.570	7.94	0.1

The underuse of *vous* as a polite marker in formal contexts by immersion students as indicated in both Tables 7 and 9 can be linked directly to the input the students have received. Teachers address the students as *tu,* and students address each other as *tu.* The use of *vous* in the classroom setting is likely to be reserved for addressing groups of students, thus signalling its use as a plural form, or as a means of signalling annoyance on the part of the teacher.

TABLE 8

Sociolinguistic Multiple Choice: Percentage Correct

Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
35.29	*6.13*	*40.50*	*10.10*	*2.29*	*.05*

TABLE 9

Sociolinguistic Written Production: Difference Scores, Formal-Informal Use

	Immersion students		*Native speakers*		*Comparison*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig of t
Conditional	.195	.335	.700	.350	4.43	.01
MQP	.645	.365	.750	.355	.85	ns
Vous	.230	.350	1.000	.000	—	—
Closing	.405	.455	.650	.410	1.60	ns
Total	1.480	.840	3.100	.667	5.83	.01

There are thus few opportunities in the classroom for the students to observe the use of *vous* as a politeness marker used in differential status situations. The picture which emerges from these results, then, is one of a group of language learners who, although they have in some respects reached a high level of target language proficiency, are still appreciably different in their use of some aspects

of the language from native speakers. This appears to be particularly evident in those aspects of communicative performance which demand the use of grammatical knowledge. These results are consistent with those we have found with grade 9 immersion students using a completely different set of tests (Lapkin, Swain and Cummins 1983).

Krashen (1981) has argued that learners 'acquire structure by understanding messages and not focusing on the form of input, by "going for meaning"' (p. 54). According to Krashen, this comprehensible input 'delivered in a low (affective) filter situation is the only "causative variable" in second language acquisition' (p. 57). Comprehensible input I take to mean language directed to the learner that contains some new element in it but that is nevertheless understood by the learner because of linguistic, paralinguistic or situational cues, or word knowledge back-up. It is different in nature, I think, from what Schachter (1984) has referred to as negative input includes, for example, explicit corrections, confirmation checks and clarification checks.

There is no reason to assume that negative input necessarily includes some new linguistic element in it for the learner. it may, for example, consist of a simple 'What?' in response to a learner utterance. As such it is basically information given to learners telling them to revise their output in some way because their current message has not been understood. The hypothesis that comprehensible input is the *only* causal variable in second language acquisition seems to me to be called into question by the immersion data just presented in that immersion students do receive considerable comprehensible input. Indeed, the immersion students in the study reported on here have been receiving comprehensible input in the target language for almost seven years.

One might question, then, whether the immersion students have in fact, been receiving comprehensible target language input. The evidence that they have, however,

seems compelling. The evidence comes from their performance on tests of subject-matter achievement. For years now, in a number of French immersion programmes across Canada, immersion students have been tested for achievement in such subjects as mathematics, science, history and geography, for which the language of instruction has been French, and their performance has been compared to that of students enrolled in the regular English programme who are taught the same subject-matter content in their first language. In virtually all the comparisons the French immersion students have obtained achievement scores equivalent to those obtained by students in the regular English programme (Swain and Lapkin 1982).

Furthermore, on tests of listening comprehension in French, the immersion students perform as well as native speakers of French by grade 6. This strongly suggests that the immersion students understood what they were being taught, that they focused on meaning. Yet, as we have seen, after seven years of this comprehensible input, the target system has not been fully acquired. This is not to say that the immersion students' input is not limited in some ways. We have already seen that there are few opportunities in the classroom for the students to observe the use of *vous* as a politeness marker in differential status situations. I suspect also that the content of every-day teaching provides little opportunity for the use of some grammatically realized functions of language.

The use of the conditional may be a case in point. But until data are collected pertaining to the language actually used by immersion teachers, nothing further can be said on this point. It is our intention to collect such immersion teacher talk data in the near future. Another way in which the immersion students' input may be limited they do. But as is pointed out below, in the later grades of school, students are likely to hear more teacher talk than peer talk. And our own informal observations indicate that most peer-peer interaction that is not teacher directed is

likely to occur in English rather than in French at this grade level. Given these possible limitations in input, the fact still remains that these immersion students have received comprehensible input in the target language for seven years.

Perhaps what this implies is that the notion of comprehensible input needs refinement. Long (1983), Varonis and Gass (1985), and others have suggested that it is not input *per se* that is important to second language acquisition, but input that occurs in interaction where meaning is negotiated. Under these conditions, linguistic input is simplified and the contributions made by the learner are paraphrased and expanded, thereby making the input more comprehensible. Given then, that comprehensible input is the causal variable in second language acquisition (Krashen 1981), the assumption is that second language acquisition results from these specific interactional, meaning-negotiated conversational turns. If this is the case, then, we may have part of the explanation for the immersion students' less than native-like linguistic performance.

In the context of an immersion class, especially in the later grade levels, and like in any first language classroom where teachers perceive their primary role as one of imparting subject-matter knowledge, the teachers talk and the students listen. As Long (1983) has indicated in the context of language classes, there are relatively few exchanges in classroom discourse motivated by a two-way exchange of information where both participants — teacher and student — enter the exchanges as conversational equals. This is equally true of content classes, and immersion classrooms are no exception. Immersion students, then, have — relative to 'street learners' of the target language — little opportunity to engage in two-way, negotiated meaning exchanges in the classroom. Under these circumstances, the interaction input hypothesis would predict that second language acquisition would be limited. This prediction is consistent with the immersion students'

performance if it is confined to grammatical acquisition. Confining this prediction to grammatical acquisition is compatible with what appears to be an assumption underlying the input interaction hypothesis — that second language acquisition is equivalent to grammatical acquisition. is equivalent to grammatical acquisition.

As has been indicated by the theoretical framework of linguistic proficiency used in this study, however, we consider second language acquisition to be more than grammatical acquisition, and to include at least the acquisition of discourse and sociolinguistic competence as well, in both oral and written modes. From this perspective, the relative paucity of two-way, meaning negotiated exchanges does not appear to have impeded the acquisition of discourse competence. Indeed, it seems likely that the diet of comprehensible, non-interactive, extended discourse received by the immersion students may account — at least in part — for their strong performance in this domain relative to native speakers. In short, what the immersion data suggest is that comprehensible input will contribute differentially to second language acquisition depending on the nature of that input, and the aspect of second language acquisition one is concerned with.

As is already suggested, the interaction input hypothesis is consistent with the prediction that immersion students will be somewhat limited in their grammatical development relative to native speakers because of their relatively limited opportunity to engage in such interaction. Although this provides a theoretically motivated and intuitively appealing explanation, I have several doubts about its adequacy. The doubts relate to two inter-related assumptions:

1. the assumption that it is the exchanges, themselves, in which meaning is negotiated that it is the exchanges, themselves, in which meaning is negotiated that are facilitative to grammatical acquisition as a result of comprehensible input;

2. the assumption that the key facilitator is input, rather than output.

The first assumption, that the exchanges themselves are facilitative to grammatical acquisition, rests on the possibility that a learner can pay attention to meaning and form simultaneously. However, this seems unlikely. It seems much more likely that it is only when the substance of the message is understood that the learner can pay attention to the means of expression — the form of the message being conveyed.

As Cross (1978), examining the role of input in first language acquisition, stated: By matching the child's semantic intentions and ongoing cognitions, (the mother's) speech may free the child to concentrate on the formal aspects of her expressions and thus acquire syntax efficiently.

In other words, it would seem that negotiating measuring—coming to a communicative consensus — is a necessary first step to grammatical acquisition. It paves the way for future exchanges, where, because the message is understood, the learner is free to pay attention to form. Thus comprehensible input is crucial to grammatical acquisition, *not* because the focus is on meaning, *nor* because a two-way exchange is occurring, but because by being understood—by its match with the learner's ongoing intentions and cognitions — it permits the learner to focus on form. But this would appear to be the sort of comprehensible input that immersion students do, in large part, receive. What, then, is missing? I would like to suggest that what is missing is output. Krashen (1981) suggests that the only role of output is that of generating comprehensible input. But I think there are roles for output in second language acquisition that are independent of comprehensible input. A grade 9 immersion student told me about what happens when he uses French. He said, 'I understand everything anyone says to me, and I can hear in my head how I should sound when I talk, but it never

comes out that way.' (Immersion student, personal communication, Nov. 1980). In other words, one function of output is that it provides the opportunity for meaningful use of one's linguistic resources.

Smith (1978b, 1982) has argued that one learns to read by reading, and to write by writing. Similarly, it can be argued that one learns to speak by speaking. And one-to-one conversational exchanges provide an excellent opportunity for this to occur. Even better, though, are those interactions where there has been a communicative breakdown — where the learner has received some negative input — and the learner is pushed to use alternate means to get across his or her message. In order for native-speaker competence to be achieved, however, the meaning of 'negotiating meaning' needs to be extended beyond th usual sense of simply 'getting one's message across.' Simply getting one's message across can and does occur with grammatically deviant forms and socio-linguistically inappropriate language.

Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriate language. Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately. Being 'pushed' in output, it seems to me, it is concept parallel to that of the $i + l$ of comprehensible input. Indeed, one might call this the 'comprehensible output' hypothesis.

There are at least two additional roles in second language acquisition that might be attributed to output other than that of 'contextualized' and 'pushed' language use. One, as Schachter (1984) has suggested, is the opportunity it provides to test out hypotheses — to try out means of expression and see if they work. A second function is that using the language, as opposed to simply comprehending the language, may force the learner to move from semantic processing to

syntactic processing. As Krashen (1982) has suggested: in many cases, we do not utilize syntax in understanding — we often get the message with a combination of vocabulary, or lexical information plus extra-linguistic information.

As such it is possible to comprehend input — to get the message—without a syntactic analysis of that input.[3] This could explain the phenomenon of individuals who can understand a language and yet can only produce limited utterances in it. They have just never got round to a syntactic analysis of the language because there has been no demand on them to produce the language. The claim, then, is that producing the target language may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning. The argument, then, is that immersion students do not demonstrate native-speaker productive competence, *not* because their comprehensible input is limited, but because their comprehensible output is limited. It is limited in two ways.

First, the students and simply not given — especially in later grades — adequate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom context.

Secondly, they are not being 'pushed' in their output. That is to say, the immersion students have developed, in the early grades, strategies for getting their meaning across which are adequate for the situation they find themselves in they are understood by their teachers and peers.

There appear to be little social or cognitive pressure to produce language that reflects more appropriately or precisely their intended meaning: there is no push to be more comprehensible than they already are. That is, there is no push for them to analyse further the grammar of the target language because their current output appears to succeed in conveying their intended message. In other words, although the immersion students do receive comprehensible input, they no longer receive much negative

input. This discussion has so far referred primarily to the acquisition of spoken language. However, much of the experience these immersion students have had with French has been literacy based. The primary task of early education is the development of reading and writing skills, and early immersion education is no different, except that it occur s in the students' second language. The results already presented relate not only to spoken language, but to language which makes use of literacy skills as well. However, performance across tasks within traits are not directly comparable in any way. Thus the results presented so far cannot address the issue of the relationship between spoken and written language. For this, we need to rely on factor analytic analyses. The factor analyses carried out to ate have involved only the total or global scores for each trait by method cell.

Inspection of this table shows that the simplest interpretation of the correlations in terms of the three traits and three methods is not possible. If the only causes of correlations were shared trait and method, tests that shared neither would not correlate, or at least they would not correlate as highly as tests that shared a common trait, a common method, or both. Yet some pairs of tests that share neither trait nor method do correlate more highly, such as grammatical multiple choice and discourse written production (.47).

Several hypotheses concerning the structure underlying the correlations among the nine scores were tested using confirmatory factor analyses (LISREL). One very acceptable solution was found (x^2 = 14.13, df = 21, p = .864) and is shown in Table 10. It is a two factor solution with a general factor and a method factor. The method factor reflects the school experience of the students with the target language — one that highlights written rather than oral language — and is most strongly represented by the written discourse task. It is to be noted that the written discourse, task, as indicated in Table 6, is the one in which native speakers

and immersion students performed most similarly. It also represents the sort of task which all students have had considerable experience with in school. That immersion students do as well as native speakers may reflect, then, their comprehensible output in this domain of language use. These results also indicate that there is no strong relationship between performance on the literacy-based tasks and performance on the oral tasks, except that captured by the global proficiency factor.

TABLE 10

Confirmatory Factor Analysis — LISREL

	Factor 1 General	*Factor 2 written*	*Uniqueness*
GO	.53	—	.72
GM	.49	.55	.47
GW	.68	.39	.38
DO	.30	—	.91
DM	.41	.42	.65
DW	.20	.66	.52
SO	.23	—	.95
SM	.47	.24	.72
SW	*.03*	*.49*	*.76*

$x^2 = 14.13$, df = 21, p = .864.

These results do not show the validity of the three postulated traits. However, it has already been shown that in the wider context of immersion students *plus* native speakers, at least two of the three traits — grammar and discourse — are distinct.[4] The fact that these two traits do not emerge in the factor analysis is probably due largely to the homogeneity of the immersion sample. In the wider sample, the native speakers have had considerably different experiences from the immersion students, but among the immersion students the main experience for all the students is in the same sort of immersion classroom.

There are not major opportunities for some students to acquire certain aspects of language proficiency, and others to acquire different aspects. What is in common for these students is their literacy-based experience as revealed by the structure of their target language proficiency. The fact that no strong relationship is shown between their written and oral performance can be interpreted within the context of the previous discussion: whatever knowledge they have of the language that is literacy-based is only weakly demonstrated in their oral performance because in general, they have had limited opportunity to use and practise their speaking skills in communicative exchanges that require a precise and appropriate reflection of meaning, whereas they have had considerable practice in doing so in written tasks. To summarise and conclude the results of a series of tests administered to grade 6 French immersion students indicate that, in spite of seven years of comprehensible input in the target language, their grammatical performance is not equivalent to that of native speakers.

Immersion students, however, perform similarly to native speakers on those aspects of discourse and sociolinguistic competence which do not rely heavily on grammar for their realization. In addition, results from the immersion data reveal a structure of proficiency reflective of their school-based language learning situation: one which emphasizes written rather than spoken language. The findings are compatible with an explanation of grammatical acquisition resulting in part through conversational exchanges in which meaning is negotiated. It was suggested, however, that these sorts of exchanges, although a prereqisite to acquisition are not themselves the source of acquisition derived from comprehensible input. Rather they are the source of acquisition derived from comprehensible output: output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired.

Comprehensible output, it was argued, is a necessary mechanism of acquisition independent of the role of comprehensible input. its role is, at minimum, to provide opportunities for contextualized, meaningful use, to test out hypotheses about the target language, and to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it. Comprehensible output is, unfortunately, generally missing in typical classroom settings, language classrooms and immersion classrooms being no exceptions.

FOCUS ON ACHIEVING LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

To begin with first, the question of what constitutes 'language proficiency' and the nature of its cross-lingual dimensions is also at the core of many hotly debated issues in the areas of bilingual education and second language pedagogy and testing. Researchers have suggested ways of making second language teaching and testing more 'communicative' (e.g. Canale and Swain 1980a; Oller 1979) on the grounds that a communicative approach better reflects the nature of language proficiency than one which emphasises the aquisition of discrete language skills. Issues such as the effects of bilingual education on achievement, the appropriate age to begin teaching L2, and the consequences of different patterns of bilingual language use in the home on minority students' achievement are all intimately related to the broader issue of how L1 proficiency is related to the development of L2 proficiency. This issue, in turn, clearly cannot be resolved without an adequate conceptualisation of the nature of 'language proficiency'.

Lack of a Theoretical Framework

An example from a Canadian study in which the teacher referral forms and psychological assessments of 428 children from English-as-a-second-language (ESL) backgrounds are analysed (Cummins 1980c) will illustrate the need for

such a framework and also serve to root the theoretical discussion into a concrete context which is replicated every day in our schools. The psychological assessment is a particularly appropriate language encounter to illustrate the invidious consequences of the theoretical confusion which characterises debate about many of the issues outlined above, because in diagnosing the cause of ESL, children's academic difficulties, psychologists often reveal implicit assumptions about issues such as the relationships of oral language performance to reading and other academic skills, the role of language deficits in learning disabilities, the relationship between L2 face-to-face communicative skills and other L2 language and academic skills, the relationships of L1 to L2 development, and the influence of bilingual background experiences on ESL children's academic functioning.

PR (283)

PR was referred for psychological assessment because he was experiencing difficulty in the regular grade 1 work despite the fact that he was repeating grade 1. The principal noted that 'although PR was in Portugal for part (6 months) of the year there is a suspicion of real learning disability. WISC (Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children) testing would be a great help in determining this'. PR's scores on the WISC-R were verbal IQ, 64; performance IQ, 101; full scale IQ, 80. After noting that 'English is his second language but the teacher feels that the problem is more than one of language,' the psychologist continued.

> Psychometric rating, as determined by the WISC-R places PR in the dull normal range of intellectual development. Assessment reveals performance abilities to be normal while verbal abilities fall in the mentally deficient range. It is recommended that PR be referred for resource room placement for next year and if no progress is evident by Christmas, a Learning Centre placement should be considered.

This assessment illustrates will the abuses to which psychological tests can be put. It does not seem at all

unreasonable that a child from a non-English background who has spent six months of the previous year in Portugal should perform very poorly on an English verbal IQ test. Yet, rather than admitting that no conclusion regarding the child's academic potential can be drawn, the psychologist validates the teacher's suspicion' of learning disability by means of a 'scientific' assessment and the use of inappropriate terminology ('dull normal', 'mentally deficient'). An interesting aspect of this assessment is the fact that neither the teacher nor the psychologist makes any reference to difficulties in English as a second language and both considered that the child's English proficiency was adequate to perform the test.

It is clear from this, and many other assessments in the study, that psychologists often assume that because ESL children's L2 face-to-face communicative skills appear adequate, they are therefore no longer handicapped on a verbal IQ test by their ESL background. In other words, it is assumed that the 'language proficiency' required for L2 face-to-face communication is no different from that required for performance on an L2 cognitive/academic task. This assumption leads directly to the conclusion that poor performance on an L2 verbal IQ test is a function of deficient *cognitive* abilities (i.e. learning disability, retardation). The same type of inference based on implicit assumptions about the nature of 'language proficiency' and its relationship to achievement and cognitive skills is common in the context of bilingual education in the United States. Language minority students are frequently transferred from bilingual to English-only classrooms when they have developed superficially fluent English communicative skills. Despite being classified as 'English proficient' many such students may fall progressively further behind grade norms in the development of English academic skills (e.g. see Mazzone 1980). Because these students are relatively fluent in English, it appears that their poor academic performance can no longer be explained by their English language deficiency, and thus cognitive or cultural 'deficiencies' are

likely to be invoked as explanatory factors. Other assessments reveal the assumptions of some psychologists about the influence of bilingual experiences.

For example, in the assessment report of an ESL grade 1 child who obtained a verbal IQ of 94 and a performance IQ of 114, the psychologist noted:

> A discrepancy of 20 points between the verbal and performance IQs would indicate inconsistent development, resulting in his present learning difficulties.... It is quite likely that the two spoken languages have confused the development in this area.

It is clear that educators' emplicit assumptions in regard to the nature of 'language proficiency' are by no means innocuous; on the contrary, they emerge clearly in many educational encounters and militate against the academic progress of both ESL and monolingual English students. It is perhaps not surprising to find questionable assumptions about 'language proficiency' emerging in school contexts since the issues are equally unclear at a theoretical level.

Theoretical Approaches

The practical examples considered above raise the issue of how face-to-face communicative skills (in L1 and/or L2 contexts), 'oral language abilities' (often operationalised by vocabulary tests) and language skills (e.g. reading are related. All clearly involve 'language proficiency', but the precise ways in which language proficiency is involved in these types of performance is anything but clear. Even the question of individual differences in language proficiency is probalematic since certain theorists (e.g. Chomsky 1972; Lenneberg 1967) have characterised language 'competence' as a species-specific ability which is universally acquired by all humans with the exception of severely retarded and autistic children.

Measures of those aspects of 'oral language abilities' which relate strongly to reading skills would thus be regarded as assessing, at best, cognitive skillls (and therefore not

language skills) and, at worst, 'test-taking ability'. It seems clear that some basic distinctions must be made in order to accommodate these very different understandings of the nature of 'language proficiency'.

The need for such distinctions can be illustrated by contrasting the views of Oller (1979; Oller and Perkins 1980) and Labov (1970), who have emphasised very different aspects of language proficiency. After we examine the anomalies to which extreme versions of these theories lead, we will briefly outline four other theoretical positions in which an attempts is made to describe differences between the linguistic demands of the school and those of face-to-face situations outside the school.

Language Proficiency as Intelligence (Oller)

In sharp contrast to theorists such as Hernandez-Chavez, Burt and Dulay (1978), who have attempted to analyse 'language proficiency' into its constituent parts (the Hernandez-Chavez *et al.* model contains sixty-four separate proficiencies), Oller (1979; Oller and Perkins 1980) has reviewed considerable research which suggests that one global factor underlies most aspects of linguistic, academic and intellectual performance. Oller and Perkins (1980) express this view as follows:

> A single factor of global language proficiency seems to account for the lion's share of variance in a wide variety of educational tests including nonverbal *and* verbal IQ measures, achievement batteries, and even personality inventories and affective measures ... the results to date are .. preponderantly in favour of the assumption that language skill pervades every area of the school curriculum even more strongly than was ever thought by curriculum writers or testers.

This global dimension is not regarded by Oller (1981) as the only significant factor in language proficiency, but the amount of additional variance accounted for by other factors is relatively modest.

The strong relationships between language proficiency and academic and cognitive variables exist across all four of the general language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). From a psycholinguistic point of view these relationships are attributed to the fact that 'in the meaningful use of language, some sort of pragmatic expectancy grammar must function in all cases' (1979, p. 25). A pragmatic expectancy grammar is defined by Oller as 'a psychologically real system that sequentially orders linguistic elements in time and in relation to extralinguistic elements in meaningful ways' (1979, p. 34). Several aspects of Oller's theory of language proficiency are consonant with recent theoretical approaches to perceptual processes, reading theory, language pedagogy, and language testing. Neisser's (1967, 1976) conceptualisation of perception (including language perception), for example, emphasises the importance of anticipated information from the environment. The psycholinguistic analysis of reading developed by Goodman (1967) and Smith (1978a) assigns a central role to prediction, defined as the prior elimination of unlikely alternatives, as the basis for comprehending both written and oral language.

This predictive apparatus appears to function in a similar way to Oller's pragmatic expectancy grammar. In fact, Tannen (1979) has reviewed a large variety of theoretical approaches in cognitive psychology, anthropology and linguistics, all of which assign a central role to the power of expectation:

> What unifies all these branches of research is the realization that people approach the world not as naive, blank-slate receptacles who take in stimuli as they exist in some independent and objective way, but rather as experienced and sophisticated veterans of perception who have stored their prior experiences as 'an organized mass', and who see events and objects in the world in relation to each other and in relation to their prior experience.

The pedagogical implications of Oller's theory are very much in line with the current emphasis on 'language across

the curriculum' (e.g. Bullock 1975; Fillion 1979) in which language is seen as playing a central role in all aspects of the learning process in schools. Oller (1979) makes these pedagogical implications explicit for both first and second language curricula by stressing that 'every teacher in every area of the curriculum should be teaching all of the traditionally recognised language skills' (p. 458). The central role assigned to the pragmatic expectancy grammar in using and learning language implies that a 'discrete skills' approach to language teaching (either L1 or L2) is likely to be futile, since the pragmatic expectancy grammar will be involved only in meaningful or 'communicative' uses of language. Again, the emphasis on the necessity for effective language teaching to be 'communicative' has strong empirical support (e.g. Swain 1978a) and is currently widely accepted. Finally, Oller's position that language proficiency cannot meaningfully be broken down into a variety of separate components implies that integrative tests of language proficiency (e.g. cloze, dictation) are more appropriate than discrete-point tests, a view which currently has considerable support among applied linguists.

However, many theorists are unwilling to accept that there are close relationships between 'language proficiency', intelligence, and academic achievement, despite the strong empirical support which Oller has assembled for this position, and the apparent attractiveness of its implications for both assessment and pedagogy. One reason for this opposition is that an approach which emphasises individual differences among native speakers in language proficiency is not especially compatible with the Chomsky/Lenneberg position that all native speakers acquire linguistic 'competence'.

Also, sociolinguists have vehemently rejected any close relationship between 'language proficiency', intelligence, and academic functioning in the context of the debate on the causes of poor educational performance by low SES and minority group children. Shuy (1977, p. 5), for example,

argues that 'rather compelling evidence rejects every claim made by those who attempt to show linguistic correlates of cognitive deficit'. This position is considered in the next section.

Language Proficiency and Educational Failure

Much of the impetus of compensatory education programmes in the 1960s derived from the belief that language proficiency was a crucial component of educational success. The educational difficulties of many lower-class and minority group children were attributed to lack of appropriate verbal stimulation in the home, and the remedy, therefore, was to expose the child to an intensive programme of verbal stimulation prior to the start of formal schooling. Apart from the fact that this approach 'diverts attention from real defects of our educational system to imaginary defects of the child' (Labov 1973, p. 22), its main problem lay in its naive assumptions about the nature of language proficiency and the relationship between language proficiency and educational success. Basically, language proficiency was identified with control over the surface structures of standard English which, in turn, was viewed as a prerequisite to both logical thinking and educational progress.

This is illustrated by Labov with reference to Bereiter's comment that 'the language of culturally deprived children ... is not merely an underdeveloped version of standard English, but is a basically nonlogical mode of expressive behaviour' (Bereiter, Engelmann, Osborn and Reidford 1966). Thus according to Labov (1973), social class and ethnic differences in grammatical form were often equated with differences in the capacity for logical analysis, and then attempts were made to teach children to think logically by requiring them to mimic certain formal speech patterns used by middle-class teachers.

Labov shows clearly that this position confuses logic with surface detail and that the logic of nonstandard forms

of English cannot be distinguished from the logic of standard English. However, he goes on to state a position regarding the relationship between language proficiency and conceptual thinking which is implicitly reflected in the approach of many linguists to the assessment of language proficiency in minority children. Labov (1973, p. 63) claims that:

> Linguists are also in an excellent position to assess Jensen's claim that the middle-class white population is superior to the working-class and Negro populations in the distribution of Level II, or conceptual intelligence. The notion that large numbers of children have no capacity for conceptual thinking would inevitably mean that they speak a primitive language, for, even the simplest linguistic rules we discussed above involve conceptual operations more complex than those used in the experiment Jensen cites.

This implies that the conceptual operations reflected in children's ability to produce and comprehend language in interpersonal communicative situations are not essentially different (apart from being more complex) from those involved in the classification and analogies tasks that typically appear in verbal IQ tests. Labov and many other linguists (e.g. Burt and Dulay 1978; Dieterich *et al.* 1979; Shuy 1977) would claim that the latter tasks are invalid as measures of language proficiency because they assess proficiency outside of a naturally occurring communicative context.

Labov attributes the fact that low SES black children often tend not to manifest their conceptual abilities in academic tasks to the influence of low teacher expectations brought about by teachers' equation of nonstandard dialect with deficient academic ability. Thus, whereas much of the compensatory education effort derived from the assumption that the deficient language proficiency of low SES and minority children reflected, and gave rise to, deficiencies in conceptual abilities, Labov's position, as expressed in the quotation above, is that these children's language is not in any way deficient, and consequently, their conceptual abilities are not in any way deficient.

This is because complex conceptual operations are involved in language comprehension and production. In both instances, therefore, a close relationship is assumed between conceptual abilities and language proficiency, although the respective interpretations of this relationship are clearly very different. Insofar as 'language proficiency' is regarded as closely allied to 'conceptual intelligence', both these positions are similar (at least superficially) to that of Oller.

However, it will be argued that none of these positions provides an adequate theoretical basis for conceptualising the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement. The language deficit view naively equates conceptual intelligence with knowledge of the surface structure of standard English; Labov, on the other hand, places the onus for explaining educational failure on sociolinguistic and sociocultural factors in the school situation, rejecting any direct relationship between language proficiency and failure.

While this position can account for differences in educational achievement *between* SES groups, it does not appear adequate to account for the strong relationships observed between language proficiency measures and achievement *within* SES groups. Oller's (1979) position appears to be subject to the objections of sociolinguists to language deficit theories in that, for Oller, deficient academic achievement is, ipso facto, deficient language proficiency. Most researchers, however, would agree with Labov when he states that despite the low level of academic achievement of black students, their 'language proficiency' is in no way deficient. This apparent incompatibility arises from the fact that Labov and Oller are discussing two very different dimensions under the rubric of 'language proficiency'. The necessity of distinguishing a dimension of language proficiency which is strongly related to cognitive and academic skills (Oller's global language proficiency) from manifestations of language proficiency which are embedded within face-to-face communicative contexts is the common

thread uniting the theories of language proficiency discussed in the next section. The distinctions emphasised by these theorists in educational contexts and parallels in the current anthropological distinction between oral and literate traditions.

Communicative and Analytic Competence

In discussing language as an instrument of thought, Bruner (1975) distinguishes a 'species minimum' of linguistic competence from both communicative and analytic competence. Species minimum competence implies mastery of the basic syntactic structures and semantic categories emphasised in theories of language acquisition such as those deriving from the views of Chomsky (1965) and Fillmore (1968). Bruner suggests that mere *possession* of species minimum competence has relatively little effect on thought processes. It is only when language use moves toward 'context-free elaboration' that it transforms the nature of thought processes. He points out that

> in assessing the elaborated use of language as a tool of thought, it does not suffice to test for the *presence* [emphasis original] in a speech sample of logical, syntactical, or even semantic distinctions, as Labov (1970) has done in order to determine whether non-standard Negro dialect is or is not impoverished. The issue, rather, is how language is being used, what in fact the subject is doing with his language.

In this regard Bruner distinguishes between 'communicative competence' and 'analytic competence'. The former is defined as the ability to make utterances that are appropriate to the context in which they are made and to comprehend utterances in the light of the context in which they are encountered. Analytic competence, on the other hand, involves the prolonged operation of thought processes exclusively on linguistic representations. It is made possible by the possession of communicative competence and is promoted largely through formal schooling. According to Bruner, schools decontextualise knowledge and demand the use of analytic competence as

a feature of the communicative competence of their members. Although Bruner's basic distinction between communicative and analytic aspects of language proficiency is echoed in the theories considered below, there are several shortcomings in his specific formulation of this distinction. First, it identifies analytic competence as a manifestation of a higher cognitive level than communicative competence. As pointed out by Cole and Griffin (1980), this is a dangerous assumption and we should be extremely cautious

> in attributing cultural differences in the ability to think 'theoretically', 'rationally', or in a 'context-free manner'. There is reason to believe that such statements have a basis in fact, but the nature of the facts is not so clear as our metaphors may have seduced us into believing.

The latter point raises a second objection to Bruner's formulation, one that is equally applicable to the other theories considered below, namely, that dichotomies between two *types* of thinking or language proficiency are likely to greatly oversimplify the reality. However, despite these shortcomings, Bruner's notion of analytic competence does highlight some facets of language proficiency which are both promoted at school and also required for academic success.

Utterance and Text

Olson's (1977) distinction between 'utterance' and 'text' attributes the development of 'analytic' modes of thinking specifically to the acquisition of literacy skills in school. The distinction relates to whether meaning is largely extrinsic to language (utterance) or intrinsic to language (text). In interpersonal oral situations the listener has access to a wide range of contextual and paralinguistic information with which to interpret the speaker's intentions, and in this sense the meaning is only partially dependent upon the specific linguistic forms used by the speaker. However, in contrast to utterance, written text

> is an autonomous representation of meaning. Ideally, the printed reader depends on no cues other than linguistic

> cues; it represents no intentions other than those represented in the text; it is addressed to no one in particular; its author is essentially anonymous; and its meaning is precisely that represented by the sentence meaning.

Olson explicitly differentiates the development of the ability to process text from the development of the mother tongue (utterance) in the pre-school years:

> But language development is not simply a matter of progressively elaborating the oral mother tongue as a means of sharing intentions. The developmental hypothesis offered here is that the ability to assign a meaning to the sentence per se independent of its nonlinguistic interpretive context, is achieved only well into the school years.

He points out that the processing of text calls for comprehension and production strategies which are somewhat different from those employed in everyday speech and which may require sustained 'education' for their acquisition. He also suggests that acquisition of text processing skills may have profound implications for cognitive functioning in general:

> The child's growing competence with this somewhat specialised and distinctive register of language may contribute to the similarly specialised and distinctive mode of thought we usually associate with formal education.

Olson's distinction between utterance and text is useful in highlighting important differences between the linguistic demands (and possible consequences) of formal education and those of face-to-face situations outside school.

Embedded and Disembedded Thought and Language

Donaldson (1978) distinguishes between embedded and disembedded cognitive processes from a developmental perspective and is especially concerned with the implications for children's adjustment to formal schooling. She points out that young children's early thought processes and use of language develop within a 'flow of meaningful context' in which the logic of words is subjugated to perception of the speaker's intentions and salient features of the situation.

Thus, children's (and adults') normal productive speech is embedded within a context of fairly immediate goals, intentions, and familiar patterns of events.

However, thinking and language which move beyond the bounds of meaningful interpersonal context make entirely different demands on the individual, in that it is necessary to focus on the linguistic forms themselves for meaning rather than on intentions. Donaldson offers a reinterpretation of Piaget's theory of cognitive development from this perspective and reviews a large body of research which supports the distinction between embedded and disembedded thought and language. Her description of pre-school children's comprehension and production of language in embedded contexts is especially relevant to current practices in assessment of language proficiency in bilingual programmes. She points out that

> the ease with which pre-school children often seem to understand what is said to them is misleading if we take it as an indication of skill with language per se. Certainly they commonly understand us, but surely it is not our words alone that they are understanding — for they may be shown to be relying heavily on cues of other kinds.

She goes on to argue that children's facility in producing language that is meaningful and appropriate in interpersonal contexts can also give a misleading impression of overall language proficiency:

> When you produce language, you are in control, you need only talk about what you choose to talk about ... [The child} is never required, when he is himself producing language, to go counter to his own preferred reading of the situation — to the way in which he himself spontaneously sees it. But this is no longer necessarily true when he becomes the listener. And it is frequently not true when he is the listener in the formal situation of a psychological experiment or indeed when he becomes a learner at school.

The relevance of this observation to the tendency of psychologists and teachers to overestimate the extent to

which ESL students have overcome difficulties with English is obvious.

Conversation and Composition

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1982) have analysed the problems of learning to write as problems of converting a language production system geared to conversation over to a language production system capable of functioning by itself. Their studies suggest that some of the major difficulties involved in this process are the following:

1. learning to continue producing language without the prompting that comes from conversational partners;
2. learning to search one's own memory instead of having memories triggered by what other people say;
3. learning to function as both sender and receiver, the latter function being necessary for revision.
4. planning large units of discourse instead of planning only what will be said next;

Bereiter and Scardamalia argue that the absence of normal conversational supports makes writing a radically different kind of task from conversation:

> We are proposing instead that the oral language production system cannot be carried over intact into written composition, that it must, in some way, be reconstructed to function autonomously instead of interactively.

This emphasis on the increasing autonomy or disembeddedness of literacy activities in comparison with face-to-face communication is a common characteristic of the views of Bruner, Olson, Donaldson, and Bereiter and Scardamalia.

However, it is also important to ask what is the *developmental* nature of the cognitive involvement in these iliteracy tasks. In the context of writing skills acquisition,

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1983) suggest that, developmentally, cognitive involvement can be characterised in terms of progressive automatisation of lower-level skills (e.g. hand-writing, spelling of common words, punctuation, common syntactic forms) which releases increasingly more mental capacity for higher-level planning of large chunks of discourse. This characterisation is similar to Posner's (1973) distinction between effortless and effortful processing. The process of increasing automatisation is also evident in reading skills acquisition where, as fluency is acquired, word recognition skills are first automatised and then totally short-circuited insofar as the proficient reader does not read individual words but engages in a process of sampling from the text to confirm predictions (see, for example, Smith 1978a).

The release of mental capacity for higher-level operations is consistent with research reviewed by Singer (1977) which shows a change between grades 1 and 5 in the amount of common variance between IQ and reading achievement from 16% to 64% (correlations of .40 to .79). This he interprets in terms of the nature of the component skills stressed in reading instruction at different grade levels.

> As reading achievement shifts from predominant emphasis on word recognition to stress on word meaning and comprehension, the mental functions being assessed by intelligence and reading tests have more in common.

In nutshell, several theorists whose primary interest in the developmental relationships between thought and language have argued that it is necessary to distinguish between the processing of language in informal everyday situations and the language processing required in most academic situations. In concrete terms, it is argued that reading a difficult text or writing an essay makes fundamentally different information processing demands on the individual compared with engaging in a casual conversation with a friend. In addition to the different information processing requirements in these two types of

situation, it has been suggested (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1983) that the amount of active cognitive involvement in the language activity may vary as a function of the degree of mastery of its constituent skills.

A Theoretical Framework

On the basis of the preceding discussion several minimal requirements of a theoretical framework for conceptualising the relationships between language proficiency and academic achievement in both monolingual and bilingual contexts can be distinguished: first, such a framework should incorporate a developmental perspective such that those aspects of language proficiency which are mastered early by native speakers and L2 learners can distinguished from those that continue to vary across individuals as development progresses; second, the framework should be capable of allowing differences between the linguistic demands of the school and those of interpersonal contexts outside the school to be described; third, the framework should be capable of allowing the developmental relationships between L1 and L2 proficiency to be described. Current theoretical frameworks of 'communicative competence' (e.g. Canale 1983; Canale and Swain 1980a) do not (and were not intended to) meet these requirements. Canale (1983) for example, distinguishes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies but states that their relationships with each other and with world knowledge and academic achievement is an empirical question yet to be addressed. Although this framework is extremely useful for some purposes, its applicability is limited by its static nondevelopmental nature and by the fact that the relationship between academic performance and the components of communicative competence in L1 and L2 are not considered. For example, both pronunciation and lexical knowledge would be classified under grammatical competence. Yet L1 pronunciation is mastered very early by native speakers, whereas lexical knowledge continues to develop throughout schooling and is strongly related to

academic performance. The framework outlined below is an attempt to conceptualise 'language proficiency' in such a way that the developmental interrelationships between academic performance and language proficiency in both L1 and L2 can be considered. Essentially, the framework tries to integrate an earlier distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive/ academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins 1980a) into a more general theoretical model.

The BICS-CALP distinction is similar to the distinctions proposed by Bruner, Olson, and Donaldson and was intended to make the same point that was made earlier in this chapter, namely, that academic deficits are often created by teachers and psychologists who fail to realize that it takes language minority students considerably longer to attain grade/age-appropriate levels in English academic skills than it does in English face-to-face communicative skills. However, dichotomising 'language proficiency' into two categories oversimplifies the phenomenon and makes it difficult to discuss the developmental relationships between language proficiency and academic achievement. 'Language proficiency' can be conceptualised along two continua. First is a continuum relating to the range of contextual support available for expressing or receiving meaning. The extremes of this continuum are described in terms of 'context-embedded' versus 'context-reduced' communication.[1] They are distinguished by the fact that in context-embedded communication the participants can actively negotiate meaning (e.g. by providing feedback that the message has not been understood) and the language is supported by a wide range of meaningful paralinguistic and situational cues; context-reduced communication, on the other hand, relies primarily (or at the extreme of the continuum, exclusively) on linguistic cues to meaning and may in some cases involve suspending knowledge of the 'real' world in order to interpret (or manipulate) the logic of the communication appropriately.[2]

In general, context-embedded communication derives from interpersonal involvement in a shared reality which obviates the need for explicit linguistic elaboration of the message. Context-reduced communication, on the other hand, derives from the fact that this shared reality cannot be assumed, and thus linguistic messages much be elaborated precisely and explicitly so that the risk of misinterpretation is minimised. It is important to emphasise that this is a continuum and not a dichotomy. Thus, examples of communicative behaviours going from left to right along the continuum might be: engaging in a discussion, writing a letter to a close friend, writing (or reading) an academic article. Clearly, context-embedded communication is more typical of the everyday world outside the classroom, whereas many of the linguistic demands of the classroom reflect communication which is closer to the context-reduced end of the continuum. The vertical continuum is intended to address the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity. Cognitive involvement can be conceptualised in terms of the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession by the individual in order to carry out the activity.

How does this continuum incorporate a developmental perspective? If we return to the four components of communicative competence (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic) discussed by Canale (1983), it is clear that within each one, some subskills are mastered more rapidly than other. In other words, some subskills (e.g. pronunciation and syntax within L1 grammatical competence) reach plateau levels at which there are no longer significant differences in mastery between individuals (at least in context-embedded situations).

Other subskills continue to develop throughout the school years and beyond, depending upon the individual's communicative needs in particular cultural and institutional milieus. Thus, the upper parts of the vertical continuum

consist of communicative tasks and activities in which the linguistic tools have become largely automatised (mastered) and thus require little active cognitive involvement for appropriate performance. At the lower end of the continuum are tasks and activities in which the communicative tools have not become automatised and thus require active cognitive involvement. Persuading another individual that your point of view rather than his or hers is correct or writing an essay on a complex theme are examples of such activities. In these situations, it is necessary to stretch one's linguistic resources (e.g., in Canale and Swain's terms, grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences) to the limit in order to achieve one's communicative goals.

Obviously, cognitive involvement, in the sense of amount of information processing, can be just as intense in context-embedded as in context-reduced activities. As mastery is developed, specific linguistic tasks and skills travel from the bottom toward the top of the vertical continuum. In other words, there tends to be a high level of cognitive involvement in task or activity performance until mastery has been achieved or, alternately, until a plateau level at less than mastery levels has been reached (e.g. L2 pronunciation in many adult immigrants, 'fossilisation' of certain grammatical features among French immersion students). Thus, learning the phonology and syntax of L1, for example, requires considerable cognitive involvement for the two and three-year-old child, and therefore these tasks would be placed in quadrant B (context-embedded, cognitively demanding).

However, as mastery of these skills develops, tasks involving them would move from quadrant B to quadrant A since performance becomes increasingly automatised and cognitively undemanding. In a second language context the same types of developmental progression occurs.[3] Another requirement for a theoretical framework applicable to both monolingual and bilingual contexts is that it permit the

developmental interrelationships between L1 and L2 proficiency to be conceptualised. There is considerable evidence that some aspects of L1 and L2 proficiency are interdependent, i.e. manifestations of a common underlying proficiency (see Cummins 1981b). The evidence reviewed in support of the interdependence hypothesis primarily involved academic or 'context-reduced' language proficiency because the hypothesis was formulated explicitly in relation to the development of bilingual academic skills. However, any language task which is cognitively demanding for a group of individuals is likely to show a moderate degree of interdependence across languages.

In general, significant relationships would be predicted between communicative activities in different languages which make similar contextual and cognitive demands on the individual. In addition to the interdependence which has been shown to exist between L1 and L2 context-reduced, cognitively demanding proficiency, there is evidence that some context-embedded, cognitively undemanding aspects of proficiency are also interdependent across languages.

For example, Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green and Tram (1984) reported that among Japanese immigrant students in Toronto, strong relationships were found between Japanese and English proficiency factors representing aspects of 'interactional style', e.g. amount of detail communicated, richness of vocabulary, and use of cohesive devices. The relationship between these linguistic manifestations of interactional style and academic achievement is likely to be complex (Wells 1981; Wong Fillmore 1980b) and also less direct than the cognitively demanding dimension of language proficiency highlighted in the present framework. The implications for bilingual education of the interdependence between L1 and L2 in context-reduced cognitively demanding aspects of proficiency have been explored by Cummins (1979b, 1981b) while current research on interactional styles in bilingual programmes (Wong Fillmore 1980b) should greatly increase

our understanding of their significance. In conclusion, the theoretical framework differs from the conceptualisations of 'language proficiency' proposed by Oller (1979) and Labov (1973) in that it allows the linguistic demands of academic situations to be distinguished from those of face-to-face situations outside of school contexts. In so doing, the framework incorporates elements of the distinctions discussed by Bruner, Olson, Donaldson, and Bereiter and Scardamalia.

However, the present framework conceptualises the degree of cognitive involvement and the range of contextual support for communicative activities as independent continua, whereas these two continua tend to merge to some extent in the distinctions proposed by other theorists. The dangers of regarding context-reduced communicative activities as more 'cognitively loaded' than context-embedded activities have been pointed out by Cole and Griffin (1980). Cultures (or subcultures) that tend to engage in relatively few context-reduced communicative activities are not necessarily any less cognitively adept, in general terms, than cultures which place a strong emphasis on such activities.

Applications of the Theoretical Framework

In this section potential applications of the framework to several of the issues raised earlier in the chapter will be briefly sketched. These issues concern:

1. language proficiency and intellectual assessment of ESL students';
2. validation of theories of 'communicative competence';
3. language pedagogy;
4. the relationships between language proficiency, socio-economic status (SES), and achievement.

Assessment of ESL Students

The location of any particular language task or activity on the vertical and horizontal continua is a function not

only of inherent task characteristics but also of the level of proficiency of the language user. Thus, tasks that are cognitively undemanding for a native speaker (e.g. using appropriate syntax) may be highly cognitively demanding for an L2 learner. The more context-reduced a particular task (i.e. the fewer nonlinguistic cues to meaning) the longer it will take L2 learners to achieve age-appropriate performance. For example, it has been shown (Cummins 1981c) that although face-to-face L2 communicative skills are largely mastered by immigrant students within about two years of arrival in the host country, it takes between five and seven years, on the average, for students to approach grade norms in L2 academic skills. It should be clear that psychological assessment procedures as well as the regular English curriculum are likely to be considerably more context-reduced and cognitively demanding for most ESL students than they are for native English speakers. Failure to take account of the difference between 'quadrant A' and 'quadrant D'. language skills often leads to invalid interpretations of ESL students' classroom or test performances and to the labelling of students as mentally retarded or learning disabled (Cummins 1980c).

Validation of Constructs of 'Communicative Competence'

The present framework is directed specifically at the relationships between academic achievement and language proficiency and thus its applicability to manifestations of 'communicative competence' in academically unrelated contexts is limited. For example, there may be many language activities which would be grouped into quadrant A in the present framework, insofar as they tend to be context-embedded and cognitively undemanding, which nevertheless show consistent individual differences in performance. For example, ability to 'get the message across', or in Canale and Swain's terms 'strategic competence', may be a reliable dimension of this type. Such linguistic traits may be strongly related to dimensions of personality

or interactional style and show only week relationships to cognitive variables (see Cummins *et al.* 1984; Wong Fillmore 1980b). In other words, there may be several language factors 'deeper than speech' (Oller 1981) but only one which is directly related to academic achievement. It is this dimension which is of major concern to the present chapter, and the proposed framework is not necessarily applicable to other manifestations of 'communicative competence'. However, despite this limitation, there are implications of the present framework for current attempts to validate theories of communicative competence (e.g. Bachman and Palmer 1982). In the first place, the framework could be used as a basis for carrying out a task analysis of language measures with a view to predicting the degree to which different measures relate to cognitive and academic variables for specific groups of individuals.

In this regard, different relationships among tasks would be likely to be predicted in an L1 as compared with an L2 context because tasks located close to the top of the vertical continuum for native speakers may be close to the bottom for L2 learners. Also, skills which are acquired in a context-embedded situation by native speakers may be acquired in a context-reduced situation (e.g. a formal classroom) by L2 learners.

A second implication related to this is that there is likely to be considerable 'method' variance as well as 'trait' variance in language assessment procedures, depending upon their relative location along the horizontal and vertical continua. This is in fact what Bachman and Palmer (1982) found, and it is not surprising given, for example, the obvious differences between a formal test of L1 syntactic knowledge and assessment of L1 syntactic knowledge based on context-embedded communication. A third implication is that validation studies (and theories of communicative competence) should be conceptualised developmentally, since very different relationships might be found between, for example, grammatical and sociolinguistic competence (in

Canale and Swain's 1980a, terms) among beginning L2 learners as compared with advanced L2 learners. Viewed from this perspective, current efforts to validate theories of communicative competence are relatively limited in scope insofar as most studies have been conducted only with adult L2 learners and the relationships among hypothesised components of proficiency have not been conceptualised developmentally.

These concerns are all related to the perspective of the present chapter that the development of 'language proficiency' in an L2 can be understood only in the context of a theory of L1 'language proficiency'. This in turn necessitates consideration of the developmental relationships between language proficiency, cognitive functioning, and academic achievement.

Language Pedagogy

Clearly, a major aim of schooling is to develop students' abilities to manipulate and interpret cognitively demanding context-reduced text. However, there is considerable agreement among theorists (e.g. Smith 1978a) that the more initial reading and writing instruction can be embedded in a meaningful communicative context (i.e. related to the child's previous experience), the more successful it is likely to be. The same principle holds for L2 instruction. The more context-embedded the initial L2 input, the more comprehensible it is likely to be, and paradoxically, the more successful in ultimately developing L2 skills in context-reduced situations. A major reason why language minority students have often failed to develop high levels of L2 academic skills is that their initial instruction has emphasised context-reduced communication insofar as instruction has been through English and unrelated to their prior out-of-school experiences.

SES, Language and Achievement

Wells (1981), in a ten-year longitudinal study, has identified two broad types of communicative activities in

the home which strongly predict the acquisition of reading skills in school. One is the extent to which there is 'negotiation of meaning' (i.e. quality and quantity of communication) between adults and children; the other is the extent to which literacy-related activities are promoted in the home (e.g. reading to children). There is no clear-cut relationship between SES and the former, but a strong relationship between SES and the latter. These results have two clear implications in terms of the present framework. First, the strong relationship observed between both literacy activities and negotiation of meaning in the home and the later acquisition of reading in school supports the principle proposed above that context-reduced communicative proficiency can be most successfully developed on the basis of prior context-embedded communication; or, to put it another way, the more opportunity the child has to process comprehensible linguistic input (Krashen 1980) and negotiate meaning, the greater the range of input which will become comprehensible.

The second implication of Wells' findings is that many low SES students experience initial difficulties in school in comparison with middle-class students because they come to school less prepared to handle context-reduced academic tasks as a result of less exposure to literacy-related activities prior to school. Clearly, schools have often contributed to students' academic difficulties by failing to ensure that initial literacy instruction is sufficiently context-embedded and culturally appropriate to students' backgrounds. If we return to the controversial question of the extent to which 'language proficiency' is implicated in the relatively poor academic performance of low SES children, the answer will clearly depend upon how the construct of 'language proficiency' is conceptualised. As mentioned earlier, Labov and most sociolinguists would probably deny any involvement of 'language proficiency', whereas Oller's (1979) conceptualisation of 'language proficiency' would seem to imply an affirmative answer.

Within the context of the present framework, Wells' results suggest that there are SES differences in students' knowledge about and interest in literacy on entry to school, such that differential performance is found on context-reduced language tasks. These differences are, of course, not surprising given the differential exposure to literacy activities in the home. However, these initial performance differences become *deficits* in academic achievement (and in context-reduced language proficiency) only when they are reinforced by inappropriate forms of educational treatment (see Cummins 1979b).

Given appropriate instruction, there is no long-term linguistic or cognitive impediment to the academic achievement of low SES students. In conclusion, the present framework is intended to facilitate discussion of a variety of issues related to the development of language proficiency in educational contexts. The context-embedded/context-reduced and cognitively undemanding/cognitively demanding continua highlighted in the present framework are clearly not the only dimensions that would require consideration in a theoretical framework designed to incorporate all aspects of language proficiency or communicative competence. However, it is suggested that these dimensions are directly relevant to the relationships between language proficiency and educational achievement. The extent to which other dimensions, not emphasised in the present framework, are also relevant is an empirical and theoretical issue which we hope will be addressed in future research.

Glossary

Accent: the features of pronunciation which indicate the regional or the social identity of a speaker

Acquisition: the process by which language skills are developed – particularly in infancy

Adjectives: a word which modifies a noun or a pronoun

Adverbs: a word which modifies a verb, an adverb, or an adjective

Agreement: the grammatical logic and coherence between parts of a sentence

Alliteration: the repetition of consonant sounds – usually at the beginning of words

Apostrophes: a raised comma used to denote either possession or contraction

Articles: a word that specifies whether a noun is definite or indefinite

Assonance: the repetition of vowel sounds

Audience: the person or persons receiving a speech or piece of writing

Capitals: Upper-case letters used to indicate names, titles, and important words

Clauses: a structural unit of language which is smaller than the sentence but larger than phrases or words, and which contains a finite verb

Colons: a punctuation mark indicating a pause ranking between a semicolon and a full stop

Commas: a punctuation mark indicating a short pause in a sentence

Conjunction: a word which connects words or other constructions

Consonant: an alphabetic element other than a vowel

Context: the setting in which speech or writing takes place

Dialect: a form of speech peculiar to a district, class, or person

Diglossia: the existence of two official languages in a society

Diphthong: two vowel characters representing the sound of a single vowel

Ellipsis: the omission of words from a sentence

Figure of speech: expressive use language in non-literal form to produce striking effect

Form: the outward appearance or structure of language, as opposed to its function, meaning, or social use

Full stop: a punctuation mark indicating the end of a sentence

Function: the role language plays to express ideas or attitudes

Grammar: the study of sentence structure, especially with reference to syntax and semantics

Grapheme: the smallest unit in the writing system of a language

Graphology: the study of writing systems

Homonyms: words with the same spelling but with different meanings

Hyphen: a short horizontal mark used to connect words or syllables, or to divide words into parts

Idiom: a sequence of words which forms a whole unit of meaning

Irony: saying [or writing] one thing, whilst meaning the opposite

Intonation: the use of pitch in speech to create contrast and variation

Jargon: the technical language of an occupation or group

Language change: the development and changes in a language

Lexis: the vocabulary of a language, especially in dictionary form

Metaphor: a figure of speech in which one thing is described in terms of another

Metonymy: a figure of speech in which an attribute is substituted for the whole

Morpheme: the smallest unit of meaning in grammar

Morphology: a branch of grammar which studies the structure of words

Narrator: the person (named or unknown) who is telling a story

Noun: a word which names an object

Onomatopoeia: a word that sounds like the thing it describes

Oxymoron: a figure of speech which yokes two contradictory terms

Paradox: a figure of speech in which an apparent contradiction contains a truth

Paragraph: a distinct passage of writing which is unified by an idea or a topic

Parenthesis: a word, clause or even sentence which is inserted into a sentence to which it does not grammatically belong

Participle: a word derived from a verb and used as an adjective or a noun

Phonetics: the study of the production, transmission, and reception of speech sounds

Phonology: a study of the sounds in any language

Phrase: a group of words, smaller than a clause, which forms a grammatical unit

Point of view: a term from literary studies which describes the perspective or source of a piece of writing

Preposition: a word which governs and typically precedes a noun or a pronoun

Pronoun: a word that can substitute for a noun or a noun phrase

Punctuation: a system of marks used to introduce pauses and interruption into writing

Received pronunciation: the regionally neutral, prestige accent of British English

Semantics: the study of linguistic meaning

Semicolon: a punctuation mark which indicates a pause longer than a comma, but shorter than a colon

Sentence: a set of words which form a grammatically complete statement, usually containing a subject, verb, and object

Simile: a figure of speech in which one thing is directly likened to another

Slang: informal, non-standard vocabulary

Style: aspects of writing (or speech) which have an identifiable character generally used in a positive sense to indicate 'pleasing effects'

Stylistic analysis: the study of stylistic effects in writing

Symbol: an object which represents something other than its self

Synonym: a word which means (almost) the same as another

Syntax: the arrangement of words to show relationships of meaning within a sentence

Tense: the form taken by a verb to indicate time (as in past-present-future)

Text: any piece of writing or object being studied

Tone: an author's or speaker's attitude, as revealed in 'quality of voice' or 'selection of language'

Verb: a term expressing an action or a state of being

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Index

Q

R

S

T

V

W

Z

English Language and English Grammar

Contents

Preface

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from Englaland and their language was called Englisc - from which the words England and English are derived. The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots.

In some countries where English is not the most spoken language, it is an official language; these countries include Botswana, Cameroon, the Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji,Gambia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malta, the Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines(Philippine English), Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, the Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, the Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

English grammar is the body of rules describing the properties of the English language. A language is such

that its elements must be combined according to certain patterns. This article is concerned with (and restricted to) morphology, the building blocks of language; and syntax, the construction of meaningful phrases, clauses and sentences with the use of morphemes and words. The grammar of any language is commonly approached in two different ways: descriptive, usually based on a systematic analysis of a large text corpus and describing grammatical structures thereupon; and prescriptive, which attempts to use the identified rules of a given language as a tool to govern the linguistic behaviour of speakers. Prescriptive grammar further concerns itself with several open disputes in English grammar, often representing changes in usage over time. This article predominantly concerns itself with descriptive grammar. There are historical, social and regional variations of English. For example, British English and American English have several lexical differences; however, the grammatical differences are not equally conspicuous, and will be mentioned only when appropriate. Further, the many dialects of English have divergences from the grammar described here; they are only cursorily mentioned.

This publication titled, "English Language and English Grammar" provides readers with an introductory understanding of English language and English grammar. Focus lies on English compounds, honorifics, personal pronouns, plurals and relative clauses. Special focus is laid on English verbs, tenses and sequence of tenses. The subject area of English sentence is dealt with focus on classification and synthesis or combination. English theories of communicative competence are discussed with focus on achieving language proficiency. The book is reader friendly as it is supported with glossary, annolated bibliography and index.

—Editor

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