The briefest English grammar ever!

For English speakers who didn’t learn grammar at school

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Designed for English speakers who didn’t learn grammar at school, particularly those now learning another language via a method based on grammar

Ruth Colman
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When English speakers begin to learn other languages they often find themselves being taught via methods that assume they have a basic knowledge of English grammar.

Some of us, however, have come through a school system that taught little or nothing of the way our language is structured. We recognise when things “sound right” or “sound wrong” but we cannot say why. We now want to study a second language, to read it or speak it or both, and we are non-plussed when the teacher says, “In German the verb comes at the end of the clause”, or “That’s the indirect object.”

I hope this little book will fill a gap and give you the basics, whether you want to learn another language or not, and if you do, whether your aimed-for second language is Spanish, Anindilyakwa, New Testament Greek, Swahili or anything else.

Don’t forget that many languages don’t have direct equivalents of all our classes of words or all our grammatical structures. Some systems of grammar are simpler than the English system, some are more complex, and some are simply different.
Intro

How do we identify and classify words and groups of words? Whatever the language, it’s a matter of function.

When people want to speak, they need ways of . . .

• indicating things and people
• talking about actions
• describing things
• describing actions
• showing how things relate to other things
• joining sections of speech

In English we call these words . . .

• nouns and pronouns
• verbs
• adjectives
• adverbs
• prepositions
• conjunctions

Quite often there is overlap. Words don’t always fit neatly into the categories we think they should be in. Sometimes a group of words performs the function of one word, and some words have more than one function. But by and large the outlines in this booklet cover most situations. As you go through it you will find new meanings for some common English words – which simply indicates that grammar has its jargon just like any other field of study.
Sentences

Sentences are groups of words that make complete sense. When you give me a sentence I know you have told me or asked me something complete.

Sentences can be short . . .
- Susan lives there.
- Where are you going?

or longer.
- Sedimentary rocks, wherever they are, tell us about ancient climatic conditions, and geological events that happened in the area during the time the sediments were deposited.

Sentences can be statements . . .
- John hasn’t paid his rent for two months.
- All these toys were made by Uncle Joe.

or questions . . .
- Are you well?
- Have they finished painting the house?

or commands.
- Come to the office at ten.
- Stop!
Here’s an exercise (the only one in the book).

Which of the following are sentences and which are not? Can you tell why? Full stops and capitals have been omitted.

- the house on the hill
- he’s finished the story
- in the cupboard
- but whenever we see him
- she won the award for the best supporting role
- they don’t know where you are
- down the street and over the bridge
- completed only months before
- when she ran across the line
- it’s made of cotton
- shake the bottle well before you open it
- made from 100% cotton
- the lady who lives next door
- he found it on the floor behind the sofa
- she’ll tell you how to make it

If you can tell which are sentences and which are not, by “intuition”, that’s enough for the present. You can come back to it later with a bit more knowledge.
Claususes and phrases

A clause is a group of words containing one finite verb (see page 15). It is often only a section of a sentence. Here is a sentence with two clauses.

You’ll need to speak to the person who arranges the timetables.

Together these clauses make a complete sentence. The first clause could be a sentence on its own, but the second couldn’t unless we gave it an initial capital and a question mark.

Some sentences have only one clause.

He bought it this morning.

Some have more.

Old Alf revved the engine and off they went towards the river mouth while we waited on the jetty until they were out of sight.

A phrase is also a group of words. It is a looser structure than a clause. It is short, doesn’t have a finite verb (it may not have a verb at all) but it functions as a kind of unit. Here are some examples:
• under the table
• in the drawer
• eating peanuts
• after the exams
• hundreds of fish
• through the door

We haven’t got far, but at this stage we will leave clauses and phrases for a while, and look instead at words, the raw material of our communications. When we have tried to identify and classify words, we will be able to return with greater understanding to consider clauses in more detail, and to examine their different kinds.
Words — and their functions

We classify words according to the work they do. If you’ve heard of parts of speech it simply means classes of words, grouped according to function.

We will deal with them in the following order:

Nouns the names of things
Pronouns the he me them words
Verbs the action words
Adjectives the describing words
Adverbs the how when where words
Prepositions the to in at words

And a few other bits and pieces.

Now for a bit more detail (but not too much).
Nouns

A noun is the name of something: a thing or a person or a place, or even a feeling or a state of mind.

* house  Jane  delight  pencils  Paris

There are four kinds of nouns.

Common nouns are the names of ordinary things we can see or touch:

* house  chicken  banana  boy  town

Proper* nouns are the names of particular or special things or persons or places. In English they have an initial capital.

* Adelaide  Michael  Christmas  April

Collective nouns are names for groups of things or people:

* crowd  class  flock  choir  fleet

Abstract nouns are the names of things we can’t touch or “put in a box”. We often use these ones without saying a or an or the.

* pain  pleasure  beauty  wisdom  sunshine

* Doesn’t mean the rest are improper
Your teachers may talk about the **case** of nouns (and pronouns). They will mention nouns as being **subjects** and **objects** of verbs. We’ll deal with the notion of grammatical case on page 11, in connection with pronouns, and again when we discuss verbs.
Pronouns

Conversation would sound very strange if we had no pronouns. These are the words we use when we want to refer to people or things without continually repeating their names. If we really wanted to, we could say:

*I saw Snoopy this morning. Snoopy came early to get Snoopy’s books.*

It’s much more convenient to use some pronouns:

*I saw Snoopy this morning. He came early to get his books.*

Below is a table of personal pronouns, arranged according to “person”. You will work out what “person” means in grammar as you study the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Subject pronouns</th>
<th>Object pronouns</th>
<th>Possessive pronouns</th>
<th>Reflexive or emphatic pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>my, mine</td>
<td>myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td></td>
<td>us</td>
<td>our, ours</td>
<td>ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>your, yours</td>
<td>yourself, yourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular and plural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>he/she</td>
<td>him/her</td>
<td>his, his/her/hers</td>
<td>himself/herself/itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>its (with no apostrophe)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>their, theirs</td>
<td>themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A case of case

If you are learning another language, then depending on what it is, you may very soon hear about **case**. You will encounter it in relation to nouns and pronouns. Modern English doesn’t worry very much about case, but we do have some vestiges of old cases in our pronouns, so we’ll use them to illustrate.

When a small child says, “Me like Timmy”, we smile, knowing that the little speaker will soon pick up the correct form and say, “I like Timmy” (provided of course that Timmy remains in favour). In grammatical terms the child has made a mistake in case, using the object form **me** instead of the subject form **I**.

(With this in mind, think about the growing tendency to say things like, “Her and her mother do the shopping together.” Would we say, “Her does the shopping”?)

The table on the previous page shows other forms for pronouns besides subject and object, but beyond these, English does very little in the matter of case. Some languages have different forms, usually shown by different word endings, not only for subject and object, but for other purposes as well. The differing endings are called inflections, and English, over the centuries, has dropped most of its noun and pronoun inflections in favour of other ways of showing meaning.
As well as personal pronouns, there are also

**Relative pronouns**

who    whose    whom    which    that

We use these in contexts such as

- I’ve just met the man who designed it.
- Isn’t that the boy whose story was on TV?
- The book that they really want is out of print.

The relative pronoun whom is not very popular these days, but it is still used in formal contexts.

- To whom should we direct our complaint?

We often omit whom, which and that

- She’s the one (whom) we want to see.
- Here are the cakes (which or that) you ordered.

And there are

**Interrogative pronouns**, the same words as the relative pronouns, but with different functions.

- Whose is this desk?
- Which cup do you want?

and **indefinite pronouns**

anyone    somebody    everything    etc.
Verbs

Verbs are the doing, being, having words. Their basic forms are the forms you find in the dictionary, and you can put to in front.

\[ \text{to eat} \quad \text{to write} \quad \text{to sing} \]

The “to” form is called the infinitive. It’s the one they used to tell us not to split.

Verbs can be

- **one word**
  
  He finished the work yesterday.
  
  I have the tools you want.
  
  This tea is awful!

- **two words**
  
  Sam is coming. (or Sam’s coming)
  
  Sam is not coming.
  
  He was running round in circles.
  
  Have you started yet?

- **three words**
  
  I’ll be seeing them later. (will be seeing)
  
  That chapter has been printed already.
  
  She will have finished by then.

- **more than three**
  
  By September they will have been living here for two years.
Verbs and their subjects

Every finite verb has what is called a subject. That’s the person or thing that does the action. It will be a noun or a pronoun, and in an English statement it comes before the verb. To find the subject of a verb, therefore, you simply need to ask yourself Who? or What? before the verb. Whodunnit! In the examples that follow, the subjects are circled and the verbs are underlined.

- In 1987 they left the city.
- Graham drives a vintage Holden.
- I think the train arrives at three.

In questions we either reverse the order:

- Is she here?
- Were you sick this morning?

or divide the verb into two parts, separated by the noun or pronoun that is the subject.

- Did they go home?
- Do the Johnsons live here?
- Can she do it?
- Was the cat sleeping on your bed again?
Finite verbs

We have already said that a finite verb has a subject, and that the subject is the doer of the action.

Look at the following sentence.

Thinking he heard a knock, he went out to check.

In this sentence there are four words that suggest action: thinking, heard, went, check. Are they all finite? We can eliminate check because it has to in front of it, so we already know it is an infinitive. Do the other three have clear subjects? We ask Who? or What? before each one. There is nothing at all before thinking, so we can eliminate it too.* That leaves heard and went. Who heard? Who went? Each of these is preceded by the pronoun he. So each has a subject, and each is complete. Both, therefore, are finite.

Verbs and their objects

As well as subjects, verbs often have objects (but not always). The object is the person or thing having the action done to it, so again it will be a noun or a pronoun. Look at two of our earlier sentences again.

* thinking is a participle. See page 20.
• In 1987 they left the city.
• Graham drives a vintage Holden.

More examples:
• Take the medicine every morning.
• He forgot the map and lost his way.

If a verb has an object it is called a transitive verb. If not, it’s called an intransitive verb. (Predictable.)

The objects we have just looked at are direct objects. There are also indirect objects. They too will be either nouns or pronouns.

• I gave him the letter.

In this sentence the letter is the direct object, and him is the indirect object. You can work out the next three for yourself.

• Then the officer asked me three questions.
• Did Sue give her mother the flowers?
• I’ll tell you the answer later.
Verbs active and verbs passive

Some verbs are said to be **active**. With active verbs the subject actually performs the action.

- He arrived in an old blue truck.
- I hope she gets here soon.
- When will they be coming?
- They live in Oodnadatta.
- We were watching the news when Helen came.

Some verbs are said to be **passive**. With passive verbs the subject has the action done to it. Isn’t this a direct contradiction of what we said before? The sentences that follow should help.

- The old blue truck was still driven regularly.
- Has the parcel been sent yet?
- These shoes were made in Brazil.
- All the documents will be shredded.

We use both forms in everyday speech. Why the two forms? When do we use the passive form?

- When the action is more important than the doer.
  *I’m afraid his arm has been broken.*

- When we don’t know the doer, or it doesn’t matter.
  *These shoes were made in Brazil.*
• When we don’t want to accuse anyone.
  *My book’s been torn.*

• In wide-ranging general statements.
  *Football is played all over the world.*

• In public notices and formal documents.
  *Trespassers will be prosecuted.*

• In scientific writing.
  *The test was administered three times.*

**Verbs and their tenses**

Whichever language we speak we need some way of indicating when an action is done. Some languages, including English, do this by altering the forms of their verbs. We call these forms **tenses**, and the different verb-endings, like the different endings for nouns and pronouns, are called inflections.

Consider the following sets of sentences. For convenience we will use the pronoun *I* for the subject of the verb each time. You can work out the forms for the other subjects such as *he, we, they* and so on, if they differ.

• *I lived* there ten years ago.
• *I was living* there at the time.
• *I used to live* there.
• *I had lived* there before I met him.
• *I did live* there.
These are all ways of indicating something happening in the past.

What about the present?

- I live there.
- I’m living there at present.
- I do live there.
- I have lived there.
  (This “past” has a present significance.)

What about the future?

- One day I will live there.
- I’ll be living there then.
- I’m going to live there next year.
- By December I will have lived there two years.

Bigger grammar books will have names for all these verb forms, so you can look them up if you need to. Your target language may have a simpler verb system than English has, but if it does it will have other ways of showing time. On the other hand, it may have far more complex verbs than English has.
Regular verbs? Irregular verbs?

The verb to live, which we have just looked at, is a regular verb in English. Maybe you have never thought about bits of language being regular or irregular. But consider:

\[
\begin{align*}
&I \text{ live} & I \text{ lived} & I \text{ have lived} \\
&I \text{ help} & I \text{ helped} & I \text{ have helped} \\
&I \text{ consider} & I \text{ considered} & I \text{ have considered} \\
\end{align*}
\]

These verbs are regular. They “obey the rules”.

But

\[
\begin{align*}
&I \text{ write} & I \text{ wrote} & I \text{ have written} \\
&I \text{ eat} & I \text{ ate} & I \text{ have eaten} \\
&I \text{ sleep} & I \text{ slept} & I \text{ have slept} \\
&I \text{ drive} & I \text{ drove} & I \text{ have driven} \\
\end{align*}
\]

These verbs are not at all regular. They go their own individual ways.

Participles

There are two other verb forms in English that you may find it useful to know about. They are called participles. There are present participles and past participles. Present participles are easy. They’re the -ing forms.
Add -ing to any English verb and you have a present participle. Use a present participle along with am, is, are, was, were, have been etc and you get the continuous tenses: was going, are sailing, am trying and the rest.

**Past participles** are less simple. The regular ones (see regular verbs, previous page) just take -ed as an ending, or -d if they already end in e. The irregular ones do their own thing, so we get eaten, written, gone, driven, had, drawn and scores of others.

Participles by themselves are not finite. We don’t use them by themselves. We don’t say, for instance, he drawn, I eaten. The fact that we do say, he worked and they helped simply shows that with regular verbs the past participle and the simple past tense are identical. You will learn to recognise them by their functions in context.

**Auxiliaries**

More jargon. Look at this sentence:

*He will be staying there for three weeks.*

The complete verb in the sentence is will be staying. You already know that staying is a present participle.
The words *will* and *be* are called auxiliary verbs. In primary school they used to be called helping verbs. If you look back at other verbs we have discussed you will recognise other auxiliaries, *have* and *am* to name just two.

Most auxiliaries are also finite verbs in their own right when they are used alone, but auxiliaries when they are used in conjunction with participles.

**Imperatives**

These are the verbs for instructions and commands. They don't take different forms in English, but they may in other languages. There are two examples at the bottom of page 3. Go back and look them up. (There's another example for you — two in fact.)

Here are some more:

- *Watch your step!*
- *Beat the butter and sugar together.*
- *Put your toys away, please.*
- *Take the next turn to the right.*
Direct and indirect (reported) speech

Have you ever noticed how we alter our verbs when we report what someone has said?

He said, “I’m going fishing.”

If we report this to someone else some time later, we’ll say,

He said he was going fishing.

Try playing around with some more examples. You’ll think of plenty.
Adjectives

These are the words that describe things.

- *This possum's usual home is the wet forest.*
- *Why does she keep that rickety old bike?*
- *Are they clever?*
- *Oxygen is colourless, tasteless, odourless and abundant.*

Most adjectives are always adjectives. That is, we don’t use them as verbs or nouns or anything else.

- *wild*
- *long*
- *irregular*
- *conscientious*
- *wide*
- *beautiful*
- *expensive*
- *cool*

But some adjectives look like verbs. In fact they are parts of verbs, but they do the work of adjectives.

- *an exciting story*
- *an excited child*
- *a boring lesson*
- *bored students*
- *a painted picture*
- *a writing implement*

Other adjectives look like nouns. They are nouns doing the work of adjectives. English has plenty of them.

- *Give him his account.*
- *Here's the account book.*
- *Mine is a big family.*
- *Our shop is a family concern.*
Look again at the first two sample sentences on the previous page.

*This possum’s usual home is the wet forest.*

*Why does she keep that rickety old bike?*

*This* and *that* in such contexts are also considered to be adjectives. They are called demonstrative adjectives. Their plurals, of course, are *these* and *those*. Some grammars and dictionaries see these as articles (determiners). See page 29.

**Comparison of adjectives**

- cheap    cheaper    cheapest
- long      longer     longest
- happy     happier    happiest*

*But* good    better    best
  bad      worse     worst

The -er form is called the **comparative**. The -est form is called the **superlative**.

For longer words we say (for instance)

- expensive    more expensive    most expensive
- annoying     more annoying     most annoying
- intelligible more intelligible most intelligible

* note the spelling of this one. Other adjectives ending in -y follow the same pattern.
Adverbs

They used to say that adverbs tell how, when and where a thing is done. You’d expect, therefore, to find adverbs connected to verbs, and that’s where they mostly are, not always alongside, but still connected.

“No”, he said, and laughed loudly.

They come here often.

We’ve carefully planned all the moves.

Please arrive punctually.

There are adverbs of:

- **manner**: wisely, happily, clumsily, honestly, well, fast, hard

  Wisely, she locked the medicine chest.

  Well done!

- **time**: yesterday, then, later, frequently

  Can you come later?
This adverb is connected not to the verb but to the adjective ready.

Then there are adverbs for asking questions.


Where was Jack going? Why did he fall down? And how did he break his crown?

There are comparative and superlative forms for adverbs of manner, just as there are for adjectives.

wisely more wisely most wisely
happily more happily most happily
effectively more effectively most effectively

But
well better best
Prepositions

Here are all those words, usually little ones, like

to, in, at, from, by, before

which tell us how something is positioned or done in relation to something else. We use them for place, for time and in abstract ideas.

place
- in his bag
- behind the tree
- through the window
- on your desk

time
- before three o’clock
- in September
- during the night
- from Monday to Thursday

abstract
- in tune
- a difference to your studies
- information about the program
- a third of the total

Sometimes we can get a whole string of prepositional phrases in the one sentence, separated by commas.

Off went the pup at high speed, out of the room, down the stairs, out the door, across the garden and into the street, with Joey after him.
Conjunctions

These are words that join ideas. The ideas may be single words . . .

yellow and blue

or lengthy clauses:

I want to get there as early as possible so I’ll take the 6:30 train.

Other common conjunctions are

or     but     because     if

Articles (or determiners)

a    an    the    some    any    other    another
this    that    these    those    (and a few more)

Not all the grammarians agree about some of these, so you may find some dictionaries classify them differently. In traditional grammars the is known as the definite articles, and a and an as the indefinite articles.

Some in this list have more than one function, so the dictionaries may give them more than one label. This, that, these and those, for instance, are also known as demonstrative adjectives, as you saw on page 25.
Exclamations
(interjections)

Hey!

Wow!

Ouch!

Marvellous!

There’s not much to say about these, but it is convenient to have a label for them.
More about clauses

We’ve looked at nouns, and the work they do, and at adjectives and adverbs and the work they do. Let’s go back now to clauses, and see how a whole clause can function like a noun or an adjective or an adverb. We’ll start with noun clauses, since nouns were the first class of words we studied.

Noun clauses

*We all know this policy is controversial.*
(We all know *something*.)

*She said she needed a new chair.*
(She said *something*.)

*That the old chair was falling apart was clear to everyone.*
(*Something was clear to everyone.*)

*Whether we go tomorrow depends largely on Jack.*
(*Something depends largely on Jack.*)

These whole clauses function as nouns. You can put the word *something* in their place and it makes sense. It may not be brilliant sense, but it is sense.
Like a noun, a noun clause can be the subject of a verb. The noun clause in the third example is the subject of *was* *(clear)*. The one in the fourth example is the subject of *depends*.

Or it can be the object of a verb. The noun clause in the first example is the object of *know*. The one in the second example is the object of *said*.

**Adjective clauses**

An adjective, you recall, describes a noun. An adjective clause does the same. We saw some of these in the section on pronouns, because an adjective clause often starts with a relative pronoun such as *who, which, that* or *whom*. It would be a good idea at this stage to read that section again. It's on page 12.

Here are some more examples. The adjective clause is circled, and the arrow points to the noun described.

*Here's the student* who knows all the answers.*

*This is the cat* that killed the rat*

*that ate the malt*

*that lay in the house*

*that Jack built.*
He wrote a long report in which he detailed the whole experiment.

I consulted my grandmother, a lady in whom I have great confidence.

The visitor centre will have all the information you need.

As you can see, in the last example there is no relative pronoun introducing the adjective clause. It is omitted but “understood”, and it could be either that or which.

**Adverb clauses**

If English has plenty of adverbs, which you remember are words that mostly describe actions, why should we have whole clauses instead of single words? Sometimes there is no single adverb that says what we want to say, so we string together a clause to do the job.

There are adverb clauses of:

**time**  
They came in when the rain started.

You’ll be notified of changes as they occur.

**place**  
I found my keys where I put them yesterday.
purpose/reason We’ll use the OHP so that everyone can see.

Because we were going to be away we asked the neighbours to collect our mail.

manner He fled as if the hounds were after him.

condition If it rains too much we’ll cancel it.

concession Holmes knows the answer, though he isn’t telling anyone.
In conclusion …

Obviously this little book barely scratches the surface of the subject of English grammar. You won’t find anything here about modals, subjunctives, the past perfect tense, or even countable or uncountable nouns.

But if it helps you in your everyday pursuits, or in your efforts to learn another language, it will have achieved its aim.

If it stimulates you to want to know more about the structures and idiosyncrasies of English, then go to the experts who have written much more detailed volumes. There are plenty to choose from.
Did you miss out on learning the basics of grammar at school?

Are you learning a foreign language and need to sort out your verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs?

Ruth Colman’s highly successful, user-friendly *The briefest English grammar ever!* comes to the rescue. It clearly and simply explains how language works and functions.