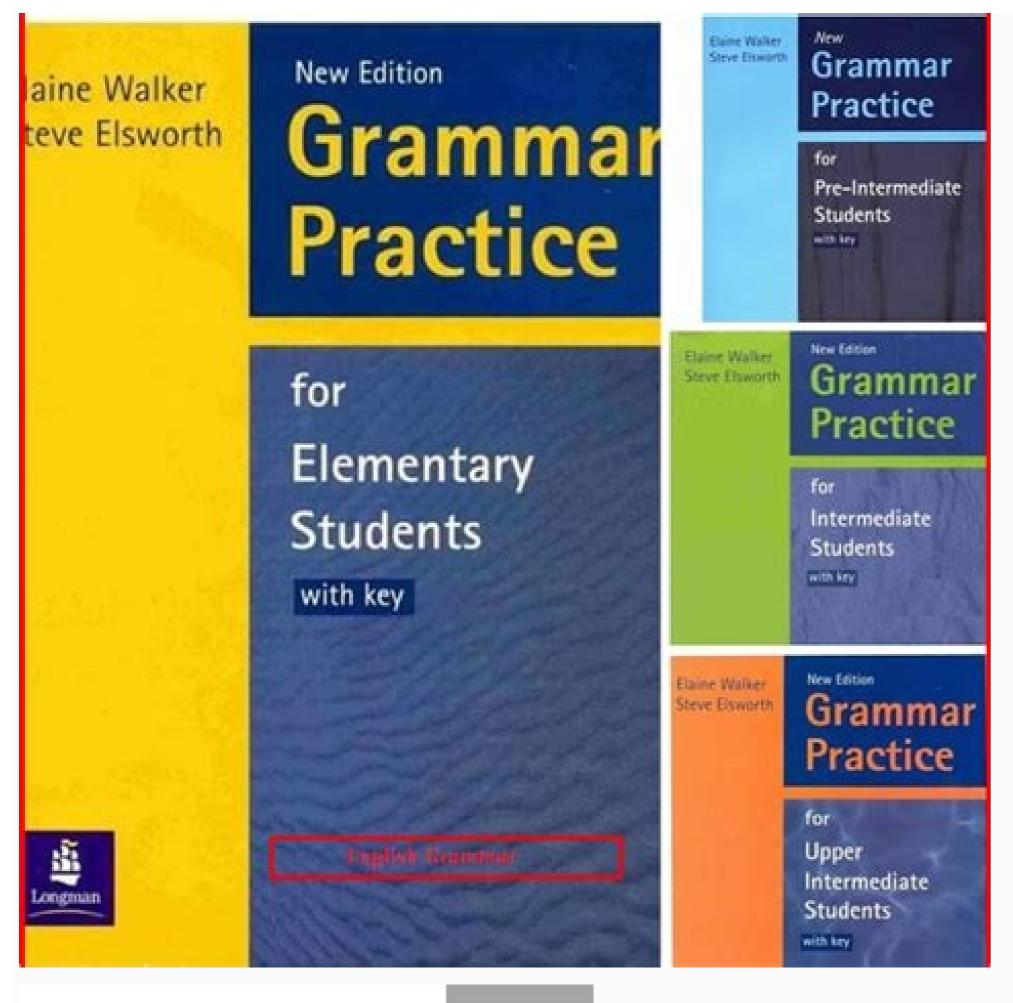
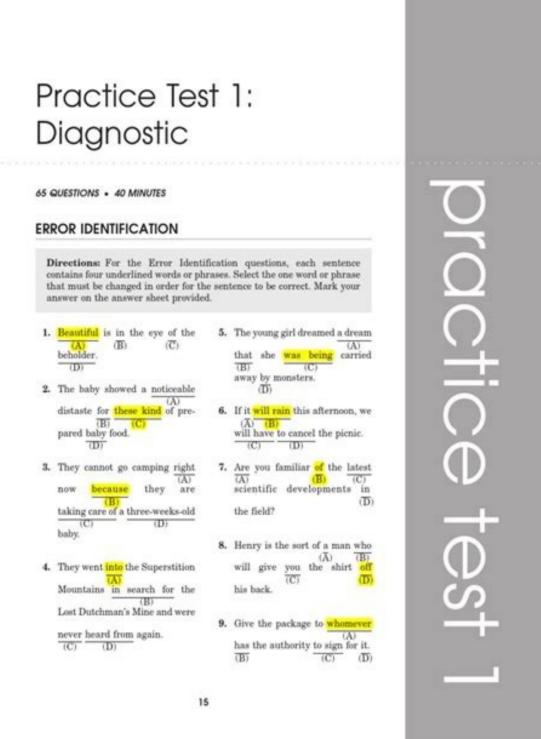
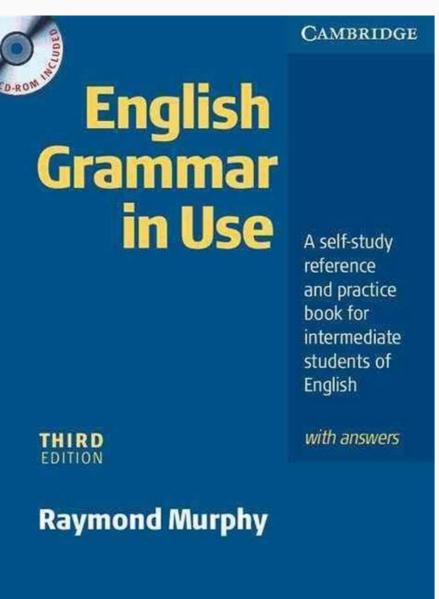
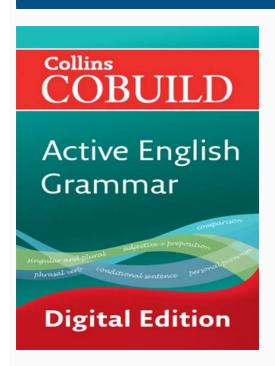
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on grammar usage and sentences structures. Link to English Grammar MCQs PDF is given at the end of this page. Q. Near the historic monument, there is a bridge
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   the Thames River. (A) above (B) over (C) off (D) towards Grammar of the English language English grammar is the set of structural rules of the English language. This includes the
structure of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and whole texts. This article describes a generalized, present-day Standard English - a form of speech and writing used in public discourse, including broadcasting, education, entertainment, government, and news, over a range of registers, from formal to informal. Divergences from the grammar
described here occur in some historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English, although these are more minor than differences in pronunciation and vocabulary. Modern English has largely abandoned the inflectional case more
strongly than any other word class (a remnant of the more extensive Germanic case system of Old English). For other pronouns, and all nouns, adjectives, and articles, grammatical function is indicated only by word order, by prepositions, and by the "Saxon genitive or English possessive" (-'s).[1] Eight "word classes" or "parts of speech" are commonly
distinguished in English: nouns, determiners, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. Nouns form the largest word class, and verbs the second-largest. Unlike nouns in almost all other Indo-European languages, English nouns (with a few uncommon, non-mandatory exceptions) do not have grammatical gender. Word
classes and phrases Part of a series on English grammar Morphology Plurals Prefixes (in English) Suffixes (frequentative) Word types Acronyms Adjectives Adverbs (flat) Articles Conjunctions Compounds Demonstratives (in English) Suffixes (frequentative) Word types Acronyms Adjectives Adverbs (flat) Articles Conjunctions (List here) Expletives Adverbs (flat) Articles Conjunctions (List here) Expletives Adverbs (flat) Articles Conjunctions (List here) Expletives (frequentative) Word types Acronyms (flat) Articles (frequentative) Word types Acronyms (flat) Articles (frequentative) Word types (flat) Articles (flat) Article
(case · person) Verbs VerbsAuxiliary verbsMood (conditional · imperative · subjunctive) Aspect (continuous · habitual · perfect)-ingIrregular verbsMood (conditional sentencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking
OrthographyAbbreviationsCapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesDouble negativesGrammar disputesThou vte Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs form open classes - word classes that readily accept new members, such as the noun celebutante (a celebrity who
frequents the fashion circles), and other similar relatively new words.[2] The others are considered to be closed classes. For example, it is rare for a new pronoun to enter the language. 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 the clause and sentence structure of the language. [2] Linguists generally accept nine English word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and exclamations. English words are not generally marked for word classes. 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, most 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 different lexemes).[3] Lexemes may be inflected to
express different grammatical categories. The lexeme run has the forms runs, ran, runny, runner, and running.[3] 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.[3] Words combine to form phrases. A phrase
typically serves the same function as a word from some particular word class.[3] 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, adjectival 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 preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase).
Main article: English nouns Many common suffixes form nouns from other nouns or from other types of words, such as -age (as in shrinkage), -hood (as in sisterhood), and so on,[3] 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). Nouns are sometimes classified semantically (by their meanings) as proper nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete n
nouns such as clock and city, and non-count (uncountable) nouns such as milk and decor.[5] Some nouns can function both as countable and as uncountable nouns generally have singular by adding -[e]s
(as in dogs, bushes), although there are also irregular forms (woman/women, foot/feet, etc.), including cases where the two forms are identical (sheep, series). For more details, see English plural. Certain nouns can be used with 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 is a form of synesis; it is more common in British than American 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, through 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). The status of the possessive as an affix or a clitic is the genitive ending may attach to the last word of the phrase. To account for this, the possessive can be analysed, for instance as a clitic construction
(an "enclitic postposition"[8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase ("edge inflection"). 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. [5] An English noun phrase typically takes the following form (not
all elements need be present): Determiner + Pre-modifiers + NOUN + Postmodifiers + NOUN + Postmodifiers 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[5] 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 fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a no
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, college is a 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 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 positions; certain clauses and relative clauses like what he said, in certain positions. Gender Main article: Gender in English A system of grammatical gender, whereby every noun was treated as either masculine, feminine or neuter, existed in Old English, but fell out of use during the Middle English
period. Modern English retains features relating to natural gender, namely the use of certain nouns (such as it) for sexless objects - although feminine pronouns are sometimes used when referring to ships (and more uncommonly
some airplanes and analogous machinery) and nation-states. Some aspects of gender usage in English have been influenced by the movement towards a preference for gender-neutral language. Animals are triple-gender nouns, being able to take masculine, feminine and neuter pronouns.[11] Generally there is no difference between male and female a
in English nouns. However, gender is occasionally exposed by different shapes or dissimilar words when referring to people or animals.[12] Masculine Feminine Gender neutral man woman adult boy girl child husband wife spouse actor actress performer rooster hen chicken Many nouns that mention people's roles and jobs can refer to either a
masculine or a feminine subject, for instance "cousin", "teenager", "teacher", "doctor", "student", "friend", and "colleague".[12] Jane is my friend. She is a dentist. Paul is my cousin. He is a dentist. Paul is my friend. She is a dentist. Paul is my cousin. He is a dentist. Often the gender distinction for these neutral nouns is established by inserting the words "male" or "female".[12] Sam is a female doctor. No, he is not my
boyfriend; he is just a male friend. I have three female cousins and two male cousins. Rarely, nouns illustrating things with no gender are referred to with a gendered pronoun to convey familiarity. It is also standard to use the gender-neutral pronoun (it).[12] I love my car. She (the car) is my greatest passion. France is popular with her (France's)
neighbors at the moment. I traveled from English determiners and English determiners constitute a relatively small class of words. They include the articles the and a[n]; 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, some, 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, main article: English pronouns, relative pronouns, relative pronouns, relative pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and some others, mainly indefinite articles and Zero article in English.
pronouns. The full set of English pronouns is presented in the following table. Nonstandard, informal and archaic forms are in italics. Nominative Accusative Reflexive Independent genitive (subject) (object) (possessive) First-person Singular I me myself mine mymine (before vowel)me (esp. BrE) Plural we us ourselvesourself ours
our Second-person Singular Standard (archaic plural and later formal) you you yourselves your Archaic informal thou thee thyself thine thythine (before vowel) Plural Standard you you yourselves your Archaic ye you yourselves your Selves your Selv
yeersy'all's (or y'alls) yeery'all's (or y'alls) Yeery'all's (or y'alls) Third-person Singular Masculine he him himself his Feminine she her herself hers her Neuter it it itself its its Epicene they them themselves theirs their Plural they them themselves theirs their Plural they them themselves the plural themselves the plural they them themselves the plural themselves the
persons who whomwho whose† whose Non-personal Main article: English personal pronouns The personal pronouns Th
pronouns are so-called not because they participate in the system of grammatical person (1st, 2nd, 3rd). 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 second-person 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 you set of pronouns are used for plural reference, or with singular reference as a
formal V-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 is used to refer to a female person, sometimes a
female animal, and sometimes a male animal, is referred to using he. In other cases, it can be used as a dummy subject, concerning abstract ideas like time, weather, etc. The third-
person form they is used with both plural and singular referents. Historically, singular they was restricted to quantificational constructions such as Each employee should clean their desk and referent's gender is irrelevant or when the referent is
neither male nor female. 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 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 my old man, some of his friends.
friend of mine (meaning "someone who is my friend"). See English possessive for more details. Demonstrative pronouns of English are this (plural those), as in those cars. They can also form the
alternative pronominal expressions this/that one, these/those ones. 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 alternative 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 Middle English, the roles of the three words were different from their roles today. "The interrogative pronoun hwā 'who, what' had only singular forms and also only
distinguished between non-neuter and neuter, the neuter nominative form being hwæt." [13] Note that neuter and non-neuter refers to the grammatical gender system of today. A small holdover of this is the ability of relative (but not interrogative) whose to refer to non-persons (e.g., the car
whose door won't open). All the interrogative pronouns can also be used as relative pronouns, though what is quite limited in its use;[1] see below for more details. Relative pronouns in English are who (with its derived forms whom and
whose), which, and that [14] 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 (for example, the man whose car is missing); however the use of whose is not restrictive 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 to which [not to that] I listened to yesterday, but the song to which [not to that] I listened to yesterday, but the song to which [not to that] I listened yesterday. The relative pronounced with a reduced vowel (schwa), and hence differently from the demonstrative that (see Weak
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" 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 informal English, however, the contraction there's is often used for both singular and plural. [15] 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 has sometimes been analyzed as an adverb, or as a dummy predicate, rather than
 words. No consistent distinction in meaning or use can be found between them. Like the reflexive pronouns, their use is limited to contexts where an antecedent precedes it. In the case of the reciprocals, they need to appear in the same clause as the antecedent. [1] Other 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 as indefinite pronouns. Another indefinite pronouns is one (with its reflexive form oneself and possessive one's), which is a more formal
alternative to generic you.[17] Verbs Main article: English verbs also contain prefixes, such as -ate (formulate), -fy (electrify), and -ise/ize (realise/realize).[18] Many verbs also contain prefixes, such as un- (unmask), out
(outlast), over- (overtake), and under- (undervalue).[18] Verbs can also be formed from nouns and adjectives by zero derivation, as with the verbs snare, nose, dry, and calm. Most verbs have three or four inflected forms in addition to the base form: a third-person singular present tense form in -(e)s (writes, botches), a present participle and gerund
 form in -ing (writing), a past tense (wrote), and - though often identical to the past tense form - a past participle (written). Regular verbs with different forms (see list). The verbs have, do and say also have irregular third-person present tense
forms (has, does /dxz/, says /sɛz/). The verb be has the largest number of irregular forms (am, is, are in the past tense, been for the past tense, was, were in the past tense, been for the past tense, was, were in the past tense, been for the past tense and tense are the past tense.
 writes) and simple past (wrote), there are also continuous (progressive) forms (am/is/are/was/were writing), perfect forms (will write, will have written, will have been writing), and conditionals (also called "future in the past"), so forms
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, or let'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 were instead 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 be (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.[19] These do not inflect for person or number,[19] do not occur alone, 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). Modals can indicate the condition, probability, possibility, necessity, obligation and ability exposed by the speaker's or
writer's attitude or expression.[20] The copula be, along with the modal verbs and the other auxiliaries, form a distinct class, sometimes called "special verbs" or simply "auxiliaries".[21] These have different syntax from ordinary lexical verbs, especially in that they make their interrogative forms by plain inversion 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 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's for John is. Their negated forms with following not are also often contracted (see § Negation below). For detail see English auxiliaries and contracted (see § Negation below).
phrase (although this concept is not acknowledged in all theories of grammar[22]). 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 may be objects, complements may be 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 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 Main article: English adjectives
 English adjectives, as with other word classes, cannot in general be identified as such by their form, [23] although many of them are formed from nouns or other words by the addition of a suffix, such as -al (habitual), -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 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,[24] 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 in happier and happier and bag better, best and worse, worst; also far becomes farther, furthest 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 Adverbs below. 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,
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 completely. Another type of adjective
sometimes considered ungradable is those that represent an extreme degree of some property, such as delicious and terrified. Phrases An adjective as its head, to which modifiers and complements may be added.[25] 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 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 adjective before a noun. Sometimes they are used attributive 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 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 Main article: English adverbs Adverbs perform a wide range of functions. They typically modify verbs 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).[27] They can also indicate an attitude (Frankly, I don't believe you).[27] Many through the movie), or whole sentences, to provide contextual comment or indicate an attitude (Frankly, I don't believe you).
 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; these are flat adverbs. In earlier usage more flat adverbs were accepted in formal usage; many of these
survive in idioms and colloquially. (That's just plain ugly.) Some adjectives can also be used as flat adverbs when they actually describe the subject. (The streaker ran naked, not **The streaker ran naked, not **The
There are also many adverbs that are not derived from adjectives, [26] 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] and -wise (as in lengthwise). Most adverbs form comparatives and superlatives by modification
with more and most: often, more often, more often, more often, more smoothly, most smoothly, more smoothly, mor
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). 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 a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and those that provide a connection with previous information (such as next, then, however), and the previous information (such as next, then, however).
on a shopping expedition. [28] If the verb has an object, the adverb comes after the object (He finished the test quickly). When there is more than one types of adverb is the adverb is the adverb and the test quickly). When there is more than one types of adverb, they usually appear in the order: manner, place, time (His arm was hurt severely at home yesterday). [29] A special type of adverb is the adverb is the adverb 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 if the object if the object is a pronoun (pick the pen up or pick up). Phrases An adverb phrase is a phrase that acts as an adverb within a sentence.[30] 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 Main article: English prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain phrases that serve as prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although the preposition for the class of the class 
 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 a prepositional phrase. [31] 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" 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?) The song that you were listening ... (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 between items, phrases, clauses and sentences. [32] The principal coordinating conjunctions between items, phrases, clauses and sentences.
items of equal grammatical status,[32] 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 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, 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.[32] The common correlatives in English are: either ... or (either a man or a woman); neither a man or a woman); both ... and (they both are: either ... or (either a man or a woman); neither a man or a woman); neither a man or a woman or a wom
punished and rewarded them); not ... but, particularly in not only ... but also (not exhausted but exhilarated, not only football but also many other sports). Subordinate clauses, making the clause in which they appear into a subordinate clause. [34] 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 opposition or concession, such as although, though, even though, whereas, while; conjunctions of opposition or concession, such as although, though, even though, whereas, while; conjunctions of opposition or concession, 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, as 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 still have three morphological cases that are simplified forms of the nominative, objective and genitive cases: [35] The nominative cases.
(subjective pronouns such as I, he, she, we, they, who, whoever), used for the subject of a finite verb and sometimes for the complement of a copula. The oblique case (object of a verb, for the object of a preposition, for an absolute disjunct, and
sometimes for the complement of a copula. The genitive case (possessive pronouns such as my/mine, his, her(s), our(s), its, our(s), their, theirs, whose), used for a grammatical case. Most English personal pronouns have five forms
distinct reflexive or intensive form (such as myself, ourselves). The interrogative personal pronoun who exhibits the greatest diversity of forms within the modern English pronoun system, having definite nominative, oblique, and genitive forms (who, whom, whose) and equivalently coordinating indefinite forms (whoever, whomever, and whosever).
 Forms such as I, he, and we are used for the subject ("I kicked the ball"), whereas forms such as me, him and us are used for the object ("John kicked me").[36] Declension Further information: Declension Nouns have distinct singular and plural forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and
subjective, and the objective whom. Further, these pronouns and a few others have distinct possessive forms, such as his and whose. By contrast, nouns have no distinct nominative and objective forms, the two being merged into a single plain case. For example, chair does not change form between "the chair is here" (subject) and "I saw the chair"
(direct object). Possession is shown by the clitic -'s attached to a possessive noun phrase, rather than by declension of the noun itself.[37] 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), no other auxiliary verbs are added to negate the clause (I am not going).
 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 the 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 participal phrases, etc., can be negated by placing 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 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 Main article: English clause syntax A typical sentence contains one independent clause and possibly one or more dependent clause syntax A typical sentence contains one independent clause and possibly one or more dependent clause syntax 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 pronoun, or phrase containing one). Word order
English word order has moved from the Germanic verb-second (V2) word order to being almost exclusively subject-verb-object (SVO). The combination of SVO order and use of auxiliary verbs often creates clusters of two or more verbs at the center of the sentence, such as he had hoped to try to open it. In most sentences, English marks grammatical
 relations only through word order. The subject constituent precedes the verb and the object constituent follows it. The Object-subject-verb (OSV) may on occasion be seen in English, usually in the future tense or used as a contrast with the conjunction "but", such as in the following examples: "Rome I shall see!", "I hate oranges, but apples I'll eat!".
[38] Questions Like many other Western European languages, English historically allowed questions to be formed by inverting the positions of the 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 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. \rightarrow Whore do I go? (wh-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. (legative, with and without contraction, with and without contraction respectively) 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 an inverted subject and verb, used to form questions as described above, is also used in certain types of declarative sentences. This occurs mainly when the sentence begins with adverbial or other phrases that are essentially negative or contain
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 he were a soldier); were he a soldier); were he to win the race (equivalent to if he 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 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 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 by do/does/did: he does, they didn't.
Clauses that omit the verb, in particular those like me too, nor me, me neither 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 Main articles
History of English grammars The first published English grammar was a Pamphlet for 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 much English grammar, for much of the century after Bullokar's effort, was 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.
English parts of speech are based on Latin and Greek parts of speech. [39] Some English grammar rules were adopted from Latin, for example John Dryden is thought to have created the rule of no split infinitives was adopted from Latin because Latin
has no split infinitives.[40][41][42] See also Language portal English usage controversies English prefixes Subject-object-verb Notes and references ^ a b c Payne, John; Huddleston, Rodney; Pullum, Geoffrey (eds.). The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language Cambridge; New York:
Cambridge University Press. pp. 479-481. ISBN 0-521-43146-8. We conclude that both head and phrasal genitives in is always a noun that inflects, while the phrasal genitive can apply to words of most classes. ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 296 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 296 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 296 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p.
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Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. Harlow: Longman. p. 328. ISBN 978-0-582-51734-9. [the -s ending is] more appropriately described as an enclitic postposition! ^ Greenbaum, Sidney (1996). The Oxford University Press. pp. 109-110. ISBN 0-19-861250-8. In speech the genitive is signalled in singular nouns
by an inflection that has the same pronunciation variants as for plural nouns in the common case ^ Quirk, Randolph; Greenbaum, Sidney; Leech, Geoffrey; Svartik, Jan (1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. Longman. p. 319. In writing, the inflection of regular nouns is realized in the singular by apostrophe + s (boy's), and in the
regular plural by the apostrophe following the plural s (boys') Siemund, Peter (2008). Pronominal Gender in English Varieties form a Cross-Linguistic Perspective. New York: Routledge. a b c d "NOUN GENDER". EF Education First Hogg, Richard, ed. (1992). The Cambridge history of the English language: Volume I.
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