EIILM UNIVERSITY
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# GRAMMER & CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH USAGES

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# CONTENTS

# CHAPTER 1

## Introduction to English grammar

English grammar is the body of rules that describe the structure of expressions in the English language. This includes the structure of words, phrases, clauses and sentences.

There are historical, social, and regional variations of English. Divergences from the grammardescribed here occur in some dialects of English. This article describes a generalized present-dayStandard English, the form of speech found in types of public discourse including broadcasting,education, entertainment, government, and news reporting, including both formal and informal speech. There are certain differences in grammar between the standard forms of British English, American English and Australian English, although these are inconspicuous compared with the lexical andpronunciation differences.

## Word classes and phrases

There are eight word classes, or parts of speech, that are distinguished in English: nouns, determiners, pronouns, verbs, adjectives,adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. (Determiners, traditionally classified along with adjectives, have not always been regarded as a separate part of speech.) Interjections are another word class, but these are not described here as they do not form part of theclause and sentence structure of the language. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs form open classes – word classes that readily accept new members, such as the nouncelebutante (a celebrity who frequents the fashion circles), similar relatively new words. The others are regarded as closed classes. For example, it is rare for a new pronoun to be admitted to the language.

English words are not generally marked for word class. It is not usually possible to tell from the form of a word which class it belongs to except, to some extent, in the case of words with inflectional endings or derivational suffixes. On the other hand, some words belong to more than one word class. For example run can serve as either a verb or a noun (these are regarded as two differentlexemes). Lexemes may be inflected to express different grammatical categories. The lexeme run has the forms runs, ran, andrunning. Words in one class can sometimes be derived from those in another. This has the potential to give rise to new words. The noun aerobics has recently given rise to the adjective aerobicized. Words combine to form phrases. A phrase

typically serves the same function as a word from some particular word class For example, my very good friend Peter is a phrase that can be used in a sentence as if it were a noun, and is therefore called a noun phrase. Similarly, adjective phrases and adverb phrases function as if they were adjectives or adverbs, but with other types of phrases the terminology has different implications. For example, a verb phrase consists of a verb together with any objects and other dependents; a prepositional phrase consists of a preposition together with its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverb phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase containing a determiner.

**Nouns**

Nouns form the largest English word class. There are many common suffixes used to form nouns from other nouns or from other types of words, such as -age (as in shrinkage), -hood (as in sisterhood), and so on, although many nouns are base forms not containing any such suffix (such as cat, grass, France). Nouns are also often created by conversion of verbs or adjectives, as with the words talk and reading (a boring talk, the assigned reading).

Unlike in many related languages, English nouns do not have grammatical gender (although many nouns refer specifically to male or female persons or animals, like mother, father, bull, tigress; see Gender in English). Nouns are sometimes classified semantically (by their meanings) as proper nouns and common nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns(book, laptop vs. heat, prejudice). A grammatical distinction is often made between count (countable) nouns such as clock andcity, and non-count (uncountable) nouns such as milk and decor.[4] Some nouns can function to be either countable or uncountable such the word "wine" (This is a good wine, I prefer red wine).

Countable nouns generally have singular and plural forms. In most cases the plural is formed from the singular by adding -[e]s (as in dogs, bushes), although there are also irregular forms (woman/women, medium/media, etc.), including cases where the two forms are identical (sheep, series). For more details, see English plural.

Certain nouns can take plural verbs even though they are singular in form, as in The government were ... (where the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government). This, a form of synesis, is more common in British than American English. See English plural: Singulars with collective meaning treated as plural.

English nouns are not marked for case as they are in some languages, but they have possessive forms, formed by the addition of -'s(as in John's, children's), or just an apostrophe (with no change in pronunciation) in the case of -[e]s plurals and sometimes other words ending with -s (the dogs' owners, Jesus' love). More generally, the ending can be applied to noun phrases (as in the man you saw yesterday's sister); see below. The possessive form can be used either as a determiner (John's cat) or as a noun phrase (John's is the one next to Jane's). For details, see English possessive.

**Noun phrases**

Noun phrases are phrases that function grammatically as nouns within sentences, for example as the subject or object of a verb. Most noun phrases have a noun as their head.[4]

An English noun phrase typically takes the following form (not all elements need be present):

DETERMINER + PRE-MODIFIERS + NOUN + POSTMODIFIERS/COMPLEMENT

In this structure:

- the determiner may be an article (the, a[n]) or other equivalent word, as described in the following section. In many contexts it is required for a noun phrase to include some determiner.
- pre-modifiers include adjectives and some adjective phrases (such as red, really lovely), and noun adjuncts (such as college in the phrase the college student). Adjectival modifiers usually come before noun adjuncts.
- a complement or postmodifier[4] may be a prepositional phrase (... of London), a relative clause (like ...which we saw yesterday), certain adjective or participial phrases (... sitting on the beach), or a dependent clause or infinitive phrase appropriate to the noun (like ... that the world is round after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as desire).

An example of a noun phrase that includes all of the above-mentioned elements is that rather attractive young college student to whom you were talking. Here that is the determiner, rather attractive and young are adjectival pre-modifiers, college is a noun adjunct,student is the noun serving as the head of the phrase, and to whom you were talking is a post-modifier (a relative clause in this case). Notice the order of the pre-modifiers; the determiner that must come first and the noun adjunct college must come after the adjectival modifiers.

Coordinating conjunctions such as and, or, and but can be used at various levels in noun phrases, as in John, Paul, and Mary; the matching green coat and hat; a dangerous but exciting ride; a person sitting down or standing up. See Conjunctions below for more explanation.

Noun phrases can also be placed in apposition (where two consecutive phrases refer to the same thing), as in that president, Abraham Lincoln, ... (where that president and Abraham Lincoln are in apposition). In some contexts the same can be expressed by a prepositional phrase, as in the twin curses of famine and pestilence (meaning "the twin curses" that are "famine and pestilence").

Particular forms of noun phrases include:

- phrases formed by the determiner the with an adjective, as in the homeless, the English (these are plural phrases referring to homeless people or English people in general);
- phrases with a pronoun rather than a noun as the head (see below);
- phrases consisting just of a possessive;
- infinitive and gerund phrases, in certain positions;
- certain clauses, such as that clauses and relative clauses like what he said, in certain positions.

**Determiners**

English determiners constitute a relatively small class of words. They include the articles the, a[n] (and in some contexts some), certain demonstrative and interrogative words such as this, that, and which, possessives such as my and whose (the role of determiner can also be played by noun possessive forms such as John's and the girl's), various quantifying words like all, many,various, and numerals (one, two, etc.). There are also many phrases (such as a couple of) that can play the role of determiners.

Determiners are used in the formation of noun phrases (see above). Many words that serve as determiners can also be used as pronouns (this, that, many, etc.)

Determiners can be used in certain combinations, such as all the water and the many problems.

In many contexts, it is required for a noun phrase to be completed with an article or some other determiner. It is not grammatical to say just cat sat on table; one must say my cat sat on the table. The most common situations in which a complete noun phrase can be formed without a determiner are when it refers generally to a whole class or concept (as in dogs are dangerous and beauty is subjective) and when it is a name (Jane, Spain, etc.) This is discussed in more detail at English articles and Zero article in English.

**Pronouns**

Pronouns are a relatively small, closed class of words that function in the place of nouns or noun phrases. They include personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and some others, mainly indefinite pronouns.

Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns of modern standard English, and the corresponding possessive forms, are as follows:

Nominative

Oblique

Reflexive

Possessive determiner

Possessive pronoun

1st pers. sing. I me myself my mine

2nd pers. sing./pl.you youyourself/yourselves your yours

3rd pers. sing. she, he, it her, him, it herself, himself, itself her, his, its hers, his, (rare: its)

1st pers. pl. we us ourselves ourours

3rd pers. pl. they themthemselves their theirs

The second-person forms such as you are used with both singular and plural reference. In the Southern United States, y'all (you all) is used as a plural form, and various other phrases such as you guys are used in other places. An archaic set of pronouns used for singular reference is thou, thee, thyself, thy, thine, which are still used in religious services and can be seen in older works, such as Shakespeare's - in such texts, the word you is used as a plural form. You can also be used as an indefinite pronoun, referring to a person in general (see generic you) compared to the more formal alternative, one (reflexive oneself, possessive one's).

The third-person singular forms are differentiated according to the sex of the referent. For example, she can be used to refer to a female person, sometimes a female animal, and sometimes an object to which female characteristics are attributed, such as a ship or a country. A male person, and sometimes a male animal, is referred to using he. In other cases it can be used. (See Gender in English.) The word it can also be used as a dummy subject, in sentences like It is going to be sunny this afternoon.

The third-person plural forms such as they are sometimes used with singular reference, as a gender-neutral pronoun, as in each employee should ensure they tidy their desk. Despite its long history, this usage is sometimes considered ungrammatical. (Seesingular they.)

The possessive determiners such as my are used as determiners together with nouns, as in my old man, some of his friends. The second possessive forms like mine are used when they do not qualify a noun: as pronouns, as in mine is bigger than yours, and as predicates, as in this one is mine. Note also the construction a friend of mine (meaning "someone who is my friend"). See English possessive for more details.

Demonstrative and interrogative pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns of English are this (plural these), and that (plural those), as in these are good, I like that. Note that all four words can also be used as determiners (followed by a noun), as in those cars. They can also then form the alternative pronominal expressions this/that one, these/those ones.

The interrogative pronouns are who, what, and which (all of them can take the suffix -ever for emphasis). The pronoun who refers to a person or people; it has an oblique form whom (though in informal contexts this is usually replaced by who), and a possessive form (pronoun or determiner) whose. The pronoun what refers to things or abstracts. The word which is used to ask about alternatives from what is seen as a closed set: which (of the books) do you like best? (It can also be an interrogative determiner: which book?; this can form the alternative pronominal expressions which one and which ones.) Which, who, and what can be either singular or plural, although who and what often take a singular verb regardless of any supposed number. For more information see who.

All the interrogative pronouns can also be used as relative pronouns; see below for more details.

**Relative pronouns**

Main article: English relative clauses. For "who/whom" and related forms, see also Who (pronoun).

The main relative pronouns in English are who (with its derived forms whom and whose), which, and that.

The relative pronoun which refers to things rather than persons, as in the shirt, which used to be red, is faded. For persons, who is used (the man who saw me was tall). The oblique case form of who is whom, as in the man whom I saw was tall, although in informal registers who is commonly used in place of whom.

The possessive form of who is whose (the man whose car is missing ...); however the use of whose is not restricted to persons (one can say an idea whose time has come).

The word that as a relative pronoun is normally found only in restrictive relative clauses (unlike which and who, which can be used in both restrictive and unrestrictive clauses). It can refer to either persons or things, and cannot follow a preposition. For example, one can say the song that [or which] I listened to yesterday, but the song to which [not to that] I listened yesterday. The relative pronounthat is usually pronounced with a reduced vowel (schwa), and hence differently from the demonstrative that (see Weak and strong forms in English). If that is not the subject of the relative clause, it can be omitted (the song I listened to yesterday).

The word what can be used to form a free relative clause – one that has no antecedent and that serves as a complete noun phrase in itself, as in I like what he likes. The words whatever and whichever can be used similarly, in the role of either pronouns (whatever he likes) or determiners

(whatever book he likes). When referring to persons, who(ever) (and whom(ever)) can be used in a similar way (but not as determiners).

There as pronoun

The word there is used as a pronoun in some sentences, playing the role of a dummy subject, normally of an intransitive verb. The "logical subject" of the verb then appears as a complement after the verb.

This use of there occurs most commonly with forms of the verb be in existential clauses, to refer to the presence or existence of something. For example: There is a heaven; There are two cups on the table; There have been a lot of problems lately. It can also be used with other verbs: There exist two major variants; There occurred a very strange incident.

The dummy subject takes the number (singular or plural) of the logical subject (complement), hence it takes a plural verb if the complement is plural. In colloquial English, however, the contraction there's is often used where there are would be expected.

The dummy subject can undergo inversion, Is there a test today? and Never has there been a man such as this. It can also appear without a corresponding logical subject, in short sentences and question tags: There wasn't a discussion, was there? There was.

The word there in such sentences has sometimes been analyzed as an adverb, or as a dummy predicate, rather than as a pronoun. However, its identification as a pronoun is most consistent with its behavior in inverted sentences and question tags as described above.

Because the word there can also be a deictic adverb (meaning "at/to that place"), a sentence like There is a river could have either of two meanings: "a river exists" (with there as a pronoun), and "a river is in that place" (with there as an adverb). In speech, the adverbial there would be given stress, while the pronoun would not – in fact the pronoun is often pronounced as a weak form, /ðə(r)/.

**Other pronouns**

Other pronouns in English are often identical in form to determiners (especially quantifiers), such as many, a little, etc. Sometimes the pronoun form is different, as with none (corresponding to the determiner no), nothing, everyone, somebody, etc. Many examples are listed at Indefinite pronoun. Another indefinite (or impersonal) pronoun is one (with its reflexive form oneself and possessiveone's), which is a more formal alternative to generic you.

**Verbs**

Verbs form the second largest word class after nouns. The basic form of an English verb is not generally marked by any ending, although there are certain suffixes that are frequently used to form verbs, such as -ate (formulate), -fy (electrify), and -ise/ize(realise/realize). Many verbs also

contain prefixes, such un- (unmask), out- (outlast), over- (overtake), and under- (undervalue). Verbs can also be formed from nouns and adjectives by conversion, as with the verbs snare, nose, dry, and calm.

Most verbs have three or four inflected forms: a third-person singular present tense form in -(e)s (writes, botches), a present participleand gerund form in -ing (writing), a past tense (wrote), and – though often identical to the past tense form – a past participle (written). Regular verbs have identical past tense and past participle forms in -ed, but there are 100 or so irregular English verbs with different forms (see list). The verbs have, do and say also have irregular third-person present tense forms (has, does /dʌz/, says /sɛz/). The verb be has the largest number of irregular forms (am, is, are in the present tense, was, were in the past tense, been for the past participle).

Most of what are often referred to as verb tenses (or sometimes aspects) in English are formed using auxiliary verbs. Apart from what are called the simple present (write, writes) and simple past (wrote), there are also continuous (progressive) forms (am/is/are/was/were writing), perfect forms (have/has/had written, and the perfect continuous have/has/had been writing), future forms (will write, will be writing, will have written, will have been writing), and conditionals (also called "future in the past") with would in place of will. The auxiliaries shall and should sometimes replace will and would in the first person. For the uses of these various verb forms, see English verbs and English clause syntax.

The infinitive is the basic form of the verb (be, write, play), although there is also a "to-infinitive" (to be, to write, to play) used in many syntactical constructions. There are also infinitives corresponding to other aspects: (to) have written, (to) be writing, (to) have been writing. The second-person imperative is identical to the (basic) infinitive; other imperative forms may be made with let (let us go, orlet's go; let them eat cake).

A form identical to the infinitive can be used as a present subjunctive in certain contexts: It is important that he follow them or... that he be committed to the cause. There is also a past subjunctive (distinct from the simple past only in the possible use of wereinstead of was), used in some conditional sentences and similar: if I were (or was) rich ...; were he to arrive now ...; I wish she were(or was) here. For details see English subjunctive.

The passive voice is formed using the verb is (in the appropriate tense or form) with the past participle of the verb in question: cars are driven, he was killed, I am being tickled, it is nice to be pampered, etc. The performer of the action may be introduced in a prepositional phrase with by (as in they were killed by the invaders).

The English modal verbs consist of the core modals can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would, as well as ought (to),had better, and in some uses dare and need These do not inflect for person or number,[8] and do not have infinitive or participle forms (except synonyms, as with be/being/been able (to) for the modals can/could). The modals are used with the basic infinitive

form of a verb (I can swim, he may be killed, we dare not move, need they go?), except for ought, which takes to (you ought to go).

The copula be, along with the modal verbs and the other auxiliaries, form a distinct class, sometimes called "special verbs" or simply "auxiliaries".[9] These have different syntax from ordinary lexical verbs, especially in that they make their interrogative forms by plaininversion with the subject, and their negative forms by adding not after the verb (could I ...? I could not ...). Apart from those already mentioned, this class may also include used to (although the forms did he use to? and he didn't use to are also found), and sometimes have even when not an auxiliary (forms like have you a sister? and he hadn't a clue are possible, though becoming less common). It also includes the auxiliary do (does, did); this is used with the basic infinitive of other verbs (those not belonging to the "special verbs" class) to make their question and negation forms, as well as emphatic forms (do I like you?; he doesn't speak English; we did close the fridge). For more details of this, see do-support.

Some forms of the copula and auxiliaries often appear as contractions, as in I'm for I am, you'd for you would or you had, and John'sfor John is. Their negated forms with following not are also often contracted (see Negation below). For detail see English auxiliaries and contractions.

**Verb phrases**

A verb together with its dependents, excluding its subject, may be identified as a verb phrase (although this concept is not acknowledged in all theories of grammar[10]). A verb phrase headed by a finite verb may also be called a predicate. The dependents may be objects, complements, and modifiers (adverbs or adverbial phrases). In English, objects and complements nearly always come after the verb; a direct object precedes other complements such as prepositional phrases, but if there is an indirect object as well, expressed without a preposition, then that precedes the direct object: give me the book, but give the book to me. Adverbial modifiers generally follow objects, although other positions are possible (see under Adverbs below). Certain verb–modifier combinations, particularly when they have independent meaning (such as take on and get up), are known as "phrasal verbs".

For details of possible patterns, see English clause syntax. See the Non-finite clauses section of that article for verb phrases headed by non-finite verb forms, such as infinitives and participles.

Adjectives

English adjectives, as with other word classes, cannot in general be identified as such by their form,[11] although many of them are formed from nouns or other words by the addition of a suffix, such as -al (habitual), -ful (blissful), -ic (atomic), -ish (impish, youngish),-ous (hazardous), etc.; or from other adjectives using a prefix: disloyal, irredeemable, unforeseen, overtired.

Adjectives may be used attributively, as part of a noun phrase (nearly always preceding the noun they modify), as in the big house, or predicatively, as in the house is big. Certain adjectives are restricted to one or other use; for example, drunken is attributive (a drunken sailor), while drunk is usually predicative (the sailor was drunk).

**Comparison**

Many adjectives have comparative and superlative forms in -er and -est, such as faster and fastest (from the positive form fast). Spelling rules which maintain pronunciation apply to suffixing adjectives just as they do for similar treatment of regular past tense formation; these cover consonant doubling (as in bigger and biggest, from big) and the change of y to i after consonants (as inhappier and happiest, from happy).

The adjectives good and bad have the irregular forms better, best and worse, worst; also far becomes farther, farthest or further, furthest. The adjective old (for which the regular older and oldest are usual) also has the irregular forms elder and eldest, these generally being restricted to use in comparing siblings and in certain independent uses. For the comparison of adverbs, see Adverbsbelow.

Many adjectives, however, particularly those that are longer and less common, do not have inflected comparative and superlative forms. Instead, they can be qualified with more and most, as in beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful (this construction is also sometimes used even for adjectives for which inflected forms do exist).

Certain adjectives are classed as ungradableThese represent properties that cannot be compared on a scale; they simply apply or do not, as with pregnant, dead, unique. Consequently, comparative and superlative forms of such adjectives are not normally used, except in a figurative, humorous or imprecise context. Similarly, such adjectives are not normally qualified with modifiers of degree such as very and fairly, although with some of them it is idiomatic to use adverbs such as completely. Another type of adjectives sometimes considered ungradable is those that represent an extreme degree of some property, such as delicious and terrified.

Adjective phrases

An adjective phrase is a group of words that plays the role of an adjective in a sentence. It usually has a single adjective as its head, to which modifiers and complements may be added.

Adjectives can be modified by a preceding adverb or adverb phrase, as in very warm, truly imposing, more than a little excited. Some can also be preceded by a noun or quantitative phrase, as in fat-free, two-metre-long.

**Complements following the adjective may include:**

- prepositional phrases: proud of him, angry at the screen, keen on breeding toads;

- infinitive phrases: anxious to solve the problem, easy to pick up;
- content clauses, i.e. that clauses and certain others: certain that he was right, unsure where they are;
- after comparatives, phrases or clauses with than: better than you, smaller than I had imagined.

An adjective phrase may include both modifiers before the adjective and a complement after it, as in very difficult to put away.

Adjective phrases containing complements after the adjective cannot normally be used as attributive adjectives before a noun. Sometimes they are used attributively after the noun, as in a woman proud of being a midwife (where they may be converted into relative clauses: a woman who is proud of being a midwife), but it is wrong to say *a proud of being a midwife woman. Exceptions include very brief and often established phrases such as easy-to-use. (Certain complements can be moved to after the noun, leaving the adjective before the noun, as in a better man than you, a hard nut to crack.)

Certain attributive adjective phrases are formed from other parts of speech, without any adjective as their head, as in a two-bedroom house, a no-jeans policy.

**Adverbs**

Adverbs perform a wide range of functions. They typically modify verbs (or verb phrases), adjectives (or adjectival phrases), or other adverbs (or adverbial phrases) However, adverbs also sometimes qualify noun phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place); pronouns and determiners (almost all); prepositional phrases (halfway through the movie); or whole sentences, to provide contextual comment or indicate an attitude (Frankly, I don't believe you). They can also indicate a relationship between clauses or sentences (He died, and consequently I inherited the estate).

Many English adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the ending -ly, as in hopefully, widely, theoretically (for details of spelling and etymology, see -ly). Certain words can be used as both adjectives and adverbs, such as fast, straight, and hard. The adverb corresponding to the adjective good is well (note that bad forms the regular badly, although ill is occasionally used in some phrases).

There are also many adverbs that are not derived from adjectives,[14] including adverbs of time, of frequency, of place, of degree and with other meanings. Some suffixes that are commonly used to form adverbs from nouns are -ward[s] (as in homeward[s]) and -wise(as in lengthwise).

Most adverbs form comparatives and superlatives by modification with more and most: often, more often, most often; smoothly, more smoothly, most smoothly (see also comparison of adjectives, above). However, a few adverbs retain irregular inflection for comparativeand

superlative forms: much, more, most; a little, less, least; well, better, best; badly, worse, worst; far, further (farther), furthest(farthest); or follow the regular adjectival inflection: fast, faster, fastest; soon, sooner, soonest; etc.

Adverbs indicating the manner of an action are generally placed after the verb and its objects (We considered the proposal carefully), although other positions are often possible (We carefully considered the proposal). Many adverbs of frequency, degree, certainty, etc. (such as often, always, almost, probably, and various others such as just) tend to be placed before the verb (they usually have chips), although if there is an auxiliary or other "special verb" (see Verbs above), then the normal position for such adverbs is after that special verb (or after the first of them, if there is more than one): I have just finished the crossword; She can usually manage a pint; We are never late; You might possibly have been unconscious. Adverbs that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide the context (such as time or place) for a sentence, are typically placed at the start of the sentence: Yesterday we went on a shopping expedition.

A special type of adverb is the adverbial particle used to form phrasal verbs (such as up in pick up, on in get on, etc.) If such a verb also has an object, then the particle may precede or follow the object, although it will normally follow the object if the object is a pronoun (pick the pen up or pick up the pen, but pick it up).

**Adverb phrases**

An adverb phrase is a phrase that acts as an adverb within a sentence. An adverb phrase may have an adverb as its head, together with any modifiers (other adverbs or adverb phrases) and complements, analogously to the adjective phrases described above. For example: very sleepily; all too suddenly; oddly enough; perhaps shockingly for us.

Another very common type of adverb phrase is the prepositional phrase, which consists of a preposition and its object: in the pool;after two years; for the sake of harmony.

**Prepositions**

Prepositions form a closed word class, although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions, such as in front of. A single preposition may have a variety of meanings, often including temporal, spatial and abstract. Many words that are prepositions can also serve as adverbs. Examples of common English prepositions (including phrasal instances) are of, in, on, over, under, to,from, with, in front of, behind, opposite, by, before, after, during, through, in spite of or despite, between, among, etc.

A preposition is usually used with a noun phrase as its complement. A preposition together with its complement is called aprepositional phrase. Examples are in England, under the table, after six pleasant weeks, between the land and the sea. A prepositional phrase can be used as a

complement or post-modifier of a noun in a noun phrase, as in the man in the car, the start of the fight; as a complement of a verb or adjective, as in deal with the problem, proud of oneself; or generally as an adverb phrase (see above).

English allows the use of "stranded" prepositions. This can occur in interrogative and relative clauses, where the interrogative or relative pronoun that is the preposition's complement is moved to the start (fronted), leaving the preposition in place. This kind of structure is avoided in some kinds of formal English. For example:

- What are you talking about? (Possible alternative version: About what are you talking?)
- The song that you were listening to ... (more formal: The song to which you were listening ...)

Notice that in the second example the relative pronoun that could be omitted.

Stranded prepositions can also arise in passive voice constructions and other uses of passive past participial phrases, where the complement in a prepositional phrase can become zero in the same way that a verb's direct object would: it was looked at; I will be operated on; get your teeth seen to. The same can happen in certain uses of infinitive phrases: he is nice to talk to; this is the page to make copies of.

**Conjunctions**

Conjunctions express a variety of logical relations between items, phrases, clauses and sentences.[19] The principal coordinating conjunctions in English are and, or, and but, as well as nor, so, yet and for. These can be used in many grammatical contexts to link two or more items of equal grammatical status,[19] for example:

- Noun phrases combined into a longer noun phrase, such as John, Eric, and Jill, the red coat or the blue one. When and is used, the resulting noun phrase is plural. A determiner does not need to be repeated with the individual elements: the cat, the dog, and the mouse and the cat, dog, and mouse are both correct. The same applies to other modifiers. (The word but can be used here in the sense of "except": nobody but you.)
- Adjective or adverb phrases combined into a longer adjective or adverb phrase: tired but happy, over the fields and far away.
- Verbs or verb phrases combined as in he washed, peeled, and diced the turnips (verbs conjoined, object shared); he washed the turnips, peeled them, and diced them (full verb phrases, including objects, conjoined).
- Other equivalent items linked, such as prefixes linked in pre- and post-test counselling,[20] numerals as in two or three buildings, etc.

- Clauses or sentences linked, as in We came but they wouldn't let us in. They wouldn't let us in, nor would they explain what we had done wrong.
- There are also correlative conjunctions, where as well as the basic conjunction, an additional element appears before the first of the items being linked. The common correlatives in English are:
- either ... or (either a man or a woman);
- neither ... nor (neither clever nor funny);
- both ... and (they both punished and rewarded them);
- not ... but, particularly in not only ... but also (not exhausted but exhilarated, not only football but also many other sports).
- Subordinating conjunctions make relations between clauses, making the clause in which they appear into a subordinate clause. Some common subordinating conjunctions in English are:
- conjunctions of time, including after, before, since, until, when, while;
- conjunctions of cause and effect, including because, since, now that, as, in order that, so;
- conjunctions of opposition or concession, such as although, though, even though, whereas, while;
- conjunctions of condition: such as if, unless, only if, whether or not, even if, in case (that);
- the conjunction that, which produces content clauses, as well as words that produce interrogative content clauses: whether,where, when, how, etc.

A subordinating conjunction generally comes at the very start of its clause, although many of them can be preceded by qualifying adverbs, as in probably because ..., especially if .... The conjunction that can be omitted after certain verbs, as in she told us (that) she was ready. (For the use of that in relative clauses, see Relative pronouns above.)

**Negation**

As noted above under Verbs, a finite indicative verb (or its clause) is negated by placing the word not after an auxiliary, modal or other "special" verb such as do, can or be. For example, the clause I go is negated with the appearance of the auxiliary do, as I do not go(see do-support). When the affirmative already uses auxiliary verbs (I am going), no other auxiliary verbs are

added to negate the clause (I am not going). (Until the period of early Modern English, negation was effected without additional auxiliary verbs: I go not.)

Most combinations of auxiliary verbs etc. with not have contracted forms: don't, can't, isn't, etc. (Also the uncontracted negated form of can is written as a single word cannot.) On inversion of subject and verb (such as in questions; see below), the subject may be placed after a contracted negated form: Should he not pay? or Shouldn't he pay?

Other elements, such as noun phrases, adjectives, adverbs, infinitive and participial phrases, etc., can be negated by placing the word not before them: not the right answer, not interesting, not to enter, not noticing the train, etc.

When other negating words such as never, nobody, etc. appear in a sentence, the negating not is omitted (unlike its equivalents in many languages): I saw nothing or I didn't see anything, but not (except in non-standard speech) *I didn't see nothing (see Double negative). Such negating words generally have corresponding negative polarity items (ever for never, anybody for nobody, etc.) which can appear in a negative context, but are not negative themselves (and can thus be used after a negation without giving rise to double negatives).

**Clause and sentence structure**

A typical sentence contains one independent clause and possibly one or more dependent clauses, although it is also possible to link together sentences of this form into longer sentences, using coordinating conjunctions (see above).

A clause typically contains a subject (a noun phrase) and a predicate (a verb phrase in the terminology used above; that is, a verb together with its objects and complements). A dependent clause also normally contains a subordinating conjunction (or in the case of relative clauses, a relative pronoun or phrase containing one). English syntax is essentially of SVO (subject–verb–object) type; the verb precedes its object in the verb phrase, and the subject of the clause precedes the verb.

**Questions**

Like many other Western European languages, English historically allowed questions to be formed by inverting the positions of verb and subject. Modern English permits this only in the case of a small class of verbs ("special verbs"), consisting of auxiliaries as well as forms of the copula be (see subject–auxiliary inversion). To form a question from a sentence which does not have such an auxiliary or copula present, the auxiliary verb do (does, did) needs to be inserted, along with inversion of the word order, to form a question (see do-support). For example:

- She can dance. → Can she dance? (inversion of subject she and auxiliary can)
- I am sitting here. → Am I sitting here? (inversion of subject I and copula am)

- The milk goes in the fridge. → Does the milk go in the fridge? (no special verb present; do-support required)

- The above concerns yes-no questions, but inversion also takes place in the same way after other questions, formed with interrogative words such as where, what, how, etc. An exception applies when the interrogative word is the subject or part of the subject, in which case there is no inversion. For example:

- I go. → Where do I go? (wh-question formed using inversion, with do-support required in this case)

- He goes. → Who goes? (no inversion, because the question word who is the subject)

- Note that inversion does not apply in indirect questions: I wonder where he is (not *... where is he). Indirect yes-no questions can be expressed using if or whether as the interrogative word: Ask them whether/if they saw him.

- Negative questions are formed similarly; however if the verb undergoing inversion has a contraction with not, then it is possible to invert the subject with this contraction as a whole. For example:

- John is going. (affirmative)

- John is not going. / John isn't going. (negative, with and without contraction)

- Is John not going? / Isn't John going? (negative question, with and without contraction)

See also English auxiliaries and contractions: Contractions and inversion.

Dependent clauses

The syntax of a dependent clause is generally the same as that of an independent clause, except that the dependent clause usually begins with a subordinating conjunction or relative pronoun (or phrase containing such). In some situations (as already described) the conjunction or relative pronoun that can be omitted. Another type of dependent clause with no subordinating conjunction is the conditional clause formed by inversion (see below).

**Other uses of inversion**

The clause structure with inverted subject and verb, used to form questions as described above, is also used in certain types of declarative sentence. This occurs mainly when the sentence begins with an adverbial or other phrase that is essentially negative or contains words such as only, hardly, etc.: Never have I known someone so stupid; Only in France can such food be tasted.

In elliptical sentences (see below), inversion takes place after so (meaning "also") as well as after the negative neither: so do I, neither does she.

Inversion can also be used to form conditional clauses, beginning with should, were (subjunctive), or had, in the following ways:

- should I win the race (equivalent to if I win the race);
- were he a soldier (equivalent to if he were a soldier);
- were he to win the race (equivalent to if he were to win the race, i.e. if he won the race);
- had he won the race (equivalent to if he had won the race).

Other similar forms sometimes appear, but are less common. There is also a construction with subjunctive be, as in be he alive or dead (meaning "no matter whether he is alive or dead").

Use of inversion to express a third-person imperative is now mostly confined to the expression long live X, meaning "let X live long".

Imperatives

In an imperative sentence (one giving an order), there is usually no subject in the independent clause: Go away until I call you. It is possible, however, to include you as the subject for emphasis: You stay away from me.

Elliptical constructions

Many types of elliptical construction are possible in English, resulting in sentences that omit certain redundant elements. Various examples are given in the article on Ellipsis.

Some notable elliptical forms found in English include:

- Short statements of the form I can, he isn't, we mustn't. Here the verb phrase (understood from the context) is reduced to a single auxiliary or other "special" verb, negated if appropriate. If there is no special verb in the original verb phrase, it is replaced bydo/does/did: he does, they didn't.
- Clauses that omit the verb, in particular those like me too, nor me, me neither. The latter forms are used after negative statements. (Equivalents including the verb: I do too or so do I; I don't either or neither do I.)
- Tag questions, formed with a special verb and pronoun subject: isn't it?; were there?; am I not?

**History of English grammars**

The first published English grammar was a Pamphlet for Grammar of 1586, written by William Bullokar with the stated goal of demonstrating that English was just as rule-based as Latin. Bullokar's grammar was faithfully modeled on William Lily's Latin grammar, Rudimenta Grammatices (1534), used in English schools at that time, having been "prescribed" for them in 1542 by Henry VIII. Bullokar wrote his grammar in English and used a "reformed spelling system" of his own invention; but 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 Linguae Anglicanae (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.

## CHAPTER 2

### Sentence (linguistics)

A sentence is a grammatical unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. A sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion.

A sentence can also be defined in orthographic terms alone, i.e., as anything which is contained between a capital letter and a full stop.[2] For instance, the opening of Charles Dickens' novel Bleak House begins with the following three sentences:

London. Michaelmas term lately over, and the Lord Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall. Implacable November weather.

The first sentence involves one word, a proper noun. The second sentence has only a non-finite verb. The third is a single nominal group. Only an orthographic definition encompasses this variation.

As with all language expressions, sentences might contain function and content words and contain properties distinct to natural language, such as characteristic intonation and timing patterns.

Sentences are generally characterized in most languages by the presence of a finite verb, e.g. "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog".

### Components of a sentence

### Clauses

A clause typically contains at least a subject noun phrase and a finite verb. While the subject is usually a noun phrase, other kinds of phrases (such as gerund phrases) work as well, and some languages allow subjects to be omitted. There are two types of clauses: independent and subordinate (dependent). An independent clause demonstrates a complete thought; it is a complete sentence: for example, I am sad. A subordinate clause is not a complete sentence: for example, because I have no friends. See also copula for the consequences of the verb to be on the theory of sentence structure.

A simple complete sentence consists of a single clause. Other complete sentences consist of two or more clauses (see below).

Classification

By structure

One traditional scheme for classifying English sentences is by the number and types of finite clauses:

- A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses.
- A compound sentence consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using conjunctions, punctuation, or both.
- A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.
- A complex-compound sentence (or compound-complex sentence) consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which has at least one dependent clause.
- By purpose
- Sentences can also be classified based on their purpose:
- A declarative sentence or declaration, the most common type, commonly makes a statement: "I have to go to work."
- An interrogative sentence or question is commonly used to request information — "Do I have to go to work?" — but sometimes not; see rhetorical question.
- An exclamatory sentence or exclamation is generally a more emphatic form of statement expressing emotion: "I have to go to work!"
- An imperative sentence or command tells someone to do something (and if done strongly may be considered both imperative and exclamatory): "Go to work." or "Go to work!"

**Major and minor sentences**

A major sentence is a regular sentence; it has a subject and a predicate. For example: "I have a ball." In this sentence one can change the persons: "We have a ball." However, a minor sentence is an irregular type of sentence. It does not contain a finite verb. For example, "Mary!" "Yes." "Coffee." etc. Other examples of minor sentences are headings (e.g. the heading of this entry), stereotyped expressions ("Hello!"), emotional expressions ("Wow!"), proverbs, etc. This can also include nominal sentences like "The more, the merrier". These do not contain verbs in order to intensify the meaning around the nouns and are normally found in poetry and catchphrases.[3]

Sentences that comprise a single word are called word sentences, and the words themselves sentence words

## Sentence length

After a slump of interest, sentence length came to be studied in the 1980s, mostly "with respect to other syntactic phenomena"

By some definitions, the average size length of a sentence is given by "no. of words / no. of sentences".[6] The textbook Mathematical linguistics, written by András Kornai, suggests that in "journalistic prose the median sentence length is above 15 words". The average length of a sentence generally serves as a measure of sentence difficulty or complexity.[8] The general trend is that as the average sentence length increases, the complexity of the sentences also increases

In some circumstances "sentence length" is expressed by the number of clauses, while the "clause length" is expressed by the number of phones.

A test done by Erik Schils and Pieter de Haan (by sampling five texts) showed that any two adjacent sentences are more likely to have similar lengths, and almost certainly have similar length when from a text in the fiction genre. This countered the theory that "authors may aim at an alternation of long and short sentence".Sentence length, as well as word difficulty, are both factors in the readability of a sentence. However, other factors, such as the presence of conjunctions, have been said to "facilitate comprehension considerably".[

## Simple sentence

A simple sentence is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause and no dependent clauses.

### Examples

I am running.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject, I, and one predicate, running.

The singer bowed.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject, singer, and one predicate, bowed.

The babies cried.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject, baby, and one predicate, cried.

The girl ran into her bedroom.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject, girl, and one predicate, ran into her bedroom. This example is distinct from the previous three in that its verb phrase consists of more than one word.

In the backyard, the dog barked and howled at the cat.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject, dog, and one predicate, barked and howled at the cat. This predicate has two verbs, known as a compound predicate: barked and howled. This compound verb should not be confused with a compound sentence. In the backyard and at the cat are prepositional phrases.

**Compound sentence**

A compound sentence is composed of at least two independent clauses. It does not require a dependent clause. The clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction (with or without a comma), a correlative conjunction (with or without a comma), a semicolon that functions as a conjunction, a colon instead of a semicolon between two sentences when the second sentence explains or illustrates the first sentence and no coordinating conjunction is being used to connect the sentences, or a conjunctive adverb preceded by a semicolon. A conjunction can be used to make a compound sentence. Conjunctions are words such as for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (the first letters of which spell "fanboys"). The use of a comma to separate two independent clauses without the addition of an appropriate conjunction is called a comma splice and is generally considered an error (when used in the English language).

**Complex sentence**

In grammar, a complex sentence is a sentence with one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. A complex sentence is often used to make clear which ideas are most important, and which ideas are subordinate

Examples

- "I enjoyed the apple pie that you bought for me." Here, "I enjoyed the apple pie" is an independent clause and "that you bought for me" is a dependent clause. The independent clause could stand alone as a simple sentence without a dependent clause.
- "I ate breakfast before I went to work." This has "I ate breakfast" as an independent clause, and "before I went to work" as a dependent clause.
- Examples of sentences that have more than one clause but are not complex sentences include the following:

- "I was scared, but I didn't run away." Both of these clauses are independent in this compound sentence.
- "The dog that you gave me barked at me, and it bit my hand." Here a compound-complex sentence has two independent clauses ("The dog barked at me" and "It bit my hand") and one dependent clause ["that you gave me"].

**Complex-compound sentence**

A complex-compound sentence or compound-complex sentence is a sentence with several independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses (also known as subordinating conjunction).

Examples

The dog lived in the garden, but the cat, which was smarter, lived inside the house.

Independent clauses:

- The dog lived in the garden.
- The cat lived inside the house.

  Dependent clause:

- which was smarter

**Subject**

The subject (abbreviated SUB or SU) is, according to a tradition that can be traced back to Aristotle (and that is associated with phrase structure grammars), one of the two main constituents of a clause, the other constituent being the predicate, whereby the predicate says something about the subject. According to a tradition associated with predicate logic and dependency grammars, the subject is the most prominent overt argument of the predicate. By this position all languages with arguments have subjects, though there is no way to define this consistently for all languages.[3] From a functional perspective, a subject is a phrase that conflates nominative case with the topic. Many languages (such as those withergative or Austronesian alignment) do not do this, and so do not have subjects.

All of these positions see the subject in English determining person and numberagreement on the finite verb, as exemplified by the difference in verb forms between he eats and they eat. The stereotypical subject immediately precedes the finite verb in declarative sentences in English and

represents an agent or a theme. The subject is often a multi-word constituent and should be distinguished fromparts of speech, which, roughly, classify words within constituents.

**Forms of the subject**

The subject is a constituent that can be realized in numerous forms in English and other languages, many of which are listed in the following table:

oun (phrase) or pronoun The large car stopped outside our house. A gerund (phrase)

His constant hammering was annoying.

A to-infinitive (phrase) To read is easier than to write.

A full that-clause That he had traveled the world was known to everyone.

A free relative clause Whatever he did was always of interest.

A direct quotation I love you is often heard these days.

Zero (but implied) subject Take out the trash!

An expletive

It is raining.

A cataphoric it

It was known by everyone that he had traveled the world.

Three criteria for identifying subjects in English

Three criteria for identifying subjects in English and other languages are listed next:

**1.** Subject-verb agreement: The subject agrees with the finite verb in person and number, e.g. I am vs. *I is.

**2.** Position occupied: The subject typically immediately precedes the finite verb in declarative clauses in English, e.g. Tom laughs.

**3.** Semantic role: A typical subject in the active voice is an agent or theme, i.e. it performs the action expressed by the verb or when it is a theme, it receives a property assigned to it by the predicate.

Of these three criteria, the first one (agreement) is the most reliable. The subject in English and many other languages agrees with the finite verb in person and number (and sometimes in gender

as well). The second and third criterion are merely strong tendencies that can be flouted in certain constructions, e.g.

**a.** Tom is studying chemistry. - The three criteria agree identifying Tom as the subject.

**b.** Is Tom studying chemistry? - The 1st and the 3rd criteria identify Tom as the subject.

**c.** Chemistry is being studied (by Tom). - The 1st and the 2nd criteria identify Chemistry as the subject. In the first sentence, all three criteria combine to identify Tom as the subject. In the second sentence, which involves the subject-auxiliary inversion of a yes/no-question, the subject immediately follows the finite verb (instead of immediately preceding it), which means the second criterion is flouted. And in the third sentence expressed in the passive voice, the 1st and the 2nd criterion combine to identify chemistry as the subject, whereas the third criterion suggests that by Tom should be the subject because Tom is an agent.

Two further criteria for identifying subjects

Two further critiera for identifying subjects are helpful in many other languages (other than English):

**4.** Morphological case: In languages that have case systems, the subject is marked by a specific case, often the nominative.

**5.** Omission: Many languages systematically omit a subject that is known in discourse.

The fourth criterion is not very applicable to English because English largely lacks morphological case, the exception being the subject and object forms of pronouns, I/me, he/him, she/her, they/them. The fifth criterion is helpful in languages that typically drop pronominal subjects, such as Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Latin, Greek, Japanese, and Mandarin. Though most of these languages are rich in verb forms for determining the person and number of the subject, Japanese and Mandarin have no such forms at all. This dropping pattern does not automatically make a language a pro-drop language. In other languages, like English and French, most clauses should have a subject, which should be either a noun (phrase), a pronoun, or a clause. This is also true when the clause has no element to be represented by it. This is why verbs like rain must have a subject such as it, even if nothing is actually being represented by it. In this case, it is an expletive and a dummy pronoun. In imperative clauses, most languages elide the subject, even in English which typically requires a subject to be present, e.g.

Give it to me.

Dā mihi istud. (Latin)

Me dá isso. (Brazilian Portuguese)

Dá-me isso. (Portuguese in Brazil)

Dámelo. (Spanish)

Dammelo. (Italian)

Difficult cases

There are certain constructions that challenge the criteria just introduced for identifying subjects. The following subsections briefly illustrate three such cases in English: 1) existential there-constructions, 2) inverse copular constructions, and 3) locative inversionconstructions.

Existential there-constructions

Existential there-constructions allow for varying interpretations about what should count as the subject, e.g.

A. There's problems.

B. There are problems.

In sentence a, the first criterion (agreement) and the second criterion (position occupied) suggest that there is the subject, whereas the third criterion (semantic role) suggests rather that problems is the subject. In sentence b, in contrast, agreement and semantic role suggest that problems is the subject, whereas position occupied suggests that there is the subject. In such cases then, one can take the first criterion as the most telling; the subject should agree with the finite verb.

Inverse copular constructions

Another difficult case for identifying the subject is the so-called inverse copular construction, e.g.

A. The boys are a chaotic force around here.

B. A chaotic force around here is the boys. - Inverse copular construction

The criteria combine to identify the boys as the subject in sentence a. But if that is the case, then one might argue that the boys is also the subject in the similar sentence b, even though two of the criteria (agreement and position occupied) suggest that a chaotic force around here is the subject. When confronted with such data, one has to make a decision that is less than fully arbitrary. If one assumes again that criterion one (agreement) is the most reliable, one can usually identify a subject.

Locative inversion constructions

Yet another type of construction that challenges the subject concept is locative inversion, e.g.

A. Spiders have been breeding under the bed.

B. Under the bed have been breeding spiders. - Locative inversion

C. *Where have been breeding spiders? - Failed attempt to question the location

D. Where have spiders been breeding? - Successful attempt to question the location

The criteria easily identify spiders as the subject in sentence a. In sentence b, however, the position occupied suggests that under the bed should be construed as the subject, whereas agreement and semantic role continue to identify spiders as the subject. This is so despite the fact that spiders in sentence b appears after the string of verbs in the canonical position of an object. The fact that sentence c is bad but sentence d good reveals that something unusual is indeed afoot, since the attempt to question the location fails if the subject does not immediately follow the finite verb. This further observation speaks against taking spiders as the subject in sentence b. But if spiders is not the subject, then the sentence must lack a subject entirely, which is not supposed to be possible in English.

**Subject-less clauses**

The existence of subject-less clauses can be construed as particularly problematic for theories of sentence structure that build on the binary subject-predicate division. A simple sentence is defined as the combination of a subject and a predicate, but if no subject is present, how can one have a sentence? Subject-less clauses are absent from English for the most part, but they are not unusual in related languages. In German, for instance, impersonal passive clauses can lack a recognizable subject, e.g.

Gestern wurde nur geschlafen.

Yesterday was only slept 'Everybody slept yesterday.'

The word gestern 'yesterday' is generally construed as an adverb, which means it cannot be taken as the subject in this sentence. Certain verbs in German also require a dative or accusative object instead of a nominative subject, e.g.

Mir graut davor.

Me-DAT is uneasy about it 'I am uneasy about it.'

Since subjects are typically marked by the nominative case in German (the fourth criterion above), one can argue that this sentence lacks a subject, for the relevant verb argument appears in the dative case, not in the nominative.

**Predicate**

There are two competing notions of the predicate in theories of grammar The first concerns traditional grammar, which tends to view a predicate as one of two main parts of a sentence, the other part being the subject; the purpose of the predicate is to modify the subject. The second derives from work in predicate calculus (predicate logic, first order logic) and is prominent in modern theories of syntax and grammar. In this approach, the predicate of a sentence corresponds mainly to the main verb and any auxiliaries that accompany the main verb, whereas the arguments of that predicate (e.g. the subject and object noun phrases) are outside the predicate. The competition between these two concepts has generated confusion concerning the use of the term predicate in theories of grammar. This article considers both of these notions.

Predicates in traditional grammar

The predicate in traditional grammar is inspired by propositional logic of antiquity (as opposed to the more modern predicate logic). A predicate is seen as a property that a subject has or is characterized by. A predicate is therefore an expression that can be true ofsomething.[3] Thus, the expression "is moving" is true of those things that are moving. This classical understanding of predicates was adopted more or less directly into Latin and Greek grammars and from there it made its way into English grammars, where it is applied directly to the analysis of sentence structure. It is also the understanding of predicates in English-language dictionaries. The predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence (the other being the subject, which the predicate modifies).[4] The predicate must contain a verb, and the verb requires, permits, or precludes other sentence elements to complete the predicate. These elements are:objects (direct, indirect, prepositional), predicatives, and adjuncts:

She dances. - verb-only predicate

Ben reads the book. - verb + direct object predicate

Ben's mother, Felicity, gave me a present. - verb + indirect object + direct object predicate

She listened to the radio. - verb + prepositional object predicate

They elected him president. - verb + object + predicative noun predicate

She met him in the park. - verb + object + adjunct predicate

She is in the park. - verb + predicative prepositional phrase predicate

The predicate provides information about the subject, such as what the subject is, what the subject is doing, or what the subject is like. The relation between a subject and its predicate is sometimes called a nexus. A predicative nominal is a noun phrase that functions as the main

predicate of a sentence, such as George III is the king of England, the king of England being the predicative nominal. The subject and predicative nominal must be connected by a linking verb, also called a copula. A predicative adjective is anadjective that functions as a predicate, such as Ivano is attractive, attractive being the predicative adjective. The subject and predicative adjective must also be connected by a copula.

This traditional understanding of predicates has a concrete reflex in all phrase structure theories of syntax. These theories divide the generic declarative sentence (S) into a noun phrase (NP) and verb phrase (VP), e.g

Predicates in modern theories of syntax and grammar

Most modern theories of syntax and grammar take their inspiration for the theory of predicates from predicate calculus as associated with Gottlob Frege. This understanding sees predicates as relations or functions over arguments. The predicate serves either to assign a property to a single argument or to relate two or more arguments to each other. Sentences consist of predicates and their arguments (and adjuncts) and are thus predicate-argument structures, whereby a given predicate is seen as linking its arguments into a greater structure. This understanding of predicates sometimes renders a predicate and its arguments in the following manner:

Bob laughed. → laughed (Bob) or, laughed = $f$(Bob)

Sam helped you. → helped (Sam, you)

Jim gave Jill his dog. → gave (Jim, Jill, his dog)

Predicates are placed on the left outside of brackets, whereas the predicate's arguments are placed inside the brackets One acknowledges the valency of predicates, whereby a given predicate can be avalent (not shown), monovalent (laughed in the first sentence), divalent (helped in the second sentence), or trivalent (gave in the third sentence). These types of representations are analogous to formal semantic analyses, where one is concerned with the proper account of scope facts of quantifiers and logical operators. Concerning basic sentence structure however, these representations suggest above all that verbs are predicates and the noun phrases that they appear with are their arguments. On this understanding of the sentence, the binary division of the clause into a subject NP and a predicate VP is hardly possible. Instead, the verb is the predicate, and the noun phrases are its arguments.

Other function words - e.g. auxiliary verbs, certain prepositions, phrasal particles, etc. - are viewed as part of the predicate.The matrix predicates are in bold in the following examples:

Bill will have laughed.

Will Bill have laughed?

That is funny.

Has that been funny?

They had been satisfied.

Had they been satisfied, ...

The butter is in the drawer.

Fred took a picture of Sue.

Susan is pulling your leg.

Who did Jim give his dog to?

You should give it up.

Note that not just verbs can be part of the matrix predicate, but also adjectives, nouns, prepositions, etc. The understanding of predicates suggested by these examples sees the main predicate of a clause consisting of at least one verb and a variety of other possible words. The words of the predicate need not form a string nor a constituent, but rather they can be interrupted by their arguments (and/or adjuncts). The approach to predicates illustrated with these sentences is widespread in Europe, particularly in Germany, where the understanding predicates from traditional grammar discussed above seems to hardly exist (for those who know German, see the Wikipedia article in German on the predicate).

This modern understanding of predicates is compatible with the dependency grammar approach to sentence structure, which places the finite verb as the root of all structure

**Predicators**

Some theories of grammar seek to avoid the confusion generated by the competition between the two predicate notions by acknowledging predicators.[13] The term predicate is employed in the traditional sense of the binary division of the clause, whereas the term predicator is used to denote the more modern understanding of matrix predicates. On this approach, the periphrastic verb catenae briefly illustrated in the previous section are predicators

The predicators are in blue. These verb catenae generally contain a main verb and potentially one or more auxiliary verbs. The auxiliary verbs help express functional meaning of aspect and voice. Since the auxiliary verbs contribute functional information only, they do not qualify as separate predicators, but rather each time they form the matrix predicator with the main verb.

**Carlson classes**

The seminal work of Greg Carlson distinguishes between types of predicates. Based on Carlson's work, predicates have been divided into the following sub-classes, which roughly pertain to how a predicate relates to its subject.

**Stage-level predicates**

A stage-level predicate is true of a temporal stage of its subject. For example, if John is "hungry", then he typically will eat some food, which lasts a certain amount of time, and not his entire lifespan. Stage-level predicates can occur in a wide range of grammatical constructions and are probably the most versatile kind of predicate.

**Individual-level predicates**

An individual-level predicate is true throughout the existence of an individual. For example, if John is "smart", this is a property that he has, regardless of which particular point in time we consider. Individual-level predicates are more restricted than stage-level ones. Individual-level predicates cannot occur in presentational "there" sentences (a star in front of a sentence indicates that it is odd or ill-formed):

There are police available. - available is stage-level predicate

*There are firemen altruistic. - altruistic is an individual-level predicate

Stage-level predicates allow modification by manner adverbs and other adverbial modifiers. Individual-level predicates do not, e.g.

Tyrone spoke French loudly in the corridor. - speak French can be interpreted as a stage-level predicate

*Tyrone knew French silently in the corridor. - know French cannot be interpreted as a stage-level predicate

When an individual-level predicate occurs in past tense, it gives rise to what is called a lifetime effect: The subject must be assumed to be dead or otherwise out of existence.

John was available. - Stage-level predicate does NOT evoke the lifetime effect.

John was altruistic. - Individual-level predicate does evoke the lifetime effect.

**Kind-level predicates**

A kind-level predicate is true of a kind of thing, but cannot be applied to individual members of the kind. An example of this is the predicate are widespread. One cannot meaningfully say of a particular individual John that he is widespread. One may only say this of kinds, as in

**Humans are widespread.**

Certain types of noun phrases cannot be the subject of a kind-level predicate. We have just seen that a proper name cannot be.Singular indefinite noun phrases are also banned from this environment:

*A cat is widespread. - Compare: Nightmares are widespread.

Collective vs. distributive predicates

Predicates may also be collective or distributive. Collective predicates require their subjects to be somehow plural, while distributive ones do not. An example of a collective predicate is "formed a line". This predicate can only stand in a nexus with a plural subject:

The students formed a line. - Collective predicate appears with plural subject.

*The student formed a line. - Collective predicate cannot appear with singular subject.

Other examples of collective predicates include meet in the woods, surround the house, gather in the hallway and carry the piano together. Note that the last one (carry the piano together) can be made non-collective by removing the word together. Quantifiers differ with respect to whether or not they can be the subject of a collective predicate. For example, quantifiers formed with all the can, while ones formed with every or each cannot.

All the students formed a line. - Collective predicate possible with all the.

All the students gathered in the hallway. - Collective predicate possible with all the.

All the students carried a piano together. - Collective predicate possible with all the.

*Every student formed a line. - Collective predicate IMpossible with every.

*Each student gathered in the hallway. - Collective predicate IMpossible with each.

## CHAPTER 3

### Noun

Nouns are a part of speech typically denoting a person, place, thing, animal or idea. In linguistics, a noun is a member of a large, open lexical category whose members can occur as the main word in the subject of a clause, the object of averb, or the object of a preposition.

Lexical categories are defined in terms of the ways in which their members combine with other kinds of expressions. The syntactic rules for nouns differ from language to language. In English, nouns are those words which can occur witharticles and attributive adjectives and can function as the head of a noun phrase.

### History

The English word noun comes from the Latin nōmen, meaning "name" or "noun",[2]a cognate of the Ancient Greek ónoma (also meaning "name" or "noun").

Word classes like nouns were first described by Pāṇini in the Sanskrit language and by Ancient Greek grammarians, and were defined by the grammatical formsthat they take. In Greek and Sanskrit, for example, nouns are categorized bygender and inflected for case and number.

Because nouns and adjectives share these three grammatical categories, grammarians sometimes do not distinguish between the two. For example,Dionysius Thrax uses the term ónoma for both, with words of adjectival type largely contained in the subclass that he describes asparagōgón (plural paragōgá),[4] meaning "derived".[5] See also the section on substantive below.

### Definitions of nouns

Nouns have sometimes been defined in terms of the grammatical categories to which they are subject (classed by gender, inflected for case and number). Such definitions tend to be language-specific, since nouns do not have the same categories in all languages.

Nouns are frequently defined, particularly in informal contexts, in terms of their semantic properties (their meanings). Nouns are described as words that refer to a person, place, thing, event, substance, quality, quantity, etc. However this type of definition has been criticized by contemporary linguists as being uninformative

Linguists often prefer to define nouns (and other lexical categories) in terms of their formal properties. These include morphologicalinformation, such as what prefixes or suffixes they take, and also their syntax – how they combine with other words and expressions of particular types. Such definitions may nonetheless still be language-specific, since syntax as well as morphology varies between languages. For example, in English it might be noted that nouns are words that

can co-occur with definite articles (as stated at the start of this article), but this would not apply in Russian, which has no definite articles.

There have been several attempts, sometimes controversial, to produce a stricter definition of nouns on a semantic basis. Some of these are referenced in the Further reading section below.

**Forms of nouns**

A noun in its basic form will often consist of a single stem, as in the case of the English nouns cat, man, table and so on. In many languages nouns can also be formed from other nouns and from words of other types through morphological processes, often involving the addition of prefixes and suffixes. Examples in English are the verbal nouns formed from verbs by the addition of -ing, nouns formed from verbs using other suffixes such as organization and discovery, agent nouns formed from verbs usually with the suffix -er or -or, as in actor and worker, feminine forms of nouns such as actress, lioness, nouns formed from adjectives such ashappiness, and many other types.

Nouns may be identical in form to words that belong to other parts of speech, often as a result of conversion (or just through coincidence). For example the English word hit can be both a noun and a verb, and the German Arm/arm can be a noun or an adjective. In such cases the word is said to represent two or more lexemes.

In many languages nouns inflect (change their form) for number, and sometimes for case. Inflection for number usually involves forming plural forms, such as cats and children (see English plural), and sometimes other forms such as duals, which are used in some languages to refer to exactly two of something. Inflection for case involves changing the form of a noun depending on itssyntactic function – languages such as Latin, Russian and Finnish have extensive case systems, with different forms for nominatives(used principally for verb subjects), accusatives (used especially for direct objects), genitives (used to express possession and similar relationships) and so on. The only real vestige of the case system on nouns in Modern English is the "Saxon genitive", where 's is added to a noun to form a possessive.

Gender

In some languages, nouns are assigned to genders, such as masculine, feminine and neuter (or other combinations). The gender of a noun (as well as its number and case, where applicable) will often entail agreement in words that modify or are related to it. For example, in French, the singular form of the definite article is le with masculine nouns and la with feminines; adjectives and certain verb forms also change (with the addition of -e with feminines). Grammatical gender often correlates with the form of the noun and the inflection pattern it follows; for example, in both Italian and Russian most nouns ending -a are feminine. Gender also often correlates with

the sex of the noun's referent, particularly in the case of nouns denoting people (and sometimes animals). Nouns do not have gender in Modern English, although many of them denote people or animals of a specific sex.

**Classification of nouns**

**Proper nouns and common nouns**

A proper noun or proper name is a noun representing unique entities (such as Earth, India, Jupiter, Harry, or BMW), as distinguished from common nouns which describe a class of entities (such as city, animal, planet, person or car)

Countable and uncountable nouns

Count nouns or countable nouns are common nouns that can take a plural, can combine with numerals or counting quantifiers (e.g.,one, two, several, every, most), and can take an indefinite article such as a or an (in languages which have such articles). Examples of count nouns are chair, nose, and occasion.

Mass nouns or uncountable (or non-count) nouns differ from count nouns in precisely that respect: they cannot take plurals or combine with number words or the above type of quantifiers. For example, it is not possible to refer to a furniture or three furnitures. This is true even though the pieces of furniture comprising furniture could be counted. Thus the distinction between mass and count nouns should not be made in terms of what sorts of things the nouns refer to, but rather in terms of how the nouns present these entities.

Many nouns have both countable and uncountable uses; for example, beer is countable in "give me three beers", but uncountable in "he likes beer".

**Collective nouns**

Collective nouns are nouns that refer to groups consisting of more than one individual or entity, even when they are inflected for thesingular. Examples include committee, herd, and school (of fish). These nouns have slightly different grammatical properties than other nouns. For example, the noun phrases that they head can serve as the subject of a collective predicate, even when they are inflected for.

Concrete nouns and abstract nouns

Concrete nouns refer to physical entities that can, in principle at least, be observed by at least one of the senses (for instance, chair,apple, Janet or atom). Abstract nouns, on the other hand, refer to abstract objects; that is, ideas or concepts (such as justice orhatred). While this distinction is sometimes exclusive, some nouns have multiple senses, including both concrete and abstract ones; consider, for example, the noun art, which usually refers to a concept (e.g., Art is an

important element of human culture) but which can refer to a specific artwork in certain contexts (e.g., I put my daughter's art up on the fridge).

Some abstract nouns developed etymologically by figurative extension from literal roots. These include drawback, fraction, holdout,and uptake. Similarly, some nouns have both abstract and concrete senses, with the latter having developed by figurative extension from the former. These include view, filter, structure, and key.

In English, many abstract nouns are formed by adding noun-forming suffixes (-ness, -ity, -ion) to adjectives or verbs. Examples arehappiness (from the adjective happy), circulation (from the verb circulate) and serenity (from the adjective serene).

**Noun phrases**

A noun phrase is a phrase based on a noun, pronoun, or other noun-like word (nominal) optionally accompanied by modifiers such asdeterminers and adjectives. A noun phrase functions within a clause or sentence in a role such as that of subject, object, orcomplement of a verb or preposition. For example, in the sentence "The black cat sat on a dear friend of mine", the noun phrase the black cat serves as the subject, and the noun phrase a dear friend of mine serves as the complement of the preposition on.

**Pronouns**

Nouns and noun phrases can typically be replaced by pronouns, such as he, it, which, and those, in order to avoid repetition or explicit identification, or for other reasons. For example, in the sentence Janeth thought that he was weird, the word he is a pronoun standing in place of the name of the person in question. The English word one can replace parts of noun phrases, and it sometimes stands in for a noun. An example is given below:

John's car is newer than the one that Bill has.

But one can also stand in for bigger sub parts of a noun phrase. For example, in the following example, one can stand in for new car.

This new car is cheaper than that one.

Substantive as a word for noun

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

Starting with old Latin grammars, many European languages use some form of the word substantive as the basic term for noun (for example, Spanish sustantivo, "noun"). Nouns in the dictionaries of such languages are demarked by the abbreviation s. or sb.instead of n, which may

be used for proper nouns instead. This corresponds to those grammars in which nouns and adjectives phase into each other in more areas than, for example, the English term predicate adjective entails. In French and Spanish, for example, adjectives frequently act as nouns referring to people who have the characteristics of the adjective. The most common metalanguageto name this concept is nominalization. An example in English is:

This legislation will have the most impact on the poor.

Similarly, an adjective can also be used for a whole group or organization of people:

The Socialist International.

Hence, these words are substantives that are usually adjectives in English.

The word nominal also overlaps in meaning and usage with noun and adjective.

**Prefix**

A prefix is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word. Adding it to the beginning of one word changes it into another word. For example, when the prefix un- is added to the word happy, it creates the word unhappy. Particularly in the study of languages, a prefix is also called a preformative, because it alters the form of the words to which it is affixed. Prefixes, like other affixes, can be either inflectional, changing the syntactic category, or derivational, changing either the lexical category or the semantic meaning. In English, there are no inflectional prefixes. Prefixes, like all other affixes, are bound morphemesThe word prefix is itself made up of the stem fix (meaning "attach", in this case), and the prefix pre- (meaning "before"), both of which are derived from Latin roots.

**List of English derivational prefixes**

In English, a fairly comprehensive list, although not exhaustive, is the following. Depending on precisely how one defines a derivational prefix, some of the neoclassical combining forms may or may not qualify for inclusion in such a list. This list takes the broad view that acro- and auto- count as English derivational prefixes because they function the same way that prefixes such as over-and self- do.

As for numeral prefixes, only the most common members of that class are included here. There is a large separate table covering them all at Numeral prefix > Table of number prefixes in English.

| Prefix | Meaning | Example | Comments |
|---|---|---|---|
| a- | "not" | asymmetric, "not symmetric" | a- before consonants, an- before vowels |

acro- "high" crophobia, "fear of heights" (more)

allo- "other" allotransplantation, "transplant of tissue from another person" (more)

an- "not" aneuploid, "not euploid"

a- before consonants, an- before vowels
ante- "before" antebellum, "before a war"

anti- "against" anti-inflammatory, "against inflammation" (more)

auto- "self" automobile, "moves itself" (more)

bi- "two" bicentennial, "two centuries" See number prefixes in English
co- "together" cooperation, "working together"

contra- "against" contraindication, "against indication" (more)

counter- "against" countermeasure, "action against" (more)

de- "negative, remove" deactivate, "stop from working"

di- "two" diatomic, "two atoms"

See number prefixes in English

dis- "negative, remove" disappear, "vanish" (more)

dys- "negative, badly, wrongly" dysfunction, "bad function" (more)

epi- "on, above" epidural, "outside the dura mater" (more)

extra- "outside" extracellular, "outside a cell" (more)

hemi- "half" hemisphere, "half of a sphere" (more)

See number prefixes in English

hexa- "six" hexagon, "six-sided polygon" (more)

See number prefixes in English
hyper- "a lot"; "too much" hypercalcemia, "too much calcium in the blood" (more)

hypo- "a little"; "not enough" hypokalemia, "not enough potassium in the blood" (more)

ig-"not" ignoble, "not noble"

ignorant, (from roots meaning) "not knowing"

(more)

ig- (before gn- or n-), il- (before l-), im- (before b-, m-, or p-), in- (before most letters), or ir- (before r-)

il- "not" illegal, "not legal" (more)

ig- (before gn- or n-), il- (before l-), im- (before b-, m-, or p-), in- (before most letters), or ir- (before r-)

im- "not" imbalance, "lack of balance" (more)

ig- (before gn- or n-), il- (before l-), im- (before b-, m-, or p-), in- (before most letters), or ir- (before r-)

in- "not" inactive, "not active"

ig- (before gn- or n-), il- (before l-), im- (before b-, m-, or p-), in- (before most letters), or ir- (before r-)

infra- "below" infrared, "below red on the spectrum" (more)

inter- "between" interobserver, "between observers" (more)

intra- "within" intracellular, "inside a cell" (more)

ir- "not" irregular, "not regular" (more)

ig- (before gn- or n-), il- (before l-), im- (before b-, m-, or p-), in- (before most letters), or ir- (before r-)

macro- "large-scale" macroeconomics, "workings of entire economies" (more)

mal- "bad", "wrong" malocclusion, "bad occlusion" (more)

maxi- "big", "as big as possible" maxi-single, "single with extras" (more)

meso- "middle" mesoamerican, "middle of the Americas" (more)

micro- "small-scale" micrometer, "small-measurement instrument" (more)

mid- "middle" midportion, "middle part" (more)

mini- "small"miniature, "small"; "smaller version" (more

mono- "one" monotheism, "belief in one god" (more)

See number prefixes in English
multi- "many", "more than one" multiplex, "many signals in one circuit" (more)

non- "no", "not" nonstop, "without stopping" (more)

octo- "eight" octopus, "eight-footed" (more)

See number prefixes in English

over- "excess", "too much";

"on top" overexpression, "too much expression"

overcoat, "outer coat" (more)

pan- "all" pancytopenia, "low counts across all cell types"

pan-American, "involving all of the Americas"

(more)

Sometimes "all-" is used, especially in Asian English, where All-Union was a standard translation of the Russian word meaning "pan-USSR" or "USSR-wide", and "All-India" is a similar standard term in India, comparable to words such as national, nationwide, orfederal (in the case of federations).
para- "beside"; "beyond"; "related to"; "altered" paranormal, "beyond the normal"

paresthesia, "altered sensation"

paramilitary, "military-like" (more)

penta- "five" pentateuch, "the five books of Moses" (more)

See number prefixes in English

peri- "around" pericardial, "around the heart" (more)

per- "through"; "throughout" percutaneous, "through the skin" (more)

poly- "many" polyglot, "many languages" (more)

post- "after" postoperative, "after surgery" (more)

pre- "before"; "already" preassembled, "already built" (more)

pro-"in favor of" pro-science, "in favor of science" (more)

proto- "first"; "primitive"; "precursor" Proto-Indo-European, "precursor of Indo-European" (more)

pseudo- "false", "specious"

pseudonym, "fake name" (more)

quadri- "four" quadrilateral, "four-sided" (more)

See number prefixes in English

quasi- "somewhat", "resembling" quasiparticulate, "resembling particles" (more)

re- "again" reestablish, "establish again" (more)

self- "[acting on or by] oneself" self-cleaning, "cleans itself" (more)

By normative convention, always hyphenated (except for a few multiprefix compounds such as unselfconscious)

semi- "partial"; "somewhat"; "half" semiarid, "somewhat arid" (more)

See number prefixes in English

sub- "blow" subzero, "below zero" (more)

super- "above"; "more than"; "great" supermarket, "big market" (more

supra- "above" supraorbital, "above the eye sockets" (more)

tetra- "four" tetravalent, "four valence electrons" (more)

See number prefixes in English

trans- "across"; "connecting" transatlantic, "across the Atlantic Ocean" (more)

tri- "three" tripartite, "three parts" (more)

ultra- "beyond"; "extremely" ultraviolet, "beyond violet on the spectrum" (more)

un- "not"; "remove"; "opposite" unopened, "not opened" (more)

under- "beneath"; "not enough" underexposure, "not enough exposure" (more)

xeno- "foreign" xenophobia, "fear of strangers or foreigners"

xenotransplantation, "transplant from another species" (more)

**Suffix**

In linguistics, a suffix (also sometimes called a postfix or ending) is an affix which is placed after the stem of a word. Common examples are case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of nouns or adjectives, and verb endings, which form the conjugation of verbs. Particularly in the study of Semitic languages, a suffix is called an afformative, as they can alter the form of the words to which they are fixed. In Indo-European studies, a distinction is made between suffixes and endings (see Proto-Indo-European root). A word-final segment that is somewhere between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme is known as a suffixoid or a semi-suffix (e.g., English -like or German -freundlich 'friendly').

Suffixes can carry grammatical information (inflectional suffixes) or lexical information (derivational suffixes). An inflectional suffix is sometimes called a desinence.

Some examples in European languages:

Girls, where the suffix -s marks the plural.

He makes, where suffix -s marks the third person singular present tense.

It closed, where the suffix -ed marks the past tense.

De beaux jours, where the suffix -x marks the plural.

Elle est passablement jolie, where the suffix -e marks the feminine form of the adjective.

Many synthetic languages—Czech, German, Finnish, Latin, Hungarian, Russian, Turkish, etc.—use a large number of endings.

Suffixes used in English frequently have Greek, French, or Latin origins.

Inflectional suffixes Inflection changes grammatical properties of a word within its syntactic category. In the example:

I was hoping the cloth wouldn't fade, but it has faded quite a bit.

the suffix -ed inflects the root-word fade to indicate past tense.

Some inflectional suffixes in present day English:

- -s third person singular present
- -ed past tense
- -t past tense
- -ing progressive/continuous

- -en past participle
- -s plural
- -en plural (irregular)
- -er comparative
- -est superlative
- -n't negative

Derivational suffixes

In the example:

"The weather forecaster said it would be clear today, but I can't see clearly at all"

the suffix -ly modifies the root-word clear from an adjective into an adverb. Derivation can also form a semantically distinct word within the same syntactic category. In this example:

"The weather forecaster said it would be a clear day today, but I think it's more like clearish!"

the suffix -ish modifies the root-word clear, changing its meaning to "clear, but not very clear".

Some derivational suffixes in present day English:

- -ian
- -ize/-ise
- -fy
- -ly
- -ful
- -able/-ible
- -hood
- -ness
- -less
- -ism
- -ment

- -ist
- -al
- -ish
- -tion

Consequences of gender

The grammatical gender of a noun manifests itself in two principal ways: in the modifications that the noun itself undergoes, and in modifications of other related words (agreement). These are described in the following sections.

**Noun inflection**

The gender of a noun may affect the modifications that the noun itself undergoes, particularly the way in which the noun inflects fornumber and case. For example, a language like Latin, German or Russian has a number of different declension patterns, and which pattern a particular noun follows may depend (among other things) on its gender. For some instances of this, see Latin declension. A concrete example is provided by the German word See, which has two possible genders: when it is masculine (meaning "lake") itsgenitive singular form is Sees, but when it is feminine (meaning "sea"), the genitive is See, because feminine nouns do not take the genitive -s.

Sometimes, gender is reflected in more subtle ways. In Welsh, gender marking is mostly lost; however, Welsh has the peculiar feature of initial mutation, where the first consonant of a word changes into another in certain conditions. Gender is one of the factors that can cause mutation (soft mutation). For instance, the word merch "girl" changes into ferch after the definite article. This only occurs with feminine singular nouns: mab "son" remains unchanged. Adjectives are affected by gender in a similar way.

| | Default | | After definite article | | With adjective | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Masculine singular | mab | "son" | y mab | "the son" | y mab mawr | "the big son" |
| Feminine singular | merch | "girl" | y ferch | "the girl" | y ferch fawr | "the big girl" |

Additionally, in many languages, gender is often closely correlated with the basic unmodified form (lemma) of the noun, and sometimes a noun can be modified to produce (for example) masculine and feminine words of similar meaning. See Correlation between gender and the form of a noun, below.

**Agreement**

Agreement, or concord, is a grammatical process in which certain words change their form so that values of certain grammatical categories match those of related words. Gender is one of the categories which frequently require agreement. In this case, nouns may be considered the "triggers" of the process, because they have an inherent gender, whereas related words that change their form to match the gender of the noun can be considered the "target" of these changes.

These related words can be, depending on the language: determiners, pronouns, numerals, quantifiers, possessives, adjectives, past and passive participles, verbs, adverbs, complementizers, and adpositions. Gender class may be marked on the noun itself, but can also be marked on other constituents in a noun phrase or sentence. If the noun is explicitly marked, both trigger and target may feature similar alternations.

As an example, we consider Spanish, a language with two noun genders: masculine and feminine. Among other lexical items, thedefinite article changes its form according to the gender of the noun. In the singular, the article is: el (masculine), and la(feminine). Thus, nouns referring to male beings carry the masculine article, and female beings the feminine article (agreement).

Example

| Gender | Phrase | Gloss |
|---|---|---|
| Masculine | el abuelo | "the grandfather" |
| Feminine | la abuela | "the grandmother" |

However, every noun must belong to one of the two categories: nouns referring to sexless entities must also be either masculine or feminine, even though this assignment may appear arbitrary.

Example

| Gender | Phrase | Gloss |
|---|---|---|
| Masculine | el plato | "the dish" |
| Feminine | la canción | "the song" |

In the Spanish sentences Él es un buen actor "He is a good actor" and Ella es una buena actriz "She is a good actress", almost every word undergoes gender-related changes. The noun actor changes by replacing the masculine suffix -or with the feminine suffix -riz, the personal pronoun él "he" changes to ella "she", and the feminine suffix -a is added to the article (un → una) and to the adjective (buen → buena). Only the verb remains unchanged in this case.

The following (highly contrived) Old English sentence provides similar examples of gender agreement.

Old English Seo brade lind wæs tilu and ic hire lufode.

Modern English gloss That broad shield was good and I her loved.

Modern English translation That broad shield was good and I loved it.

The word hire "her" refers to lind "shield". Because this noun was grammatically feminine, the adjectives brade "broad" and tilu"good", as well as the pronouns seo "the/that" and hire "her", which referred to lind, must also appear in their feminine forms. Old English had three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, but gender inflections (like many other types of inflection in English) were later greatly simplified by sound changes, and then completely lost.

In modern English, by contrast, the noun shield takes the neuter pronoun it, because it designates a sexless object. In a sense, the neuter gender has grown to encompass most nouns, including many that were masculine or feminine in Old English. If one were to replace the phrase "broad shield" above with brave man or brave woman, the only change to the rest of the sentence would be in the pronoun at the end, which would become him or her respectively.

## CHAPTER 4

## Verb

A verb, from the Latin verbum meaning word, is a word (part of speech) that insyntax conveys an action (bring, read, walk, run, learn), an occurrence (happen, become), or a state of being (be, exist, stand). In the usual description of English, the basic form, with or without the particle to, is the infinitive. In many languages, verbs are inflected (modified in form) to encode tense, aspect, mood, and voice. A verb may also agree with the person, gender, and/or number of some of itsarguments, such as its subject, or object. Verbs have tenses: present, to indicate that an action is being carried out; past, to indicate that an action has been done; future, to indicate that an action will be done.

### Agreement

In languages where the verb is inflected, it often agrees with its primary argument (the subject) in person, number, and/or gender. With the exception of the verb to be, English shows distinctive agreement only in the third person singular, present tense form of verbs, which are marked by adding "-s" ( walks) or "-es" (fishes). The rest of the persons are not distinguished in the verb (I walk, you walk, they walk, etc.).

Latin and the Romance languages inflect verbs for tense–aspect–mood and they agree in person and number (but not in gender, as for example in Polish) with the subject. Japanese, like many languages with SOV word order, inflects verbs for tense/mood/aspect as well as other categories such as negation, but shows absolutely no agreement with the subject - it is a strictly dependent-marking language. On the other hand, Basque, Georgian, and some other languages, have polypersonal agreement: the verb agrees with the subject, the direct object, and even the secondary object if present, a greater degree of head-marking than is found in most Europeanlanguages.

### Verb types

Verbs vary by type, and each type is determined by the kinds of words that follow it and the relationship those words have with the verb itself. There are six types: intransitive, transitive, infinitives, to-be verbs, and two-place transitive (Vg- verb give), and two-place trDoing Grammar.

**Intransitive verbs**

An intransitive verb is one that does not have a direct object. Intransitive verbs may be followed by an adverb (a word that addresses how, where, when, and how often) or end a sentence. For example: "The woman spoke softly." "The athlete ran faster than the official." "The boy wept."

**Linking verbs**

A linking verb cannot be followed by an adverb or end a sentence but instead must be followed by a noun or adjective, whether in a single word or phrase. Common linking verbs include seem, become, appear, look, and remain. For example: "His mother lookedworried." "Josh remained a reliable friend." Therefore, linking verbs 'link' the adjective or noun to the subject.

Adjectives that come after linking verbs are predicate adjectives, and nouns that come after linking verbs are predicate nouns.

**Transitive verbs**

A transitive verb is followed by a noun or noun phrase. These noun phrases are not called predicate nouns but are instead called direct objects because they refer to the object that is being acted upon. For example: "My friend read the newspaper." "The teenagerearned a speeding ticket."

A way to identify a transitive verb is to invert the sentence, making it passive. For example: "The newspaper was read by my friend." "A speeding ticket was earned by the teenager."

Two-place transitive: Vg verbs

Vg verbs (named after the verb give) precede either two noun phrases or a noun phrase and then a prepositional phrase often led byto or for. For example: "The players gave their teammates high fives." "The players gave high fives to their teammates."

When two noun phrases follow a transitive verb, the first is an indirect object, that which is receiving something, and the second is a direct object, that being acted upon. Indirect objects can be noun phrases or prepositional phrases.

**Transitive Verbs: Vc verbs**

Vc verbs (named after the verb consider) are followed by a noun phrase that serves as a direct object and then a second noun phrase, adjective, or infinitive phrase. The second element (noun phrase, adjective, or infinitive) is called a complement, which completes a clause that would not otherwise have the same meaning. For example: "The young couple considers the neighbors wealthy people." "Some students perceive adults quite inaccurately." "Sarah deemed her project to be the hardest she has ever completed."To be verbs

The verb be is manifested in eight forms: be, is, am, are, was, were, been, and being. These verbs precede nouns or adjectives in a sentence, which become predicate nouns and predicate adjectives similar to those that function with a linking verb. They can also be followed by an adverb of place, which is sometimes referred to as a predicate adverb. For example: "Her daughter was a writing tutor." "The singers were very nervous." "My house is down the street."

**Valency**

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its valency or valence. Verbs can be classified according to their valency:

- Avalent (valency = 0): the verb has neither a subject nor an object. Zero valency does not occur in English; in some languages such as Mandarin Chinese, weather verbs like snow(s) take no subject or object.
- Intransitive (valency = 1, monovalent): the verb only has a subject. For example: "he runs", "it falls".
- Transitive (valency = 2, divalent): the verb has a subject and a direct object. For example: "she eats fish", "we hunt nothing".
- Ditransitive (valency = 3, trivalent): the verb has a subject, a direct object, and an indirect object. For example: "He gives her a flower" or "She gave the watch to John".

A few English verbs, particularly those concerned with financial transactions, take four arguments, as in "Pat1 sold Chris a lawnmower for $20 " or "Chris paid Pat $20 for a lawnmower".

Weather verbs are often impersonal (subjectless, or avalent) in null-subject languages like Spanish, where the verb llueve means "It rains". In English, they require a dummy pronoun, and therefore formally have a valency of 1

Intransitive and transitive verbs are the most common, but the impersonal and objective verbs are somewhat different from the norm. In the objective the verb takes an object but no subject; the nonreferent subject in some uses may be marked in the verb by an incorporated dummy pronoun similar to that used with the English weather verbs. Impersonal verbs in null subject languages take neither subject nor object, as is true of other verbs, but again the verb may show incorporated dummy pronouns despite the lack of subject and object phrases.

English verbs are often flexible with regard to valency. A transitive verb can often drop its object and become intransitive; or an intransitive verb can take an object and become transitive. For example, the verb move has no grammatical object in he moves(though in this case, the subject

itself may be an implied object, also expressible explicitly as in he moves himself); but in he moves the car, the subject and object are distinct and the verb has a different valency.

In many languages other than English, such valency changes are not possible; the verb must instead be inflected in order to change the valency.

**Tense, aspect, and modality**

Depending on the language, verbs may express grammatical tense, aspect, or modality. Grammatical tense is the use of auxiliary verbs or inflections to convey whether the action or state is before, simultaneous with, or after some reference point. The reference point could be the time of utterance, in which case the verb expresses absolute tense, or it could be a past, present, or future time of reference previously established in the sentence, in which case the verb expresses relative tense.

Aspect expresses how the action or state occurs through time. Important examples include:

- perfective aspect, in which the action is viewed in its entirety through completion (as in "I saw the car")
- imperfective aspect, in which the action is viewed as ongoing; in some languages a verb could express imperfective aspect more narrowly as:
- habitual aspect, in which the action occurs repeatedly (as in "I used to go there every day"), or
- continuous aspect, in which the action occurs without pause; continuous aspect can be further subdivided into
- stative aspect, in which the situation is a fixed, unevolving state (as in "I know French"), and
- progressive aspect, in which the situation continuously evolves (as in "I am running")
- perfect, which combines elements of both aspect and tense, and in which both a prior event and the state resulting from it are expressed (as in "I have studied well")

Aspect can either be lexical, in which case the aspect is embedded in the verb's meaning (as in "the sun shines", where "shines" is lexically stative); or it can be grammatically expressed, as in "I am running".

Modality[7] expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action or state given by the verb, especially with regard to degree of necessity, obligation, or permission ("You must go", "You

should go", "You may go"), determination or willingness ("I will do this no matter what"), degree of probability ("It must be raining by now", "It may be raining", "It might be raining"), or ability ("I can speak French"). All languages can express modality withadverbs, but some also use verbal forms as in the given examples. If the verbal expression of modality involves the use of an auxiliary verb, that auxiliary is called a modal verb. If the verbal expression of modality involves inflection, we have the special case of mood; moods include the indicative (as in "I am there"), the subjunctive (as in "I wish I were there"), and the imperative ("Be there!").

Voice

The voice of a verb expresses whether the subject of the verb is performing the action of the verb or whether the action is being performed on the subject. The two most common voices are the active voice (as in "I saw the car") and the passive voice (as in "The car was seen by me" or simply "The car was seen").

Most languages have a number of verbal nouns that describe the action of the verb.

In the Indo-European languages, verbal adjectives are generally called participles. English has an active participle, also called a present participle; and a passive participle, also called a past participle. The active participle of break is breaking, and the passive participle is broken. Other languages have attributive verb forms with tense and aspect. This is especially common among verb-final languages, where attributive verb phrases act as relative clauses.

**Intransitive verb**

In grammar, an intransitive verb is a verb that has no direct object.This is distinct from a transitive verb, which takes one or more objects. The verb property is called transitivity.

Examples of intransitive verbs include to age, to die, and to sleep. Transitive verbs includeto give.

**Valency-changing operations**

The valency of a verb is related to transitivity. Where the transitivity of a verb only considers the objects, the valency of a verb considers all the arguments the verb takes, including both the subject of the verb and all of the objects (of which there are none for an intransitive verb).

It is possible to change the transitivity of a verb, and in so doing to change the valency.

In languages that have a passive voice, a transitive verb in the active voice becomes intransitive in the passive voice. For example, consider the following sentence:

David hugged Mary.

In this sentence, "hugged" is a transitive verb taking "Mary" as its object. The sentence can be made passive with the direct object "Mary" as the grammatical subject as follows:

Mary was hugged.

This shift is called promotion of the object.

The passive-voice construction cannot take an object. The passivized sentence could be continued with the agent:

**Mary was hugged by David.**

It cannot be continued with a direct object to be taken by "was hugged." For example, it would be ungrammatical to write "Mary was hugged her daughter" in order to show that Mary and her daughter shared a hug.

Intransitive verbs can be made passive in some languages. In English, intransitive verbs can be used in the passive voice when a prepositional phrase is included, as in, "The houses were lived in by millions of people."

Some languages, such as Dutch, have an impersonal passive voice that allows an intransitive verb which does not have a prepositional phrase to be made passive. In German, a sentence such as "The children sleep" can be made passive toremove

the subject and will become "It is slept". However, no addition like "...by the children" is possible in such cases.

In languages with ergative–absolutive alignment, the passive voice (where the object of a transitive verb becomes the subject of an intransitive verb) does not make sense, because the noun associated with the intransitive verb is marked as the object, not as the subject. Instead, these often have an antipassive voice. In this context, the subject of a transitive verb is promoted to the "object" of the corresponding intransitive verb. In the context of a nominative–accusative language like English, this promotion is nonsensical because intransitive verbs don't take objects, they take subjects, and so the subject of a transitive verb ("I" in I hug him) is also the subject of the intransitive passive construction (I was hugged by him). But in an ergative–absolutive language like Dyirbal, "I" in the transitive I hug him would take the ergative case, but the "I" in I was hugged would take the absolutive, and so by analogy the antipassive construction more closely resembles *was hugged me. Thus in this example, the ergative is promoted to the absolutive, and the agent (i.e. him), which was formerly marked by the absolutive, is deleted to form the antipassive voice (or is marked in a different way, in the same way that in the English passive voice can still be specified as the agent of the action using by him in I was hugged by him—for example, Dyirbal puts the agent in the dative case, and Basque retains the agent in the absolutive).

**Ambitransitivity**

In many languages, there are "ambitransitive" verbs, which can be either transitive or intransitive. For example, English play is ambitransitive (both intransitive and transitive), since it is grammatical to say His son plays, and it is also grammatical to say His son plays guitar. English is rather flexible with regards to verb valency, and so it has a high number of ambitransitive verbs; other languages are more rigid and require explicit valency changing operations (voice, causative morphology, etc.) to transform a verb from intransitive to transitive or vice versa.

In some ambitransitive verbs, called ergative verbs, the alignment of the syntactic arguments to the semantic roles is exchanged. An example of this is the verb break in English.

(1) He broke the cup.

(2) The cup broke.

In (1), the verb is transitive, and the subject is the agent of the action, i.e. the performer of the action of breaking the cup. In (2), the verb is intransitive and the subject is the patient of the action, i.e. it is the thing affected by the action, not the one that performs it. In fact, the patient is the same in both sentences, and sentence (2) is an example of implicit middle voice. This has also been termed an anticausative.

Other alternating intransitive verbs in English are change and sink.

In the Romance languages, these verbs are often called pseudo-reflexive, because they are signaled in the same way as reflexive verbs, using the clitic particle se. Compare the following (in Spanish):

(3a) La taza se rompió. ("The cup broke.")

(3b) El barco se hundió. ("The boat sank.")

(4a) Ella se miró en el espejo. ("She looked at herself in the mirror.")

(4b) El gato se lava. ("The cat washes itself.")

Sentences (3a) and (3b) show Romance pseudo-reflexive phrases, corresponding to English alternating intransitives. As in The cup broke, they are inherently without an agent; their deep structure does not and can not contain one. The action is not reflexive (as in (4a) and (4b)) because it is not performed by the subject; it just happens to it. Therefore, this is not the same as passive voice, where an intransitive verb phrase appears, but there is an implicit agent (which can be made explicit using a complement phrase):

(5) The cup was broken (by the child).

(6) El barco fue hundido (por piratas). ("The boat was sunk (by pirates).")

Other ambitransitive verbs (like eat) are not of the alternating type; the subject is always the agent of the action, and the object is simply optional. A few verbs are of both types at once, like read: compare I read, I read a magazine, and this magazine reads easily.

Some languages like Japanese have different forms of certain verbs to show transitivity. For example, there are two forms of the verb "to start":

(7) 会議が始まる。 (Kaigi ga hajimaru. "The meeting starts.")

(8) 会長が会議を始める。 (Kaichō ga kaigi o hajimeru. "The president starts the meeting.")

In Japanese, the form of the verb indicates the number of arguments the sentence needs to have.

Unaccusative and unergative verbs

Especially in some languages, it makes sense to classify intransitive verbs as:

- unaccusative when the subject is not an agent; that is, it does not actively initiate the action of the verb (e.g. "die", "fall").
- unergative when they have an agent subject (e.g. "run", "talk", "resign").

  This distinction may in some cases be reflected in the grammar, where for instance different auxiliary verbs may be used for the two categories.

**Cognate objects**

In many languages, including English, some or all intransitive verbs can take cognate objects—objects formed from the same roots as the verbs themselves; for example, the verb sleep is ordinarily intransitive, but one can say, "He slept a troubled sleep", meaning roughly "He slept, and his sleep was troubled."

**Transitive verb**

A transitive verb is a verb that requires one or more objects in a sentence. The term is used to contrast with intransitive verbs, which do not have objects in a sentence.

While all verbs that take at least one object are considered transitive, verbs can be further classified by the number of objects they take. Verbs that require exactly one object are called monotransitive. Verbs that are able to take two objects, a direct object and an indirect object, are called ditransitive. An example in English is the verb to give. There are also a few verbs, like "to trade" in the English language, that may be called "tritransitive" because they take three objects.

In contrast to transitive verbs, some verbs take zero objects. Verbs that do not require an object are called intransitive; for example, consider the verb to die.

Verbs that can be used in an intransitive or transitive way are called ambitransitive. In English, an example is the verb to eat, since the sentences You eat (with an intransitive form) and You eat apples (a transitive form that has apples as the object) are both grammatically correct.

The valency of a verb is a related concept. The valency of a verb considers all the arguments the verb takes, including both the subject of the verb and all of the objects. In contrast to valency, the transitivity of a verb only considers the objects.

# CHAPTER 5

## Pronoun

In linguistics and grammar, a pronoun is a word or form that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase. It is a particular case of a pro-form.

Pronouns have traditionally been regarded as one of the parts of speech, although many modern theorists would not regard them as a single distinct word class, because of the variety of functions performed by words which are classed as pronouns Common types include the personal pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and indefinite pronouns.

The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun is dependent on another referential element. This applies particularly to the (third-person) personal pronouns. The referent of the pronoun is often the same as that of a preceding (or sometimes following) noun phrase, called the antecedent of the pronoun. For example, in the sentenceThat poor man looks as if he needs a new coat, the antecedent of the pronoun he is the noun phrase that poor man. (Pronouns used without antecedents are sometimes calledunprecursed pronouns.) Another type of antecedent is that found with relative pronouns, as inthe woman who looked at you, where the woman is the antecedent of the relative pronoun who.

## Kinds of pronouns

We can identify different sub-classes of pronouns:

- Personal pronouns • are the central class of pronouns and denote an entity of a specificgrammatical person: first person (as in the case of I, me, we, etc.), second person (as in the case of you), or third person (he,she, they, etc.)
- Subject pronouns are used when the person or thing is the subject of the sentence or clause. English example: I like to eat chips, but she does not.
- Second person formal and informal pronouns (T-V distinction). For example, vous and tu in French. There is no distinction in modern English though Elizabethan English marked the distinction with "thou" (singular informal) and "you" (plural or singular formal).
- Inclusive and exclusive "we" pronouns indicate whether the audience is included. There is no distinction in English.
- Intensive pronouns, also known as emphatic pronouns, re-emphasize a noun or pronoun that has already been mentioned. English uses the same forms as the reflexive pronouns; for example: I did it myself (contrast reflexive use, I did it to myself).

- Object pronouns are used when the person or thing is the object of the sentence or clause. English example: John likes mebut not her.
- Direct and indirect object pronouns. English uses the same oblique form for both; for example: Mary loves him (direct object); Mary sent him a letter (indirect object).
- Reflexive pronouns are used when a person or thing acts on itself. English example: John cut himself.
- Reciprocal pronouns refer to a reciprocal relationship. English example: They do not like each other.
- Prepositional pronouns come after a preposition. No distinct forms exist in English; for example: Anna and Maria looked athim.
- Disjunctive pronouns are used in isolation or in certain other special grammatical contexts. No distinct forms exist in English; for example: Who does this belong to? Me.
- Dummy pronouns are used when grammatical rules require a noun (or pronoun), but none is semantically required. English example: It is raining.
- Weak pronouns.
- Possessive pronouns are used to indicate possession or ownership.
- In a strict sense, the possessive pronouns are only those that act syntactically as nouns. English example: Those clothes are mine.
- Often, though, the term "possessive pronoun" is also applied to the so-called possessive determiners (or possessive adjectives). For example, in English: I lost my wallet. They are not strictly speaking pronouns because they do not substitute for a noun or noun phrase, and as such, some grammarians classify these terms in a separate lexical category called determiners (they have a syntactic role close to that of adjectives, always qualifying a noun).
- Demonstrative pronouns distinguish the particular objects or people that are referred to from other possible candidates. English example: I'll take these.
- Indefinite pronouns refer to general categories of people or things. English example: Anyone can do that.
- Distributive pronouns are used to refer to members of a group separately rather than collectively. English example: To eachhis own.
- Negative pronouns indicate the non-existence of people or things. English example: Nobody thinks that.

- Relative pronouns refer back to people or things previously mentioned. English example: People who smoke should quit now.
- Indefinite relative pronouns have some of the properties of both relative pronouns and indefinite pronouns. They have a sense of "referring back", but the person or thing to which they refer has not previously been explicitly named. English example: I know what I like.
- Interrogative pronouns ask which person or thing is meant. English example: Who did that?
- In many languages (e.g., Czech, English, French, Interlingua, and Russian), the sets of relative and interrogative pronouns are nearly identical. Compare English: Who is that? (interrogative) to I know who that is.

**Pronouns and determiners**

Pronouns and determiners are closely related, and some linguists think pronouns are actually determiners without a noun or a noun phrase.

The following chart shows their relationships in English.

| Pronoun | Determiner | |
|---|---|---|
| Personal (1st/2nd) | we | we Scotsmen |
| Possessive | ours | our freedom |
| Demonstrative | this | this gentleman |
| Indefinite | some | some quim |
| Interrogative | who | which option |

**The views of different schools**

Pronouns have been classified as one of the parts of speech since at least the 2nd century BC when they were included in the Greek treatise Art of Grammar. Objections to this approach have appeared among grammatical theories in the 20th century. Their grammatical heterogeneity, many-sided pronouns were underlined, which were classified as follows:[clarification needed]

- "indicative words" (Karl Brugmann, Karl Bühler, Uriel Weinreich);
- "indexes" or "indicators" (Charles Sanders Peirce, William Edward Collinson);

- "words with changeable signification" (Adolf Noreen);
- "moveable identifiers" (Otto Jespersen, Roman Jakobson);
- "updating" or "means of transferring from language to speech" (Charles Bally, Émile Benveniste);
- "words of subjective-objective lexical meaning" (Alexey Peshkovsky);
- "word remnants" or "substitutes" (Lev Shcherba, Leonard Bloomfield, Zellig Harris);
- "determiners whose NP complements have been deleted" (Paul Postal);
- "represents" (Ferdinand Brunot);
- "survivals of a special part of speech" (Viktor Vinogradov).

**Pronominals**

A pronominal is a phrase that acts as a pronoun. For example, in I want that kind, the phrase that kind stands for a noun phrasethat can be deduced from context, and may thus be called a pronominal.

Personal pronoun

**Types and forms of personal pronouns**

Person and number

Languages typically have personal pronouns for each of the three grammatical persons:

- first-person pronouns normally refer to the speaker, in the case of the singular (as the English I), or to the speaker and others, in the case of the plural (as the English we).
- second-person pronouns normally refer to the person or persons being addressed (as the English you); in the plural they may also refer to the person or persons being addressed together with third parties.
- third-person pronouns normally refer to third parties other than the speaker or the person being addressed (as the English he,she, it, they).

As noted above, within each person there are often different forms for different grammatical numbers, especially singular and plural. Languages which have other numbers, such as dual (e.g. Slovene), may also have distinct pronouns for these.

Some languages distinguish between inclusive and exclusive first-person plural pronouns – those that do and do not include their audience. For example, Tok Pisin has seven first-person pronouns according to number (singular, dual, trial, plural) and clusivity, such as mitripela ("they two and I") and yumitripela ("you two and I"). This is common in languages spoken in traditional societies, such as Quechua and Melanesian languages; it may be related to the existence of moieties in the culture.

Some languages do not have third-person personal pronouns, instead using demonstratives (e.g. Macedonian) or full noun phrases.Latin used demonstratives rather than third-person pronouns (in fact the third-person pronouns in the Romance languages are descended from the Latin demonstratives).

In some cases personal pronouns can be used in place of indefinite pronouns, referring to someone unspecified or to people generally. In English and other languages the second-person pronoun can be used in this way: instead of the formal one should hold one's oar in both hands (using the indefinite pronoun one), it is more common to say you should hold your oar in both hands.

**Table of indefinite pronouns**

**Relative pronoun**

A relative pronoun is a pronoun used to mark a relative clause, and having the same referent as the element of the main clause (usually a noun or noun phrase) which the relative clause modifies.

An example is the English word that in the sentence "This is the house that Jack built." Here that Jack built is a relative clause modifying the noun house. The relative pronoun that marks the relative clause and refers (within the relative clause) to the house in the main clause. It can be considered to provide a link between the two sentences "This is a house" and "Jack built the house", where the house referred to in each case is the same. Not all instances of the word that are of relative pronouns.

In providing a link between a subordinate clause and a main clause, a relative pronoun is similar in function to a subordinating conjunction. Unlike a conjunction, however, a relative pronoun does not simply mark the subordinate (relative) clause, but also plays the role of a noun within that clause. For example, in the relative clause "that Jack built" given above, the pronoun "that" functions as the object of the verb "built". Compare this with "Jack built the house after he married", where the conjunction after marks the subordinate clause after he married, but does not play the role of any noun within that clause.

# CHAPTER 6

## Adjective

In grammar, an adjective is a 'describing' word; the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, giving more information about the object signified.

Adjectives are one of the traditional eight English parts of speech, althoughlinguists today distinguish adjectives from words such as determiners that formerly were considered to be adjectives. In this paragraph, "traditional" is an adjective, and in the preceding paragraph, "main" is.

## Distribution

Most, but not all, languages have adjectives. Those that do not, typically use words of another part of speech, often verbs, to serve the same semantic function; an example, such a language might have a verb that means "to be big", and would use as attributive verb construction analogous to "big-being house" to express what English expresses as "big house". Even in languages that do have adjectives, one language's adjective might not be another's; for example, whereas English uses "to be hungry" (hungry being an adjective), Dutch and French use "honger hebben" and "avoir faim," respectively (literally "to have hunger", hunger being a noun), and whereas Hebrew uses the adjective "זקוק" (zaqūq, roughly "in need of"), English uses the verb "to need".

Adjectives form an open class of words in most languages that have them; that is, it is relatively common for new adjectives to be formed via such processes as derivation. Bantu languages are well known for having only a small closed class of adjectives, however, and new adjectives are not easily derived. Similarly, nativeJapanese adjectives (i-adjectives) are a closed class (as are native verbs), although nouns (which are open class) may be used in thegenitive and there is the separate class of adjectival nouns (na-adjectives), which is also open, and functions similarly to noun adjuncts in English.

## Adjectives and adverbs

Many languages, including English, distinguish between adjectives, which qualify nouns and pronouns, and adverbs, which modifyverbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Not all languages have exactly this distinction and many languages, including English, have words that can function as both. For example, in English fast is an adjective in "a fast car" (where it qualifies the noun car), but an adverb in "he drove fast" (where it modifies the verb drove).

In Dutch and German, adjectives and adverbs are usually identical in form and many grammarians do not make the distinction, but patterns of inflection can suggest a difference:

Eine kluge neue Idee.

A clever new idea.

Eine klug ausgereifte Idee.

A cleverly developed idea.

Whether these are distinct parts of speech or distinct usages of the same part of speech is a question of analysis. It is worth noting that while German linguistic terminology distinguishes adverbiale from adjektivische Formen, school German refers to both asEigenschaftswörter.

**Determiners**

Linguists today distinguish determiners from adjectives, considering them to be two separate parts of speech (or lexical categories), but formerly determiners were considered to be adjectives in some of their uses. In English dictionaries, which typically still do not treat determiners as their own part of speech, determiners are often recognizable by being listed both as adjectives and as pronouns. Determiners are words that are neither nouns nor pronouns, yet reference a thing already in context. Determiners generally do this by indicating definiteness (as in a vs. the), quantity (as in one vs. some vs. many), or another such property.

**Types of use**

A given occurrence of an adjective can generally be classified into one of four kinds of uses:

1. Attributive adjectives are part of the noun phrase headed by the noun they modify; for example, happy is an attributive adjective in "happy people". In some languages, attributive adjectives precede their nouns; in others, they follow their nouns; and in yet others, it depends on the adjective, or on the exact relationship of the adjective to the noun. In English, attributive adjectives usually precede their nouns in simple phrases, but often follow their nouns when the adjective is modified or qualified by a phrase acting as an adverb. For example: "I saw three happy kids", and "I saw three kids happy enough to jump up and down with glee." See also Postpositive adjective.

2. Predicative adjectives are linked via a copula or other linking mechanism to the noun or pronoun they modify; for example,happy is a predicate adjective in "they are happy" and in "that made me happy." (See also: Predicative expression, Subject complement.)

3. Absolute adjectives do not belong to a larger construction (aside from a larger adjective phrase), and typically modify either the subject of a sentence or whatever noun or pronoun they are closest to; for example, happy is an absolute adjective in "The boy, happy with his lollipop, did not look where he was going."

4. Nominal adjectives act almost as nouns. One way this can happen is if a noun is elided and an attributive adjective is left behind. In the sentence, "I read two books to them; he preferred the sad book, but she preferred the happy", happy is a nominal adjective, short for "happy one" or "happy book". Another way this can happen is in phrases like "out with the old, in with the new", where "the old" means, "that which is old" or "all that is old", and similarly with "the new". In such cases, the adjective functions either as a mass noun (as in the preceding example) or as a plural count noun, as in "The meek shall inherit the Earth", where "the meek" means "those who are meek" or "all who are meek".

**Adjectival phrases**

An adjective acts as the head of an adjectival phrase. In the simplest case, an adjectival phrase consists solely of the adjective; more complex adjectival phrases may contain one or more adverbs modifying the adjective ("very strong"), or one or morecomplements (such as "worth several dollars", "full of toys", or "eager to please"). In English, attributive adjectival phrases that include complements typically follow their subject ("an evildoer devoid of redeeming qualities").

**Other noun modifiers**

In many languages, including English, it is possible for nouns to modify other nouns. Unlike adjectives, nouns acting as modifiers (called attributive nouns or noun adjuncts) are not predicative; a beautiful park is beautiful, but a car park is not "car". In plain English, the modifier often indicates origin ("Virginia reel"), purpose ("work clothes"), or semantic patient ("man eater"), however, it may generally indicate almost any semantic relationship. It is also common for adjectives to be derived from nouns, as in boyish,birdlike, behavioral, famous, manly, angelic, and so on.

Many languages have special verbal forms called participles that can act as noun modifiers. In many languages, including English, participles are historically adjectives, and have retained most of their original function as such. English examples of this includerelieved (the past participle of the verb relieve, used as an adjective in sentences such as "I am so relieved to see you"), spoken (as in "the spoken word"), and going (the present participle of the verb go, used as an adjective in sentences such as "Ten dollars per hour is the going rate").

Other constructs that often modify nouns include prepositional phrases (as in "a rebel without a cause"), relative clauses (as in "the man who wasn't there"), other adjective clauses (as in "the bookstore where he worked"), and infinitive phrases (as in "a cake to die for").

In relation, many nouns take complements such as content clauses (as in "the idea that I would do that"); these are not commonly considered modifiers, however.

**Adjective order**

In many languages, attributive adjectives usually occur in a specific order. In general, the adjective order in English is:

1. Determiners — articles, adverbs, and other limiters.
2. Observation — postdeterminers and limiter adjectives (e.g., a real hero, a perfect idiot) and adjectives subject to subjective measure (e.g., beautiful, interesting), or objects with a value (e.g., best, cheapest, costly)
3. Size and Shape — adjectives subject to objective measure (e.g., wealthy, large, round), and physical properties such as speed.
4. Age — adjectives denoting age (e.g., young, old, new, ancient, six-year-old).
5. Color — adjectives denoting color (e.g., red, black, pale).
6. Origin — denominal adjectives denoting source of noun (e.g., French, American, Canadian).
7. Material — denominal adjectives denoting what something is made of (e.g., woolen, metallic, wooden).
8. Qualifier — final limiter, often regarded as part of the noun (e.g., rocking chair, hunting cabin, passenger car, book cover).

So, in English, adjectives pertaining to size precede adjectives pertaining to age ("little old", not "old little"), which in turn generally precede adjectives pertaining to color ("old white", not "white old"). So, we would say "One (quantity) nice (opinion) little (size) round (shape) old (age) white (color) brick (material) house."

This order may be more rigid in some languages than others; in some, like Spanish, it may only be a default (unmarked) word order, with other orders being permissible.

Due partially to borrowings from French, English has some adjectives that follow the noun as postmodifiers, called postpositive adjectives, such as time immemorial and attorney general. Adjectives may even change meaning depending on whether they precede or follow, as in proper: They live in a proper town (a real town, not a village) vs. They live in the town proper (in the town itself, not in the suburbs). All adjectives can follow nouns in certain constructions, such as tell me something new.

Comparison of adjectives

In many languages, some adjectives are comparable. For example, a person may be "polite", but another person may be "more polite", and a third person may be the "most polite" of the three.

The word "more" here modifies the adjective "polite" to indicate a comparison is being made, and "most" modifies the adjective to indicate an absolute comparison (a superlative).

Among languages that allow adjectives to be compared, different means are used to indicate the comparison. Many languages do not distinguish comparative from superlative forms.

In English, there are three different means to indicate comparison: most simple adjectives take the suffixes "-er" and "-est", as

"big", "bigger", "biggest";

a very few adjectives are irregular:

"good", "better", "best",

"bad", "worse", "worst",

"old", "elder", "eldest" (in certain contexts only; the adjective is usually regular)

"far", "farther/further", "farthest/furthest"

"many", "more", "most" (usually regarded as an adverb or determiner)

"little", "less", "least";

all others are compared by means of the words "more" and "most". There is no simple rule to decide which means is correct for any given adjective, however. The general tendency is for simpler adjectives, and those from Anglo-Saxon to take the suffixes, while longer adjectives and those from French, Latin, Greek do not—but sometimes sound of the word is the deciding factor.

Many adjectives do not naturally lend themselves to comparison. For example, some English speakers would argue that it does not make sense to say that one thing is "more ultimate" than another, or that something is "most ultimate", since the word "ultimate" is already absolute in its semantics. Such adjectives are called non-comparable. Nevertheless, native speakers will frequently play with the raised forms of adjectives of this sort. Although "pregnant" is

logically non-comparable (either one is pregnant or not), it is not uncommon to hear a sentence like "She looks more and more pregnant each day", where a transference has taken place: grammatically the adjective is comparative but in fact it is the appearance that is being compared. Likewise "extinct" and "equal" appear to be non-comparable, but one might say that a language about which nothing is known is "more extinct" than a well-documented language with surviving literature but no speakers, while George Orwell wrote "All animals are equal, but some are more equal than others". These cases may be viewed as implying that the base form of the adjective is not as absolute in its semantics as is usually thought.

Comparative and superlative forms are also occasionally used for other purposes than comparison. In English comparatives can be used to suggest that a statement is only tentative or tendential: one might say "John is more the shy-and-retiring type," where the comparative "more" is not really comparing him with other people or with other impressions of him, but rather, could be substituting for "on the whole". In Italian, superlatives are frequently used to put strong emphasis on an adjective: Bellissimo means "most beautiful", but is in fact more commonly heard in the sense "extremely beautiful".

Restrictiveness

Attributive adjectives, and other noun modifiers, may be used either restrictively (helping to identify the noun's referent, hence "restricting" its reference) or non-restrictively (helping to describe an already-identified noun). For example:

"He was a lazy sort, who would avoid a difficult task and fill his working hours with easy ones."

"difficult" is restrictive - it tells us which tasks he avoids, distinguishing these from the easy ones: "Only those tasks that are difficult".

"She had the job of sorting out the mess left by her predecessor, and she performed this difficult task with great acumen."

"difficult" is non-restrictive - we already know which task it was, but the adjective describes it more fully: "The aforementioned task, which (by the way) is difficult"

In some languages, such as Spanish, restrictiveness is consistently marked; for example, in Spanish la tarea difícil means "the difficult task" in the sense of "the task that is difficult" (restrictive), whereas la difícil tarea means "the difficult task" in the sense of "the task, which is difficult" (non-restrictive). In English, restrictiveness is not marked on adjectives, but is marked on relative clauses(the difference between "the man who recognized me was there" and "the man, who recognized me, was there" being one of restrictiveness).Agreement

# CHAPTER 7

## Adverb

An adverb is a word that changes or qualifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, sentence or any other word or phrase, except that it does not include theadjectives and determiners that directly modify nouns. Adverbs are traditionally regarded as one of the parts of speech, although the wide variety of the functions performed by words classed as adverbs means that it is hard to treat them as a single uniform category.

Adverbs typically answer questions such as how?, in what way?, when?, where?, and to what extent?. This function is called the adverbial function, and is realized not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses.

## Uses

Adverbs are words like slowly, now, soon, and suddenly. An adverb usually modifies a verb or a verb phrase. It provides information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. Examples:

1) She was walking slowly (Slowly is the adverb.)

2) The kids are skating together. (Here, the adverb together provides information about how the kids are skating.)

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

1) You are quite right. (Here, the adverb quite modifies the adjective right.)

2) She spoke very loudly. (Here, the adverb very modifies another adverb – loudly.)

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question how?) are often formed by adding -ly to adjectives. Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for example, uses the suffix -ment), or else use the same form for both adjectives and adverbs. Some examples are listed under Adverbs in specific languages below.

Where the meaning permits, adverbs may undergo comparison, taking comparative and superlativeforms. In English this is usually done by adding more and most before the adverb (more slowly, most slowly), although there are a few adverbs that take inflected forms, such as well, for which better andbest are used.

For more information about the use of adverbs in English, see English grammar: Adverbs. For use in other languages, see Adverbs in specific languages below, and the articles on individual languages and their grammars.

**Adverbs as a "catch-all" category**

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar and are still included as a part of speech in grammar taught in schools and used in dictionaries. However, modern grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together as adverbs serve a number of different functions. Some would go so far as to call adverbs a "catch-all" category that includes all words that do not belong to one of the other parts of speech.

A more logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, the only type of word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence is a noun:

The_____is red. (For example, "The hat is red".)

When this approach is taken, it is seen that adverbs fall into a number of different categories. For example, some adverbs can be used to modify an entire sentence, whereas others cannot. Even when a sentential adverb has other functions, the meaning is often not the same. For example, in the sentences She gave birth naturally and Naturally, she gave birth, the word naturally has different meanings. Naturally as a sentential adverb means something like "of course" and as a verb-modifying adverb means "in a natural manner". This "naturally" distinction demonstrates that the class of sentential adverbs is a closed class (there is resistance to adding new words to the class), whereas the class of adverbs that modify verbs isn't.

Words like very and particularly afford another useful example. We can say Perry is very fast, but not Perry very won the race. These words can modify adjectives but not verbs. On the other hand, there are words like here and there that cannot modify adjectives. We can say The sock looks good there but not It is a there beautiful sock. The fact that many adverbs can be used in more than one of these functions can confuse this issue, and it may seem like splitting hairs to say that a single adverb is really two or more words that serve different functions. However, this distinction can be useful, especially considering adverbs like naturally that have different meanings in their different functions. Huddleston distinguishes between a word and a lexicogrammatical-word.[1]

Not is an interesting case. Grammarians have a difficult time categorizing it, and it probably belongs in its own class.

**Adverbs in specific languages**

Listed below are some of the principles for formation and use of adverbs in certain languages. For more information, see the articles on individual languages and their grammars.

- In English adverbs can be formed from most adjectives with the ending -ly, and there are also many independent adverbs. For detailed information, see English grammar: Adverbs.

- In Dutch adverbs have the basic form of their corresponding adjectives and are not inflected (except for comparison in which case they are inflected like adjectives, too).

- In German the term Adverb is differently defined than in the English language. German adverbs form a group of not inflectable words (except for comparison in which in rare cases some are inflected like adjectives, too). An English adverb, which is derived from an adjective, is arranged in the German language under the adjectives with adverbial use in the sentence. The others are also called adverbs in the German language.

- In Scandinavian languages, adverbs are typically derived from adjectives by adding the suffix '-t', which makes it identical to the adjective's neuter form. Scandinavian adjectives, like English ones, are inflected in terms of comparison by adding '-ere'/'-are' (comparative) or '-est'/'-ast' (superlative). In inflected forms of adjectives the '-t' is absent. Periphrastic comparison is also possible.

- In Romance languages many adverbs are formed from adjectives (often the feminine form) by adding '-mente' (Portuguese,Spanish, Galician, Italian) or '-ment' (French, Catalan) (from Latin mens, mentis: mind, intelligence, or suffix -mentum, result or way of action). Other adverbs are single forms which are invariable.

- In the Romanian language, the vast majority of adverbs are simply the masculine singular form of the corresponding adjective – one notable exception being bine ("well") / bun ("good"). However, there are some Romanian adverbs that are built from certain masculine singular nouns using the suffix "-ește", such as the following ones: băiețește (boyishly), tinerește (youthfully), bărbătește (manly), frățește (brotherly), etc.

- Interlingua also forms adverbs by adding '-mente' to the adjective. If an adjective ends in c, the adverbial ending is '-amente'. A few short, invariable adverbs, such as ben, "well", and mal, "badly", are available and widely used.

- In Esperanto, adverbs are not formed from adjectives but are made by adding '-e' directly to the word root. Thus, from bon are derived bone, "well", and bona, "good". See also: special Esperanto adverbs.

- In Hungarian adverbs are formed from adjectives of any degree through the suffixes -ul/ül and -an/en depending on the adjective. E.g. szép (beautiful) -> szépen (beautifully) or the comparative szebb (more beautiful) -> szebben (more beautifully)

- Modern Standard Arabic forms adverbs by adding the indefinite accusative ending '-an' to the root. For example, kathiir-, "many", becomes kathiiran "much". However, Arabic often avoids adverbs by using a cognate accusative plus an adjective.

- Austronesian languages generally form comparative adverbs by repeating the root (as in WikiWiki), similarly to the plural noun.

- Japanese forms adverbs from verbal adjectives by adding /ku/ (く) to the stem (e.g. haya- "rapid" hayai "quick/early", hayakatta "was quick", hayaku "quickly") and from nominal adjectives by placing /ni/ (に) after the adjective instead of the copula /na/ (な) or /no/ (の) (e.g. rippa "splendid", rippa ni "splendidly"). These derivations are quite productive but there are a few adjectives from which adverbs may not be derived.

- In Celtic languages, an adverbial form is often made by preceding the adjective with a preposition. This is go in Irish or gu inScottish Gaelic, meaning 'until'. In Cornish, yn is used, meaning 'in'.

- In Portuguese, there is just one suffix used to create adverbs from adjectives "-mente", the same suffix is used in Interlingua, which is equivalent to English's "-ly".

- In Modern Greek, an adverb is most commonly made by adding the endings <-α> and/or <-ως> to the root of an adjective. Often, the adverbs formed from a common root using each of these endings have slightly different meanings. So, <τέλειος> (<téleios>, meaning "perfect" and "complete") yields <τέλεια> (<téleia>, "perfectly") and <τελείως> (<teleíos>, "completely"). Not all adjectives can be transformed into adverbs by using both endings. <Γρήγορος> (<grígoros>, "rapid") becomes <γρήγορα> (<grígora>, "rapidly"), but not normally *<γρηγόρως> (*<grigóros>). When the <-ως> ending is used to transform an adjective whose tonal accent is on the third syllable from the end, such as <επίσημος> (<epísimos>, "official"), the corresponding adjective is accented on the second syllable from the end; compare <επίσημα> (<epísima>) and <επισήμως> (<episímos>), which both mean "officially". There are also other endings with particular and restricted use as <-ί>, <-εί>, <-ιστί>, etc. For example, <ατιμωρητί> (<atimoritί>, "with impunity") and <ασυζητητί> (<asyzititί>, "indisputably"); <αυτολεξεί> (<autolexeί> "word for word") and <αυτοστιγμεί> (<autostigmeί>, "in no time"); <αγγλιστί> [<anglistί> "in English (language)"] and <παπαγαλιστί> (<papagalistί>, "by rote"); etc.

- In Latvian, an adverb is formed from an adjective, by changing the masculine or feminine adjective endings -s and -a to -i. "Labs", meaning "good", becomes "labi" for "well". Latvian adverbs have a particular use in expressions meaning "to speak" or "to understand" a language. Rather than use the noun meaning "Latvian/English/Russian", the adverb formed form these words is used. "Es runāju latviski/angliski/krieviski" means "I speak Latvian/English/Russian", or very literally "I speak Latvianly/Englishly/Russianly". When a noun is required, the expression used means literally "language of the Latvians/English/Russians", "latviešu/angļu/krievu valoda".

- In Ukrainian, and analogously in Russian and some other Slavic languages, most adverbs are formed by removing the adjectival suffices "-ий" "-а" or "-е" from an adjective, and replacing them with the adverbial "-о". For example, "швидкий", "гарна", and "смачне" (fast, nice, tasty) become "швидко", "гарно", and "смачно" (quickly, nicely, tastefully). Another wide group of adverbs are formed by gluing preposition to following oblique case form (now often dialectical or deprecated): з from+рідка the rare→зрідка rarely, на onto+долину bottom→надолину downwards. As well, note that adverbs are mostly placed before the verbs they modify: "Добрий син гарно співає." (A good son sings nicely/well). Although, there is no specific word order in East Slavic languages.

- In Korean, adverbs are formed by replacing 다 of the dictionary form of a verb with 게. So, 쉽다 (easy) becomes 쉽게 (easily).

- In Turkish, the same word usually serves as adjective and adverb: iyi bir kız ("a good girl"), iyi anlamak ("to understand well).

- In Chinese, adverbs end in the word "地（的）", of which the English equivalent is "-ly".

**Adverbial**

In grammar an adverbial is a word (an adverb) or a group of words (an adverbial phrase or an adverbial clause) that modifies or tells us something about the sentence or the verb. The word adverbial is also used as an adjective, meaning "having the same function as an adverb". Look at the examples below:

Danny speaks fluently. (telling us more about the verb)

Lorna ate breakfast yesterday morning

The form of adverbials

In English, adverbials most commonly take the form of adverbs, adverb phrases, temporal noun phrases or prepositional phrases. Many types of adverbials (for instance reason and condition) are often expressed by clauses.

James answered immediately. (adverb)

James answered in English. (prepositional phrase)

James answered this morning. (noun phrase)

James answered in English because he had a foreign visitor. (adverbial clause)

An adverbial is a construction that modifies, or describes, verbs. When an adverbial modifies a verb, it changes the meaning of that verb. Word groups that are also considered to be adverbials can also modify verbs: for example, a prepositional phrase, a noun phrase, a finite clause or a non-finite clause.[1]

In every sentence pattern, the adverbial is a clause element that tells where, when, why, or how. There can be more than one adverbial in a sentence. In addition, the same adverbial can be moved to different positions in a sentence.

One way to analyze sentence structure is to think in terms of form and function. Form refers to a word class—such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and preposition—as well as types of phrases, such as prepositional phrase, nominal clause, and adverbial clause. Function refers to the function of the form in a sentence. For example, the function of a prepositional phrase in a sentence may be adverbial; that is, it modifies a verb.

Types of adverbials that form sentence elements

Adverbials are typically divided into four classes:

adverbial complements (i.e. obligatory adverbial) are adverbials that render a sentence ungrammatical and meaningless if removed.

John put the flowers in a vase.

adjuncts: these are part of the core meaning of the sentence, but if omitted still leave a meaningful sentence.

John and Sophia helped me with my homework.

conjuncts: these link two sentences together.

John helped so I was, therefore, able to do my homework.

disjuncts: these make comments on the meaning of the rest of the sentence.

Surprisingly, he passed all of his exams.

Distinguishing an adverbial from an adjunct

All verb- or sentence-modifying adjuncts are adverbials, but some adverbials are not adjuncts.

- If the removal of an adverbial does not leave a well-formed sentence, then it is not an adjunct
- If the adverbial modifies within a sentence element, and is not a sentence element in its own right, it is not an adjunct.
- If the adverbial is not grammatically tied to the sentence it is not an adjunct, e.g.

  Mr Reninson, however, voted against the proposal. (adverbial conjunct not adjunct)

Other types of adverbials

Directional and locative particles

Prepositions (in, out, etc.) may be used adverbially to indicate direction or location.

- Superman flew in. (directional)
- Are you in? (locative)
- The car drove out. (directional)
- The ball is out. (locative)

**Negators**

In some models of grammar negators such as "not" and "never" are considered adverbs and their function that of negating adverbial.

**Expletives**

Often ignored, expletives may take up many adverbial syntactic functions. Pragmatically and semantically, they often serve asintensifiers, boosting the content of the clause they appear in.

- What the hell are you talking about?
- I didn't bloody well do that!
- You're freaking lying!
- You bloody well know that smoking's not allowed here!

- He got sodding killed.

**Adverbial phrase**

An 'adverbial phrase (AdvP) is a linguistic term for a group of two or more words operating adverbially, when viewed in terms of theirsyntactic function.

Compare the following sentences:

- I'll go to bed soon.
- I'll go to bed in an hour.
- I'll go to bed when I've finished my book.

In the first, soon is an adverb (as distinct from a noun or verb), and it is an adverbial (as distinct from a subject or object). Clearly, in the second sentence, in an hour has the same syntactic function, though it does not contain an adverb; therefore, a prepositional phrase consisting of a preposition and a noun (preceded by its article) can function as an adverbial and is called an adverbial phrase. In the third sentence, we see a whole clause functioning as an adverbial; it is termed an adverbial clause.

Adverb phrases are phrases that do the work of an adverb in a sentence. They, like adverbs, can describe:

1. Time (answers the question 'When?')

   She will be arriving in a short time.

2. Place (answers the question 'Where?')

   He is waiting near the wall.

3. Manner (answers the question 'How?')

   They are discussing the matter in a civilized way.

**Adverbial Phrase Distribution**

Adverbs modify the functional categories that occur in a donut and may also be treated as predicates which are functionally open and require one or more arguments to be satisfied.[1] It has been argued that the distribution of adverbs is largely conditioned by their lexical nature or thematic properties.[1]

## CHAPTER 8

### Preposition and postposition

Prepositions (or more generally adpositions, see below) are a grammatically distinct class of words whose most central members characteristically express spatial or temporal relations (such as the English words in, under, towards, before) or serve to mark various syntactic functions and semantic roles (such as the English words of, for). In that the primary function is relational, a preposition typically combines with another constituent (called its complement) to form a prepositional phrase, relating the complement to the context in which the phrase occurs.

The word preposition comes from Latin, a language in which such a word is usually placed before its complement. (Thus it is pre-positioned.) English is another such language. In many languages (e.g. Urdu, Turkish, Hindi, Korean and Japanese), the words with this grammatical function come after, not before, the complement. Such words are then commonly called postpositions. Similarly, circumpositions consist of two parts that appear on both sides of the complement. The technical term used to refer collectively to prepositions, postpositions, and circumpositions is adposition. Some linguists use the word "preposition" instead of "adposition" for all three cases.

Some examples of English prepositions (marked as bold) as used in phrases are:

- as an adjunct (locative, temporal, etc.) to a {noun} (marked within curly brackets)
- the {weather} in May
- {cheese} from France with live bacteria
- as an adjunct (locative, temporal, etc.) to a {verb}
- {sleep} throughout the winter
- {danced} atop the tables for hours
- as an adjunct (locative, temporal, etc.) to an {adjective}
- {happy} for them
- {sick} until recently

Adpositions perform many of the same functions as case markings, but adpositions are syntactic elements, while case markings aremorphological elements.

**Definitional issues**

There are many different types of adpositions, and some adpositions can also be classified as verbs, nouns, or adjectives. It is thus impossible to provide an absolute definition that picks out all and only the adpositions in every language. The following features, however, are often required of adpositions.

- An adposition prototypically combines syntactically with exactly one complement phrase, most often a noun phrase (or, in a different analysis, a determiner phrase). (In some analyses, an adposition need have no complement. See below.) In English, this is generally a noun (or something functioning as a noun, e.g., a gerund), called the object of the preposition, together with its attendant modifiers.

- An adposition establishes the grammatical relationship that links its complement to another word or phrase in the context. In English, it may also establish a semantic relationship, which may be spatial (in, on, under, ...), temporal (after, during, ...), or logical (via, ...) in nature. The World Atlas of Language Structures treats a word as an adposition if it takes a noun phrase as complement and indicates the grammatical or semantic relationship of that phrase to the verb in the containing clause.[3]

- An adposition determines certain grammatical properties of its complement (e.g. its case). In English, the objects of prepositions are always in the objective case (where such case is available: i.e. pronouns). In Koine Greek, certain prepositions always take their objects in a certain case (e.g., ἐν always takes its object in the dative), and other prepositions may take their object in one of several cases, depending on the meaning of the preposition (e.g., διά takes its object in the genitive or in the accusative, depending on the meaning).

- Adpositions are non-inflecting (or "invariant"); i.e., they do not have paradigms of forms (for different tenses, cases, genders, etc.) in the same way as verbs, adjectives, and nouns in the same language. There are exceptions, though, for example in Celtic languages (see Inflected preposition).

Properties

**The following properties are characteristic of most adpositional systems.**

- Adpositions are among the most frequently occurring words in languages that have them. For example, one frequency ranking for English word forms[4] begins as follows (adpositions in bold):

the, of, and, to, a, in, that, it, is, was, I, for, on, you, …

- The most common adpositions are single, monomorphemic words. According to the ranking cited above, for example, the most common English prepositions are the following:

on, in, to, by, for, with, at, of, from, as, …

- Adpositions form a closed class of lexical items and cannot be productively derived from words of other categories.

Stranding

Preposition stranding is a syntactic construct in which a preposition with an object occurs somewhere other than immediately next to its object. For example: Whom did you give it to? where to refers to whom, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence because it is an interrogative word. The above sentence is much more common and natural than the equivalent sentence without stranding: To whom did you give it? Preposition stranding is most commonly found in English,[5] as well as North Germanic languages such asSwedish. The existence of preposition stranding in German and Dutch is debated. Preposition stranding is also found in languages outside the Germanic family, such as Vata and Gbadi (languages of the Niger–Congo) and the dialects of some North American French speakers.

Stranding and English prescriptivism

Students are commonly taught that prepositions cannot end a sentence, although there is no rule prohibiting that use. Similar rules arose during the rise of classicism, when they were applied to English in imitation of classical languages in which they were found, such as Latin.

Winston Churchill is said to have written, "This is the sort of English up with which I will not put, illustrating the awkwardness that would result from a rule against the use of terminal prepositions. However, the attribution of this quote to Churchill is almost certainly apocryphal.[8] The example is also not a perfect example, because in that sentence, up is a particle of the verb "put", rather than a true preposition. A correct rearrangement would be “This is the sort of English with which I will not put up” (preposition in bold), which still sounds awkward, at least in casual speech.

**Classification**

Adpositions can be organized into subclasses according to various criteria. These can be based on directly observable properties (such as the adposition's form or its position in the sentence) or on less visible properties (such as the adposition's meaning or function in the context at hand).

Simple vs complex

Simple adpositions consist of a single word, while complex adpositions consist of a group of words that act as one unit. Some examples of complex prepositions in English are:

- in spite of, with respect to, except for, by dint of, next to

The boundary between simple and complex adpositions is not clear-cut and for the most part arbitrary. Many simple adpositions are derived from complex forms (e.g. with + in → within, by + side → beside) through grammaticalization. This change takes time, and during the transitional stages the adposition acts in some ways like a single word, and in other ways like a multi-word unit. For example, current German orthographic conventions recognize the indeterminate status of the following adpositions, allowing two spellings:[9]

- anstelle / an Stelle ("instead of"), aufgrund / auf Grund ("because of"), mithilfe / mit Hilfe ("thanks to"), zugunsten / zu Gunsten ("in favor of"), zuungunsten / zu Ungunsten ("to the disadvantage of"), zulasten / zu Lasten ("at the expense of")

The boundary between complex adpositions and free combinations of words is also a fuzzy one. For English, this involves structures of the form "preposition + (article) + noun + preposition". Many sequences in English, such as in front of, that are traditionally regarded as prepositional phrases are not so regarded by linguists. The following characteristics are good indications that a given combination is "frozen" enough to be considered a complex preposition in English:

- It contains a word that cannot be used in any other context: by dint of, in lieu of.
- The first preposition cannot be replaced: with a view to but not *for/without a view to
- It is impossible to insert an article, or to use a different article: on *an/*the account of, for the/*a sake of
- The range of possible adjectives is very limited: in great favor of, but not *in helpful favor of
- The number of the noun cannot be changed: by virtue/*virtues of
- It is impossible to use a possessive determiner: in spite of him, not *in his spite

Complex prepositions develop through the grammaticalization of commonly used free combinations. This is an ongoing process that introduces new prepositions into English.[11]

Classification by position

The position of an adposition with respect to its complement allows the following subclasses to be defined:

- A preposition precedes its complement to form a prepositional phrase.

German: auf dem Tisch, French: sur la table, Polish: na stole ("on the table")

- A postposition follows its complement to form a postpositional phrase.

Chinese: 桌子上 zhuōzi shàng (lit. "table on"), Finnish: (minun) kanssani (lit. "my with"), Turkish: benimle (or "benim ile"),Latin: mecum (both lit. "me with")

- A circumposition consists of two or more parts and it is positioned on both sides of the main word. Circumpositions are very common in Pashto and Kurdish. Here are some examples in Northern Kurdish (Kurmanji) (also found in the Kurdish Wiktionary or "Wîkîferheng"):

bi ... re ("with")

di ... de ("in", for things, not places)

di ... re ("via, through")

ji ... re ("for")

ji ... ve ("since")

The terms "preposition" and "postposition" are more commonly used than the general adposition. Whether a language has primarily prepositions or postpositions is seen as an important aspect of its typological classification, correlated with many other properties of the language.

It is usually straightforward to establish whether an adposition precedes or follows its complement. In some cases, the complement may not appear in a typical position. For example, in preposition stranding constructions, the complement appears before the preposition:

- {How much money} did you say the guy wanted to sell us the car for?
- She's going to the Bahamas? {Whom} with?

In other cases, the complement of the adposition is absent:

- I'm going to the park. Do you want to come with?
- French: Il fait trop froid, je ne suis pas habillée pour. ("It's too cold, I'm not dressed for [the situation].")

The adpositions in the examples are generally still considered prepositions because when they form a phrase with the complement (in more ordinary constructions), they must appear first.

Some adpositions can appear on either side of their complement; these can be called ambipositions (Reindl 2001, Libert 2006):

- He slept {through the whole night}/{the whole night through}.
- German: {meiner Meinung nach}/{nach meiner Meinung} ("in my opinion")

An ambiposition entlang (along). It can be put before or after the noun related to it (but with different noun cases attached to it).

die Straße entlang

entlang der Straße

along the road

Another adposition surrounds its complement, called a circumposition:

- A circumposition has two parts, which surround the complement to form a circumpositional phrase.
- English: from now on
- Dutch: naar het einde toe ("towards the end", lit. "to the end to")
- Mandarin: 從 冰箱 裡 cóng bīngxiāng lǐ ("from the inside of the refrigerator", lit. "from refrigerator inside")
- French: à un détail près ("except for one detail", lit. "at one detail near")
- Swedish: för tre timmar sedan ("three hours ago", lit. "for three hours since")

"Circumposition" can be a useful descriptive term, though most circumpositional phrases can be broken down into a more hierarchical structure, or given a different analysis altogether. For example, the Mandarin example above could be analyzed as a prepositional phrase headed by cóng ("from"), taking the postpositional phrase bīngxīang lǐ ("refrigerator inside") as its complement. Alternatively, the cóng may be analyzed as not a preposition at all (see the section below regarding coverbs).

- An inposition is an adposition between constituents of a complex complement.[12]
- Ambiposition is sometimes used for an adposition that can function as either a preposition or a postposition

  Melis (2003) proposes the descriptive term interposition for adpositions in the structures such as the following:

- word for word, page upon page, (French) coup sur coup (one after another, repeatedly), (Russian) друг с другом (with each other)

An interposition is not an adposition which appears inside its complement as the two nouns do not form a single phrase (there is no *word word or *page page). Examples of actually

interposed adpositions can be found in Latin (e.g. summa cum laude, lit. "highest with praise"). But they are always related to a more basic prepositional structure.

Classification by complement

Noun phrases are the most typical complements to adpositions, but adpositions can in fact be the adjuncts to a variety of syntactic categories, much like verbs.

- noun phrases:
- It was on {the table}.
- adpositional phrases:
- Come out from {under the bed}.
- adjectives and adjective phrases:
- The scene went from {blindingly bright} to {pitch black}.
- adverbs or adverb phrases:
- I worked there until {recently}
- infinitival or participial verb phrases:
- Let's think about {solving this problem}.
- insist on {staying home}
- nominal clauses:
- We can't agree on {whether to have children or not}
- full sentences (see Conjunctions below)

Also like verbs, adpositions can appear without a complement; see Adverbs below.

Some adpositions could be described as combining with two complements:

- {With Sammy president}, we can all come out of hiding again.
- {For Sammy to become president}, they'd have to seriously modify the Constitution.

It is more commonly assumed, however, that Sammy and the following predicate first forms a “small clause”, which then becomes the single complement of the preposition. (In the first example above, a word (such as as) may be considered to be elided, which, if present, would clarify the grammatical relationship.)

An adposition can also, in itself, function as a complement:

- as the complement of a {noun}
- a {thirst} for revenge
- an {amendment} to the constitution
- as the complement of an {adjective} or {adverb}
- {attentive} to their needs
- {separately} from its neighbors
- as the complement of {another preposition}
- {until} after supper
- {from} beneath the bed

Semantic classification

Adpositions can be used to express a wide range of semantic relations between their complement and the rest of the context. The following list is not an exhaustive classification:

- spatial relations: location (inclusion, exclusion, proximity), direction (origin, path, endpoint)
- temporal relations
- comparison: equality, opposition, price, rate
- content: source, material, subject matter
- agent
- instrument, means, manner
- cause, purpose
- Reference

Most common adpositions are highly polysemous, and much research is devoted to the description and explanation of the various interconnected meanings of particular adpositions. In many cases a primary, spatial meaning can be identified, which is then extended to non-spatial uses by metaphorical or other processes.

In some contexts, adpositions appear in contexts where their semantic contribution is minimal, perhaps altogether absent. Such adpositions are sometimes referred to as functional or case-marking adpositions, and they are lexically selected by another element in the construction, or fixed by the construction as a whole.

- English: dispense with formalities, listen to my advice, good at mathematics
- Russian: otvechat' na vopros (lit. "answer on the question"), obvinenie v obmane ("accusation in [i.e. of] fraud")
- Spanish: soñar con ganar el título ("dream with [i.e. about] winning the title"), consistir en dos grupos ("consist in [i.e. of] two groups")

It is usually possible to find some semantic motivation for the choice of a given adposition, but it is generally impossible to explain why other semantically motivated adpositions are excluded in the same context. The selection of the correct adposition in these cases is a matter of syntactic well-formedness.

Subclasses of spatial adpositions

Spatial adpositions can be divided into two main classes, namely directional and static ones. A directional adposition usually involves motion along a path over time, but can also denote a non-temporal path. Examples of directional adpositions include to, from, towards, into, along and through.

- Bob went to the store. (movement over time)
- A path into the woods. (non-temporal path)
- The fog extended from London to Paris. (non-temporal path)

A static adposition normally does not involve movement. Examples of these include at, in, on, beside, behind, under and above.

- Bob is at the store.

Directional adpositions differ from static ones in that they normally can't combine with a copula to yield a predicate, though there are some exceptions to this, as in Bob is from Australia, which may perhaps be thought of as special uses.

- Fine: Bob is in his bedroom. (in is static)
- Bad: *Bob is to his bedroom. (to is directional)

Directional spatial adpositions can only combine with verbs that involve motion; static prepositions can combine with other verbs as well.

- Fine: Bob is lying down in his bedroom.
- Bad: *Bob is lying down into/from his bedroom.

When a static adposition combines with a motion verb, it sometimes takes on a directional meaning. The following sentence can either mean that Bob jumped around in the water, or else that he jumped so that he ended up in the water.

- Bob jumped in the water.

In some languages, directional adpositions govern a different case on their complement than static ones. These are known as casally modulated prepositions. For example, in German, directional adpositions govern accusative while static ones govern dative. Adpositions that are ambiguous between directional and static interpretations govern accusative when they are interpreted as directional, and dative when they are interpreted as static.

- in seinem Zimmer (in his-DATIVE room) "in his room" (static)
- in sein Zimmer (in his-ACCUSATIVE room) "into his room" (directional)

Directional adpositions can be further divided into telic ones and atelic ones. To, into and across are telic: they involve movement all the way to the endpoint denoted by their complement. Atelic ones include towards and along. When telic adpositions combine with a motion verb, the result is a telic verb phrase. Atelic adpositions give rise to atelic verb phrases when so combined.[14]

Static adpositions can be further subdivided into projective and non-projective ones. A non-projective static adposition is one whose meaning can be determined by inspecting the meaning of its complement and the meaning of the preposition itself. Aprojective static adposition requires, in addition, a perspective or point of view. If I say that Bob is behind the rock, you need to know where I am to know on which side of the rock Bob is supposed to be. If I say that your pen is to the left of my book, you also need to know what my point of view is. No such point of view is required in the interpretation of sentences like your pen is on the desk. Projective static prepositions can sometimes take the complement itself as "point of view," if this provides us with certain information. For example, a house normally has a front and a back, so a sentence like the following is actually ambiguous between two readings: one has it that Bob is at the back of the house; the other has it that Bob is on the other side of the house, with respect to the speaker's point of view.

- Bob is behind the house.

A similar effect can be observed with left of, given that objects that have fronts and backs can also be ascribed lefts and rights. The sentence, My keys are to the left of the phone, can either mean that they are on the speaker's left of the phone, or on the phone's left of the phone.[

Classification by grammatical function

Particular uses of adpositions can be classified according to the function of the adpositional phrase in the sentence.

- Modification
- adverb-like

The athlete ran {across the goal line}.

- adjective-like
- attributively

A road trip {with children} is not the most relaxing vacation.

- in the predicate position
- The key is {under the plastic rock}.
- Syntactic functions
- complement

Let's dispense with the formalities.

Here the words dispense and with complement one another, functioning as a unit to mean forego, and they share the direct object (the formalities). The verb dispense would not have this meaning without the word with to complement it.

{In the cellar} was chosen as the best place to hide the bodies.

Adpositional languages typically single out a particular adposition for the following special functions:

- marking possession
- marking the agent in the passive construction
- marking the beneficiary role in transfer relations

Proper vs improper

Some languages such as Portuguese, Spanish and Italian divide prepositions into proper and improper. Proper prepositions, also called essential prepositions, are exclusively prepositions.

Improper prepositions, also called accidentalprepositions, can have other syntactic roles. Greek divides prepositions into proper and improper, but with a different meaning.[

Overlaps with other categories

Adverbs

There are many similarities in form between adpositions and adverbs. Some adverbs are clearly derived from the fusion of a preposition and its complement, and some prepositions have adverb-like uses with no complement:

- {down the stairs}/downstairs, {under the ground}/underground.
- {inside (the house)}, {aboard (the plane)}, {underneath (the surface)}

It is possible to treat all of these adverbs as intransitive prepositions, as opposed to transitive prepositions, which select a complement (just like transitive vs intransitive verbs). This analysis[21] could also be extended to other adverbs, even those that cannot be used as "ordinary" prepositions with a nominal complement:

- here, there, abroad, downtown, afterwards, …

A more conservative approach is to say simply that adverbs and adpositional phrases share many common functions.

Particles

Phrasal verbs in English are composed of a verb and a "particle" that also looks like an intransitive preposition. The same can be said for the separable verb prefixes found in Dutch and German.

- give up, look out, sleep in, carry on, come to
- Dutch: opbellen ("to call (by phone)"), aanbieden ("to offer"), voorstellen ("to propose")
- German: einkaufen ("to purchase"), aussehen ("to resemble"), anbieten ("to offer")

Although these elements have the same lexical form as prepositions, in many cases they do not have relational semantics, and there is no "missing" complement whose identity can be recovered from the context.

Conjunctions

The set of adpositions overlaps with the set of subordinating conjunctions (or complementizers):

- (preposition) before/after/since the end of the summer
- (conjunction) before/after/since the summer ended
- (preposition) It looks like another rainy day
- (conjunction) It looks like it's going to rain again today

All of these words can be treated as prepositions if we extend the definition to allow clausal complements. This treatment could be extended further to conjunctions that are never used as ordinary prepositions:

- unless they surrender, although time is almost up, while you were on the phone

**Coverbs**

In some languages, the role of adpositions is served by coverbs, words that are lexically verbs, but are generally used to convey the meaning of adpositions.

For instance, whether prepositions exist in Chinese is sometimes considered an open question. Coverbs are often referred to as prepositions because they appear before the noun phrase they modify. However, unlike prepositions, coverbs can sometimes stand alone as main verbs. For instance, in Standard Chinese, dào can be used in a prepositional or a verb sense:

- qù ("to go") is the main verb: 我到北京去。Wǒ dào Běijīng qù. ("I go to Beijing.")
- dào ("to arrive") is the main verb: 我到了。Wǒ dào le. ("I have arrived.")

**Case affixes**

From a functional point of view, adpositions and morphological case markings are similar. Adpositions in one language can correspond precisely to case markings in another language. For example, the agentive noun phrase in the passive construction in English is introduced by the preposition by, while in Russian it is marked by the instrumental case. Sometimes both prepositions and cases can be observed within a single language. For example, the genitive case in German is in many instances interchangeable with a phrase using the preposition von.

Despite this functional similarity, adpositions and case markings are distinct grammatical categories:

- Adpositions combine syntactically with their complement phrase. Case markings combine with a noun morphologically.

- Two adpositions can usually be joined with a conjunction and share a single complement, but this is normally not possible with case markings:

  {of and for the people} vs. Latin populi et populo, not *populi et -o ("people-genitive and -dative")

- One adposition can usually combine with two coordinated complements, but this is normally not possible with case markings:

  of {the city and the world} vs. Latin urbis et orbis, not *urb- et orbis ("city- and world-genitive")

- Case markings combine primarily with nouns, whereas adpositions can combine with phrases of many different categories.

- A case marking usually appears directly on the noun, but an adposition can be separated from the noun by other words.

- Within the noun phrase, determiners and adjectives may agree with the noun in case (case spreading), but an adposition only appears once.

- A language can have hundreds of adpositions (including complex adpositions), but no language has this many distinct morphological cases.

It can be difficult to clearly distinguish case markings from adpositions. For example, the post-nominal elements in Japanese andKorean are sometimes called case particles and sometimes postpositions. Sometimes they are analysed as two different groups because they have different characteristics (e.g. ability to combine with focus particles), but in such analysis, it is unclear which words should fall into which group.

- Japanese: 電車で　(densha de, "by train")

- Korean: 한국에 (Hangug-e, "to Korea")

Turkish and Finnish have both extensive case-marking and postpositions, and here there is evidence to help distinguish the two:

- Turkish: (case) sinemaya (cinema-dative, "to the cinema") vs (postposition) sinema için ("for the cinema")

- Finnish: (case) talossa (house-inessive, "in the house") vs (postposition) "talon edessä (house-gen in front, "in front of the house")

In these examples, the case markings form a word with their hosts (as shown by vowel harmony, other word-internal effects and agreement of adjectives in Finnish), while the postpositions are independent words.

Some languages, like Sanskrit, use postpositions to emphasize the meaning of the grammatical cases, and eliminate possibleambiguities in the meaning of the phrase. For example: □□□□□ सह (Rāmeṇa saha, "in company of Rāma"). In this example, "Rāmeṇa" is in the instrumental case, but, as its meaning can be ambiguous,the postposition saha is being used to emphasize the meaning of company.

In Indo-European languages, each case often contains several different endings, some of which may be derived from different roots. An ending is chosen depending on gender, number, whether the word is a noun or a modifier, and other factors.

**Word choice**

The choice of preposition (or postposition) in a sentence is often idiomatic, and may depend either on the verb preceding it or on the noun which it governs: it is often not clear from the sense which preposition is appropriate. Different languages and regional dialects often have different conventions. Learning the conventionally preferred word is a matter of exposure to examples. For example, most dialects of American English have "to wait in line", but some have "to wait on line". Because of this, prepositions are often cited as one of the most difficult aspects of a language to learn, for both non-native speakers and native speakers. Where an adposition is required in one language, it may not be in another. In translations, adpositions must be dealt with on a case-by-case basis, and one may be either supplied or omitted. For instance:

- Speakers of English learning Spanish or Portuguese have difficulty distinguishing between the prepositions por and para, as both frequently correspond to for in English.
- The German preposition von might be translated as by, of, or from in English depending on the sense.

## CHAPTER 9

### Conjunction (grammar)

In grammar, a conjunction (abbreviated CONJ or CNJ) is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases or clauses. Adiscourse connective is a conjunction joining sentences. This definition may overlap with that of other parts of speech, so what constitutes a "conjunction" must be defined for each language. In general, a conjunction is an invariable grammatical particle, and it may or may not stand between the items it conjoins.

The definition may also be extended to idiomatic phrases that behave as a unit with the same function, eg "as well as", "provided that".

Many students are taught that certain conjunctions (such as "and", "but", "because", and "so") should not begin sentences. But authorities such as the Chicago Manual of Style state that this teaching has "no historical or grammatical foundation

A simple literary example of a conjunction: "the truth of nature, and the power of giving interest" (Samuel Taylor Coleridge'sBiographia Literaria)

### Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions, also called coordinators, are conjunctions that join, or coordinate, two or more items (such as words, main clauses, or sentences) of equal syntactic importance. In English, the mnemonic acronym FANBOYS can be used to remember the coordinators for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so. These are not the only coordinating conjunctions; various others are used, including and nor" (British), "but nor" (British), "or nor" (British), "neither" ("They don't gamble; neither do they smoke"), "no more" ("They don't gamble; no more do they smoke"), and "only" ("I would go, only I don't have time").

Here are some examples of coordinating conjunctions in English and what they do:

as/because/for present an explanation ("He is gambling with his health, as he has been smoking far too long.")

and

presents non-contrasting item(s) or idea(s) ("They gamble and they smoke.")

nor

presents a non-contrasting negative idea ("They do not gamble, nor do they smoke.")

but

presents a contrast or exception ("They gamble, but they don't smoke.")

or

presents an alternative item or idea ("Every day they gamble or they smoke.")

yet

presents a contrast or exception ("They gamble, yet they don't smoke.")

so

presents a consequence ("He gambled well last night so he smoked a cigar to celebrate.")

**Correlative conjunctions**

'Correlative' conjunctions work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. There are six different pairs of correlative conjunctions:

1. either...or
2. not only...but (also)
3. neither...nor (or increasingly neither...or)
4. both...and
5. whether...or
6. just as...so

**Examples:**

- You either do your work or prepare for a trip to the office.
- Not only is he handsome, but he is also brilliant.
- Neither the basketball team nor the football team is doing well.
- Both the cross country team and the swimming team are doing well.
- Whether you stay or you go, it's your decision.
- Just as many Americans love basketball, so many Canadians love ice hockey.

**Subordinating conjunctions**

Subordinating conjunctions, also called subordinators, are conjunctions that join an independent clause and a dependent clause. The most common subordinating conjunctions in the English language include after, although, as, as far as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, because, before, if, in order that, since, so, so that, than, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where,whereas, wherever, and while. Complementizers can be considered to be special subordinating conjunctions that introducecomplement clauses: e.g. "I wonder whether he'll be late. I hope that he'll be on time". Some subordinating conjunctions (until andwhile), when used to introduce a phrase instead of a full clause, become prepositions with identical meanings.

In many verb-final languages, subordinate clauses must precede the main clause on which they depend. The equivalents to the subordinating conjunctions of non-verb-final languages such as English are either

- clause-final conjunctions (e.g. in Japanese); or
- suffixes attached to the verb, and not separate words

Such languages often lack conjunctions as a part of speech, because:

1) the form of the verb used is formally nominalised and cannot occur in an independent clause
2) the clause-final conjunction or suffix attached to the verb is a marker of case and is also used in nouns to indicate certain functions. In this sense, the subordinate clauses of these languages have much in common with postpositional phrases.

In other West Germanic languages like German and Dutch, the word order after a subordinating conjunction is different from that in an independent clause, e.g. in Dutch want ("for") is coordinating, but omdat ("because") is subordinating. The clause after the coordinating conjunction has normal word order, but the clause after the subordinating conjunction has verb-final word order. Compare:

Hij gaat naar huis, want hij is ziek. ("He goes home, for he is ill.")

Hij gaat naar huis, omdat hij ziek is. ("He goes home because he is ill.")

Similarly, in German, "denn" (for) is coordinating, but "weil" (because) is subordinating:

Er geht nach Hause, denn er ist krank. ("He goes home, for he is ill.")

Er geht nach Hause, weil er krank ist. ("He goes home because he is ill.")

example:

- Noun phrases combined into a longer noun phrase, such as John, Eric, and Jill, the red coat or the blue one. When and is used, the resulting noun phrase is plural. A determiner does not need to be repeated with the individual elements: the cat, the dog, and the mouse and the cat, dog, and mouse are both correct. The same applies to other modifiers. (The word but can be used here in the sense of "except": nobody but you.)
- Adjective or adverb phrases combined into a longer adjective or adverb phrase: tired but happy, over the fields and far away.
- Verbs or verb phrases combined as in he washed, peeled, and diced the turnips (verbs conjoined, object shared); he washed the turnips, peeled them, and diced them (full verb phrases, including objects, conjoined).
- Other equivalent items linked, such as prefixes linked in pre- and post-test counselling, numerals as in two or three buildings, etc.
- Clauses or sentences linked, as in We came but they wouldn't let us in. They wouldn't let us in, nor would they explain what we had done wrong.

There are also correlative conjunctions, where as well as the basic conjunction, an additional element appears before the first of the items being linked. The common correlatives in English are:

- either ... or (either a man or a woman);
- neither ... nor (neither clever nor funny);
- both ... and (they both punished and rewarded them);
- not ... but, particularly in not only ... but also (not exhausted but exhilarated, not only football but also many other sports).

Subordinating conjunctions make relations between clauses, making the clause in which they appear into a subordinate clause. Some common subordinating conjunctions in English are:

- conjunctions of time, including after, before, since, until, when, while;
- conjunctions of cause and effect, including because, since, now that, as, in order that, so;
- conjunctions of opposition or concession, such as although, though, even though, whereas, while;

- conjunctions of condition: such as if, unless, only if, whether or not, even if, in case (that);
- the conjunction that, which produces content clauses, as well as words that produce interrogative content clauses: whether,where, when, how, etc.

**Mnemonic**

A mnemonic or mnemonic device, is any learning technique that aids information retention. Mnemonics aim to translate information into a form that the human brain can retain better than its original form. Even the process of merely learning this conversion might already aid in the transfer of information to long-term memory. Commonly encountered mnemonics are often used for lists and in auditory form, such as short poems, acronyms, or memorable phrases, but mnemonics can also be used for other types of information and in visual or kinesthetic forms. Their use is based on the observation that the human mind more easily remembers spatial, personal, surprising, physical, sexual, humorous, or otherwise 'relatable' information, rather than more abstract or impersonal forms of information.

The word mnemonic is derived from the Ancient Greek word μνημονικός (mnēmonikos), meaning "of memory, or relating to memory and is related to Mnemosyne ("remembrance"), the name of the goddess of memory in Greek mythology. Both of these words are derived from μνήμη (mnēmē), "remembrance, memory Mnemonics in antiquity were most often considered in the context of what is today known as the art of memory.

Ancient Greeks and Romans distinguished between two types of memory: the 'natural' memory and the 'artificial' memory. The former is inborn, and is the one that everyone uses automatically and without thinking. The artificial memory in contrast has to be trained and developed through the learning and practicing of a variety of mnemonic techniques.

Mnemonic systems are special techniques or strategies consciously used to improve memory, it helps employ information already stored in long-term memory to make memorization an easier task.

"Memory Needs Every Method Of Nurturing Its Capacity" is a mnemonic for how to spell mnemonic.

**History**

The general name of mnemonics, or memoria technica, was the name applied to devices for aiding the memory, enabling the mind to reproduce a relatively unfamiliar idea, and especially a series of dissociated ideas, by connecting it, or them, in some artificial whole, the parts of which are mutually suggestive. Mnemonic devices were much cultivated by Greek sophists and philosophersand are repeatedly referred to by Plato and Aristotle. In later times the invention was ascribed to the poet Simonides, perhaps for no other reason than that the strength of his memory

was famous. Cicero, who attaches considerable importance to the art, but more to the principle of order as the best help to memory, speaks of Carneades (or perhaps Charmades) of Athens and Metrodorus of Scepsis as distinguished examples of the use of well-ordered images to aid the memory. The Romans valued such helps as giving facility in public speaking.

The Greek and the Roman system of mnemonics was founded on the use of mental places and signs or pictures, known as "topical" mnemonics. The most usual method was to choose a large house, of which the apartments, walls, windows, statues, furniture, etc., were severally associated with certain names, phrases, events or ideas, by means of symbolic pictures; and to recall these it was only necessary to search over the apartments of the house till the particular place was discovered where they had been deposited by the imagination.

In accordance with said system, if it were desired to fix an historic date in memory, it was localised in an imaginary town divided into a certain number of districts, each of with ten houses, each house with ten rooms, and each room with a hundred quadrates or memory-places, partly on the floor, partly on the four walls, partly on the roof. Therefore, if it were desired to fix in the memory the date of the invention of printing (1436), an imaginary book, or some other symbol of printing, would be placed in the thirty-sixth quadrate or memory-place of the fourth room of the first house of the historic district of the town. Except that the rules of mnemonics are referred to by Martianus Capella, nothing further is known regarding the practice until the 13th century.

Among the voluminous writings of Roger Bacon is a tractate De arte memorativa. Ramon Llull devoted special attention to mnemonics in connection with his ars generalis. The first important modification of the method of the Romans was that invented by the German poetKonrad Celtes, who, in his Epitoma in utramque Ciceronis rhetoricam cum arte memorativa nova (1492), instead of places made use of the letters of the alphabet. About the end of the 15th century Petrus de Ravenna (b. 1448) created such an astonishment inItaly by his mnemonic feats that he was believed by many to be a necromancer. His Phoenix artis memoriae (Venice, 1491, 4 vols.) went through as many as nine editions, the seventh appearing at Cologne in 1608.

An impression equally great was produced about the end of the 16th century by Lambert Schenkel (Gazophylacium, 1610), who taught mnemonics in France, Italy and Germany, and, although he was denounced as a sorcerer by the University of Louvain, published in 1593 his tractate De memoria at Douai with the sanction of that celebrated theological faculty. The most complete account of his system is given in two works by his pupil Martin Sommer, published in Venice in 1619. In 1618 John Willis (d. 1628?) published Mnemonica; sive ars reminiscendi, containing a clear statement of the principles of topical or local mnemonics. Giordano Bruno, in connection with his exposition of the ars generalis of Llull, included a memoria technica in his treatise De umbris idearum. Other writers of this period are the Florentine Publicius (1482); Johannes Romberch (1533); Hieronimo Morafiot, Ars memoriae(1602); B. Porta, Ars reminiscendi (1602).

In 1648 Stanislaus Mink von Wennsshein made known what he called the "most fertile secret" in mnemonics — namely the use of consonants for figures, so as to express numbers by words (vowels being added as required); and the philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz adopted an alphabet very similar to that of Wennsshein in connection with his scheme for a form of writing common to all languages. Wennsshein's method, which in fact is adopted with slight changes by the majority of subsequent "original" systems, was modified and supplemented in regard to many details by Richard Grey (1694-1771), who published a Memoria technica in 1730. The principal part of Grey's method (which may be compared with the Jewish system by which letters also stand for numerals, and therefore words for dates) is briefly this:

To remember anything in history, chronology, geography, etc., a word is formed, the beginning whereof, being the first syllable or syllables of the thing sought, does, by frequent repetition, of course draw after it the latter part, which is so contrived as to give the answer. Thus, in history, the Deluge happened in the year before Christ two thousand three hundred forty-eight; this is signified by the word Del-etok, Del standing for Deluge and etok for 2348.

To assist in retaining the mnemonical words in the memory, they were formed into memorial lines, which, however, being composed of strange words in difficult hexameter scansion, are by no means easy to memorise. The vowel or consonant, which Grey connected with a particular figure, was chosen arbitrarily; but in 1806 Gregor von Feinaigle, a German monk from Salem near Constance, began in Paris to expound a system of mnemonics, one feature (based on Wennsshein's system) of which was to represent the numerical figures by letters chosen on account of some similarity to the figure to be represented or some accidental connection with it. This alphabet was supplemented by a complicated system of localities and signs. Feinaigle, who apparently published nothing himself, came to England in 1811, and in the following year one of his pupils published The New Art of Memory, which, beside giving Feinaigle's system, contains valuable historical material about previous systems.

Simplified forms were published later by other mnemonists, as the more complicated ones fell almost into complete disuse; but methods founded chiefly on the so-called laws of association (cf. Mental association) were taught with some success in Germany.

**Coordination**

In linguistics, coordination is a frequently occurring complex syntactic structure that links together two or more elements, known asconjuncts or conjoins. The presence of coordination is often signaled by the appearance of a coordinator (coordinating conjunction), e.g. and, or, but (in English). The totality of coordinator(s) and conjuncts forming an instance of coordination is called a coordinate structure. The unique properties of coordinate structures have motivated theoretical syntax to draw a broad distinction between coordination and subordination Coordination is one of the most studied fields in theoretical syntax, but despite decades of

intensive examination, theoretical accounts differ significantly and there is no consensus about the best analysis.

**Basic examples**

Coordination is a very flexible mechanism of syntax. Any given lexical or phrasal category can be coordinated. The examples throughout this article employ the convention whereby the conjuncts of coordinate structures are marked using square brackets and bold script. The coordinate structure each time includes all the material that follows the left-most square bracket and precedes the right-most square bracket. The coordinator appears in normal script between the conjuncts.

[Sarah] and [Xolani] went to town - N + N

[The chicken] and [the rice] go well together. - NP + NP

The president will [understand] and [agree]. - V + V

The president will [understand the criticism] and [take action] - VP + VP

Insects were [in], [on], and [under] the bed. - P + P + P

[After the announcement] but [before the game], there was a celebration. - PP + PP

Susan works [slowly] and [carefully]. - Adv + Adv

Susan works [too slowly] and [overly carefully]. - AdvP + AdvP

We appreciated [that the president understood the criticism] and [that he took action]. - Clause + Clause

Data of this sort could easily be expanded to include every lexical and phrasal category. An important aspect of these data is that the conjuncts each time are indisputably constituents. In other words, the material enclosed in brackets would qualify as a constituent in both phrase structure grammars and dependency grammars.

**Coordinators**

A coordinator (= coordinating conjunction) often appears between the conjuncts, usually at least between the penultimate (second to last) and ultimate (last) conjunct of the coordinate structure. The words and and or are by far the most frequently occurring coordinators in English. Other coordinators occur less often and have unique properties, e.g. but, as well as, then, etc. The coordinator usually serves to link the conjuncts and indicate the presence of a coordinate structure. Depending on the number of coordinators used, coordinate structures can be classified as syndetic, asyndetic, or polysyndetic.

**Unique behavior**

Most coordinate structures are like those just produced above; the coordinated strings are alike in syntactic category. There are a number of unique traits of coordination, however, that demonstrate that what can be coordinated is not limited to the standard syntactic categories. Each of the following subsections briefly draws attention to a perhaps unexpected aspect of coordination. These aspects are less than fully understood, despite the attention that coordination has received in theoretical syntax.

Nested coordinate structures

One coordinate structure can easily be nested inside another. Ambiguity is sometimes the result, e.g.

Fred and Bill and Sam came.

a. [Fred] and [Bill] and [Sam] came.

b. [Fred] and [[Bill] and [Sam]] came.

c. [[Fred] and [Bill]] and [Sam] came.

The brackets indicate the three possible readings for the sentence. The (b)- and (c)-readings show one coordinate structure being embedded inside another. Which of the three readings is understood depends on intonation and context. The (b)-reading could be preferred in a situation where Bill and Sam arrived together, but Fred arrived separately. Similarly, the (c)-reading could be preferred in a situation where Fred and Bill arrived together, but Sam arrived separately. That the indicated groupings are indeed possible becomes evident when or is employed:

b'. [Fred] or [Bill and Sam] came.

c'. [Fred and Bill] or [Sam] came.

A theory of coordination needs to be in a position to address nesting of this sort.

Mismatch in syntactic category

The examples above illustrate that the conjuncts are often alike in syntactic category. There are, though, many instances of coordination where the coordinated strings are NOT alike, e.g.

Sarah is [a CEO] and [proud of her job]. - NP + AP

Is Jim [conservative] and [a closet Republican]? - A + NP

Bill is [in trouble] and [trying to come up with an excuse]. - PP + VP

Sam works [evenings] and [on weekends]. - Adv + PP

They are leaving [due to the weather] and [because they want to save money]. - PP + Clause

Data like these have been explored in detail. They illustrate that the theory of coordination should not rely too heavily on syntactic category to explain the fact that in most instances of coordination, the coordinated strings are alike. Syntactic function is more important, that is, the coordinated strings should be alike in syntactic function. In the former three sentences here, the coordinated strings are, as complements of the copula is, predicative expressions, and in the latter two sentences, the coordinated strings areadjuncts that are alike in syntactic function (temporal adjunct + temporal adjunct, causal adjunct + causal adjunct).

**Non-constituent conjuncts**

The aspect of coordination that is perhaps most vexing for theories of coordination concerns non-constituent conjuncts. Coordination is, namely, not limited to coordinating just constituents, but rather it is quite capable of coordinating non-constituent strings:

[When did he] and [why did he] do that?

[She has] but [he has not] understood the task.

Susan [asked you] but [forced me] to read the book on syntax.

[Jill has been promising] but [Fred is actually trying] to solve the problem.

[The old] and [the new] submarines submerged side-by-side.

[Before the first] and [after the second] presentation, there will be coffee.

Fred sent [Uncle Willy chocolates] and [Aunt Samantha ear rings].

We expect [Connor to laugh] and [Jilian to cry].

While some of these coordinate structures require a non-standard intonation contour, they can all be acceptable. This situation is problematic for theories of syntax because most of the coordinated strings do not qualify as constituents. Hence since the constituent is widely assumed to be the fundamental unit of syntactic analysis, such data seem to require that the theory of coordination admit additional theoretical apparatus. Two examples of the sort of apparatus that has been posited are so-calledconjunction reduction and right node raising (RNR). Conjunction reduction is an ellipsis mechanism that takes non-constituent conjuncts to be complete phrases or clauses at some deep level of syntax. These complete phrases or clauses are then reduced down to their surface appearance by the conjunction reduction mechanism. The traditional analysis of the phenomenon of right node raising assumed that in cases of non-constituent conjuncts, a shared string to the right of the conjuncts is raised out of VP in such a manner that the material in the conjuncts ends up as constituents. The plausibility of these mechanisms is NOT widely

accepted, but rather one can argue that they are ad hoc attempts to solve a problem that plagues theories that take the constituent to be the fundamental unit of syntactic analysis.

Coordination has been widely employed as a test or for the constituent status of a given string, i.e. as a constituency test. In light of non-constituent conjuncts however, the helpfulness of coordination as a diagnostic for identifying constituents can be doubted.

Gapping or not?

Gapping (and stripping) is an ellipsis mechanism that seems to occur in coordinate structures only. While gapping itself is widely acknowledged to involve ellipsis, just which instances of coordination do and do not involve gapping is a matter of debate. Most theories of syntax agree that gapping is involved in the following cases. A subscript and a smaller font are used to indicate the "gapped" material:

[Brent ate the beans], and [Bill ate the rice]. - Gapping

[You should call me more], and [I should call you more]. - Gapping

[Mary always orders wine], and [Sally always orders beer]. - Gapping

Accounts of gapping and coordination disagree, however, concerning data like the following:

a. [They saw him first] and [they saw her second]. - Gapping analysis

b. They saw [him first] and [her second]. - Non-gapping analysis

a. [Tanya expects the dog to eat cat food] and [she expects the cat to eat dog food]. - Gapping analysis

b. Tanya expects [the dog to eat cat food] and [the cat to eat dog food]. - Non-gapping analysis

The gapping analysis shown in the a-sentences is motivated above all by the desire to avoid the non-constituent conjuncts associated with the b-sentences. No consensus has been reached about which analysis is better.

Forward vs. backward sharing

Coordination is sensitive to the linear order of words, a fact that is evident with differences between forward and backward sharing. There is a limitation on material that precedes the conjuncts of a coordinate structure that does restrict the material that follows it

*After Wallace fed [his dog the postman] and [his sheep the milkman] arrived. - Forward sharing fails.

*The man [who built the rocket has] and [who studied robots designed] a dog. - Forward sharing fails.

*After [Sue's presentation , I was sad] and [Fred's presentation, I was angry]. - Forward sharing fails.

The star * indicates that the sentence is bad. Each of these coordinate structures is disallowed. The underline draws attention to a constituent that mostly precedes the coordinate structure but that the initial conjunct "cuts into". There is apparently a restriction on the constituents that mostly precede a coordinate structure. The same restriction does not limit similar constituents that mostly follow the coordinate structure:

[She stated the strengths], and [he mentioned the weaknesses] of the explanation. - Backward sharing succeeds.

[Larry put a flier on], and [Sue slipped one under] the door. - Backward sharing succeeds

Sally [arrived just before the speaker initiated], and [left right after he finished] his speech. - Backward sharing succeeds

The underline now marks a constituent that mostly follows the coordinate structure. Unlike with the first three examples, the coordinate structure in these three examples CAN cut into the underlined constituent.

**Extraction**

In Transformational Grammar, the interaction of coordination and extraction (e.g. wh-fronting) has generated a lot of interest. TheCoordinate Structure Constraint is the property of coordinate structures that prevents extraction of a single conjunct or from a single conjunct. Coordinate structures are said to be strong islands for extraction. For example:

*Who did you see [Fred] and [ ]? - Failed extraction of an entire conjunct

*Who did you see [ ] and Susan? - Failed extraction of an entire conjunct

*Which action did the president understand [the criticism] and [take ]? - Failed extraction out of a single conjunct

These attempts at coordination fail because extraction cannot affect just one conjunct of a coordinate structure. If extraction occurs out of both conjuncts in a like fashion, however, the coordinate structure is acceptable. This trait of coordination is referred to as theAcross-the-Board Constraint. For example:

What does [Sarah like ] and [Xolani hate ]? - Across-the-board extraction of What

There are other apparent exceptions the Coordinate Structure Constraint and the Across-the-Board generalization and their integration to existing syntactic theory has been a long-standing disciplinary desideratum.

**Pseudo-coordination**

In pseudo-coordinative constructions, the coordinator, generally and, appears to have a subordinating function. It occurs in many languages and is sometimes known as "hendiadys", and it is often, but not always, used to convey a pejorative or idiomatic connotation. Among the Germanic languages, pseudo-coordination occurs in English, Afrikaans, Norwegian, Danish and Swedish. Pseudo-coordination appears to be absent in Dutch and German. The pseudo-coordinative construction is limited to a few verbs. In English, these verbs are typically go, try, and sit. In other languages, typical pseudo-coordinative verbs and/or hendiadys predicates are egressive verbs (e.g. go) and verbs of body posture (e.g. sit, stand and lie down).

Why don't you go and jump in the lake

I will try and jump in the lake

The pupils sat and read their textbooks

A typical property of pseudo-coordinative constructions is that, unlike ordinary coordination, they appear to violate the Across-the-Board extraction property (see above). In other words, it is possible to extract from one of the conjuncts.

What did she go and jump in t?

What did she try and jump in

Which textbooks did the pupils sit and read.

It has been argued that pseudo-coordination is not a unitary phenomenon. Even in a single language such as English, the predicatetry exhibits different pseudo-coordination properties to other predicates and other predicates such as go and sit can instantiate a number of different pseudo-coordinative construction types. On the other hand, it has been argued that at least some different types of pseudo-coordination can be analyzed using ordinary coordination as opposed to stipulating that pseudo-coordinative and is a subordinator; the differences between the various constructions derive from the level of structure that is coordinated e.g. coordination of heads, coordination of VP, etc.

# CHAPTER 10

## Punctuation

Punctuation marks are symbols that indicate the structure and organization of writing, as well as intonation and pauses to be observed when reading aloud.

In written English, punctuation is vital to disambiguate the meaning of sentences. For example, "woman, without her man, is nothing" (emphasizing the importance of men) and "woman: without her, man is nothing" (emphasizing the importance of women) have greatly different meanings, as do "eats shoots and leaves" (to mean "consumes plant growths") and "eats, shoots and leaves" (to mean "eats firstly, fires a weapon secondly, and leaves the scene thirdly").

The rules of punctuation vary with language, location, register and time and are constantly evolving. Certain aspects of punctuation are stylistic and are thus the author's (or editor's) choice. Tachygraphic language forms, such as those used in online chat andtext messages, may have wildly different rules. For English usage, see the articles on specific punctuation marks.

History

The first writing systems were mostly logographic and/or syllabic, for example Chineseand Maya script, and they do not necessarily require punctuation, especially spacing. This is because the entire morpheme or word is typically clustered within a single glyph, so spacing does not help as much to distinguish where one word ends and the other starts. Disambiguation and emphasis can easily be communicated without punctuation by employing a separate written form distinct from the spoken form of the language that uses slightly different phraseology. Even today, formal written modern English differs subtly from spoken English because not all emphasis and disambiguation is possible to convey in print, even with punctuation.

Ancient Chinese classical texts were transmitted without punctuation. However, manyWarring states era bamboo texts contain the symbols 「└」 and 「▄」 indicating the end of a chapter and full stop, respectively. By the Song dynasty, addition of punctuation to texts by scholars to aid comprehension became common

The earliest alphabetic writing had no capitalization, no spaces, no vowels and few punctuation marks. This worked as long as the subject matter was restricted to a limited range of topics (e.g., writing used for recording business transactions). Punctuation is historically an aid to reading aloud: vis George Bernard Shaw.

The oldest known document using punctuation is the Mesha Stele (9th century BC). This employs points between the words and horizontal strokes between the sense section as punctuation.

**Western Antiquity**

Most texts were still written in scriptura continua, that is without any separation between words. However, the Greeks were sporadically using punctuation marks consisting of vertically arranged dots - usually two (cf. the modern colon) or three - in around the 5th century B.C. as an aid in the oral delivery of texts. Greek playwrights such as Euripidesand Aristophanes used symbols to distinguish the ends of phrases in written drama: this essentially helped the play's cast to know when to pause. In particular, they used a system (called thésis) of a single dot (punctus) placed at varying heights to mark up speeches at rhetorical divisions:

- subdistinctio - a low punctus on the baseline to mark off a comma (unit smaller than a clause);
- media distinctio - a punctus at midheight to mark off a clause (colon); and
- distinctio - a high punctus to mark off a sentence (periodus).

In addition, the Greeks used the paragraphos (or gamma) to mark the beginning of sentences, marginal diples to mark quotations, and a koronis to indicate the end of major sections.

The Romans (ca. 1st century B.C.) also occasionally used symbols to indicate pauses, but the Greek system—under the name distinctiones—prevailed by the A.D. 4th century as reported by Donatus and Isidore of Seville (7th century). Also, texts were sometimes lain out per capitula, that is, every sentence had its own separate line. Diples were used, but by the late period these often degenerated into comma-shaped marks.

**Medieval**

Punctuation developed dramatically when large numbers of copies of the Bible started to be produced. These were designed to be read aloud, so the copyists began to introduce a range of marks to aid the reader, including indentation, various punctuation marks (diple, paragraphos, simplex ductus), and an early version of initial capitals (littera notabilior). St. Jerome and his colleagues, who made theLatin Vulgate translation of the Bible (ca. A.D. 400), employed a layout system based on established practices for teaching the speeches of Demosthenes and Cicero. Under his layout per cola et commata every sense-unit was indented and given its own line. This layout was solely used for biblical manuscripts during the 5th-9th centuries but was abandoned in favor of punctuation.

In the 7th-8th centuries Irish and Anglo-Saxon scribes, whose native languages were unrelated to Latin, added more visual cues to render texts more intelligible. Irish scribes introduced the practice of word separation.[6] Likewise, insular scribes adopted thedistinctiones system while adapting it for minuscule script (so as to be more prominent) by using not differing height but rather a differing number of marks—aligned horizontally (or sometimes triangularly)—to signify a pause's value: one mark for a minor pause, two for a medium one, and three for a major. Most

common were the punctus, a comma-shaped mark, and a 7-shaped mark (comma positura), often used in combination. The same marks could be used in the margin to mark off quotations.

In the late 8th century a different system emerged in the Carolingian empire. Originally indicating how the voice should be modulated when chanting the liturgy, the positurae migrated into any text meant to be read aloud, and then to all manuscripts. Positurae first reached England in the late 10th century probably during the Benedictine reform movement, but was not adopted until after the Norman conquest. The original positurae were the punctus, punctus elevatus, punctus versus, and punctus interrogativus, but a fifth symbol, the punctus flexus, was added in the 10th century to indicate a pause of a value between the punctus and punctus elevatus. In the late 11th/early 12th century the punctus versus disappeared and was taken over by the simple punctus (now with two distinct values)

The late Middle Ages saw the addition of the virgula suspensiva (slash or slash with a midpoint dot) which was often used in conjunction with the punctus for different types of pauses. Direct quotations were marked with marginal diples, as in Antiquity, but from at least the 12th century scribes also began entering diples (sometimes double) within the column of text.

**Later developments**

From the invention of moveable type in Europe in the 1450s the amount of printed material and a readership for it began to increase. "The rise of printing in the 14th and 15th centuries meant that a standard system of punctuation was urgently required. The introduction of a standard system of punctuation has also been attributed to the Venetian printers Aldus Manutius and his grandson. They have been credited with popularizing the practice of ending sentences with the colon or full stop, inventing the semicolon, making occasional use of parentheses and creating the modern comma by lowering the virgule. By 1566, Aldus Manutius the Younger was able to state that the main object of punctuation was the clarification of syntax

By the 19th century, punctuation in the western world had evolved "to classify the marks hierarchically, in terms of weight". Cecil Hartley's poem identifies their relative values:

The stop point out, with truth, the time of pause

A sentence doth require at ev'ry clause.

At ev'ry comma, stop while one you count;

At semicolon, two is the amount;

A colon doth require the time of three;

The period four, as learned men agree.

The use of punctuation was not standardised until after the invention of printing. According to the 1885 edition of The American Printer, the importance of punctuation was noted in various sayings by children such as:

Charles the First walked and talked

Half an hour after his head was cut off.

With a semi-colon and a comma added it reads:

Charles the First walked and talked;

Half an hour after, his head was cut off.

Shortly after the invention of printing, the necessity of stops or pauses in sentences for the guidance of the reader produced the colon and full point. In process of time, the comma was added, which was then merely a perpendicular line, proportioned to the body of the letter. These three points were the only ones used until the close of the fifteenth century, when Aldo Manuccio gave a better shape to the comma, and added the semicolon; the comma denoting the shortest pause, the semicolon next, then the colon, and the full point terminating the sentence. The marks of interrogation and admiration were introduced many years after.

The standards and limitations of evolving technologies have exercised further pragmatic influences. For example, minimisation of punctuation in typewritten matter became economically desirable in the 1960s and 1970s for the many users of carbon-film ribbons, since a period or comma consumed the same length of expensive non-reusable ribbon as did a capital letter.

**Punctuation in English**

There are two major styles of punctuation in English: American or traditional punctuation; and British or logical punctuation. These two styles differ mainly in the way in which they handle quotation marks.

Other languages

Other European languages use much the same punctuation as English. The similarity is so strong that the few variations may confuse a native English reader. Quotation marks are particularly variable across European languages. For example, in French andRussian, quotes would appear as: « Je suis fatigué. » (in French, each "double punctuation", as the guillemet, requires a non-breaking space; in Russian it does not).

In Greek, the question mark is written as the English semicolon, while the functions of the colon and semicolon are performed by a raised point (•), known as the ano teleia (άνω τελεία).

In Georgian, the symbol (։) was used as the paragraph separator and punctuation.

Spanish uses an inverted question mark at the beginning of a question and the normal question mark at the end, as well as an inverted exclamation mark at the beginning of an exclamation and the normal exclamation mark at the end.

Arabic, Urdu, and Persian languages—written from right to left—use a reversed question mark: ؟, and a reversed comma: ، . This is a modern innovation; pre-modern Arabic did not use punctuation. Hebrew, which is also written from right to left, uses the same characters as in English, "," and "?" .

Originally, Sanskrit had no punctuation. In the 17th century, Sanskrit and Marathi, both written in the Devanagari script, started using the vertical bar ( । ) to end a line of prose and double vertical bars ( ॥ ) in verse.

Punctuation was not used in Chinese, Japanese, and Korean writing until the adoption of punctuation from the West in the late 19th and early 20th century. In unpunctuated texts, the grammatical structure of sentences in classical writing is inferred from context. Most punctuation marks in modern Chinese, Japanese, and Korean have similar functions to their English counterparts; however, they often look different and have different customary rules.

**Novel punctuation marks**

“Love point” and similar marks

In 1966, the French author Hervé Bazin proposed a series of six innovative punctuation marks in his book Plumons l’Oiseau (“Let's pluck the bird”, 1966) These were:

- the “irony point“ or ”irony mark” (point d'ironie: ψ)
- the “love point” (point d’amour:  )
- the “certitude point” (point de conviction:  )
- the “authority point” (point d’autorité:  )
- the “acclamation point” (point d’acclamation:  )
- the “doubt point” (point de doute:  )

**Colon (punctuation)**

The colon is a punctuation mark consisting of two equally sized dots centered on the same vertical line. A colon is used to explain or start an enumeration. A colon is also used with ratios,

titles and subtitles of books, city and publisher in bibliographies, business letter salutation, hours and minutes, and formal letters

**Usage**

The most common use of the colon is to inform the reader that what follows the colon proves, explains, defines, describes, or lists elements of what preceded it. In modern American English usage, a complete sentence precedes a colon, while a list, description, explanation, or definition follows it. The elements which follow the colon may or may not be a complete sentence: since the colon is preceded by a sentence, it is a complete sentence whether what follows the colon is another sentence or not. Some writers prefer to capitalize the first letter after the colon; others do not. Both are correct in American English usage.

colon used before list

Williams was so hungry he ate everything in the house: chips, cold pizza, pretzels and dip, hot dogs, peanut butter and candy.

colon used before a description

Jane is so desperate that she'll date anyone, even Tom: he's uglier than a squashed toad on the highway, and that's on his good days.

colon before definition

For years while I was reading Shakespeare's Othello and criticism on it, I had to constantly look up the word "egregious" since the villain uses that word: outstandingly bad or shocking.

colon before explanation

I had a rough weekend: I had chest pain and spent all Saturday and Sunday in the Emergency room.

Some writers use fragments — incomplete sentences — before a colon for emphasis or stylistic preferences (to show a character's Voice in literature), as in this example:Dinner: chips and beer. What a well-rounded diet I have. Writers often also do that in social media such as Tweets because the number of characters is limited and they are trying to say as much as possible in as few characters as they can while maintaining somewhat correct grammar usage. Please note that a colon (:) and a semi-colon (;) are not interchangeable in grammar and that the usage of both has changed over the last couple hundred years. This is the contemporary usage of a colon in expository writing or literature: older literature such as novels or plays may use it differently.

The Bedford Handbook describes several uses of a colon. For example, one can use a colon after an independent clause to direct attention to a list, an appositive or a quotation, and it can be used between independent clauses if the second summarizes or explains the first. In non-literary or

non-expository uses, one may use a colon after the salutation in a formal letter, to indicate hours and minutes, to show proportions, between a title and subtitle, and between city and publisher in bibliographic entries.[2]

Luca Serianni, an Italian scholar who helped to define and develop the colon as a punctuation mark, identified four punctuational modes for it: syntactical-deductive,syntactical-descriptive, appositive, and segmental. Although Serianni wrote this guide for the Italian language, his definitions apply also to English and many other languages.

Business Letter Salutation

One of the ways used for salutation in a letter other than to use comma "," is to use colon, though more common practice is to use the comma.

Hello Mr. XYZ:

It's great to have your confirmation for the upcoming event.

Syntactical-deductive

The colon introduces the logical consequence, or effect, of a fact stated before.

There was only one possible explanation: the train had never arrived.

Syntactical-descriptive

In this sense the colon introduces a description; in particular, it makes explicit the elements of a set.

I have three sisters: Daphne, Rose, and Suzanne.

Similarly, the syntactical-descriptive colon separates chapter and verse numbers in citations of passages in widely-studied texts, such as epic poetry, religious texts, and the plays of William Shakespeare.

John 3:14–16 or John III:14–16 refers to verses 14 to 16 of chapter three of the Gospel of John.

Syntactical-descriptive colons may separate the numbers indicating hours, minutes, and seconds in abbreviated measures of time

The concert begins at 21:45.

The rocket launched at 09:15:05.

British English, however, more frequently uses a full stop for this purpose:

The programme will begin at 8.00 pm.

You will need to arrive by 14.30

Appositive

The colon introduces an appositive independent clause. In other words, the sentence after the colon is in apposition (grammatically parallel) to the one before the colon. Please note that this could also be simply considered an explanation of why Bob could not speak, and written without the capital He after the colon. Both would be technically correct.

Bob could not speak: He was drunk

Bob could not speak: he was drunk.

An appositive colon also separates the subtitle of a work from its principal title. In titles, neither needs to be a complete sentence as it is not expository writing.

Star Wars Episode IV: A New Hope

Segmental

Like a dash or quotation mark, a segmental colon introduces speech. The segmental function was once a common means of indicating an unmarked quotation on the same line. The following example is from the grammar book The King's English:

Benjamin Franklin proclaimed the virtue of frugality: A penny saved is a penny earned.

This form is still used in written dialogues, such as in a play. The colon indicates that the words following an individual's name are spoken by that individual.

Patient: Doctor, I feel like a pair of curtains.

Doctor: Pull yourself together!

**Use of capitals**

Use of capitalization or lower-case after a colon varies. In British English, the word following the colon is in lower case unless it is aproper noun or an acronym, or is normally capitalized for some other reason (e.g. see segmental use hereinbefore). However, inAmerican English, many writers capitalize the word following a colon if it begins an independent clause, i.e. a clause that could stand as a complete sentence. This follows the guidelines of some modern American style guides, including those published by theAssociated Press and the Modern Language Association. The Chicago Manual of Style, however, requires capitalization only when the colon introduces a direct quotation or two or more complete sentences.

In many European languages the colon is usually followed by a lower-case letter (unless the upper case is required for other reasons, such as for a proper noun). However, usage differs from

this in German, where an upper-case letter may be used only if the sentenceafter the colon could stand alone without the preceding sentence (otherwise one may judge freely according to the relative independence of the two assertions and in Dutch, where an upper-case letter must be used if the colon is followed by a quotation or an enumeration of complete sentences, although in all other cases a lower-case letter should be used.

**Spacing**

In print, a thin space is traditionally placed before a colon and a thick space after it. In modern English-language printing, no space is placed before a colon and a single space is placed after it. In French-language typing and printing, the traditional rules are preserved.

One or two spaces may be and have been used after a colon. The older convention (designed to be used by monospaced fonts) was to use two spaces after a colon.

**History**

English colon is from Latin colon (plural cola), itself from Greek κῶλον "limb, member, portion", in rhetoric or prosody especially a part or section of a sentence or a rhythmical period of an utterance. In palaeography, a colon is a clause or group of clauses written as a line.

The OED cites William Blades' The life and typography of W. Caxton (1882), p. 126:

"The Greek grammarians […] called a complete sentence a period, a limb was a colon, and a clause a comma."

Use of the : symbol to mark the discontinuity of a grammatical construction, or a pause of a length intermediate between that of asemicolon and that of a period, was introduced in English orthography around 1600.

John Bullokar's An English expositor (1616) glosses Colon as "A marke of a sentence not fully ended which is made with two prickes."

John Mason in An essay on elocution (1748) prescribes "A Comma Stops the Voice while we may privately tell one, a Semi Colon two; a Colon three: and a Period four."

IPA Diacritical usage

A special triangular colon symbol is used in IPA to indicate that the preceding sound is long. Its form is that of two triangles, each a little larger than a point (dot) of a standard colon, pointing toward each other. It is available in Unicode as modifier letter triangular colon, Unicode U+02D0 (ː). A regular colon is often used as a fallback when this character is not available, and in the practical orthography of some languages which have a phonemic long/short distinction in vowels.

If the upper triangle is used without the lower one, it designates a "half-long" vowel.

**Word-medial separator**

In Finnish and Swedish, the colon can appear inside words in a manner similar to the apostrophe in the English possessive case, connecting a grammatical suffix to an abbreviation or initialism, a special symbol, or a digit (e.g., Finnish USA:n and Swedish USA:sfor the genitive case of "USA", Finnish %:ssa for the inessive case of "%", or Finnish 20:een for the illative case of "20").

**Abbreviation**

In Swedish, the colon is used in contractions, such as S:t for Sankt (Swedish for "Saint"), e.g. in the Stockholm metro station S:t Eriksplan. This can even occur in people's names, for example Antonia Ax:son Johnson (Ax:son for Axelson). The colon was also used to mark abbreviations in early modern English.

**Letter**

The colon is also used as a grammatical tone letter in Budu in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, in Sabaot in Kenya, in someGrebo in Liberia, and in Papua New Guinea: Erima, Gizra, Go□bosi, Gwahatike, Kaluli, Kamula, Kasua, Kuni-Boazi, andZimakani.[17] The Unicode character used for the tone letter U+A789 □ MODIFIER LETTER COLON is different from the punctuation (U+003A), as well from IPA's triangular colon U+02D0.

**Mathematics and logic**

The colon is used in mathematics, cartography, model building and other fields to denote a ratio or a scale, as in 3:1 (pronounced “three to one”). When a ratio is reduced to a simpler form, such as 10:15 to 2:3, this may be expressed with a double colon as 10:15::2:3; this would be read "10 is to 15 as 2 is to 3". Unicode provides a distinct character U+2236 ∶ RATIO for mathematical usage.

The notation |G:H| may also denote the index of a subgroup.

The notation $f\colon X \to Y$ indicates that f is a function with domain X and codomain Y.

The combination with an equal sign, $\coloneqq$ , is used for definitions.

In mathematical logic, when using set-builder notation for describing the characterizing property of a set, it is used as an alternative to a vertical bar (which is the ISO 31-11 standard), to mean “such that”. **Example:**

(S is the set of all x in  (the real numbers) such that x is strictly greater than 1 and strictly smaller than 3)

In type theory and programming language theory, the colon sign after a term is used to indicate its type, sometimes as a replacement to the "∈" symbol. Example:

Some languages like Haskell use a double colon (::) to indicate type instead.

A colon is also sometimes used to indicate a tensor contraction involving two indices, and a double colon (::) for a contraction over four indices.

**Slash (punctuation)**

The slash (/) is a sign used as a punctuation mark and for various other purposes. It often is called a forward slash (a retronym used to distinguish the slash from thebackslash, "\") and many other names, and sometimes is erroneously called abackslash.

**History**

The slash goes back to the days of ancient Rome. In the early modern period, in theFraktur script, which was widespread through Europe in the Middle Ages, one slash (/) represented a comma, while two slashes (//) represented a dash. The two slashes eventually evolved into a sign similar to the equals sign (=), then being further simplified to a single dash (–).

Usage

In English text

The slash is most commonly used as the word substitute for "or" which indicates a choice (often mutually-exclusive) is present. (Examples: Male/Female, Y/N, He/She. See also the Gender-neutrality in Spanish and Portuguese section below.) The slash is also used to avoid taking a position in a naming controversy, allowing the juxtaposition of both names without stating a preference. An example is the designation "Assyrian/Chaldean/Syriac" in the official U.S. census, reflecting the Syriac naming dispute. The Swedish census has come to a similar solution, using "Assyrier/Syrianer" to refer to the same ethnic group.

Additionally the use of the slash is to replace the hyphen or en dash to make a clear, strong joint between words or phrases, such as "the Hemingway/Faulkner generation".

The slash is also used to indicate a line break when quoting multiple lines from a poem,play, or headline; or in an ordinary prose quotation, the start of a new paragraph. In this case, a space is placed before and after the slash. For example: "Love alters not with his brief hours and weeks / But bears it out even to the edge of doom". When used this way, the mark is called a virgule. It is thinner than a solidus if typeset.

There are usually no spaces either before or after a slash: "male/female". Exceptions are in representing the start of a new line when quoting verse, or a new paragraph when quoting prose. The Chicago Manual of Style (at 6.104) also allows spaces when either of the separated items is a compound that itself includes a space: "Our New Zealand / Western Australia trip". (Compare use of an en dash used to separate such compounds.) The Canadian Style: A Guide to Writing and Editing prescribes "No space before or after an oblique when used between individual words, letters or symbols; one space before and after the oblique when used between longer groups which contain internal spacing", giving the examples "n/a" and "Language and Society / Langue et société".

**Abbreviations**

The slash is often used to separate the letters in a two-letter initialism such as R/C (short for "radio control") or w/o ("without"). Other examples include b/w ("between" or, sometimes, "black and white"), w/e ("whatever", also "weekend" or "week ending"), i/o ("input/output"), r/w ("read/write") and even a one-letter initialism w/ ("with"). British English in particular makes use of the slash instead of the hyphen in forming abbreviations. Many examples are found in writings during the Second World War. For example, "S/E" means "single-engined", as a quick way of writing a type of aircraft.

In the U.S. government, office names are abbreviated using slashes, starting with the larger office and following with its subdivisions. In the State Department, the Office of Commercial & Business Affairs in the Bureau for Economic, Energy and Business Affairs is referred to as EEB/CBA.

**Proofreading**

When highlighting corrections on a proof, a proofreader will write what he or she thinks should be changed—or why it should be changed—in the margin. They separate the comments with a slash called a separatrix.

When marking an uppercase letter for conversion to lowercase, a proofreader will put a slash through it and write lc or l/c in the margin.

**Arithmetic**

Used between numbers slash means division, and in this sense the symbol may be read aloud as "over". For sets, it usually meansmodulo (quotient group). Proper typography requires a more horizontal line and the numbers rendered using superscript and subscript, e.g. “123⁄456”.

**Currency**

The solidus /ˈsɒlɪdəs/ or a shilling mark is a punctuation mark used to indicate fractions including fractional currency. The solidus is significantly more horizontal than the slash. These

are two distinct symbols that traditionally have entirely different uses. However, many people no longer distinguish between them, and when there is no alternative it is acceptable to use the slash in place of the solidus. In the UK and Commonwealth of Nations, prior to decimalisation, a solidus symbol was used forshillings; thus "5⁄6" meant "five shillings and six pence", and "5⁄-" meant "five shillings". Currency sums in pounds, shillings, andpence were abbreviated using the '£' symbol, the "s." symbol, and the "d." symbol (collectively £sd) referring to the Libra, the solidus, and the denarius. The 's.' was at one stage written using a long s, ſ, that was further abbreviated to the ⁄ symbol, and suppression of the "d."; thus "2 pounds, 10 shillings, and 6 pence", often written as "£2-10-6" (as an alternative to "£2 10s. 6d."), and "10 shillings" would often be written as "10⁄-". This usage caused the names solidus (given the abbreviation's historical root) and shilling mark[2] to be used as names for this character; see also shilling.

A slash followed by a dash is used at the conclusion of currency if cents are not included. For example, on a check/cheque or a hand-written invoice, somebody may write "$50/-" (equivalent to $50.00) to denote the end of the currency. This keeps anybody from adding further digits to the end of the number.

**CURRENCY EXCHANGE RATE NOTATION**

Currency exchange rate notation uses slash counter-intuitively. For example, the exchange rate for the euro in U.S. dollars is quoted as "EUR/USD x", which does _not_ mean "x euros per dollar" but the opposite: it means one euro is x U.S. dollars. In currency exchange notation, the currency preceding the slash is the "base currency" and the currency after the slash is the "counter-currency" or the "quoted currency".

**Bowling**

A slash denotes a spare, knocking down all ten pins in two throws, when scoring ten-pin bowling, and duckpin bowling.

Computing

Encoding

In Unicode and ASCII, the slash is character 47 (in decimal), or 2F (in hexadecimal).

- U+002F / SLASH (47decimal, HTML: /)

In contradiction to the precedent of long-established typesetting terminology, the ISO and the Unicode Consortium both designate this character (the common slash or virgule) as U+002F / SOLIDUS,[3](see Currency).

Despite amendments to the character metadata (by including aliases, such as "solidus (in typography)" for FRACTION SLASH[4]), This contradiction is likely to persist, as The Unicode Consortium clearly states:

“[…] once a character is encoded, its name will not be changed.”

Usually the character considered a true solidus is U+2044 ⁄ FRACTION SLASH.[6] Unicode standards also intend this character to specifically indicate a fraction, and to flag the rendering engine to realize the numbers as vulgar fractions if possible; for example, so that "1⁄2" can be rendered similar to the single character "½".

In addition there is U+2215 ∕ DIVISION SLASH which does not have this typographical effect. Since few fonts and text layout systems have the proper mappings to implement this, FRACTION SLASH is often realized identical to DIVISION SLASH.

Programming

- In most programming languages, / is used as a division operator. Starting with version 2.2, Python uses // (two slashes) for integer division, rounding down.
- MATLAB and GNU Octave also have the ./ (a dot and a slash) to indicate an element-by-element division of matrices.
- Comments in C, C++, C#, Java, JavaScript, PHP, CSS, and SAS begin with /* (a slash and an asterisk), and end with */ (the same characters in the opposite order).
- C99, C++, C#, PHP, Java, and JavaScript also have comments that begin with // (two slashes) and span a single line.
- In SGML and derived languages such as HTML and XML, a slash is used to indicate a closing tag. For example, in HTML, ends a section of emphasized text that had been started with .
- Slashes are used as the standard delimiters for regular expressions, although other characters can be used instead.
- Slashes are sometimes used to show italics, when no special formatting is available. Example: /Italic text/
- IBM JCL uses two slashes to start each line in a batch job stream (except for /* and /&).
- Windows, DOS, CP/M, OpenVMS, and OS/2 all use the slash to indicate command-line options. For instance the "wide" option is added to the dir command by typing "dir/w" (no space is necessary). Compatibility with this is why DOS added the backslash path separator, because otherwise one could not run a program in a different directory, since the program name always ended at the slash.

**Genealogy**

The GEDCOM Standard for exchanging computerized genealogical data uses slashes to delimit surnames. Example: Bill /Smith/ Jr.

Slashes around surnames are also used in Personal Ancestral File.

**Dates**

Certain shorthand date formats use / as a delimiter, for example "16/9/2003" 16 September 2003.

In the UK there used to be a specialised use in prose: 7/8 May referred to the night which starts the evening of 7 May and ends the morning of 8 May, totalling about 12 hours depending on the season. This was used to list night-bombing air-raids which would carry past midnight. Some police units in the USA use this notation for night disturbances or chases. Conversely, the form with an en dash, 7–8 May, would refer to the two-day period, at most 48 hours. This would commonly be used for meetings.

ISO 8601 provides a standard method of expressing dates and times which resolves ambiguities caused by the different formatshistorically used by different countries. According to this norm, dates must be written year-month-day using hyphens, but time periods are written separated by a solidus: 1939-09-01/1945-05-08, for example, would be the duration of the Second World War in the European theatre, while 2010-09-03/12-22 might be used for the autumn term of a northern-hemisphere school, from September the third to December the twenty-second, both in 2010. Instead of the solidus in some applications a double hyphen is used, e.g.1939-09-01--1945-05-08, which would allow the use of the duration in filenames.

**Fiction**

For a specialised use of the slash in the classification of fan fiction stories, see slash fiction.

The slash has been used as the title of a novel by Greg Bear, / (Slant). The "Slant" was added on to give people something to call the book, but it has ultimately become the accepted title in many book lists.

The slash is also the symbol for a wand in NetHack.

**Library science**

In cataloging, as prescribed by the Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules, a slash is used to separate the title from the statement of responsibility (e.g., author, director, production company). The slash is flanked by a single space on either side. This form may be seen on catalog cards as well as electronic catalogs, depending on how items are chosen to display.

**Examples:**

- Gone with the Wind / by Margaret Mitchell.
- Star Trek II. The Wrath of Khan [videorecording] / Paramount Pictures.

**Linguistics**

Slashes are used to enclose a phonemic transcription of speech.

**Address**

Slashes (or virgules) are used in addresses of places. E.g. 8/A Pushkar Society, to specify the eighth Apartment (bearing Number 8) in Building A of a multi-building residential complex named Pushkar Society. However, 8-A or # 8A will mean Section or Wing A of Apartment 8. In this sense, the slash stands for of.

**Numbering**

Slashes (or virgules) are used to indicate the serial number of an article in a set of a finite number of articles. E.g. "page #17/35" in a document indicates the seventeenth out of a total of 35 pages in a document/chapter/book. Also, the marking "#333/500" on one of many packages indicates that the package so identified is three hundred thirty-third out of 500 numbered packages. Slashes (or virgules) are used to separate a score from the maximum possible score (of marks). Thus, a score of 65/100 in a mark-list indicates scoring of 65 marks out of 100. Also, "He scored 7/10 in German". In this sense, the slash stands for "out of".

**Music**

Slashes (virgules) are used in music as an alternative to writing out specific notes where it is easier to read than traditional notation, or where the player can improvise. They are commonly used to indicate chords either in place of or in combination with traditional notation, and for drummers as an indication to continue with the previously indicated style.

**Physics**

In quantum field theory, a slash through a symbol, such as , is shorthand for $\gamma_\mu a^\mu$, where a is a covariant four-vector, the $\gamma_\mu$ are thegamma matrices, and the repeated index $\mu$ is summed over according to the Einstein notation.

Other alternations with hyphen

Besides the varied usage with dates, the slash is used to indicate a range of serial numbers which have the hyphen already as part of their alphanumeric symbol set. The primary example is the US Air Force serial numbers for aircraft. These are usually written, for example, as "85-1000", for the thousandth aircraft ordered in fiscal year 1985. To designate a series of serial numbers, the slash is used, as in 85-1001/1050 for the first fifty subsequent aircraft.

## Gender-neutrality in Spanish and Portuguese

In Portuguese and Spanish, as well in other West Iberian languages, many feminine forms are very similar to the masculine ones, differing only by an extra desinence, usually an "-a". For instance, the feminine of "pintor" ("male painter" both in Spanish and Portuguese) is "pintora". These two forms can be joined together through a slash: pintor/a. Proponents of gender-neutral language assert that this composed form should be used when the sex of the person referred to is unknown or when a description fits both sexes. Traditionally, speakers of these languages (and others from the Romance family) employ the masculine form in this sense, even when the description is also suitable for a woman.

Although parentheses are longer and less specific than a slash, they are the preferred punctuation marks in Portuguese, so "painter" (meaning male or female) is usually written as "pintor(a)". Prominent Portuguese grammar references don't mention any use of the slash,[10] but at least one proposal of gender-inclusive Portuguese does incorporate the sign. According to Portuguese With Inclusion of Gender, a slash should be used instead of parentheses. Slashes should not be used when an at-sign ("@") or an a-e ligature ("æ") are more appropriate.

## Space (punctuation)

In writing, a space ( ) is a blank area devoid of content, serving to separate words, letters, numbers, and punctuation. Conventions for interword and intersentence spacesvary among languages, and in some cases the spacing rules are quite complex.

In the classical period, Latin was written with interpuncts (centred dots) as word separators, but that practice was abandoned sometime around AD 200 in favour ofscriptio continua, i.e., with the words running together without any word separators. In around AD 600–800, blank spaces started being inserted between words in Latin, and that practice carried over to all languages using the Latin alphabet (e.g. English).

In typesetting, spaces have historically been of multiple lengths with particular space-lengths being used for specific typographic purposes, such as separating words or separating sentences or separating punctuation from words. Following the invention of the typewriter and the subsequent overlap of designer style-preferences and computer-technology limitations, much of this reader-centric variation was lost in normal use.

In computer representation of text, spaces of various sizes, styles, or language characteristics (different space characters) are indicated with unique code points.

### Use of the space in natural languages

**Spaces between words**

Modern English uses a space to separate words, but not all languages follow this practice. Spaces were not used to separate words in Latin until roughly AD 600–800.Ancient Hebrew and Arabic did use spaces, partly to compensate in clarity for the lack of vowels. Traditionally, all CJK languages have no spaces: modernChinese and Japanese (except when written with little or no kanji) still do not, but modern Korean uses spaces.

Spaces between sentences

Languages with a Latin-derived alphabet have used various methods of sentence spacing since the advent of movable type in the 15th century.

- One space (French Spacing). This is a common convention in most countries that use the ISO basic Latin alphabet for published and final written work, as well as digital (World Wide Web) media.[1] Web browsers usually do not differentiate between single and multiple spaces in source code when displaying text, unless text is given a "white-space" CSS attribute. Without this being set, collapsing strings of spaces to a single space allows HTML source code to be spaced in a more readable way, at the expense of control over spacing of the rendered page.

- Double space (English Spacing). It is sometimes claimed that this convention stems from the use of the monospaced font on typewriters. However, instructions to use more spacing between sentences than words date back centuries, and two spaces on a typewriter was the closest approximation to typesetters' previous rules aimed at improving readability. Wider spacing continued to be used by both typesetters and typists until the Second World War, after which typesetters gradually transitioned to word spacing between sentences in published print, while typists continued the practice of using two spaces.

- One widened space, typically one-and-a-third to slightly less than twice as wide as a word space. This spacing was sometimes used in typesetting before the 19th century. It has also been used in other non-typewriter typesetting systems such as the Linotype machine[ and the TeX system. Modern computer-based digital fonts can adjust the spacing after terminal punctuation as well, creating a spaceslightly wider than a standard word space.

- No space. According to Lynne Truss, "young people" today using digital media "are now accustomed to following a full stop with a lower-case letter and no space"

There has been some controversy regarding the proper amount of sentence spacing in typeset material. The Elements of Typographic Style states that only a single word space is required for sentence spacing since "Larger spaces...are themselves punctuation

Spaces and unit symbols

The International System of Units, or SI, and the style guide of the English-language Wikipedia recommend a (non-breaking) space between a number and its units, as well as between units in the case of compound units, but never between the prefix of an SI unit and the basic unit.

5.0 cm not 5.0 c m

45 kg not 45kg or 45 k g

32 °C not 32°C or 32° C

20 kN m not 20 kNm or 20 k Nm

50 % not 50% (% is not an SI unit, and Wikipedia does not follow this SI recommendation.)

The only exceptions to this rule in the SI are for the symbols for degree, minute, and second for plane angle, as in 30° 22′ 8″.

Some sources say that a hyphen may be inserted between a numeral and a symbol used adjectivally, for the sake of clarity:

35-mm film

60-W bulb

However some other style guides, including Wikipedia's, deprecate hyphenation in these cases. The SI allows a hyphen between the numeral and the unit only when the name of the unit is spelled out, as 35-millimetre film.

Space characters and digital typography

Variable-width general-purpose space

In computer character encodings, there is a normal general-purpose space (Unicode character U+0020; 32 decimal) whose width will vary according to the design of the typeface. Typical values range from 1/5 em to 1/3 em (in digital typography an em is equal to the nominal size of the font, so for a 10-point font the space will probably be between 2 and 3.3 points). Sophisticated fonts may have differently sized spaces for bold, italic, and small-caps faces, and often compositors will manually adjust the width of the space depending on the size and prominence of the text.

In addition to this general-purpose space, it is possible to encode a space of a specific width. See the table below for a complete list.

Breaking and non-breaking spaces

By default, computer programs usually assume that, in flowing text, a line break may as necessary be inserted at the position of a space. The non-breaking space, U+00A0 (160 decimal), is intended to render the same as a normal space but prevents line-wrapping at that position.

Hair spaces around dashes

In American typography, both en dashes and em dashes are set continuous with the text (as illustrated by use in The Chicago Manual of Style, 6.80, 6.83–86). However, an em dash can optionally be surrounded with a so-called hair space, U+200A (8202 decimal), or thin space, U+2009 (8201 decimal). The thin space can be written in HTML by using the named entity   and the hair space can be written using numeric character reference   or  . This space should be much thinner than a normal space, and is seldom used on its own.

**Zero Punctuation**

Zero Punctuation is an ongoing video game review series created by comedy writer and video game journalist Ben "Yahtzee" Croshaw and published by the online magazine The Escapist.

**Background**

The series began when Croshaw created two video reviews, one for The Darknessdemo for the PlayStation 3 and the other for Fable: The Lost Chapters for the PC, and uploaded them on YouTube. Among other organizations, The Escapist contacted Croshaw and offered him a contract shortly thereafter. Since then, Zero Punctuation has become very popular. The series remains one of the publication's most prolific and signature features

**Format**

In Zero Punctuation, Croshaw usually reviews a game or games using rapid-fire speech delivery (which was the inspiration for the name "Zero Punctuation", although he states that his fast talking was "by accident").This is accompanied by minimalistic cartoon imagery on a distinctive yellow background, illustrating what is being said or providing ironic counterpoint to it. The videos are typically around five minutes in length and formerly featured commercial songs at the beginning and end, which were usually related to the game context (although sometimes only tangentially, such as Croshaw using Dave Matthews Band's Crash Into Me for the Burnout review). Other reviews have an opening song completely at odds with the game in question (such as Led Zeppelin's Stairway to Heaven for Painkiller, a game which revolves around a man in Purgatory, or Leslie Gore's Sunshine, Lolipops and Rainbows for the overtly dark and violent game Manhunt). These have since been replaced by a single, standard opening sequence consisting of clips from past reviews and metal music, as composed and performed by Ian Dorsch. The end credits often feature humorous notes about Croshaw's reviews such as

"Systematically alienating every type of fanboy" in GTA IV, and often also contain characters from the review engaging in slapstick.

Croshaw, who uses his "Yahtzee" nickname while reviewing, appears in the videos wearing a trilby (much like the main character of his Chzo Mythos games). A recurring character in the videos is a small imp-like creature (who also appears in one of the Zero Punctuation logos) who usually plays various supporting roles in the video as either the antagonist or the sidekick, often taking the place of enemies in the game being reviewed. The imp is in fact a stylized version of a "darkling" from the first game Yahtzee reviewed, The Darkness, that he referred to as an "Evil Imp". Croshaw frequently anthropomorphizes video games and game companies in his reviews, using them as characters by adding legs and arms to the game's box art or logo.

**Critical style**

Croshaw, more often than not, provides highly critical reviews of games, usually pointing out the faults that he implies other professional reviewers ignore in high-profile releases. He also provides negative reviews of less popular games, such as Haze andAmy, and tends to shun certain genres of games, e.g. JRPGs, RTS games and fighting games or certain overused conventions, e.g.Nintendo's continuation of its long-running franchises (or more precisely their continuation of these franchises while still making what Croshaw considers to be the same game), and "[his] old arch-nemesis" quick time events. He predicted that the Wii's control scheme would just be a short-lived gimmick. He often uses popular FPS series like Call of Duty and Battlefield as examples of bad modern games, although he gave Call of Duty 4 a positive review. He also has a particular grudge towards Nintendoafter the Super Smash Brothers Brawl review had drawn angry fans which prompted a video response. Kane & Lynch 2: Dog Days,Battlefield 3 and Call of Duty: Modern Warfare 3, Amy and Call of Duty: Ghosts were named as his Worst Games of the Year of 2010, 2011, 2012, and 2013 respectively (Battlefield 3 and Call of Duty: Modern Warfare 3 tied in 2011). Additionally, he gave mock awards to Metal Gear Solid 4: Guns of the Patriots, Silent Hill Homecoming, Alone in the Dark, Dead Space, Prince of Persia, Grand Theft Auto IV, Sonic Unleashed, Wolfenstein, Wet, and Resident Evil 5 for some of their negative aspects. He also named BioShock 2, Final Fantasy XIII, Star Wars: The Force Unleashed II, Metroid: Other M, MindJack, Red Faction: Armageddon, Dead Island,Duke Nukem Forever, Resident Evil 6, NeverDead, Steel Battalion: Heavy Armor, Medal of Honor: Warfighter, Star Trek, SimCity,Aliens: Colonial Marines and Beyond: Two Souls have been named in his Worst Games of the Year lists. Finally, in 2013, Croshaw also awarded the "Zero Punctuation Lifetime Achievement Award for Total Abhorrence" to Ride to Hell: Retribution, claiming that "it's not a game, it's congealed failure".

The reviews are not always negative, and he has praised some games. For example, Portal, Psychonauts, and Silent Hill 2 all received positive reviews and first/third person shooters are usually compared to the Half-Life series as model examples of the genre.Saints Row 2, Batman: Arkham Asylum, Just Cause 2, Portal 2, Spec Ops: The Line and BioShock: Infinite were named

as his Games of the Year of 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013 respectively. Additionally, Limbo, Amnesia: The Dark Descent, Red Dead Redemption, Dead Rising 2, The Elder Scrolls V: Skyrim, Infamous 2, Bastion, Driver: San Francisco, Dishonored, The Walking Dead, Far Cry 3, XCOM: Enemy Unknown, Metal Gear Rising: Revengeance, Assassin's Creed IV: Black Flag, Saints Row IV and Papers, Please have been named in his Games of the Year lists. Croshaw started his review of BioShock by acknowledging that "Despite all the horrible things I'm about to say, it's still probably one of the best games of the year", but spent the rest of the review criticizing it, because "No-one likes it when I'm being nice to a game" (referring to his positive review of Psychonauts). He was also broadly complimentary to its sequel BioShock Infinite, calling it "good, maybe even great" and stating that he could not fault it gameplay-wise.

He also discusses popular topics related to video games, such as criticism of former Attorney-General Michael Atkinson for his opposition to mature-rated games in Australia, where he currently resides, and topics not related to video games, often for humorous purposes, such as Branston Pickle and the United States government.

Croshaw cites the work of British television critic and PC Zone journalist Charlie Brooker as the "main inspiration" for his own reviewing style, as well as the writings of Douglas Adams, Sean "Seanbaby" Riley, and Old Man Murray's Chet Faliszek and Erik Wolpaw. He expressed respect towards the late Roger Ebert, noted that he "might one day aspire to being his videogaming equivalent".

**Comma**

The comma ( , ), from the Greek κόμμα komma, is a punctuation mark, and it appears in several variants in various languages. It has the same shape as an apostrophe or single closing quotation mark in many typefaces, but it differs from them in being placed on the baseline of the text. Some typefaces render it as a small line, slightly curved or straight but inclined from the vertical, or with the appearance of a small, filled-in number 9. It is used to separate parts of a sentence such as clauses and lists of three or more things.

The comma is used in many contexts and languages, mainly for separating things. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the word comma comes directly from theGreek komma (κόμμα), which means something cut off or a short clause. A comma can also be used as a diacritic when combined with other characters.

**Comma variants**

The basic comma is defined in Unicode as U+002C , COMMA (HTML: ,) but many variants by typography or language are also defined.

## History

In the 3rd century BC, Aristophanes of Byzantium invented a system of single dots (distinctiones) that separated verses (colometry), and indicated the amount of breath needed to complete each fragment of text, when reading aloud The different lengths were signified by a dot at the bottom, middle, or top of the line. For a short passage (a komma), a media distinctio dot was placed mid-level ( • ). This is the origin of the concept of a comma, although the name came to be used for the mark itself instead of the clause it separated.

The mark used today is descended from a diagonal slash, or virgula suspensiva ( / ), used from the 13th to 17th centuries to represent a pause. The modern comma was first used by Aldus Manutius.

## Uses in English

In general, the comma is used where ambiguity might otherwise arise, to indicate an interpretation of the text such that the words immediately before and after the comma are less closely or exclusively linked in the associated grammatical structure than they might be otherwise. The comma may be used to perform a number of functions in English writing. It is used in generally similar ways in other languages, particularly European ones, although the rules on comma usage – and their rigidity – vary from language to language.

In lists

Commas are used to join items in lists, as in They own a cat, a dog, two rabbits, and six mice. Some English style guides require a comma be used before the final conjunction (and, or, nor) in a list of more than two elements. A comma used in such a position is variously called a serial comma, an Oxford, or a Harvard comma (after the Oxford University Press and Harvard University Press, both prominent advocates of this style). In some contexts, use of such a comma may serve to avoid ambiguity:

- The sentence I spoke to the boys, Sam and Tom, could mean either I spoke to the boys and Sam and Tom (I spoke to more than three people) or I spoke to the boys, who are Sam and Tom (I spoke to two people);
- I spoke to the boys, Sam, and Tom. – must be the boys and Sam and Tom (I spoke to more than three people).

The serial comma can cause confusion. Consider the following sentence:

- I thank my mother, Anne Smith, and Thomas. This could mean either my mother and Anne Smith and Thomas (three people) ormy mother, who is Anne Smith, and Thomas (two people).

- I thank my mother, Anne Smith and Thomas. The writer is thanking three people: the writer's mother and Anne Smith (who is not the writer's mother) and Thomas.

As a rule of thumb, The Guardian Style Guide suggests that straightforward lists (he ate ham, eggs and chips) do not need a comma before the final "and", but sometimes it can help the reader (he ate cereal, kippers, bacon, eggs, toast and marmalade, and tea). The Chicago Manual of Style, and other academic writing guides, require the "serial comma": all lists must have a comma before the "and" prefacing the last item in a series.

If the individual items of a list are long, complex, affixed with description, or themselves contain commas, semicolons may be preferred as separators, and the list may be introduced with a colon.

Separation of clauses

Commas are often used to separate clauses. In English, a comma is used to separate a dependent clause from the independent clause if the dependent clause comes first: After I fed the cat, I brushed my clothes. (Compare this with I brushed my clothes after I fed the cat.) A relative clause takes commas if it is non-restrictive, as in I cut down all the trees, which were over six feet tall.(Without the comma, this would mean that only those trees over six feet tall were cut down.)

Some style guides prescribe that two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) must be separated by a comma placed before the conjunction. In the following sentences, where the second clause is independent (because it can stand alone as a sentence), the comma is considered by those guides to be necessary:

- Mary walked to the party, but she was unable to walk home.
- Designer clothes are silly, and I can't afford them anyway.
- Don't push that button, or twelve tons of high explosives will go off right under our feet!

In the following sentences, where the second half of the sentence is not an independent clause (it cannot stand alone), those guides prescribe that the comma be omitted (Note that it is dependent upon the subject's presence in the sentence's second phrase):

- Mary walked to the party but was unable to walk home.
- I think designer clothes are silly and can't afford them anyway.
- Don't push that button that'll set off the twelve tons of high explosives sitting right under our feet.

However, the comma may be omitted if the second independent clause is very short, typically when the second independent clause is an imperative. In the following sentence, it is sometimes considered acceptable to omit the comma, even though the second clause is independent:

- Sit down and shut up.

Long coordinating clauses are usually separated by commas:

- She had very little to live on, but she would never have dreamed of taking what was not hers.

In some languages, such as German and Polish, stricter rules apply on comma usage between clauses, with dependent clauses always being set off with commas, and commas being generally proscribed before certain coordinating conjunctions.

The joining of two independent sentences with a comma and no conjunction (as in "It is nearly half past five, we cannot reach town before dark.") is known as a comma splice and is often considered an error in English; in most cases a semicolon should be used instead. A comma splice should not be confused, though, with asyndeton, a literary device used for a specific effect in which coordinating conjunctions are purposely omitted.

**Certain adverbs**

Commas are always used to set off certain adverbs at the beginning of a sentence, including however, in fact, therefore,nevertheless, moreover, furthermore, and still.

- Therefore, a comma would be appropriate in this sentence.
- Nevertheless, I will not use one.

If these adverbs appear in the middle of a sentence, they are followed and preceded by a comma. As in the second of the two below examples, if the two sentences are separated by a semicolon and the second sentence starts with an adverb, then it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma.

- In this sentence, furthermore, commas would also be called for.
- This sentence is similar; however, a semicolon is necessary as well.

Using commas to offset certain adverbs is optional, including then, so, yet, instead, and too (meaning also).

- So, that's it for this rule. or
- So that's it for this rule.

- A comma would be appropriate in this sentence, too. or
- A comma would be appropriate in this sentence too.

**Parenthetical phrases**

Commas are often used to enclose parenthetical words and phrases within a sentence (i.e., information that is not essential to the meaning of the sentence). Such phrases are both preceded and followed by a comma, unless that would result in a doubling of punctuation marks, or the parenthetical is at the start or end of the sentence. The following are examples of types of parenthetical phrases:

- Introductory phrase: Once upon a time, my father ate a muffin.
- Interjection: My father ate the muffin, gosh darn it!
- Aside: My father, if you don't mind me telling you this, ate the muffin.
- Appositive: My father, a jaded and bitter man, ate the muffin.
- Absolute phrase: My father, his eyes flashing with rage, ate the muffin.
- Free modifier: My father, chewing with unbridled fury, ate the muffin.
- Resumptive modifier: My father ate the muffin, a muffin which no man had yet chewed.
- Summative modifier: My father ate the muffin, a feat which no man had attempted.

**Between adjectives**

A comma is used to separate coordinate adjectives; that is, adjectives that directly and equally modify the following noun. Adjectives are considered coordinate if the meaning would be the same if their order were reversed or if and were placed between them. For example:

- The dull, incessant droning but the cute little cottage.
- The devious lazy red frog suggests there are lazy red frogs (one of which is devious), while the devious, lazy red frog does not carry this connotation.

**Before quotes**

A comma is used to set off quoted material that is the grammatical object of an active verb of speaking or writing, as in Mr. Kershner says, "You should know how to use a comma." Quotations that follow and support an assertion should be set off by a colon rather than a comma.

In dates

**Month, day, year**

When a date is written as a month followed by a day followed by a year, a comma separates the day from the year: December 19, 1941. This style is common in American English. The comma is necessary because of the otherwise confusing consecutive numbers, compare December 19 1941. Additionally, most style manuals, including The Chicago Manual of Style[9] and the AP Stylebook,[10] recommend that the year be treated as a parenthetical, requiring a second comma after it: "Feb. 14, 1987, was the target date." However, one exception to this general rule is that you do not include a comma after the year where the date is serving as a specifically identifying adjective - almost as a title: "The September 11, 2001 attacks on the WTC brought a renewed feeling of patriotism."

If just month and year are given, no commas are used: "Her daughter April may return in June 2009 for the reunion."

**Day month year**

When the day precedes the month, the month name separates the numeric day and year, so commas are not necessary to separate them: "The Raid on Alexandria was carried out on 19 December 1941."

**In geographical names**

Commas are used to separate parts of geographical references, such as city and state (Dallas, Texas) or city and country (Kampala, Uganda). Additionally, most style manuals, including The Chicago Manual of Style[ and the AP Stylebook, recommend that the second element be treated as a parenthetical, requiring a second comma after: "The plane landed in Kampala, Uganda, that evening.

The United States Postal Service and Royal Mail recommend writing addresses without any punctuation.

**In numbers**

In representing large numbers, English texts usually use commas to separate each group of three digits. This is almost always done for numbers of six or more digits, and often for five or four digits. However, in much of Europe, Southern Africa and Latin America,periods or spaces are used instead; the comma is used as a decimal separator, equivalent to the use in English of the decimal point. In addition, the comma may not be used for this purpose at all in some number systems, e.g. the SI writing style; a space may be used to separate groups of three digits instead.

**In names**

Commas are used when writing names that are presented surname first, generally in instances of alphabetization by surname:Smith, John. They are also used before many titles that follow a name: John Smith, Ph.D.

"The big final rule for the comma is one that you won't find in any books by grammarians ... don't use commas like a stupid person."

Lynne Truss, Eats, Shoots, and Leaves.

**Ellipsis**

Commas may be used to indicate that a word has been omitted, as in The cat was white; the dog, brown. (Here the comma replaces was.)

**Vocative**

Commas are placed before, after, or around a noun or pronoun used independently in speaking to some person, place or thing:

- I hope, John, that you will read this.

Differences between American and British usage

The comma and the quotation mark pairing can be used in several ways. In American English, the comma is commonly included inside a quotation, regardless of whether the comma is part of the original quotation. For example:

- My mother gave me the nickname "Bobby Bobby Bob Bob Boy," which really made me angry.

However, in British English, punctuation is placed within quotation marks only if it is part of what is being quoted or referred to. Thus:

- My mother gave me the nickname "Bobby Bobby Bob Bob Boy", which really made me angry.

The use of the serial comma, also known as the Oxford comma, Harvard comma, or the series comma, is sometimes perceived as overly careful or an Americanism, but usage occurs within both American and British English.

Opinions among writers and editors differ on whether to use the serial comma. In American English, a majority of style guides mandate use of the serial comma, including The Chicago Manual of Style, Strunk and White's Elements of Style, and the U.S. Government Printing Office Style Manual. The Associated Press Stylebook for journalistic writing advises against it. It is used less often in British English but some British style guides require it, including the Oxford

University Press style manual and Fowler's Modern English Usage. Some writers of British English use it only where necessary to avoid ambiguity

Barbara Child claims that in American English there is a trend toward a decreased use of the comma (Child, 1992, p. 398). This is reinforced by an article by Robert J. Samuelson in Newsweek. Lynne Truss says that this is equally true in the UK, where it has been a slow, steady trend for at least a century:

Nowadays… A passage peppered with commas—which in the past would have indicated painstaking and authoritative editorial attention—smacks simply of no backbone. People who put in all the commas betray themselves as moral weaklings with empty lives and out-of-date reference books. (Truss, 2004, p. 97–98)

In his 1963 book Of Spies and Stratagems, Stanley P. Lovell recalls that, during the Second World War, the British carried the comma over into abbreviations. Specifically, "Special Operations, Executive" was written "S.O.,E.". Nowadays, even the full stopsare frequently discarded.

Bracket

Brackets are tall punctuation marks used in matched pairs within text, to set apart or interject other text. Used unqualified, brackets refer to different types of brackets in different parts of the world and in different contexts

List of types

- ( ) — parentheses, brackets (UK, New Zealand, and Australia), parens, round brackets, soft brackets, or circle brackets
- [ ] — square brackets, closed brackets, hard brackets, or brackets (US)
- { } — braces (UK and US), flower brackets (India), French brackets, curly brackets, definite brackets, swirly brackets, curly braces, birdie brackets, Scottish brackets, squirrelly brackets, gullwings, seagulls, squiggly brackets, Tuborg brackets (DK), accolades (NL), pointy brackets, or fancy brackets
- ⟨ ⟩ — pointy brackets, angle brackets, triangular brackets, diamond brackets, tuples, or chevrons
- < > — inequality signs, pointy brackets, or brackets. Sometimes referred to as angle brackets, in such cases as HTML markup. Occasionally known as broken bracketsor brokets.
- ;「 」— corner brackets

Characters ‹ › and « », known as guillemets or angular quote brackets, are actuallyquotation mark glyphs used in several European languages.

**History**

The chevron was the earliest type of bracket to appear in written English. Desiderius Erasmus coined the term lunula to refer to the rounded parentheses (), recalling the shape of the crescent moon

**Usage**

In addition to referring to the class of all types of brackets, the unqualified word bracketis most commonly used to refer to a specific type of bracket. In modern American usage this is usually the square bracket and in modern British usage this is usually the parenthesis.

In American usage, parentheses are usually considered separate from other brackets, and calling them "brackets" at all is unusual even though they serve a similar function.

In more formal usage, "parenthesis" may refer to the entire bracketed text, not just to the punctuation marks used (so all the text in this set of round brackets may be said to be "a parenthesis", "a parenthetical", or "a parenthetical phrase")

According to early typographic practice, brackets are never set in italics, even when the surrounding characters are italic.

**Types**

Parentheses ( )

Various terms redirect here; for other uses, see Parenthesis (disambiguation), ( ) (disambiguation), Parenthetical referencing, and Parenthetical Girls

Due to technical restrictions, titles like ":)" redirect here. For typographical portrayals of faces, see Emoticon.

Parentheses /pz/ (singular, parenthesis /prs/) (also called simplybrackets, or round brackets, curved brackets, oval brackets, or, colloquially, parens/prnz/) contain material that could be omitted without destroying or altering the meaning of a sentence (in most writing, overuse of parentheses is usually a sign of a badly structured text)[according to whom?]. A milder effect may be obtained by using a pair of commas as the delimiter, though if the sentence contains commas for other purposes, visual confusion may result.

Parentheses may be used in formal writing to add supplementary information, such as "Sen. John McCain (R., Arizona) spoke at length." They can also indicate shorthand for "either singular or

plural" for nouns – e.g., "the claim(s)" – or for "either masculine or feminine" in some languages with grammatical gender.

Parenthetical phrases have been used extensively in informal writing and stream of consciousness literature. Examples include the southern American author William Faulkner (see Absalom, Absalom! and the Quentin section of The Sound and the Fury) as well as poet E. E. Cummings. Parentheses have historically been used where the dash is currently used—that is, in order to depict alternatives, such as "parenthesis)(parentheses". Examples of this usage can be seen in editions of Fowler's.

Parentheses may be nested (generally with one set (such as this) inside another set). This is not commonly used in formal writing (though sometimes other brackets [especially square brackets] will be used for one or more inner set of parentheses, [in other words, secondary {or even tertiary} phrases can be found within the main parenthetical sentence])

Any punctuation inside parentheses or other brackets is independent of the rest of the text: "Mrs. Pennyfarthing (What? Yes, that was her name!) was my landlady." In this usage, the explanatory text in the parentheses is a parenthesis. (Parenthesized text is usually short and within a single sentence. Where several sentences of supplemental material are used in parentheses the final full stop would be within the parentheses. Again, the parenthesis implies that the meaning and flow of the text is supplemental to the rest of the text and the whole would be unchanged were the parenthesized sentences removed.)

Parentheses are included in the syntaxes of many computer programming languages. Typically needed to denote an argument; to tell the compiler what data type the Method/Function needs to look for first in order to initialise.

Parentheses in mathematics signify a different precedence of operators. Normally, $2 + 3 \times 4$ would be 14, since the multiplication is done before the addition. On the other hand $(2 + 3) \times 4$ is 20, because the parentheses override normal precedence, causing the addition to be done first. Some authors follow the convention in mathematical equations that, when parentheses have one level of nesting, the inner pair are parentheses and the outer pair are square brackets. Example:

A related convention is that when parentheses have two levels of nesting, curly brackets (braces) are the outermost pair. Following this convention, when more than three levels of nesting are needed, often a cycle of parentheses, square brackets, and curly brackets will continue. This helps to distinguish between one such level and the next.

Parentheses are also used to set apart the arguments in mathematical functions. For example, f(x) is the function f applied to thevariable x. In coordinate systems parentheses are used to denote a set of coordinates; so in the Cartesian coordinate system (4,7)may represent the point located at 4

on the x-axis and 7 on the y-axis. Parentheses may also represent intervals; (0,5), for example, is the interval between 0 and 5, not including 0 or 5.

Parentheses may also be used to represent a binomial coefficient, and in chemistry to denote a polyatomic ion.

In Chinese and Japanese, 【 】, a combination of brackets and parentheses called 方頭括號 and sumitsuki, are used for inference in Chinese and used in titles and headings in Japanese.

Unpaired parenthesis

Lowercase latin letters used as indexes, rather than bullets or numbers, followed by unpaired parenthesis, are used in ordered listsespecially in:

a) educational testing,

b) technical writing and diagrams,

c) market research, and

d) elections

Square brackets [ ]

Square brackets – also called crotchets or simply brackets (US) – are mainly used to insert explanatory material or to mark where a passage was omitted from an original material by someone other than the original author, or to mark modifications in quotations.

A bracketed ellipsis […] is often used to indicate omitted material: "I'd like to thank [several unimportant people] for their tolerance..."[8] Bracketed comments inserted into a quote indicate when the original has been modified for clarity: "I appreciate it [the honor], but I must refuse", and "the future of psionics [see definition] is in doubt". Or one can quote the original statement "I hate to do laundry" with a modification inserted in the middle of it: He "hate[s] to do laundry".

Additionally, a small letter can be replaced by a capital one, when the beginning of the original text is omitted for succinctness, for example, when referring to a verbose original: "To the extent that policymakers and elite opinion in general have made use of economic analysis at all, they have, as the saying goes, done so the way a drunkard uses a lamppost: for support, not illumination", it can be quoted succinctly as: "[P]olicymakers (…) made use of economic analysis (…) the way a drunkard uses a lamppost: for support, not illumination." When nested parentheses are needed, brackets are used as a substitute for the inner pair of parentheses within the outer pair.[9] When deeper levels of nesting are needed, convention is to alternate between parentheses and brackets at each level.

Alternatively, empty square brackets can also indicate omitted material, usually single letter only. The original "Reading is also a process and it also changes you." can be rewritten in a quote as: It has been suggested that reading can "also change[] you".

The bracketed expression “[sic]” is used after a quote or reprinted text to indicate the passage appears exactly as in the original source, where it may otherwise appear that a mistake has been made in reproduction.

In translated works, brackets are used to signify the same word or phrase in the original language to avoid ambiguity. For example: He is trained in the way of the open hand [karate].

In linguistics, phonetic transcriptions are generally enclosed within brackets, often using the International Phonetic Alphabet, whereas phonemic transcriptions typically use paired slashes. Pipes (| |) are often used to indicate a morphophonemic rather than phonemic representation. Other conventions are double slashes (// //), double pipes (|| ||) and curly brackets ({ }).

Brackets are used to denote parts of the text that need to be checked when preparing drafts prior to finalizing a document. They often denote points that have not yet been agreed to in legal drafts and the year in which a report was made for certain case law decisions.

Brackets are used in mathematics in a variety of notations, including standard notations for intervals, commutators, the floor function, the Lie bracket, the Iverson bracket, and matrices.

Brackets can also be used in chemistry to represent the concentration of a chemical substance or to denote distributed charge in acomplex ion.

Brackets are used in many computer programming languages, especially those derived or inspired by the C language, to indicatearray indexing operators. In this context, the opening bracket is often pronounced as "sub", indicating a subscript.

Curly brackets or braces { }

These are used immediately before or after, and span, a list of items where there precedes, or follows, respectively, one or more other items that are common to that list. This usage, however, is precluded in text-editing software that has no provision for such column- or row-spanning characters.

Curly brackets – also called braces or squiggly brackets in the US – are used in specialized ways in poetry and music (to mark repeats or joined lines). The musical terms for this mark joining staves areaccolade and "brace", and connect two or more lines of music that are played simultaneously. Inmathematics they delimit sets, and in writing, they may be used similarly, "Select your animal {goat, sheep, cow, horse} and follow me". In many programming languages, they enclose groups ofstatements. Such languages (C being one of the best-known examples) are

therefore called curly bracket languages. Some people use a brace to signify movement in a particular direction.[clarification needed]

Presumably due to the similarity of the words brace and bracket (although they do not share anetymology), many people mistakenly treat brace as a synonym for bracket. Therefore, when it is necessary to avoid any possibility of confusion, such as in computer programming, it may be best to use the term curly bracket rather than brace. However, general usage in North American English favours the latter form. Indian programmers often use the name "flower bracket"

In classical mechanics, curly brackets are often also used to denote the Poisson bracket between two quantities.

Angles 「」

In East Asian punctuation, angle brackets are used as quotation marks.

Floor and ceiling corners ⌊ ⌋, ⌈ ⌉

The floor corner brackets ⌊ and ⌋, the ceiling corner brackets ⌈ and ⌉ are used to denote the integer floor and ceiling functions.

Quine corners, and half brackets

The Quine corners  and  have at least two uses in mathematical logic: either as quasi-quotation, a generalization of quotation marks, or to denote the Gödel number of the enclosed expression.

Half brackets are used in English to mark added text, such as in translations: "Bill saw her".

In editions of papyrological texts, half brackets,  and  or  and, enclose text which is lacking in the papyrus due to damage, but can be restored by virtue of another source, such as an ancient quotation of the text transmitted by the papyrus. For example,Callimachus Iambus 1.2 reads: κ τν κου βον κολλύβου π⸢ιπρήσκουσιν. A hole in the papyrus has obliterated βου π, but these letters are supplied by an ancient commentary on the poem. Second intermittent sources can be between ⸢ and . Quine corners are sometimes used instead of half brackets.

Double brackets ⟦ ⟧

In formal semantics, double brackets, ⟦ ⟧, also called Strachey brackets, are used to indicate the semantic evaluation function.

Uses of "(" and ")"

- Parentheses are often used to define the syntactic structure of expressions, overriding operator precedence: a*(b+c) has subexpressions a and b+c, whereas a*b+c has subexpressions a*b and c.

- They are used for passing parameters or arguments to functions, especially in C and similar languages, and invoking a function or function-like construct: substring($val,10,1).
- In Lisp, they open and close s-expressions and therefore function applications: (cons a b).
- In many regular expression syntaxes, parentheses create a capturing group, allowing the matched portion inside to be retrieved by the user.
- In Forth, they open and close comments in the code.
- In Fortran-family and COBOL languages, they are also used for array references.
- In the Perl programming language through Perl 5, they are used to define lists, static array-like structures; this idiom is extended to their use as containers of subroutine (function) arguments.
- In the Perl 6 programming language, they define captures, a structure that defers contextual interpretation. This usage extends to ordinary parentheses as well. They are also used to indicate arguments to function calls and to declare signatures of formal parameters or other variables.
- In Python they are used to disambiguate tuple literals (immutable ordered lists), which are usually formed by commas, in places where parentheses and commas would otherwise be a part of a function call.
- In Tcl, they are used to enclose the name of an element of an associative array variable.
- In joined brackets in a table going vertically downwards, a ")" refers to repetition of a term for the number of items towards the left of this joined list of brackets.

**Uses of "[" and "]"**

- Square brackets are often used to refer to elements of an array or associative array, and sometimes to define the number of elements in an array, especially in C-like languages: queue
- In many languages, they may be used to define a literal anonymous array or list
- In most regular expression syntaxes, brackets denote a character class: a set of possible characters to choose from.
- In Forth, "[" causes the system to enter interpretation state and "]" causes the system to entercompilation state. For example, within a definition, [ 2 + 3 ] literal causes the compiler to switch to the interpreter mode, calculate the expression 2 + 3, leave the result

on stack and resume compilation. As a result, a literal constant "5" will be compiled into the definition, instead of the whole expression.

- In Tcl, they enclose a sub-script to be evaluated and the result substituted.
- In some of the CLI languages, most notably C# and C++, they are used to denote metadata attributes.
- In C++11 they introduce Lambda expressions and hold an optional capture clause.
- In x86 assembly implementations such as FASM, they are used to distinguish pointers from their data.
- In Smalltalk, brackets are used to delineate "blocks" or "block closures", grouping of code that can be executed immediately or later via messages send such as "value" sent to the block. Blocks are full first class objects in Smalltalk.
- In Objective-C, brackets are used to send a message to (i.e. call a method on) an object.
- On Unix, "[" is a shorthand for the test command.
- In JSON they are used to define an array (ordered sequence of comma-separated values).
- In programming documentation and metalanguages (e.g. in descriptions of operator or command syntax), optional elements are enclosed in square brackets. For example, "echo [-n] [-e] <text>" means that the -n and -e parameters are optional.
- Delimiting IPv6 addresses in URLs, for example: http://[2001:db8:3c4d:15::abcd:ef12]:8080.
- In MediaWiki, pairs of brackets create links from one page to another within a given wiki (e.g. [[Bracket]]), and single brackets create links to a specified URL (e.g. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bracket]).

**Uses of "{" and "}"**

- Curly brackets are used in some programming languages to define the beginning and ending of blocks of code or data. Languages which use this convention are said to belong to the curly bracket family of programming languages.
- They are used to represent certain type definitions or literal data values, such as a composite structure or associative array.
- In mathematics, they enclose elements of sets and denote sets.

- In Curl they are used to delimit expressions and statements (similar to Lisp's use of parenthesis).
- In Pascal they define the beginning and ending of comments.
- In most regular expression syntaxes, they are used as quantifiers, matching n repetitions of the previous group.
- In Perl they are also used to refer to elements of an associative array.
- In PHP they are used to determine structures.
- In Tcl they enclose a string to be substituted without any internal substitutions being performed.
- In Python and Ruby they are used for dictionaries (a mutable set of key: value pairs, separated by commas) and for sets.
- In TeX/LaTeX they can be used for grouping parts sharing the same local format, wrap parameters, or definitions, depending on the local catcode value.
- In JSON they are used to define an object (an unordered collection of key:value pairs).
- In metalanguages (e.g. in descriptions of operator or command syntax), possible alternatives are enclosed in braces, if at least one is mandatory.
- In Verilog they are used to specify a list of bit and bit vectors being concatenated.
- These are also used in music at the start of a stave.

**Uses of "<" and ">"**

These symbols are used in pairs as if they are brackets.

- Greater-than and less-than signs are used to set apart URLs and e-mail addresses in text, such as "I found it on Example.com <http://www.example.com/>" and "This photo is copyrighted by John Smith <johnsmith@example.com>". This is also the computer-readable form for addresses in e-mail headers, specified by RFC 2822.
- In documentation, they are often used to specify parameters or other user-specified information (e.g. "The command 'echo <text>' can be used to display <text>").
- To enclose code tags in SGML, HTML, and XML (e.g. ).
- To target children of a parent element in CSS (e.g. ul.main>li whereas all direct child selectors of the ul.main tag are targeted).

- In the C++, C#, and Java programming languages, (among others) they delimit generic arguments.
- In Perl through Perl 5 they are used to read a line from an input source.
- In Perl 6 they combine quoting and associative array lookup.
- In BNF, they are used to denote nonterminals (e.g. <name> ::= <first-name> <last-name>).
- In ABAP they denote field symbols – placeholders or symbolic names for other fields, which can point to any data object.
- To indicate an action or status (e.g. <Waves> or <Offline>), particularly in online, real-time text-based discussions (instant messaging, bulletin boards, etc.). (Here, asterisks can also be used to signify an action.)

When the signs are not used in pairs to delimit text (not acting as brackets):

- They are used as less-than and greater-than relational operators, possibly in combination with other marks. In some languages the pair together as <> denotes an inequation ("not equal to").
- When doubled as << or >> they may represent bit shift operators, or in C++, also stream input/output operators.
- They indicate the redirection of input/output in various command shells.
- Right-angle brackets are used in nested Usenet quoting and various e-mail formats, and as such are standard quotation mark glyphs.
- A pair of right-angle brackets followed by the character's name and a colon are used in some production scripts and translated closed captioning to denote when there is a change of speaker. This is so a performer can easily scan for their lines when rehearsing a script.
- In translating manga, it is common to use right-angle brackets to indicate that the text was originally in the language it is shown in, and was thus not translated.

**Apostrophe**

"Apostrophes" redirects here. For other uses of "apostrophes" and "apostrophe", see Apostrophe (disambiguation).

"'" and "’" redirect here. For other uses, see ' (disambiguation).

"Apos" redirects here. For the Romanian village of Apoş, see Bârghiş.

The apostrophe (’, although often rendered as '), is a punctuation mark, and sometimes a diacritical mark, in languages that use the Latin alphabet or certain other alphabets. In English, it serves three purposes:

- The marking of the omission of one or more letters (as in the contraction of do not todon’t).
- The marking of possessive case (as in the cat’s whiskers, or in one month's time).
- The marking by some as plural of written items that are not words established in English orthography (as in P's and Q's). (This is considered incorrect by others; seeUse in forming certain plurals. The use of the apostrophe to form plurals of proper words, as in apple’s, banana’s, etc., is universally considered incorrect.)

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), ‘apostrophe’ comes ultimately fromGreek ἡ ἀπόστροφος [προσῳδία] (hē apóstrophos [prosōidía], “[the accent of] ‘turning away’, or elision”), through Latin and French.

The apostrophe looks the same as a closing single quotation mark, although they have different meanings. The apostrophe also looks similar to, but is not the same as theprime symbol ( ), which is used to indicate measurement in feet or arcminutes, as well as for various mathematical purposes, and the okina ( ), which represents a glottal stop in Polynesian languages. Such incorrect substitutes as ´ (acute) and ` (grave) are not uncommon in unprofessional texts, where an ambiguous treatment of the apostrophe in digital typesetting (as explained below) is a major factor of this confusion.

**English language usage**

**Historical development**

The apostrophe was introduced into English in the 16th century in imitation of French practice.

French practice

Introduced by Geoffroy Tory (1529), the apostrophe was used in place of a vowel letter to indicate elision (as in l’heure in place of la heure). It was frequently used in place of a final e (which was still pronounced at the time) when it was elided before a vowel, as inun’ heure. Modern French orthography has restored the spelling une heure.

Early English practice

From the 16th century, following French practice, the apostrophe was used when a vowel letter was omitted either because of incidental elision (I’m for I am) or because the letter no longer represented a sound (lov’d for loved). English spelling retained many inflectionsthat were not pronounced as syllables, notably verb endings (-est, -eth, -es, -ed) and the noun ending -es,

which marked either plurals or possessives (also known as genitives; see Possessive apostrophe, below). So apostrophe followed by s was often used to mark a plural, especially when the noun was a loan word (and especially a word ending ina, as in the two comma's)

**Standardisation**

The use of elision has continued to the present day, but significant changes have been made to the possessive and plural uses. By the 18th century, apostrophe + s was regularly used for all possessive singular forms, even when the letter e was not omitted (as inthe gate's height). This was regarded as representing the Old English genitive singular inflection -es. The plural use was greatly reduced, but a need was felt to mark possessive plural. The solution was to use an apostrophe after the plural s (as in girls' dresses). However, this was not universally accepted until the mid-19th century.

**Possessive apostrophe**

The apostrophe is used to indicate possession. This convention distinguishes possessive singular forms (Bernadette's, flower's, glass's, one's) from simple plural forms (Bernadettes, flowers, glasses,ones), and both of those from possessive plural forms (Bernadettes', flowers', glasses', ones'). For singulars, the modern possessive or genitive inflection is a survival from certain genitive inflections in Old English, and the apostrophe originally marked the loss of the old e (for example, lambesbecame lamb's).

**General principles for the possessive apostrophe**

**Summary of rules for most situations**

- Possessive personal pronouns, serving as either noun-equivalents or adjective-equivalents, do not use an apostrophe, even when they end in s. The complete list of those ending in the letter sor the corresponding sound /s/ or /z/ but not taking an apostrophe is ours, yours, his, hers, its, theirs, and whose.
- Other pronouns, singular nouns not ending in s, and plural nouns not ending in s all take 's in the possessive: e.g., someone's, a cat's toys, women's.
- Plural nouns already ending in s take only an apostrophe after the pre-existing s when the possessive is formed: e.g., three cats' toys.

**Basic rule (singular nouns)**

For most singular nouns the ending 's is added; e.g., the cat's whiskers.

- If a singular noun ends with an s-sound (spelt with -s, -se, for example), practice varies as to whether to add 's or the apostrophe alone. A widely accepted practice is to follow whichever spoken form is judged better: the boss's shoes, Mrs Jones' hat (or Mrs Jones's

hat, if that spoken form is preferred). In many cases, both spoken and written forms differ between writers. (See details below.)

Basic rule (plural nouns)

When the noun is a normal plural, with an added s, no extra s is added in the possessive; so the neighbours' garden (where there is more than one neighbour) is correct rather than the neighbours's garden.

- If the plural is not one that is formed by adding s, an s is added for the possessive, after the apostrophe: children's hats, women's hairdresser, some people's eyes (but compare some peoples' recent emergence into nationhood, where peoples is meant as the plural of the singularpeople). These principles are universally accepted.
- A few English nouns have plurals that are not spelled with a final s but nevertheless end in an /s/ or a /z/ sound: mice (plural of mouse; also in compounds like dormouse, titmouse), dice (when used as the plural of die), pence (a plural of penny, with compounds like sixpence that now tend to be taken as singulars). In the absence of specific exceptional treatment in style guides, the possessives of these plurals are formed by adding an apostrophe and an s in the standard way:seven titmice's tails were found, the dice's last fall was a seven, his few pence's value was not enough to buy bread. These would often be rephrased, where possible: the last fall of the dice was a seven.

**Basic rule (compound nouns)**

Compound nouns have their singular possessives formed with an apostrophe and an added s, in accordance with the rules given above: the Attorney-General's husband; the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports' prerogative; this Minister for Justice's intervention; her father-in-law's new wife.

- In such examples, the plurals are formed with an s that does not occur at the end: e.g.,attorneys-general. A problem therefore arises with the possessive plurals of these compounds. Sources that rule on the matter appear to favour the following forms, in which there is both an sadded to form the plural, and a separate s added for the possessive: the attorneys-general's husbands; successive Ministers for Justice's interventions; their fathers-in-law's new wives.[6]Because these constructions stretch the resources of punctuation beyond comfort, in practice they are normally reworded: interventions by successive Ministers for Justice.

**Joint and separate possession**

A distinction is made between joint possession (Jason and Sue’s e-mails: the e-mails of both Jason and Sue), and separate possession (Jason’s and Sue’s e-mails: both the e-mails of Jason and the e-mails of Sue). Style guides differ only in how much detail they provide concerning these. Their consensus is that if possession is joint, only the last possessor has possessive

inflection; in separate possession all the possessors have possessive inflection. If, however, any of the possessors is indicated by a pronoun, then for both joint and separate possession all of the possessors have possessive inflection (his and her e-mails; his, her, and Anthea's e-mails; Jason's and her e-mails; His and Sue's e-mails; His and Sue's wedding; His and Sue's weddings).

Note that in cases of joint possession, the above rule does not distinguish between a situation in which only one or more jointly possessed items perform a grammatical role and a situation in which both one or more such items and a non-possessing entity independently perform that role. Although verb number suffices in some cases ("Jason and Sue's dog has porphyria.") and context suffices in others ("Jason and Sue's e-mails rarely exceed 200 characters in length."), number and grammatical position often prevent a resolution of ambiguity:

- Where multiple items are possessed and context is not dispositive[clarification needed], a rule forbidding distribution of the possessive merely shifts ambiguity: suppose that Jason and Sue had one or more children who died in a car crash and that none of Jason's children by anyone other than Sue were killed. Under a rule forbidding distribution of the joint possessive, writing "Jason and Sue's children died in the crash" (rather than "Jason's and Sue's children") eliminates the implication that Jason lost children of whom Sue was not the mother, but it introduces ambiguity as to whether Jason himself was killed.
- Moreover, if only one item is possessed, the rule against distribution of the joint possessive introduces ambiguity (unless thecontext happens to resolve it): when read in light of a rule requiring distribution, the sentence "Jason and Sue's dog died after being hit by a bus" makes clear[really?] that the dog belonged to Sue alone and that Jason survived or was not involved, whereas a rule prohibiting distribution forces ambiguity as to both whether Jason (co-)owned the dog and whether he was killed.

**With other punctuation; compounds with pronouns**

If the word or compound includes, or even ends with, a punctuation mark, an apostrophe and an s are still added in the usual way: "Westward Ho!'s railway station"; "Awaye!'s Paulette Whitten recorded Bob Wilson's story"; Washington, D.C.'s museums,[11]assuming that the prevailing style requires full stops in D.C.

- If the word or compound already includes a possessive apostrophe, a double possessive results: Tom's sisters' careers; the head of marketing's husband's preference; the master of foxhounds' best dog's death. Many style guides, while allowing that these constructions are possible, advise rephrasing: the head of marketing's husband prefers that .... If an original apostrophe, or apostrophe with s, occurs at the end, it is left by itself to do double duty: Our employees are better paid than McDonald's employees; Standard & Poor's indices are widely used: the fixed forms of McDonald's and Standard & Poor's

already include possessive apostrophes. For similar cases involving geographical names, see below.

- Similarly, the possessives of all phrases whose wording is fixed are formed in the same way:
- "Us and Them"'s inclusion on the album The Dark Side of the Moon
- You Am I's latest CD
- The 69'ers' drummer, Tom Callaghan (only the second apostrophe is possessive)
- His 'n' Hers' first track is called "Joyriders"
- Was She's success greater, or King Solomon's Mines's?

For complications with foreign phrases and titles, see below.

**Time, money, and similar**

An apostrophe is used in time and money references, among others, in constructions such as one hour's respite, two weeks' holiday(optional apostrophe), a dollar's worth, five pounds' worth (optional apostrophe), one mile's drive from here. This is like an ordinary possessive use. For example, one hour's respite means a respite of one hour (exactly as the cat's whiskers means the whiskers of the cat). Exceptions are accounted for in the same way: three months pregnant (in modern usage, one says neither pregnant of three months, nor one month(')s pregnant).

**Possessive pronouns and adjectives**

No apostrophe is used in the following possessive pronouns and adjectives: yours, his, hers, ours, its, theirs, and whose.

The possessive of it was originally it's, and many people continue to write it this way, though the apostrophe was dropped in the early 1800s and authorities are now unanimous that it's can be only a contraction of it is or it has.[14][15] For example, U.S. PresidentThomas Jefferson used it's as a possessive in his instructions dated 20 June 1803 to Lewis for his preparations for his great expedition.

All other possessive pronouns ending in s do take an apostrophe: one's; everyone's; somebody's, nobody else's, etc. With plural forms, the apostrophe follows the s, as with nouns: the others' husbands (but compare They all looked at each other's husbands, in which both each and other are singular).

**Importance for disambiguation**

Each of these four phrases (listed in Steven Pinker's The Language Instinct) has a distinct meaning:

- My sister's friend's investments (the investments belonging to a friend of my sister)
- My sister's friends' investments (the investments belonging to several friends of my sister)
- My sisters' friend's investments (the investments belonging to a friend of several of my sisters)
- My sisters' friends' investments (the investments belonging to several friends of several of my sisters)

Kingsley Amis, on being challenged to produce a sentence whose meaning depended on a possessive apostrophe, came up with:

- Those things over there are my husband's. (Those things over there belong to my husband.)
- Those things over there are my husbands'. (Those things over there belong to several husbands of mine.)
- Those things over there are my husbands. (I'm married to those men over there.)Singular nouns ending with an "s" or "z" sound

This subsection deals with singular nouns pronounced with a sibilant sound at the end: /s/ or /z/. The spelling of these ends with -s, -se, -z, -ze, -ce, -x, or -xe.

Many respected authorities recommend that practically all singular nouns, including those ending with a sibilant sound, have possessive forms with an extra s after the apostrophe so that the spelling reflects the underlying pronunciation. Examples includeOxford University Press, the Modern Language Association, the BBC and The Economist.[18] Such authorities demand possessive singulars like these: Senator Jones's umbrella; Tony Adams's friend. Rules that modify or extend the standard principle have included the following:

- If the singular possessive is difficult or awkward to pronounce with an added sibilant, do not add an extra s; these exceptions are supported by The Guardian, Yahoo! Style Guide, The American Heritage Book of English Usage Such sources permit possessive singulars like these: Socrates' later suggestion; or Achilles' heel if that is how the pronunciation is
- Classical, biblical, and similar names ending in a sibilant, especially if they are polysyllabic, do not take an added s in the possessive; among sources giving exceptions

of this kind are The Timesand The Elements of Style, which make general stipulations, and Vanderbilt University, which mentions only Moses and Jesus. As a particular case, Jesus' is very commonly written instead of Jesus's – even by people who would otherwise add 's in, for example, James's or Chris's. Jesus' is referred to as "an accepted liturgical archaism" in Hart's Rules.

However, some contemporary writers still follow the older practice of omitting the extra s in all cases ending with a sibilant, but usually not when written -x or -xe. Some contemporary authorities such as the Associated Press Stylebook and The Chicago Manual of Style recommend or allow the practice of omitting the extra "s" in all words ending with an "s", but not in words ending with other sibilants ("z" and "x"). The 15th edition of The Chicago Manual of Style still recommended the traditional practice, which included providing for several exceptions to accommodate spoken usage such as the omission of the extra s after a polysyllabic word ending in a sibilant. The 16th edition of CMOS no longer recommends omitting the extra "s"

Similar examples of notable names ending in an s that are often given a possessive apostrophe with no additional s include Dickensand Williams. There is often a policy of leaving off the additional s on any such name, but this can prove problematic when specific names are contradictory (for example, St James' Park in Newcastle [the football ground] and the area of St. James's Park in London). For more details on practice with geographic names, see the relevant section below.

Some writers like to reflect standard spoken practice in cases like these with sake: for convenience' sake, for goodness' sake, for appearance' sake, for compromise' sake, etc. This punctuation is preferred in major style guides. Others prefer to add 's: for convenience's sake. Still others prefer to omit the apostrophe when there is an s sound before sake: for morality's sake, but for convenience sake

The Supreme Court of the United States is split on whether a possessive singular noun that ends with s should always have an additional s after the apostrophe, sometimes have an additional s after the apostrophe (for instance, based on whether the final sound of the original word is pronounced /s/ or /z/), or never have an additional s after the apostrophe. The informal majority view (5–4, based on past writings of the justices) has favoured the additional s, but a strong minority disagrees.

Nouns ending with silent s, x or z

The English possessive of French nouns ending in a silent s, x, or z is rendered differently by different authorities. Some people preferDescartes' and Dumas', while others insist on Descartes's and Dumas's. Certainly a sibilant is pronounced in these cases; the question addressed here is whether s needs to be added. Similar examples with x or z: Sauce Périgueux's main ingredient is truffle; His pince-nez's loss went unnoticed; "Verreaux('s) eagle, a large, predominantly black eagle, Aquila verreauxi,..."(OED, entry for "Verreaux", with silent x; see

Verreaux's eagle); in each of these some writers might omit the added s. The same principles and residual uncertainties apply with "naturalised" English words, like Illinois and Arkansas.

For possessive plurals of words ending in silent x, z or s, the few authorities that address the issue at all typically call for an added sand suggest that the apostrophe precede the s: The Loucheux's homeland is in the Yukon; Compare the two Dumas's literary achievements. The possessive of a cited French title with a silent plural ending is uncertain: "Trois femmes's long and complicated publication history",[ but "Les noces' singular effect was 'exotic primitive'..." (with nearby sibilants -ce- in noces and s-in singular). Compare treatment of other titles, above.

Guides typically seek a principle that will yield uniformity, even for foreign words that fit awkwardly with standard English punctuation.

Possessives in geographic names

Place names in the United States do not use the possessive apostrophe on federal maps and signs. The United States Board on Geographic Names, which has responsibility for formal naming of municipalities and geographic features, has deprecated the use of possessive apostrophes since 1890 so as not to show ownership of the place. Only five names of natural features in the U.S. are officially spelled with a genitive apostrophe (one example being Martha's Vineyard).

Australia's Intergovernmental Committee on Surveying and Mapping also has a no-apostrophe policy, a practice it says goes back to the 1900s and which is generally followed around the country.

On the other hand, the United Kingdom has Bishop's Stortford, Bishop's Castle and King's Lynn (among many others) but St Albans,St Andrews and St Helens. London Underground's Piccadilly line has the adjacent stations of Earl's Court in Earls Court and Barons Court. These names were mainly fixed in form many years before grammatical rules were fully standardised. While Newcastle Unitedplay football at a stadium called St James' Park, and Exeter City at St James Park, London has a St James's Park (this whole area of London is named after the parish of St James's Church, Piccadilly). The special circumstances of the latter case may be this: the customary pronunciation of this place name is reflected in the addition of an extra -s; since usage is firmly against a doubling of the final -s without an apostrophe, this place name has an apostrophe. This could be regarded by some people as an example of a double genitive: it refers to the park of the parish of St James.

Modern usage has been influenced by considerations of technological convenience including the economy of typewriter ribbons and films, and similar computer character "disallowance" which tend to ignore traditional canons of correctness. Practice in the United Kingdom and Canada is not so uniform.

**Possessives in names of organizations**

Sometimes the apostrophe is omitted in the names of clubs, societies, and other organizations, even though the standard principles seem to require it: Country Women's Association, but International Aviation Womens Association; Magistrates' Court of Victoria, but Federated Ship Painters and Dockers Union. Usage is variable and inconsistent. Style guides typically advise consulting an official source for the standard form of the name (as one would do if uncertain about other aspects of the spelling of the name); some tend towards greater prescriptiveness, for or against such an apostrophe. As the case of womens shows, it is not possible to analyze these forms simply as non-possessive plurals, since women is the only correct plural form of woman.

**Quotation mark**

n English writing, quotation marks or inverted commas (informally referred to asquotes or speech marks are punctuation marks surrounding a quotation, direct speech, or a literal title or name. Quotation marks can also be used to indicate a different meaning of a word or phrase than the one typically associated with it and are often used to express irony. Quotation marks are sometimes used to provide emphasis, although this is usually considered incorrect.

Quotation marks are written as a pair of opening and closing marks in either of two styles: single (‘…’) or double (“…”). Opening and closing quotation marks may be identical in form (called neutral, vertical, straight, typewriter, or "dumb" quotation marks), or may be distinctly left-handed and right-handed (typographic or, colloquially, curly quotation marks); see quotation mark glyphs for details. Typographic quotation marks are usually used in manuscript and typeset text. Because typewriter and computer keyboards lack keys to directly enter typographic quotation marks, much typed writing has neutral quotation marks. The "smart quotes" feature in some computer software can convert neutral quotation marks to typographic ones, but sometimes imperfectly.

The closing single quotation mark is identical or similar in form to the apostrophe and similar to the prime symbol. However, these three characters have quite different purposes. The double quotation mark is similar to, and often used to represent, the ditto mark and the double prime symbol.

**History**

In the first centuries of typesetting, quotations were distinguished merely by indicating the speaker, and this can still be seen in some editions of the Bible. During theRenaissance, quotations were distinguished by setting in a typeface contrasting with the main body text (often Italic type with roman, or the other way around). Long quotations were also set this way, at full size and full measure

Quotation marks were first cut in metal type during the middle of the sixteenth century, and were used copiously by some printers by the seventeenth. In some Baroque andRomantic-period books, they would be repeated at the beginning of every line of a long quotation. When this practice was abandoned, the empty margin remained, leaving the modern form of indented block quotation.

In Early Modern English, quotation marks were used only to denote pithy comments. They first began to quote direct speech in 1714. By 1749, single quotation marks, or inverted commas, were commonly used to denote direct speech.

**Usage**

**Quotations and speech**

Single or double quotation marks denote either speech or a quotation. Double quotes are preferred in the United States, and also tend to be preferred in Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Single quotes are more usual in the United Kingdom and South Africa, though double quotes are also common there.[6] A publisher's or author's style may take precedence over regional general preferences. The important idea is that the style of opening and closing quotation marks must be matched:

'Good morning, Frank,' said Hal.

"Good morning, Frank," said Hal.

For speech within speech, the other style is used as inner quotation marks:

'Hal said, "Good morning, Dave,"' recalled Frank.

"Hal said, 'Good morning, Dave,'" recalled Frank.

Sometimes quotations are nested in more levels than inner and outer quotation. Nesting levels up to five can be found in the Christian Bible.[7] In these cases, questions arise about the form (and names) of the quotation marks to be used. The most common way is to simply alternate between the two forms, thus:

"…'…"…' … '…"…'…"

If such a passage is further quoted in another publication, then all of their forms have to be shifted up by one level.

In most cases, quotations that span multiple paragraphs should be set as block quotations, and thus do not require quotation marks. Quotation marks are used for multiple-paragraph quotations in some cases, especially in narratives. The convention in English is to give opening quotation

marks to the first and each subsequent paragraph, using closing quotation marks only for the final paragraph of the quotation, as in the following example from Pride and Prejudice:

The letter was to this effect:

"MY DEAR LIZZY,

"I wsh you joy. If you love Mr. Darcy half as well as I do my dear Wickham, you must be very happy. It is a great comfort to have you so rich, and when you have nothing else to do, I hope you will think of us. I am sure Wickham would like a place at court very much, and I do not think we shall have quite money enough to live upon without some help. Any place would do, of about three or four hundred a year; but however, do not speak to Mr. Darcy about it, if you had rather not.

**"Yours, etc."**

As noted above, in some older texts, the quotation mark is repeated every line, rather than every paragraph. The Spanish convention uses closing quotation marks at the beginning of all subsequent paragraphs beyond the first.

When quoted text is interrupted, such as with the phrase he said, a closing quotation mark is used before the interruption, and an opening quotation mark after. Commas are also often used before and after the interruption, more often for quotations of speech than for quotations of text:

"Hal," noted Frank, "said that everything was going extremely well."

Quotation marks are not used for paraphrased speech. This is because a paraphrase is not a direct quote, and in the course of any composition, it is important to document when one is using a quotation versus when one is using a paraphrased idea, which could be open to interpretation.

If Hal says: "All systems are functional", then, in paraphrased speech:

Incorrect: Hal said "everything was going extremely well".

Correct: Hal said that everything was going extremely well.

**Dash**

A dash is a punctuation mark that is similar to a hyphen or minus sign but that differs from both of these symbols primarily in length and function. The most common versions of the dash are the en dash (–) and the em dash (—), named for the length of atypeface's lower-case n and upper-case M respectively.

Usage varies both within English and in other languages, but the usual convention in printed English text is:

- Either version may be used to denote a break in a sentence or to set off parenthetical statements, although writers are generally cautioned to use a single form consistently within their work. In this function, en dashes are used with spaces and em dashes are used without them:

[Em dash:] A flock of sparrows—some of them juveniles—alighted and sang.

[En dash:] A flock of sparrows – some of them juveniles – alighted and sang.

- The en dash (but not the em dash) is also used to indicate spans or differentiation, where it may be considered to replace "and" or "to" (but not "to" in the phrase "from … to …"):

The French and Indian War (1754–1763) was fought in western Pennsylvania and along the present US–Canadian border

- The em dash (but not the en dash) is also used to set off the sources of quotes:

  In matters of grave importance, style, not sincerity, is the vital thing. — Oscar Wilde

**Common dashes**

**Figure dash**

The figure dash (‒) is so named because it is the same width as a digit, at least in fonts with digits of equal width. This is true of most fonts, not only monospaced fonts.

The figure dash is used when a dash must be used within numbers (e.g. phone number 555‒0199). It does not indicate a range, for which the en dash is used; nor does it function as the minus sign, which also uses a separate glyph.

The figure dash is often unavailable; in this case, one may use a hyphen-minus instead. In Unicode, the figure dash is U+2012 (decimal 8210). HTML authors must use the numeric forms ‒ or ‒ to type it unless the file is in Unicode; there is no equivalent character entity.

In TeX, the standard fonts have no figure dash; however, the digits normally all have the same width as the en dash, so an en dash can be substituted when using standard TeX fonts. In XeLaTeX, one could use \char"2012 (Linux Libertine font has the figure dash glyph).

**En dash**

The en dash, n dash, n-rule, or "nut" (–) is traditionally half the width of an em dash. In modern fonts, the length of the en dash is not standardized, and the en dash is often more than half the width of the em dash The widths of en and em dashes have also been specified as being equal to those of the upper-case letters N and M respectively and at other times to the widths of the lower-case letters.

Ranges of values

The en dash is commonly used to indicate a closed range of values—a range with clearly defined and finite upper and lower boundaries—roughly signifying what might otherwise be communicated by the word "through". This may include ranges such as those between dates, times, or numbers. Various style guides restrict this range indication style to only parenthetical or tabular matter, requiring "to" or "through" in running text

The semicolon (;) is a punctuation mark with several uses. The Italian printer Aldus Manutius the Elder established the practice of using the semicolon to separate words of opposed meaning and to allow a rapid change in direction in connecting interdependent statements. The first printed semicolon was the work of Aldus Manutius in 1494.[2]Ben Jonson was the first notable English writer to use the semicolon systematically. The modern uses of the semicolon relate either to the listing of items or to the linking of related clauses. In Unicode it is encoded at U+003B ; SEMICOLON (HTML: ;).

According to Lynne Truss, a British writer on grammar, many non-writers avoid the colon and semicolon for various reasons: "They are old-fashioned", "They are middle-class", "They are optional", "They are mysteriously connected to pausing", "They are dangerously addictive (vide Virginia Woolf)", and "The difference between them is too negligible to be grasped by the brain of man"

English

While terminal marks (i.e., full stops,exclamation marks, and question marks) mark the end of a sentence, the comma, semicolon and colon are normally sentence internal, making them secondary boundary marks. The semicolon falls between terminal marks and the comma; its strength is equal to that of the colon.

**Constraints**

1. When a semicolon marks the right boundary of a constituent (e.g., a clause or a phrase), the left boundary is marked by punctuation of equal or greater strength.

2. When two or more semicolons are used within a single construction, all constituents are at the same level unlike commas which can separate, for example, subordinate clauses from main clauses.

**Usage**

Semicolons are followed by a lower case letter, unless that letter is the first letter of aproper noun like the word I or Paris. Modern style guides recommend no space before them and one space after. They also typically recommend placing semicolons outside ending quotation marks,

although this was not always the case. For example, the first edition of the Chicago Manual of Style (1906) recommended placing the semicolon inside ending quotation marks.

Applications of the semicolon in English include:

- Between items in a series or listing containing internal punctuation, especially parenthetic commas, where the semicolons function as serial commas:
- The people present were Jamie, who came from New Zealand; John, the milkman's son; and George, a gaunt kind of man.
- Several fast food restaurants can be found within the following cities: London, England; Paris, France; Dublin, Ireland; Madrid, Spain.
- Here are three examples of familiar sequences: one, two, and three; a, b, and c; first, second, and third.
- She stood at the edge, deciding her course of action; changed her mind and walked home.
- (Fig. 8; see also plates in Harley 1941, 1950; Schwab 1947).

  This is by far the most frequent use currently.
- Between closely related independent clauses not conjoined with a coordinating conjunction, when the two parts of the sentence are balanced, opposed or contradictory:
- My wife would like tea; I would prefer coffee.
- I went to the basketball court; I was told it was closed for cleaning.
- I told Kate she's running for the hills; I wonder if she knew I was joking.
- At the mall I bought four things; my sister bought only two things.
- Between independent clauses linked with a transitional phrase or a conjunctive adverb:
- Everyone knows he is guilty of committing the crime; of course, it will never be proven.
- It can occur in both melodic and harmonic lines; however, it is subject to certain restraints.
- Of these patients, 6 were not enrolled; thus, the cohort was composed of 141 patients at baseline.

This is the least common use, and is mostly confined to academic texts

**Literature**

"Just as there are writers who worship the semicolon, there are other high stylists who dismiss it – who label it, if you please, middle-class."

Lynne Truss, Eats, Shoots, and Leaves.

Some authors have spurned the semicolon throughout their works. Lynne Truss stated that "Samuel Beckett spliced his way merrily through such novels as Molloy and Malone Dies, thumbing his nose at the semicolon all the way," "James Joyce preferred the colon, as more authentically classical; P. G. Wodehouse did an effortlessly marvelous job without it;George Orwell tried to avoid the semicolon completely in Coming up for Air, (1939)," "Martin Amis included just one semicolon in Money (1984)," and "Umberto Eco was congratulated by an academic reader for using no semicolons in The Name of the Rose (1983)."

Kurt Vonnegut in A Man Without a Country (2005) famously stated: "Here is a lesson in creative writing. First rule: Do not use semicolons. They are transvestite hermaphrodites representing absolutely nothing. All they do is show you've been to college."

Full stop

A full stop or period (American English and Canadian English) is the punctuationmark placed to indicate the end of sentences. In the context of web addresses and computing in general, it is typically called a dot. Some experts call it a baseline dot, because it is a dot on the baseline, as distinct from an interpunct (a middle dot). In conversation, as opposed to linguistics, the term is often used to mean "the end of the matter" (for example, "We are calling a full stop to discussions on this subject" or "We will not do it. Full stop." or "We will not do it. Period.").

**History**

The full stop symbol derives from Aristophanes of Byzantium who invented the system ofpunctuation where the height of placement of a dot on the line determined its meaning. The high dot (˙) was called a "periodos" and indicated a finished thought or sentence, the middle dot (•) was called a "kolon" and indicated part of a complete thought, while the low dot (.) was called a "telia" (from Greek τέλος "telos: end") and also indicated part of a complete thought.

In 19th century texts both British English and American English were consistent in their usage of the terms "period" and "full stop". The word "period" was used as a name for what printers often called the "full point", or the punctuation mark that was a dot on the baseline, and used in several situations. The phrase "full stop" was only used to refer to the punctuation mark when it was used to terminate a sentence. At some point during the 20th century, common usage diverged, with British English adopting "full stop" as the more generic term, and American English preserving the more traditional usage.

Full stops are one of the most commonly used punctuation marks; analysis of texts indicate that approximately half of all punctuation marks used are full stops.

**Ending sentences**

Full stops are used to indicate the end of sentences.

**Periods after initials**

It is usual to use full stops after initials; A. A. Milne, George W. Bush.

**Abbreviations**

A full stop is used after some abbreviations. If the abbreviation ends a declaratory sentence there is no additional period immediately following the full stop that ends the abbreviation (e.g., My name is Gabriel Gama, Jr.). This is called haplography. Though two full stops (one for the abbreviation, one for the sentence ending) might be expected, conventionally only one is written. In the case of an interrogative or exclamatory sentence ending with an abbreviation, a question or exclamation mark can still be added (e.g., Are you Gabriel Gama, Jr.?).

**Abbreviations and personal titles of address**

According to the Oxford A–Z of Grammar and Punctuation, "If the abbreviation includes both the first and last letter of the abbreviated word, as in 'Mister' ["Mr"] and 'Doctor' ["Dr"], a full stop is not used. This does not include, for example, the standard abbreviations for titles such as Professor ("Prof.") or Reverend ("Rev."), because they do not end with the last letter of the word they are abbreviating.

Among American dialects, however, the common convention is to include the period after these abbreviations.

**Acronyms and initialisms**

In acronyms and initialisms, full stops are somewhat more often placed after each initial in American English (for example, U.S. and U.S.S.R.) than in British English (US and USSR), but this depends much upon the house style of a particular writer or publisher.The American Chicago Manual of Style now deprecates the use of full stops in acronyms

**Mathematics**

The full stop glyph has two alternative uses with regard to numbers. It can be used either as a decimal separator or to present large numbers in a much more readable form. The former use is more prevalent in English-speaking countries. In much of Europe, Southern Africa, and Latin America (with the exception of Mexico due to the influence of the United States) a comma is

used as adecimal separator, while a full stop or a space is used for the presentation of large numbers:

- 1.002,003 or 1 002,003 (1002 plus three thousandths: comma used as decimal separator)
- 1,002.003 or 1 002·003 or 1 002.003 (One million two thousand and three: dot used as decimal separator)

In countries that use the comma as a decimal separator, the full stop is sometimes found as a multiplication sign; for example, 5,2 . 2 = 10,4 This usage is impractical in cases where the full stop is used as a decimal separator, hence the use of the interpunct: 5.2 • 2 = 10.4. This notation is also seen when multiplying units in science; for example, 50 km/h could be written as 50 km•h−1.

**Telegraphy**

The term STOP was used in telegrams in place of the full stop. The end of a sentence would be marked by STOP, because punctuation cost extra.[

Computing

In computing, the full stop is often used as a delimiter (commonly called a "dot"), such as in DNS lookups, web addresses, and filenames:

www.wikipedia.org

document.txt

192.168.0.1

It is used in many programming languages as an important part of the syntax. C uses it as a means of accessing a member of astruct, and this syntax was inherited by C++ as a means of accessing a member of a class or object. Java and Python also follow this convention. Pascal uses it both as a means of accessing a member of a record set (the equivalent of struct in C), a member of an object, and after the end construct which defines the body of the program. In Erlang, Prolog, and Smalltalk, it marks the end of a statement ("sentence"). In a regular expression, it represents a match of any character. In Perl and PHP, the full stop is the string concatenation operator. In the Haskell standard library, the full stop is the function composition operator.

In file systems, the full stop is commonly used to separate the extension of a file name from the name of the file. RISC OS uses full stops to separate levels of the hierarchical file system when writing path names—similar to / in Unix-based systems and \ in MS-DOS-based systems.

In Unix-like operating systems, some applications treat files or directories that start with a full stop as hidden. This means that they are not displayed or listed to the user by default.

In Unix-like systems and Microsoft Windows, the dot character represents the working directory of the file system. Two dots (..) represent the parent directory of the working directory.

Bourne shell-derived command-line interpreters, such as sh, ksh, and Bash, use the dot as a synonym for the source command, which reads a file and executes its content in the running interpreter.

**Punctuation styles when quoting**

The traditional convention in American English and in Canada is "aesthetic" punctuation, or "typesetters' quotation", where full stops and commas are included inside quotation marks even if they are not part of the quoted sentence. The style used in the UK, and to a lesser extent in the U.S., is "logical punctuation", which stays true to the punctuation used by the original source, placing commas and full stops inside or outside quotation marks depending on where they were placed in the material that is being quoted. Scientific and technical publications, including in the U.S., almost universally use it for that reason

The aesthetic or typesetter's rule was standard in early 19th-century Britain; its application was advocated, for example, in the influential book The King's English by Fowler and Fowler.

- "Carefree" means "free from care or anxiety." (aesthetic or typesetters' style)
- "Carefree" means "free from care or anxiety". (logical style used here because the full stop was not part of the original quotation)

Before the advent of mechanical type, the order of quotation marks with full stops and commas was not given much consideration. The printing press required that the easily damaged smallest pieces of type for the comma and full stop be protected behind the more robust quotation marks. Typesetters' style still adheres to this older tradition in formal writing. It is taught to American schoolchildren when they learn how to draft prose, and is strictly observed in most books, newspapers, magazines, and journals.

**Spacing after a full stop**

There have been a number of practices relating to the spacing after a full stop. Some examples are listed below:

- One word space (French Spacing). This is the current convention in most countries that use the ISO basic Latin alphabet for published and final written work, as well as digital media.

- Two word spaces (English Spacing). It is sometimes claimed that the two-space convention stems from the use of themonospaced font on typewriters, but in fact that convention replicates much earlier typography — the intent was to provide a clear break between sentences. This spacing method was gradually replaced by the single space convention in published print, where space is at a premium, and continues in much digital media.
- One widened space (such as an em space). This spacing was seen in historical typesetting practices (until the early twentieth century). It has also been used in other typesetting systems such as the Linotype machine[ and the TeX system. Modern computer-based digital fonts can adjust the spacing after terminal punctuation as well, creating space slightly wider than a standard word space.

**Full stops in other scripts**

In some Asian languages, notably Chinese and Japanese, a small circle is used instead of a solid dot: "。" (U+3002 "Ideographic Full Stop"). Notably, in Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macao usage, the full stop is written at center height instead of on the line.

In the Devanagari script, used to write Hindi and Sanskrit among other Indian languages, a vertical line ("। ") (U+0964 "Devanagari Danda") is used to mark the end of a sentence. In Hindi, it is known as poorna viraam (full stop) in Hindi and 'Daa`ri' in Bengalee. Some Indian languages also use the full stop, such as Marathi. In Tamil it is known as "Mutrupulli", which means End Dot

In Sinhala, it is known as kundaliya:" " ((U+0DF4) symbol "full stop"). Periods were later introduced into Sinhala script after the introduction of paper due to the influence of Western languages. Sinhala numerals

Urdu uses the "-" (U+06D4) symbol.

In Thai, no symbol corresponding to the full stop is used as terminal punctuation. A sentence is written without spaces, and a space is typically used to mark the end of a clause or sentence.

In the Ge'ez script used to write Amharic and several other Ethiopian and Eritrean languages, the equivalent of the full stop following a sentence is the ?arat nettib () which means "four dots". The two dots on the right are slightly ascending from the two on the left, with space in between them.

**Hyphen**

The hyphen (-) is a punctuation mark used to join words and to separate syllables of a single word. The use of hyphens is called hyphenation. The hyphen should not be confused with dashes

(, –, —, ―), which are longer and have different uses, or with the minus sign (−), which is also longer.

In terms of an orthographic concept, the hyphen is a single entity. In terms of character encoding and display, that entity is represented by any of several characters andglyphs (including hard hyphens, soft or optional hyphens, and nonbreaking hyphens), depending on the context of use (discussed below).

Although, as mentioned above, hyphens are not to be confused with en dashes and minus signs, there are some overlaps in usage (in which either a hyphen or an en dash may be acceptable, depending on user preference; discussed below) and in character encoding (which often uses the same character, called a "hyphen-minus", to represent both the hyphen and minus sign entities; discussed below).

**Etymology**

The term derives from Ancient Greek φν (hyph’ hén), contracted from πό ν (hypó hén) "in one" (literally "under one")

The term φέν (hyphén) was used for a caret-like (^) sign written below two consecutive letters to indicate that they belong to the same word (where it was necessary to avoid ambiguities in times before the space was used regularly).

Usage in English

Hyphens are mostly used to break single words into parts, or to join ordinarily separate words into single words. Spaces should not be placed between a hyphen and either of the words it connects except when using a suspended or "hanging" hyphen (e.g.nineteenth- and twentieth-century writers).

A definitive collection of hyphenation rules does not exist; rather, different manuals of style prescribe different usage guidelines. The rules of style that apply to dashes and hyphens have evolved to support ease of reading in complex constructions; editors often accept deviations from them that will support, rather than hinder, ease of reading.

The use of the hyphen in English compound nouns and verbs has, in general, been steadily declining. Compounds that might once have been hyphenated are increasingly left with spaces or are combined into one word. In 2007, the sixth edition of the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary removed the hyphens from 16 000 entries, such as fig-leaf(now fig leaf), pot-belly (now pot belly) and pigeon-hole (now pigeonhole).The advent of the Internet and the increasing prevalence of computer technology have given rise to a subset of common nouns that may have been hyphenated in the past (e.g. "toolbar", "hyperlink", "pastebin").

Despite decreased use, hyphenation remains the norm in certain compound modifier constructions and, amongst some authors, with certain prefixes (see below). Hyphenation is also routinely used to avoid unsightly spacing in justified texts (for example, in newspaper columns).

**Separating**

Justification and line-wrapping

When flowing text, it is sometimes preferable to break a word in half so that it continues on another line rather than moving the entire word to the next line. The word may be divided at the nearest breakpoint between syllables, and a hyphen inserted to indicate that the letters form a word fragment, rather than a full word. This allows more efficient use of paper, allows more regular appearance of right-side margins without requiring spacing adjustments, reduces the problem of rivers, and avoids the need to erase long words begun near the end of a line that do not fit. This kind of hyphenation is most useful when the width of the column of text is very narrow. For example:

Justified text

without hyphenation Justified text

with hyphenation

We, therefore, the

representatives of the United

States of America... We, therefore, the represen-

tatives of the United States

of America...

The details of doing this properly are complex and language-dependent and can interact with other orthographic and typesettingpractices. Hyphenation algorithms, when employed in concert with dictionaries, are sufficient for all but the most formal texts. See also justification.

**Prefixes and suffixes**

Prefixes (such as de-, pre-, re-, and non-) and suffixes (such as -less, -like, -ness, and -hood) may or may not be hyphenated. (The unhyphenated style is also called closed up or solid.) A rule of thumb is that they are not hyphenated unless the lack of a hyphen hurts clarity—specifically, clarity at first glance rather than clarity upon a second look or a moment's pause. The clear/unclear distinction involves some subjectivity, because what is instantly clear to one reader may not be to another (depending on, for example, subject matter familiarity). Nonetheless,

consensus among users of a language often reduces that subjectivity for many words. This is explained further below.

Many long-established words, such as disgusted, degrade, and refresh, do not require a hyphen because they are fully fused to the point that their first syllable is barely even thought about as having a prefix function (even though in many such words, if one stops to think about it, one can clearly see it). Many other words, such as prewashed or repainted, may not be quite so fully fused (the prefix function may be slightly more prominent in consciousness), but nonetheless they require no hyphen, because (1) most readers recognize the closed-up word as a familiar one and thus have no trouble parsing the syllables, and (2) if all such words were hyphenated, the many hyphens throughout the text would seem superfluous.

In contrast, for some other words, the closed-up style may not be as clear, and the hyphen can ensure clarity and avoid awkwardness, including "odd appearance" or misguided parsing of syllables. An example of avoiding misguided parsing would be to hyphenate the word co-worker (versus coworker) to prevent the reader's eye being caught automatically by the letter group cow(which might suggest cow (/kaʊ/) before backtracking and reparsing occurred). In such cases, styling varies depending on individual preference, regional preference, occupational specialty, or style guide preference, because the definition of "awkwardness" for any given word depends on who is judging it.

Words for which prefix hyphenation is least subjective, to the point that closed-up style is widely rejected, are of several classes. One such class consists of a few words that require a hyphen to distinguish them from other words that would otherwise behomographs, such as recreation (fun or sport) versus re-creation (the act of creating again), retreat (turn back) versus re-treat (givetherapy again), and un-ionized (not in ion form) versus unionized (organized into trade unions). The other classes are those in which the prefix is applied to (1) a proper (capitalized) noun or adjective (un-American, de-Stalinisation); (2) an acronym(anti-TNF antibody, non-SI units); or (3) a number (pre-1949 diplomacy, pre-1492 cartography).

Style guides codify rules to minimize inconsistency, the ultimate goal of which is to have the style unnoticed by the reader (that is, to avoid catching the reader's eye, either with trivial differences or with a lot of superfluous hyphens). The style guide rules allow exceptions to avoid awkwardness. For example, a guide will typically say to follow dictionary X's style for any word entered therein, and for words not entered, to close up by default and thus hyphenate only to avoid awkwardness. Such a rule successfully codifies almost all choices and thus leaves little to discretion except a few rare or neologistic words, which are safely hyphenated. This ensures high intradocument and interdocument consistency. Rules about avoiding doubled vowels or doubled consonants are often mentioned in style guides. These appropriately cascade only downstream, not upstream, of the "follow dictionary X" rule, because most dictionaries close up many well-established doubled-letter pairs. (For example, any style that follows Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary thus closes up preempt, reexamine, deemphasize, nonnegotiable,

posttransfusion, and hundreds of others.) As mentioned earlier, the definition of "awkwardness" for any given word is inherently subjective but nonetheless also subject to consensus. For example, reexamine and deemphasize are accepted as nonawkward by a broad consensus; to prefer the hyphenated styling is a matter of opinion, but to insist that the solid styling is awkward would be considered pedantic by many educated readers. However, some doublings attract smaller majorities than others in such a consensus; with the co-worker/coworkerexample (mentioned earlier) or with antiinflammatory/anti-inflammatory, many readers may consider solid styling nonawkward whereas plenty of others don't, and in such cases, dictionary styles may vary (Dorland's, antiinflammatory; Merriam-Webster's Medical Dictionary, anti-inflammatory). Tripled letters rarely occur, but when they do, the hyphen is considered mandatory (thusshell-like, not shelllike).

There is a trend that over decades, words that once were hyphenated for clarity lose the hyphen as their familiarity grows. An excellent example is email/e-mail; the number of people who find email awkward dropped from the 1990s to the 2010s, and thus the hyphen has been dropped increasingly. For some instances, the consensus depends on occupational specialty or subspecialty. Although proto-oncogene is still hyphenated by most users (and by both Dorland's and Merriam-Webster's Medical), the solid styling (protooncogene) is gaining popularity, with oncologists and geneticists (for whom the term is most familiar) leading the way.

A hyphen can clarify that two adjacent vowels—whether two of the same letter (e.g., oo, ee) or two different letters (e.g., ae, ei)—are pronounced separately rather than being merged in a diphthong. The question is how necessary the clarification is. Thus, hyphenatedde-escalate and co-operation have plenty of support, consensus-wise (plenty of users consider their hyphens as not superfluous), although solid deescalate and cooperation have plenty of support as well (plenty of users consider the hyphens superfluous). Consensus for styling varies by class, subclass, and even by individual word, with the common theme being that internal punctuation drops out of any combination judged as instantly recognizable enough in its context not to need it. As classes, there are doubling (namely, aa, ee, ii, oo, uu, yy) and nondoubling (for example, a+e, a+i, a+o; e+e, e+i, e+o). Several subclasses exist. There are combinations that are not rare in English as diphthongs and also not rare as nondiphthongs for users willing to style prefixed words solidly (such as ee and ei); regarding de+e/re+e/pre+e and de+i/re+i/pre+i, nearly everyone agrees that some fully fused examples (such as reiterate and reinforce) need no hyphen, but other examples have more evenly split pluralities (such asreexamine/re-examine or deemphasize/de-emphasize). There are combinations that are rare in English as diphthongs (for example,aa and ii) but not rare in prefixed words for those willing to style them solidly; and thus either they hardly need clarification within prefixed words (the solidification argument; thus intraarterial and antiinflammatory) or they need a hyphen to avoid looking like rare diphthongs, which are "odd-looking" because rare (the hyphenation argument, thus intra-arterial and anti-inflammatory).

A diaeresis can also sometimes be used, either to indicate nondiphthong status (as in coöperation and naïve) or to indicate nonsilent terminal -e (as in Brontë), but there are several implicit boundaries on this style's use; it is now rare (its peak of popularity was in the late 19th and early 20th centuries), and it was never applied extensively across the language (only a handful of examples, includingcoöperation, naïve, and Brontë, are encountered with any appreciable frequency in English; for whatever reason, it never had any popularity in the de+e/re+e/pre+e or de+i/re+i/pre+i subclasses—thus never *reëxamine, *reïterate, *deëmphasize, or others, although they might have been useful). Many users (and various dictionaries) consider the diaeresis optional in naive/naïve (because not necessary for the reader to recognize the word), and *na-ive draws attention to itself as a style that is simply never used (although comprehensible). For deity and deify, only solid styling (no hyphen or diaeresis) is normative.

**Syllabification and spelling**

Hyphens are occasionally used to denote syllabification, as in syl-la-bi-fi-ca-tion. Most British and North American dictionaries use an interpunct, sometimes called a "middle dot" or "hyphenation point", for this purpose, as in syl•la•bi•fi•ca•tion. This allows the hyphen to be reserved only for places where a hard hyphen is intended (for example, self-con•scious, un•self•con•scious,long-stand•ing). Similarly, hyphens may be used to indicate a word is being or should be spelled. For example, W-O-R-D spells "word".

Joining

**Compound modifiers**

Compound modifiers are groups of two or more words that jointly modify the meaning of another word. When a compound modifier other than an adverb–adjective combination appears before a term, the compound modifier is often hyphenated to prevent misunderstanding, such as in American-football player or little-celebrated paintings. Without the hyphen, there is potential confusion about whether the writer means a "player of American football" or an "American player of football" and whether the writer means paintings that are "little celebrated" or "celebrated paintings" that are little.[6] Compound modifiers can extend to three or more words, as in ice-cream-flavored candy, and can be adverbial as well as adjectival (spine-tinglingly frightening). However, if the compound is a familiar one, it is usually unhyphenated. For example, at least one style guide prefers the construction high school students, tohigh-school students. Although the expression is technically ambiguous ("students of a high school"/"school students that are on drugs"/"students of grand physical stature"/"students elevated to great altitude"), it would normally be formulated differently if other than the first meaning were intended. Noun–noun compound modifiers may also be written without a hyphen when no confusion is likely: grade point average and department store manager When the modifier is an adverb ending in -ly or when one of the parts is a proper noun or a proper adjective, there is no hyphen (e.g. "a badly written novel" or "a South American actor").

When a compound modifier follows the term to which it applies, a hyphen is typically not used if the compound is a temporary compound. For example, "that gentleman is well respected", not "that gentleman is well-respected"; or "a patient-centered approach was used" but "the approach was patient centered. But permanent compounds, found as headwords in dictionaries, are treated as invariable, so if they are hyphenated in the cited dictionary, the hyphenation will be used in both attributive and predicative positions. For example, "A cost-effective method was used" and "The method was cost-effective" (cost-effective is a permanent compound that is hyphenated as a headword in various dictionaries).

In the 19th century, it was common to hyphenate adverb–adjective modifiers with the adverb ending in -ly (in other words, producing the character string ly-). However, this has become rare. For example, wholly owned subsidiary and quickly moving vehicle are unambiguous, because the adverbs clearly modify the adjectives: "quickly" cannot modify "vehicle". However, if an adverb can also function as an adjective, then a hyphen may be or should be used for clarity, depending on the style guide.[5] For example, the phrase more-important reasons ("reasons that are more important") is distinguished from more important reasons ("additional important reasons"), where more is an adjective. Similarly, more-beautiful scenery (with a mass-noun) is distinct from more beautiful scenery. (In contrast, the hyphen in "a more-important reason/a more important reason" is not necessary, because the syntax cannot be misinterpreted.) A few words, including well and early, attract especial attention in this category. The hyphen in "well-[past_participled] noun", such as in "well-differentiated cells", might very reasonably be judged too superfluous to stet (the syntax cannot be misinterpreted), and yet plenty of style guides call for it. And because early has both adverbial and adjectival senses, its hyphenation can attract attention. Some editors, comparing with advanced-stage disease and adult-onset disease, like the parallelism of early-stage disease and early-onset disease. Similarly, the hyphen in little-celebrated paintings clarifies that one is not speaking of little paintings.

Hyphens are usually used to connect numbers and words in modifying phrases (such as in dimensional measurements of weight, size, and time) under the rationale that, like other compound modifiers, they take hyphens in attributive position (before the modified noun), although not in predicative position (after the modified noun). This is applied whether numerals or words are used for the numbers. Thus 28-year-old woman and twenty-eight-year-old woman or 32-foot wingspan and thirty-two-foot wingspan, but the woman is 28 years old and a wingspan of 32 feet. However, with symbols for SI units (such as m or kg)—as opposed to the names of these units (such as metre or kilogram)—both the International Bureau of Weights and Measures and the U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology recommend use without a hyphen: a 25 kg sphere (which is why some scientists get annoyed when such hyphens are added to their article when it is edited for a journal using AMA style, whose hyphenation of these symbols bucks SI style). When the units are spelled out, this recommendation does not apply: a 25-kilogram sphere, a roll of 35-millimeter film.

In spelled-out fractions, hyphens are usually used when the fraction is used as an adjective but not when it is used as a noun: thustwo-thirds majority and one-eighth portion but I drank two thirds of the bottle or I kept three quarters of it for myself. However, at least one major style guide[ hyphenates spelled-out fractions invariably (whether adjective or noun).

In English, an en dash ( – ) sometimes replaces the hyphen in hyphenated compounds if either of its constituent parts is already hyphenated or contains a space (for example, San Francisco–area residents, hormone receptor–positive cells, cell cycle–related factors, and public-school–private-school rivalries). A commonly used alternative style is the hyphenated string (hormone-receptor-positive cells, cell-cycle-related factors). (For other aspects of en dash–versus–hyphen usage, see Dash > En dash.)

Object–verbal noun compounds

When an object is compounded with a verbal noun, such as egg-beater (a tool that beats eggs), the result is sometimes hyphenated. Some authors do this consistently, others only for disambiguation; in this case, egg-beater, egg beater, and eggbeater are all common.

An example of an ambiguous phrase appears in they stood near a group of alien lovers, which without a hyphen implies that they stood near a group of lovers who were aliens; they stood near a group of alien-lovers clarifies that they stood near a group of people who loved aliens, as "alien" can be either an adjective or a noun. On the other hand, in the phrase a hungry pizza-lover, the hyphen will often be omitted (a hungry pizza lover), as "pizza" cannot be an adjective and the phrase is therefore unambiguous.

Similarly, there's a man-eating shark in these waters is nearly the opposite of there's a man eating shark at table 6; the first is a shark, and the second a man. A government-monitoring program is a program that monitors the government, whereas a government monitoring program is a government program that monitors something else.

Other compounds

Connecting hyphens are used in a large number of miscellaneous compounds, other than modifiers, such as in lily-of-the-valley,cock-a-hoop, clever-clever, tittle-tattle and orang-utan. Usage is often dictated by convention rather than fixed rules, and hyphenation styles may vary between authors; for example, orang-utan is also written as orangutan or orang utan, and lily-of-the-valley may or may not be hyphenated.

Some married couples compose a new surname (sometimes referred to as a double-barrelled name) for their new family by combining their two surnames with a hyphen. Jane Doe and John Smith might become Jane and John Smith-Doe, or Doe-Smith, for instance. In some countries only the woman hyphenates her birth surname, appending her husband's surname.

## Suspended hyphens

A suspended hyphen (also called a "suspensive hyphen" or "hanging hyphen", or less commonly a "dangling" or "floating" hyphen) may be used when a single base word is used with separate, consecutive, hyphenated words which are connected by "and", "or", or "to". For example, nineteenth-century and twentieth-century may be written as nineteenth- and twentieth-century. This usage is now common in English and specifically recommended in some style guides. Although less common, suspended hyphens are also used in English when the base word comes first, such as in "investor-owned and -operated". Usages such as "applied and sociolinguistics" (instead of "applied linguistics and sociolinguistics") are frowned on in English; the Indiana University Style Guide uses this example and says "Do not 'take a shortcut' when the first expression is ordinarily open." (i.e., ordinarily two separate words).[8] This is different, however, from instances where prefixes that are normally closed up (styled solidly) are used suspensively. For example, preoperative and postoperative becomes pre- and postoperative (not pre- and post-operative) when suspended. Some editors prefer to avoid suspending such pairs, choosing instead to write out both words in full.

## Other uses

A hyphen may be used to connect groups of numbers, such as in dates (see below), telephone numbers or sports scores. It can also be used to indicate a range of values, although many styles prefer an en dash (see examples at Dash > En dash > Ranges of values).

The hyphen is sometimes used to hide letters in words (censoring), as in G-d, although an en dash can be used as well ("G–d").

The hyphen is often used in reduplicatives.

## Origin and history

The first use of the hyphen—and its origination—is often credited to Johannes Gutenberg of Mainz, Germany circa 1455 with the publication of his 42-line Bible. Examination of an original copy on vellum (Hubay index #35) in the U. S. Library of Congress shows that Gutenberg's movable type was set justified in a uniform style, 42 equal lines per page.

The Gutenberg printing press required words made up of individual letters of type to be held in place by a surrounding non-printing rigid frame. Gutenberg solved the problem of making each line the same length to fit the frame by inserting a hyphen as the last element at the right side margin. This interrupted the letters in the last word, requiring the remaining letters be carried over to the start of the line below. His hyphen appears throughout the Bible as a short, double line inclined to the right at a 60-degree angle.

In medieval times and the early days of printing, the predecessor of the comma was a slash. As the hyphen ought not to be confused with this, a double-slash was used, this resembling an

equals sign tilted like a slash. Writing forms changed with time, and included the full development of the comma, so the hyphen could become one horizontal stroke.

Those dictionaries based on the second edition of the Merriam-Webster dictionary used one small, slightly tilted slash for a hyphen which they added at the end of a line where they broke the word, but used a double-slash, much like the very old symbol, to indicate a hyphen that was actually a part of the phrase but just happened to fall at the end of the line. This double-slash would be used in hyphenated phrases in the middle of the text as well, so that there would be no confusion.

## CHAPTER 11

### Grammatical tense

In grammar, tense is a category that locates a situation in time, to indicate when the situation takes place. Tense is the grammaticalisation of time reference, often using three basic categories of "before now", i.e. the past; "now", i.e. the present; and "after now", i.e. the future. The "unmarked" reference for tense is the temporal distance from the time of utterance, the "here-and-now", this beingabsolute tense. Relative tense indicates temporal distance from a point of time established in the discourse that is not the present, i.e. reference to a point in the past or future, such as the future-in-future, or the future of the future (at some time in the future after the reference point, which is in the future) and future-in-past or future of the past (at some time after a point in the past, with the reference point being a point in the past).

Not all languages grammaticalise tense, and those that do differ in their grammaticalisation thereof. Languages without tense are called tenseless languages and include Burmese, Dyirbal and Chinese.Not all grammaticalise the three-way system of past–present–future. For example, some two-tense languages such as English and Japanese express past and non-past, this latter covering both present and future in one verb form, whereas others such as Greenlandic and Quechua have future and non-future. Four-tense languages make finer distinctions either in the past (e.g. remote vs. recent past), or the future (e.g. near vs. remote future). The six-tense language Kalaw Lagaw Ya of Australia has the remote past, the recent past, the today past, the present, the today/near future and the remote future. The differences between such finer distinctions are the distance on the timeline between the temporal reference points from the present.

### Etymology

Tense comes from Old French tens "time" (now spelled temps through deliberate archaisation), from Latin tempus "time" The adjective "tense" is unrelated, being a Latin loan from tensus, the perfect passive participle of tendere "stretch".

### Tense marking

Tense is normally indicated by a verb form, either on the main verb or on an auxiliary verb. The tense markers are normally affixes, but also stem modification such as ablaut or reduplication can express tense reference, and in some languages tense can be shown by clitics. Often combinations of these can interact, such as in Irish, where there is a proclitic past tense marker do (various surface forms) used in conjunction with the affixed or ablaut-modified past tense form of the verb. Languages that do not have grammatical tense, such as Chinese, express time reference through adverbials, time phrases, and so on.

**Other uses of the term tense: tense, aspect, and mood**

In many language descriptions, particularly those of traditional European linguistics, the term tense is used to refer to categories that do not have time reference as their prototypical use, but rather are grammaticalisations of mood/modality (e.g. uncertainty, possibility, evidentiality) or aspect (e.g. frequency, completion, duration). Tense differs from aspect in showing the time reference, while aspect shows how the action/state is "envisaged" or "seen" as happening/occurring. The most common aspectual distinction in languages of the world is that between perfective (complete, permanent, simple, etc.) and imperfective (incomplete, temporary, continuous, etc.).

The term tense is therefore at times used in language descriptions to represent any combination of tense proper, aspect, and mood, as many languages include more than one such reference in portmanteau TAM (tense–aspect–mood) affixes or verb forms. Conversely, languages that grammaticalise aspect can have tense as a secondary use of an aspect. In many languages, such as the Latin, Celtic and Slavic languages, a verb may be inflected for both tense and aspect together, as in the passé composé/passé simple (historique) and imparfait of French. Verbs can also be marked for both mood and tense together, such as the present subjunctive (So be it) and the past subjunctive (Were it so), or all three, such as the past perfect subjunctive (Had it been so).

**Tense in languages of the world**

**Latin and Ancient Greek**

The word tempus was used in the grammar of Latin to describe the six "tenses" of Latin. Four are absolute tenses, of which two are combined tense–aspect categories, marking aspect in the past, while two are relative tenses, in showing time reference to another point of time:

- Praesens ( present)
- Praeteritum imperfectum (= imperfective past, i.e. a combined tense–aspect)
- Praeteritum perfectum (= perfective past, i.e. a combined tense–aspect)
- Futurus (= future)

- Plus quam perfectum (= relative past, i.e. a past that refers to the past of a reference in the past)

- Anterior Futurus (= relative future, i.e. a past that refers to the past of a future point)

The tenses of Ancient Greek are similar, though having a three-way aspect contrast in the past, the aorist, the perfect and the imperfect. The aorist was the simple past which contrasted with the imperfective (uncompleted action in the past) and the perfect, the past form that had relevance to the present.

The study of modern languages has been greatly influenced by the grammar of these languages, seeing that the early grammarians, often monks, had no other reference point to describe their language. Latin terminology is often used to describe modern languages, at times erroneously, as in the application of the term "pluperfect" to the English "past perfect", the application of "perfect" to what in English more often than not is not "perfective", or where the German simple and perfect pasts are called respectively "Imperfektum" and "Perfektum", despite the fact that neither has any real relationship to the aspects implied by the use of the Latin terms.

English

English, like the other Germanic languages, Japanese, Persian, and so on, has only two morphological tenses, past and non-past(alt. present–future). These are distinguished by verb form, by either ablaut or suffix (sings ~ sang, walks ~ walked). The non-past may be used to reference the future ("The bus leaves tomorrow").

Tense and aspect in English

Tense Simple Perfect Continuous/Progressive

nonpast

past -Ø/-s

-ed, -t, ablaut, etc. has/have -en, -ed, ablaut, etc.

had -en, -ed, ablaut, etc. am/is/are -ing

was/were -ing

nonpast

past go, goes

went have/has gone

had gone am/is/are going

was/were going

The future can also be referenced using forms with an auxiliary verb, particularly shall or will, and these are often called the "future tense".

**Other languages**

In general Indo-European languages have either two-tense systems like English (e.g. the German languages, Persian, etc.) or three-tense systems of past–present–future (e.g. the Latin, Slavic and Celtic languages), with finer categorisations made by the use of "compound tenses" using auxiliary verbs, as with English to be going to, French venir de, and so on. Such compound tenses often have a combined aspectual or modal meaning, as in to be going to, which focuses on the modalility of intended/obvious future based on present evidence.

Other tensed languages of the world are similar, or mark tense in a variety of ways, often with TAM affixes where tense, aspect and mood are expressed by portmanteau affixes - as is often the case also in Indo-European languages.

Many languages, such as Irish, also mark person and number as part of the TAM suffix, such as the first, second and third person singular marking of Munster Irish. Examples of tense systems in languages of the world are the following:

Germanic Languages:

German: Past – Non-Past : In many dialects the former perfect form has replaced the preterite as the marker of the past tense, except for "fossilised forms".

Dutch: Past – Non-Past

Danish: Past – Non-Past

Celtic Languages:

Irish: Past – Present – Future

The past contrasts perfective and imperfective aspect, and some verbs retain a perfective-imperfective contrast in the present. In Classical Irish/Gaelic, a three-way aspectual contrast of simple-perfective-imperfective in the past and present existed.

Latin Languages:

Italian: Past – Present – Future

The present covers definite non-past, while the Future covers the probable non-past.

Indo-Iranian Languages:

Persian: imperfective vs perfective past - non-past

Some verbs retain the imperfective-perfective contrast in the non-past.

Slavic Languages:

Bulgarian: perfective vs imperfective past – perfective vs imperfective present – future

Macedonian: perfective vs imperfective past – present – future

Russian: past (perfectness shown through grammatical aspect) - present - future

Serbian: perfective vs imperfective past vs aorist vs pluperfect - present - future

Uralic Languages:

Finnish: past – non-past

Hungarian: past – present – future

Korean Languages:

Korean: past – present – future

Japanese Languages:

Japanese: past – non-past

Turkic Languages:

Turkish: pluperfect – perfective vs imperfective past – present – future

Papuan Languages:

Meriam Mìr: remote past – recent past – present – near future – remote future

All tenses contrast imperfective and perfective aspect.

Pama-Nyungan Languages:

Kalaw Lagaw Ya: remote past – recent past – today past – present – near future – remote future; one dialect also has a "last night" tense

All tenses contrast imperfective and perfective aspect.

**Grammaticalisation of tenses**

Many languages do not grammaticalise all three categories. For instance, English has past and non-past ("present"); other languages may have future and non-future. In some languages, there

is not a single past or future tense, but finer divisions of time, such as proximal vs. distant future, experienced vs. ancestral past, or past and present today vs. before and after today.

Some attested tenses:

- Future tenses.
- Immediate future: right now
- Near future: soon
- Hodiernal future: later today
- Vespertine future: this evening
- Post-hodiernal: after today
- Crastinal: tomorrow
- Remote future, distant future
- Posterior tense (relative future tense)
- Nonfuture tense: refers to either the present or the past, but does not clearly specify which. Contrasts with future.
- Present tense
- Still tense: indicates a situation held to be the case, at or immediately before the utterance
- Nonpast tense: refers to either the present or the future, but does not clearly specify which. Contrasts with past.
- Past tenses. Some languages have different past tenses to indicate how far into the past we are talking about.
- Immediate past: very recent past, just now
- Recent past: in the last few days/weeks/months (conception varies)
- Nonrecent past: contrasts with recent past
- Hodiernal past: earlier today
- Matutinal past: this morning
- Prehodiernal: before today
- Hesternal: yesterday or early, but not remote

- Prehesternal: before yesterday
- Remote past: more than a few days/weeks/months ago (conception varies)
- Nonremote past: contrasts with remote past
- Historical Past: shows that the action/state was part of an event in the past
- Ancestral past, legendary past
- General past: the entire past conceived as a whole
- Anterior tense (relative past tense)

**Present tense**

The present tense is a grammatical tense whose principal function is to locate a situation or event in present time.[1] The term "present tense" is usually used in descriptions of specific languages to refer to a particular grammatical form or set of forms; these may have a variety of uses, not all of which will necessarily refer to present time. For example, in the English sentence My train leaves tomorrow morning, the verb form leaves is said to be in the present tense, even though in this particular context it refers to an event in future time. Similarly, in the historical present, the present tense is used to narrate events that occurred in the past.

There are two common types of present tense form in most Indo-European languages: the present indicative (the combination of present tense and indicative mood) and the present subjunctive (the combination of present tense and subjunctive mood).

Present tense may be denoted by the glossing abbreviation PRES or PRS

**English**

The present indicative of most verbs in modern English has the same form as the infinitive, except for the third-person singular form, which takes the ending -[e]s. The verb be has the forms am, is, are. For details see English verbs. For the present subjunctive, seeEnglish subjunctive.

A number of multi-word constructions exist to express combinations of present tense with aspect. The basic form of the present tense is called the simple present; there are also constructions known as the present progressive (or present continuous) (e.g. am writing), the present perfect (e.g. have written), and the present perfect progressive (e.g. have been writing).

Use of the present tense does not always imply present time. In particular, the present tense is often used to refer to future events (I am seeing James tomorrow; My train leaves at 3 o'clock this afternoon). This is particularly the case in condition clauses and many other adverbial subordinate clauses: If you see him,...; As soon as they arrive... There is also the historical present, in which the present tense is used to narrate past events.

For details of the uses of present tense constructions in English, see Uses of English verb forms.

**Simple present**

The simple present or present simple is one of the verb forms associated with the present tense in modern English. It is commonly referred to as a tense, although it also encodes certain information about aspect in addition to present time.

It is called "simple" because its basic form consists of a single word (like write or writes), in contrast with other present tense forms such as the present progressive (is writing) and present perfect (has written). For nearly all English verbs the simple present is identical to the base form (dictionary form) of the verb, except when the subject is third-person singular, in which case the ending -(e)s is added. There are a few verbs with irregular forms, the most notable being the copula be, which has the simple present forms am, is and are.

The principal use of the simple present is to refer to an action or event that takes place habitually, as in He writes for a living (in contrast to the present continuous, which refers to something taking place at the present moment: He is writing a letter now). However certain verbs expressing a state, such asbe and know, are used in the simple present even when referring to a temporary present state. There are also certain other uses (including those mentioned in the following paragraph) in which the simple present does not reflect a habitual aspect.

Like other English present tense forms, the simple present has certain uses in which it does not refer to present time. It frequently refers to the future, as in "My train leaves tomorrow" and "If we win on Saturday, ...". It can also sometimes refer to past events – as in newspaper headlines, for example.

For more information about the uses of constructions related to or contrasting with the simple present,

**Formation**

The basic form of the simple present is the same as the base form of the verb, unless the subject is third person singular, in which case a form with the addition of -(e)s is used. For details of how to make this inflected form, see English verbs: Third-person singular present.

The copula verb be has irregular forms: am (first person singular), is (third person singular) and are (second person singular and all persons plural). The modal verbs (can, must, etc.) have only a single form, with no addition of -s for the third person singular.

The above refers to the indicative mood of the simple present; for the formation and use of the subjunctive mood, see English subjunctive. (The defective verb beware has no simple present indicative, although it can be used in the subjunctive.)

The present simple of lexical verbs has an expanded form which uses do (or does, in the third person indicative) as an auxiliary verb. This is used particularly when forming questions and other clauses requiring inversion, negated clauses with not, and clauses requiring emphasis. For details see do-support. For the verbs (auxiliary and copular) which do not make this form, as well as the formation and use of contracted forms such as 's, isn't and don't, see English auxiliaries and contractions.

All forms of the simple present are given below, using the verb write as an example:

- Basic simple present indicative:
- I write
- You write
- He/she/it writes
- We write
- You write
- They write
- Expanded simple present indicative (with question, negative, and negative question forms):
- I do write (Do I write? I do not/don't write. Don't I/Do I not write?)
- You do write (Do you write? You do not/don't write. Don't you/Do you not write?)
- He/she/it does write (Does he write? He does not/doesn't write. Doesn't he/Does he not write?)
- We/you/they do write (Do we write? We do not/don't write. Don't we/Do we not write?)
- Simple present subjunctive (affirmative):
- (that) I/you/he/she/it/we/they write
- Simple present subjunctive, negative:
- (that) I/you/he/she/it/we/they not write

**Usage**

The principal uses of the simple present are listed below.

- To refer to an action or event that takes place habitually. In the other hand to remark habits, general realities, repeated actions or unchanging situations, emotions and wishes.[1] Such uses are often accompanied by frequency adverbs and adverbial phrases such as always, sometimes, often, usually, from time to time, rarely and never. Examples:

I always take a shower.

I never go to the cinema.

I walk to the pool.

He writes for a living.

She understands English.

This contrasts with the present progressive (present continuous), which is used to refer to something taking place at the present moment: I am walking now; He is writing a letter at the moment.

- With stative verbs in senses that do not use progressive aspect (see Uses of English verb forms: Progressive), to refer to a present or general state, whether temporary, permanent or habitual.

You are happy.

I know what to do.

A child needs its mother.

I love you.

The label says "External use only."

- It can similarly be used when quoting someone or something, even if the words were spoken in the past:

  The label says "External use only."

  Mary says she's ready.

- To refer to a single completed action, as in recounting the events of a story in the present tense (see historical present), and in such contexts as newspaper headlines, where it replaces the present perfect:

  In Hamlet, Ophelia drowns in a stream.

  40-year-old wins gold medal

- Sometimes to refer to an arranged future event, usually with a reference to time:

  We leave for Berlin tomorrow at 1 pm.

  Our holiday starts on the 20th May.

- In providing a commentary on events as they occur:

  I chop the chives and add them to the mixture.

  Ronaldo dribbles round the defender and shoots.

- In describing events in some theoretical or planned situation that is under consideration:

  According to the manager's new idea, I welcome the guests and you give the presentation.

- In many dependent clauses referring to the future, particularly condition clauses, clauses expressing place and time, and many relative clauses (see Uses of English verb forms: Dependent clauses):

  If he finds your sweets, he will eat them.

  We will report as soon as we receive any information.

- simple present is also used in zero conditional sentences in both parts of the sentence.[2]

  Ice melts if you heat it.

  Plants die if they don't get enough water.

- In certain situations in a temporal adverbial clause, rather than the present progressive:

  We can see the light improving as we speak.

In colloquial English it is common to use can see, can hear for the present tense of see, hear, etc., and have got for the present tense of have (denoting possession). See Uses of English verb forms: Have got and can see.

Present perfect

The present perfect is a grammatical combination of the present tense and the perfect aspect, used to express a past event that has present consequences. The term is used particularly in the context of English grammar, where it refers to forms such as "I have left" and "Sue has died". These forms arepresent because they use the present tense of the auxiliary verb have, and perfect because they use that auxiliary in combination with the past participle of the main verb. (Other perfect constructions also exist, such as the past perfect: "I had eaten.")

Analogous forms are found in some other languages, and these may also be described as present perfects, although they often have other names, such as the German Perfekt and the French passé composé. They may also have different ranges of usage – for example, in both of the languages just mentioned, the forms in question serve as a general past tense, at least for completed actions. In English, completed actions in many contexts are referred to using the simple past verb form rather than the present perfect.

English also has a present perfect progressive (or present perfect continuous) form, which combines present tense with both perfect aspect and progressive (continuous) aspect: "I have been eating". In this case the action is not necessarily complete; the same is true of certain uses of the basic present perfect when the verb expresses a state or a habitual action: "I have lived here for five years."

**Auxiliaries**

In modern English, the auxiliary verb for forming the present perfect is always to have. A typical present perfect clause thus consists of the subject, the auxiliary have/has, and the past participle (third form) of the main verb. Examples:

- I have eaten some food.
- You have gone to school.
- He has already arrived in Catalonia.
- He has had child after child... (The Mask of Anarchy, Percy Shelley)
- Lovely tales that we have heard or read... (Endymion (poem), John Keats)

Early Modern English used both to have and to be as perfect auxiliaries. Examples of the second can be found in older texts:

- Madam, the Lady Valeria is come to visit you. (The Tragedy of Coriolanus, Shakespeare)
- Vext the dim sea: I am become a name... (Ulysses, Tennyson)
- Pillars are fallen at thy feet... (Marius amid the Ruins of Carthage, Lydia Maria Child)
- I am come in sorrow. (Lord Jim, Conrad)

In many other European languages, the equivalent of to have (e.g. German haben, French avoir) is used to form the present perfect (or their equivalent of the present perfect) for most or all verbs. However, the equivalent of to be (e.g. German sein, French être) serves as the auxiliary for other verbs in some languages, such as German, Dutch, French, and Italian (but not Spanish or Portuguese). Generally, the verbs that take to be as auxiliary are intransitive verbs denoting motion or change of state (e.g. to arrive, to go, to fall).

For more details, see Perfect constructions with auxiliaries.

In particular languages

In many European languages, including standard German, French and Italian, the present perfect verb form usually does not conveyperfect aspect, but rather perfective aspect. In these languages, it has usurped the role of the simple past (i.e. preterite) in spoken language, and the simple past is now really only used in formal written language and literature. In standard English, Spanish, and Portuguese, by contrast, the present perfect and simple past are both common, and have distinct uses.

**English**

**Examples**

1) Actions started in the past and continuing in the present:

- We have had the same car for eleven years.

2) When the time period referred to has not finished:

- It has rained a lot this year.

3) Actions repeated in an unspecified period between the past and now:

- We have eaten at that restaurant many times.

4) Actions completed in the very recent past (+just):

- Have you just finished work?

5) When the precise time of the action is not important or not known:

- She's studied Japanese, Russian and English.

The present perfect in English is used chiefly for completed past actions or events, when no particular past time frame is specified or implied for them (it is understood that it is the present result of the events that is significant, rather than their actual occurrence). When a past time frame (a point of time in the past, or period of time which ended in the past) is specified for the event, explicitly or implicitly, the simple past is used rather than the present perfect.

It can also be used for ongoing or habitual situations continuing up to the present time (and not necessarily completed), particularly in describing for how long or since when something has been the case. In this case thepresent perfect progressive form is often used, if a continuing action is being described.

For examples, see Uses of English verb forms: Present perfect, as well as the sections of that article relating to the simple past, present perfect progressive, and other perfect forms.

**Present continuous**

The present continuous is one of the present tenses used in modern English, the others being the simple present and the emphatic present. All of these can be employed in both the indicative and subjunctive moods.

**Common uses**

The present continuous is used in several instances.

To describe something which is happening at the exact moment of speech:

The boy is crying.

To describe an action that is taking place now, but not at the exact moment of speech:

He is working in Dubai.

To describe an event which is planned in the future:

I'm resitting my French exam on Tuesday.

With always, but meaning often:

My mother is always making me go to school!

She is always playing with that doll!

**Formation**

To form the present continuous, one uses the appropriate conjugation of to be from the simple present and puts the present participleof the chosen verb after. For example:

**He is playing**

When using the interrogative with the present continuous, one does not use the verb to do as with the simple present, rather, one swaps the positions of the conjugation of to be and the present participle. For example:

Am I annoying you? which is to ask whether I am annoying you.

**Past tense**

The past tense is a grammatical tense whose principal function is to place an action or situation in past time. In languages which have a past tense, it thus provides a grammatical means of

indicating that the event being referred to took place in the past. Examples of verbs in the past tense include the English verbs sang, went and was.

In some languages, the grammatical expression of past tense is combined with the expression of other categories such as mood andaspect (see tense–aspect–mood). Thus a language may have several types of past tense form, their use depending on what aspectual or other additional information is to be encoded. French, for example, has a compound past (passé composé) for expressing completed events, an imperfect for expressing events which were ongoing or repeated in the past, as well as several other past forms.

Some languages that grammaticalise for past tense do so by inflecting the verb, while others do so periphrastically using auxiliary verbs, also known as "verbal operators" (and some do both, as in the example of French given above). Not all languages grammaticalise verbs for past tense – Mandarin Chinese, for example, mainly uses lexical means (words like "yesterday" or "last week") to indicate that something took place in the past, although use can also be made of the tense/aspect markers le and guo.

The "past time" to which the past tense refers generally means the past relative to the moment of speaking, although in contexts where relative tense is employed (as in some instances of indirect speech) it may mean the past relative to some other time being under discussion.[1] A language's past tense may also have other uses besides referring to past time; for example, in English and certain other languages, the past tense is sometimes used in referring to hypothetical situations, such as in condition clauses like If you loved me ..., where the past tense loved is used even though there may be no connection with past time.

**English**

In English, the past tense (or preterite) is one of the inflected forms of a verb. The past tense of regular verbs is made by adding -d or-ed to the base form of the verb, while those of irregular verbs are formed in various different ways (such as see→saw, go→went,be→was/were). With regular and some irregular verbs, the past tense form also serves as a past participle. For full details of past tense formation, see English verbs.

Past events are often referred to using the present perfect construction, as in I have finished (also known as present in past). However this is not regarded as an instance of the past tense; instead it is viewed as a combination of present tense with perfectaspect, specifying a present state that results from past action.[2] (It can be made into a past tense form by replacing the auxiliaryhave with had; see below.)

Various multi-word constructions exist for combining past tense with progressive (continuous) aspect, which denotes ongoing action; with perfect aspect; and with progressive and perfect aspects together. These and other common past tense constructions are listed below.

- The simple past consists of just the past tense (preterite) form of the verb (he walked, they flew, etc.), although when it is negated, emphasized or inverted it is sometimes necessary to unfuse the verb, using a periphrastic construction with did (as indid he walk? etc.) – see do-support. The simple past is used for describing single occurrences or habitual occurrences in the past, and sometimes for states existing in the past.

- The past progressive (past continuous) is formed using the simple past of be (was or were) with the main verb's present participle:He was going. This form indicates that an action was ongoing at the past time under consideration.

- The past perfect combines had (the simple past of have) with the past participle of the main verb: We had shouted. This denotes that an action occurred before a specified time in the past, and therefore has similar function to the pluperfect found in some languages.

- The past perfect progressive combines had (the simple past of have) with been (the past participle of be) and the present participle of the main verb: You had been waiting.

- The expression used to (with the infinitive of the main verb) denotes a past habitual situation (I used to play football when I was young), although with a stative verb it can just indicate that a state was continuously in effect (I used to belong to that club). It is often used to emphasize that something is no longer the case. Another way of referring to past habitual action is to use would, as in As a child I would play the piano every day, although this auxiliary has other uses as well. For further details see English modal verbs.

For details of the usage of the various constructions used to refer to the past, see Uses of English verb forms. Note that the past tense is also used in referring to some hypothetical situations, not necessarily connected with past time, as in if I tried or I wish I knew. (For the possible use of were in place of was in such instances, see English subjunctive.)

**Simple past**

The simple past or past simple, sometimes called the preterite, is the basic form of the past tensein Modern English. It is used principally to describe events in the past, although it also has some other uses. Regular English verbs form the simple past in -ed; however there are a few hundredirregular verbs with different forms.

The term "simple" is used to distinguish the syntactical construction whose basic form uses the plain past tense alone, from other past tense constructions which use auxiliaries in combination with participles, such as the past perfect and past progressive.

**Formation**

Regular verbs form the simple past in -ed; however there are a few hundred irregular verbs with different forms. For details see English verbs: Past tense.

Most verbs have a single form of the simple past, independent of the person or number of the subject (there is no addition of -s for the third person singular as in the simple present). However the copula verb be has two past tense forms: was for the first and third persons singular, and were in other instances. The form were can also be used in place of was in conditional clauses and the like; for information on this, see English subjunctive. This is the only case in modern English where a distinction in form is made between the indicative and subjunctive moods in the past tense.

Questions, other clauses requiring inversion, negations with not, and emphatic forms of the simple past use the auxiliary did. For details of this mechanism, see do-support. A full list of forms is given below, using the (regular) verb help as an example:

- Basic simple past:
- I/you/he/she/it/we/they helped
- Expanded (emphatic) simple past:
- I/you/he/she/it/we/they did help
- Question form:
- Did I/you/he/she/it/we/they help?
- Negative:
- I/you/he/she/it/we/they did not (didn't) help?
- Negative question:
- Did I/you/he/she/it/we/they not help? / Didn't I/you/he/she/it/we/they help?

**Usag**

The simple past is used for a single event (or sequence of such events) in the past, and also for past habitual action:

He took the money and ran.

I visited them every day for a year.

It can also refer to a past state:

I knew how to fight even as a child.

For action that was ongoing at the time referred to, the past progressive is generally used instead (e.g. I was cooking). The same can apply to states, if temporary (e.g. the ball was lying on the sidewalk), but some stative verbs do not generally use the progressive aspect at all – see Uses of English verb forms: Progressive – and in these cases the simple past is used even for a temporary state:

The dog was in its kennel.

I felt cold.

However with verbs of sensing, it is common in such circumstances to use could see in place of saw, could hear in place of heard, etc. For more on this, see can see.

If one action interrupts another, then it is usual for the interrupted (ongoing) action to be expressed with the past progressive, and the action that interrupted it to be in the simple past:

Your mother called while you were cooking.

The simple past is often close in meaning to the present perfect. The simple past is used when the event is conceived as occurring at a particular time in the past, or during a period which ended in the past (i.e. a period that does not last up until the present time). This time frame may be explicitly stated, or implicit in the context (for example the past tense is often used when describing a sequence of past events).

I was born in 1980.

We turned the oven off two minutes ago.

I came home at 6 o'clock.

When did they get married?

We wrote two letters this morning. (the simple past is appropriate here if it is no longer morning)

She placed the letter on the table, sighed, and left the house.

Contrast these examples with those given at Uses of English verb forms: Present perfect. Note also that for past actions that occurred before the relevant past time frame, the past perfect is used.

Various compound constructions exist for denoting past habitual action. The sentence When I was young, I played football every Saturday might alternatively be phrased using used to (... I used to play ...) or using would (... I would play...).

The simple past also has some uses in which it does not refer to a past time. These are generally in condition clauses and some other dependent clauses referring to hypothetical circumstances, as well as certain expressions of wish:

If he walked faster, he would get home earlier.

I wish I knew what his name was.

I would rather she wore a longer dress.

He said he wanted to go on the slide.

**Past progressive**

The past progressive or past continuous construction combines progressive aspect with past tense, and is formed using the past tense of be (was or were) with the present participle of the main verb. It indicate an action that was ongoing at the past time being considered:

At three o'clock yesterday, I was working in the garden.

For stative verbs that do not use the progressive aspect, the simple past is used instead (At three o'clock yesterday we were in the garden).

The past progressive is often used to denote an action that was interrupted by an event, or for two actions taking place in parallel:

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

While you were washing the dishes, Sue was walking the dog.

(Interrupted actions in the past can also sometimes be denoted using the past perfect progressive, as described below.)

The past progressive can also be used to refer to past action that occurred over a range of time and is viewed as an ongoing situation:

I was working in the garden all day yesterday.

This could also be expressed using the simple past, as I worked..., which implies that the action is viewed as a unitary event (although the effective meaning is not much different).

The past progressive shares certain special uses with other past tense constructions; see Conditional sentences, Dependent clauses, Expressions of wish, and Indirect speech.

**Past perfect**

The past perfect, sometimes called the pluperfect, combines past tense with perfect aspect; it is formed by combining had (the past tense of the auxiliary have) with the past participle of the main verb. It is used when referring to an event that took place prior to the time frame being considered. This time frame may be stated explicitly, as a stated time or the time of another past action:

We had finished the job by 2 o'clock.

He had already left when we arrived.

The time frame may also be understood implicitly from the previous or later context:

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)

I had lost my way. (i.e. this happened prior to the time of the past events I am describing or am about to describe)

Compare He had left when we arrived (where his leaving preceded our arrival), with the form with the simple past, He left when we arrived (where his leaving was concurrent with or shortly after our arrival).

Note that unlike the present perfect, the past perfect can readily be used with an adverb specifying a past time frame for the occurrence. For example, while it is incorrect to say *I have done it last Friday (the use of last Friday, specifying the past time, would require the simple past rather than the present perfect), there is no such objection to a sentence like "I had done it the previous Friday".

The past perfect can also be used for states or repeated occurrences pertaining over a period up to a time in the past, particularly in staing "for how long" or since when". However, if the state is temporary and the verb can be used in the progressive aspect, the past perfect progressive would normally be used instead. Some examples with the plain past perfect:

I had lived in that house for 10 years.

The children had been in their room since lunchtime.

For other specific uses of the past perfect, see Conditional sentences, Dependent clauses, Expressions of wish, and Indirect speech.

Past perfect progressive

The past perfect progressive or past perfect continuous (also known as the pluperfect progressive or pluperfect continuous) combines perfect progressive aspect with past tense. It is formed by

combining had (the past tense of auxiliary have), been (the past participle of be), and the present participle of the main verb.

Uses of the past perfect progressive are analogous to those of the present perfect progressive, except that the point of reference is in the past. For example:

I was tired because I had been running.

By yesterday morning they had already been working for twelve hours.

Among the witnesses was John Smith, who had been staying at the hotel since July 10.

This form is sometimes used for actions in the past that were interrupted by some event (compare the use of the past progressive as given above). For example:

I had been working on my novel when she entered the room to talk to me.

This implies that I stopped working when she came in (or had already stopped a short time before); the plain past progressive (I was working...) would not necessarily carry this implication.

If the verb in question does not use the progressive aspect, then the plain past perfect is used instead (see examples in the previous section).

The past perfect progressive may also have additional specific uses similar to those of the plain past perfect; see Conditional sentences, Dependent clauses, Expressions of wish, and Indirect speech.

**Future tense**

In grammar, a future tense is a verb form that marks the event described by the verb as not having happened yet, but expected to happen in the future. An example of a future tense form is the French aimera, meaning "will love", derived from the verbaimer ("love"). English does not have a future tense formed by verb inflection in this way, although it has a number of ways of expressing futurity, particularly the construction with the auxiliary verb will or shall, and grammarians differ in whether they describe such constructions as representing a future tense in English, one and all.

The "future" expressed by the future tense usually means the future relative to the moment of speaking, although in contexts where relative tense is used it may mean the future relative to some other point in time under consideration. Future tense can be denoted by the glossing abbreviation FUT.

**Expressions**

The nature of the future, necessarily uncertain and at varying distances ahead, means that the speaker may refer to future events with the modality either of probability (what the speaker expects to happen) or intent (what the speaker plans to make happen).[1]Whether future expression is realis or irrealis depends not so much on an objective ontological notion of future reality, but rather on the degree of the speaker's conviction that the event will in fact come about.

In many languages there is no grammatical (morphological or syntactic) indication of future tense. Future meaning is supplied by the context, with the use of temporal adverbs such as "later", "next year", etc. Such adverbs (in particular words meaning "tomorrow" and "then") sometimes develop into grammaticalized future tense markers. (A tense used to refer specifically to occurrences taking place on the following day is called a crastinal tense.)

In other languages, mostly of European origin, specific markers indicate futurity. These structures constitute a future tense. In many cases, an auxiliary verb is used, as in English, where futurity is often indicated by the modal auxiliary will (or shall). However, some languages combine such an auxiliary with the main verb to produce a simple (one-word, morphological) future tense. This is the origin of the future tense in Western Romance languages like French and Italian

A given language may have more than one way to express futurity. English, for example, often refers to future events using present tense forms or other structures such as the going-to future, besides the canonical form with will/shall. In addition, the verb forms used for the future tense can also be used to express other types of meaning; English again provides examples of this (see English modal verbs for the various meanings that both will and shall can have besides simply expressing futurity).

**Expressions of relative tense**

It is sometimes possible to mark the time of an occurrence as being in the past or future not relative to the present moment (the moment of speaking), but relative to a time of reference, which can itself be in the past or future (or in some hypothetical reality) relative to the present moment. (See relative tense.) Thus an occurrence may be marked as taking place in the "past of the future", "future of the past", etc. (For the "past of the past", see pluperfect.)

The past of the future, marking an occurrence expected to take place before some future reference time, is typically marked by afuture perfect form (in languages that have such a form), as in the English "I will have finished by tomorrow afternoon."

The "future of the past" may be expressed in various ways in English. It is possible to use would in its capacity as the past tense of the future marker will (see English modal verbs and future-in-the-past); for example: "The match started at midday but would not end until the evening." It is

also possible to use the past tense of other expressions that express future reference, as in "I was going to wait"; "I was to wait"; "I was about to wait." Such expressions can also be put into other tenses and moods (and non-finite forms), to achieve future reference in hypothetical and future situations, e.g., "I would be going to take part if ..."; "I will be about to leave." More examples can be found in the section Expressions of relative future in the article on the going-to future.

**English**

English grammar provides a number of ways to indicate the future nature of an occurrence. Some argue that English does not have a future tense—that is, a grammatical form that always indicates futurity—nor does it have a mandatory form for the expression of futurity. However, there are several generally accepted ways to indicate futurity in English, and some of them—particularly those that use will or shall—are frequently described as future tense.

The will/shall future consists of the modal verb will or shall together with the bare infinitive of the main verb, as in "He will win easily" or "I shall do it when time permits". (Prescriptive grammarians prefer will in the second and third persons and shall in the first person, reversing the forms to express obligation or determination, but in practice shall and will are generally used interchangeably, with willbeing more common. For details see shall and will.) The meaning of this construction is close to that expressed by the future tense in other languages. However the same construction with will or shall can have other meanings that do not indicate futurity, or else indicate some modality in addition to futurity (as in "He will make rude remarks", meaning he has a habit of doing so, or, "You shall act on my behalf", giving an order). For details of these meanings, see the sections on will and shall in the article on English modal verbs.

The form of the will/shall future described above is frequently called the simple future (or future simple). Other constructions provide additional auxiliaries that express particular aspects: the future progressive (or future continuous) as in "He will be working"; thefuture perfect as in "We will have finished"; and the future perfect progressive as in "I will have been practicing." For detail on these, see the relevant sections of Uses of English verb forms. (For more on expressions of relative tense, such as the future perfect, see also the section above.)

Several other English constructions commonly refer to the future:

- Present tense forms, as in "The train leaves at 5," or, "My cousins arrive tomorrow." Since these grammatical forms are used more canonically to refer to present situations, they are not generally described as future tense; in sentences like those just given they may be described as "present tense with future meaning". Use of the present tense (rather than forms with will) is mandatory in some subordinate clauses referring to the future, such as "If I feel better next week, ..." and "As soon as they arrive, ...". For more details see the sections on the simple present, present progressive and dependent clauses in the article on English verb forms.

- The going-to future, e.g., "John is going to leave tonight."
- The construction with a finite form of the copula verb be together with the to-infinitive, e.g., "John is to leave tonight". (With thezero copula of newspaper headline style, this becomes simply "John to leave tonight".) For details see am to.
- The construction with to be about to, e.g., "John is about to leave", referring to the expected immediate future. (A number of lexical expressions with similar meaning also exist, such as to be on the point of (doing something).)
- Use of modal verbs with future meaning, to combine the expression of future time with certain modality: "I must do this" (also munin Northern English dialect); "We should help him"; "I can get out of here"; "We may win"; "You might succeed". The same modal verbs are also often used with present rather than future reference. For details of their meanings and usage, see English modal verbs.

Questions and negatives are formed from all of the above constructions in the regular manner: see Questions and Negation in the English grammar article. The auxiliaries will and shall form the contracted negations won't and shan't (they can also sometimes be contracted when not negated, to 'll).

The various ways of expressing the future carry different meanings, implying not just futurity but also aspect (the way an action or state takes place in time) and/or modality (the attitude of the speaker toward the action or state). The precise interpretation must be based on the context. In particular there is sometimes a distinction in usage between the will/shall future and the going-to future (although in some contexts they are interchangeable). For more information see the going-to future article.

**Simple future**

The term simple future or future simple, as applied to English, generally refers to the combination of the modal auxiliary verb will with the bare infinitive of the main verb. Sometimes (particularly in more formal or old-fashioned English) shall is preferred to will when the subject is first person (I or we); see shall and will for details. The auxiliary is often contracted to 'll; see English auxiliaries and contractions.

This construction can be used to indicate what the speaker views as facts about the future, including confident predictions:

The sun will rise tomorrow at 6:14.

It will rain later this week.

It may be used to describe future circumstances that are subject to some condition (see also Conditional sentences):

He will go there if he can.

However English also has other ways of referring to future circumstances. For planned or scheduled actions the present progressiveor simple present may be used (see those sections for examples). There is also a going-to future, common in colloquial English, which is often used to express intentions or predictions (I am going to write a book some day; I think that it is going to rain). Use of the will/shall construction when expressing intention often indicates a spontaneous decision:

I know! I'll use this book as a door stop.

Compare I'm going to use..., which implies that the intention to do so has existed for some time.

Use of present tense rather than future constructions in condition clauses and certain other dependent clauses is described below under Conditional sentences and Dependent clauses.

The modal verbs will and shall also have other uses besides indicating future time reference. For example:

I will pass this exam. (often expresses determination in addition to futurity)

You will obey me! (insistence)

I will not do it! (negative insistence, refusal)

At this moment I will tolerate no dissent. (strong volition)

He hasn't eaten all day; he will be hungry now. (confident speculation about the present)

One of his faults is that he will make trouble unnecessarily. (habit)

Shall we get to work? (suggestion)

For more examples see will and shall in the article on modal verbs, and the article shall and will.

Future progressive

The future progressive or future continuous combines progressive aspect with future time reference; it is formed with the auxiliary will(or shall in the first person; see shall and will), the bare infinitive be, and the present participle of the main verb. It is used mainly to indicate that an event will be in progress at a particular point in the future:

This time tomorrow I will be taking my driving test.

I imagine we will already be eating when you arrive.

The usual restrictions apply, on the use both of the future and of the progressive: simple rather than progressive aspect is used with some stative verbs (see Progressive), and present rather than future constructions are used in many dependent clauses (seeConditional sentences and Dependent clauses below).

The same construction may occur when will or shall is given one of its other uses (as described under Future simple), for example:

He will be sitting in his study at this time. (confident speculation about the present)

**Future perfect[**

The future perfect combines perfect aspect with future time reference. It consists of the auxiliary will (or sometimes shall in the first person, as above), the bare infinitive have, and the past participle of the main verb. It indicates an action that is to completed sometime prior to a future time of perspective, or an ongoing action continuing up to a future time of perspective (compare uses of thepresent perfect above).

I shall have finished my essay by Thursday.

When I finally search him he will have disposed of the evidence.

By next year we will have lived in this house for half a century.

For the use of the present tense rather than future constructions in certain dependent clauses, see Conditional sentences andDependent clauses below.

The same construction may occur when will or shall is given one of its other meanings (see under Simple future); for example:

He will have had his tea by now. (confident speculation about the present)

You will have completed this task by the time I return, is that understood? (giving instruction)

Future perfect progressive

The future perfect progressive or future perfect continuous combines perfect progressive aspect with future time reference. It is formed by combining the auxiliary will (or sometimes shall, as above), the bare infinitive have, the past participle been, and thepresent participle of the main verb.

Uses of the future perfect progressive are analogous to those of the present perfect progressive, except that the point of reference is in the future. For example:

He will be very tired because he will have been working all morning.

By 6 o'clock we will have been drinking for ten hours.

For the use of present tense in place of future constructions in certain dependent clauses, see Conditional sentences and Dependent clauses below.

The same construction may occur when the auxiliary (usually will) has one of its other meanings, particularly expressing a confident assumption about the present:

No chance of finding him sober now; he'll have been drinking all day.

## CHAPTER 12

### Voice (Active Passive)

Active voice is a grammatical voice common in many of the world's languages. It is the unmarked voice for clauses featuring atransitive verb in nominative–accusative languages, including English and most other Indo-European languages.

Active voice is used in a clause whose subject expresses the agent of the main verb. That is, the subject does the action designated by the verb. A sentence whose agent is marked as grammatical subject is called an active sentence. In contrast, a sentence in which the subject has the role of patient or theme is named a passive sentence, and its verb is expressed in passive voice. Many languages have both an active and a passive voice; this allows for greater flexibility in sentence construction, as either the semantic agent or patient may take the syntactic role of subject

### Examples

In the following examples the active and passive voice are illustrated with pairs of sentences using the same transitive verb.

Language Active voice Passive voice

English The hunter saw the deer. The deer was seen by the hunter.

French Brackett a écrit ce livre. (Brackett wrote this book.) Ce livre a été écrit par Brackett. (This book was written by Brackett.)

German Der Hund biss den Postboten. (The dog bit the postman.) Der Postbote wurde vom Hund gebissen. (The postman was bitten by the dog.)

Japanese 犬がかんだ。 (A dog bit [someone].) 犬にかまれた。(By a dog [I] was bitten.)

Spanish La policía detuvo el tráfico. (The police stopped the traffic.) El tráfico fue detenido por la policía. (The traffic was stopped by the police.)

### Passive voice

Passive voice is a grammatical voice common in many of the world's languages. In a clause with passive voice, the grammaticalsubject expresses the theme or patient of the main verb – that is, the person or thing that undergoes the action or has its state changed. This contrasts with active

voice, in which the subject has the agent role. For example, in the passive sentence "The tree was pulled down", the subject (the tree) denotes the patient rather than the agent of the action. In contrast, the sentences "Someone pulled down the tree" and "The tree is down" are active sentences.

Typically, in passive clauses, what would otherwise be expressed by the object (or sometimes another argument) of the verb comes to be expressed by the subject, while what would otherwise be expressed by the subject is either not expressed at all, or is indicated by some adjunct of the clause. Thus transforming an active verb into a passive verb is a valence-decreasing process ("detransitivizing process"), because it transforms transitive verbs into intransitive verbs. This is not always the case; for example in Japanese a passive-voice construction does not necessarily decrease valence.

Many languages have both an active and a passive voice; this allows for greater flexibility in sentence construction, as either thesemantic agent or patient may take the syntactic role of subject. The use of passive voice allows speakers to organize stretches of discourse by placing figures other than the agent in subject position. This may be done to foreground the patient, recipient, or otherthematic role; it may also be useful when the semantic patient is the topic of on-going discussion. The passive voice may also be used to avoid specifying the agent of an action.

**Passive marking**

Different languages use various grammatical forms to indicate passive voice.

In some languages, passive voice is indicated by verb conjugation, specific forms of the verb. Examples of languages that indicate voice through conjugation include Latin and Swedish.

In Latin, the agent of a passive sentence (if indicated) is expressed using a noun in the ablative case, in this case servō (the ablative of servus). Different languages use different methods for expressing the agent in passive clauses. In Swedish, the agent can be expressed by means of a prepositional phrase with the preposition av (equivalent here to the English "by").

The Austronesian language Kimaragang Dusun also indicates passive voice by verb conjugation using Other languages, such as English (see below), express the passive voice periphrastically, using an auxiliary verb.

**The passive voice in English**

English, like some other languages, uses a periphrastic passive. Rather than conjugating directly for voice, English uses the past participle form of the verb plus an auxiliary verb, either be or get, to indicate passive voice.

- The money was donated to the school.

- The vase got broken during the fight.
- All men are created equal.

If the agent is mentioned, it usually appears in a prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition by.

- Without agent: The paper was marked.
- With agent: The paper was marked by Mr. Tan.

The subject of the passive voice usually corresponds to the direct object of the corresponding active voice (as in the above examples), but English also allows passive constructions in which the subject corresponds to an indirect object or prepositioncomplement:

- We were given tickets. (subject we corresponds to the indirect object of give)
- Tim was operated on yesterday. (subject Tim corresponds to the complement of the preposition on)

In sentences of the second type, a stranded preposition is left. This is called the prepositional passive or pseudo-passive (although the latter term can also be used with other meanings).

The active voice is the dominant voice in English at large. Many commentators, notably George Orwell in his essay "Politics and the English Language" and Strunk & White in The Elements of Style, have urged minimizing use of the passive voice. However, the passive voice has important uses. Jan Freeman of The Boston Globe states "[a]ll good writers use the passive voice" – including Orwell and Strunk & White themselves, in the sections of their essays criticizing the passive voice. There is general agreement that the passive voice is useful for emphasis, or when the receiver of the action is more important than the actor.

**Adversative passive**

Some languages, including several Southeast Asian languages, use a form of passive voice to indicate that an action or event was unpleasant or undesirable This so-called adversative passive works like the ordinary passive voice in terms of syntactic structure—that is, a theme or instrument acts as subject. In addition, the construction indicates adversative affect, suggesting that someone was negatively affected.

In Japanese, for example, the adversative passive (also called indirect passive) indicates adversative affect. The indirect or adversative passive has the same form as the direct passive. Unlike the direct passive, the indirect passive may be used with intransitive verbs.

- 花子が　隣の　学生に　ピアノを　朝まで　弾かれた。

Hanako-ga tonari-no gakusei-ni piano-o asa-made hika-re-ta.

Hanako-NOM neighbor-GEN student-DAT piano-ACC morning-until played-PASS-PFV

"Hanako was adversely affected by the neighboring student playing the piano until morning.

Yup'ik, from the Eskimo-Aleut family, as two different suffixes that can indicate passive, -cir- and -ma-. The morpheme -cir- has an adversative meaning. If an agent is included in a passive sentence with the -cir passive, the noun is usually in the allative (oblique) case.[9]

neqerrluk yukucirtuq

neqe-rrluk yuku-cir-tu-q

fish departed.from.natural.state be moldy-get-INDICATIVE.INTRANSITIVE-3sg

That beautiful piece of dry fish got moldy

Stative and dynamic passive

In languages such as English, there is often a similarity between passive clauses expressing an action or event, such as:

The dog is fed (every day)

and clauses expressing a state, such as:

The dog is fed (for now).

In the first sentence the auxiliary is and the past participle fed combine to express the verbal passive voice, while in the second sentence is serves as an ordinary copula and the past participle as an ordinary adjective.

Sentences of the second type are sometimes confused with the passive voice, and in some treatments are considered to be a type of passive – a stative or static passive, in contrast to the dynamic or eventive passive exemplified by the first sentence. The stative type may also be called false passive. Some languages express or can express these meanings in contrasting ways.

**English**

Passive voice expressed with the auxiliary verb get rather than be ("get-passive") tends to express a dynamic rather than a static meaning in English. When the auxiliary verb be is used, the main verb may have either a dynamic or static meaning.

The couple got married last spring. (dynamic)

The marriage was celebrated last spring. (dynamic)

It is agreed that laws were invented for the safety of citizens. (stative)

Verbs that typically express static meaning can show dynamic meaning when expressed as a get-passive, as with be known (static) vs. get known (dynamic).

Zoltan is known for hosting big parties. (static)

Get your foot in the door, get known. (dynamic)[

**Voices**

Finnish has two possible verb voices: active and passive. The active voice corresponds with the active voice of English, but the Finnish passive voice has some important differences from the English passive voice.

**Passive voice**

The Finnish passive is unipersonal, that is, it only appears in one form regardless of who is understood to be performing the action. In that respect, it could be described as a "fourth person", since there is no way of connecting the action performed with a particular agent (except for some nonstandard forms; see below).

Consider an example: talo maalataan "the house will be painted". The time when the house is being painted could be added: talo maalataan marraskuussa "the house will be painted in November". The colour and method could be added: talo maalataanpunaiseksi harjalla "the house will be painted red with a brush". But nothing can be said about the person doing the painting; there is no simple way to say "the house will be painted by Jim". There is a calque, evidently from Swedish, toimesta "by the action of", that can be used to introduce the agent: Talo maalataan Jimin toimesta, approximately "The house will be painted by the action of Jim". This type of expression is considered prescriptively incorrect, but it may be found wherever direct translations from Swedish, English, etc. are made, especially in legal texts, and has traditionally been a typical feature of Finnish "officialese". An alternative form, passive + ablative, also a calque from Swedish, was once common but is now archaic.

Hence the form maalataan is the only one which is needed. Notice also that the theme is in the nominative case. Verbs which govern the partitive case continue to do so in the passive, and where the object of the action is a personal pronoun, that goes into its special accusative form: minut unohdettiin "I was forgotten". Whether the object of a passive verb should be termed the subject of the clause has been debated, but traditionally Finnish grammars have considered a passive clause to have no subject.

Use of the passive voice is not as common in Finnish as in Germanic languages; sentences in the active voice are preferred, if possible. Confusion may result, as the agent is lost and becomes ambiguous. For instance, a bad translation of the English "the PIN code is asked when..." into PIN-koodia kysytään kun... begs the question "who asks?", whereas laite kysyy PIN-koodia kun... ("the device asks for the PIN code when...") is unambiguous. Nevertheless, this usage of

the passive is common in Finnish, particularly in literary and official contexts. Occasionally this leads to extreme cases such as valtuusto halutaan erottaa "it is wanted that the municipal board resigns", implying that there could be popular uprising near, when this suggestion is actually made by a single person.

It can also be said that in the Finnish passive the agent is always human and never mentioned. A sentence such as the tree was blown down would translate poorly into Finnish if the passive were used, since it would suggest the image of a group of people trying to blow the tree down.

Colloquially, the first-person plural indicative and imperative are replaced by the passive, e.g. menemme meille ("we'll go to our place") and menkäämme meille ("let us go to our place") are replaced by mennään meille (see spoken Finnish)

Because of its vagueness about who is performing the action, the passive can also translate the English "one does (something)", "(something) is generally done", as in sanotaan että… "they say that…"

Formation of the passive is dealt with in the article on Finnish verb conjugation.

As first person plural

In modern colloquial Finnish, the passive form of the verb is used instead of the active first person plural in the indicative and the imperative, to the almost complete exclusion of the standard verb forms. For example, in the indicative, the standard form is me menemme ("we are going"), but the colloquial form is me mennään. Without the personal pronoun me, the passive alone replaces the first person plural imperative, as in Mennään! "Let's go!". In colloquial speech, the pronoun me cannot be omitted without confusion, unlike when using the standard forms menemme (indicative) and menkäämme (imperative).

An almost identical (though unrelated) shift has happened in French, whereby the impersonal on replaces first person plural nous.

Zero person

The so-called ”zero person” is a construct in which a verb appears in the third person singular with no subject, and the identity of the subject must be understood from the context. Typically the implied subject is either the speaker or their interlocutor, or the statement is intended in a general sense. The zero person has some similarity to the English use of the formal subject one.

- Saunassa hikoilee "In the sauna, one sweats"
- Jos tulee ajoissa, saa paremman paikan "If you arrive in good time, you get a better seat"

Moods

**Indicative**

The indicative is the form of the verb used for making statements or asking simple questions. In the verb morphology sections, the mood referred to will be the indicative unless otherwise stated.

**Conditional**

The conditional mood expresses the idea that the action or state expressed by the verb may or may not actually happen. As in English, the Finnish conditional is used in conditional sentences (e.g. "I would tell you if I knew") and in polite requests (e.g. "I would like some coffee").

In the former case, and unlike in English, the conditional must be used in both halves of the Finnish sentence:

"ymmärtäisin jos puhuisit hitaammin" = *"I would understand if you would speak more slowly".

The characteristic morphology of the Finnish conditional is 'isi' inserted between the verb stem and the personal ending. This can result in a 'closed' syllable becoming 'open' and so trigger consonant gradation:

'tiedän' = 'I know', 'tietäisin' = 'I would know'.

cf. 'haluan' = 'I want', 'haluaisin' = 'I would like'.

Conditional forms exists for both active and passive voices, and for present tense and perfect.

**Imperative**

The imperative mood is used to express commands. In Finnish, there is only one tense form (the present-future). The possible variants of Finnish imperatives are:

- 1st, 2nd or 3rd person
- singular or plural
- active or passive
- positive or negative

**Active, 2nd person imperatives**

These are the most common forms of the imperative: "Do this", "Don't do that".

The singular imperative is simply the verb's present tense without any personal ending (that is, chop the '-n' off the first person singular form):

To make this negative, 'älä' (which is the active imperative singular 2nd person of the negative verb) is placed before the positive form:

To make this negative, 'älkää' (which is the active imperative present plural 2nd person of the negation verb) is placed before the positive form and the suffix '-ko' or '-kö' is added to the verb stem:

Note that 2nd person plural imperatives can also be used as polite imperatives when referring to one person.

The Finnish language has no simple equivalent to the English "please". The Finnish equivalent is to use either 'ole hyvä' or 'olkaa hyvä' = 'be good', but it is generally omitted. Politeness is normally conveyed by tone of voice, facial expression, and use of conditional verbs and partitive nouns. For example, voisitteko means "could you", in the polite plural, and is used much like English "Could you..." älköön olko tehty let (sth) not have been done

Also, familiar (and not necessarily so polite) expressions can be added to imperatives, e.g. menes, menepä, menehän. These are hard to translate exactly, but extensively used by Finnish speakers themselves. Menes implies expectation, that is, it has been settled already and requires no discussion; menepä has the -pa which indicates insistence, and -hän means approximated "indeed".

**Passive imperatives**

**3rd person imperatives**

The 1st person imperative sounds archaic, and a form resembling the passive indicative is often used instead: 'mennään!' = 'let's go!'

**Optative**

The optative mood is an archaic or poetic variant of the imperative mood that expresses hopes or wishes. It is not used in normal language.

**Potential**

The potential mood is used to express that the action or state expressed by the verb is likely but not certain. It is relatively rare in modern Finnish, especially in speech. Most commonly it is used in news reports and in official written proposals in meetings. It has only the present tense and perfect. The potential has no specific counterpart in English, but can be translated by adding "probably" to the verb.

The characteristic morphology of the Finnish potential is -ne- inserted between the verb stem and the personal ending. Furthermore, continuants assimilate progressively (pes+ne- → pesse-) and stops regressively (korjat+ne- → korjanne-). The verb "olla" "to be" in the potential has the

special suppletive form "lie-", e.g. the potential of on haettu "has been fetched" is lienee haettu "may have been fetched".

In some dialects 'tullee' ('may come') is an indicative form verb ('tulee' = 'comes') but grammatically it is a potential verb.

**Eventive**

No longer used in modern Finnish, the eventive mood is used in the Kalevala. It is a combination of the potential and the conditional. It is also used in some dialects of Estonian.

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