A noun is the name of a person, place, thing or idea.

**Australia** is a noun.  
**Fun** is a noun.

There are many kinds of nouns. The four main ones are: **common nouns**, **proper nouns**, **abstract nouns** and **collective nouns**.

**Common noun**

A common noun is the name of any ordinary thing you can see and touch.

Here are some examples of common nouns:

- dog
- hat
- ball
- water
- apple
- car

The toy **dog** is made of metal.

**Proper noun**

A proper noun is the special name of a person, place or thing. Proper nouns start with capital letters.

Here are some examples of proper nouns:

- Mia
- Canberra
- Sydney Opera House
- Captain Cook
- China

The **Sydney Opera House** is big.

**Collective nouns**

A collective noun is the name given to a group of persons or things.

Here are some examples of collective nouns:

- team
- herd
- swarm
- litter
- bunch
- flock

A **litter** of puppies.

Other types of nouns

**Abstract nouns**

An abstract noun is the name of something you feel, or something that could exist in your mind. You cannot see or touch an abstract noun.

Here are some examples of abstract nouns:

- hope
- sadness
- joy
- truth
- love
- kindness
- greed
- idea

**Concrete nouns**

A concrete noun is a noun that you can see or touch, like tree, hat or nose. It is the opposite of an abstract noun.
Here are some examples of concrete nouns:

- floor
- man
- hill
- ocean
- ball
- head

A concrete noun is a type of common noun.

**Technical nouns**

A technical noun is a noun that is used in a specific area of study. We only tend to use technical nouns when we are speaking or writing about particular topics.

Here are some examples of technical nouns:

- fraction
- oxygen
- galaxy
- triceratops

Non-technical nouns are also called *everyday nouns*.

A bear is a large **mammal**.

**Technical noun**

**Terms-of-address nouns**

A term-of-address noun is a noun we use when we are talking or writing to someone. It is a special type of proper noun.

Here are some examples of terms-of-address nouns:

- Mrs Chin
- Alex
- Your Honour
- Sir

**Count or countable nouns**

A count or countable noun is a noun that can be counted, such as *apple, leg or dog*.

- We saw three **dolphins**.
- I like **apples**.

**Mass or non-countable nouns**

A mass or non-countable noun is a noun that cannot be counted, such as *fun, traffic or homework*. For example:

You might say: The teacher gave us more **homework**.

But you would never say: The teacher gave me three **homeworks**.

- What heavy **traffic**!

**Mass or non-countable noun**

**Verbal nouns (Gerunds)**

Sometimes, a word can have more than one ‘job’. A verbal noun, or gerund, is a verb ending in *-ing* that is used as a noun. In other words, it is an action word that is used to name something. *(See Verbs, pp. 17–29.)*

**REMEMBER**

A verb is a doing, being or having word!

- **Running** is good exercise. In this sentence, **running** is a verbal noun. It looks like the verb *to run*, but acts like a noun. It is the subject of the verb *is*.

- I like **eating**. In this sentence, **eating** is a verbal noun. It looks like the verb *to eat*, but acts like a noun. It is the object of the verb *like*. 
I am good at dancing. In this sentence, dancing is a verbal noun. It looks like the verb to dance, but acts like a noun. It is the object of the preposition at.

I went on a walking tour. In this sentence, walking is a participle. It acts as an adjective, describing the noun tour.

**Modal nouns**

A modal noun shows a degree of possibility, certainty or obligation. That is, something that is possible, certain, or that you should do.

Here are some examples of modal nouns:

- probability
- certainty
- necessity
- chance

**Compound nouns**

A compound noun is made up of two or more words. These words may be joined together, as in teabag or snowman; or hyphenated, as in self-control or brother-in-law.

These are compound nouns:

- bookshelf
- thumbnail
- goldfish
- knife-edge
- half-brother
- sister-in-law

Sometimes when a group of words has a special meaning, we call them compound nouns, even though they are not joined together and do not have a hyphen. Baked beans and human being are compound nouns.

**Noun group**

A noun group is a word or a number of words based around a noun. It can consist of a single noun, a single pronoun, or a single noun with words built around the noun. A noun group can also include a clause. (See Groups, p. 38, Clauses, p. 42.)

In the following sentences, the noun groups are highlighted:

REMEMBER

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun. Pronouns include words like he, she, I, me, you, they, them.

Dogs bark.
They bark.
Those dogs bark.
Those big dogs bark.
Those big dogs that live next door bark.

Noun groups are sometimes called nominal groups or noun phrases.

**Noun phrase**

A noun phrase is a phrase that does the work of a noun. (See Phrases, p. 38.)

These are noun phrases:

- eating apples
- going fishing
- playing tennis

Playing tennis is fun!

Noun phrase
Noun clause
A noun clause is a subordinate clause that does the work of a noun. It can be either the subject or the object of a verb. A noun clause contains a subject and a verb of its own, but does not make sense by itself. (See Clauses, p. 42, Finite verbs, p. 20, Subject and object, p. 6.)

REMEMBER
A principal clause is a group of words that makes sense on its own. A subordinate clause is a group of words that gives meaning to the main clause of a sentence, but it cannot stand on its own.

What I saw at the movies was scary.

You must see the game that is on TV tonight.

In this sentence, What I saw at the movies is a noun clause. It contains a subject (I) and a verb (saw), but it does not make sense on its own.

In this sentence, the game that is on TV tonight is a noun clause. It contains a subject (the game) and a verb (is), but it does not make sense on its own.

More about nouns

Person
Nouns and pronouns have person. There are three types of person: first person, second person, and third person.

- First person refers to the person who is speaking: I, me, mine, etc.
- Second person refers to the person who is being spoken to: You, yours, etc.
- Third person refers to the person being spoken about: he, she, it, mum, dad, Tom, etc.

The superhero is flying.

Third person
All nouns are in the third person. They are always ‘spoken about’. (See More about Pronouns, p. 11.)

Number
A noun has number. It can be singular or plural. Singular means one. Plural means more than one.

apple singular apples plural

Forming the plural
In English spelling, the plural is formed in different ways. Always use your dictionary to check, if you are not sure.

Many singular nouns add -s to make the plural:

boy ➔ boys  girl ➔ girls  toy ➔ toys

Others add -es:

beach ➔ beaches  fox ➔ foxes  church ➔ churches

If a noun ends in y and has a consonant before the y, the plural drops -y and adds -ies:

baby ➔ babies  lady ➔ ladies  ruby ➔ rubies
Nouns ending in -f or -fe make the plural in two ways.

- They add -s:
  - chief ➔ chiefs
  - roof ➔ roofs

- They change -f to -v and add -es:
  - knife ➔ knives
  - loaf ➔ loaves

In some cases, both plural forms are acceptable:

- handkerchief ➔ handkerchiefs ➔ handkerchieves
- hoof ➔ hoofs ➔ hooves

Nouns ending in -o form the plural in two ways.

- They add -s:
  - piano ➔ pianos
  - merino ➔ merinos

- They add -es:
  - potato ➔ potatoes
  - tomato ➔ tomatoes

Compound nouns form the plural in two ways.

- They add -s to the end of the compound:
  - spoonful ➔ spoonfuls

- They add -s to the first part of the compound:
  - sister-in-law ➔ sisters-in-law

Some singular nouns that come from foreign words change their endings altogether:

- crisis ➔ crises
- plateau ➔ plateaux

Some singular nouns change their vowels to form the plural:

- woman ➔ women
- man ➔ men

Sometimes they change their consonants as well:

- mouse ➔ mice
- louse ➔ lice

Some singular nouns do not change to form the plural at all:

- deer ➔ deer
- sheep ➔ sheep

**Gender**

Nouns can be *masculine* (male) or *feminine* (female).

Some nouns are neither masculine nor feminine. These are called *neuter*. Masculine, feminine and neuter are a noun’s gender.

Some nouns can be either masculine or feminine. These nouns are said to be *common gender*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of nouns and their gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>———</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nominalisation
Nominalisation is the process of making nouns from other parts of speech. For example, the verb *lose* becomes *loss*; the adjective *high* becomes *height*; the verb *dwell* becomes *dwelling*.

Some words can be nouns or verbs, depending on what their job is in a sentence. For example, the word *jump* can mean ‘a jump’ (noun) or ‘to jump’ (verb).

I did a huge **jump** on a trampoline.  I like to **jump** on a trampoline.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Case
Nouns and pronouns have case. Case refers to the relationship between nouns (or pronouns) and verbs. *(See Pronouns, below.)*

There are three main cases:

- The **subjective case** refers to the subject of a verb. The subjective case is sometimes called the **nominative case**.
- The **objective case** refers to the object of a verb or preposition. The objective case is sometimes called the **accusative case**.
- The **possessive case** shows ownership of something.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In this sentence, <strong>Ahmed</strong> is in the subjective case. It is the subject of the verb <em>borrowed</em>. <strong>Book</strong> is in the objective case. It is the object of the verb <em>borrowed</em>. <strong>Stephen’s</strong> is in the possessive case. It tells us who owns the book.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**REMEMBER**

The subject is the person or thing who performs the action of the verb. The object is the person or thing who has the action of the verb done to them.

How do we find the case of a noun?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective case</th>
<th>Ask <strong>who</strong> or <strong>what</strong> in front of the verb.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Who</strong> borrowed the book?</td>
<td><strong>Answer:</strong> Ahmed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective case</th>
<th>Ask <strong>who</strong> or <strong>what</strong> after the verb.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Borrowed <strong>what</strong>?</td>
<td><strong>Answer:</strong> the book</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessive case</th>
<th>Ask <strong>whose</strong>.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Whose</strong> book was it?</td>
<td><strong>Answer:</strong> Stephen’s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pronouns

A pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maria is my friend.  She will be having a birthday party on Saturday.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the first sentence, Maria is a noun. In the second sentence, the word <strong>she</strong> is used instead of Maria. <strong>She</strong> is a pronoun.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are many different types of pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Type of pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She is having a party.</td>
<td>she personal pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is quite simple.</td>
<td>it personal pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The book is mine.</td>
<td>mine possessive pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I knew the boy who was hurt.</td>
<td>who relative pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That is my dog.</td>
<td>that demonstrative pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the time?</td>
<td>what interrogative pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He hit himself with the bat.</td>
<td>himself reflexive pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Captain, herself, spoke.</td>
<td>herself emphatic pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone can play.</td>
<td>anyone indefinite pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each of us has a bike.</td>
<td>each distributive pronoun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Personal pronouns**

Personal pronouns are used instead of the nouns that name people, places, things and ideas. Like the nouns they represent, personal pronouns may be the subject or part of the subject of a clause or sentence. They can also be the object or part of the object of a clause or sentence.

Personal pronouns have a lot in common with nouns:
- They have case—subjective, objective or possessive.
- They can be singular or plural.
- They have person—first person, second person or third person.

**Personal pronouns: subjective case**

The personal pronouns in the subjective case are the subjects of a clause. The subjective case is also called the nominative case.

He found the book. In this sentence **he** is a personal pronoun and is the subject of the verb **found**. As the subject, it is **subjective case**.

**REMEMBER**

To find the subjective case, find the subject! Ask who or what in front of the verb.

The personal pronouns in the subjective case are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pronoun **you** can be singular or plural!

**Personal pronouns: objective case**

The personal pronouns in the objective case are the objects of a clause.

He found the book and gave **it** to **her**. **It** is a personal pronoun and is the object of the verb **give**. As the object, it is objective case. **Her** is a personal pronoun and is governed by the preposition **to**. Because of the preposition, it is objective case.
The personal pronouns in the objective case are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>him, her, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REMEMBER
To find the objective case, find the object! Ask who or what after the verb.

The cats were sleeping.
The dog saw **them**.

**Personal pronoun, objective case, third person**
A personal pronoun can be an indirect object. In some sentences, there is more than one object. There’s the person or thing that has the action done to them, and there can also be another person or thing that can be affected by that action.

Ali gave **me** the book. This sentence really means, *Ali gave the book to me*. So, the direct object is *book*, because it is the thing that has the action done to it. The indirect object—the person affected by the action—is **me**.

A personal pronoun can be the object of a preposition.
*(See Prepositions, p. 33.)*

The teacher gave the pencils to **her**. In this sentence, the personal pronoun **her** is the object of the preposition **to**.

**Personal pronouns: possessive case**
The personal pronouns in the possessive case are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>his, hers, its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personal pronouns in the possessive case are also called *possessive pronouns*.

REMEMBER
Possession tells us about ownership. To find the possessive case ask **whose**.

**Possessive adjectives**
There are some words that seem like pronouns, but are only used with nouns. They are called *possessive adjectives*. *(See Possessive adjectives, p. 13.)*

That dog is **mine**. This is **my** dog.
**Personal pronoun,** Possessive adjective

**Personal pronoun,** possessive case,
first person.
Relative pronouns
A relative pronoun is a pronoun that is used to link a subordinate clause to a noun or personal pronoun. This noun or pronoun is called an antecedent.

**REMEMBER**
A principal clause is a group of words that makes sense on its own. A subordinate clause is a group of words that gives meaning to the main clause of a sentence, but it cannot stand on its own.

The relative pronoun has to agree with the antecedent in person and number. If the antecedent is first person, singular, the relative pronoun must also be first person, singular. If the antecedent is third person, plural, the relative pronoun must also be third person, plural.

David, who is eight years old, is playing in a band. In this sentence, who is the relative pronoun and David is the antecedent. David is third person, singular, so who must also be third person, singular.

Here are some common relative pronouns:

- who
- whom
- which
- that

**Who and whom**
We use the relative pronouns who and whom when we refer to people.

- *Who* is used for the subjective (or nominative) case.
  The girl who lives next door came over to play. The relative pronoun who is in the subjective case because it is the subject of the verb lives.

- *Whom* is used for the objective case.
  I like the team captain whom you chose. The relative pronoun whom is in the objective case because it is the object of the verb chose.

- *Whom* is also used when it is the object of a preposition.
  With whom did you play in the tennis match? The relative pronoun whom is the objective case because it is the object of the preposition with.

When we speak, we often replace whom with who. Writing is usually more formal, however, so we should use who and whom correctly.

**Which and that**
We use the relative pronouns which and that when we refer to animals, places or things. But be careful—they don’t always mean the same thing!

You can catch the train, which goes every ten minutes.

You can catch the train that goes in ten minutes.

In the sentences above, which and that both refer to the word train, which is the antecedent. But the sentences have different meanings. The first sentence refers to a train that goes every ten minutes. The second sentence refers to a particular train that goes in ten minutes’ time. (Hurry or you’ll miss it!)

**Interrogative pronouns**
An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun that is used to ask a question. Interrogative pronouns are sometimes called question pronouns.
The interrogative pronouns are:

who  whom  whose  which  what

If one of these words is followed by a noun, it becomes an *interrogative adjective* or a *pronominal adjective*.

**REMEMBER**

An adjective is a word that modifies or gives us information about a noun.

**Which** book is the best?

*Interrogative adjective*

**Demonstrative pronouns**

A demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that refers to a specific noun. Demonstrative pronouns are often used when we can point to the people or things we are talking about.

The demonstrative pronouns are:

that  this  those  these

If one of these words is followed by a noun, it becomes a *demonstrative adjective* or a *pronominal adjective*.

**Reflexive and emphatic pronouns**

Reflexive and emphatic pronouns are made by adding *-self* (singular) and *-selves* (plural) to the end of a personal pronoun.

Reflexive pronouns are often used when the subject and object are the same. In other words, when a noun or pronoun does something to itself.

He hurt **himself**. In this sentence, **himself** is a reflexive pronoun because it refers back to the **he** who is the subject of the sentence. The subject and object are the same person.

Emphatic pronouns are used to emphasise, or draw attention to, the noun. They are often used to demonstrate that something interesting or important has happened—or that it has been done by someone important!

The premier **herself** visited our school yesterday. In this sentence, **herself** is an emphatic pronoun because it draws attention to the noun **premier**. It tells us that the **premier** is an important person.

**Indefinite pronouns**

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that we use when we don’t want to refer to any particular person, place or thing.

**No one** is to blame for this mess.

Indefinite pronouns that end with *-one* or *-body* refer to persons, while those ending in *-thing* refer to places or things.

Here are some examples of indefinite pronouns:

one  none  anyone  someone

no one  nobody  anything  nothing

Indefinite pronouns are usually followed by a singular verb.
Distributive pronouns
A distributive pronoun is a pronoun that refers to individual members of a group separately, rather than to the group as a whole.

Each had a carrot.

Distributive pronoun
The distributive pronouns are:

- each  
- every  
- either  
- neither

If these words are followed by a noun, they become *distributive adjectives* or *pronominal adjectives*. (See Distributive adjectives, p. 14.)

Each lamb had its wool clipped.

Distributive adjective

More about pronouns

Person
A pronoun has different forms depending on its person. There are three persons: *first person*, *second person* and *third person*.

- **First person**: This refers to the person who is speaking.
  - I am an athlete.
  - We all run in the City to Surf.
  - It is mine.

- **Second person**: This refers to the person being spoken to.
  - You will be late, Tom.
  - You will be late, children.
  - You have won the prize, Jo. It is *yours*.
  - You have won the prize, children. It is *yours*.

- **Third person**: This refers to the person being spoken about.
  - I wouldn’t trust *him*.
  - Theirs are in the wash.
  - I wouldn’t trust *them*.

Number
Pronouns have number. Some are singular and some are plural.

If the noun it refers to (the *antecedent*) is singular, the pronoun is also singular. If the noun it refers to is plural, the pronoun is plural.

In the examples that follow, the nouns/antecedents are highlighted in bold, with an *S* for singular or a *P* for plural placed above each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have a new <em>bike</em>. It is made of metal.</td>
<td>The noun <em>bike</em> is singular, so the pronoun <em>It</em> is also singular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The <em>kids</em> can’t wait for the school term to end. <em>They</em> love holidays!</td>
<td>The noun <em>kids</em> is plural, so the pronoun <em>They</em> is also plural.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here are some more examples:

Personal pronouns: The footballers trained hard. ➔ They trained hard.
Possessive pronouns: That is John’s. ➔ That is his.
Demonstrative pronouns: The answers are correct. ➔ These are correct.

**Gender**

In English, there are four genders. They are:

- masculine (male)
- feminine (female)
- common gender (can be either male or female)
- neuter (neither male nor female) (See Gender, p. 5.)

Examples of pronouns and their gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Common gender</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>she</td>
<td>he or she</td>
<td>it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>him or her</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns have gender, and so do pronouns. A pronoun has the same gender as its antecedent, the noun it replaces.

In the examples that follow, the antecedent is in brackets following the pronoun. It has an M for masculine gender, F for feminine gender, N for neuter gender and C for common gender written above it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She (a girl) sat next to him (a boy).</td>
<td>She is feminine and him is masculine.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It (a building) will have to be demolished.</td>
<td>It is neuter.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I (Fred) have nothing (money) left to give.</td>
<td>I is masculine and nothing is neuter.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone (man and woman) who knows him</td>
<td>Anyone and us are common gender.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will join us (men and women) today.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pronouns and the very special verb to be**

The verb to be is special because it has its own rule relating to case and pronouns:

The verb to be takes the same case after it as before it.

This is because to be links a subject to a complement, which is something that is needed to complete the meaning. The verb to be, in its many forms, is sometimes called a linking or relating verb.

The rule means that the subjective case form of the pronoun is used before and after the verb.

It is she who was lost.       It is the subject of the sentence and she is the complement.  
Is is part of the verb to be.  

In the sentence above, you might expect that her would be correct, because her is the normal objective form of the pronoun. But she is correct because it is the complement of the verb is.
Here are some more examples:

- **It is they** who need to pull up their socks.
- **It was she** who did most of the work.
- **It is I** who baked the cake.

**REMEMBER**

A complement is a word that is needed to give meaning. Prepositions such as *with* and *under*, and verbs such as *be* and *feel* need a complement to make sense: *with me, under it, be happy, feel hungry*.

This rule is gradually changing, because many people feel that it is very old-fashioned. However, it is still important in formal writing.

**Adjectives**

An adjective is a describing word. It describes or adds meaning to a noun or pronoun.

In each of the following phrases, the adjective describes a noun:

- a *tall* building  
  *Tall* is an adjective. It describes the noun *building*.
- a *hungry* cat  
  *Hungry* is an adjective. It describes the noun *cat*.

In the following sentence, the adjective describes a pronoun:

- She is *funny*.  
  *Funny* is an adjective. It describes the pronoun *she*.

(See Adjectival phrases, p. 39 and Adjectival clauses, p. 44.)

There are many types of adjectives. They all describe nouns or pronouns.

- a *strong* boy  
  *Descriptive adjective*

**Descriptive or describing adjectives**

These are the most common types of adjectives. *Big, small* and *happy* are descriptive adjectives. They tell us about the qualities of a person or thing. Descriptive adjectives can be divided into *factual adjectives* and *classifying adjectives*. Factual adjectives tell us about the qualities of a person or thing, as in *kind person* or *big ship*. Classifying adjectives place something into a group or type, as in *Siamese cat* or *Australian history*.

**Possessive adjectives**

A possessive adjective shows possession.

This is *my* bike.

*Possessive adjective*

Possessive adjectives have to match the person and number of the nouns and pronouns that they modify.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessor</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>his, her, its</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Possessive adjectives must be followed by a noun. Possessive adjectives are sometimes called *pronoun adjectives* or *pronominal adjectives*. 
**Numeral or numbering adjectives**
A numeral adjective describes the number or numerical order of nouns or pronouns.

**two** geese

**numeral adjective**
There are two different kinds of numeral adjectives: *cardinal adjectives* and *ordinal adjectives*.

- **Cardinal adjectives** tell us the number of things: ten toes, eleven players, one cake, etc.
- **Ordinal adjectives** tell us the order of things in a numerical sequence: first runner, third song, tenth biscuit, etc.

Numerical adjectives are sometimes called *quantity adjectives*.

**Demonstrative adjectives**
A demonstrative adjective is an adjective that demonstrates or points out a specific noun.

In the following sentences, the demonstrative adjectives point out a noun:

- **This** hat is mine.  
  **This** points out the noun **hat**.
- **That** hat is yours.  
  **That** points out the noun **hat**.
- **These** shoes are mine.  
  **These** points out the noun **shoes**.
- **Those** shoes are yours.  
  **Those** points out the noun **shoes**.

Demonstrative adjectives are sometimes called *pointing adjectives* or *determiners*.

**Distributive adjectives**
A distributive adjective is an adjective that refers to individual members of a group separately, rather than to the group as a whole.

**Each** cat was howling.

**Distributive adjective**
The distributive adjectives are:

- each  
- every  
- either  
- neither

Remember that distributive adjectives refer to individual things, so each is singular in number and requires a singular verb.

- **Neither** Bill nor Jane is here.  
- **Each** bird catches a worm.

**Interrogative adjectives**
An interrogative adjective is an adjective that asks a question. In the following sentences, the interrogative adjectives are highlighted:

- **Which** animal made that sound?  
- **What** make of plane is that?  
- **Whose** friend is waiting?

**Interrogative adjective or interrogative pronoun?**
In some sentences, the question words *which*, *what* and *whose* are used as interrogative adjectives. In other sentences, they are used as interrogative pronouns.

**How can we tell the difference?**
If the question word is followed by a noun, it is an interrogative adjective:

- **Which** horse finished last?

If the question word is not followed by a noun, it is an interrogative pronoun:

- **Which** finished last?
Modal adjectives
A modal adjective shows an amount of probability or certainty.
- a possible event
- a definite result
Words like certain, likely, unlikely and probable are modal adjectives.

Indefinite adjectives
Indefinite adjectives refer to number but do not give the exact number.
Some, few, many and most are examples of indefinite adjectives in the following sentences, because each modifies a noun:
- Some people are very kind.
- Few parents would come to the show.
- Many children are swimming.
- Most cars are shiny.
When an indefinite adjective is not followed by a noun, it is called an indefinite pronoun.
(See Indefinite pronouns, p. 10.)

More about adjectives

Adjectives and degree
Most adjectives show degree. Degree is used to compare things. It tells how much more or less.
There are three degrees: positive, comparative and superlative.
- Positive is the first degree. It describes a particular quality of something: My dog is strong.
- Comparative is the second degree. It compares a particular quality of two things: My dog is stronger than Rory’s dog.
- Superlative is the third, and highest, degree of comparison. It compares a particular quality of more than two things: My dog is the strongest dog in the world!

REMEMBER
There is no degree between the comparative and the superlative. We should never say that something is ‘more bigger’ or ‘more stronger’!

Many adjectives take the endings -er for the comparative and -est for the superlative. Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soft</td>
<td>softer</td>
<td>softest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ugly</td>
<td>uglier</td>
<td>ugliest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>small</td>
<td>smaller</td>
<td>smallest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes, the spelling of the adjective changes when -er and -est are added. Always check your dictionary if you are unsure!
Some adjectives seem clumsy if you add -er or -est. They form their comparative and superlative forms with the adverbs more or most instead. Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>more beautiful</td>
<td>most beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delicate</td>
<td>more delicate</td>
<td>most delicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliable</td>
<td>more reliable</td>
<td>most reliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horrible</td>
<td>more horrible</td>
<td>most horrible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**REMEMBER**
The superlative is the highest degree of comparison. We should never say that something is ‘the most biggest’ or the ‘most beautifullest’!

Some adjectives have irregular forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Absolute words**
Some adjectives do not have a comparative or superlative degree. They are sometimes called absolute words. For example, if something is empty, it cannot be more or less empty. (See Making sense, p. 121.)

Here are some absolute words:
- full
- dead
- correct
- perfect
- whole
- equal

**Fewer and less**
The adjectives fewer and less are often confused, but they are used in different ways. (See Count/countable nouns, p. 2.)
- Fewer refers to numbers of things. It is used with countable nouns:
  - Fewer people crossed the bridge.
- Less refers to quantities. It is used with non-countable nouns:
  - Less butter is needed in the cake.

Fewer is always followed by a plural noun. This means that any verb that follows the noun will also be plural.

  Fewer apples were on the tree. Apples is plural, so the verb were is also plural.

Less is followed by a singular noun:

  Less water was on the road. Water is singular, so the verb was is also singular.

**Verbal adjectives (participles)**
A verbal adjective, or participle, is a verb ending in -ing that is used as an adjective. In other words, it is an action word that is used to describe a noun. (See Participles, p. 20; Gerunds, p. 2.)
He went on a walking tour. In this sentence, the word walking is an adjective because it describes the noun tour. But it also acts as a verb because it refers to an action—something someone does.

He is walking down the street. In this sentence, the word walking is part of the verb is walking. It is the present participle.

Walking is good exercise. In this sentence, the word walking is a verbal noun. It is the subject of the verb is.

Here are some more examples of verbal adjectives:

- a falling rock
- a swimming lesson
- a performing seal

---

**Verbs**

A verb is a doing, being or having word.

Here are some examples of verbs:

- scratched
- was
- have

My cat was angry.

**Verb**

Verbs are different kinds of processes, that is, they are things that are going on. Verbs tell us what is happening.

There are many kinds of verbs. In the following sentences, the verbs are highlighted:

- I like ice cream.
- You won’t like it.
- My sister walked home.
- Dad should cook tonight.
- The movie will be good!
- I have read that book.

**Doing verbs**

There are four different types of doing verbs: action verbs, saying verbs, sensing verbs and relating verbs.

The bird flew!

**Verb**

- Action verbs involve an action—something that is done. Run, jump and flew are action verbs.
- Saying verbs involve speech—something that is said. Shout, whisper and scream are saying verbs.
- Sensing verbs involve thought and feelings—something that is sensed or felt. Love, remember and imagine are sensing verbs.
- Relating verbs involve linking or relating—how pieces of information are linked. Be, have and become are relating verbs.
**Action verbs**

In the following poem, the action verbs are highlighted:

**Me—Moving**

I dart and dash,  
I jig and jump,  
I scamper, skate and scramble.  
I strut and stride,  
I slip and slide,  
And frequently I amble.

I leap and lurch,  
I crawl and creep,  
I rove and ramble,  
I turn and trip,  
I skid and skip,  
And now and then—  
I gambol.

_Gordon Winch_

**Saying verbs**

Here are some examples of saying verbs:

- ask
- demand
- explain
- agree
- suggest
- reply
- shout
- whisper
- murmur
- say

**Sensing verbs**

Here are some examples of sensing verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thinking</th>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Perceiving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reflect</td>
<td>love</td>
<td>know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recall</td>
<td>hate</td>
<td>notice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>observe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wonder</td>
<td>fear</td>
<td>see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Relating verbs**

Some verbs do not show actions, thoughts or feelings. These verbs simply link pieces of information in the text. They tell us how one piece of information relates to another. That is why they are called _relating or linking verbs_.

Here are some examples of sensing verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Being</th>
<th>am</th>
<th>is</th>
<th>mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Having</td>
<td>has</td>
<td>possess</td>
<td>include</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other types of verbs**

**Auxiliary verbs**

An auxiliary verb is a verb that ‘helps’ another verb or participle to make a complete verb. For example:

- I _have_ read all of my books!
- I _am going_ for a walk.

In this sentence, **have** is the auxiliary verb and **read** is the verb that it helps.

In this sentence, **am** is the auxiliary verb and **going** is the participle that it helps.

Auxiliary verbs are very important, because they make it possible for us to give a clear sense of time. We use auxiliary verbs to form the different tenses of verbs. (*See Tense, pp. 24–6.*)
Here are some examples:

**Past tense:** I was hungry.
**Present tense:** I am singing.
**Future:** I will go to the shops tomorrow.

The main auxiliary verbs are *to be, to have, to do* and *will*:
- **to be:** am, are, is, was, were, been
- **to have:** have, has, had
- **to do:** do, does, did

The verb *will* has no other forms. It is always *will*.

**REMEMBER**
An auxiliary verb is a verb that is used with other verbs or participles to complete a verb. For example, ‘I have seen that movie’. Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs.

**Modal verbs**
Modal verbs give us information about the amount of possibility or certainty being expressed. They are usually auxiliary verbs.

- Some modal verbs express low modality or certainty—things that *might* happen.
- Some modal verbs express medium modality or certainty—things that *can* or *should* happen.
- Other modal verbs express high modality or certainty—things that *will* or *must* happen.

Here are some examples of modal verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low modality</th>
<th>Medium modality</th>
<th>High modality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>should</td>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>can</td>
<td>will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>need to</td>
<td>have to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Modality**
Modality can be expressed with other parts of speech, not just with verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal nouns</th>
<th>Modal adjectives</th>
<th>Modal adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>possibility</td>
<td>possible</td>
<td>possibly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>probability</td>
<td>probable</td>
<td>probably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>necessity</td>
<td>necessary</td>
<td>necessarily</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Negative forms of verbs**
So far we have talked about verbs in the positive form, but we can also make verbs negative. We do this in two ways.

- If there is an auxiliary verb, we add the word **not**:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive form</th>
<th>Negative form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have worked hard.</td>
<td>I have not worked hard.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• If there is no auxiliary verb, we add *do not* or *does not*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive form</th>
<th>Negative form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I play football.</td>
<td>I do not play football.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He plays football.</td>
<td>He does not play football.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Negatives can also be *contracted*, or made shorter.

- I have not worked hard. ➔ I haven’t worked hard.
- I do not play football. ➔ I don’t play football.
- He does not play football. ➔ He doesn’t play football.

**Finite verbs**

Verbs can be *finite* or *non-finite*.

A finite verb has a subject, and can stand alone in a clause or sentence. It does not need another verb to make sense. Every clause or sentence must have a finite verb.

The tree *crashed* to the ground.

In this sentence, *crashed* is the finite verb and *the tree* is the subject.

To find the subject of a finite verb, you ask *Who?* or *What?* before the verb.

**Question:** What crashed?

**Answer:** The tree. So *tree* is the subject and *crashed* is a finite verb.

**REMEMBER**

A sentence must have a finite verb and a complete meaning!

**Non-finite verbs**

A non-finite verb cannot stand alone as the main verb in a sentence. It needs another verb to make sense. (*See Sentences, p. 46, Clauses, p. 42.*)

- to see the movie

  This phrase does not make sense. *To see* is not a finite verb. We need to add a subject and a finite verb to turn this phrase into a sentence.

- We went to see the movie.

  This is a complete sentence, because it has a subject and a finite verb.

There are two kinds of non-finite verbs: infinitives and participles.

**Infinitives**

The infinitive is the basic form of a verb. It has no subject, and is usually preceded by the word *to*.

Here are some examples:

- to dance
- to eat
- to hear
- to walk
- to swim
- to stay

An infinitive can appear without the word *to*:

- I did not dare *ask*.

  In this sentence, *ask* is in the infinitive form. It is a much less clumsy way of saying *I did not dare to ask*.

**Participles**

There are two kinds of participles: *present participles* and *past participles*. 
Present participles
The present participle of a verb is made by adding the ending -ing to the infinitive. It combines with an auxiliary verb to make a complete verb. (See Compound and Auxiliary Verbs, p. 18.)

I am walking on the footpath. The complete verb is am walking. The auxiliary verb is am (a part of the verb to be) and the present participle is walking.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) dance</td>
<td>dancing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) move</td>
<td>moving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) stay</td>
<td>staying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) try</td>
<td>trying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) walk</td>
<td>walking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past participles
The past participle of a verb is usually made by adding the ending -ed to the infinitive. It combines with an auxiliary verb to make a complete verb.

I had walked on the footpath. The complete verb is had walked. The auxiliary verb is had and the past participle is walked.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) dance</td>
<td>danced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) move</td>
<td>moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) stay</td>
<td>stayed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) try</td>
<td>tried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) walk</td>
<td>walked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A number of irregular verbs form their past participles in different ways. Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) be</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) see</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) do</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) drink</td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) fly</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have flown over the mountain.

Irregular past participle

Transitive and intransitive verbs
A transitive verb has an object. The word transitive means to pass over. The action ‘passes over’ from the verb to the object.

The man sailed the yacht. In this sentence, the action passes over from the verb, sailed, to the object, yacht.
To find out if a verb has an object, ask *Who?* or *What?* after the verb.

**Question:** *Sailed what?*

**Answer:** *The yacht.* So *yacht* is the object and *sailed* is a transitive verb.

An intransitive verb does not have an object.

- The rain **stopped.** This sentence has no object, because the action does not pass over from the verb, **stopped**, to something else.

**Question:** *Stopped what?*

**Answer:** There is no answer, because there is no object. So the verb *stopped* in this sentence is intransitive.

**Agreement in person and number**

Finite verbs are limited by, or tied to, the subject. They must agree with the subject in **person** and **number**.

**Person**

Pronouns have three persons:

- **First person:** *I* like ice cream.
- **Second person:** *You* like ice cream.
- **Third person:** *He* likes ice cream.

Nouns are always in the third person.

- *Ciara* likes ice cream.
- *Children* like ice cream.

Verbs must change in order to agree with the ‘person’ of the subject.

- **First person:** *I* like ice cream.
- **Second person:** *You* like ice cream.
- **Third person:** *Ciara* likes ice cream.

Irregular verbs, like the verb *to be*, have more changes.

- **First person:** *I am* on holidays.
- **Second person:** *You are* my friend.
- **Third person:** *He is* my brother.

*(See Nouns pp. 1–6, Pronouns pp. 6–13, Agreement, p. 42.)*

**Number**

Nouns and pronouns have number. They can be **singular** (one) or **plural** (more than one).

If the subject of a clause or sentence is singular, the verb must be singular.

If the subject is plural, the verb must be plural. That is, the verb must agree with the subject in number. *(See Clauses, p. 42.)*

Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular subject</th>
<th>Singular verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This horse</td>
<td>jumps</td>
<td>fences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These horses jump fences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural subject</th>
<th>Plural verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These horses</td>
<td>jump</td>
<td>fences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular or plural?**

Sometimes, it can be difficult to work out whether the subject of a verb is singular or plural. Here are some common situations that often cause confusion:

- When using words that end in -s but are singular:
  - The news **is** good.
  - Maths **is** easy for some people.
- When using words that look singular but are plural:
  - The police **work** hard to protect the community.
  - Cattle **are** herbivores.
- When using subjects with *and*:
  - The verb is plural if there are two persons or things:
    - My sister and brother **are** good fun.
  - The verb is singular if the subject refers to one person or thing:
    - Lemon and lime **is** my favourite flavour.
- When using *either ... or; neither ... nor*:
  - If both parts of the subject are singular, use a singular verb:
    - Neither he nor I **is** going.
    - She or I **is** playing.
    - Either of my friends **is** invited.
    - Neither of my parents **likes** rock music.
  - If one subject is singular and one is plural, the verb agrees with the nearer subject:
    - Neither John nor they **are** going.
    - Neither they nor John **is** going.
- When using a collective noun subject:
  - Collective noun subjects, such as **team, class, herd or gang**, are singular or plural depending on the meaning of the sentence.
  - The team **is** arriving today. (The team as a whole—singular)
  - The team **are** putting on their shorts. (The team as individuals—plural)
- When using the subjunctive:
  - If you are expressing something that you imagine might happen—that could happen, that might happen or that is just in your imagination—you must use the subjunctive mood of the verb:
    - If I **were** there ...
    - If he **were** on our team ...
Tricky?! Never mind, there aren’t many of these cases!

The subjunctive mood requires you to change the usual rules of subject/verb agreement in terms of number (singular or plural) with subjects that are in the singular. You would usually say I was… or He was… (See Subjunctive mood, p. 26.)

More about verbs

Tense
Tense refers to time. It tells us when the process or action is taking place. There are three main tenses: the past tense, the present tense and the future tense.

• The past tense tells us that the action has already taken place:
  My mother liked school.
• The present tense tells us that the action is taking place now:
  I like school.
• The future tense tells us that the action will take place some time in the future:
  My baby sister will like school.

Each of these tenses has a number of different forms. These are:

• the simple form
• the continuous form
• the perfect form
• the perfect continuous form.

The simple form
The simple form consists of short forms of the present, past and future tenses.

Simple present tense: I walk to the beach.
Simple past tense: I walked to the beach.
Simple future tense: I will walk to the beach.

The timeless present
The timeless present tense is another form of the present tense. It refers to actions that do not change. They keep going on, at the same time, always. They are part of the scheme of things.

Bears hibernate all winter.
Flowers bloom in the spring.

The timeless present looks like the simple present, but there is a difference. The simple present tense talks about things that are happening right now, and things that happen regularly.
‘I fly really high.’ (happening now)
I have an egg for breakfast every Sunday. (happens regularly)

The continuous form
The continuous form tells us that the action or process is, was or will be continuing. The continuous tenses use the verb to be with the present participle.

Present continuous tense: I am helping my mum today.
Past continuous tense: I was helping my mum last weekend.
Future continuous tense: I will be helping my mum this weekend.
**The perfect form**
The perfect form tells us that the event, action or process is complete, was completed or will be completed. The perfect tenses use the verb to have with the past participle.

- **Present perfect tense:** He has helped a lot of people.
- **Past perfect tense:** He had helped a lot of people.
- **Future perfect tense** He will have helped a lot of people this year.

**The perfect continuous form**
The perfect continuous form combines the perfect and the continuous forms in the present, past and future tenses. It uses the verbs to have and to be with the present participle.

- **Present perfect continuous tense:** She has been helping many people.
- **Past perfect continuous tense:** She had been helping many people.
- **Future perfect continuous tense:** She will have been helping many people.

**REMEMBER**
The verb must agree with the subject in person and number!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TENSES</th>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>Continuous</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Perfect continuous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I jump</td>
<td>I am jumping</td>
<td>I have jumped</td>
<td>I have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You jump</td>
<td>You are jumping</td>
<td>You have jumped</td>
<td>You have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it jumps</td>
<td>He/she/it is jumping</td>
<td>He/she/it has jumped</td>
<td>He/she/it has been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>We jump</td>
<td>We are jumping</td>
<td>We have jumped</td>
<td>We have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>You jump</td>
<td>You are jumping</td>
<td>You have jumped</td>
<td>You have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>They jump</td>
<td>They are jumping</td>
<td>They have jumped</td>
<td>They have been jumping</td>
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<tr>
<td>Past</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I jumped</td>
<td>I was jumping</td>
<td>I had jumped</td>
<td>I had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>You jumped</td>
<td>You were jumping</td>
<td>You had jumped</td>
<td>You had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it jumped</td>
<td>He/she/it was jumping</td>
<td>He/she/it had jumped</td>
<td>He/she/it had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We jumped</td>
<td>We were jumping</td>
<td>We had jumped</td>
<td>We had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>You jumped</td>
<td>You were jumping</td>
<td>You had jumped</td>
<td>You had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They jumped</td>
<td>They were jumping</td>
<td>They had jumped</td>
<td>They had been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will jump</td>
<td>I will be jumping</td>
<td>I will have jumped</td>
<td>I will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will jump</td>
<td>You will be jumping</td>
<td>You will have jumped</td>
<td>You will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it will jump</td>
<td>He/she/it will be jumping</td>
<td>He/she/it will have jumped</td>
<td>He/she/it will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We will jump</td>
<td>We will be jumping</td>
<td>We will have jumped</td>
<td>We will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>You will jump</td>
<td>You will be jumping</td>
<td>You will have jumped</td>
<td>You will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will jump</td>
<td>They will be jumping</td>
<td>They will have jumped</td>
<td>They will have been jumping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mood

Mood refers to the way the process or action is expressed by the verb. There are three moods: the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood.

**The indicative mood**
This is the mood of sentences that give facts.

The dog broke the vase.

**The imperative mood**
The imperative mood is a command. Commands are always in the second person, because we are speaking directly to the person we want to carry out the command. To give a command, we simply use the infinitive, which is the basic form of the verb. We usually don’t include the subject, because it is understood.

Come inside and eat your dinner!
Give me that CD!
Stop making noise!

Commands can also be negative. To give a negative command, we add do not or don’t:

Don’t do that!
Do not go into the haunted house!

**The subjunctive mood**
This expresses some action as a doubt, possibility or wish. It is often used with the word if before the verb, and would, could or should after it.

If I were you, I wouldn’t miss that concert!
If your cousin should come, he would be welcome.
If I were a superhero, I could fly home from school!
In the examples above, you will see that the verb *were* is plural, even when the subject is singular. This is because the subjunctive mood changes the usual rules about subject/verb agreement.

I wish I *were* a movie star.

**Voice**

Voice tells us who is doing the action. Usually, the subject is the person or thing doing the action of the verb, but sometimes the subject actually has the action done to it.

There are two voices: *active* and *passive*.

- **Active voice**
  
  In the active voice, the subject does something to some person or thing.

  John *climbed* the fence.  
  
  *Climbed* is a verb in the active voice because the subject (*John*) did something (*climbed*) to something (*the fence*).

- **Passive voice**
  
  In the passive voice, the subject receives the action. The passive voice is made up of a form of the verb *to be* plus the past participle of the main verb.

  The fence *was climbed* by John.  
  
  *Was climbed* is a verb in the passive voice because the subject (*the fence*) had something done to it (*was climbed*) by someone (*John*). It is the subject, (*the fence*), that receives the action.

**Verb phrase**

A verb phrase is a group of words that contains a verb and any *auxiliary*, or helping, words, that it might have. It can be described as an *expanded verb*. A verb phrase can consist of a single word or number of words, such as *run* or *has been running*. *(See Phrases, p. 38.)*

Another type of verb phrase is a *phrasal verb*, which includes another word called a *particle*, such as *on* or *up*. The phrasal verb could be *jump on* or *catch up*.

Remember that verb phrases are still verbs. They tell us what is happening.

**Verb group**

A verb group is a word, or number of words, that does the job of a verb. Like noun groups, verb groups can be expanded.

In the following sentences, the verb groups are highlighted:

  - *Jodie runs.*
  - *She is running.*
  - *Pierre has not been running.*
  - *They could not have been running.*

The terms *verb groups* and *verb phrases* are sometimes combined under the term *group/phrase*. *(See Groups, p. 38.)*

**The verb to be**

The verb *to be* is a special verb. It has a number of meanings of its own (*to exist, to take place, to stay in the same place or condition, etc.*). It is also a very important *auxiliary*, or helping, verb.

The verb *to be* can show present, past and future tenses. It has more forms than any other verb in the English language.
Forms of the verb *to be*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td>I am</td>
<td>we/you/they are</td>
<td>being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past</strong></td>
<td>I was</td>
<td>we/you/they were</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it was</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>I will be</td>
<td>we/you/they will be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb *to be* can be an auxiliary verb, combining with other verbs to form the *continuous* tenses.

- **Present continuous tense**: I am riding my bike.
- **Past continuous tense**: He was eating his lunch.
- **Future continuous tense**: She will be going home soon.

**Compound and auxiliary verbs**

Compound verbs are verbs that are made up of more than one word. They are made up from *auxiliary verbs* and *non-finite verbs* (infinitives or participles). They are also known as *verb phrases* or *verb groups*.

They are going to the movies.
John had been helping for some weeks.

Some auxiliary verbs that are used to show tense are:

- **have**: I have seen a lion.
- **be**: He is looking for his bag.
- **shall/will**: I will be finishing work soon.
- **do**: I do not see it that way.

I have seen a lion.

**Auxiliary verb: have**

**Regular and irregular verbs**

Most verbs form their tenses in a regular, or predictable, way.

Forms of the verb *to kick*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td>I kick</td>
<td>we/you/they kick</td>
<td>kicking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you kick</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it kicks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past</strong></td>
<td>I kicked</td>
<td>we/you/they kicked</td>
<td>kicked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you kicked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it kicked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>I will kick</td>
<td>we/you/they will kick</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you will kick</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he/she/it will kick</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The important thing to remember is that the past tense and the past participle usually add the ending -ed to the infinitive. This ending may sometimes be shortened to -d or -t:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) learn</td>
<td>learned</td>
<td>learnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes the past tense of the verb is the same as the past participle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where this occurs, the verb is said to be a weak verb.

**Irregular verbs**

Some verbs change their spelling in the past tense and past participle. These are called irregular verbs, because they do not follow the normal pattern. Irregular verbs are also called strong verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(to) ring</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) see</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here are some common irregular verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arisen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become</td>
<td>became</td>
<td>become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chosen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>eaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fly</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>knew</td>
<td>known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lie</td>
<td>lay</td>
<td>lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>spoke</td>
<td>spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wear</td>
<td>wore</td>
<td>worn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>written</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**REMEMBER**

Don’t confuse the past tense with the past participle! It’s easy to get it right because the past participle is preceded by a part of another verb, usually the verb to have.
An adverb adds meaning to, or modifies, verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

An adverb is also called a circumstance, or part of a circumstance.

In the following sentences, the adverbs are highlighted:

I ran quickly.  
Quickly is an adverb. It adds meaning to the verb ran—it tells how I ran.

I am a very fast runner.  
In this sentence, very is an adverb. It adds meaning to the adjective fast—it tells how fast a runner I am.

You run too quickly for me.  
In this sentence, too is an adverb. It adds meaning to the adverb quickly—it tells how quickly you run.

Types of adverbs
There are four main types of adverbs: adverbs of manner, adverbs of time, adverbs of place and adverbs of reason.

• Adverbs of manner tell how something is done:
  I walked slowly.

• Adverbs of time tell when something is done:
  I ran yesterday.

• Adverbs of place tell where something is done:
  I ran there.

• Adverbs of reason tell why something is done:
  Therefore I argue …

REMEmber
Adverbs tell how, when, where and why.

There are other types of adverbs, too. It is important to learn how to recognise them.

• Interrogative adverbs
  An interrogative adverb is an adverb that asks a question. In the following sentences, the interrogative adverbs are highlighted:
    When did you get here?
    How are you?
    Where did she come from?
    Why are you laughing?
• Negative adverbs
Negative adverbs are adverbs that make sentences negative. In the following sentences, the negative adverbs are highlighted:

I do not agree.
I will not do it!

Never do that again!

Negative adverbs are often expressed as contractions. (See Apostrophes, p. 54.) The verb and the negative adverb are joined to make one shorter word:

don’t
won’t
isn’t
haven’t

• Modal adverbs
A modal adverb is an adverb that shows the amount of probability, certainty, ability or obligation in a sentence.

We will probably fly to the beach.

Modal adverb

Yes, probably, possibly, certainly and definitely are examples of modal adverbs. They are used to agree or to express doubt.
(See also Modal adjectives p. 15 and Modal verbs p. 19.)

• Numerical adverbs
Numerical adverbs tell how often something took place:

He called her twice.

• Adverbs of degree
An adverb of degree tells us to what extent something happens:

The train almost crashed.

The plane flew extremely fast.

Words like almost, hardly, enough and extremely are adverbs of degree. They also tell us how, so they can be called adverbs of manner, too.

REMEMBER

Adverbs add meaning to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. They do not add meaning to nouns.

Adverbs and the -ly ending
Many adverbs end in -ly.

I can hardly see. She is nearly ten.

Remember, though, that some -ly words can also be adjectives:

He was a kindly man. In this sentence, kindly is an adjective, because it adds meaning to the noun man.

The early bird catches the worm. In this sentence, early is an adjective, because it adds meaning to the noun bird.
You will always be able to tell the difference between adverbs and adjectives. Adverbs add meaning to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. Adjectives only add meaning to nouns and pronouns.

### More about adverbs

#### Adverbs and degree

Like adjectives, adverbs have three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative.

Adverbs with the -ly ending don’t change their spelling to form the comparative and superlative, they simply add the adverbs *more* and *most*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quietly</td>
<td>more quietly</td>
<td>most quietly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loudly</td>
<td>more loudly</td>
<td>most loudly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>softly</td>
<td>more softly</td>
<td>most softly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clearly</td>
<td>more clearly</td>
<td>most clearly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Positive: The dog howled loudly.
Comparative: The wolf howled more loudly.
Superlative: The dog howled most loudly!

Not all adverbs have the -ly ending. In fact, many look like adjectives. Some even form their comparative and superlative in the same way as adjectives—by adding the -er and -est endings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>harder</td>
<td>hardest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>longer</td>
<td>longest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
<td>earlier</td>
<td>earliest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### REMEMBER

Some words can be adverbs and adjectives—it just depends on the job that they do in the sentence!

A few adverbs form degrees of comparison in an irregular way.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badly</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prepositions

Prepositions are usually found in front of nouns or pronouns to form a phrase:

- **on** the table
- **near** him

Phrases like the ones above are called *prepositional phrases*. The preposition has a close relationship with the noun or pronoun that follows it:

- **on** the table
- **near** him

A preposition in a phrase governs the noun or pronoun in the *objective case*. This means that when a preposition is followed by a pronoun, the pronoun must be in the objective case: *me, him, her, us, them* or *whom*.

- I gave the skateboard **to** him.
- Dad shared the lollies **between** Mark and **me**.

Be careful with prepositional phrases involving the pronoun *me*. A lot of people make the mistake of saying or writing *I* when they should say or write *me*.

Don't say: *X* Mum gave the toys to Sarah and I.
Say: *✓* Mum gave the toys to Sarah and **me**.

In the sentence above, the pronoun **me** is the object of the preposition **to**.

A good way to work out whether to use *I* or *me* is to take out the other people involved. If we take out Sarah and, we are left with:

*Mum gave the toys to [Sarah and] me.*

Prepositions are usually short words, although some, like *underneath*, are long.

Here are some common prepositions. There are many more.

- across
- beneath
- into
- over
- before
- after
- between
- like
- past
- in
- among
- during
- near
- to
- on
- around
- from
- of
- up
- with

More about prepositions

**Special prepositions**

Some prepositions are always used with certain nouns, adjectives, or verbs, or in certain phrases.

- ✓ We say: The team ran **onto** the pitch.
- ✗ Not: The team ran **into** the pitch.
You know which preposition to use in most cases because it sounds right when you say it. *We are pleased with things; we rely on things and we bring things under control.*

Some special prepositions need special attention.

We say:
- ✓ different from ✓ between two ✓ among three (or more)
- Not:
- ✗ different to ✗ among two ✗ between three (or more)

**Prepositions and adverbs**

It is important not to confuse adverbs with prepositions. They may look exactly the same. You will know the difference because of the way the word is used.

I fell **down**. In this sentence, **down** is an adverb of place; it tells where I fell.

I rowed **down** the river. In this sentence, **down** is a preposition. It governs the noun **river**.

Another useful point to remember is that the preposition usually has a noun or pronoun after it.

I jumped **up**. In this sentence, **up** is an adverb. It is not followed by a noun or preposition.

I ran **up** the hill. In this sentence, **up** is a preposition. It is followed by the noun **hill**.

Note that the whole phrase, **up the hill**, does the job of an adverb and is called an **adverbial phrase**. It contains the preposition **up**.

**Conjunctions**

*A conjunction is a joining word. Conjunctions help to hold texts together.*

In the following sentences, the conjunctions are highlighted:

The bat hit the ball **and** the ball hit me.

I ate a sandwich **when** I got home from school.

Conjunctions help to link different parts of a sentence. They make the different parts **cohere**, or hold together. ([See Cohesion, p. 60, Connectives, p. 61.])

There are two main types of conjunctions: **coordinating conjunctions** and **subordinating conjunctions**.

**Coordinating conjunctions**

A coordinating conjunction is a conjunction that links words, phrases or clauses that are grammatically ‘equal’. That is, they are equally important to the meaning of a sentence.

I wore a hat **and** scarf to the snow.

I went skiing **but** didn’t go tobogganning.
Conjunctions usually join the same or similar parts of a text together:

- wet and cold
- tired but happy
- apple or pear

Coordinating conjunctions also join compound words and phrases:

- Mary Jones and Pablo Lopes on the beach and in the water

Coordinating conjunctions can also join separate sentences into a single sentence:

Without a conjunction: This is his book. That is her book.

With a conjunction: This is his book and that is her book.

Here are some common coordinating conjunctions:

- and
- but
- for
- nor
- or
- so
- yet

My aunt gave me a shirt but I didn’t like it.

Subordinating conjunctions

Some conjunctions join parts of sentences called clauses. A subordinating conjunction is a conjunction that introduces a subordinate clause. (See Clauses, p. 42.)

A subordinate clause is dependent upon the main clause. It cannot exist without it.

I want to be a pilot when I grow up.

This sentence contains two clauses, I want to be a pilot and when I grow up.

The clause when I grow up is subordinate to, or dependent on, the clause I want to be a pilot. When I grow up doesn’t make sense by itself. The word that joins the two clauses is when. This is called a subordinating conjunction.

Here are some common subordinating conjunctions:

- after
- before
- though
- whenever
- although
- once
- unless
- where
- as
- since
- until
- because
- than
- when
- while

REMEMBER

A clause is a group of words that contains a finite verb and its subject. There can be more than one clause in a sentence.

More examples of subordinating conjunctions:

- I’m all right once I get started.
- I can’t get into the house until Mum comes home.
- This is the place where I go to school.

Correlative conjunctions

Some conjunctions exist in pairs. These conjunctions are called correlative conjunctions.

The most common correlative conjunctions are:

- both ... and
- neither ... nor
- whether ... or
- as ... as
- either ... or
- not only ... but also
- not ... but
The batsman was not only stumped but also caught. Neither Alberto nor Maria is in my class.

Articles
An article describes a noun and is a special kind of adjective.

There are only three articles:
- the
- a
- an

The is called the definite article. A and an are called indefinite articles. (See Demonstrative adjectives, p. 14.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Pacific Ocean</th>
<th>A river</th>
<th>An ocean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definite article</td>
<td>Indefinite article</td>
<td>Indefinite article</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definite article
The is the definite article. It is called definite because it refers to a particular thing or things.

- The video game is really hard to complete!
- I would like the steamed dumplings, please.

Indefinite article
A and an are indefinite articles. These articles refer to general, rather than particular, things.

- Wear a coat, as it is very cold.
- An owl is in the tree.

A coat refers to any coat, not a particular or special one. An refers to any owl, not a particular or special one.

- A is used in front of a consonant: a coat
- An is used in front of a vowel: an owl

Interjections
An interjection is a word that is ‘thrown in’ to interrupt the flow of conversation or writing. Interjections usually express a strong feeling about something.

Ouch! That hurt.
Eek! What was that noise?
Ugh! I don’t like tomato.

Interjection
Interjections are usually followed by an exclamation mark and, therefore, are types of exclamations.

Here are some examples of interjections:

- Oh!
- Oops!
- Wow!
- Ah!
- Ouch!
- Phew!
Parsing

The word *parsing* comes from the Latin word *pars* meaning ‘part’. When you parse a sentence, you identify the name and function of each word. That is, you state the job that each word is doing.

Here is an example of parsing:

The hungry tiger watched them closely.

1. Start by naming each part of speech in the sentence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The</th>
<th>hungry</th>
<th>tiger</th>
<th>watched</th>
<th>them</th>
<th>closely.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>article</td>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>noun</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>pronoun</td>
<td>adverb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Then, say what you know about each part of speech:

- **The**
  - definite article

- **hungry**
  - descriptive adjective modifying the noun *tiger*

- **tiger**
  - common noun, third person;
  - singular number;
  - common gender (masculine or feminine);
  - subjective case, subject of the verb *watched*

- **watched**
  - transitive, finite verb;
  - third person, singular number to agree with its subject, *tiger*;
  - past tense, indicative mood, active voice

- **them**
  - personal pronoun;
  - third person;
  - plural number;
  - common gender;
  - objective case after the verb *watched*

- **closely**
  - adverb of manner modifying the verb *watched*

Today, we are more interested in the functions of words in a text as a whole, and how texts work in real-life situations.