

5 Nouns and determiners

5.1 Nouns fall into different classes as shown in Fig 5.1.

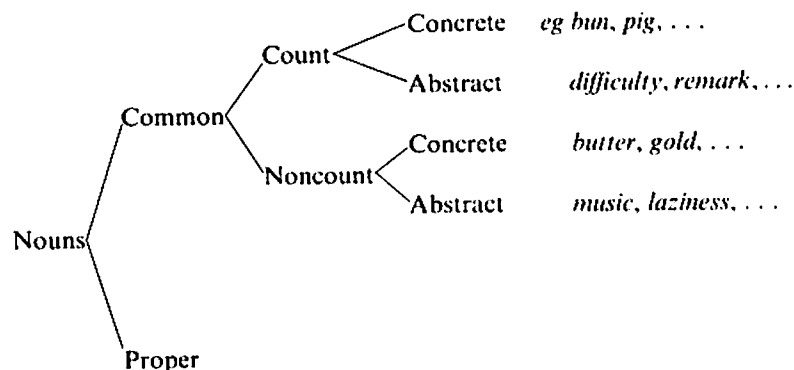


Fig 5.1

The distinction between *concrete* (accessible to the senses, observable, measurable, etc) and *abstract* (typically nonobservable and nonmeasurable) is important semantically. Of more relevance to *grammar*, however, is the distinction between *proper* and *common* nouns. Since the former have unique reference (cf 5.25ff), determiner and number contrast cannot occur: **the Indonesia*, **some Chicagos*. Contrast with common nouns *the butter*, *some difficulties*. But among nouns, we have the further distinction between *count* (also called 'countable') and *noncount* (also called 'mass') nouns. Like the distinction between proper and common, we have here a difference that has both semantic and grammatical significance, since count and noncount nouns permit a different range of determiners. In Table 5.1, we display the various determiner constraints as they affect the

Table 5.1

	PROPER	COMMON		
		COUNT	NONCOUNT	COUNT OF NONCOUNT
(a)	Freda	*book	music	brick
(b)	*the Freda	the book	the music	the brick
(c)	*a Freda	a book	*a music	a brick
(d)	*some Freda	*some book	some music	some brick
(e)	*Fredas	books	*musics	bricks

classes of nouns, the fourth column showing that some common nouns can be used as both count and noncount. Thus nouns like *cake* or *brick* can refer either to the substance (noncount) or to units made of the substance (count). The lines (a)–(e) represent different determiner constraints: Can the singular noun occur (a) without a determiner? (b) with the definite article? (c) with the indefinite article? (d) with the partitive *some*, /səm/? Can the plural noun occur (e) without a determiner?

NOTE [a] On apparent exceptions like '*The Chicago* of my youth', see 5.26f.
[b] The absence of article in *I like Freda* and *I like music* makes the two nouns only superficially similar: in the former there is *no article* where in the latter there is *zero article* which can contrast with *the*. Compare

*I like *Freda*, but *the Freda* this evening is boring.
I like *music*, but *the music* this evening is boring.

But cf 5.22f.

Partitive constructions

5.2 Both count and noncount nouns can enter constructions denoting part of a whole. Such partitive expressions may relate to (a) quantity or (b) quality, and in either case the partition may be singular or plural. It thus affords a means of imposing number on noncount nouns, since the partition is generally expressed by a count noun of partitive meaning (such as *piece* or *sort*, which can be singular or plural), followed by an *of*-phrase.

(a) QUANTITY PARTITION

(i) Of noncount means; eg:

a piece of cake two *pieces of cake*
an item of clothing several *items of clothing*

These partitives (as also the informal *bit*) can be used very generally, but with some nouns specific partitives occur; eg:

a blade of grass
some specks of dust
two slices of meat/bread/cake

(ii) Of plural count nouns; here we tend to have partitives relating to specific sets of nouns; eg:

a *flock of* sheep/pigeons a *series of* concerts/lectures
two *flocks of* sheep/pigeons two *series of* concerts/lectures

(iii) Of singular count nouns; *eg*:

a *piece of* a leather belt two *pieces of* a broken cup
a *page of* a book two *acts of* a play

(b) QUALITY PARTITION is expressed most commonly with *kind* and *sort*:
eg:

count	{	a new <i>kind of</i>	several new <i>kinds of</i>
		computer	computer(s)
noncount	{	one <i>sort of</i> silk tie	two <i>sorts of</i> silk tie(s)
noncount	{	a delicious <i>kind of</i>	some delicious <i>kinds of</i>
		bread	bread
noncount	{	a fashionable <i>sort of</i>	fashionable <i>sorts of</i>
		wallpaper	wallpaper

Other quality partitives include *type*, *variety*, and (especially with such materials as coffee or tobacco) *blend*.

NOTE [a] Both quantity and quality partition may be expressed by treating the noun itself as though it expressed a quantity or quality. Thus a noncount noun can be given count characteristics and *two coffees* may in appropriate contexts mean either 'two cups of coffee' or 'two types of coffee'.

[b] Quantity partitives may be expressions of precise measure; *eg* a *yard of* cloth, *two kilos of* potatoes. There can also be fractional partition and this may cooccur with normal quantity partition, as in 'He ate a *quarter of* that (*joint of*) beef'.

[c] Since there is no necessary connection between countability and referential meaning, many English nouns can simulate the plural only by partitive constructions where their translation equivalents in some other languages are count nouns with singular and plural forms. *Eg*:

some information ~ some *pieces of* information
his anger ~ his *bursts of* anger

Determiners

5.3 In actual usage, nouns appear in *noun phrases* (Chapter 17), and the kind of reference such a noun phrase has depends on the accompanying DETERMINER. We distinguish three classes of determiners, set up on the basis of their position in the noun phrase in relation to each other:

Central determiners (*eg*: *the*, *a*, *this*)
Predeterminers (*eg*: *half*, *all*, *double*; as in *all the people*)
Postdeterminers (*eg*: *seven*, *many*, *few*; as in *the many passengers*)

Central determiners

the, *a*, and zero

5.4 The definite and indefinite articles are the commonest central determiners and, as we saw in 5.1, their distribution is dependent upon the class of the accompanying noun. Relating definiteness to number, we have the following system for count and noncount nouns:

		COUNT	NONCOUNT
SINGULAR	{ definite	the book	the music
	{ indefinite	a book	music
PLURAL	{ definite	the books	
	{ indefinite	books	

Beside the sole definite article *the*, we thus have two indefinite articles *a* and zero, the former occurring with singular count nouns, its zero analogue with noncount and plural count nouns. Both *the* and *a* have a different form when the following word begins with a vowel, though *the* does not display this difference in writing:

the bird [ðə] ~ *the owl* [ði]
a bird [ə] ~ *an owl* [ən]

The use of the articles is examined in 5.11*ff*.

NOTE [a] The indefinite article *a/an* can be regarded as an unstressed numeral *one*; *cf* *one or two pounds* ~ *a pound or two*.

[b] With nouns beginning with *h*, the prevocalic forms are used if this is not pronounced:

[ði] *honour* *an hour*

Thus for those who do not pronounce *h* before unstressed syllables a difference is observed between such pairs as '*history* and *hi'storical*':

a history book ~ *an historical novel*

[c] When the articles are stressed for any reason (as for example in slow speech and especially in AmE), they are pronounced [ði], [eɪ], [æn].

5.5 Like the definite article, there are several other determiners that can cooccur equally with singular count, plural count, and noncount nouns.

(a) The DEMONSTRATIVES *this* and *that* (with noncount and singular count nouns), *these* and *those* (with plural count nouns):

I prefer *this* picture/music to *that* (picture/music).
These desks are imported but *those* tables are made locally.

(b) The POSSESSIVES *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*:

I admire *her* house/*her* books/*her* taste.

(c) The *wh*-determiners *which*, *whose*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whenever*, *whether* as relatives, indefinite relatives, or interrogatives:

Please come at noon, by *which* time I shall be back in my office.
 The woman *whose* book you reviewed is on TV tonight.
 They will disapprove of *whatever* music is played.
Which house do you prefer?
What time is it?

(d) The NEGATIVE DETERMINER *no*:

He has *no* car/*no* children/*no* concentration.

All these determiners (sometimes with a modification of form as in *theirs*, *none*) have a pronominal role as well, and they will be treated in more detail below (6.16ff).

Like the indefinite article, there are determiners that cooccur only with singular count nouns.

(a) The UNIVERSAL DETERMINERS *every* and *each*.

We need to interview *every/each* student separately.

(b) The NONASSERTIVE DUAL DETERMINER *either*:

There is no parking permitted on *either* side of the street.

(c) The NEGATIVE DUAL DETERMINER *neither*:

Parking is permitted on *neither* side of the street.

5.6 Like the zero article, there are determiners that cooccur only with noncount nouns and plural count nouns:

(a) The GENERAL ASSERTIVE DETERMINER *some* [səm]:

I would like *some* bread/*some* rolls, please.

(b) The GENERAL NONASSERTIVE DETERMINER *any*:

We haven't *any* bread/*any* rolls left.

(c) The QUANTITATIVE DETERMINER *enough*:

We have *enough* equipment/*enough* tools for the job.

These determiners will be discussed in more detail when we come to their pronominal functions (6.25f).

NOTE [a] When stressed in some circumstances, *any* can occur with singular count nouns, as in 'She will consider "any offer – however small'.
 [b] A stressed form of *some* [səm] is used with the meaning of strong indefiniteness ('one unidentified, a certain') and this has the same distribution potential as items in 5.4:

You will win *some* day; *some* days she feels better; I found *some* stranger waiting for me; they are playing *some* peculiar music that no one has heard before.

Predeterminers

- 5.7 Predeterminers form a class in generally being mutually exclusive, preceding those central determiners with which they can cooccur, and in having to do with quantification. It is useful to distinguish two subsets:
 (a) *all*, *both*, *half*
 (b) the multipliers

NOTE The items *such* and *what* are exceptional in referring to quality rather than quantity ('*what* a day we had; I can't remember *such* a time') and this accounts for combinations like *all such*.

All, both, half

- 5.8 These have in common the positive characteristic of being able to occur before the articles, the demonstratives, and the possessives:

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{all} \\ \textit{both} \\ \textit{half} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{the} \\ \textit{these} \\ \textit{our} \end{array} \right\} \textit{students}$$

They also have the negative characteristic of not occurring before determiners that themselves entail quantification: *every*, *each*, (*n*)*either*, *some*, *any*, *no*, *enough*. Beyond these generalizations, their occurrence needs to be described on an individual basis:

ALL occurs with plural count nouns and with noncount nouns, as in

all the books	all the music
all books	all music

BOTH occurs with plural count nouns, as in

both the books both books

HALF occurs with singular and plural count nouns and with noncount nouns, as in

half the book(s)	half the music
half a book	(but *half music)

NOTE [a] As well as being predeterminers, *all*, *both* and *half* can, like demonstratives, be used pronominally:

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{All} \\ \textit{Both} \\ \textit{Half} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{the students sat for their exam} \\ \textit{and} \\ \textit{but} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{all} \\ \textit{both} \\ \textit{half} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{passed.} \\ \textit{failed.} \end{array} \right.$$

They can also be followed by an *of*-phrase:

All/Both/Half of the students . . .

Moreover, *all* and *both* may appear at the adverbial *M* position (after the operator: 8.11), as in:

The students $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{all} \\ \text{both} \end{array} \right\}$ sat for the exam.

The students were $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{all} \\ \text{both} \end{array} \right\}$ sitting for the exam.

[b] Since *half* may modify a following noun as an *ad hoc* or institutionalized compound, we can have pairs such as *half an hour* and *a half hour* (where there is little difference of meaning) or *half a bottle of wine* (half of the contents) and *a half bottle of wine* (a small bottle holding half the contents of an ordinary bottle).

[c] Fractions other than *half* are usually followed by an *of*-phrase and must normally be preceded by a numeral or the indefinite article. Compare:

She read *half* the book.

She read $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a quarter} \\ \text{three quarters} \end{array} \right\}$ of the book.

But, especially with *time*, *distance*, *height*, we sometimes find fractions used as predeterminers:

He was given six months for the work but he finished in *two-thirds* the time.

- 5.9 The MULTIPLIERS have two uses as predeterminers. When the following determiner is the definite article, demonstrative or possessive, the multiplier applies to the noun so determined:

twice/double the length ('a length twice as great')
three times her salary ('a salary three times as large')

When the following determiner is the indefinite article or *each* or *every*, the multiplier applies to a measure (such as frequency) set against the unit specified by the following noun:

once a day
twice each game
four times every year

NOTE We can compare expressions of costing:

Oil then cost only *fifteen dollars* a barrel.
 Her salary is *ten thousand yen* a/per month.

Postdeterminers

- 5.10 Postdeterminers take their place immediately after determiners just as predeterminers take their place immediately before determiners. Compare:

Predeterminer: *Both* the young women were successful.
 Postdeterminer: The *two* young women were successful.

With zero determiner, of course, the distinction is neutralized:

Both young women were successful.

Two young women were successful.

Postdeterminers fall into two classes:

- (a) ordinals, such as *first*, *fourth*, *last*, *other*;
 (b) quantifiers, such as *seven*, *ninety*, *many*, *few*, *plenty of*, *a lot of*.

Where they can cooccur, items from (a) usually precede items from (b); for example:

the *first two* poems
 my *last few* possessions
 her *other many* accomplishments

Among the (b) items, there are two important distinctions involving *few* and *little*. First, *few* occurs only with plural count nouns, *little* only with noncount nouns. Second, when preceded by *a*, each has a positive meaning; without *a*, each has a negative meaning. Thus:

I play *a few* games (*ie* 'several').
 I play *few* games (*ie* 'hardly any').
 She ate *a little* bread (*ie* 'some').
 She ate *little* bread (*ie* 'hardly any').

We should note also a contrast involving assertive and nonassertive usage (2.11). Some items are predominantly *assertive* (such as *plenty of*, *a few*, *a little*, *a good many*), while others are predominantly *nonassertive* (such as *much*, *many*):

We need *plenty of* time.
 ~ We don't need *much* time.
 She has written *a good many* poems.
 ~ She hasn't written *many* poems.

The articles in specific reference

The definite article

- 5.11 The article *the* marks a noun phrase as *definite*: that is, as referring to something which can be identified uniquely in the contextual or general knowledge shared by speaker and hearer. Such shared knowledge is partly a knowledge of the world and partly a knowledge of English grammar, as we shall see in 5.12-14.
- 5.12 Where the use of *the* depends on shared knowledge of the world, we may speak of SITUATIONAL REFERENCE, and this is of two kinds. We first distinguish *the* used in connection with the IMMEDIATE situation:

Do you see *the* bird sitting on *the* lower branch?
Oh dear! *The* stain hasn't come out of *the* carpet.

In such cases, the identity of the particular bird, branch, stain, and carpet is obvious because they are physically present and visible. But the reference might be obvious because the situational reference was in the minds of speaker and listener:

When *the* policeman had gone, I remembered that I hadn't told him about *the* damaged window-pane.

Secondly, we have the LARGER situation, where identification of the reference depends on assumptions about general knowledge more than on the specific experience of the particular speaker and listener:

I do most of my travelling by overnight train, and of course in *the* dark one has no idea of what *the* countryside looks like.

So also with reference to *the Pope*, *the President*, *the government*, *the Equator*, *the stars*; and as we see in these examples, the shared assumption of *uniqueness* in reference is often matched by use of an initial capital in writing. Cf 5.25ff.

NOTE The same phrase may involve *the* with immediate or larger situational reference:

Would *the* children like to go out and play?
When we design schools, do we ask ourselves what *the* children would like?

As with the latter example, larger situational reference often overlaps with generic use: cf 5.22ff.

5.13 Special cases of the larger situation occur with the use of *the* for SPORADIC reference and for reference to the BODY. In *sporadic* reference, we promote to institutional status a phenomenon of common experience. Thus in contrast to the particular newspaper that a particular individual buys, or the particular theatre that stands in a particular street, we may use *the paper* or *the theatre* more broadly:

You'll probably see it in *the paper* tomorrow.
I like to go to *the theatre* about once a month.

Cf also:

She's not on *the* telephone yet, though she may have one installed soon.
I won't come by car; I'll take *the* train.
Everyone would sleep better with *the* windows open.

With reference to parts of the body, *the* is often used in prepositional phrases instead of a possessive such as *my* or *her*:

I grabbed him by *the* arm.
She banged herself on *the* forehead.

He has a fracture of *the* collarbone.
The child has a pain in *the* chest.

In medical usage, *the* can replace a possessive without the body part or function being in a prepositional phrase; thus (doctor to patient):

How is the chest now? Has the breathing been affected?

5.14 The use of *the* may be determined by *logical* and *grammatical* factors. The uniqueness of a referent may be recognized not by general knowledge of the world but be logically imposed by meaning. Nouns premodified by superlatives, ordinals and similar restrictive items such as *sole* will thus be made logically unique:

When is *the* next flight?
She was *the* sole survivor.
They judged him to be *the* most original painter.

Grammatical determination is of two kinds:

(a) *Anaphoric* reference, where *the* indicates identity of reference with that established earlier in the discourse:

Fred bought a radio and a video-recorder, but he returned *the* radio.

Here the anaphora is 'direct'; but anaphoric reference may be 'indirect', requiring some support from general knowledge:

When she tried to open her front door, she couldn't get *the* key into *the* lock.

Here the two definite articles are correctly interpreted as grammatically anaphoric only because we know that a front door has a lock, and opening one involves using a key.

(b) *Cataphoric* reference, where *the* indicates that the identity of the reference will be established by what follows:

I am trying to find *the* book that I wanted to show you.

Here, *the* is only justified by the addressee knowing that the speaker had planned to show him or her a book. Similarly, in

How did you get *the* (= 'that') mud on your coat?

there is the presumption that the addressee knows there is mud on the coat. Contrast:

Do you know that you have { **the* mud / mud } on your coat?

The indefinite article

5.15 In contrast to *the*, an indefinite article is used when a reference cannot be regarded as uniquely identifiable from the shared knowledge of speaker and addressee:

I am just about to move into *an* apartment quite near where you live.

Contrast the uniquely identifiable apartment which justifies the cataphoric *the* in:

I am just about to move into *the* apartment directly above yours.

The indefinite article is commonly associated with 'first mention' of an item with which anaphoric *the* would be used in subsequent mention:

Her house was burgled and she lost *a* camera, *a* radio, and *a* purse - though fortunately *the* purse contained very little money and *the* camera was insured.

NOTE [a] Body parts which are multiple can be individually referred to with the indefinite article:

Jack has broken *a* finger/*a* rib.

but

Jack has bumped *his* head.

[b] While identical noun phrases with *the* are taken to be coreferential, this is not the case when the article is indefinite:

Mary bought *the* camera from her sister and she has now sold *the* camera to me. [1]
Mary bought *a* camera last week and sold *a* camera this week. [2]

In [1], only one camera is involved; in [2], the presumption is that reference is made to two different cameras.

[c] Note also the use of zero with complements of some verbs:

She turned linguist. ~ She became a linguist.
They made him chairman.

The indefinite article and the numeral *one*

5.16 We often use the indefinite article in ways that reflect its origin as an unstressed variant of the numeral. In such cases, *one* could replace *a/an* with only a slight implication of greater emphasis:

Our neighbours have two daughters and $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ son.

This cost $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ pound/ $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ hundred/thousand/million pounds.

Compare also variant phrases in which *one* is used when a conjunction follows:

We walked for $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ mile or two.
 $\left\{ \begin{matrix} one \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ or two miles.

The water is only $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ foot and a half deep.
 $\left\{ \begin{matrix} one \\ one \end{matrix} \right\}$ and a half feet deep.

NOTE In phrases of measure like 'half *an* hour', 'ten dollars *a* day', the numerical function cannot be fulfilled by *one* without expansion and recasting: 'ten dollars for *one* day'.

The zero article

Zero article and *some/any*

5.17 With noncount and plural count nouns, the role of indefinite article is fulfilled by either zero or (where quantification is to be expressed) *some* or its nonassertive (2.11) analogue *any*.

Do you know what $\left\{ \begin{matrix} a \\ \text{boysenberry looks like?} \\ \text{boysenberries look like?} \end{matrix} \right\}$

She bought her son $\left\{ \begin{matrix} an \\ \text{apple.} \\ \text{some apples.} \end{matrix} \right\}$

I like milk with my coffee.

I would like *some* milk with my coffee, please.

He hasn't bought *any* books for years, whereas she spends half her salary on books.

She has men as well as women on her staff.

If we inserted *some* before both *men* and *women* in this last sentence, there would be little difference in meaning. But if we inserted *some* before one and not before the other, it would give the impression that this indicated the minority:

She has men as well as *some* women on her staff.

But the greater generality of zero as compared with *some* must not lead us to confound this general use of zero with the *generic* use which we shall consider in 5.22. Compare:

Quantitative: *Some* coffee will calm this nervousness of yours.

General: Coffee can be bought almost anywhere.

Generic: Coffee is a common stimulant.

Zero article with definite meaning

5.18 Despite its widespread correspondence to the indefinite article, the zero article can, conversely, be used in ways that closely resemble the definite article. This is notably so where a phrase specifies a unique role or task. In the following examples, the parenthesized *the* could be present or absent with very little difference of meaning:

Maureen is (*the*) *captain of netball* this year.

As (*the*) *chairman*, I must rule you out of order.

The speaker will be Mr Watanabe, (*the*) *author of a recent book on international affairs* and of course (*the*) *presenter of several TV talk shows*.

Although she declined the position of *director*, she accepted the role of *unofficial adviser*.

NOTE [a] We should note also the contrast between restrictive and nonrestrictive apposition (17.27):

Prime Minister Gandhi ~ *the* Prime Minister, Mr Rajiv Gandhi

[b] In institutional usage, zero replaces *the* in a way that implies proper-name status for an item:

Council will consider this in due course ~ *The* Council will . . .

[c] Articles are usually omitted in headlines ('Crew deserts ship in harbour') and on official forms ('Please state reason for application and give names of two supporters').

5.19 Analogous to the use of *the* with sporadic reference (5.13), we have zero with implication of definite rather than indefinite meaning. This is especially so with idiomatically institutionalized expressions relating to common experience.

(a) *Quasi-locatives* (where a particular activity or role in connection with the location is implied):

be in } go to }	{	town	beside	<i>The</i> town is very old.
		bed		It's on <i>the</i> bed.
		church		How far is <i>the</i> church?
		prison		Don't stop near <i>the</i> prison.
be at, go		home		This was <i>the</i> home of a financier.
go to	{	sea		<i>The</i> sea looks calm.
		college		She drove to <i>the</i> college.

Frequently there is a distinction in meaning between zero and *the*; thus *on stage* will usually refer to a play or participant in current theatrical production, while *on the stage* refers to literal physical location or is an idiom denoting the acting profession: 'She was a teacher but now she's on the stage.' Again, there are distinctions in meaning between AmE and BrE; thus *in school* would be used in AmE for the state of being a school pupil (BrE *at school*) but in BrE it would refer merely to being inside the building; *in the hospital* in AmE is used of a patient (BrE *in hospital*) but in BrE denotes physical location.

(b) *Transport and communication*: when *by* precedes the mode in question, zero occurs:

travel } come } go }	} by	bicycle	beside	<i>The</i> bicycle was damaged.
		bus		She was on <i>the</i> bus.
		train		Should we take <i>the</i> train?
		car		etc
		plane		
send it by	{	telex		<i>The</i> post/mail is late today.
		post <esp BrE>		<i>The</i> satellite is a new one.
		mail <esp AmE>		
		satellite		

Cf also: 'The message came *by hand/by special delivery*'.

(c) *Time expressions*: zero is common, especially after the prepositions *at*, *by*, *after*, *before*:

at dawn/daybreak/sunset/night
by morning/evening ('when morning/evening came')
by day/night ('during')
after dark/nightfall
before dawn/dusk

Cf also '(They worked) day and night', 'It's almost dawn', 'I'll be travelling all night/week/month'.

In less stereotyped expressions, *the* is used, as in '*The* sunrise was beautiful', 'I'll rest during *the* evening', 'Can you stay for *the* night?'

With *in*, seasons may also have zero, unless a particular one is meant:

In winter/spring/autumn (*but AmE in the fall*), I like to have a break in Switzerland.

This year I am going to Switzerland in *the* winter/spring/autumn.

(d) *Meals*: as with seasons, zero is usual unless reference is being made to a particular one:

What time do you normally have breakfast/lunch/supper?
(The) breakfast/lunch/dinner was served late that day.

(e) *Illness*: zero is normal, especially where the illness bears a technical medical name:

She has anaemia/cancer/diabetes/influenza/pneumonia/toothache.

But *the* is also used for afflictions less technically designated:

She had (*the*) flu/hiccups/measles/mumps.

Some conditions call for the indefinite article:

a cold (*but* catch cold), *a* fever, *a* headache, *a* temperature

Fixed phrases

5.20 We noted of several expressions in 5.19 that zero corresponded to a certain idiomatic fixity as compared with analogous expressions using *the*. Fixity is particularly notable with some common prepositional phrases and complex prepositions (9.3):

on foot, in step, out of step, in turn, by heart, in case of, by reason of, with intent to

Zero is characteristic of binomial expressions used adverbially:

They walked arm in arm/hand in hand/mile after mile/day in, day out.

We stood face to face/side by side/back to back.

Cf also *inch by inch, eye to eye, turn and turn about, man to man, from beginning to end, from father to son.*

NOTE Not all binomials with zero are adverbials, but when they are not, articles are usually optional:

I am glad to say that (the) mother and (the) child are both doing well.
The crash resulted in the death of (both) (a) father and (a) son.

Article usage with abstract nouns

5.21 Abstract nouns tend to be *count* when they refer to unitary phenomena such as events and *noncount* when they refer to activities, states, and qualities.

Typically count: *meeting, arrival, discovery*

Genuine *discoveries* are rarer than gradual *improvements*.

Typically noncount: *employment, happiness, sleep, swimming*

Sleep is necessary for good *health*.

But as we saw in 5.1, some nouns can be both noncount and count; compare:

Every child needs to be treated with *kindness*.

He did me $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \text{ (great) kindness} \\ \text{many kindnesses} \end{array} \right.$ that day.
over the years.

They hoped that $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{revolution} \\ a \text{ revolution} \end{array} \right.$ would improve their conditions.

She is studying *European history*.

The country has *a troubled history*.

It will be seen from these examples that the effect of the indefinite article is partitive and that this can be qualitative (*a troubled history*) or quantitative (*a great kindness*). *Cf* 5.2. The partitive effect is often accompanied by modification of the noun:

This ten-year-old plays the oboe with $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sensitivity.} \\ a \text{ striking sensitivity.} \\ *a \text{ sensitivity.} \end{array} \right.$

NOTE Names of languages usually have zero:

She speaks *Japanese* quite fluently.
How do you say this in *Italian*?

But in some expressions, *the* can be used:

Beckett's works in *English* have often been translated from *(the) French*.

And the indefinite can be used for qualitative partition:

She speaks *a tolerable French*.

The articles in generic reference

5.22 Consider the following sentences:

My neighbour apparently has *dogs*: I hear them barking at night.
Dogs make admirable companions for children and adults alike.

In the former the reference is *specific* to particular dogs. In the latter the reference is *generic*: the sentence speaks not of particular dogs but of the whole class of dogs. All three types of article can be used to make a generic reference: *the* usually, and *a/an* always, with singular count nouns; zero with plural count nouns and with noncount nouns. For example:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{The car} \\ \text{A car} \\ \text{Cars} \end{array} \right\}$ became an increasing necessity of life in the twentieth century.

Velvet is an excellent material for curtains.

In fact, however, the three article modes are on a very different footing, with zero by far the most natural way of expressing the generic, irrespective of the function or position of the noun phrase in sentence structure:

Research is vital for *human progress*.

Many professors prefer *research* to *teaching*.

Crime is often attributable to *drugs*.

Horses are still *wild animals* in some parts of the world.

Exceptionally, some count nouns function as noncount generics in this way:

Mary is studying *dance* as well as *film*.

When *man* meets *woman*, a certain tension seems natural.

But more usually when *man* occurs with zero it is generic for *humanity* (a usage resisted on grounds of sexism):

Nuclear warfare would jeopardize the survival of *man*.

5.23 By contrast, the indefinite article has a distinctly limited role in conveying generic meaning, since it tends in non-referring use to carry a general partitive implication (such that *a* means 'any') which may in certain contexts be merely *tantamount* to a generic. The limitations on generic implication can be seen in comparing the following examples:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Tigers run} \\ \text{A tiger runs} \end{array} \right\}$ more gracefully than most animals.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Tigers are} \\ *A \text{ tiger is} \end{array} \right\}$ becoming extinct.

NOTE The foregoing reflects the strong association of the indefinite article (and zero) with a descriptive and hence non-referring role in such functions as grammatical complement:

Paganini was *a* great violinist.
 My daughter is training as *a* radiologist.
 When were you appointed (as) (*a*) professor?
 My book will be on Jung as (*a*) thinker.

5.24 The DEFINITE ARTICLE with *singular* nouns conveys a rather formal tone in generic use:

No one can say with certainty when *the wheel* was invented.
 My work on anatomy is focused on *the lung*.

But in more general use we find *the* used with musical instruments and dances:

Marianne plays *the harp*, frequently accompanied by her brother on *the piano*.
 Do you remember when everyone was keen on *the rumba*?

When the noun is meant, however, to represent a class of human beings by such a typical specimen, *the* often sounds inappropriate and artificial:

? As *the child* grows, there is always a rapid extension of vocabulary.
 ? *The Welshman* is a good singer.

With *plural* nouns, *the* is used to express generic meaning:

- (a) where the referent is a national or ethnic group, as in *the Chinese, the Russians*;
- (b) in phrases comprising an adjective head with human reference: *the blind, the affluent, the unemployed*.

It could be argued, however, that in neither case are the noun phrases so much generic as collective phrases with unique and specific denotation.

NOTE Nationality names that have distinct singular and plural forms (such as *Frenchman, Frenchmen; German, Germans*) are treated differently in respect of generic and collective statements from those which do not (such as *British, Swiss, Chinese*):

The Welsh are fond of singing.	[generic]
Welshmen are fond of singing.	[generic]
The Welshman is fond of singing.	[generic or specific]
The Welshmen are fond of singing.	[specific]
*Welsh is/are fond of singing.	

On nationality names, see further 5.33f.

Proper nouns

5.25 Proper nouns are basically *names*, by which we understand the designation of specific people (*Gorbachev*), places (*Tokyo, Park Lane*) and

institutions (*The South China Morning Post, Thames Polytechnic*). But as can be seen from these examples, names embrace both single-word nouns (*Tokyo*) and quite lengthy phrases, often incorporating a definite article as part of the name with or without premodifying items (*The Hague, The (New York) Times*). Moreover, the concept of name extends to some markers of time and to seasons that are also festivals (*Monday, March, Easter, Passover, Ramadan*).

NOTE Names reflect their uniqueness of reference in writing by our use of initial capitals. This device enables us, if we so wish, to raise to the uniqueness of proper-noun status such concepts as *Fate* and *Heaven*, including generics such as *Nature, Truth, Man*.

Grammatical features

5.26 As we saw in 5.1, proper nouns of their nature exclude such features as determiner and number contrast. Likewise, the transparent elements of phrasal names are treated as parts of a unique whole and are grammatically invariant:

- *The *Newer York Times*
- *The *thoroughly Asian Wall Street Journal*

But there are many apparent exceptions to these restrictions. Since it is only the *referent* that is unique, and different referents may share the same name, the nouns or phrases conveying the name can be used as though they were common nouns. Thus if we can say

There are several places called *Richmond*.

we can equally say

There is *a Richmond* in the south of England and *a Richmond* in the north, not to mention a dozen *Richmonds* outside the British Isles.

So too:

I'm trying to find *Philip Johnson* in the phone book but unless he's one of the several *P. Johnsons* he's not in.

The situation is very different with the admission of number and determination with the names of days, months, and festivals. These derive their proximity to uniqueness largely in respect of specific instances. Thus in

She'll be here on *Monday*/in *October*/at *Christmas*.

the reference in each case is to a particular time of a particular year; *Monday* is as uniquely contrasted with *Tuesday* as *Tokyo* is with *Kyoto*. But we know that there is a *Monday* every week and a *Christmas* every year, that the former is characterized by being (for example) the first working day of each week and that every *Christmas* has even more sharply defined characteristics. In other words, *Mondays* necessarily have

something in common, whereas the various *Richmonds* do not. So when we say

She's always here on (a) *Monday/in October/at Christmas*.

the items no longer have specific reference, and the sentence can be paralleled with

She always spends her *Mondays/Octobers/Christmases* here.

There are of course no analogies with names of persons, places and institutions:

**Richmonds* are always splendid for a vacation.

- 5.27 On the other hand, it is not only the fact that several places or people may bear the same name that permits determination, number contrast or modification. We have the informal convention that a married couple, Mr and Mrs Johnson, can be referred to as *the Johnsons* (a designation that could also embrace their whole household). Again, we can use a famous name to mean the type that made it famous; the sentence

There were *no Shakespeares* in the nineteenth century

does not mean there were no people called 'Shakespeare' but no writers who towered over contemporaries as William Shakespeare did over his. Similarly:

Lu Xun is revered as *the Chinese Gorki*.
Every large city should have a *Hyde Park*.

Somewhat akin is partitive restrictive modification:

The young Joyce already showed signs of the genius that was to be fulfilled in *Ulysses*. ('Even while he was young, James Joyce . . .')
The Dublin of Joyce is still there for everyone to experience. ('The features of Dublin reflected in Joyce's writing are still there.')

But there is also nonrestrictive modification, on the one hand colloquial and stereotyped (as in *poor old Mrs Fletcher*), on the other formal and often stylized (as in *the fondly remembered John F. Kennedy*, VISIT HISTORIC YORK).

Names with the definite article

- 5.28 It is not difficult to see why *the* finds a place in phrases institutionalized as names. We can imagine a group of musicians deciding to set up a *school* where music will be taught: *a school of music*. They decide to enhance its attractiveness by locating it in a *central* position of the city, and they hope that it will not be merely *a central school of music* but the only school meriting this description: *the central school of music*. It is a short step from this to the further decision that this should be not just a description but the

name: *The Central School of Music*. So too a building in the form of a pentagon can come to be called *the Pentagon*, a canal built through the Panama Isthmus becomes *the Panama Canal*. When a president or a prime minister is elected or an earl created, the result is *the President (of France)*, *the Prime Minister (of India)*, *the Earl (of Gwynedd)*.

NOTE Even where *the* is always present in continuous text (spoken or written), it has variable status as part of the name: *The Hague* at one extreme (and always with initial capital) to *the University of London* at the other (where *the* is never capitalized and is absent from the university's letter-head). Cf also (the) *Asian Wall Street Journal*. Where a name embodies premodification as distinct from postmodification (17.2), as in (*The*) *Lord Williams*, *the* is largely confined to formal and official style.

- 5.29 It may be convenient to group names with *the* in classes:

(a) Some titular names of persons and deities:

The Marquis of Salisbury, the King of Sweden, the President of General Motors, the Reverend John Fox, the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, the Queen, (the) Prince Edward, (the) Archduke Ferdinand, the God of Israel, the Lord of Hosts, the Buddha.

(b) Geographical names of plural form, notably:

(i) groups of islands, as in *the Hebrides, the Bahamas*;

(ii) mountain ranges, as in *the Himalayas, the Pyrenees*.

Note also *the Netherlands, the Midlands, the Dardanelles*.

(c) Names of rivers, canals, expanses of water, areas of territory:

the (River) Thames, the Rhine, the Potomac (River); the Suez Canal, the Erie Canal; the Atlantic (Ocean), the Baltic (Sea), the Bosphorus; the Crimea, the Ruhr, the Sahara (Desert).

Note the absence of *the* in lake names:

Lake Huron, Derwentwater.

(d) Geographical names of the form *the N₁ of N₂*, as in *the Isle of Man, the Gulf of Mexico, the Cape of Good Hope, the Bay of Naples*. (Contrast: *Long Island, Hudson Bay*.)

(e) Names of theatres, galleries and major buildings, etc, as in *the Aldwych (Theatre), the Huntington (Library), the Ashmolean (Museum), the Middlesex (Hospital), the Taj Mahal, the Tate (Gallery), the Hilton (Hotel)*.

(f) Names of ships and (less commonly) aircraft, as in *the Queen Mary, the Mayflower, the Spirit of St Louis*.

(g) Names of journals, as in *The Economist, The Times, The New York Review of Books*. (Contrast: *Punch, Time, New Scientist*.) If in discourse the title requires premodification, the article is discarded, as in 'Malcolm lent me today's *Times*/a recent *New York Review of Books*'.

Names without article

- 5.30** Whether names have articles (as in 5.28*f*) or not, they operate without a determiner contrast, and while it is normal for names to reflect the uniqueness of their referents by having no article, it must be clearly understood that 'No article' does not mean 'Zero article' (cf 5.1 Note). There are two major classes of names to consider: names of *persons* and names of *places*. On smaller classes, such as the names of months, see 5.25.

Personal names

- 5.31** These comprise:

- (a) *Forenames* (also called first, given, or Christian names), used alone to or of family or friends:

It's good to see you, *Frank*; how are you?
Unfortunately, *Jacqueline* was unable to be present.

- (b) *Family names* (surnames), used alone without discourtesy in address only in certain male circles (for example, in military use) and in 3rd person discourse for rather formal and distant (for example, historical) reference:

What time do you have to report, *Watkinson*?
The theories of *Keynes* continue to be influential.

- (c) *Combinations of forenames and family names*, occasionally found in epistolary address ('Dear Mildred Carter') but chiefly used where 'full name' is required in self-introduction or in 3rd person reference:

I am *Roger Middleton*; the manager is expecting me.
Freda Johnson is writing a book on *Wilfred Owen*.

- (d) *Combinations involving a title* are bipartite in address but can be tripartite in 3rd person reference:

You are very welcome, *Mrs Johnson/Mrs Green/Mr Parker/Dr Lowe/Major Fielding/Sir John*.
The committee decided to co-opt *Mrs (Freda) Johnson/Ms (Jacqueline) Green/Mr (D R) Parker/Dr (James F) Lowe/Major (William) Fielding/Sir John (Needham)*.

- NOTE [a] Favourite animals (especially household pets) are given names, which in the case of pedigree animals are bestowed and registered with special care. Names of ships, often connotatively female, are also usually without article; but cf 5.29.
[b] Some terms of close kinship are treated as names in family discourse:

Where's *Grandma/Dad*?

Some others are used as titles, as in 'Where's *Uncle Harry*'?

Locational names

- 5.32** These are used without article and comprise a wide range of designations:
- (a) extraterrestrial: *Jupiter, Mars* (but *the moon, the sun*);
 - (b) continents: *Asia, (South) America*;
 - (c) countries, provinces, etc: (*Great*) *Britain, Canada, Ontario, (County) Kerry* (but *the United Kingdom, (the) Sudan*);
 - (d) lakes: *Lake Michigan, Loch Ness, Ullswater*;
 - (e) mountains: (*Mount*) *Everest, Snowdon*;
 - (f) cities, etc: *New York, Stratford-upon-Avon* (but *The Hague, the Bronx*);
 - (g) streets, buildings, etc: *Fifth Avenue, Park Lane, Brooklyn Bridge, Canterbury Cathedral, Scotland Yard, Waterloo Station, Oxford Street* (but *the Old Kent Road*).
- On examples with *the*, cf 5.28*f*.

Nouns relating to region and nationality

- 5.33** Many names of regions and countries yield corresponding adjectives and noun forms of the following pattern, all reflecting their 'proper' affinity by being written with an initial capital. Thus, related to *Russia*, we have:

I General adjective:

A new *Russian* spacecraft has just been launched.
Both the men are *Russian*.

II Language name:

She reads *Russian* but she doesn't speak it very well.

III Singular noun with specific reference:

He is a *Russian*, I think.

IV Plural noun with specific reference:

There are several *Russians* among my students.

V Plural nouns used generically:

The Russians are a deeply patriotic people.

Normally, the form of II-V is predictable from I; for example *Greece*: I *Greek*, II *Greek*, III *a Greek*, IV *Greeks*, V *the Greeks*. In many instances, of course, there is no language corresponding to form II ('*She doesn't speak *European*'), but leaving this aside, the following sets are regularly predictable and behave as illustrated above:

Africa ~ African	America ~ American
Asia ~ Asian	Australia ~ Australian

and all other names in *-(i)a*. So too:

Belgium ~ Belgian	Brazil ~ Brazilian
Europe ~ European	Germany ~ German
Hungary ~ Hungarian	Italy ~ Italian
Norway ~ Norwegian	Iraq ~ Iraqi
Israel ~ Israeli	Pakistan ~ Pakistani

- 5.34 But there are name sets in which we encounter irregularities of form or restrictions in use. Thus where forms I and II (which are always identical) end in *-ese* or *-ish* (*-sh*, *-ch*), the same form is used for V (*cf* 7.12) but not usually for III and IV. Instead we use either form I plus a suitable noun (*a Chinese lady*), indicated in Table 5.34 by '(N)', '(Ns)', or a distinctive noun form (*a Spaniard*). With many items where form I ends in *-ish*, forms III and IV are traditionally *-ishman*, *-ishmen*, but the resistance to *man* as a human generic causes widespread hesitation to use these forms except of males. The chief irregular sets are listed in Table 5.34.

Table 5.34

	I (and II where relevant)	III	IV	V
China	Chinese	a Chinese (citizen)	Chinese (people)	the Chinese
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese (N)	Japanese (Ns)	the Japanese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese (N)	Portuguese (Ns)	the Portuguese
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese (N)	Vietnamese (Ns)	the Vietnamese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss (N)	Swiss (Ns)	the Swiss
Britain	British	a British (N)	British (Ns)	the British
England	English	an Englishman	Englishmen	the English
Ireland	Irish	an Irishman	Irishmen	the Irish
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman	Welshmen	the Welsh
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	the French
Holland				
the Netherlands	Dutch	a Dutchman	Dutchmen	the Dutch
Scotland	Scots	a Scotsman	Scotsmen	the Scots
Denmark	Danish	a Dane	Danes	the Danish
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	Swedes	the Swedish
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	Finns	the Finnish
Poland	Polish	a Pole	Poles	the Polish
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	Spaniards	the Spanish

- NOTE [a] For *Britain*, there is limited currency of *Briton(s)* as forms III and IV (informally also *Britisher(s)*), with *Brit(s)* more informal still.
[b] For *Scotland*, there are alternatives as follows: form I *Scottish*, *Scotch*; form III *a Scot*, *a Scotchman*; form IV *Scots*, *Scotchmen*; form V *the Scotch*. But the use of *Scotch(-)* is controversial; *Scotch* tends to be limited to designating such things as *whisky*.

[c] *Arabie* is form II, *Arab(s)* forms III-V, but the actual locational noun *Arabia* is now only rarely used to denote the large area of the Middle East concerned.

Number

- 5.35 The grammatical category of number, operating for example through subject-verb concord and pronominal reference, requires that every noun form be understood grammatically as either *singular* or *plural*. Singular relates to the quantity 'one' for count nouns, to the unique referent for most proper nouns (*eg: Tokyo*), and to undifferentiated mass for noncount nouns. Plural relates to the quantity 'two or more' for count nouns, to the unique referent for some proper nouns (*eg: the Azores*), and to individual operational units that are seen as reflecting plural composition (*eg: binoculars, goods*). For example:

Singular: This *suit* fits me and I'll buy *it*.
Nara was full of tourists when I visited *it*.
 The *milk* is sour and I bought *it* only yesterday.

Plural: Two/three/several *students* are hoping you will see *them*.
 The *Azores* are administered by Portugal but *they* are nearly a thousand miles away.
 I thought my *binoculars* were in this drawer but I can't find *them*.

- NOTE [a] The distinction between singular and plural is not always clear-cut; for different reasons, there is vacillation over such words as *politics, mumps, data, criteria*.
[b] Within 'plural', there is evidence in the language for some special provision for dual number; *cf* such words as *both*.

Plural formation

- 5.36 The vast majority of English nouns are count, with separate singular and plural forms. The singular is the unmarked form (*cf* 2.7) and as such is the citation form of the word (for example, in dictionaries). For the most part, plurals are formed in a regular and predictable way:

(a) in SOUND:
 - add /z/ if the singular ends with a sibilant, namely:

/s/ as in *horse* /z/ as in *prize*
 /ʃ/ as in *blush* /ʒ/ as in *mirage*
 /tʃ/ as in *church* /dʒ/ as in *language*

for example: /praɪz/ ~ /praɪzɪz/

- add /z/ if the singular ends with a vowel or with a voiced consonant other than a sibilant

for example: /deɪ/ ~ /deɪz/ /bed/ ~ /bedz/

– add /s/ if the singular ends with a voiceless consonant other than a sibilant

for example: /kæt/ ~ /kæts/

(b) In SPELLING:

With the vast majority of nouns, we simply add -s to the singular; for example:

horse ~ *horses*, *prize* ~ *prizes*

But, quite apart from the nouns that are fundamentally irregular in respect of number (5.37ff), the -s rule requires amplification and modification for many nouns:

- (i) If the singular ends with a sibilant (see (a) above) that is not already followed by -e, the plural ending is -es; for example: *box* ~ *boxes*, *bush* ~ *bushes*, *switch* ~ *switches*; cf *language* ~ *languages*.
- (ii) If the singular ends with -y, this is replaced by *i* and the plural ending is then -ies; for example: *spy* ~ *spies*, *poppy* ~ *poppies*, *soliloquy* ~ *soliloquies*. But -y remains, and the plural ending is -ys, if the singular ends with a letter having vowel-value as in -ay, -ey, -oy (thus *days*, *ospreys*, *boys*), or if the item is a proper noun (*the two Germanys*; cf 5.26).
- (iii) If the singular ends with -o, the plural is usually regular (as with *studios*, *kangaroos*, *pianos*), but with some nouns the plural ending is -es (as with *echoes*, *embargoes*, *heroes*, *potatoes*, *tomatoes*, *torpedoes*, *vetoes*), and in a few cases there is variation, as with *buffalo(e)s*, *cargo(e)s*, *halo(e)s*, *motto(e)s*, *volcano(e)s*.

NOTE [a] Some further spelling points: In a few words requiring -es there is doubling as with *quiz* ~ *quizzes*. With unusual plurals such as numerals or initials, an apostrophe is sometimes introduced (thus *in the 1990's*, *some PhD's*). In formal writing, some abbreviations can show plural by doubling: *p* ~ *pp* ('pages'), *c* ~ *cc* ('copies'); with *f* ~ *ff*, the abbreviations are to be understood as 'the following numbered unit(s)', where the unit may be a section, page, chapter, or even volume.

[b] Compound nouns are usually regular in adding -(e)s to the final element (as in *babysitters*, *grown-ups*). But in some cases where the compound has an obvious head noun, it is to this element that the plural ending is affixed (as in *passers-by*, *grants-in-aid*), and with a few there is variation (as in *mouthfuls* ~ *mouthsful*, *court martials* ~ *courts martial*). With some appositional compounds (of the form *XY*, where 'The *X* is a *Y*') both elements have the plural inflection (*woman doctor* ~ *women doctors*).

[c] Where a title applies to more than one succeeding name, it can sometimes be pluralized, as in *Professors Wagner and Watson*, *Drs Brown, Smith, and Weindling*; but the commonest cannot (*Mrs Kramer*, *Mrs Pugh*, and *Mrs Hunter*), though *Mr* can have a plural *Messrs* /'mesəz/, especially in BrE commercial use ('the firm of *Messrs Gray and Witherspoon*'). Members of the same sex sharing a name can have the name in the plural: 'The two *Miss Smiths* as well as their parents were present at the ceremony.'

Irregular plural formation

Voicing

- 5.37 While in spelling the pair *house* ~ *houses* is regular, in pronunciation it is not, the final voiceless fricative consonant of the singular becoming voiced in the plural: /haus/ ~ /hauzɪz/. Several singulars ending in /f/ and /θ/ undergo voicing in this way, the former reflected in spelling, the latter not:

knife ~ knives /naɪf/ ~ /naɪvz/
mouth ~ mouths /mauθ/ ~ /mauðz/

Like *knife* are *calf*, *half*, *leaf*, *life*, *loaf*, *self*, *shelf*, *thief*, *wife*, *wolf*, and a few others. With some nouns, such as *handkerchief*, *hoof*, and *scarf*, the plural may involve voicing or be regular (-/fs/); with others, such as *belief*, *cliff*, *proof*, the plural is always regular.

Like *mouth* are *bath*, *oath*, *path*, *sheath*, *truth*, *wreath*, *youth*, though in most cases the plural can equally be regular (-/θs/). In other cases, only the regular plural is found, as with *cloth*, *death*, *faith*, *moth*, and where there is a consonant preceding the fricative this is always so (as with *birth*, *length*, etc).

Vowel change

- 5.38 In a small number of nouns, there is a change of vowel sound and spelling ('mutation plurals') without an ending:

foot ~ feet goose ~ geese
louse ~ lice man ~ men
mouse ~ mice tooth ~ teeth
woman /'wʊmən/ ~ women /'wɪmɪn/

NOTE [a] Compounds in unstressed -man such as *fireman*, *Frenchman* have plurals that are often identical in sound since both the -man and -men have schwa.

[b] The plural of *child* involves both vowel change and an irregular ending, *children* /tʃɪldrən/. The noun *brother*, when used in the sense 'fellow member', sometimes has a similar plural formation, *brethren* /brədʁən/. Cf also, without vowel change, *ox* ~ *oxen*.

Zero plural

Words for some animals

- 5.39 The nouns *sheep*, *deer*, *cod*, while being unquestionably count, have no difference in form between singular and plural:

This *sheep* has just had a lamb.
These *sheep* have just had lambs.

Nouns referring to some other animals, birds, and fishes can have zero plurals, especially when viewed as prey:

They shot two *reindeer*, though this is strictly forbidden.
The *woodcock*/pheasant/herring/trout/salmon/fish are not very plentiful this year.

Compare:

Aren't those *pheasants* beautiful?

NOTE Some of the nouns considered in 5.42f as resistant to number contrast could also be regarded as having zero plural.

Nouns of quantity

5.40 There is a strong tendency for units of number, of length, of value, and of weight to have zero plural when premodified by another quantitative word. For example:

(a) How many people live there? About three *dozen*/Several *hundred*/
More than five *thousand*/Almost four *million*.

(b) My son is nearly six *foot* tall.
The tickets cost four *pound* fifty each.
Three *pound/stone* of potatoes, please.

But in set (b), zero is much less common than the use of inflected plurals and in some cases zero is largely dialectal ('She lives five *mile* from me'). Moreover, items in set (a) have normal plural forms when not preceded by numerals:

Dozens (and *dozens*) (of people) crowded into the room.
I have no precise idea how many people live there: *thousands* certainly, perhaps *millions*.

Foreign plurals

5.41 Numerous nouns adopted from foreign languages, especially Latin and Greek, retain the foreign inflection for plural. In some cases there are two plurals, an English regular form (5.36) being used in non-technical discourse.

(a) Nouns in *-us /əs/* with plural *-i /ai/*:

stimulus focus alumnus bacillus

(b) Nouns in *-us /əs/* with plural *-a /ə/* (only in technical use):

corpus ~ corpora genus ~ genera

(c) Nouns in *-a /ə/* with plural *-ae /i:/* or */ai/*:

antenna formula nebula

The plural ending in *vertebrae* is also pronounced /ci/.

(d) Nouns in *-um /əm/* with plural *-a /ə/*:

addendum curriculum erratum
ovum stratum

(e) Nouns in *-ex, -ix* with plural *-ices /isiz/*:

appendix index matrix

(f) Nouns in *-is /ɪs/* with plural *-es /iz/*:

analysis basis crisis
hypothesis synopsis thesis

(g) Nouns in *-on /ən/* with plural *-a /ə/*:

automaton criterion phenomenon

(h) Nouns in *-o /əʊ/* with plural *-i /i/*; a few words in the field of music retain their Italian plural, especially in specialized discourse:

libretto tempo virtuoso

(i) Nouns from French sometimes retain a French plural in writing, with the French (*ie* zero) ending in speech or – more usually – a regular English one:

bureau ~ bureaux *or* bureaux /-əʊ/ *or* /-əʊz/

So also *plateau, tableau*. Some other nouns with no change of spelling in the plural, have regular English plurals in speech: for example, *chassis* /ʃasi/, pl /ʃasi:z/

NOTE [a] The plural *-im* is sometimes found in the English use of Hebrew words, as in *kibbutzim*.

[b] Most originally foreign nouns take only regular plural endings (*museum* ~ *museums*, etc), and in several cases the historically plural ending is reinterpreted as a singular (*agenda, insignia*, etc):

This *agenda* is rather lengthy as I'm afraid most Senate *agendas* tend to be.

Nouns resistant to number contrast

5.42 Whether or not with inflectional regularity, number essentially involves the distinction between one and more than one:

This school is . . . These schools are . . .
This woman is . . . Those women are . . .
This sheep is . . . These sheep are . . .

But as we noted in 5.35, there are singular nouns that cannot ordinarily be plural (*eg: meat*) and plural nouns that cannot ordinarily be singular (*eg: binoculars*). We shall look at such nouns under these two broad heads.

Ordinarily singular

5.43 (a) Proper nouns such as *London* or *Navratilova* are plural only in such circumstances as are described in 5.26f.

(b) Noncount nouns such as *cheese* or *solidarity* can be plural when used to indicate partition by quantity or quality (5.2). Abstract nouns in the plural indicate instances of the phenomenon concerned (as in 'many *injustices*') or intensification of the phenomenon (as in 'I must

express my *regrets*'). Intensification accounts also for the plural of some concrete noncount nouns; for example, *wood* in the sense of 'forest':

This is a beautiful little *wood*.

Their house is in the middle of those extensive *woods*.

(c) The noun *news* and certain other items ending in *-s*:

(i) nouns in *-ics* such as *acoustics*, *physics*

(ii) names of diseases such as *mumps*, *shingles*

(iii) words for some games such as *billiards*, *dominoes*, *fives*

But when *politics* refers to an individual's views, it is treated as plural ('Her *politics* are becoming more extreme') and for some speakers such disease words as *mumps* can also be plural. Again, when *statistics* is used loosely to mean 'figures' it can be plural and have a corresponding singular: 'There is one surprising *statistic* in your report.'

(d) Collective nouns such as *committee*, *council*, *government*, *team* (though in BrE these are often treated as plural aggregate nouns: 'The *committee* were unanimous'; cf 5.44).

NOTE Unlike aggregate nouns, collective nouns retain singular determiners even where plural concord is used: *'These *committee* were unanimous.'

Ordinarily plural

5.44 (a) *Binary* nouns are those that refer to entities which comprise or are perceived as comprising two parts: tools and instruments such as *binoculars*, *forceps*, *scissors*; articles of dress such as *jeans*, *pants*, *trousers*:

These *scissors* are too blunt.

Those *trousers* don't match your shirt.

Number contrast is usually achieved through quantity partition (5.2) with a *pair of*, *several pairs of*. With binary nouns like *gloves* or *socks*, where the two pairs are more obviously separate, the unit is readily divisible into two singulars.

He was wearing a green *sock* and a brown *sock*.

Contrast:

There is a stain on { the left leg of your *trousers*.
{ (?) your left *trouser*.

(b) *Aggregate* nouns are those that refer to entities which comprise or may be perceived as comprising an indefinite number of parts. These may be *plural in form*, as for instance *arms* ('weapons'), *communications* ('means of communication'), *data*, *goods*, *media*, *outskirts*, *remains*, *troops*, *works* ('factory'). With some items there is vacillation between singular and plural; for example

This *barracks* is } heavily defended.
These *barracks* are }

The *data* is/are insufficient.

But many aggregate nouns are *not plural in form*; thus *cattle*, *clergy*, *offspring*, *people*, *police*, *poultry*, *vermin*. Here again there is vacillation between singular and plural with some items:

The *clergy* is/are strongly opposed to divorce.

Cf 5.43(d).

NOTE Some nouns could be regarded either as 'ordinarily plural' or as having zero plural (5.39). Thus

She has one *offspring*/several *offspring*.

Did he leave *offspring*?

We are organizing { a new *series*
{ three further *series* } of lectures.

Others have a singular with some shift of meaning. Thus beside 'She used her *brains* in defeating her opponent', we can have 'She has a good *brain*', meaning approximately 'a good quality of *brains*' beside 'He didn't receive his *wages* last week', we can have 'He has a living *wage*', meaning 'a level of *wages* that can support him'.

Gender

5.45 In English, gender is not a feature of nouns themselves (as in such languages as German or Russian). Rather, it relates directly to the *meanings* of nouns, with particular reference to biological sex. Gender then enters the province of grammar by determining the selection of reference pronouns: *wh-*, personal, and reflexive (6.2ff, 6.13, 6.17). The *wh-* items *who* and *which* oblige us to distinguish two broad gender classes, personal and nonpersonal, the former largely human in reference, the latter largely nonhuman and including inanimates:

This is the *pedestrian who* witnessed the accident.

That is the *cow which* has just had a calf.

Then within the personal gender class, the personal and reflexive pronouns relate to male and female sex:

Please help my { *husband*; he has hurt *himself*.
{ *wife*; she has hurt *herself*.

But the sex-related pronouns can be used of items marked as nonpersonal by the *wh-* pronouns, as in

She is the *cow* which has just had a calf.
She is the *ship* which was launched last month.

In consequence, we have a rather complex pattern of gender classes, with some overlapping, as summarized in Fig. 5.2.

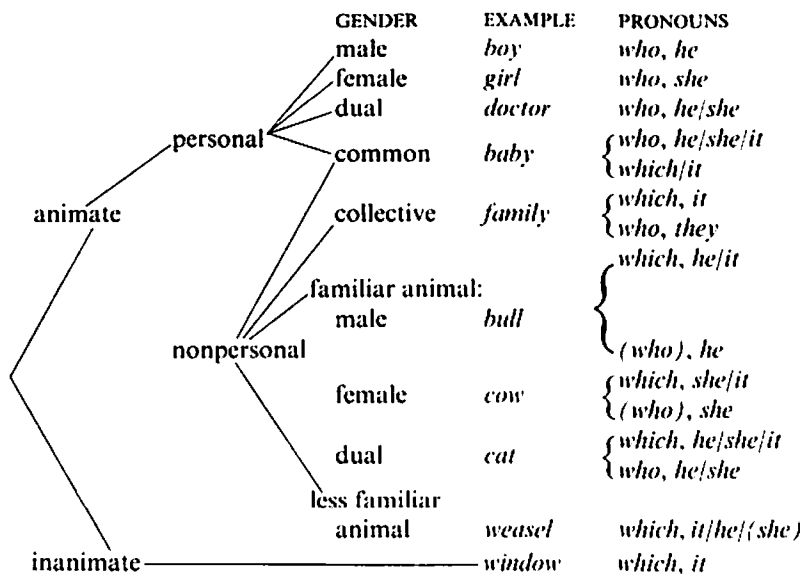


Fig. 5.2

Nouns with personal reference

5.46 These are commonly in *male* and *female* pairs such as *father* ~ *mother*, *boy* ~ *girl*, *king* ~ *queen*. In some cases, the female member is morphologically marked: *god* ~ *goddess*, *hero* ~ *heroine*, *usher* ~ *usherette*, *man* ~ *woman*. With *widower* ~ *widow*, it is the male that is marked.

But many personal nouns can be regarded as having *dual* gender, since they can be male or female in reference as required; for example, *friend*, *guest*, *parent*, and *person*. Most of these are nouns of agency such as *artist*, *cook*, *doctor*, *inhabitant*, *librarian*, *novelist*, *professor*, *singer*, *speaker*, *student*, *teacher*, *writer*. By contrast, *common* gender applies to those nouns like *baby*, *infant*, *child*, which though referring undoubtedly to male or female human beings make gender so irrelevant that we can use the neuter pronoun *it(s)*:

The *baby* lost *its* parents when *it* was three weeks old.

The remaining class of person-referring nouns is *collective* where, like the common gender nouns, the sex of the persons concerned is irrelevant, as is shown by our use of *it* and *which*:

The *committee*, which met soon after *it* was appointed, had difficulty in agreeing *its* method of procedure.

But, especially in BrE, such collectives can take plural concord with the personal *wh*-pronoun:

The *audience*, who were largely students, were soon on *their* feet as *they* cheered the performers.

Further collectives: *army*, *association*, *class*, *club*, *community*, *company*, *council*, *crew*, *crowd*, *family*, *firm*, *government*, *jury*, *party*, *team*, *university*. Some occur with the definite article, for example: *the clergy*, *the intelligentsia*, *the public*. Some are proper names, for example: *the Vatican*, *Longman*, *General Motors*, *British Gas*, *Everton* (football team).

NOTE [a] Nouns morphologically marked for gender often tend to be avoided, especially where the sex of the referent is irrelevant; in consequence, nouns with dual gender such as *author*, *chair*(person), *poet*, *supervisor*, may be preferred to *authoress*, *chairman*, *poetess*, *foreman*.
 [b] Although unmarked forms have traditionally been expressed as male while subsuming female ('*Man* is mortal', 'If any *person* is caught stealing from this store, *he* will be prosecuted': cf 6.4), reaction against sexual bias has resulted in evasions such as:

A { *doctor*
parent
singer } may appeal if { *he or she* wishes.
they wish.

[c] Countries and ships (especially by name) are often treated as female: '*France* is increasing *her* exports', '*The Lotus* sank when *she* struck a reef'.

Nouns referring to animals and inanimates

5.47 Among animals, we must distinguish between what we may call the **FAMILIAR** and the **LESS FAMILIAR**. The former embrace the range of animals, birds, etc, in which human society takes a special interest, and which significantly impinge on familiar experience (for example, in farming or as domestic pets). Many of the nouns for these occur in **MALE** and **FEMALE** pairs, as with personal nouns, often with *he* ~ *she* as the reference pronoun though usually with *which* as the relative:

This is the *bull* which has a brand mark on *his/(its)* back.

This is the *cow* which had *her/(its)* first calf when *she/(it)* was already seven years old.

Other such pairs include *ram* ~ *ewe*, *stallion* ~ *mare*, *hen* ~ *cock* (*ere*), and there are some with morphological marking, as in *lion* ~ *lioness*, *tiger* ~ *tigress*. But frequently, despite such pairs as *dog* ~ *bitch*, one of the two is used with *dual* gender, or an item outside the pairing (such as *sheep*, beside *ram* ~ *ewe*) so operates:

This *horse* is two years old; isn't *she* beautiful?

This *horse* has sired *his* first foal.

But **LESS FAMILIAR** animals constitute by far the majority of creatures in the animate world. Squirrels, ants, starlings, and moths may be fancifully

referred to as *he* or *she*, but for the most part they are treated grammatically as though they were inanimate:

Do you see that *spider*? *It's* hanging from the beam.
Do you see that *balloon*? *It's* hanging from the beam.

Case

- 5.48 As distinct from pronouns (6.6f), English nouns have only two cases, the unmarked COMMON case and the marked GENITIVE. The latter is sometimes called the 'possessive', by reason of one of the main functions of the case (as in *The child's coat*, 'The coat belonging to the child').

The genitive inflection is phonologically identical with the regular plural inflection (5.36) with a consequent neutralization of the case distinction in the plural:

The /kau/ was grazing. The /kauz/ were grazing.
One /kauz/ tail was waving. All the /kauz/ tails were waving.

With irregular nouns where no such neutralization can occur, a fourfold distinction is observed:

The /man/ was watching. The /men/ were watching.
The /manz/ car was locked. The /menz/ cars were locked.

Orthographically a fourfold distinction always obtains, since the genitive ending is always spelled with an apostrophe: before the ending for the singular, after it for the plural:

One *cow's* tail. All the *cows'* tails.

NOTE [a] Where noun phrases with postmodification do not have the plural inflection at the end (5.36 Note [b]) there is a distinction between genitive and plural; compare:

The chief of staff ~ The chiefs of staff
The chief of staff's role ~ The chiefs of staff's role

But where postmodification is less institutionalized, such a 'group genitive' – though common informally – is often avoided in favour of the *of*-construction (5.49): 'The name *of the man in the dark suit*.'

[b] In being phonologically identical with the plural, the regular genitive plural is sometimes called the 'zero genitive'. Such a zero genitive is common with names that end in /z/, especially if they are foreign names:

Socrates' /-ti:z/ doctrines
Moses' /-ziz/ laws

But Dickens' novels /dɪkɪnz/ or /dɪkɪnzɪz/

Note the zero genitive also in some expressions such as *for goodness' sake*.

The genitive and the *of*-construction

- 5.49 We frequently find a choice between using a premodifying genitive and a postmodifying prepositional phrase with *of*; the similarity in meaning and function has caused the latter to be called by some the '*of*-genitive'. For example:

There were strong objections from $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the island's inhabitants.} \\ \text{the inhabitants of the island.} \end{array} \right.$

But although both versions in this instance are equally acceptable, with a choice determined largely by preferred focus (*cf* 18.5ff), for the most part we must select either the genitive or the *of*-construction. For example:

These are *father's* trousers. *These are the trousers *of father*.
Let's go to the front *of the house*. *Let's go to *the house's* front.

Genitive meanings

- 5.50 The meanings expressed by the genitive can conveniently be shown through paraphrase; at the same time, we can compare the analogous use of the *of*-construction.

(a) Possessive genitive:

Mrs Johnson's coat. Mrs Johnson owns this coat.
The ship's funnel. The ship has a funnel.

Cf The funnel *of the ship*.

(b) Genitive of attribute:

The victim's outstanding courage. The victim was very courageous.

Cf the outstanding courage *of the victim*.

(c) Partitive genitive:

The heart's two ventricles. The heart contains two ventricles.

Cf The two ventricles *of the heart*.

(d) Subjective genitive:

The parents' consent. The parents consented.

Cf The consent *of the parents*.

(e) Objective genitive:

The prisoner's release. (. . .) released the prisoner.

Cf The release *of the prisoner*.

(f) Genitive of origin:

Mother's letter. The letter is from Mother.
England's cheeses. The cheeses were produced in England.

Cf The cheeses of *England*.

(g) Descriptive genitive:

Children's shoes. The shoes are designed for children.
A doctor's degree. The degree is a doctorate.

NOTE The distinction between (a), (b), and (c) is far from clear-cut and much depends on gender (*cf* 5.51) and on contextual viewpoint. In general, the closer the relation can be seen to literal possession, the more suitable is the genitive; by contrast, attribution and partition are usually more appropriately expressed by the *of*-construction. Where both genitive and *of*-construction are grammatically possible, the decision often turns on the principle of end-focus or end-weight (18.5 and Note [a]):

My father's DEATH ~ The death of my FATHER
 John's age ~ The age of my oldest and dearest friend

Gender and the genitive

5.51 The genitive is not used with all nouns equally but tends to be associated with those of animate gender, especially with those having personal reference (5.45*f*). For example:

The dog's name.
Segovia's most famous pupil.
The student's precious possessions.
The committee's decision.

Geographical names take the genitive inflection, especially when they are used to imply human collectivity; thus *China's policy* more plausibly than *China's mountains*. So too with other strictly inanimate nouns when used with special relevance to human activity or concern: *The hotel's occupants* rather than *The hotel's furniture*, *The book's true importance* rather than *The book's colour*.

NOTE [a] The part played by personal gender in admitting the genitive is well illustrated by the indefinite pronouns:

I think I can see down there { *the shadow of somebody.*
 somebody's shadow.
 the shadow of something.
 **something's shadow.*

[b] In some expressions, the genitive depends less on the noun so inflected than on the noun following. The items *edge* and *sake* are especially notable in this connection:

He stood at the water's edge. (*Cf also* . . . the edge of the water)
 She did it for her country's sake. (*Cf also* . . . the sake of her country)

With *worth*, no *of*-variant is possible:

We must try to get our money's worth.

The grammatical status of the genitive

As determiner

5.52 For the most part, genitives function exactly like central definite determiners and thus preclude the cooccurrence of other determiners.

A new briefcase.
The new briefcase. (**A* the new briefcase.)
This new briefcase. (**The* this new briefcase.)
Joan's new briefcase. (**The* Joan's new briefcase.)

This equally applies when the genitive is a phrase incorporating its own determiner.

My cousin's new briefcase. (≠ *My* new briefcase.)
My handsome cousin's new briefcase.

In other words, items preceding the genitive relate to the inflected noun, such that a phrase like

That old gentleman's son

must be understood as 'The son of that old gentleman', and not as 'That son of the old gentleman.'

But an exception must be made where the preceding item is a predeterminer, since this may relate either to the genitive noun as in [1] or to the noun that follows as in [2].

We attributed *both the girls'* success to their hard work. [1]
 (*ie* the success of *both the girls*)
 Both *the girl's* parents were present. [2]
 (*ie* both the parents of *the girl*)

As modifier

5.53 Where the genitive is used descriptively (5.50(g)), however, it functions not as a determiner but as a modifier with a classifying role. Determiners in such noun phrases usually relate not to the genitive but to the noun following it, as can be plainly seen from the following, where the singular *a* could obviously not cooccur with the plural *women*:

They attend a *women's* university in Kyoto.

So also, other modifying items in the noun phrase are less likely to relate to the genitive noun than to the noun that follows it; thus in

She lives in a quaint old *shepherd's* cottage.

it is probably the cottage that is quaint and old, not the shepherd. Grammatically, some phrases can be ambiguous, though it would be rare for the context not to make the meaning clear:

Where did you find these children's clothes?

(Either 'These children had lost their clothes'; genitive as determiner. Or 'These clothes were obviously made for children'; genitive as modifier.)

The independent genitive

- 5.54 It is common to ellipsis the noun following the genitive if the reference is contextually clear. For example:

Jennifer's is the only face I recognize here.

(ie Jennifer's face)

He has a devotion to work like *his father's*.

(ie his father's devotion to work)

By contrast, with the *of*-construction, *that* or *those* usually replaces the corresponding item:

The wines *of France* are more expensive than *those of California*.

(ie the wines of California)

A special case of the independent genitive occurs when the unexpressed item refers to homes or businesses:

When I arrived at *Fred's*, I found I'd come on the wrong day.

My butcher's stays open late on Fridays.

She wouldn't miss *St Martin's* on Easter morning.

In most such instances of the 'local genitive', one could not specify uniquely the unexpressed item, and in many cases it would sound artificial if one attempted a fuller phrase, often because what is meant is more abstract and general than any specific noun would convey:

I hate going to *the dentist's* (? surgery, ? place, ? establishment).

NOTE With the names of major firms, what begins as a local genitive develops into a plural, often so spelled and observing plural concord:

Harrod's is a vast store.

Harrods are having a sale.

A further development is to drop the ending and to treat the item as a collective (cf 5.46).

The 'post-genitive'

- 5.55 Since in its determiner role, the genitive must be definite (5.52), we can be in some difficulty with a sentence like

George's sister is coming to stay with us.

If it needs to be understood that George has more than one sister, this can be expressed in one of two ways, each involving a partitive *of*-construction:

One of George's sisters is coming to stay with us.

A sister of George's is coming to stay with us.

It is the latter that is called the 'post-genitive' (or 'double-genitive').

Bibliographical note

On noun classes, see Algeo (1973); Allerton (1987); Seppänen (1974).

On reference and determiners, see Auwera (1980); Burton-Roberts (1977); Declerck (1986); Hawkins (1978); Hewson (1972); Kaluza (1981); Kramsky (1972); Perlmutter (1970); Takami (1985).

On number, see Hirtle (1982); Juul (1975); Lehrer (1986); Sorensen (1985). On gender and case, see Dahl (1971); Jahr Sørheim (1980).

6 Pronouns

- 6.1 As we noted in 2.9, pro-forms play a vital role in grammar (see especially 12.1ff). One category of pro-forms is particularly associated with noun phrases and this is the PRONOUN. How wide-ranging and heterogeneous this category is becomes apparent from considering the italicized items in the following:

As *it* turned out, *somebody* offered Elaine a bicycle at a price *which she* and *her* friends knew was well below *that* of a new *one*.

But as with pro-forms in general, all these pronouns have one thing in common: their referential meaning is determined purely by the grammar of English and the linguistic or situational context in which they occur. Beyond this, it is necessary to see pronouns as falling into the following classes and subclasses:

CENTRAL { personal – eg: *I, me, they, them*
 reflexive – eg: *myself, themselves*
 possessive – eg: *my/mine, their/theirs*

RELATIVE – eg: *which, that*

INTERROGATIVE – eg: *who, what*

DEMONSTRATIVE – eg: *this, those*

INDEFINITE { positive { universal – eg: *both, each*
 assertive – eg: *some, several*
 nonassertive – eg: *any, either*
 negative – eg: *nobody, neither*

Central pronouns

Personal pronouns

- 6.2 Like all the central pronouns, the personal pronouns display a *person* contrast; that is, they have separate 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person forms. In the 3rd person, there is a three-way *gender* contrast: masculine, feminine, and nonpersonal. There are also *number* contrasts (singular, plural) and in the personal subclass a 1st and 3rd person contrast in *case* also (subjective, objective). The system of central pronouns is presented as a whole in Table 6.2.

NOTE We follow the tradition of applying the term 'personal pronoun' only to a subclass of the central pronouns. What are here termed 'possessive pronouns' are often treated as a third case (genitive) of the primary pronouns; on the paired forms of possessives (eg: *my/mine*), see 6.16.

Table 6.2 Central pronouns

PERSON	NUMBER AND GENDER	PRIMARY		REFLEXIVE	POSSESSIVE	
		SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE		DETERMINER FUNCTION	INDEPENDENT FUNCTION
1st	singular	I	me	myself	my	mine
	plural	we	us	ourselves	our	ours
2nd	singular	you	you	yourself	your	yours
	plural	you	you	yourselves	your	yours
3rd	singular masculine	he	him	himself	his	his
	singular feminine	she	her	herself	her	hers
	singular nonpersonal	it	it	itself	its	(its)
	plural	they	them	themselves	their	theirs

- 6.3 PERSON distinguishes the speaker or writer (1st person) from the addressee (2nd person) and from those persons or things which are neither (3rd person):

I hope that *you* will express an opinion on *them*.

If pronouns of different persons are coordinated, the sequence is treated as 1st person if it includes *I* or *we*, 2nd person if it includes *you* but not *I* or *we*. Thus:

You and *I* can go together, can't *we*?

You and { *Gillian* } agree with that, don't *you*?
 { *she* }

If neither 1st nor 2nd person pronouns occur in the coordination, the sequence is of course 3rd person:

{ *Fred* } and { *Mona* } met in Tunis, didn't *they*?
 { *He* } { *she* }

The ordering of pronouns in coordination is important from the viewpoint of style and courtesy: the 1st person comes last (especially if it is the singular) and the 2nd person usually comes first:

You, { *Jack,*
he, } and *I* will still be at work.

Why didn't they invite *you* and { *John?*
me?
her?

3rd person coordinates usually have the masculine before the feminine, the pronoun before the noun phrase:

He and *she*
She and *another student* } were both elected.

- 6.4 GENDER enforces a three-way distinction on the 3rd person singular, with masculine, feminine, and nonpersonal forms (5.45ff):

He has hurt *his* hand.
She asked *herself* why *she* had bought *it* when *its* lens was so obviously scratched.

This causes problems, especially when there is no basis for deciding between masculine and feminine, either because the gender is unknown or because it must be inclusive:

Someone is knocking so I'd better go and let *h . . . ?* in.
An ambitious player must discipline *h . . . ?self*.

Traditionally, the masculine can be used as the unmarked form (2.7) covering male and female reference in such cases, but sensitivity to sexual bias makes many people prefer a cumbersome coordination:

An ambitious player must discipline *himself* or *herself*.

More generally, where an informal disregard for strict number concord is felt tolerable, the gender-neutral plural is used:

Someone has parked *their* car right under the 'No Parking' sign.

NOTE The graphic device *s/he* to embrace *he* and *she* is of limited value since there is no equally convenient objective, possessive, or reflexive form (though full forms are often used, such as *him/her*).

- 6.5 NUMBER has to be treated separately for each of the three persons of pronouns. With the 3rd person, number is closest in value to that with nouns:

A male *officer* and a woman *officer* interrogated the prisoner but the *officers* disagreed over procedure.
He and *she* interrogated the prisoner but *they* disagreed over procedure.

With the 2nd person, there is a number contrast only in the reflexive pronoun. Compare:

Look at *your* hand, Jack; *you've* cut *yourself*.
Keep *your* voices down, children; *you* must behave *yourselves*.

But, while *you . . . yourselves* is straightforwardly the plural of more than one addressee, each of which might be addressed as *you . . . yourself*, the plural with the 1st person is on quite a different basis. *We* is not the plural of *I* ('*We, that is, I and I and I are glad to see you') but a pronoun meaning *I* and one or more other people ('We, that is, Jill and I', 'We the undersigned'). See below, 6.10.

NOTE In archaic style, there is a set of singular 2nd person pronouns *thou* (objective *thee*), *thy(elf)*, *thine*, and a special subjective plural form *ye*.

- 6.6 CASE in personal pronouns involves a distinction absent from nouns, marking broadly the grammatical roles of subject and object. Compare:

The policeman detained *this young woman*.
He detained *her*.
The woman resisted *the policeman*.
She resisted *him*.

Corresponding to the genitive case in nouns (5.48ff), we have in pronouns the subclass of possessives, treated below in 6.16:

The girl's dog bit *an old man's* ankle.
Her dog bit *his* ankle.

- 6.7 The choice of subjective and objective forms does not depend solely upon the strict grammatical distinction between subject and object. Rather, usage shows that we are concerned more with subject 'territory' (the pre-verbal part of a clause) in contrast to object 'territory' (the post-verbal part of a clause). In consequence of the latter consideration, it is usual in informal style to find objective forms selected in such instances as the following:

His sister is taller than *him*.
Whoever left the door unlocked, it certainly wasn't *me*.

Many people are uncomfortable about such forms, however, especially in writing, though the subject variants are almost equally objectionable in seeming unnatural. Where an operator can be added, of course, the problem of choice satisfactorily disappears:

His sister is taller than *he* is.

See also 6.11.

NOTE [a] In contrast with *except* which is always treated as a preposition and therefore followed by the objective case ('Nobody except *her* objected'), there is vacillation over prepositional *but*, many people preferring the subjective form if it is in subject 'territory'. Thus:

Nobody but *she* objected.

Even in object territory, *but* can be followed by either form, as with *as* and *than*:

Nobody objected but *she/her*.

[b] The frequency of the coordination *you and I* seems to have resulted in a tendency to make it case-invariant, though such examples as the following are felt to be uncasily hypercorrect:

Let's *you and I* go together then.

Between *you and I*, there was some cheating.

Specific reference

- 6.8 Central pronouns resemble noun phrases with *the* in normally having definite meaning, and they also usually have specific reference. In the case of 3rd person pronouns, the identity of the reference is typically supplied by the linguistic context, anaphorically as in [1] or cataphorically as in [2] (cf 5.14):

There is *an excellent museum* here and everyone should visit *it*. [1]
When *she* had examined the patient, *the doctor* picked
up the telephone. [2]

In [1], *it* is understood as 'the museum'; in [2], *she* is understood as 'the doctor'. Cataphoric reference is conditional upon grammatical subordination; thus [2] could not be restated as:

**She* examined the patient and then *the doctor* picked up the telephone.

Anaphoric reference has no such constraint, and [2] could be replaced by:

When *the doctor* had examined the patient, *she* picked up the telephone.

On the other hand, the relative freedom of anaphoric reference can result in indeterminacy as to identification:

Ms Fairweather asked Janice if *she*¹ could come into *her* room; *she*² seemed to be more upset than *she* had ever seen *her*.

English grammar determines only that the italicized items have singular feminine reference; it does not determine the specific identities. In such a case, the speaker/writer would have to make sure that the larger context or the situation left it clear whether, for example, *she*¹ referred to Ms Fairweather or to Janice and whether *she*² had the same reference as *she*¹. Did Ms Fairweather ask for the interview because Janice seemed upset or is Janice reflecting that the interview is sought because Ms Fairweather seemed upset?

The pronoun *it*

- 6.9 Any singular noun phrase that does not determine reference by *he* or *she* is referred to by *it*; thus collectives, noncount concretes, and abstractions:

The committee met soon after *it* had been appointed.

He bought *some salmon* because *it* was her favourite food.

When you are ready to report *it*, I would like to know *your assessment of the problem*.

Since this last noun phrase is a nominalization (17.23) of a clause ('You are assessing the problem'), it is easy to see that *it* can refer to the content of whole sentences and sequences of sentences:

I don't like to say *it* but I must. *You have lost your job because you didn't work hard enough. You have only yourself to blame.*

Such a cataphoric use of *it* with sentential reference is analogous to the extrapositional *it* (18.23ff):

It has to be said *that you have lost your job because . . .*

Analogous too is the anticipatory *it* in cleft sentences (18.18f):

It was only last week that the death was announced.

In many cases where *it* seems to be superficially anaphoric, it is to be explained in terms of this anticipatory use with subsequent ellipsis. Compare:

I asked where she lived and *it* turned out to be in my street.

The phone rang and *it* was the police.

On the other hand, *it* as a prop ('dummy') subject frequently occurs where no plausible sentential reference can be claimed:

If *it* stops raining, we can go out for a walk; but we must be home before *it* gets dark.

NOTE A prop *it* is not confined to subject function:

I take *it* that she has declined the invitation.

He had a hard time of *it* in the army.

The 1st person plural forms

- 6.10 The pronoun for the 1st person plural is a device for referring to 'I' and one or more other people. The latter may be INCLUSIVE of the addressee(s):

I'm glad to see you, Marie, and I hope *we* (*ie* 'you and I') can have a long talk.

Ladies and gentlemen, I hope *we* (*ie* 'you and I') can agree this evening on a policy for the future.

The latter is akin to the persuasive *we* associated with sermons and political speeches as well as with scholarly writing; for example:

We must increase our vigilance if *we* are not to fall victim to temptation.

As *we* saw in Chapter Three, *we* can trace the origins of human conflict to . . .

The artificial nature of the inclusiveness in this last example (which really means 'As I hope *you* saw in Chapter Three . . .') is accentuated in the rhetorical use of *we*, where the reference is to a general human collectivity – possibly in the remote past – and where paraphrase by 'you and I' may be unthinkable:

In the eighteenth century, *we* had little idea of the effect that industrial inventions would have.

Artificial inclusiveness of a different kind is found in the informal *we* used by doctor to patient:

And how are *we* (*ie* 'you') feeling today?

The obverse of this occurs in the *exclusive* use of the 1st person plural where 'you' the addressee is not included:

Ms Rogers and I have finished the report, Minister; shall *we* (*ie* 'she and I') leave it on your desk?

Related to this is the traditional 'editorial' *we*:

We can now reveal that the visit was cancelled because of threatened terrorist activity.

NOTE The royal *we*, now restricted to highly formal material such as charters, can be regarded as an extreme form of exclusive *we*.

Modification of pronouns

6.11 There is very limited scope for modification and it largely concerns the personal pronouns with the objective case (*cf* 6.7):

(a) Adjectives, chiefly in informal exclamations:

Poor me! *Clever you!* *Good old him!*

(b) Appositive nouns, with plural 1st and 2nd person:

Will *you others* please wait here?

You nurses have earned the respect of the entire country, and *we politicians* must see that you get a proper reward.

Us locals are going to protest. <familiar>

(c) *Here* and *there*, with 1st person plural and 2nd person respectively (the latter tending to sound rude):

Whatever you others do, *we here* would be willing to leave now.
Could *you there* collect your passports at the desk?

(d) Prepositional phrases, with 1st person (usually plural) and 2nd person:

It is very much the concern of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{you} \\ \text{us} \end{array} \right\}$ in the learned professions.

(e) Emphatic reflexives:

I myself, she herself, they themselves

(f) Universal pronouns, with plurals:

We all accept responsibility.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{You both} \\ \text{They each} \end{array} \right\}$ need help.

(g) Relative clauses, chiefly in formal style:

We who fought for this principle will not lightly abandon it.

He or she who left a case in my office should claim it as soon as possible.

They that (**They who*) is rare, *those who* being preferred.

Generic reference

6.12 In the type of modification illustrated in 6.11(g), most instances have generic rather than specific reference, as in the proverbial

He (*ie* 'Anyone') *who hesitates* is lost.

For ordinary purposes, the pronouns *we*, *you*, and *they* have widespread use as generics; for example:

We live in an age of moral dilemmas. [1]

You can always tell if someone is lying. <informal> [2]

They'll soon find a cure for cancer. <informal> [3]

In each case, the subject could be replaced by the generic *one* but with major stylistic and semantic differences. Stylistically, *one* would be more formal in each case, but especially so in [3]. Semantically, *we* retains the inclusionary warmth of implied 1st person involvement (6.10), *you* comparably implies special interest in the addressee, while *they* detaches the general observation equally from both the speaker and the addressee. In consequence, it is especially convenient in relation to regret or disapproval:

I wonder why *they* don't repair the roads more often.

The reflexives

- 6.13 The reflexive pronouns are always coreferential with a noun or another pronoun, agreeing with it in gender, number, and person:

Veronica *herself* saw the accident. [1]
 The dog was scratching *itself*. [2]
 He and his wife poured *themselves* a drink. [3]

The reflexives here are coreferential with *Veronica* (as appositive subject), *The dog* (as object), and *He and his wife* (as indirect object). By contrast, in

He and his wife poured *them* a drink. [4]

the indirect object *them* refers to people other than the subject.

The coreference must be within the clause; thus we have a contrast between

Penelope begged Jane to look after *her*. (= Penelope)
 Penelope begged Jane to look after *herself*. (= Jane)

But the item determining the reflexive may be absent from the clause in question; for example, imperative clauses are understood to involve 2nd person, and nonfinite clauses may reveal the subject in a neighbouring main clause:

Look at *yourself* in the mirror!
 Freeing *itself* from the trap, the rat limped away.

- NOTE [a] Where a pronoun object is only partially coreferential with the subject, the reflexive is not used. Thus beside '*I* could make *myself* an omelette', '*We* could make *ourselves* an omelette', we have '*I* could make *us* an omelette'.
 [b] Appositive use of reflexives is associated with the need for emphasis.

- 6.14 A few transitive verbs require that subject and object are coreferential:

They pride *themselves* on their well-kept garden.
 The witness was suspected of having perjured *himself*.

So also *absent oneself*, *ingratiate oneself*, *behave oneself*, though with this last the reflexive can be omitted. With some other verbs, there is a threefold choice:

She dressed *herself* with care. [1]
 She dressed with care. [2] = [1]
 She dressed *him* with care. [3]

So also *wash*, *shave*, *hide*, *prepare* etc.

- 6.15 Prepositional complements coreferential with an item in the same clause take reflexive form where the preposition has a close relationship with the verb (as in the prepositional verbs *look at*, *look after*, *listen to*: cf 16.5ff). The same holds in sequences concerned with representation:

Janet {took a photo of } { *herself* (= Janet)
 {told a story about } { *her* (≠ Janet)

But where the prepositional phrase is adverbial (especially relating to space: cf 8.2, 8.16ff), coreference can be expressed without the reflexive:

Fred closed the door behind *him*.
 Fred draped a blanket about *him*.

In such cases, context alone would show whether *him* referred to *Fred* or to someone else; replacement of *him* by *himself* would of course remove any doubt but this would be unusual unless emphasis were required.

- NOTE With some common existential expressions (18.30ff), the reflexive is rare or impossible in the prepositional complement:

She hadn't any money on *her*.
 I have my wife with *me*.

On the other hand, there are idiomatic phrases in which the prepositional complement must be reflexive:

They were beside *themselves* with rage.
 I was sitting by *myself*.

Contrast:

They were beside *me*. ('near')
 I was sitting by *her*. ('near')

The possessives

- 6.16 As shown in Table 6.2, most of the possessive pronouns differ in form according as they function as determiners or as independent items. Compare:

These are { *Miriam's* } books. ~ These books are { *Miriam's*.
 { *her* } ~ *hers*.
 That is *my* bicycle. ~ That bicycle is *mine*.
 Which are *their* clothes? ~ Which clothes are *theirs*?
 Is this *his* car? ~ Is this car *his*?
 BUT Those are *its* paw-marks. ~ *?Those paw-marks are *its*.

When the emphatic (*very*) *own* follows a possessive (the only form of modification admitted), there is no difference between determiner and independent function:

That is *my own* bicycle. ~ That bicycle is *my own*.

With this modification, even *its* can now sometimes assume enough weight for independent status:

The cat knows that this is *its (very) own* dish. ~ The cat knows that this dish is *its (very) own*.

NOTE Possessives are used with items such as parts of the body without any feeling of tautology:

She shook *her* head:
I tried to keep *my* balance.

Pronouns without a person contrast

Relative pronouns

6.17 Relative pronouns comprise two series:

- (1) *wh-* items: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*
(2) *that* and zero, the latter indicated below as ()

Compare:

I'd like to come and see the house $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{which} \\ \textit{that} \\ () \end{array} \right\}$ you have for sale.

In neither series are there distinctions of person or number, but in (1) we have some distinctions of *gender* and *case*. With *who* and *whom* the antecedent must have personal gender (5.45); with *which* it must have nonpersonal gender; with *whose* the antecedent is usually personal but can also be nonpersonal. Thus:

Are you the doctor *who* looked after my daughter?
That is the hospital *which* is to be expanded.

That is the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{doctor} \\ \textit{hospital} \end{array} \right\}$ *whose* phone number I gave you.

While *who* and *whom* share gender reference, their difference in form reflects the case distinction, subjective and objective respectively, within the relative clause:

The man $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{who} \textit{ greeted me} \\ \textit{whom} \textit{ I greeted} \\ \textit{to whom} \textit{ I spoke} \end{array} \right\}$ is a neighbour.

But see 17.8ff.

In series (2), *that* can be used without reference to the gender of the antecedent or the function within the relative clause, except that it cannot be preceded by a preposition:

The actor $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{that} \textit{ pleased me} \\ \textit{that} \textit{ I admired} \\ \textit{that} \textit{ I was attracted to} \end{array} \right\}$ is new to London.
The play $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{that} \textit{ pleased me} \\ \textit{that} \textit{ I admired} \\ \textit{that} \textit{ I was attracted to} \end{array} \right\}$ is new to London.

Zero has a similar range, lacking only the subject function:

The actor $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} () \textit{ I admired} \\ () \textit{ I was attracted to} \end{array} \right\}$ is new to London.
The play $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} () \textit{ I admired} \\ () \textit{ I was attracted to} \end{array} \right\}$ is new to London.

A major difference between the two series is that items in (2) can operate only in restrictive clauses. See 17.8.

Interrogative pronouns

6.18 There are five interrogative pronouns:

who *whom* *whose* *which* *what*

The first four are identical with series (1) of the relative pronouns (6.17), but there are notable differences both in their reference and in their grammar within the clause. *Whose* as well as *who* and *whom* can be used only with reference to items of personal gender; nor is *whose* restricted to determiner function. While *whom* can function only as the objective case, *who* can be both subjective and (especially in speech) objective except after a preposition. To illustrate these points:

Who owns this house?
Who(m) does this house belong to?
To whom does this house belong? <formal>
Whose is this house?

With *which*, reference can be both personal and nonpersonal:

Of these $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{cars,} \\ \textit{students,} \end{array} \right\}$ *which* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{is best?} \\ \textit{do you like most?} \end{array} \right\}$

When *what* is used as a pronoun, the questioner assumes that the reference is nonpersonal:

What $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{is in that box?} \\ \textit{were you wearing that day?} \end{array} \right\}$

But *what* and *which* can also be determiners (5.3), and in this function the noun phrase can be personal or nonpersonal, the difference then being that *which* assumes a limited choice of known answers:

What doctor(s) would refuse to see a patient?
Which doctor (s) [of those we are discussing] gave an opinion on this problem?

As determiner, *whose* retains its personal reference:

Whose house is this?

NOTE The distinction between *who*, *what*, and *which* is brought out in a set like the following:

Who is his wife? The novelist Felicity Smith. (cf 5.11)
What is his wife? A novelist. (cf 5.15, 23)
Which is his wife? The woman nearest the door.

Demonstrative pronouns

- 6.19 The demonstratives have the same formal range and semantic contrast both as pronouns and as determiners (5.5), *this/these* suggesting relative proximity to the speaker, *that/those* relative remoteness:

We shall compare $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{this} \\ \text{(picture)} \\ \textit{these} \\ \text{(pictures)} \end{array} \right\}$ here with $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{that} \\ \text{(picture)} \\ \textit{those} \\ \text{(pictures)} \end{array} \right\}$ over there.

But while all can be used as determiners irrespective of the gender of the noun head, as pronouns the reference must be to nouns of nonpersonal (and usually inanimate) gender:

In the garden, I noticed $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{this} \text{ plastic bag.} \sim \textit{this} \\ \textit{this} \text{ kitten.} \sim ?\textit{this} \\ \textit{this} \text{ woman.} \sim * \textit{this} \end{array} \right.$

An exception is where the demonstrative pronoun is subject of a *be*-clause with a noun phrase of specific reference as complement:

That is my kitten.
These are the children I told you about.

Cf also 'Who is *that*?' 'Who is *it*?' beside 'Who are *you*?' 'Who is *she*?' Occasionally too the demonstratives may be used as pronouns with animate reference where there is ellipsis:

I attended to *that* patient but not *this* (one).

As in the example, however, it would be usual to add the pronoun *one*.

A further partial exception is that *those* with postmodification (17.2) can readily have personal reference:

Will *those seated in rows 20 to 30* now please board the aircraft.
 Success comes to *those who have determination*.

NOTE Whether as determiners or pronouns, the demonstratives can be modified by predeterminers (5.7ff):

She painted *all (of) those* (pictures) last year.
 His fee was twenty dollars but now it's *twice that* (amount).

- 6.20 The deictic or 'pointing' contrast between *this/these* and *that/those* is not confined to spatial perception. While *this morning* usually refers to 'today', *that morning* refers to a more distant morning, past or future. More generally, *this/these* have more immediate or impending relevance than *that/those*:

These figures have just been compiled; *those* of yours are out of date.

In consequence, *this/these* tend to be associated with cataphoric reference (5.14), *that/those* with anaphoric reference:

Watch carefully and I'll show you: *this* is how it's done.
 So now you know: *that's* how it's done.
This is an announcement: will Mrs Peterson please go to the enquiry desk.
 And *that* was the six o'clock news.

NOTE Especially in informal usage, a further extension of the polarity tends to equate *this/these* with the speaker's approval, and especially *that/those* with disapproval:

How can *this* intelligent girl think of marrying *that* awful bore?

Indefinite pronouns

- 6.21 Indefinite pronouns are heterogeneous in form and they embrace also a wide range both of meanings and of grammatical properties. They are characterized as a whole, however, by having a general and nonspecific reference which the term 'indefinite' seeks to capture. Equally, they are characterized by having functions directly involved in expressing *quantity*, from totality ('all') to its converse ('nothing'). Reference in some cases invokes gender, such that items in *-body* are personal, items in *-thing* nonpersonal. Quantification in some cases invokes countability and number, such that *each* is singular count, *both* dual count, while *some* may be noncount or plural count.

Several of the indefinites can function both as determiners and as pronouns, as we shall see in what follows.

The universal items

- 6.22 We may first consider the compound indefinites (*everyone, everybody, everything; no one, nobody, nothing*), noting that all except *no one* are written as single words. These function only as pronouns, and despite their entailment of plural meaning they take singular verbs:

The room was full of youngsters and *everyone/everybody* was listening intently to the speeches.
 I appealed to the whole crowd, but *no one/nobody* was willing to get up and speak.

Father was very particular about how his tools were arranged in the workshop; he knew where *everything* was supposed to be and he insisted that *nothing* was ever to be misplaced.

These and the other universal indefinites are shown together in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Universal indefinites

NUMBER	FUNCTION	COUNT		NONCOUNT
		PERSONAL	NONPERSONAL	
Positive	pronoun	everyone	everything	all
		everybody		
singular			each	
	determiner		every each	
plural	pronoun		all/both	
	determiner		all/both	
Negative	pronoun	no one	nothing	none
		nobody		
singular			none	
	pronoun and determiner		neither	
plural	pronoun		none	
singular or plural	determiner	no		

NOTE [a] The forms in *-one* are slightly preferred by most users (esp in BrE) to the corresponding pronouns in *-body*.

[b] The pronouns in *-one* and *-body* have a genitive:

Safety is *everyone's* responsibility, but in this case the accident seems to have been *nobody's* fault.

[c] Pronunciation obscures the origin of the compound *nothing*: /nʌθɪŋ/.

[d] Though *everywhere* and *nowhere* chiefly function as indefinite adverbials, they can also be pronouns:

Everywhere is draughty and *nowhere* is comfortable.

6.23 Two further indefinites are *each* and *none*, both able to operate irrespective of gender with singular reference:

Many members hesitated but although *each* was pressed to act, *none* was in the end willing.

There were several knives in the drawer, but although *each* was tried in turn, *none* was sharp enough to cut through the rope.

Each (but not *none*) can also function as a determiner, in which role it is closely paralleled by *every*:

Each } candidate will be individually interviewed.
Every }

Where they differ is that *each* is more targeted on the individual among the totality, *every* on the totality itself. In consequence, *every* is subject to quantitative modification as in

Almost every candidate was over the age of twenty-five.

By contrast with *each*, *none* is not restricted to singular reference, though plurals like the following are objectionable to some users:

Hundreds were examined but *none were* acceptable.

With the determiner *no* which corresponds to *none*, however, plural is as universally used as the singular:

No photography is permitted during the ceremony.
There were *no* passengers on the train.

NOTE The individualizing role of *each* can be preserved in otherwise plural environments:

The knives were *each* tried in turn.

6.24 With *all* and *both*, we make plural and dual universal reference:

The factory produces luxury cars and *all* are for export.
Police interviewed the (two) suspects and *both* were arrested.

These two items also have a predeterminer function:

All these cars are for export.
Both (the) suspects were arrested.

The converse of *all* is *no(ne)* (6.23); that of *both* is *neither*, usually with singular verb concord:

Police interviewed the (two) suspects but *neither* was arrested.

It has a parallel determiner function:

Neither suspect was arrested.

NOTE As with *each* (6.23 Note), *all* and *both* can appear medially.

The cars were *all* for export.
The (two) suspects were *both* arrested.

In this function *all* is used freely with a noncount reference otherwise largely confined to its predeterminer function:

The money had *all* been spent.
All the money had been spent.

Partitive indefinites

6.25 In dealing with the partitives (see Table 6.25), we must make a primary distinction between (a) those in *assertive* use, and (b) those in *non-assertive* use (2.11):

(a) I can see $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{someone} \\ \textit{somebody} \end{array} \right\}$ climbing that tree.

There's *something* I want to tell you.

There are nuts here; please have *some*.

There is wine here; please have *some*.

All the students speak French and *some* speak Italian as well.

(b) Did you see $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{anyone} \\ \textit{anybody} \end{array} \right\}$ in the vicinity?

I couldn't find *anything* to read.

I'd like nuts, if you have *any*.

I'd like wine, if you have *any*.

All the students work hard and I don't think *any* will fail.

When used pronominally, *some* and *any* usually have clear contextual reference to a noun phrase. Both occur more freely as determiners:

(a) I would love *some* nuts and *some* wine, please.

(b) If you haven't *any* nuts, I'll not have *any* wine, thank you.

The examples above illustrate the use of these items with personal, nonpersonal, count, and noncount reference. But it should be further noted that with *any* the number distinction is typically blurred:

The woman said she'd seen *an animal* running for cover, but her companion said that he hadn't seen *any animal(s)* at all.

NOTE [a] On *-one* and *-body*, see 6.22 Notes [a] and [b].

[b] Corresponding fairly closely to the negative *neither* (6.24), there is the nonassertive *either*:

The police did not arrest *either* (suspect).

[c] Beside the partitive *some* [səm] as determiner, a stressed form [səm] can be used with singular count nouns in the sense 'a certain' (5.6 Note [b]):

'Some 'man stopped me to ask the way.

[d] Like *everywhere*, *nowhere* (6.22 Note [d]), we have *somewhere*, *anywhere*; in AmE also *-place*.

[e] Assertive forms can be used in nonassertive 'territory' when the presupposition is positive:

Can you see *someone* in the garden (= There is someone in the garden; can you see him/her?)

Would you like *some* wine (= I invite you to have some wine).

Table 6.25: Partitive indefinites

NUMBER	FUNCTION	COUNT		NONCOUNT
		PERSONAL	NONPERSONAL	
<i>Assertive</i> singular	pronoun	someone	something	some
	determiner	somebody	a (an)	
plural	pronoun and determiner	some		
<i>Nonassertive</i> singular	pronoun	anyone	anything	any
	determiner	anybody	either any	
plural	pronoun and determiner	any		

6.26 The partitives include quantifiers, which may (a) increase or (b) decrease the implications of *some*; thus beside 'There are *some* who would disagree', we have:

(a) There are *many* who would disagree.

(b) There are *a few* who would disagree.

Analogously with noncount reference:

The bread looked delicious and I ate $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{some.} \\ \textit{a great deal.} \\ \textit{a little.} \end{array} \right.$

This use of quantifiers is not paralleled exactly in nonassertive contexts, where the contrast is rather between total and partial exclusion:

There aren't *any* who would disagree. (= No one)

There aren't *many* who would disagree. (= A few)

The wine was inferior and I didn't drink *any*. (= None)

The wine was inferior and I didn't drink *much*. (= A little)

As well as being pronouns, *many*, *a few*, *a little*, and *much* can be determiners.

The *of*-partitives

6.27 It is typical of the indefinites which have both a pronoun and a determiner role to fuse these roles in *of*-expressions where the final part is a personal pronoun or a noun preceded by a definite determiner; for example:

Some are doing well.

Some students are doing well.

Some of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the students} \\ \text{these students} \\ \text{them} \end{array} \right\}$ are doing well.

Thus, with singular count partition:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{each of} \\ \text{one of} \\ \text{any of} \\ \text{either of} \\ \text{none of} \\ \text{neither of} \end{array} \right\} (\text{the students})$

With plural count partition:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{all of} \\ \text{both of} \\ \text{some of} \\ \text{many of} \\ \text{more of} \\ \text{most of} \\ \text{(a) few of} \\ \text{fewer, -est of} \end{array} \right\} (\text{our supporters})$

With noncount partition:

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{all of} \\ \text{some of} \\ \text{a great deal of} \\ \text{much of} \\ \text{more of} \\ \text{most of} \\ \text{(a) little of} \\ \text{less of} \\ \text{least of} \\ \text{any of} \\ \text{none of} \end{array} \right\} (\text{Beethoven's music})$

NOTE Comparative forms can be preceded by items of absolute meaning:

There were *a few more of our supporters* than I had expected.
She played *much less of Beethoven's music* than we had hoped.

6.28 As well as *one*, the other cardinal numerals are readily used in *of-partitives*:

Three of my friends are coming to dinner.

So too the ordinals, and these can be used with both count and noncount expressions:

A/one quarter of his books were destroyed in the fire.

She regulates her life carefully, devoting at least *five-sixths of her free time* to practising at the piano.

With *half*, there is considerable freedom in usage; as a predeterminer, it must itself be without a preceding determiner:

I saw half the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{performance.} \\ \text{players.} \end{array} \right\}$

In *of-partitives* or otherwise pronominally, it may be determined:

I saw $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{half} \\ \text{a half} \\ \text{one half} \end{array} \right\}$ of the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{performance.} \\ \text{players.} \end{array} \right\}$

Outside *of-partitives*, *another* has only limited use as a pronoun:

There was *another of those unexplained fires* in the city yesterday.

But *cf*:

There have been many fires in the city recently;

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{another was} \\ \text{several were} \end{array} \right\}$ reported yesterday.

By contrast, *other* does not enter into *of-partitives*, but in its plural form is otherwise common in pronoun usage:

You should treat *others* as you would like to be treated yourself.

NOTE [a] In association with *each* and *one*, *other* and *another* function as reciprocal pronouns. For example:

One student will often help *another*.

Each of us must support *the other*.

The children were very fond of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{each other.} \\ \text{one another.} \end{array} \right\}$

[b] The pattern (in figures and words) of the cardinal and ordinal numerals is as set out below. As ordinals, items are usually preceded by *the*, as fractions by *a* or *one*: '*the fourth of July*', '*a third of a litre*'.

0 nought, zero

1 one

2 two

3 three

4 four

5 five

6 six

7 seven

1st first

2nd second (*as fraction*, a half)

3rd third

4th fourth

5th fifth

6th sixth

7th seventh

8 eight	8th eighth
9 nine	9th ninth
10 ten	10th tenth
11 eleven	11th eleventh
12 twelve	12th twelfth
13 thirteen	13th thirteenth
14 fourteen	14th fourteenth
15 fifteen	15th fifteenth
16 sixteen	16th sixteenth
17 seventeen	17th seventeenth
18 eighteen	18th eighteenth
19 nineteen	19th nineteenth
20 twenty	20th twentieth
21 twenty-one	21st twenty-first
22 twenty-two	22nd twenty-second
23 twenty-three	23rd twenty-third
24 twenty-four (etc)	24th twenty-fourth (etc)
30 thirty	30th thirtieth
40 forty	40th fortieth
50 fifty	50th fiftieth
60 sixty	60th sixtieth
70 seventy	70th seventieth
80 eighty	80th eightieth
90 ninety	90th ninetieth
100 a/one hundred	100th hundredth
120 a/one hundred and twenty	120th hundred and twentieth
1,000 a/one thousand	1,000th thousandth
1,500 a/one thousand five hundred	1,500th thousand five hundredth
2,000 two thousand (etc)	2,000th two thousandth (etc)
100,000 a/one hundred thousand	100,000th hundred thousandth
1,000,000 a/one million	1,000,000th millionth
1,000,000,000 a/one billion	1,000,000,000th billionth

Bibliographical note

On pronouns in general, see Bolinger (1979); Jackendoff (1968); Stevenson and Vitkovitch (1986).

On central pronouns, see Helke (1979); Jacobsson (1968); Saha (1987); Seppänen (1980); Thavenius (1983); on reciprocal pronouns, see Kjellmer (1982); on indefinite pronouns, see Sahlin (1979); on numerals, see Hurford (1975).

7 Adjectives and adverbs

Adjectives

Characteristics of the adjective

7.1 Four features are commonly considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

(a) They can freely occur in ATTRIBUTIVE function, *ie* they can premodify a noun, appearing between the determiner (including zero article) and the head of a noun phrase:

an *ugly* painting, the *round* table, *dirty* linen

(b) They can freely occur in PREDICATIVE function, *ie* they can function as subject complement, as in [1], or as object complement, as in [2], *eg*:

The painting is *ugly*. [1]

He thought the painting *ugly*. [2]

(c) They can be premodified by the intensifier *very*, *eg*:

The children are *very happy*.

(d) They can take COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms. The comparison may be by means of inflections (*-er* and *-est*), as in [3–4], or by the addition of the premodifiers *more* and *most* ('periphrastic comparison'), as in [5–6]:

The children are *happier* now. [3]

They are the *happiest* people I know. [4]

These students are *more intelligent*. [5]

They are the *most beautiful* paintings I have ever seen. [6]

Not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives possess all these four features. The last two features generally coincide for a particular word and depend on a semantic feature, gradability. The adjective *atomic* in *atomic scientist*, for example, is not gradable and we therefore do not find **very atomic* or **more atomic*. Gradability cuts across word classes. Many adverbs are gradable, and since they also take premodification by *very* and comparison, these two features do not distinguish adjectives from adverbs.

The ability to function attributively and the ability to function predicatively are central features of adjectives. Adjectives like *happy* and *infinite*, which have both these features, are therefore CENTRAL adjectives. Those like *utter* that can be only attributive and those like *afraid* that can be only predicative are PERIPHERAL adjectives.