

Word classes (Parts of speech)

A word class (or **form class**) is a group of words behaving in the same way grammatically, particularly **morphologically**: using the same (inflectional) endings and thereby revealing their word class, and **syntactically** (i.e. assuming the same position within a sentence).

Nouns

Nouns are words used for naming some living creature (person, animal, mythological being, etc.), object (thing, plant, product, etc.), place, abstract quality (*strength*), concept (*morpheme*), action (*a run*), etc.

Syntactically, nouns are **heads of noun phrases** and are often preceded by determiners (*a, the, some, any*); they function as the **subject, object, or complement** of a clause.

Grammatically, nouns can express differences between the singular and plural number by changing their form (as well as between the common and possessive/genitive case).

There are three basic classifications of nouns which bring the following divisions:

- **proper** nouns and **common** nouns;
- common nouns have **count (countable)** and **noncount (uncountable)** subtypes;
- common nouns (count as well as noncount) can be **concrete** or **abstract**.

- **Proper and common nouns**

Proper nouns designate specific people, places (towns, villages, countries, mountains, rivers, etc.), times (holidays), events, works of art (films, books, compositions, etc.), organisations, and so on.

Proper nouns differ from common nouns in the following:

- proper nouns in a written form have an **initial capital letter**;
- they can stand alone as a clause element (i.e. without a determiner): e.g. *Peter lives in Prague*, which usually is not the case with common nouns (it is possible with noncount nouns: *Life is good*, but *Would you like some wine?*)

Count nouns need to take a determiner: *The girl is pretty, We have a plan*, etc.);

- proper names do not usually have plural forms (**Britains*), whereas common nouns usually do (countable nouns: *cars, boys*; however, most uncountable nouns do not allow a plural: **airs, *satisfactions*).

- **Count and noncount (mass) common nouns**

Count nouns refer to individual, countable entities. They cannot stand alone in the singular, they take an indefinite (*a table*) or a definite article (*the table*). Count nouns allow a plural (*tables, cats*).

Noncount (also mass) nouns refer to an undifferentiated mass or notion (*iron, love, advice*). They may occur with *some* (*some water*) or *the* (*the advice*), but they do not allow a plural form (**informations*).

Some nouns can be both count and noncount, as the meaning differs (*experience = zkušenost: Does he have enough experience?; experience = zážitek: He told us about his experiences.*)

- **Concrete and abstract nouns**

Concrete nouns refer to observable and measurable entities (*cow, hill, water*).

Abstract nouns refer to unobservable notions which cannot be measured (*kindness, option, progress, education*).

Abstract nouns can be both noncount (*patience, medicine*) or count (*problem, debate*).

There are typical suffixes which create **concrete nouns** from:

- nouns: -er (*potter*), -ess (*lioness*), -ette (*usherette*), -let (*piglet*), -ling (*gosling*), -ster (*roadster*);
- nouns and adjectives: -ese (*Japanese*), -(i)an (*beautician*), -ist (*fundamentalist*);
- verbs: -er (*killer, reader*), -or (*sailor, terminator*), -ee (*devotee, trainee*);

and typical suffixes which form **abstract nouns** from:

- nouns: -dom (*kingdom*), -ful (*handful*), -hood (*childhood*), -(e)ry (*adultery*), -ing (*wiring*), -ism (*impressionism*), -ship (*friendship*)
- adjectives: -ity (*scarcity*), -ness (*loneliness*)
- verbs: -al (*approval*), -(a/i)tion (*confirmation*), -ing (*singing*), -ment (*development*).

English nouns are characterized by the grammatical features of **number, countability, definiteness, case, and gender**. Compared with Czech, no declension pattern is used in English, but countability and definiteness (given by the context) are distinguished in addition.

Number

Most English nouns have both a **singular** ("one") and **plural** ("more than one") form. These are **variable nouns**. **Invariable nouns** do not express a contrast in number.

- **Variable nouns**, when they change singular to plural, form a
 - **regular** plural form: by adding -s or -es (after the sibilants -s, -z, -x, -ch, -sh; after some nouns ending -o: *potatoes, heroes, tomatoes*, but: *studios, kilos, radios, volcano(e)s*, etc.; after nouns ending in a consonant + -y, where -y is replaced by -i-: *studies, ladies*);
 - **irregular** plural form, achieved by:
 - change of vowel (**mutation/umlaut**): *man*→*men*, *woman*→*women*, *foot*→*feet*, *tooth*→*teeth*,
 - adding -en (sometimes with a change of vowel, too): *ox*→*oxen*, *child*→*children*;
 - changing the final fricative -f(-) to -v- and adding [z]: *wife*→*wives*, *loaf*→*loaves*;
 - however, some cases allow both the regular and irregular plural:
scarf→*scarfs/scarves*, *dwarf*→*dwarfs/dwarves*, *hoof*→*hoofs/hooves*, *truth*→*truths*, etc.;
 - using **foreign plural endings**: Latin: *fungus*→*fungi*, *larva*→*larvae*, *medium*→*media*, *index*→*indices*, Greek: *criterion*→*criteria*, *crisis*→*crises*, French: *chateau*→*chateaux*, etc. Often such foreign-based nouns use the regular plural ending as an alternative (*forum*→*fora/forums*), or in a different sense (*medium*→*mediums* x *media*), or as the only possible ending (*prefix*→*prefixes*).
- **Invariable nouns** are divided into:
 - **singular-only**:
 - noncount nouns (*love, music*);
 - proper nouns (*Spain, Prague, Havel*);
 - names of subjects (*mathematics, stylistics*), diseases (*mumps, measles*), and games (*darts, billiards*), where the -s ending is misleading;
 - **plural-only**
 - collective nouns whose form looks singular (*police, cattle, people, poultry, folk*);

- nouns naming two-part items (*trousers, scissors, glasses*);
- nouns lacking the singular and ending in *-s* (*thanks, outskirts, annals*);
- **double-plural**: such nouns allow both the **regular plural** ending in *-s* and the **zero plural**, i.e. one without an ending (*to see two ducks x go shooting duck* - the meaning is 'a category of game', not individual animals).

Some **semantically variable** nouns have **the same form for singular and plural**:

- some names of animals (*sheep, deer, fish*);
- nationality nouns (identical with adjectives) (*Japanese, Swiss, Swedish*);
- nouns with equivocal number (*series, aircraft*);
- quantitative nouns (*dozen, quid, p (= pence)*);
- some collective nouns (*staff, crew*).

Countability

Countable nouns denote separate entities, contrary to **uncountable/noncount/mass nouns** which denote an undifferentiated mass.

Partitives

Partitive constructions enable both count and noncount nouns express the part-whole relation. They allow **noncount nouns** to express **number** since partitives are usually **countable nouns** denoting a part (*piece, kind, sort, ...*), combined with *of* + a noncount noun.

Partitive expressions relate to **quantity** or **quality**, and they may be **singular** or **plural**.¹

Partitive constructions contain **partitive nouns** of several types:

- **general** partitives (*a piece of cake/metal/advice/music*)
- **typical** partitives (*a bar of soap/chocolate, a ...*)
- **measure** partitives (*a pint of beer, a barrel of oil, an ounce of gold, a kilo of sugar*)

Some partitives are used to refer to the **plural** (*a pride of lions, a skulk of foxes, a flock of birds, a crowd of people, a swarm of flies, a covey of partridges*).

Reclassification

Reclassification is another way of transforming noncount nouns into count: noncount *cheese, beer, coffee, fish*, etc. are extended by the plural inflection. The plural forms then either mean 'different types/sorts/varieties, etc. of' (*Bohemian beers, the selected coffees, the fishes of the Caribbean*) or plural number (*three coffees* < ellipted and adapted from *three cups of coffee*).

Definiteness

Definiteness conveys the information whether the referent of a noun is

- general
- individual
 - specific, identifiable → referred to by the definite article.
 - non-specific

Definiteness is signalled by the use of **determiners**² (**articles and pronouns**).

Reference, carried out by determiners, is of two types:³

¹ Greenbaum, S., Quirk, R.: *A Student's Grammar of the English language*, pp. 71-72.

² See 8.8. Other word classes: Determiners.

³ For more see Hladký, J., Růžička, M.: *A Functional Onomatology of English*, pp. 50-53.

- generic (count nouns can be both singular and plural; both the definite and indefinite article is used in the singular: *a/the banker must be honest, bankers must be honest*);
- specific
 - definite (reference through the definite article in count, as well as noncount nouns: *the boy, the boys, the music*)
 - indefinite (definite articles are not used: *a boy, boys, some boys; water, some water*).

Case

Modern English only has two cases:

- the **common case** - the noun has no specific ending,
- the **genitive (adnominal, possessive) case**, also called the Saxon genitive - formed by adding the grammatical morpheme 's to the singular of a noun. In plurals which are formed regularly an -s ending is already used, so the genitive case is marked in writing by adding the apostrophe (*the ladies' voices*). Irregular plural forms add 's (*children's literature*).

The genitive mainly expresses

- **possession** (*Paul's office*), but other meanings are expressed too, particularly:⁴
- **subjective** (*my sister's approval* < *My sister approves of it.*)
- **objective** (*the official's removal* < *They removed the official / The official was removed from his office.*)
- **origin** (*Faulkner's novels* < *novels written by Faulkner*)
- **descriptive** (*children's book*)
- **quantity** (*two weeks' holiday* < *holiday lasting two weeks*)

Gender

English nouns (and pronouns) **do not have grammatical gender** (masculine, feminine; sometimes neuter) as these word classes have in Czech, German, French, Spanish, etc. The grammatical gender groups nouns into gender classes according to their endings or the way they pattern with other words in the noun phrase. It is sometimes based on the natural gender (Cz. *muž* - masculine), but not necessarily (Cz. *děvče* or Ger. *das Mädchen* - neuter). A large group of nouns in such languages cannot reflect any biological sex of their referents, thus their gender is purely grammatical (Cz. *stůl* - masculine, Cz. *židle* - feminine). English gender is **notional** and it often identifies natural gender, distinguishing:

- animate beings x inanimate entities
- personal beings x nonpersonal beings
- male sex x female sex.

- **Inanimate** nouns are referred to by pronouns *it* and *which*. (*There is a book on the table. It is the book which my parents gave me.*)

Sometimes inanimate nouns are given feminine (cars and lorries, boats and ships, guns, countries, e.g. *Italy protects her cultural heritage.*) or masculine gender (computers, electronic devices) → **personification**. mostly as a result of intimate, affectionate attitude to the entities referred to.

- **Animate** nouns pattern with *he/she* and *who*. They are of two types:
 - **personal** animate nouns - referring to males and females and patterning with *he/she* and *who*; these are either **two different lexical units** (*father - mother, wizard - witch*), or **morphologically differentiated nouns** (mostly marked by a feminine derivational suffix: *actor - actress, duke - duchess*, but exceptionally even by a

⁴ Cf. Hladký, J., Růžička, M.: *A Functional Onomatology of English*, p. 53.

masculine one: *widow - widower*), or **dual gender nouns** (they can be referred both by *he* or *she*: *student, teacher, cousin, friend, doctor*, etc.).

- **nonpersonal** animate nouns - referring to animals. They mostly pattern with *it* and *which*, but some, usually those referring to big animals or to farm and pet animals, take *he/she* and *who*. Animal names either have an **undifferentiated form** (*rat, spider, salmon*), or **compound forms** for sexes (*elephant bull - elephant cow, he-goat - she-goat, tomcat - cat*), or **derived female forms** (*lion - lioness, tiger - tigress*), or **lexically distinct** male and female naming units (*bull - cow, drake - duck, cock - hen*).

Common gender enables to refer to the nouns such as *baby, cat, bird* by *he, she* and *it* according to the emotional attitude to the referent.

Collective nouns in British English (*army, government, family, committee, etc.*) take either singular pronoun reference *it* and *which*, or plural *they* and *who*, depending on whether rather the unity of the collective body or the individuality of its members are stressed.

Adjectives

Adjectives are words expressing features or qualities of nouns or pronouns.

Adjectives can appear in three positions:

- **attributive** - before a noun or pronoun which they (pre)modify (*good life*);
- **predicative** - they function as subject or object complements after a verb (*It seems reasonable*);
- **postpositive** - they follow the modified noun or pronoun (usually a compound indefinite pronoun or adverb) (*somewhere cheaper, anybody responsible*)

Adjectives using the same suffixes as verbal participles ending in *-ing* or *-ed* are called **participial adjectives**. They can be used both attributively (*borrowed money, looking glass*) and predicatively ().

Most adjectives can be **compared** (*hard - harder - the hardest, useful - more useful - the most useful*). Many adjectives **form adverbs** by adding the suffix *-ly*: *free → freely, willing → willingly*).

Gradability as the typical feature of adjectives is achieved by

- **modification by intensifiers** (*very young, so expensive, awfully hot*);
- **comparison**. The exceptions are adjectives denoting
 - absolute properties (*dead, straight, ultimate, final*)
 - material (*metal, glass*)
 - provenance (*Czech, French*).

The **comparison** (i.e. expressing higher degree) is done by:

- **adding inflections** to the **base** (= **absolute**) form of an adjective (*-er* to produce the **comparative** and *-est* to produce the **superlative** form), used in majority of one- and two-syllable adjectives (exceptions: *right - *righter, real - *realer, proper - *properer*; verbal participles used adjectively: **boreder, *freezingest*);
- **using paraphrase** (a **periphrastic/syntactic** way), i.e. adding *more* for the **comparative** and *most* for the **superlative** form - used in three-syllable and longer adjectives. Many two-

syllable adjectives allow two forms: *more common* and *commoner*, *more quiet* and *quieter* (also *happy*, *modern*, *clever*, etc.).

Types of adjectives:⁵

- **central** - adjectives functioning in both attributive or predicative positions;
- **peripheral** - adjectives occurring in only one of the positions (predicative only: *utter*, *afraid*, *alive*).
- **inherent** - adjective applying directly to the referent of the object modified by the adjective (*a hot cake* is a hot object - unlike *hot news*, *a firm gate* is a firm object - unlike *a firm friend* where that person's friendship is firm, not he/she himself);
- **non-inherent** - adjectives expressing indirect characterisation of the referent (e.g. *hot news* and *a firm friend* quoted above, *a poor player* - the person's play is poor, not the person)
- **stative** - adjectives are mostly stative (but many can be seen as dynamic). Stative adjectives cannot be used with the progressive aspect or the imperative (**The bag is being heavy*. **Be white*.)
- **dynamic** - the adjectives denote the qualities which are controllable by the possessor; they are subjectively measurable. They can be restricted in their duration, and so they can be used with the progressive aspect (*The children are being noisy*.) and the imperative (*Don't be cruel*.)
- Some adjectives can be used both as **stative and dynamic**, such as *brave*, *calm*, *cruel*, *foolish*, *funny*, *good*, *greedy*, *helpful*, *naughty*, *noisy*, *tidy*, etc.

Many nouns can appear in a typically adjectival position: before other nouns (they pre-modify heads in noun phrases, i.e. they function as attributes). They lose some properties of nouns (e.g. they are not able to form the plural: **cars shop*; their syntactic position is rather adjectival than substantival), but they are not adjectives yet (e.g. comparison is not possible: **lorrier/*the lorriest driver*).

Pronouns

Pronouns are words that stand for a noun, a noun phrase or several noun phrases.

Pronouns expressing contrasts in the grammatical categories of person, gender and number, are called the **central pronouns**; their subclasses are:⁶

- **personal** - identify the person(s) speaking, addressed and not present in the act of communication (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *they*; in religion and some dialects the archaic 2nd person forms *thou*, *thee*, *thy*, *thine*, *thyselves* are still used);
- **reflexive** - refer to or reflect the noun or pronoun in positions different from the subject position (*Help yourselves*); suffix *-self* in the singular and *-selves* in the plural is added;
- **possessive** - express possession, ownership. They assume two forms: **determiner** (used before a noun in noun phrases, e.g., *my brother*, *our new camera*), and **pronoun used on its own**, not as part of a noun phrase with a head (*Whis bag is yours?* *Hers is green*.)

Other subclasses of pronouns:

- **demonstrative** - convey the contrast between 'close' and 'distant' entities (*this/these*, *that/those*), but also have other uses, e.g. to introduce a new topic (*And then we came to this club ...*) or to show a negative attitude - anger, disapproval, etc. (*That bastard!*);

⁵ Leech, G., Svartvik, J.: *A Communicative Grammar of English*, pp. 135-147.

⁶ Crystal, D.: *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, p. 210.

- **interrogative** - used to ask questions about personal and nonpersonal nouns (*who?*, *whom?*, *whose?*, *which?*, *what?*);
- **relative** - link a subordinate clause to the head noun of a noun phrase (*who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*: *He's the man who supported our parents, Mother gave me advice that explained everything.*);
- **reciprocal** - express a two-way relationship (*each other*, *one another*);
- **indefinite** - express a notion of quantity (*some*, *any*, *somebody*, *anybody*, *something*, *both*); they are either **compound** (of two elements: *some-/any-/every-/no-* + *-body/-one/-thing*), or of the **of**-type: such pronouns can stand alone or are followed by *of* (*all students* / *all of us*, *some girls* / *some of the girls*). Here belong pronouns *all*, *both*, *each*, *few/fewer*, *little/less*, *much/many/more/most*, *some*, *none*, *neither*). These pronouns are also called **quantifiers**.

Personal pronouns manifest three forms, similar to case forms in inflectional languages:

- **subjective** (formerly nominative) form (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *we*, *they*);
- **genitive** form (→ **possessive** pronouns + *whose*);
- **objective** (formerly accusative) form - this form is not used in nouns any longer; pronouns use it when they are the object of a clause (*Mother asked me*) or when they are governed by a preposition (*They left without him*). Such a form exists in pronouns *I/me*, *he/him*, *she/her*, *we/us*, *they/them* and *who/whom*.

Verbs

Verb is a word class which expresses an **action** (*play*, *drive*), **event** (*blink*, *slide*) or **state** (*concern*, *remember*). Verbs express contrasts of **tense**, **aspect**, **voice**, **mood**, **person** (similar to pronouns) and **number** (similar to nouns).

Verbs in English may be used in the form of a **single word** (*She left. Run!*), but, due to the analytic character of English, also as a cluster of verbs, i.e. a **verb phrase** (*When did she leave? He will run in the race. He must have been running for half an hour.*).

A **verb phrase** consists of a **main verb** and one or more **auxiliary verbs**.

There are three main classes of verb:⁷

- **lexical verbs (full verbs)**: they have a clearly identifiable meaning (denotation) and act as main verbs; they belong to content/lexical words (*write*, *help*);
- **modal verbs**: they express judgements about the probability of events or states; they are only **auxiliary** and their meaning is much vaguer, more abstract and more difficult to define than that of lexical/content verbs. Modal verbs: *can/could*, *may/might*, *must*, *will/would*, *shall/should*, *need(n't)*, *dare*, *ought to*, *used to*.
- **primary verbs**: they function either as **main verbs** (*We have a car. He did exercises. The wind is very strong.*) or **auxiliary** verbs (*I have heard it. Did you get it? The wind is blowing.*)

Verbal forms and phrases are of two types:

- **finite forms**: the verbs are limited by the inflection (grammatical ending) used to a particular number, person, tense, or mood. In verb phrases, the finite form is the first verb, i.e. the auxiliary (*She has been invited.*).

⁷ Crystal, D.: *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, p. 212.

The finite forms: the **-s form**, the **past form** (*-ed* in regular verbs), and the **base form** used to express the present tense.

- **nonfinite forms**: no limitation to a particular number, person, tense, or mood is imposed on the verbs (*I am working. He has been working. We will be working. She could have been working.*).

The nonfinite forms: the **-ing participle**, the **-ed participle**, the **base form** used as an **infinitive** (after most verbs marked by particle *to*).

Stative and dynamic senses of verbs

Verbs with **stative** senses are generally **not used in the progressive form**.

Verbs with **dynamic** senses are regularly used in the **imperative** and **progressive** forms, unlike verbs with stative senses which cannot.

Verbs may shift from stative to dynamic sense or vice versa (stative sense: *We have a nice flat*, dynamic sense: *We usually have meetings on Monday*).

Classification of verbs according to the **stative and dynamic senses**⁸:

- **stative**
- **stance** – between stative and dynamic verbs
- **dynamic durative**
- **dynamic punctual**
 - **momentary events and acts**
 - **transitional events and facts**

Transitivity

Transitivity is the syntactic property of verbs characterized by taking a direct object.

- **intransitive verbs**
- **transitive verbs**
 - **monotransitive verbs** – they require a direct object (a noun phrase, a finite clause, or a non-finite clause)
 - **ditransitive verbs** – they are complemented by two object noun phrases: an indirect object (usually placed first) and a direct object. Most ditransitive verbs can be monotransitive as well.

Copular verbs (= linking/equative verbs)

- current copulas
- resulting copulas

Phrasal verbs are multi-word lexemes consisting of a **verb followed by a particle or particles**. The particles can be

- adverbs
- prepositions
- words capable of being both adverbs and prepositions

Tense

⁸ Greenbaum, S., Quirk, R.: *A Student's Grammar of the English language*, pp. 55-56.

Time is the objective reality, a line on which the **present** moment is located in continuous motion, enabling comparison with what is ahead of it (the **future**) and behind it (the **past**).

Tense is a grammatical category classifying the objective time, realized by inflection in verbs.

English has two tenses clearly conveyed by verb inflection:

- the **present tense** and the **past/preterite tense**,
but, as there exists no inflected future form of verbs,
- the **future tense** is expressed by e.g.
 - the combination of the auxiliary *will/shall* + base form (infinitive) of a verb
 - the present simple (*The train arrives at six.*)
 - the present progressive (*I am flying to Chicago next week.*)
 - the construction *be going to* + base form (infinitive) of a verb (*I am going to ask her.*),
 - the construction *will/shall* + the progressive (*We'll be watching their actions.*)
 - the construction *be (about) to* + base form (infinitive) of a verb (*He is to be appointed Executive Director. I'm about to leave.*).

English also has **pre-tenses** (the **past perfect**, the **present perfect**, the **future perfect**) and **progressive/continuous** forms, which are used to express **aspect**.

Voice

Voice is a grammatical means which varies the relationship between **subject** and **object** in a verb. Two voices are thus contrasted:

- the **active** (*My uncle built the house.*)
- the **passive** (*The house was built by my uncle.*)

Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category reflecting the way in which the action of a verb is viewed in respect to time. Two aspects are recognized in English:

- the **perfect**
- the **progressive**.

The aspects are marked for **present** or **past** tense and they may **combine**.

Most Czech verbs, unlike the English ones, are marked for aspect: *tleškat* × *tlešknout/zatleškat*, *jíst* × *sníst*. Some verbs ending in *-ovat* (*obětovat*) and foreign words ending in *-ovat* (*informovat*, *delegovat*, etc.) do not express aspect, but verb morphology possesses means which make it possible (*poinformovat* × *informovávat*).

English equivalents to Czech aspectually differentiated verb forms are partly expressed by means of:

- progressive form
- adverbs and adverbial particles (*sednout si* - *to sit down*)
- different lexical means (*dopsat* - *to finish writing*)
- verbo-nominal phrases (*projít se* - *to take a walk*)
- auxiliary verbs *will*, *would*, *used to* (*sedávali* - *they used to sit*)
- prefixed verbs - quite rarely (*attest*, *enslave*)

Mood

Mood are attitudes of fact, wishes, possibility, etc. expressed by a verb or a clause.

The traditional moods are:

- **indicative** – it expresses objective statements (*We learn English.*)
- **imperative** – it expresses a command (*Stop here!*)

- **conditional** – it expresses hypothesis or condition (*We would try it if ...*)
- **subjunctive** – it expresses doubt, tentativeness (*Were he a better student, ...*)
- **interrogative** – it is a verb form (or a type of sentence) expressing a question

Deutschbein's **semantic classification** of moods⁹ included:

- **the cognitive**
 - the indicative
 - the irrealis
 - the potentialis
- **the optative**
 - the permissive
- **the voluntative**
 - the adhortative
- **the expectative**
 - the dubitative

Adverbs

Adverbs are elements of clause structure which mostly contribute to the meaning of the verb (*He went **abroad**. The CEO will resign **tomorrow**.*), but also to some other adjacent element (adjective: ***extremely** important*; pronoun: ***hardly** anyone*; numeral: ***almost** twenty*, noun: ***quite** a number, a **step** back*, adverb: ***very** carefully*) or to the clause as a whole.

Most adverbs are formed by adding the derivational suffix **-ly** to an adjective (*clearly, anonymously*) - these are open-class adverbs.

Some adverbs have no distinct morpheme (*no, now, very, just* - closed-class adverbs), others are compound (*sometimes, elsewhere*) or derived by other suffixes (*backwards, street-wise*).

Morphologically, adverbs are split into:¹⁰

- **simple** adverbs (*only, just, near, far, back, up, under*);
- **compound** adverbs (*whenever, everywhere, sometime, therefore*)
- **derivational** adverbs (*frankly, unwillingly, southward, French-style*)

Adverbs function either as **adverbials**, i.e. **elements of clause structure** (contributing to the meaning of verbs, but also to other clause elements or to the whole clause: ***Surprisingly**, he didn't remember our faces.*), or they affect the meaning of the word or phrase they are **attached to**: such adverbs are **modifiers of verbs and adjectives** (e.g. intensifiers or emphasers: *very, deeply, extremely, just, really, e.g. very useful, strongly convinced*).

Syntactically, **adverbials** occur in four types:

- **adjuncts** - integrated within the clause structure (*He returned home **quickly**.*)
- **subjuncts** - (*They have **already** asked their neighbours.*)
- **disjuncts** - express an evaluation of what is being said, either with respect to the form of the communication or its meaning (***Unfortunately**, she ignored him. John is **probably** the best dancer.*)
- **conjuncts** - express the speaker's assessment of the relation between two linguistic units (*We do not have enough money, **so** we can't lend you.*)

⁹ quoted from Hladký, J., Růžicka, M.: *A Functional Onomatology of English*, pp. 76-77.

Prepositions

Prepositions express a relationship between parts of a sentence, usually as to the time and space. Formally, prepositions are divided into:

- **single-word prepositions** (*in, at, to, by, with, of, over, under, since, after, through*; a closed-set word class);
- **multi-word prepositions** (*due to, because of, instead of; on behalf of, in compliance with*).

Conjunctions

Conjunctions join clauses or parts of clauses through **coordination** and **subordination**.

- **Coordinating conjunctions** link syntactic elements which have the same status within a sentence (e.g. two clauses, two phrases, two words of the same form class). They express such relations as
 - addition and sequence (*and*);
 - alternatives (*or*);
 - contrast (*but*).
- **Subordinating conjunctions** join units with a different grammatical status in a sentence, i.e. one clause is subordinated to another (stands for a clause element). The following types are distinguished: conjunctions of
 - time (*until, when, before, as soon as*)
 - place (*where*)
 - condition (*if, in case that*)
 - purpose (*in order to, so that*)
 - reason and cause (*because, as, since*)
 - concession (*although, though, in spite of*)

Numerals

Numerals are in some respect similar to **central adjectives**: they can be used both attributively (*the three boys*) and predicatively (*My grandmother is seventy.*) However, they can neither compare, nor take *-ly* to form adverbs.

The main types of numerals are:

- **cardinal** numerals (*six, twenty-three*)
- **ordinal** numerals (*the sixth, the twenty-third*)