Why else should he come?
Whatever else could be done was done
This is not my hat, it must be somebody else's
Nobody else knows
He is somewhere else
There was not much else to be said for the plan
There was little else to be done

§642

One har flere forskellige funktioner, hvori talbegrebet kan være mere eller mindre fremtrædende. Talordsværdien ses i forbindelser som

Some one, any one, no one, every one

§643

One kan repræsentere et forud nævnt tælleligt substantiv i singularis eller pluralis

Here are some books on the subject, choose one for your journey I want some oranges; give me these big ones I want some apples. What kind of ones do you want?

Denne konstruktion i kollokvialt sprog i prædikativsk anvendelse veksler med prædikativisk adjektiv alene

My car is an old one / is old

One(s) kan komme i genitiv, når der refereres til personer

The three boys stared at him; the two small ones' eyes filled with tears

Støtteordet one(s) gør det muligt at skelne mellem singularis og pluralis, når der spørges med which

Here are some envelopes. Which one / ones do you want?

§646

Som allerede nævnt bruges *one* som støtteord refererende til et tælleligt substantiv. Det kan ikke bruges refererende til ikke-tællelige substantiver, og der er derfor intet *one* i følgende eksempler:

Do you want black coffee or white? I prefer epic [epik] poetry to lyrical

§647

Selv hvor det drejer sig om tællelige substantiver, bruges *one(s)* imidlertid ikke altid, således (næsten) aldrig efter *own* eller efter kardinaltallene (mængdetallene):

I don't like his cigars, I prefer my own How many books did you buy? Five / Five good ones

I forbindelsen the + komparativ er der tendens til at udelade one(s):

I took a very polished (sleben) farewell of both ladies, which the elder one acknowledged in her usual manner, while the younger (one) bent her head slightly I don't like this one, give me at better (one)

I forbindelsen *the* + superlativ er tendensen til at udelade *one(s)* endnu stærkere, navnlig når der følger en partitiv *of*-forbindelse efter:

He possesses two houses, the oldest (one) in Newcastle They are the oldest of his friends

§648

Endvidere bruges der som regel ikke noget støtteord, når det drejer sig om en modsætning mellem to, og de kontrasterende ord står nær hinanden:

The Old Testament and the New In good times and bad His right hand was in her left

Som det ses, drejer det sig ofte om enstavelsesadjektiver i slutningen af sætningen. Forbindelsen a + adjektiv i positiv kræver dog altid *one*:

He gave me a good one

Did you seen the blind one down in the street?

§649

I den kendte vittighed, hvor man ved brylluppet siger til det nygifte par:

May all your troubles be little ones

beror det vittige på den dobblete betydning af *ones*, dels repræsenterende *troubles*, dels med betydningen 'personer' (= babies). Den anvendesle af *one* til at betegne en person uden at referere til et i sammenhængen nævt substantiv ses endvidere i

The Evil One (= the Devil) The Holy One (= God)

I stood like one thunderstruck ((som) ramt af lynet, himmelfalden)

He behaves like one frenzied

Then there came one who said that he could solve our problem

I young one(s) kan one(s) referere ikke blot til personer, men også til dyr:

There was a nest with five young ones in it

I denne anvendelse er forestillingen om individerne fremtrædende. Er dette ikke tilfældet, bruges *young* alene:

A bird with its young

§650

Endelig kan *one* anvendes = 'man' enten i ordsprogsagtige vendinger, eller når den talende inkluderer sig selv:

One should love one's neighbour

Undertiden kan dette one stå for et "beskedent" /:

After all, one has had some slight success in life

Mærk, at genitiv af dette ord er one's på britisk engelsk

One should always be on one's guard

Modul 4

Grammar

Herskind, Aase & Pedersen, Uffe Gravers: Engelsk grammatik med synonymer,

København: Gyldendal, 2002

pp. 57-82 Verber

Tasks:

Rinvolucri, Mario: Grammar Games. Cognitive, affective and drama activities for EFL students, Cambridge:

Cambridge University Press, First Edition 1984, 2002

1.3 The dice and grid game pp. 15-17 Irregular verb parts

I.6 Snakes and ladders pp. 28-32 Present perfect + for/since

I.8 Find who pp. 35-37 Past simple active/passive

II.7 Your words - my grammar p. 70 Present perfect continuous

III.1 Times of day pp. 97-99 Present continuous to express habitual action

III.3 My view of you pp. 102-103 When, as soon as, etc., whenever + present simple

III.7 Exchanging routines pp. 109-110 Habitual use of the present simple

V.1 Verb search pp. 124-126 Irregular verbs

Murphy, Raymond: English Grammar in Use. A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate

students of English, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004

Unit 29 pp. 58-59 May and might 1

Unit 33 pp. 66-67 Should 1

Verber

Verbernes morfologi (ortografi)

§172

Ing-formen:

Stumt —e falder bort: grazing (græsse; sætte på græs), waving. Dog bevares e i singeing (singe: [sin(d)3] svide), swingeing ([swind3inj] vældig (e.g. blow), overvældende (e.g. majority), dundrende (e.g. lie), der således holdes ude fra singing, swinging (men cringe ([krin(d)3] krybe sammen; krybe (for en)) — cringing). Desuden bevares e i verber, der ender på —ye og —oe: dyeing (farve; tage mod farve), hoeing (hakke; hyppe; skuffe). Ender grundformen på —ie, sker der ændring til —y: dying, lying. Grundformens slutkonsonant fordobles som regel efter trykstærk vokal, der skrives som ét bogstav: begging, permitting, gassing, (men visiting, dreading, revealing; focus(s)ing); udlydende —l fordobles også, når forudgående vokal er tryksvag: signalling, travelling. Udlydende —ic ændres til —ick-: trafficking (handle, afsætte, omsætte). Mærk endvidere handicapping, kidnapping, worshipping, der fordobler konsonanten imod reglen (mærk dog bitrykket på anden stavelse).

I amerikansk engelsk fordobles konsonanten ikke i ord som traveling, worshiping

Grundformen + -s:

Efter hvislelyd (alias sibilanter, rillehæmmelyd (s, z, f, 3) tilfjøjes –es, hvis grundformen ikke ender på –e: passes, fishes, og ligeledes, hvis grunformen ender på –o: vetoes. Der er dog undertdien vaklen: woos (bejle til, fri til; fri), cooes (kurre; (om baby) pludre). –y efter forudgående konsonant forandres til –ie: carries, mens –y efter vokal bevares: plays. Konsonantfordobling indtræder efter trykstærk enkelt vokal + s/z: gasses, quizzes. Ved tryksvag vokal er der vaklen: bias(s)es (påvirke), focus(s)es

Grundformen + -ed:

Ender grundformen på –e, tilfjøjes kun –d: agreed, placed. Ender grundformen på –y, bevares eller ændres det efter samme regel som nævnt ovenfor: carried, played. Slutkonsonat fordobles efter samme regel som foran –ing: begged, permitted, gassed (men visited, dreaded; bias(s)ed, focus(s)ed; signalled, travelled (dog: paralleled); trafficked, worshipped.

Amerikansk engelsk bruger former som traveled, worshiped

Verbernes syntaks

§261

Efter syntaktisk funktion kan verberne inddeles i intransitive, der ikke har objekt, og transitive, der har objekt:

He lay on the grass – He laid the book on the table He rose early – He raised his hand

Skellet er dog ikke skarpt. Om end et verbum i reglen føles som hørende til den ene eller den anden gruppe, kan mange verber have begge funktioner

He stood there without saying a word – He stood me a drink (give, traktere med) The fire caught rapidly – He caught the ball

En særlig gruppe ellers intransitive verber kan have 'indre objekt' (cognate (['kcgneit] beslægtet) object), dvs. et objekt, der er (formelt og) betydningsmæssigt beslægtet med verbet:

He slept the sleep of the just He laughed a hollow laugh He died a cowardly death

Visse verber har, i modsætning til de tilsvarende danske, personobjekt knyttet til sig:

They assured him that everything was all right
He informed me that his sister had returned
The treasurer (kasserer) reminded me that my subscription (kontingent) was over'due (for længst forfalden)
He reminds me of his brother
They thanked us warmly four our co-operation
The police warned him that everything he said might be used against him
He told (us) where he had been

Infinitiv

§262

Præsens infinitiv aktiv er lig med verbets grundform: (to) see
Præsens infinitiv passiv dannes af (to) be + perfektum particiupim: (to) be seen
Perfektum infinitiv aktiv dannes af (to) have + perf. part.: (to) have seen
Perfektum infinitiv passiv dannes af (to) have been + perf. part.: (to) have been seen

Endvidere kan der dannes udvidede infinitiver i aktiv og passiv både i præsens og perfektum (med betydning svarende til de udvidede tider):

He may be dining now
He may have been dining then
He may be being operated on right now
He may have been being operated on by then

Reglerne for brugen af *to* ved infinitiven er nogenlunde de samme som for brugen af 'at' foran infinitiven på dansk

Aktiv og passiv infinitiv

§265

l almindelighed volder valget mellem aktiv og passiv form ingen vanskelighed. Imidlertid er der vaklen mellem aktiv og passiv infinitiv ved verberne: *be, leave* og *remain*

There is no time to lose / to be lost There is nothing to fear / to be feared There is only one thing to do / to be done

I formuleringer som

The plan leaves much to be desired (aktiv infinitiv to desire kan forekomme)
It remains to be seen whether you are right (aktiv infinitiv to see kan forekomme)

vil man oftest finde passiv infinitiv, mens man i faste vendinger som

The house is to let
He is to blame (= It is his fault)
What is there to pay
The reasons are not far to seek

omvendt oftest vil finde aktiv infinitiv med passivisk betydning

Sml.

He is to be blamed (= 'Han bør kritiseres', 'Han skal høre for det')
The house is to be let or sold

§266

I nogle tilfælde, især efter there is / was, kan der være den forskel, at aktiv infinitiv bl.a. betegner pligt eller nødvendighed, passiv infinitiv mulighed:

There was nothing else to do (= for us to do)
The doctor said there was nothing to be done
There is nothing to see there (= nothing worth seeing)
There is nothing to be seen (= nothing visible)

Tempus

Præsens forekommer i følgende funktioner:

1) til at betegne den aktuelle nutid. Denne anvendelse af simpel præsens forudsætter, at det, verbet betegner, betragtes som et faktum. Er det derimod begrebet forløb, der ønskes udtrykt, bruges udvidet tid: (i de to sidste eksempler nærmer præsens sig perfektum meget i betydning)

It is cold today
I see two ships
Now I take an egg and break it
What do I do now?
How do we tackle this problem
I hear that he has been ill
I forget how old he is ('kan ikke komme på')

2) til at udtrykke noget gentaget eller vanemæssigt:

Every day at 3 p.m. he takes a stroll in his garden

I read in bed for half an hour before I turn out the light The steamer leaves every Tuesday at noon

til at udtrykke 'evige sandheder' eller neutral tid, dvs. når tidsbegrebet er irrelevant; når 'nutid er utid':

The sun rises in the east
Twice two are four
It says in the Bible, 'Thou shalt not steal'
The Danube flows into the Black Sea

4) historisk præsens:

With the accession of Edward the Confessor in 1042 Norman influence begins

5) <u>til at udtrykke fremtid i hovedsætninger, men kun når den fremtidige begivenhed tænkes at indtræde</u> efter en i forvejen nøje fastlagt plan

The train leaves at 3 p.m.
I leave for the Continent on Monday
The next term at Eton College begins on September 25

6) <u>til at betegne fremtid i tids- og betingelsesbisætninger</u> (clauses of time and conditional clauses), <u>når</u> <u>det fremtidige er udtrykt eller underforstået i hovedsætningen</u>

I'll come as soon as I'm ready
We shall start at 10 if it does not rain
Let's go to a café when the concert is over
I'll tell you when he comes

Præteritum

§275

 til at berette om fortidige forhold, der betragtes som værende uden forbindelse med det nutidige øjeblik; ofte er en eller anden tidsangivelse vedføjet, hvoraf det fremgår, at forholdet ikke længere består:

Churchill was born in 1874
A terrible accident took place here yesterday

Tidsangivelsen behøver imidlertid ikke at være udtrykt. Det kan ligge i situationen, at der er tale om noget afsluttet i forhold til nutiden, således ofte i spørgsmål indledt med *when* og *where* (gående på den lejlighed i fortiden, det drejer sig om)

When did you come? Where did you see him? We are not as young as we were

2) til at referere til noget gentaget eller vanemæssigt i fortiden:

Whenever he came to see us, he brought his dog The steamer left every Tuesday at noon

3) konkurrerende med præsens, når der i et afhængigt udsagn udtrykkes 'evige sandheder', og det styrende verbum i hovedsætningen står i præteritum:

Who was it said that the earth moved / moves round the sun?

He did not even know that twice two was / is four

l andre tilfælde, hvor det ikke drejer sig om evige sandheder, kan der være en lignende vaklen mellem præsens og præteritum

He told us that Smith drinks / drank

I sådanne tilfælde repræsenterer præteritum den mekaniserede og derfor mindst påfaldende tempus, mens præsens på mere slående måde fremhæver kendsgerningen som gældende også nu

4) i bisætninger efter visse vendinger for at udtrykke et ønske eller forslag:

I wish you would come It's high time somebody did something about it

Samt endvidere i irreelle bisætninger indledt med if og as if.

If I saw him, I should speak to him
If I were you, I should accept the offer
He acts as if he believed the story

5) I forbindelse med almost og nearly = 'nær':

I almost did not recognize him ('havde nær ikke . . .') He nearly fell ('han var nær faldet')

§276

De sammensatte tider perfektum og pluskvamperfektum dannes normalt af præsensform og præteritumsform af *have* + perfektum participium: *He has / had come*. – I nogle tilfælde bruges dog en form af *be* som hjælpeverbum, hvis der skal udtrykkes tilstand snarere end handling eller forløb

Perfektum

Perfektum bruges om et fortidigt forhold, der samtidig ses ud fra det nutidige øjeblik (retrospektiv præsens). Den har forskellige nuancer, der er afhængige af konteksten og af verbets betydning. Perfektum kan bruges

1) til at udtrykke, at et forhold har varet fra et punkt i fortiden til det nutidige øjeblik:

I have known him for ages He has lived in Copenhagen since 1930 There have been three accidents during the past week

2) til at betone det nutidige resultat af en handling i fortiden:

I've bought a new car Edison has invented the glowlamp He has got some interesting books from his uncle

3) til at referere til tidligere tiders erfaring, som stadig gælder:

Better men than I have failed

There is scarcely a restaurant in which somebody at some time has not complained about the food

4) I bisætninger til at angive, at en handling vil være afsluttet på det tidspunkt, hvor en anden fremtidig handling vil finde sted:

You must wait till I've told my wife When I have seen young Joe again, I shall tell you

Sammenligning mellem præteritum og perfektum

§277

Præteritum bruges, når et forhold i fortiden betragtes som værende uden forbindelse med det nutidige øjeblik. Perfektum anvendes om et forhold, der samtidig anskues som fortidigt og som nutidigt (retrospektiv præsens).

Det afgørende for valget mellem de to tempora er derfor den synsvinkel, der anlægges af den talende eller skrivende, og det er klart, at (objektivt set) samme forhold efter den skiftende synsvinkel kan manifesteres sprogligt snart ved præteritum, snart ved perfektum:

He was unconscious (nemlig 'dengang i fortiden, da jeg fandt ham')
How long has he been unconscious? (dvs. 'Han er det nu; hvor længe har han været det?)

Did you hear the news this morning? (this morning er en periode, der er adskilt fra det nutidige øjeblik; spørgsmålet stilles senere på dagen)

Have you heard the news this morning? (man befinder sig stadigvæk i tidsafsnittet this morning)

Pluskvamperfektum

§279

Pluskvamperfektum kan anvendes til at udtrykke, at et fortidigt forhold ligger før et andet forhold i fortiden:

When I arrived at the station, I found that the train had left

Når en bisætning indledes med as soon as eller when, er der ofte mulighed for valg mellem præteritum og pluskvamperfektum med forskellige nuancer:

As soon as he saw / had seen me, he began running towards me Mother told me the news when I came / had come home

Endvidere kan pluskvamperfektum i bisætninger udtrykke irreelle forhold i fortiden:

I wished I had told him the truth

I wish I had told him the truth then

If he had known what was in store for him, he would probably not have come = Had he known what was in store for him, he would probably not have come (sidste udtryksmåde er boglig)

If I had seen him then, I should have spoken to him = Had I seen him then, I should have spoken to him (sidste udtryksmåde er boglig)

Endelig optræder pluskvamperfektum af verber som hope, expect, think, intend, mean (=intend), suppose og want for at angive, at håbet, forventningen etc. i fortiden ikke blev opfyldt:

We had hoped that you would be able to help us I had meant to phone you, but I forgot

Futurum

Udtrykt ved simpel præsensform §274 (5,6) Udtrykt ved udvidet præsens (herunder udvidet præsens af verbet *to go*) §324 Udtrykt ved *be to* + infinitiv §340 Udtrykt ved shall/will §357ff

Ing-form

§280

Endelsen -ing anvendes i flere funktioner

§282

Ing-formen kan kombinere visse substantiviske træk med verbale træk (gerundium, verbalsubstantiv fx Building the house took a long time – Do you mind opening the window quietly?). De substantiviske træk, der kan være tale om, er følgende:

ing-formen kan have possessiv eller genitiv foran sig, den kan være subjekt, prædikativ, objekt og styrelse for præposition. Disse kan kombineres med følgende verbale træk:

ing-formen kan have objekt, prædikativ eller adverbium og kan sættes i perfektum og passiv:

After thoroughly examining the matter he came to a negative conclusion I don't mind your staying so long
He reproached us with having bungled the affair (fuske, kludre; forkludre)
They denied having talked about it
He did not like the idea of being questioned about it
His being a grocer accounts for the fact
Reading French is easier than speaking it
I am tired of always looking after baby
This is overdoing it wildly
This is begging the question (snakke udenom; indbyde til spørgsmål)

§284

Lad os betragte eksemplerne:

He does not like my / me staying here Parliament objected to the Government('s) being given a free hand

Forud for *ing*-formen (*staying* og *being given*) går her et "subjekt" (*my I me* og *the Government('s))*, der enten kan være et possessivt pronomen eller et substantiv i genitiv eller også et personligt pronomen (i objektskasus), henholdsvis et ubøjet substantiv. Valget mellem disse to muligheder er bestemt af flere faktorer:

1) Hvis ing-formen er subjekt i sætningen, bruges oftest possessivt pronomen eller genitiv:

Howard's coming to see us was a pleasant surprise Your being a teacher doesn't make you flawless

2) Hvis sætningen indledes med it is no good / use, foretrækkes possessivt pronomen:

It is no good your saying that It is no use his telling me not to worry

mens et substantiv som subjekt for ing-formen oftest er ubøjet

It was no use the Foreign Secretary talking about a great Parliamentary occasion

3) Hvis *ing*-formen er objekt i sætningen, forekommer både possessivt og personligt pronomen som "subjekt" for *ing*-formen:

I hate your being unhappy So you don't like me racing?

mens et substantiv oftest er ubøjet:

He said he favoured people having decent haricuts We do not contemplate the paper closing down

4) Hvis ing-formen er styrelse for en præposition, forekommer hyppigst possessivt pronomen:

The ceremony ended with his being presented with a cheque

mens et substantiv oftest er ubøjet:

The case was settled by the defendant paying the claim

§285

Da *ing*-formen ligesom infinitiven kan forbinde det verbale og det substantiviske, kommer de to former ofte I nær indholdsmæssig og funktionel berøring. Ligesom infinitiv kan *ing*-formen være subjekt, objekt og prædikativ:

'Complimenting is lying I hate lying (dobbelttydig)

Efter præposition er der ikke mulighed for infinitiv, kun for *ing*-form:

He was against inflicting unnecessary pain This tool is used for tightening bolts

Skønt der i mange tilfælde kan være funktionelt sammenfald mellem infinitiv og *ing*-form, er tendensen dog, at *ing*-formen bruges om det generelle, infinitiven om det specielle

Writing a book is not unlike building a house or planning a battle or painting a picture To write a book on this subject would be a formidable (['fc:mid*bl]) task
I like smoking a cigarette after dinner
I should like to smoke one now

En præposition kan heller ikke følges af en genstandssætning (*that*- og *if*-sætninger). Sammenligner man med dansk, kan man opstille følgende regler:

1) Efter en del udtryk, hvor præpositionen er næsten indholdsløs, kan denne udelades:

He was afraid X of X (that) the dog would bite him. He was afraid of the dog
He was surprised X at X (that) she had left. He was surprised at her
I am sorry X for X (that) you can't come. I am sorry for what I have done
They were sure X of X (that) it would not happen. They were sure of it
I must remind you X of X that you owe him money. I must remind you of what I told you yesterday

(ex. vedr. konjunktionen if. if cannot be used after prepositions

I have wondered X about X if you could come. I have wondered about it / I have wondered whether you . . . I'm sorry X about X if you feel that I have treated you unfairly

I was afraid X of X if it was too cold

I am not sure X about/of X if I'll have time. I am not sure whether I'll have time

What X about X if we had a break? What about having a break? What about a break?

*I haven't settled the question of if I'll go back home. I haven't settled the question of whether I'll go back home

*I have thought about if it was the correct decision / I have thought about whether (or not) it was the correct decision

*We talked about, last time, if it would be a good idea to visit him at the hospital. Last time, we talked about it being a good idea to visit him at the hospital. Last time, we talked about whether (or not) it would be. . . , we talked about what if (hvad om) we paid him a visit at the hospital

*There was a big argument about if we should have moved to a new house /. . . about whether we should have moved . . .

*As unemployed you would be in a worse position, economically, in comparison with if you had a job As unemployed you would be in a worse position, economically, in comparison with (you) having a job *in contrast to if . . . (i modsætning til hvis. . .)

*compared with if . . . (i forhold til hvis . . . / sammenlignet med hvis . . .)

There are, in my opinion, some things you have to be aware of if you want to incorporate CL in your teaching

(Bang-Nielsen, Elisabeth: *Enhjørningen og næsehornet – engelsk grammatik i grundskolen*, København: Alinea, 2008

p. 87 En præposition kan ikke følges af en that-sætning eller en infinitiv:

Engelsk kan ikke have en præposition efterfulgt af en that-sætning, med eller uden that:

Historien begynder med, at en gruppe mennesker prøver at . . . kan ikke oversættes med *The story starts with that a group of people try to . . .

Man må slippe den danske formulering og omformulere, fx:

The story starts with a group of people trying to / who try to . . .

At the beginning of the story a group of people . . .

Eller man kan fjerne præpositionen, hvs det er muligt:

Jeg tænkte aldrig på, at det ville begynde at regne. I never thought (that) it would begin to rain. Det er ikke en løsning at fjerne konjunktionen that, for det ændrer ikke ved konstruktionen "præposition efterfulgt af that-sætning".)

2) I andre tilfælde, hvor præpositionen har et vigtigt indhold (fx negativt), kan den ikke udelades, og man kan da indskyde et ord, der kan stå som styrelse for en præposition, og som genstandssætningen knytter sig til som apposition; sådanne ord er fx it, the circumstance og the fact (det sidste naturligvis kun, når der er tale om et faktum):

I'll see to it that you get what you deserve

He worried over the circumstance that she had been married before

She looked pretty in spite of / despite (of) the fact that she had a bump on her forehead

I must call attention to the fact that delay is unwise

*We talked about, last time, that it would be a good idea to visit him at the hospital. Last time, we talked about the fact that it would be a good idea to visit him at the hospital. Last time, we talked about whether (or not) it would be a good idea to visit him at the hospital

3) I øvrigt omskrives der med ing-form:

She left without my knowing it

I am looking forward to his coming here

*We talked about, last time, that it would be a good idea to visit him at the hospital. Last time, we talked about it being a good idea to visit him at the hospital

Undtagelser: in that (= 'I den henseende at', '(der)ved at', 'idet', 'eftersom', 'fordi') og except that.

They differ in that she is dark and he is blond She told me nothing except that she would not leave

74

140

§286

Efter en del verber og verbalforbindelser kan kun ing-formen anvendes, bl.a.:

appreciate, (avoid), burst out, chance, (consider), contemplate, debate, detest, have done, (enjoy), (escape), experience, (fancy), (finish), funk (være bange (for); luske sig fra), (give up), it is no good / use, (can help), imply, include, justify, (keep on), (leave off), (mind), necessitate, oppose, postpone, practise, (put off), resent, (risk), set about, shrink, (stand), stop, suggest (parenteserne viser de i Engelsk Grammatik med synonymer medtagne eksempler)

prevent har følgende konstruktioner:

He prevented my doing it He prevented me doing it He prevented me from doing it

I kollokvialt sprog har stop (= prevent) samme konstruktionsmuligheder

75

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§287

(busy, like), near, (worth)

He was near crying

§288

Efter as well as bruges ofte ing-formen:

As well as describing burial practices in Africa, the author gives a charming picture of life in this territory before the coming of the white man

§289

Efter vendingen *There is no . . .* kræves *ing-*form:

There is no blinking the fact that he is a genius There is no denying the truth of this assertion

74

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§290

En lang række verber kan konstrueres både med ing-form og med infinitiv; det gælder bl.a.:

bear, (begin), (cease), (continue), dread, endure, fear, forget, (hate), intend, (like), (love), neglect, (prefer), propose, 'purpose (have til hensigt, agte, påtænke), recollect, (remember), (start), (stop) og (try)

He could not bear seeing / to see the children going hungry I intend going / to go

I nogle tilfælde kan der være en forskel i indhold, efter som der bruges ing-form eller infinitiv:

He began smoking when he was 14 ('tillagde sig denne vane') He began to smoke his pipe when he had finished his dinner He remembered doing it (= He remembered having done it) He remembered to do it ('at få det gjort')

Det er meget vanskeligt at give en generel regel for, hvordan brugen af *ing*-form og infinitiv efter disse verber fordeler sig. Man kunne måske sige at *ing*-formen bruges, når verbets handling anskues som realiseret, infinitiven derimod, når det drejer sig om noget potentielt; infinitiven bruges dog ikke nødvendigvis altid, hvor der er et indholdselement af formål og resultat til stede, men den kan ikke bruges, hvor et sådant element ikke kan indpasses

§291

I en del tilfælde er der vekslen mellem præpositionsudtryk med ing-form og to + infinitiv:

He took the opportunity of visiting me / to visit me He was surprised at seeing me / to see me

Vekslen mellem *ing*-form og infinitiv foreligger også i tilfælde, hvor ordet *to* snart opfattes som præposition (og efterfølges af *ing*-form), snart er infinitivsmærke; i følgende eksempler er den hyppigste form sat først

He objected to going / to go
He is accustomed to being made / to be made much of
She made up her mind to do it / to doing it
The fellow is open to receive / to receiving bribes (bestikkelse, stikpenge)

I disse eksempler anses mulighed nr. 2 af mange for ukorrekt

Den anerkendte sprogbrug foretrækker afgjort ing-formen i eksempler som:

He is used to receiving many visitors
I look forward to seeing you
They have committed themselves to adopting this course
He confined himself to saying that
He was promoted to teaching the upper sixth
She has taken to drinking neat whisky (ren, ublandet; her: en tør whisky, dvs. uden vand)
We have reconciled ourselves to settling down here for good

Passiv

§306

Passiv dannes normalt af en form af be + perfektum participium af et transitivt verbum

Infinitiv:

I want these letters to be written now

This play is supposed to have been written in part by Shakespeare

Tidsformer:

She is praised by everybody The book has been discussed all over the country The job would be finished the day after

The active voice: The cat is eating / ate the mouse

(det led, der undergår en proces (patiens), fremhæves i passivsætningen og gøres til subjekt og agens (the cat) indgår i præpositionsforbindelse med by; by signalerer agens i aktivsætningen)

The passive voice: The mouse is being /was eaten by the cat

§312

Indholdsmæssigt kan verberne opdeles i 1) statiske (love, hate) og 2) dynamiske verber (catch, kill)

1) De **statiske** verbers passiv udtrykker tilstand; den tid, der udtrykkes, er den, der angives af hjælpeverbet:

He is / was / has been / had been loved by everybody

2) De **dynamiske** verbers passiv kan efter sammenhængen udtrykke en tilstand eller en ændring (handling):

The sheep are caught vil kunne opfattes som udtrykkende tilstand (som resultat af en fuldført handling) eller handling. Det første ses i

The sheep are caught now, so don't worry

Det andet ses i

Every year the sheep are caught previous to being shorn

Denne dobbelthed i opfattelsen kan opløses ved ændret tempusbrug:

The sheep have been caught udtrykker overstået handling

§313

Til forebyggelse af misforståelse er der endvidere mulighed for at bruge *get* eller *become* som hjælpeverber i passiv. Sammenlign

He was engaged to a wonderful girl

(der oftest vil opfattes som udtrykkende en tilstand) med

He got / became engaged . . .

hvor der kun kan være tale om en ændring, en overgang fra én tilstand til en anden. – Det er især i det kollokviale sprog, at *get* bruges som hjælpeverbum til at danne passiv.

Reciprocitet (gensidighed), der på dansk ofte udtrykkes ved passiv ('de mødtes, skændtes, sloges, skiltes'), kan på engelsk udtrykkes enten ved en forbindelse med *each other* (*one another*) eller ved brug af verbet alene:

They met (each other)
They quarrelled (with each other)
They fought (with each other)
They parted (from each other)

Engelsk passiv kan ikke angive reciprocitet.

Engelsk passiv kan heller ikke bruges i en sætningstype svarende til den danske

'Der blev spist og drukket. Der blev leet og snakket overalt'. I stedet bruges andre vendinger, fx

People ate and drank

'Der blev banket på døren': There was a knock at the door / somebody knocked at the door

Til det danske 'Der blev drøftet mange problemer' svarer oftest *Many problems were discussed*. Dog findes også typen *There were discussed many problems which were quite new to me*, især når der som her er yderligere tilføjelser.

En sammenligning af engelsk og dansk viser, at der i engelsk er flere passivkonstruktioner end i dansk, hvilket bl.a. skyldes, at engelsk ikke råder over et ord, der helt svarer til dansk 'man', en dansk sætning med 'man' vil ofte svare ti len engelsk passivkonstruktion: *It was believed that* (= 'man troede, at...')

De udvidede tider

§316

De udvidede tider dannes af en form af *be* + *-ing*. De forekommer i præsens, præteritum, perfektum, pluskvamperfektum og futurum både i aktiv og passiv

§317

De udvidede tider kontrasterer i værdi med de simple tider. Det er vanskeligt at opsummere indholdet af udvidet tid enkelt og kort; i forskellige situationer kan forskellen mellem udvidet tid og simpel tid udgøres af en eller flere af følgende modsætninger (som ofte ikke kan holdes ude fra hinanden):

Udvidet tid betegner det aktuelle, dynamiske forløb af en handling eller proces, mens simpel tid anskuer det forhold, der betegnes af verbet, som en kendsgerning, uden at opmærksomheden rettes mod forløbet:

Look, it's raining again now >< It rains a lot in Scotland
The sun was rising when I got up >< The sun rose at six a.m.
Have you been reading Shakespeare this afternoon? >< Have you read Shakespeare?
He had been writing letters all (the) morning >< He had written seven letters that morning

§318

Bruges udvidet tid i præsens, kommer den således ofte til at beskrive, hvad der foregår nu, i dette øjeblik:

What is Mr Smith doing? Oh, he is working on his new novel in the study

Imidlertid er nuet et relativt begreb, der i den givne situation godt kan fortolkes ret vidt:

Mr Smith is writing another novel, so he is seeing nobody for three months

§319

Når udvidet tid som ovenfor nævnt retter opmærksomheden mod forløbet af en handling eller proces, kan resultatet i den givne situation blive, at udvidet tid antager en emotionel funktion, mens simpel tid betegner den nøgne kendsgerning. Synspunktet kan skifte fra øjeblik til øjeblik:

What has happened? I asked >< What has been happening to you? We've built up a life together, Rod and I >< For years we've been building up a life together

§320

Det må dog bemærkes, at forskellen mellem simpel og udvidet tid ikke behøver at være særlig udpræget. Dette ses tydeligt, når det drejer sig om verber med statisk indhold:

He wore a top hat >< He was wearing a top hat They have lived in London since 1948, while I have only been living here for two years

Undtaget er dog verberne: *lie down, sit down* og *stand up.* Simpel tid udtrykker oftest en momentan handling, udvidet tid beskriver en tilstand:

He lay down (= 'lagde sig ned') >< He was lying down (= 'lå ned') He sat down (= 'satte sig ned') >< He was sitting down (= 'sad ned') He stood up (= 'rejste sig op') >< He was standing up (= 'stod op')

§321

Den principielle forskel mellem udvidet tid og simpel tid kommer tydeligt frem, når et igangværende forløb eller en allerede foreliggende situation udmales og sættes op mod en momentan handling og således danner ramme om denne:

Smith sat reading Hamlet at his desk when suddenly the telephone rang
He was digging the garden when suddenly he saw a squirrel
The elderly couple were knocked down by a lorry as they were crossing the street
While she was walking through the park last night, a man snatched her bag from her hand and ran away

When she came home, they had dinner (. . . 'fik' . .) >< When she came home, they were having dinner (. . . 'sad og spiste' . .)

When he got into the train, it moved off >< When he was getting into the train, it moved off

§322

Når to igangværende forløb betragtes som samtidige, bruges udvidet tid i begge tilfælde:

He is digging the garden while I am cleaning the windows His dog was watching him while he was having his meal

§323

Da simpel tid i modsætning til udvidet tid bl.a. bruges til at udtrykke det gentagne og vanemæssige, er det naturligt at finde adverbierne always, (for)ever, continually, etc. kombineret med simpel tid:

He always smokes / smoked a pipe

Hvis disse adverbier forbindes med udvidet tid, hvad der på en måde strider mod deres grundbetydning, får udtrykket en særlig emotionel farve:

Throughout the time we knew each other, he was always treating me with extreme kindness.

I kraft af overdrivelsen går den slags udtryk ofte over til at betegne misbilligelse eller irritation:

She was forever making scenes, usually about nothing at all I am always asking myself if it is true or not In those days people weren't perpetually rushing off to hospital as they are now

§324

Udvidet tid bruges endvidere til at betegne nær fremtid:

He is going to Edinburgh next week

Da udvidet tid jo retter opmærksomheden mod forløbet, anskues handlingen eller processen i sådanne tilfælde som på en måde allerede værende i gang. Det er ofte bevægelsesverber, der anvendes således, tit med et element af hensigt:

Are you coming tonight?
He is leaving on Wednesday
They are moving house tomorrow

Som det ses, er der ofte en tidsangivelse vedføjet. – Også andre verber kan bruges på denne måde, således ofte når det drejer sig om et (nært) forestående arrangement som fx måltider:

We are dining out tonight
I am having coffee in the lounge
She is seeing the doctor tomorrow

Udvidet tid af go bruges i udstrakt grad om nær fremtid:

It is going to rain I am going to go now

73

138

§325

Verber, hvormed der ikke kan associeres en forestilling om forløb, kan ikke komme i udvidet tid; det gælder verber som (know), understand; (belong), contain, own, possess, (consist of / in), keep (= continue); appear (= seem), seem, resemble; deserve; please, satisfy, surprise

En anden gruppe verber, der betegner sansning, følelser og tanker, står normalt i simpel tid; det gælder fx

believe, doubt, feel (= think), find (= think), foresee, forget, hate, (hear), imagine, like, mean, notice, prefer, recognize, remember, (see), (smell), suppose, (taste), think, trust og want

§326

En del af de ovenfor nævnte verber kan imidlertid komme i udvidet tid, hvis de bruges i lidt afvigende (ofte mere indholdsmættede) betydninger, hvori forestillingen om forløb kan indgå:

As the train was appearing round the curve, a great cheer went up I am thinking the matter over I am finding that this problem is more complicated than I expected He is hearing lectures at the University She was imagining what it would be like to be married to that brute How are you liking your new job? You are feeling better now, aren't you?

§327

Verbet be som hjælpeverbum ved passiv bruges i udstrakt grad i udvidet tid:

The furniture is / was being removed

Be + adj. / subst. får den særlige nuance 'opføre sig' eller 'agere som', når be sættes i udvidet tid:

He is being silly >< He is silly

The party was being a success (her tænkes på, hvordan selskabet forløb) >< The party was a success (her fastslås en kendsgerning)

§328

Konkurrerende med udvidet tid findes konstruktionen lie / sit / stand + præsens participium:

She lay snoring on the sofa He sat looking at her His uncle stood drinking whisky by the fire

Her betones den stilling, den af subjektet betegnende person indtager, hvilket kun indirekte ville angives ved

She was snoring on the sofa

Disse tre verber kan også komme i udvidet tid, men det er sjældnere at finde eksempler som:

He was sitting reading his paper

Derimod er udvidet tid forholdsvis almindelig, hvis de to verbalformer på –ing adskilles fx ved et adverbielt led:

He was sitting in an easy-chair (lænestol) contentedly smoking his pipe

Konjunktiv

59

111

§ 329

Konjunktiv danner i moderne engelsk ikke noget gennemført system, som kontrasterer med indikativ. I de fleste tilfælde er konjunktivsfomer blevet fortrængt af konstruktioner med modalverber. Formelt kan konjunktiv kendetegnes ved formerne be (i hele præsens) og were (i 1. og 3. pers. præteritum); ved andre verber kontrasterer præsens indikativ 3. person singularis på –s med konjunktivsformen, der er lig med

verbets grundform. Her må det imidlertid bemærkes, at der er formelt sammenfald mellem konjunktiv og imperativ, således at det er usikkert, hvorledes et udsagn som

Long live the Queen!

skal fortolkes

§330

I hovedsætninger optræder konjunktiven i faste vendinger, der udtrykker ønske, håb, opfordring o. lign.:

God bless you! So be it! Suffice it to say . . . !

I argumenterende stil forekommer ikke sjældent eksempler som:

If this assumption be true, the whole theory collapses

8333

I juridisk sprog kan konjunktiven optræde i genstandsbisætninger efter verber, der udtrykker ønske eller forslag:

I propose that the matter be put to the vote at once It is imperative that the Prime Minister take some immediate step I move (foreslå) that the question be now put

§334

Endelig kan nævnes nogle forstenede vendinger som:

- . . . as it were
- . . . cost what it may
- . . . come what may
- . . . be that as it may

Hjælpeverber

Be

§339

Be bruges både som selvstændigt verbum og som hjælpeverbum. Normalt anvendes *have* som hjælpeverbum ved dannelsen af perfektum og pluskvamperfektum, men i begrænset omfang kan også *be* forekomme i denne funktion, når der tænkes på tilstanden mere end på den overståede handling:

Are you finished? >< Have you finished? He is gone (= borte) >< He has gone ('Han er taget af sted')

§340

Be to + infinitiv udtrykker, hvad der er aftalt, planlagt, arrangeret eller skæbnebestemt (mange danskere har problemer med at finde adækvate udtryk for det danske verbum skulle):

I am to meet him at five
The ship was to leave at seven
The criminal is to be hanged tomorrow
He was never to see his native country again

I alle disse tilfælde er der tale om en vilje, der ikke er subjektets; det er derfor naturligt, at vendingen tit bruges om en andens ordre:

Nurse said, "You are not to play in the garden" You are to report at headquarters at eight Am I to stand here forever?

Når were to + infinitiv optræder i betingelsesbisætninger, har det som regel ganske mistet sit indhold af aftale eller planlæggelse; måske kan der anes en rest af det skæbnebestemte ved brugen af were to + infinitiv i følgende eksempler:

If he were to come now, it would be rather awkward Even if we were to sell the house, it would be no good

Denne anvendelse af *were to* er synonym med *should*. Bruges simpel præteritum, er muligheden mindre usandsynlig:

Even if we sold the house, it would be no good If he came now, it would be a bit awkward

§341

Be omskrives med do i to tilfælde:

- 1. i emfatisk imperativ: Do be quiet! og
- 2. i imperativ med not. Don't be such a pig!

Have

§342

Have bruges dels som selvstændigt verbum, dels som hjælpeverbum. Når have bruges som selvstændigt verbum, afhænger det af dets betydning, om det omskrives med do eller ikke. I præsens omskrives have normalt ikke i britisk engelsk i betydninger, der ligger nær possess:

Have you any children?
I haven't any children
Have we time to go there?
I haven't time today
He hasn't a house

I talesproget bruges ofte i sådanne tilfælde vendinger med have got.

Have you got any children? I haven't got time today

I andre anvendelser af have bruges normalt omskrivning med do:

Do you have tea or coffee in the morning? Do you often have headaches? Does he ever have trouble with his car? How often does he have letters from his son?

Også forbindelsen have to følger denne regel:

Do you have to behave in that absurd fashion?

§343

Desuden skelnes der i britisk engelsk normalt mellem det sædvanemæssige (omskrivning med *do*) og det specifikke (ingen omskrivning med *do*), som det fremgår af følgende eksempler:

Do you generally have much time for reading? Have you (got) time to weed the garden this afternoon? Do you have bananas? Yes, we generally do, but we haven't got any today

§344

I præteritum kan omskrivningen med do indtræde i alle anvendelser af have som selvstændigt verbum:

Did he have any children?
We did not have time to go there
Did he ever have trouble with his car?
Did he have coffee or tea?
Did he really have to go there?

ved siden af det mere alm. Had he (got) any children? ved siden af det mere alm. We had not (got) time to go there

§345

Der bruges regelmæssigt omskrivning med do ved konstruktionen have + objekt + perfektum participium:

Did you have your watch repaired?

Do

§348

Do bruges som selvstændigt verbum, som hjælpeverbum og som vikarierende verbum

Selvstændigt:

What are you doing? She did her hair carefully He did Rome in a day It can't do any harm

Do som selvstændigt verbum omskrives med do efter de sædvanlige regler:

Do you do this often?

§349

Som hjælpeverbum bruges do

1) i spørgende hovedsætninger, hvor et spørgende led ikke er subjekt, og hvor der ikke findes noget andet hjælpeverbum; do står i præsens eller præteritum og hovedverbet i infinitiv:

Do you know him?
Does he drive a car?
Who did he tell the story to?
Why did they come home so early?
Why did he do it?
(dog AE (fra John Steinbeck's East of Eden): *why you tell med all things?)

Men

Who told you so? I asked him why he came so early How many people live there? Why have you told him? What can you do about it? Will he come?

Manglende omskrivning med do kan træffes i faste vendinger som:

How goes it?
What says the paper?

2) i hoved- og bisætninger i præsens og præteritum, når hovedverbet er benægtet med *not*, og når der intet andet hjælpeverbum eller ingen anden nægtelse findes, samt i imperativ med *not*:

I don't know him and he doesn't know me
He did not really try
I asked them why they did not come earlier
Of course we are all martyrs [ma:t*z] to our duty, who does not know that?
Don't be afraid!

Men ikke i:

de tilfælde, hvor not er knyttet til et andet led end hovedverbet:

He lives not far from the town I tried not to upset him Do you think it will rain? I hope not

de tilfælde, hvor der er et andet hjælpeverbum i sætningen:

He won't come She daren't do it

de tilfælde, hvor der er en anden nægtelse end not i sætningen:

They never told me

3) til at udtrykke emfase såvel i hovedsætninger som i bisætninger i præsens og præteritum samt i imperativ, den form af *do*, der bruges, har stærktryk:

I 'do like him I wondered whether he 'did believe me Who 'did tell you? 'Do tell me about it

4) når der kræves inversion (hvis sætningen indledes med et negativt eller indskrænkende led), og der intet andet hjælpeverbum findes:

Never did I see the like

Only when he got home did he discover that he had lost his purse

Particularly did the mines of Spanish America yield silver (ved udtryk, der angiver grad, kan der i bogsprog anvendes inversion)

§350

På overgangen mellem hjælpeverbers og selvstændige verbers funktioner står brugen af do som vikar for et andet verbum:

She writes well. Yes, she does You eat too much. No, I don't

Tag-questions (efterhængte spørgsmål)

He loves her, doesn't he He doesn't love her, does he?

Ud over disse almindelige funktioner kan *do* bruges til at træde i stedet for et hvilket som helst andet verbum for at undgå gentagelse:

You collect friends like you do paperweights (brevpresser) I suppose that I looked as much surprised as I did disgusted

Modalverberne (the modal <u>auxiliary</u> verbs)

The problem is not that they put a s on e.g. can saying *he cans or that they put to in front of e.g. shall saying *to shall or that they say *he has could. The pupils' problem, in my experience, is that they do not know how they are going to replace the **lacking forms** in the infinitive and the perfect (tense)/ the present perfect (tense). They do not know the **alternative forms** by which they are going to replace the lacking forms. Therefore I think it is very important as a teacher to focus on that specific matter, because they cannot look up the substitution forms in any dictionary. They do not know that they are auxiliaries only, having the effect that we cannot say e.g. *I can English; *he can everything except cook >< they know a lot of English; they can speak English

What is modality?

That is a linguistic expression of the speaker's attitude to the rest of the content of the sentence; a way of thinking; a view; the modal verb concerned/in question colours the whole content of the sentence

Verbets modalitet tjener til at vise, om en given ytring skal anses for sikker, mulig, tvivlsom, høflig el. lign.

På grund af deres indhold udgør (be, make up, account for, constitute) modalverberne en særlig gruppe. Mådesudsagnsordene udtrykker, hvad modus gør i flere sprog(: vil, skal, kan, må, tør, bør, (gider)). Modus: verbets måde (indikativ, konjunktiv osv.) som betegner den talendedes forhold til det, der siges i sætningen. Modal: vedr. måde, mådes-; betinget af forholdene. Modalitet: (af latin modus: måde) måde at tænke på Michael Swan: *Modality is the coloured filter of our subjectivity through which we perceive reality*

Bang-Nielsen, Elisabeth: *Enhjørningen og næsehornet – engelsk grammatik i grundskolen*, København: Alinea, 2008, p. 84 Modalverberne

Præteritopresentiske verber: om verber hvis oprindelige datidsform har fået nutids betydning

A complete scheme which I think is very important to present to your pupils. It is by no means all grammarians [gr*'me*ri*n] who include such a scheme

the infinitive	the present	the past	the perfect
to be able to (to be capable of, to know how to, to be allowed to, to	can	could	has been able to
to be possible to / be allowed to	may	might	has been allowed to
to have (got) to	must	must	has had to
to feel the necessity to	ought	ought	has felt the necessity to
to be obliged to	shall	should	has been obliged to

to want to / to be willing to will would has wanted to / been willing to

dare

need

(it is often optional whether you say have to or have got to, but I shall come back to that later on)

Characteristics:

1 mangler (lack) infinitiv (the infinitive), s-form og participiumsformer (the 'participle forms) (dog to will – he wills – he willed – he has willed; to will: testamentere (fx one's money to sby); gennemføre ved en viljesanstrengelse (fx I –ed it); ville (fx God –ed it))

They lack the infinitive, the s-form in the 3rd person present singular and the participle forms: the present participle and the past participle

2 omskrives (combine with, connect with) ikke med do (in negative and interrogative sentences)

They are not combined with a form of the auxiliary verb to do in negative or interrogative sentences

He doesn't want to come He cannot come

Does he want to swim? Can he swim?

3 en følgende infinitiv af hovedverbet tilknyttes (attach to/connect with) uden to undtagen ved ought, der altid følges af to (samt used to men dette verbum er ikke et modalverbum)

When they are succeeded by an infinitive there is no to attached to the infinitive

He wants to swim
He can swim
He must swim
He ought to swim

- 4 They only exist in the present and the past
- 5 They never appear, occur, to be found together with other modals

Can/could

§352

1) Evne (ability)

Can you come tonight? He cannot swim

Erstatning: Are you able to come?

Uden for (outside) præsens (the present (tense)) og præteritum (the past (tense), the preterite [pret*rit]) er omskrivning med *able* nødvendig

Will you be able to do it in a month?

Note: Når handlingen, der refereres til, faktisk blev udført (performed), bruges was/were able to og ikke could

He was able to / managed to swim halfway before he sank

Faktisk foreliggende mulighed (a real existing possibility)

Children can be very trying

Denne anvendelse af can er især almindelig, når der følger en passiv infinitiv (followed by; F succeeded by)

The island can be reached on foot or by motor-car

(Noticeable, worth mentioning i denne anvendelse (use) kan can og could ikke erstattes af forbindelser med able; derimod er det muligt at omskrive (paraphrase) med utryk med (im)possible: It is possible to reach the island ..., og udtryk med (im)possible er obligatoriske uden for præsens og præteritum)

Mærk at, typen *It could be true*, der – trods præteritumsformen – ikke refererer til noget fortidigt, men til noget nutidigt, der betragtes som mindre sandsynligt (probable; likely)

3) Tilladelse (permission)

Can I have that cake? Yes, you can You can't smoke in here

Mærk også her typen

Could I have a light? (tændstik),

hvor præteritumsformen refererer til noget nutidigt, men udtrykker større grad af høflighed, end præsensformen Can I have a light? ville gøre

May/might

§353

1 Usikker mulighed (uncertain possibility)

This may (or may not) be true He said that this might (or might not) be true I may come, but I cannot promise

En præteritumsform her: I might come . . . refererer til det nutidige, men gør muligheden endnu mere usikker

Can og may er i nær berøring, idet forskellen mellem den faktisk foreliggende og den mere usikre mulighed i visse sammenhænge kan være meget lille

Books can be borrowed by householders . . . Books required for serious reading may also be borrowed from a National Central Library

Forskellen er her umærkelig, men i negerede (negate [ni'geit]) sætninger er der tydelig forskel

Take the chance now – it 'may not happen again Don't be afraid – it can't happen again

Mærk endvidere forfatterens brug af may i vendinger som As an example I may mention..., og He may be said to be..., hvor may er udtryk for større beskedenhed, end can ville være

Grundbetydningen "usikker mulighed" kan genfindes

a) i udtryk, der betegner henstilling (request)

It may be better for you to go and see him if you don't believe me

b) i bisætninger (subordinate clauses), der udtrykker indrømmelse, hensigt eller følge (concessive clause, clause of intention or consecutive clause)

He put a statement in the newspaper in order that everyone might know what he had done

I hensigt- og følgesætninger (clause of intention and consecutive clause) konkurrerer may med can, shall og will:

I shall lock the door so that no one may/can/shall/ will enter

2 Tilladelse

May I have another piece of cake? He asked them if he might join them

Desuden bruges might om det nutidige og udtrykker da større høflighed end may

May/might I use (borrow) your telephone?

Til at udtrykke forbud (prohibition) kan may not konkurrere med must not

May I go now? No you may not

Derudover forekommer *may not* i officielle forbud, hvor man foretrækker en mildere formulering (statement, formulation) (altså ikke forbud, men mangel på tilladelse)

This book may 'not be introduced into the USA

På overgangen mellem tilladelse og usikker mulighed står en anvendelse af may som i følgende eksempel:

He may not be very intelligent, but his heart is in the right place, der kan udlægges

- 1) I grant you that he is not very intelligent... eller
- 2) I am uncertain about his intelligence...

3 Ønske, høflig anmodning

May he come soon!

May you be forgiven!

May all your troubles be little ones!

Mærk også brugen af may i genstandsbisætninger (subordinate object clauses) efter wish o. lign.:

I wish he may prosper I pray that your brother's life may be spared

Must

§354

1 Must udtrykker nødvendighed, dels en nødvendighed, som indefra pålægges (instruct, order, direct, charge, dictate) den talende

I must say that it is a bit stiff We must go now

Og dels en nødvendighed, der af den talende (the speaker, the person speaking) pålægges andre (put on to)

You must come immediately They must do as they are told

I andre tilfælde tager nødvendigheden form af en uafviselig (not to be refused/rejected) konklusion

He must be a fool

It must be very trying not to be able to retaliate

Disse ovenfornævnte forskellige former for nødvendighed sammenfattes (sum up by using the term, appellation, designation) under betegnelsen "indre nødvendighed" (internal obligation)

§355

"Den ydre nødvendighed"

Tænkes der ikke på, at nødvendigheden udgår fra den talende, men derimod fra ydre omstændigheder, buges normalt *have to*

You will have to wash your clothes when you join the Army I have to be at my office at nine every day

I mange situationer vil der være mulighed for at veksle mellem "indre" og "ydre" nødvendighed efter synspunktet, der anlægges:

I simply must go now

I am sorry I have to go now, but my husband is waiting

She must do as she is told

She has to do as she is told, otherwise she will get the sack

I præteritum vil der som regel kun være brug for at udtrykke "indre" nødvendighed, når det drejer sig om forskellige former for indirekte tale, dvs. når konteksten angiver, at *must* skal opfattes for tidligt:

He said/thought he must tell her

In 1523 it was decreed that apprentices must be of English birth He did not like it at all; he must do something about it

"Ydre nødvendighed" angives i præteritum ved had to

He said he had to go

Every morning he had to get up at six

I stedet for have to bruger dagligsproget ofte have got to

Have you got to go now? He has got to help her

Er der tale om et alment eller gentaget forhold (what is generally done), foretrækkes dog oftest have to

Do you have to work on Saturdays? Men Have you got to work next Saturday?

Must + not betegner et forbud (a ban), som den talende står inde for

You mustn't spoil her

§356

Som nævnt kan must udtrykke en nødvendighed, der af den talende pålægges andre

You must come immediately

Must not (eller must + anden nægtelse) betegner et forbud, som den talende står inde for

You mustn't spoil her They must not come before three It must not be thought that he has ever said anything about it Nobody must tell her

Da may kan udtrykke tilladelse, er det klart, at may not (negeret tilladelse) også kan udtrykke forbud

'May I go now?' 'No, you may not'

I dagligsproget findes denne anvendelse i sådanne svar på spørgsmål, hvor *may* har været anvendt. Derudover forekommer *may not* i officielle forbud, hvor man foretrækker en mildere formulering (altså ikke forbud, men mangel på tilladelse)

This book may 'not be introduced into the USA Alcoholic liquors may 'not be sold anywhere without a licence No public house may open before 10 a.m.

§357

Medens must + nægtelse betegner forbud, udtrykker *have (got) to* + nægtelse det samme som *need* + nægtelse, dvs. ikke-nødvendighed

Must I go by bus? Oh, no, you needn't Of course, you haven't got to come (=you needn't come), but I should like to see you there

Ought

§358

Ought udtrykker først og fremmest

A moralsk forpligtelse, men også

B hvad der i almindelighed passer sig (accepted), og

C hyad der naturligt kan ventes (expected)

You ought not to beat your wife Children ought to obey their teachers

Når konteksten er holdt i fortid, dvs. som regel i forskellige former for indirekte tale, opfattes *ought* med præteritumsbetydning

I said I ought to go

He had spent all that money in less than a week; he ought to be ashamed of himself

Mens brugen af *ought* forudsætter (presuppose) anerkendelsen (acknowledgement) af en mere eller mindre almen kodeks (code), anvendes *should* overvejende (chiefly, mainly, predominantly) som udtryk for den talendes egen holdning

You shouldn't smoke so much, that's my advice men You ought not to smoke so much, you know what the doctors say

I vulgærsproget forekommer der omskrivning med do ved ought

You didn't ought to have done such a thing

Shall/should

Will/would

65

122b spørgsmål, der udtrykker anmodning, ønske om anvisninger, forslag, tilladelse o.lign

Shall I make you a cup of coffe? (Would you like me to . . . ?) What shall we do this evening? Shall we listen to some music? You shall do exactly as you wish Let's listen to some music, shall we?

122c løfte eller trussel

The Society's nomination committee shall nominate one person for the office of President
The Minister of Education shall arrange for the decisions of the Committee to be carried into effect
You shall not kill
All shall die
I shall not marry him, whatever you say
You shall have the money tomorrow
You shall never see me again
He says he won't go, but he shall
Have you determined that Iris [ai*ris] shall not mary this boy?

§359

Shall og will kan i deres tryksvage former anvendes til at danne <u>futurum</u> således at shall bruges i 1. person, will i 2. og 3. person

I've no doubt I shall see him next week They will be sorry if you do not come Shall I wash the car for you? Shall we fetch some chairs? I shall like it here

§360

Denne anvendelse af *shall* og *will*, som den ses i eksemplerne ovenfor, rummer kun fremtid, (<u>ren fremtid</u>) men bruges *will* i 1. person, *shall* i 2. og 3. person, udtrykkes der efter omstændighederne (in the circumstances; comparatively) løfte (promise) eller trussel, dvs "<u>the speaker's intention</u>", hvori der naturligvis indgår <u>et element af fremtid (viljesfremtid</u>).

I will see to it that you get punished for this You shall have the book tomorrow He shall smart for this (dette skal komme til at stå ham dyrt) He shall get his money

They shall certainly not be allowed to get away with that

§361

Mellem I shall help you og I will help you er der ikke stor forskel; og i I'll help you kan 'll tolkes som dækkende enten shall eller will, skønt 'll etymolgisk er en svækket form af will. Derimod udtrykker I shall come vished om noget fremtidigt; I will come udtrykker den talendes faste vilje. Paradoksalt nok bliver det stærkeste udtryk for den talendes vilje alligevel I shall come ('Fremtiden ligger fast på dette punkt'). Hermed kunne sammenlignes brugen af det tryksage will i befalinger, fx indenfor militæret: You will proceed to H.Q. immediately, hvor den, der udsteder ordren, går ud fra som givet, at fremtiden vil forme sig som indeholdt i ordren

§362

Hvis subjektet består af et pronomen i 2./3. person + pronomen i 1. person, bruges will om det fremtidige

You and I will go first They and we will come last

§363

I amerikansk engelsk (samt i andre former for engelsk uden for Received Standard), samt nu også i moderne britisk engelsk er der en stærk tendens til at bruge will i alle personer til at udtrykke ren fremtid

To think of it – tomorrow I will wake up in this first-class hotel suite – who sould have thoguht of that a year ago!

I am studying English at the University of Copenhagen in the hope that I will emerge with a certain amount of education

§368

Endvidere bruges udtrykket be going to + infinitiv ofte i konkurrence med shall/will + infinitiv:

1. Fra anvendelser som *He is going toScotland* (= 'Han skal til skotland') er overgangen let til anvendelser af udtrykket *be going to*, hvor det betegner a) subjektets hensigt:

I am going to meet ther at the staton at nine He is going to buy himself a new car Are you going to help me?

og b) at den talende er sikker på, at noget vil ske:

Look at that sky; it is going to rain

2. Udtryk med *be going to* angiver oftest en (relativt) nær fremtid, medens *shall/will* ikke er begrænset til den nære fremtid:

He is very ill; he is going to die, men We shall all die som day

3. I andre tilfælde er det ikke forskellen mellem nær og ikke-nær fremtid der skiller udtrykkene, men at be going to hovedsagelig bruges, når der ikke angives nærmere omstændigheder eller betingelser, mendens shall/will forektrækkes, hvor dette er tilfældet:

He is going to sell his house, men He will sell his house if you press him I am going to sue you, men Unless you take back that statement, I shall sue you

4. Den forskel, der ses i 3., er beslægtet med forskellen mellem det forud påtænkte (be going to) og den i det pågældende øjeblik fattede besltuning (shall/will):

A: 'There is no milk in the fridge' B: 'I am going to buy some' (= 'Det har jeg tænkt på og har allerede besluttet at købe noget'), men

A: 'There is no milk in the fridge' B: 'I'll buy some' (= 'Nå, er der ikke, jamen så må jeg se at få købt noget')

§370

Svarende til brugen af *shall/will* + infinitiv om det fremtidige anvendes *should/would* i præteritum (fortids fremtid); dog bruges *would* i stigende grad også i 1. person

I expect that I shall succeed > I expected that I should succeed He says that he will come > He said that he would come

Det omvendte system med will i 1. person og shall i 2. og 3. person (the speaker's intention) forskydes tilsvarende

We will all help you if we can > We said that we would all help you if we could You shall have the book tomorrow > I said you should have the book tomorrow

<u>Viljeselementet i will kan</u> efter omstændighederne <u>drejes til at angive naturlig tilbøjelighed</u> (tendency to, (nedsættende) propensity to) eller den for subjektet karakteristiske gentagne handling

Boys will be boys
Accidents will happen
When the cat is away, the mice will play
He will sit like that for hours
Whenever he is asked that question, he will answer that it is none of his business

Mellem I shall help you og I will help you er der ikke stor forskel; og i I'll help you kan 'll tolkes som dækkende enten shall eller will

Hvis subjektet består af et pronomen i 2./3. person + et pronomen i 1. person, bruges will om det fremtidige

You and I will go first They and we will come last

Både i britisk og amerikansk engelsk er will ved at fortrænge (ousted [austid]) shall til at udtrykke ren fremtid i første person

I am at university in the hope that I will emerge with a certain amount of education

§372

Should forekommer desuden i forskellige andre anvendelser (purposes)

1 til at udtrykke en forsigtig (discreet), høflig henstilling (suggestion) eller vurdering (assessment)

You should take that job He should be given a chance You shouldn't have told her

En lignende anvendelse af *should* forekommer ofte i bisætninger efter verber, der udtrykker ordre, henstilling (recommendation) eller ønske

He ordered that they should leave the country They suggested that he should come

2 i betingelsesbisætninger (conditional clause) til at udtrykke det tænkelige (imaginable, possible, conceivable), men usandsynlige (improbable, unlikely)

If the house should catch fire, I shall call the fire-brigade (Saml. If the house catches fire. . . , hvor muligheden anses for langt mere nærliggende) Should this vote go against the Cabinet, it could not carry on the government

Denne brug af *should* er synonym med *were to*Be to + infinitiv udtrykker, hvad der er aftalt, planlagt, arrangeret eller skæbnebestemt (destined, fated)

I am to meet him at five
The ship was to leave at seven
The criminal is to be hanged tomorrow
You are to speak out if we are to remain friends
He was never to see his native country again

I alle disse tilfælde er der tale om en vilje, der ikke er subjektets (subject); det er derfor naturligt, at vendingen tit bruges om en andens ordre

Nurse said, "You are not to play in the garden"

3 til at understrege det subjektive (subjective) element i vurderinger

It is better that such language should not be repeated in Court The worst that can happen is that he should get lost How strange that we should meet here! How should I know? Why should I do it?

4 i hensigtsbisætninger (clause of intention)

He dyed his hair so that they should not recognize him He put a statement in the newspaper in order that everyone shold know what he had done

Would forekommer desuden i følgende anvendelser

1 udtrykke iboende (inherent) egenskab (quality, characteristic, property) eller evne

He knew that cork would float on water How would you know?

2 udtrykke naturlig tilbøjelighed (inclination, tendency; propensity) eller den for subjektet karakteristiske gentagne handling

He would sit like that for hours

A: He has gone and made a fool of himself again - B: He 'would (=Det ligner ham)

Would bruges som en høfligere form end will i anmodninger

Would you please help me Shut the door, would you?

Used to

§374

Used to [ju:st/(rare) ju:zd t*] behandles også under hjælpeverberne, fordi det i spørgende og nægtende (interrogative, negative) sætninger i standardengelsk ikke i almindelighed bruger omskrivning med do

Used [ju:st] he to smoke? He use(d)n't [ju:snt] to come here very often You used to know her, use(d)n't you?

I udpræget talesprog (colloquial) er omskrivning med do dog ikke sjælden

Did he use to live here? He didn't use to answer when spoken to

Used to ligger betydningsmæssigt nær would, når der refereres til et gentaget forhold i fortiden; i used to ligger der en (underforstået) kontrast til det nutidige

I used to believe in Santa Claus, but no I know better

Mens would betegner subjektets naturlige tilbøjelighed eller karakteristiske gentagne handling

The old sailor would sit for hours watching the ships He used to come every Sunday (but he does so no longer) >< He would come every Sunday (he was madly in love with my daughter)

Dare

§375

Dare kan både være fuldverbum (main verb) og modalverbum. Brugt transitivt er det kun fuldverbum

He dares / dared me to jump the ditch (udfordre) He will dare any danger (trodse, udsætte sig for)

I andre tilfælde med eller uden efterfølgende infinitiv kan dare bruges dels som fuldverbum, dels som modalverbum (j.fr. s. 71 pkt. 3)

He dare not do it (modal) He does not dare (to) do it Dare he come? (modal) Does he dare (to) come? She dared not go (modal) She did not dare (to) go Dared she go? (modal) Did she dare (to) go?

He never dared (to) see her again (skelnes ikke)

They have never dared (to) tell me the truth (skelnes ikke)

I alle de tilfælde, hvor to er sat i parentes, er det mest almindeligt at medtage to. Når to udelades optræder dare som en blanding af fuldverbum og hjælpeverbum. Efter præsens participium har infinitiven altid to

Not daring to face the consequences, he left the country immediately

I indignerede udbrud med how bruges kun modalverbum

How dare you tell me such a thumping (gevaldig) lie?

I imperativ med not bruges kun omskrivning (a paraphrase) med do

Don't you dare (to) touch me!

I præteritum bruges enten dared eller dare, den sidste form kun, når sammenhængen angiver det fortidige, fx ved indirekte tale (indirect speech)

He said he dare(d) not do it / daren't do it

Need

§376

Need er både fuldverbum og modalverbum. Når det har (pro)nominalobjekt, kan det kun behandles som fuldverbum

He needs/needed a holiday Does/Did he need the money? She does/did not need any further warning

I andre tilfælde kan *need* bruges dels som fuldverbum (da altid med *to* foran en efterfølgende (subsequent, succeeding, additional) infinitiv, således altid efter præsens participium), dels som modalverbum (j.fr. s. 71 pkt. 3)

Not needing to be told the way to the station, he immediately proceeded He needs to be told
Does/Did he need to be told?
She doesn't/didn't need to be told
He need not be told (modal)
Need he be told? (modal)

I fremsættende udsagn bruges normalt kun fuldverbum, i nægtende og spørgende sætninger kan der principielt bruges både fuldverbum og modalverbum, dog er tendensen til at bruge modalverbum stærkest

Mærk, at den ubøjede form need bruges med fortidig betydning i indirekte tale

She said I needn't come

I nogle tilfælde kan der i nægtende og spørgende sætninger konstateres en betydningsforskel

- 1 You needn't clean the kitchen today, the sweep is coming tomorrow
- 1 He needn't be told (= Keep it secret, there is not neccessity to tell him)
- 1 You need not stay (= You may go)
- 2 You don't need to be at the office till ten, as far as I understand
- 2 He does not need to be told (= He already knows, so he has no need of being told)
- 2 You don't need to stay (= It is not necessary for you to stay, there is nothing you can do)
- I 1 er der tale om modal brug, dvs. den talende står inde for nødvendigheden af det sagte
- I 2 er der tale om nødvendighed betinget af ydre omstændigheder

Verbalkongruens

77

§377

Normalt har et singularissubstantiv verbet i singularis, et pluralissubstantiv verbet i pluralis:

The Colonel was absent His two brothers have both left for America

Undertiden forekommer der dog singularis i verbet efter pluralissubjekt i eksempler som:

More children (= the fact of there being more children) means more marriages – more marriages means more children

She thought that men together (= the fact of men being together) was always pleasant

Two public-houses in one street was an excessive number (singularisprædikativet spiller desuden en rolle for valget af singularisverbum)

78

161+162

§378

Der hersker vaklen mellem singularis og pluralis i verbet i taludtryk som:

Twice three is / are six
Seven and eight are / is fifteen
Thirteen plus three is / are sixteen
Three and four make(s) seven
Nine divided by three is three
Sixteen less six leaves ten
Twenty-three minus nineteen is four

Ved a number of efterfulgt af pluralissubstantiver er der kraftig tendens til pluralis i verbet, især når substantivet efter of betegner personer:

A number of spectators were watching the incident

A great number of refrigerators were (was) imported last year

379

Pluralissubstantiver, der er titler på bøger, skuespil etc., har normalt verbet i singularis, når der tænkes på værket som helhed:

Sons and Lovers is one of Lawrence's finest novels

Plain Tables from the Hills are very far from being plain (letfattelig, ligetil) (pluralis, fordi der tænkes på de enkelte historier)

78

164

§ 380

Normalt er verbet i singularis efter there og here, når subjektet er et singularissubstantiv, ellers i pluralis:

There is a man who wants to see you There are two men waiting for you

.

Ofte findes dog singularis i verbet, selv om subjektet består af flere led:

In the room there was a table, an easy-chair, a couple of straight-backed chairs, and a sofa

hvor singularisformen skyldes, at den talende ikke i forvejen har overvejet, hvad han ville sige. I kollokvialt sprog og i vulgærsprog bruges singularis i verbet også i typer som:

There's two gentlemen come too see you Here's the books you asked for

77

157

§381

Singularissubstantiv + singularissubstantiv som subjekt har normalt verbet i pluralis:

My father and mother were both musical

Men hvis de to substantiver er mere eller mindre semantisk beslægtede, og hvis de kan opfattes som en enhed, kommer verbet ofte i singularis:

Bed and breakfast is provided at £20

Every rag (pjalt, las, klud) and bone was carefully hoarded (samle sammen)

Curried chicken, apple-tart, and a bottle of claret (rødvin) was the regulation fare (forskriftsmæssig kost) at those social re'pasts (måltid)

77

158-159

§ 382

Hvis der til et singularissubjekt er knyttet en præpositionsforbindelse med with, er verbet normalt i singularis:

A man with a dog on a lead was coming towards me

Ved konstruktioner med as well as er der vaklen mellem singularis- og pluralisform i verbet, dog således, at den del af subjektet, der står før as well as, oftest bestemmer tallet:

John as well as his brothers was against the plan My brothers as well as my father were against the plan

78

160

§382

I udtryk med not only . . . but also er det som regel sidste led af subjektet, der bestemmer verbets tal:

Not only Smith, but also his colleagues have been sacked

Not only the kittens, but also the cat was drowned

§383

Ved (either –) or og neither – neither retter verbet sig i almindelighed efter det sidste led:

(Either) my sisters or I was to meet him at the station

To this day the 'heretic, the grouser ([graus*] brokkehoved), or the crank (særling) is allowed full play in club or pub

Neither my sisters nor I was able to go

Neither I nor my sisters were able to go

78

166

§384

I relativsætninger bestemmes verbets tal af relativpronominets antecedens:

My uncle, who has just returned, is going to buy himself a house in the country My parents, who have both died, gave me a good education

Dette gælder også, hvis der intet relativpronomen er:

There is a man on the telephone wants to speak to you There are two men want to speak to you

Undertiden kan der være tvivl om, hvad der er antecedens. I eksempeltypen

He is one of the greatest painters that have ever lived One of the books that have meant most to me is Lawrence's Sons and Lovers foretrækker det soignerede sprog at betragte pluralissubstantivet henholdsvis *painters* og *books* som antecedens

På den anden side er det forståeligt, at mange opfatter *one* i denne sætningstype som antecedens og derfor bruger singularisverbum i relativsætningen:

She is one of those girls who always falls in love with elderly men

Denne sprogbrug anses dog af nogle for mindre korrekt

§385

I relativsætninger bestemmes verbets person af relativpronominets antecedens:

It is I who am to blame
It is you who are to blame
It is he who is to blame
It is they who are to blame

Der er dog i talesproget en vis tendens til at bruge 3. person singularis, selv når antecedens er i 1. eller 2. person:

My God, it's not me who's shouting It's you who's shouting

j.fr. Knud Schibsbye

§6.1

Just a few (chrysanthemums) looks much better

Even though he now lives in West Germany, the murderers in our midst (midt iblandt os) is still his major preoccupation

I det første eks. er det indholdsmæssige subjekt forholdet 'having just a few in a vase' og i det andet eks. er det indholdsmæssige subjekt emnet 'the murderers in our midst'

6.2.1

To eller flere substantiver forbundet ved visse konjunktioner og præpositioner kan svinge for den sproglige opfattelse: snart føles den hele forbindelse som verbets subjekt, snart kun ét af leddende. Således når to stubstantiver er forbundet med

(together) with as well as no less than

her er den 'korrekte' konstruktion med singularis af verbet

Winifred with the children was tied to the little flat in London The girl as well as the boys has learned to ride

To eller flere substantiver forbundet ved *and* eller umiddelbart sidestillede får verbet tilknyttet i pl. eller sg. i overensstemmelse med indholdet: altså oftest pl.

In my heart are peace and goodwill

A cart and horse was seen at a distance

The author, the wit, the partisan [pa:ti'zæn], the fine gentleman, does not take the place of the man

I sidste eksempel repræsenterer de opregnede sustantiver særskilte muligheder, altså *or* ikke *and* ville have været konjunktionen mellem opregningens led, hvis den havde været udtrykt

Der er dog nogen vaklen, sammenlign tilfælde som

The horse and cart were gone The liver and bacon were ready

Ved konjunktioner med disjunktiv (adskillende) værdi, som

not only . . . but (also) or either . . . or neither . . . nor partly . . . partly

opstår numerusvanskelighederne, når de forbundne subjekter er i forskelligt tal; løsningen er sædvanligvis, at verbet i tal retter sig efter det nærmeste af de to subjekter

Not only the children are ill, but also the mother Either the mayor or the aldermen (rådmand) are to blame Neither the girls nor John is to blame

Ved or med svækkelse af den disjunktive værdi kan numerus blive vaklende

A word or two is (are) needed here

Og forbindelsen one or two = a few har altid pl.

There are one or two subjects on which you are bound to have but one opinion

6.2.2.

Subjekt og prædikatsnomen i forskelligt tal: I denne konstruktion har man kongruens mellem subjektet og verbet

A man is thousands of different persons Her children are her sole care Her principal anxiety was her children The chief curse is taxes

6.2.3

Når subjektet er et substantiv i pluralisform, kan der ved numerusmodsætning mellem form og indhold blive kongruensproblem i følgende tilfælde:

1. Citatord i pluralisform forbindes kun med singularis af verbet

'Mice' is the plural of 'mouse' 'Sons of Lovers' is a splendid novel Your 'Pickwick Papers' was found on my table

2. Geografiske navne og lign. i pluralis. Byers navne har singularis af verbet, selv om de minder om pluralisformer

Naples is worth visiting Brussels is a very nice city Lyons is so interesting and picturesque

Men ellers er det normale, at geografiske flertalsbetegnelser har flertal af verbet

Kew Gardens have become famous
The Netherlands are washed by the North Sea

The United States er et særligt tilfælde. Her er flertalsformen af verbet vigende

He declared that the United States was / were ever ready to cooperate with other nations

3. Firmanavne, institutitonsbetegnelser o.l. i pluralis forholder sig som kollektiver, altså vekslende tal efter det semantiske indhold

Imperial Chemicals have pooled their research results with those of Swedish Scientists British Airways has arranged to complete its move to Heston airport There were doubts about whether the United Nations was going too far

6.2.4.

Vender vi os fra citatord og proprier til appellativerne, kan vi opdele de substantiver, der udelukkende forekommer i flertalsform, i tre hovedtyper

1. Ental eller flertal af verbet svarende til den virkelighed, der udtrykkes med substantivet: *innings* (halvleg i bl.a. kricket; magtperiode; chance e.g. *you have had your innings, it is your innings now*), *means, barracks* (kaserne) m. fl. Disse dækker tællelige begreber og har samme form om én og flere enheder. Vi får altså:

This innings is . . .
These innings are . . .
His innings was a valuable one
Every means has been tried
All possible means have been adopted

Er der ikke andre numerusangivelser i sætningen, er verbets tal vaklende

The other headquarters is (are) also close to the Thames The barracks was (were) quite near

2. pains; measles, mumps (fåresyge), rickets (engelsk syge); billiards, draughts o.l., som dækker ikketællelige begreber, forholder sig noget svingende: pains har hyppigst flertal:

Great pains have (has) been taken Much pains has been taken

Measles forbindes med singularis; mumps, rickets hyppigst med singularis, men kan dog forbindes med pluralis; - billiards, draughts tager verbet i singularis

Whereabouts (opholdssted; tilholdssted; beliggenhed) forbindes med singularis

A place whose whereabouts is unknown to me Her present whereabouts is unknown to me

The Middle Ages forbindes med sg. eller pl.

The Middle Ages comprise one thousand years The Middle Ages was the the age of volunteers

3. Substantiver på –*ics* forbindes med vekslende nummerus i verbet. Når disse substantiver betegner "faget", forbindes de med singularis

What is ethics? Metaphysics deals with abstractions

Men brugt om "udslag" eller "aktivitet" forbindes de med verbet i pluralis

Economics invariably give way to national necessity Such ethics are abominable Politics ruin the character

6.2.5.

Målsangivleser i pluralis forbindes amindeligst med verbet i singularis

Four years has seemed a long time
Over one hundred acres of fertile land to the south of Cardigan Bay has been saved for posterity (eftertiden)
From this comes five tons of pure sulphur
Thirty shillings was paid for a pound of tea in 1710

Men flertal er dog ikke sjældent

Ten pounds were more than he could afford Another hundred and fifty years were to pass Nearly three weeks of electoral activity lie ahead

Ved regnestykker er det sædvanlige numerusforhold som følger:

Three and three make / are six
Three plus three are / equals six
Three times three is / are nine
Four from six leaves two
Twenty divided by five equals four

Brøkdele af helheder har numerus svarende til det semantiske indhold

Three fourths of the surface of the earth is water Three fourths of our class are against the plan Over three quarters of the town is destroyed

6.2.6. a lot / lots / heaps

I det boglige sprog frembyder *lot* og *lot*s ikke noget kongruensproblem, idet de forbindes med henholdsvis singularis- og pluralissubstantiver

A lot of money was needed There were lots of people

Men i kollokvialt sprog overholdes dette forhold ikke, og her har de pågældende forbindelser singularis af verbet ved "uncountables", pluralis ved "countables"

There was heaps of fun
There was lots of fun
There were lots of people
There is heaps more to say on this question
There are heaps of books on the subject

6.2.7.

Det indledende there har sædvanligvis ingen indflydelse på verbets tal

There is a man outside There are many people Dog kan naturligvis singularis forekomme i tilfælde som følgende, hvor subjektets flertalsbegreb er fremkommet ved en "afterthought"

There was biscuit left in their saddle bags, and some sausages

I udannet sprog følges there almindeligt af singularis, selv om subjektet er i pluralis

There was nearly fifty thousand down at he Bridge this afternoon

6.2.8.

De appellativer i sg.-form, der frembyder kongurensproblemer, falder i tre grupper:

1. De der udelukkende er udtryk for pluralisbegreb og derfor kun forbindes med verbet i pluralis, som cattle, people (= mennesker)

The cattle are grazing

2. Ord for tællelige foreteelser uden mærke i pl., som: *deer, sheep, (air)craft, counsel* (= advokat(er)); disse har verbet i sg. el. pl. svarende til den virkelighed, der udtrykkes med substantivet

The first counsel here is Mr. . . .

How many counsel for the prosecution were there?

3. Kollektiver. Her veksler verbets numerus i overensstemmelse med, hvilken side af disse substantivers indhold der er dominerende i den givne sammenhæng. Helhed eller individerne. Det drejer sig om ord som *family, crowd, police,* etc.

The whole family was summoned

The assembly was dissolved

The House of Commons has accepted a proposal to set up a pension fund for members At this early stage Birmingham already have one of their best players injured

Et kollektiv + of + substantiv i pluralis forholder sig almindeligvis ikke anderledes end det blotte kollektiv; altså indholdet, ikke subjektets form, er bestemmende for verbets tal

This class of words differs from the third class

The remarkable succession of monarchs who for a century past have ruled over Belgium

The greatest part of these years was spent . . .

The greatest part of the children were illiterate

There is a family of painters

Tilfælde af attraktion til det nærmeststående led af subjektet kan dog findes med numerus i modstrid med indholdet

Here was a pair of fellows who ignored his experiments

It will be observed that the United Kingdom percentage share is appreciably greater if the whole of the imports are considered

Det kan bemærkes, at typen: demonstrativt pronomen + kind el. sort + of + subst. i plur.:

This kind of apples

That sort of men

kun forbindes med verbet i sg.:

This kind of apples is higly prized, idet flertalsbegrebet (: de individuelle bestanddele af helhed) udtrykkes med den afvigende konstruktion: apples of this kind / men of that sort

6.2.9.

Et substantiv i singularis, hvortil der knyttes to adjektiviske led, der betegner adskilte sider af substantivets indhold, forbindes med pl. af verbet

Secondary and higher education have also been made available – less freely in England than in America Good and bad bread are different to our taste

6.2.10

All er i substantivisk anvendelse enten fælleskøn pluralis (: And so say all of us) eller neutrum sg. (all is well). Vi får altså i overensstemmelse med, hvad der er sagt i 6.2.2., sg. af verbet i tilfælde som:

All they wanted was better conditions of labour as wage-slaves All that Italy holds effectively is two narrow strips of the country

What i interrogativ anvendelse frembyder intet numerusproblem

What is your name? What are your reasons?

Who og which følges af sg. el. pl. efter den talendes intention

Who was / were with him? Which of the books is / are yours?

Som selvstændigt relativum forbindes what med såvel singularis som pluralis, når verbet følges af et pluralis substantiv

What is needed is acts

I disse tilfælde anses det for korrekt at lade sæningselementet med *what* som selvstændigt relativ være fulgt af singularis, altså det i 6.2.2. anførte forhold, at subjektet – ikke prædikatsnominet – bestemmer verbets tal. – Derimod er pluralis af verbet det amindelige i tilfælde som:

What the air contained were carbon monoxide gas and prussic [a] acid gas (blåsyregas)
What does matter are the kind of expectations that delegates take back from the seaside to the coalfields
Herr von Ribbentrop drew the attention of the Foreign Secretary to what were described as the incorrect and
tendencious allegations made in parts of the British press

6.2.11.

Either og neither i såvel substantivisk som adjektivisk funktion forbindes med verbet i sg.:

Neither statement is true I don't want either of them, though either is sure to prove satifactory Has either of them told you? Neither of us knows for certain

6.2.12.

None i sin selvstændige substantiviske anvendelse (om personer) er forbundet med verbet i pl.:

None are so deaf as those that will not hear

Singularis forekommer sjældent

There was none she could tell her sorrow to

I denne anvendelse er ellers i normalsproget none erstattet af nobody, no one (naturligvis med verbet i sg.)

Ved *none* brugt referende til (eller fulgt af *of* +) et substantiv eller pronomen er verbets numerusforhold dette: ved *none* referende til ikke-tælleligt subst. er verbet i sg.:

We hoped money would arrive soon, but none was forthcoming

Ved *none* referende til subst. el. pron. med tælleligt indhold svinger verbets numerus efter den virkelighed, der sigtes til:

None of them are of any use to me (: they are not of any use to me) None of them is the man I want (: I want one man, but . . .)

Hvor virkelighedens tal ikke er klart, synes tendensen at være til brug af sg.:

None of their pistols was loaded

Purchase tax has become a Frankenstein monster with which none of our leaders seems capable of dealing None of his things was touched

None of these men accepts the ideal postulates wholeheartedly

6.2.13.

One of + substantiv eller pronomen i pluralis + relativt pronomen følges af vekslende tal af verbet; pl. anses for korrekt

She is one of the few persons I know who have learnt from experience He was one of those men who never venture out of sight of a bank without a banknote in their pockets

Men attraction til one er meget hyppig:

They have gone through one of those complete changes of occupation which does everybody good And is he not one of the few who does not think that Shakespeare must have been someone very like himself?

6.2.14

Each other kan i godt sprog ikke optræde som subjekt, men tanken udtrykkes på anden måde, fx each knows what the other wants

I dagligt sprog forekommer konstruktionen dog, og verbet er da sædvanligvis i singularis

We know what each other wants

There is something to be said for having the cards on the table, and for the principal parties knowing exactly where each other stands

6.3.

Da -s-endelsen er distinktiv mht. person, vil disjunktive (adskillende, sideordnende) udtryk repræsenterende forskellig person kunne skabe et kongruensproblem ved verbets præsensformer (det samme gælder ved præsensformerne *am*, *is*, *are* og imperf. *was*, *were*). Eksempler herpå er dog uhyre sjældne, da udtryk med ensartet verbalform eller anden utryksmåde træder i stedet:

Either he or I must be wrong Either he is in the worng or I am

Når typen forekommer, plejer det nærmeste subjekt at være bestemmende for verbets form:

Either he or I am in the wrong We or John is in the wrong Either you or your brother has done it

Modul 5

Grammar

Herskind, Aase & Pedersen, Uffe Gravers: Engelsk grammatik med synonymer,

København: Gyldendal, 2002

83-105 Konjunktioner og Præpositioner

Tasks:

Rinvolucri, Mario: *Grammar Games. Cognitive, affective and drama activities for EFL studens*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, First Edition 1984, 2002

Murphy, Raymond: English Grammar in Use. A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate students of English, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004

Unit 12 pp. 24-25 For and since: When ... ? and How long ... ?

Unit 62 pp. 124-125 Verb + preposition + -ing (succeed in -ing/accuse somebody of -ing etc.)

Unit 66 pp. 132-133 To ... (afraid to do) and preposition + -ing (afraid of -ing)

Unit 123 pp. 246-247 In/at/on (position) 1

Konjunktioner

When the that-clause is object or complement or postponed subject that is frequenly omitted in informal use:

I told him he was wrong
I'm sure you know it
I know you're leaving
The assumption is things will improve
I'm sure things will improve
It's a pity you can't come

(Cp. Leech, Geoffrey & Svartvik, Jan: A Communicative Grammar of English, London:Longman,1975; § 640)

Præpositioner

j.fr. Knud Schibsbye

IV §10.4.3.

Mr. Macleod's promotion gives a mixed impression – good in that a man of his liberalism is moved to a central place; bad in that the appointment may bring out the less liberal side of Mr. Macleod's character

Til dette eksempel bemærkes, at en præposiiton sædvanligvis ikke kan styre en *that*-sætning; kun *except* og *in* kan i visse af ders betydninger have denne konstruktion; det samme gælder det boglige *save*:

His own limitations save that he knew that he knew neither Latin nor French, were all unknow to him

Når præpositionen er indholdsmæssigt reduceret til formmiddel, kan den mangle og *that*-sætningen være knyttet umiddlebart til det styrende ord:

The reason that Mr. Gaitskell was away from the House of Commons last Tuesday was that he had cancelled all his appointments
Are you aware that you are sitting on my hat?
I made sure that he would be there
I wonder that he didn't kill you
I agree that your plan is better

Afhængige spørgesætninger (indirekte spørgesætning, hvor spørgeordet ikke er subjekt: What is it? / Who did you speak to? / Why will she marry that man?) kan styres af præposition; denne bibeholdes sædvanligvis, selv om den indholdsmæssigt er blevet et formmiddel:

Concern for the pilot is quite separate from the question of whether his journey is really necessary You would be afraid of what other people would say of you

It depends on which mood changes to what

I have no idea (of) what you mean

I am sorry for what I have done

I am surprised at what you said

This relates to whether there is continued exposure to the language

I have thought about whether it was the correct decision

j.fr. Knud Schibsbye

III 2.7.4

På moderne engelsk kan kun præpositionerne *except* (= 'med undtagelse af') og in (= 'i den henseende') styre en udsagnsbisætning:

She knew nothing except that he was there

The Modern English is more complicated than the Old Englsh verb, <u>in that</u> it has a highly developed analytic tense system

ved andre præpositioner indskydes som objet it, this eller the fact:

They saw to it I was not disturbed while I was working

... he will reduce his stories to this, that they were young, fell in love, married and were unhappy The only clue may be in the fact that the bricks are laid in the English bond

Their limitations are indicated by the fact that we never refer to them as pens, only as ballpoints

Modul 6

Grammar

Herskind, Aase & Pedersen, Uffe Gravers: *Engelsk grammatik med synonymer*, København: Gyldendal, 2002

pp. 106-126 Ordstilling, Talord, Skrift, Lyd, Tegnsætning og Brevskrivning

Tasks:

Rinvolucri, Mario: *Grammar Games. Cognitive, affective and drama activities for EFL studens*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, First Edition 1984, 2002

II.4 Expand pp. 64-65 Word order

Murphy, Raymond: English Grammar in Use. A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate students of English, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004

Unit 49 pp. 98-99 Questions 1

Unit 50 pp. 100-101 Questions 2 (Do you know where...?/He asked me where...)

Unit 109 pp. 218-219 Word order 1: verb + object; place and time

Unit 110 pp. 220-221 Word order 2: adverbs with the verb

Ordstilling

Ligefrem ordstilling og omvendt ordstilling (inversion)

§234

Den enkleste selvstændige sætning (bortset fra imperativ uden subjekt: *Go!*) består af subjekt (S) og verbum (V). Den normale, såkaldte "ligefremme" ordstilling er SV:

God is
(I don't know when) he arrived
You leave!
I / Me marry him?
(He is terribly ill!) He is?

En variant af denne type findes i SvV (hvor v betegner hjælpeverbum):

God is coming (I don't know when) he will arrive He has left

VS (inversion) bruges i spørgsmål af typen:

Is he? May I? Did you? Has he?

Denne ordstilling forekommer kun ved modalverberne samt ved be, do og have.

Et kompromis mellem "ligefrem" og "omvendt" ordstilling kan siges at foreligge i spørgsmål af typen vSV:

Does she know? Is he coming? Will she go?

Også denne type betegnes som inversion.

§235

Inversionens hovedfunktion er at danne spørgsmål dels af den i det foregående omtalte type (de såkaldte generelle spørgsmål), dels specifikke spørgsmål, hvor det spørgende led ikke er subjekt:

Where is he? When will he be here? What has he done now? To whom are you writing?

Derudover forekommer den imidlertid også i andre anvendelser.

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196b

Hvis sætningen indledes med et negativt eller indskrænkende led, har den inversion (vSV eller VS):

Not a single word did he utter Never had any country submitted itself to such a searching examination Seldom has Man faced a bigger issue than today Little did I suspect what was really the matter Only too late did she realize her mistake

l alle disse eksempler kan det negative eller indskrænkende led (eller en del deraf) "flyttes" ind i sætningen og tilknyttes det finitte verbum:

He did not utter a single word

§237

Undtagelser fra reglen udtrykt i § 236 er brugen af *nevertheless, nonetheless* og *only* (= 'der er bare det, at') i spidsen af sætningen uden inversion:

Nevertheless he returned an hour later I like him, only he drinks too much

Det negative eller indskrænkende led går i disse eksempler på den forgående sætning, ikke på den, hvori det optræder. Sml. også ordstillingen i:

Only last year I could look out of the window and see nothing but gardens (=As late as last year...)

No wonder she thinks I am a fool

I ingen af disse sætninger gælder indskrænkningen sætningen som helhed, og det er da heller ikke muligt at "flytte" det indskrænkende led ind i sætningen og knytte det til det finitte verbum som ovenfor i §236.

Inversion forekommer normalt heller ikke, når sætningen indledes med udtryk som *not infrequently, no doubt, less indirectly* (der betydningsmæssigt ikke er benægtende, da to nægtelser på en vis måde ophæver hinanden):

Not infrequently he came to see her No doubt you are right

§238

I bogsprog kan der bruges inversion (vSV), også når andre end negative og indskrænkende led indleder sætningen; mærk dog, at det altid er udtryk, der angiver grad:

Many a time did I wish I could go back
Especially do we find examples of inversion in literary language
Well do I remember my first meeting with her
Seven times did this in'trepid (uforfærdet, frygtløs) general repulse (drive tilbage) the attack

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Indledes en sætning med *here, there, now* eller andre tids- eller steds-udtryk, beror valget mellem ligefrem ordstilling og inversion (VS) på vægtforholdet mellem subjekt og verbum, således at det vægtigste led har tendens til at komme sidst:

Here he comes
Here comes the bride
Now and again a piercing yell from the pursued animal was clearly audible
Now comes the busiest time of the year
In that decade began the Industrial Revolution
Through the wide open window streamed the sun

Hvis subjektet er et pronomen og altså lidet vægtigt, er inversion udelukket, medmindre pronominet har stærktryk (modsætningstryk):

She has not turned up yet, but here is 'he

§241

Inversion (VS eller vVS) bruges endvidere, hvor prædikativet – i form af et adjektiv eller en dermed ækvivalerende gruppe – indleder sætningen. Denne ordstilling er som regel emfatisk (emotionel):

Essential to the technique of modern life is the Cocktail Party
Far more effective would be a complete reshuffle of the Government
Of more interest to the visitor is the collection of antiques

So kan også fungere som prædikativ i spidsen af en sætning og bevirker da inversion (VS), når det bruges til at udtrykke begrebet 'also':

John is a fool, and so are 'you London is too big a town to live in, and so is 'Glasgow

So bruges med samme ordstilling i forbindelse med hjælpeverber:

I like it very much, and so does my 'wife He can read French, and so can I

Sætningsindledende so bevirker imidlertid ikke inversion, når det bruges i forbindelser, der bedyrer rigtigheden af en forudgående udtalelse:

"I thought he was very ill". "So he 'is" He said he wanted to go to Spain, and so he 'did, to the surprise for everybody

I litterært sprog bruges inversion ofte efter as og than i eksempler som:

After dinner he went for a walk, as was his wont He read many more books than did I

Sml. også det kollokviale:

He's a good man, is Mr Adams

§242

I to tilfælde kan i stærkt emfatisk sprog prædikativer og prædikativlignende adverbier sættes i spidsen af sætningen, hvad der bevirker inversion (VS); det drejer sig her dels om lydefterlignende ord, dels om adverbier, der indgår i "phrasal verbs":

Crack went the whip
Bang went the gun
Down came the rain in sheets
There was a knock at the door, and in came the prisoner
Off went the bus
Out came the cork
Up went the flag

Det må dog bemærkes, at hvis subjektet er et pronomen, bruges ligefrem ordstilling:

Off he went In they came

§243

I anførende sætninger, der står før den direkte tale, er der normalt ligefrem ordstilling:

He said, "I'll teach you to beat my boy!"

John answered, "You don't need to teach me"

Står den anførende sætning midt i eller efter den direkte tale, forekommer både ligefrem og omvendt ordstilling (SV og VS) efter følgende hovedregler:

Hvis subjektet er et personligt pronomen, er der oftest ligefrem ordstilling:

"I don't know", she said "All right", they replied

Hvis pronominet er emfatisk, bruges dog gerne inversion:

The police inspector looked searchingly at the young couple before him. "I don't know about that", said 'she, while 'he averted his face

Ligeledes kan inversion fremkaldes af en til pronominet knyttet relativsætning:

"He will be run over", cried she, who was in a position to see what was really going on

Hvis subjektet er et substantiv, er ligefrem og omvendt ordstilling omtrent lige hyppige i de tilfælde, hvor verbet er usammensat:

"It will never do", said Mrs Smith / Mrs Smith said

Derimod er ligefrem ordstilling næsten enerådende, hvis verbet er sammensat:

"It will never do", Mrs Smith had remarked "I don't think so", she had replied

Både ligefrem ordstilling og inversion forekommer, når andre sætningsled er til stede:

"What are you doing here?" the policeman asked the sailor in a menacing tone "Yes", said the man with a smile

Direkte og indirekte objekt

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§250

I en sætning som *John told Mary the story* er der to objekter. Det første, *Mary*, kaldes det indirekte objekt, det andet, *the story*, det direkte. Det indirekte objekt kan erstattes af en præpositionsforbindelse, som da sættes efter det direkte objekt: *John told the story to Mary*

§251

Hvis begge objekter er personlige pronominer, og det direkte objekt er *it* eller *them*, kommer det direkte objekt imidlertid normalt før det indirekte i soigneret britisk engelsk:

John told it her She gave them me

På amerikansk foretrækkes: John told it to her - She gave them to me

Hvad der ingenlunde er sjældent på britisk engelsk heller. På begge sider af Atlanten trænger imidlertid en tredje mulighed frem:

John told her it She gave me them

§252

Det indirekte objekt kan normalt ikke optræde i spidsen af sætningen; i stedet bruges præpositionsforbindelse:

He gave my brother a penknife, but to me he gave a book

Hvis det direkte objekt optræder i spidsen af sætningen, bruges også præpositionsforbindelse i stedet for det indirekte objekt:

The penknife he gave to me, another book he handed to my brother

Sml. It was to me he gave it - It was me he give it to

Ved nogle verber er der intet valg mellem konstruktion med indirekte objekt og konstruktion med præpositionsforbindelse; *explain*, *appear* og *seem* forbindes obligatorisk med *to*:

He explained the mystery to me That statement appeared / seemed strange to me

Tegnsætning

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§163

Engelsk tegnsætning lægger i almindelighed større vægt på naturlige pauser i talen eller læsningen end på grammatiske forhold. Sammenlignet med den tegnsætning, der hyppigst bruges på dansk, vil engelsk derfor opvise vigtige forskelle.

Hvad brugen af komma angår, er det navnlig af betydning at mærke sig de tilfælde, hvor det *ikke* anvendes på engelsk. Det gælder foran genstandssætninger, afhængige spørgesætninger (*What is it? / Who did you speak to? / Why will she marry that man?*), bestemmende relativ-sætninger og ofte foran korte, adverbielle bisætninger, der følger efter hovedsætninger.

Derimod sættes komma omkring parentetiske relativsætninger, ofte mellem bisætning og hovedsætning (særlig ved længere sætninger), omkring led i apposition, ofte omkring participiale og adverbielle indskud og mellem anførende sætning og direkte tale (i sidste tilfælde forekommer også kolon, især foran længere citater eller efter længere anførende sætninger). Endvidere er det almindeligt at finde komma brugt også mellem næstsidste og sidste led i en opregning. I indledningen til et brev adskilles tiltaleformularen ved komma (på amerikansk som regel ved kolon), ligesom der er komma mellem afslutningsformularen og underskriften.

Foran e.g. (= for instance), etc., i.e. (= that is) og viz(.) (= namely) er der næsten altid komma.

Komma bruges endvidere i talangivelser til at adskille tusinderne

Stavelsesdeling

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§170

Reglerne for deling af ord ved linieudgang ligger ikke ganske fast på engelsk, men nedennævnte retningslinier bliver dog i almindelighed fulgt.

Som hovedregel gælder, at ordene adskilles efter bestanddele:

Mal-'treat, over-hear, bread-crumb Long-ing, limit-ed, pitch-er (krukke, kande; brosten), great-est (dog noth-ing) In-scription, ad-mirable, pro-ceeding, de-fend

Men forudsætningen for, at denne regel følges, er, at de adskilte dele kan udtales, dvs. de skal udgøre en stavelse. Følgelig undgår man at skille ord som

Matched, said, thought, makes, comes, came og også helst stopped.

Hensynet til udtalen bevirker endvidere, at reglen om deling efter bestanddele fraviges i tilfælde som

Wom-an, def-inite, prof-it, pref-erence; sml. også fath-er, moth-er, noth-ing; ulti-mate, anony-mous, ra-cy (fin, aromatisk; kraftig, kernefuld; saftig, vovet).

De sidste tre eksempler dækkes af den regel, at en enkelt konsonant går til den følgende stavelse. – Er der to konsonanter, går hver til sin stavelse:

Mar-gin, ef-ficient, com-mit-tee, bat-ted (slå; blinke e.g. bat the eyes).

Er der flere end to konsonanter, går kun den første til foregående stavelse:

Daz-zling. Endelig kan nævnes, at bogstavforbindelserne ch, ck, sh og th udtalt som én lyd ikke skilles:

Wrench-ing (vride), shock-ing, fish-erman, breath-er (pusterum, hvil fx take a breather, motion der gør forpustet).

I tvivlstilfælde kan man rådføre sig med de ordbøger, der angiver stavelsesdeling, fx *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary* og *Websters* ordbøger