ESSENTIAL RUSSIAN GRAMMAR

All the grammar really needed for speech and comprehension, without trivia or archaic material, clearly presented with many shortcuts, timesavers... self-study or class use, for a beginner, as a refresher... an ideal supplement to phase study... the most efficient system for adults with limited learning time.

BRIAN KEMPLE
DOVER BOOKS ON LANGUAGE

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MODERN CHINESE: A SECOND COURSE, Peking University. (24155-6)

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INTRODUCTION

Essential Russian Grammar assumes that you have a limited amount of time at your disposal to study Russian and that your objective is simple everyday communication, both spoken and written. This book, therefore, does not attempt to offer a complete outline of all aspects of Russian grammar, even in a highly condensed version. It does, however, offer a series of aids to help you use more effectively phrases and words that you have already learned. The book will introduce you to the most common structures and forms of Russian and a selected number of the most useful rules.

HOW TO STUDY ESSENTIAL RUSSIAN GRAMMAR

If you have already studied Russian in a conventional manner, this book will serve as a review, and you can use it by glancing through all of it quickly and then selecting those areas on which you wish to concentrate.

If, however, this is your first acquaintance with Russian grammar, the following suggestions may be of help:

1. Before beginning to work your way through this book, master several hundred useful phrases and expressions such as you will find in any good phrase book or in the Listen & Learn Russian course. The material in this book will be much more easily understood after you have achieved some simple working knowledge of the language. This book's purpose is to enable you to gain greater fluency once you have learned phrases and expressions, not to teach you to construct sentences from rules and vocabulary.

2. Read through Essential Russian Grammar at least once in its entirety. Do not be concerned if some of the material is not immediately clear; what appears to be discouragingly complex on first reading will become much simpler as you progress in your study. The first reading is necessary to acquaint you with the terms and concepts used from the beginning. Learning these will help you improve your comprehension of Russian and use more freely the expressions and words you already know. As you use Russian and hear it spoken, many of its grammatical patterns will become
familiar to you. *Essential Russian Grammar* helps you discover these patterns, and it will be helpful to you as you develop your vocabulary and improve your comprehension.

3. Go back to this book periodically. Sections that at first seem difficult or of doubtful benefit may prove extremely helpful as you progress further.

4. For the most part, *Essential Russian Grammar* follows a logical order, taking up the major divisions of grammar in sequence. You will do best to follow this order. However, you may be one of those who learn best when they study to answer an immediate question or need (e.g., how to form the comparative of adjectives; how to express the future tense; etc.). If you are such a student, turn to the section that interests you at the moment, but read through the entire section and not just an isolated part. Individual remarks, taken out of context, are easily misunderstood and may seriously mislead you.

5. Examples are given for every rule. It will be helpful if you memorize them. If you learn all of the examples in *Essential Russian Grammar*, you will have encountered the basic difficulties of Russian and studied models for their solution.

6. You cannot study Russian or any other language systematically without an understanding of grammar, and the use and understanding of grammatical terms is as essential as a knowledge of certain mechanical terms when you learn to drive a car. If your knowledge of grammatical terms is a little hazy, read the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (page 94) and refer to it whenever necessary.

In Russian, as in any language, there are potentially many ways to express a single idea. Some involve simple constructions, others more difficult ones. Some of the more difficult constructions may well be more sophisticated ways of conveying the thought and ones that you will ultimately wish to master, but during your first experiments in communication in Russian, you can achieve your aim by using a simple construction. Be satisfied at first with the simplest.

You should not, however, be afraid of making mistakes. The purpose of this book is not to teach you to speak like a native but to allow you to communicate and be understood. If you pay attention to what you’re doing, you will find that eventually you make fewer and fewer errors. Sooner or later you’ll be able to review *Essential Russian Grammar* or a more detailed book at a time that is appropriate for polishing your speech.

As you begin to speak Russian, you will be your own best judge of those areas where you need most help. If there is no one with you, you can
practice by speaking mentally to yourself. In the course of the day see how many simple thoughts that you have expressed in English you are able to turn into Russian. This kind of experimental self-testing will give direction to your study of Russian. Remember that your purpose in studying this course is not to pass an examination or receive a certificate, but to communicate with others on a simple but useful level. *Essential Russian Grammar* should not be thought of as the equivalent of a formal course of study at a university. Although it could serve as a useful supplement to such a course, its primary aim is to help adults study on their own. Of course, no self-study or academic course, or even series of courses, will ever be ideally suited to all students. You must rely on and be guided by your own rate of learning and your own requirements and interests.
SUGGESTIONS FOR VOCABULARY BUILDING

1. Study words and word lists that answer real and immediate personal needs. If you are planning to travel in the near future, your motivation and orientation are clear-cut, and *Listen & Learn Russian* or another good travel phrase book will provide you with the material you need. Select material according to your personal interests and requirements. Even if you do not plan to travel to Russia in the near future, you will probably learn more quickly by imagining yourself in a travel situation.

2. Memorize by association. Phrase books usually give associated word lists. If you use a dictionary, don’t memorize words at random but words that are related in some fashion.

3. Study the specialized vocabulary of your profession, business or hobby. For example, if you are interested in mathematics, learn the wide vocabulary in that discipline. You will quickly learn words in your own specialty and a surprising amount will be applicable or transferable to other areas. Although specialized vocabularies may not always be readily available, an active interest and a good dictionary will help you get started.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations are used in *Essential Russian Grammar*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Accusative case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anim.</td>
<td>Animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Dative case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Def.</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fem.</td>
<td>Feminine gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Genitive case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impf.</td>
<td>Imperfective aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inf.</td>
<td>Infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr.</td>
<td>Instrumental case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int.</td>
<td>Interrogative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit.</td>
<td>Literally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Masculine gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neut.</td>
<td>Neuter gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Nominative case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pers.</td>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pf.</td>
<td>Perfective aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prep.</td>
<td>Prepositional case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rel.</td>
<td>Relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing.</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PRONUNCIATION

THE RUSSIAN ALPHABET

Learning the sequence of the 33 letters of the Russian alphabet, given here in upper and lower case, will enable you to use a Russian dictionary. Although the italic forms are not employed in the present volume, they are included here for recognition; they are used in Russian books for emphasis and decoration (like our italics), and they are the basis of Russian handwriting, which is essentially a connected form of printed italics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGULAR</th>
<th>ITALIC</th>
<th>PRONUNCIATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>А а</td>
<td>А a</td>
<td>a in father, but cut short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Б б</td>
<td>Б б</td>
<td>b in bed; p in speak at the end of a word or syllable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>В в</td>
<td>В в</td>
<td>v in vote; f in father at the end of a word or syllable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Г г</td>
<td>Г г</td>
<td>g in goat; k in skin at the end of a word or syllable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Д д</td>
<td>Д д</td>
<td>d in day; t in stay at the end of a word or syllable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Е е</td>
<td>Е е</td>
<td>ye in yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ё ё</td>
<td>Ё ё</td>
<td>yaw in yawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ж ж</td>
<td>Ж ж</td>
<td>s in measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>З з</td>
<td>З з</td>
<td>z in zeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>И и</td>
<td>И и</td>
<td>ee in meet, but cut short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Й й</td>
<td>Й й</td>
<td>y in boy (this letter is found only in diphthongs; see page 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>К к</td>
<td>К к</td>
<td>k in kite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Л л</td>
<td>Л л</td>
<td>l in let</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>М м</td>
<td>М м</td>
<td>m in map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Н н</td>
<td>Н н</td>
<td>n in no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>О о</td>
<td>О о</td>
<td>aw in law, but cut short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>П п</td>
<td>П п</td>
<td>p in pet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Р р</td>
<td>Р р</td>
<td>like the rolled r in Spanish or Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>С с</td>
<td>С с</td>
<td>s in set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Т т</td>
<td>Т т</td>
<td>t in stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>У у</td>
<td>У у</td>
<td>oo in food, but cut short</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

Russian has 10 vowels: a, e, ê, и, о, у, ы, э, ю and я. The semivowel й occurs only in diphthongs, that is (except in a few words), after another vowel. Although it has no distinct sound of its own, its presence does affect the sounds of the vowels with which it is paired.

DIPHTHONG PRONUNCIATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diphthong</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aй</td>
<td>like ie in lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ей</td>
<td>like ya in Yale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ой</td>
<td>like oy in boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>уй</td>
<td>like ooey in phooey (but pronounced as one syllable)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pronunciation of the two vowels и and у is relatively unaffected when they are joined with й to form diphthongs. Thus ий is pronounced much like и, and уй much like у.

Of the 20 Russian consonants, every one except ч and щ is hard when followed by the vowels а, о, у, ы or э, or when it comes at the end of a word. Most hard consonants are pronounced in a similar way to their English counterparts. With the exception of ж, ц and ш, hard consonants can become soft (or palatalized) when followed either by the vowels е, ê, и,
ют or я́, or by the soft sign (ь). Soft consonants are pronounced with the middle or forward part of the tongue raised toward the roof of the mouth. The hard sign (ъ) occurs for the most part only after prefixes and before the vowels е, ё, ю and я́. It indicates that the preceding consonant is hard.

STRESS

Stress is more emphatic in Russian than in English. In Russian words of more than one syllable, the stress only falls on one syllable. (Throughout the present book the stressed syllable of a word is indicated by an acute accent [‘]. It is not normally indicated in writing.) It is important to recognize stress in Russian because it affects the pronunciation of vowels to an even greater extent than in English. A Russian vowel only has its full value in a stressed syllable; it is “reduced” when unstressed. The most important variations in the pronunciation of vowels in stressed syllables, syllables immediately preceding stressed syllables and unstressed syllables are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
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<th>VOWEL</th>
<th>STRESSED</th>
<th>PRECEDING STRESS</th>
<th>UNSTRESSED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>aw in law</td>
<td>a in father</td>
<td>e in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>ye in yet</td>
<td>ee in fee, but cut short</td>
<td>ee in fee, but cut short</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vowels у, и and ё are not greatly affected by variations in stress, although they do become somewhat shorter. The soft vowel я reduces from a ya to an uh sound in unstressed syllables. The soft vowel ё always retains its full value since it occurs only in stressed syllables.
The structure and word order of a Russian sentence are often extremely close to those of its English counterpart. For instance, there is a word-to-word correspondence in the following long statement:

Я продаю то старое синее кресло, которое я купил 25 лет назад.

I sold that old blue chair that I bought 25 years ago.

Like English, Russian word order can be flexible to show emphasis or shades of meaning (e.g., “I’ll go home tomorrow” or “Tomorrow I’ll go home”). But Russian can be even more flexible than English because the Russian language has a system of declensions whereby special case endings indicate the role that a word is playing in a sentence. (In English, a more rigid word order tends to indicate the role.)

In two important respects, Russian sentences can be even simpler than their English counterparts: (1) Russian has no articles, definite (“the”) or indefinite (“a” or “an”). Thus the sentence Она хочет купить золотые часы can mean either “She wants to buy the gold watch” or “She wants to buy a gold watch.” In most cases the context of the statement will make the meaning clear. (2) The present tense of the verb “to be” (быть) is almost always omitted.

Весна — моё любимое время года.
Spring (is) my favorite time of year.

In written Russian, the verb быть is replaced by a dash when separating a subject from a predicate nominative:

Мой отец — врач. Моя мать — учительница.
My father (is) a doctor. My mother (is) a teacher.

Note, however, that when the subject is a pronoun the dash is usually omitted: он врач (“he is a doctor”), она учительница (“she is a teacher”).
The expression “there is” (or “there are”) has two uses in English: (1) to point to the location of an object that is within view (e.g., “There are your glasses”); or (2) to state the existence of something (e.g., “There are tigers in India”).

To express the first idea, Russian uses the word **bot**, which can mean “there,” “there is,” “there are,” “here,” “here is,” “here are”:

**Bot мой карандаши.**  
There are (OR: Here are) my pencils.  
**Bot автобус.**  
Here’s (OR: There’s) the bus.

To express the second meaning of “there is” (or “there are”), Russian uses the word **есть** in positive statements, and the word **нёт** in negative statements:

**В комнате есть кресло.**  
There is an armchair in the room.  
**В этом ряду нет свободных мест.**  
In this row there are no vacant seats.
HOW TO FORM QUESTIONS

There are three chief ways in which to form questions in Russian, all similar to English patterns:

1. Many questions are introduced by interrogative words (but note that the subject and verb are not interchanged as in English):

   Когда он пришёл?  When did he come?
   Что он делает здесь?  What is he doing here?
   Куда она идёт?  Where is she going?

   The most frequently used interrogative words are: где ("where?"—i.e., "at what place?"); зачем ("for what purpose?"); как ("how?"); какой ("what kind?"); когда ("when?"); кто ("who?"); куда ("where?"—i.e., "to what place?"); откуда ("from what place?"); почему ("why?"); and что ("what?").

2. When no interrogative word is used, the word order of the declarative statement can be retained, and the questioning indicated merely by a different intonation of the sentence, as in English:

   Он сего дня пришёл.  He arrived today.
   Он сего дня пришёл?  He arrived today?

3. When the subject and verb are interchanged as in English, the word ли is inserted after the verb (or other word to be emphasized):

   Знает ли он это?  Does he know that?
   Пойдёт ли она?  Is she coming?

   This type of question is often used with the negating word не ("not") to form polite requests corresponding to English "won't you," "wouldn't you," "couldn't you," etc.:

   Не пойдете ли вы со мной?  Won't you go with me?
   Не можете ли вы нам помочь?  Couldn't you help us?
NEGATION

The Russian word for “no” is нет. To negate most statements, insert не (“not”) before the word to be negated. As in English, this word will usually be the verb:

Я не пойду завтра.  I will not go tomorrow.
Я не сказал ему это.  I did not tell him that.

Other elements of a sentence besides the verb can be negated for special emphasis:

Я не ему сказала это.  It was not to him that I said that.
Это не я ему сказала.  It was not I who told him that.

Unlike English, which avoids double negatives, Russian keeps the negating particle не even when a sentence is negated by a special negative word (e.g., ничего, “nothing”; никто, “no one”; никогда, “never”; никак, “in no way”):

Я ничего не знаю.  I know nothing.
Я никак не могу.  I cannot in any way.

7
NOUNS

GENDER

Russian nouns are either masculine, feminine or neuter in gender. Generally speaking, nouns denoting male persons or animals are masculine in gender, and nouns denoting female persons or animals are feminine in gender. Thus, отец (“father”) and брат (“brother”) are masculine; and мать (“mother”) and сестра (“sister”) are feminine. The gender of a noun can often be determined from the last letter of the word when in the nominative singular (the dictionary form):

1. All nouns ending in a hard consonant or -й, and many nouns ending in -ь, are masculine in gender: стол (“table”), лес (“forest”), зал (“hall”), герой (“hero”), учитель (“teacher”). A few nouns ending in -а or -я and denoting male animate beings are masculine: дядя (“uncle”), мужчина (“man”), дедушка (“grandfather”) and others.


3. Nouns ending in -о or -е are neuter: окно (“window”), дерево (“tree”), поле (“field”), здание (“building”). All nouns ending in -мя are neuter: время (“time”), имя (“name”). A few neuter nouns—of non-Russian origin—end in -и or -у: такси (“taxi”), рагу (“ragout”).

CASE

In the English sentence “Peter sees Paul” it is the (unchangeable) word order alone that shows that “Peter” is the subject (the one who is seeing) and “Paul” is the object (the one who is seen). In more complicated English sentences the relationship between nouns is expressed by using prepositions (i.e., “Peter gives the pencil to Paul”). In Russian the relationships between nouns are indicated by the endings of the nouns, no matter what word order is used. The Russian sentences Пётр видит Павла and Павла видит
NOUN DECLENSION

The Nominative Singular

The nominative singular is the dictionary form of the noun. It is used when the noun is the subject of the sentence: собака лаёт ("the dog barks"). The nominative is also used as the so-called predicate nominative in sentences like "Ivan is a professor," in which "Ivan" is the subject nominative and "professor" is the predicate nominative. This type of predicate is in the nominative when "to be" is in the present tense, that is, when this verb is not expressed in Russian: Ива́н — профессор.

The Accusative Singular

Formation of the Accusative. In forming the accusative case, masculine nouns fall into two classes. For masculine nouns denoting inanimate objects (things, abstractions) the accusative form is the same as the nominative: стол, лес. For masculine nouns denoting animate objects (persons and animals) the accusative form takes the ending -a or -я. (Note that when case endings, singular and plural, are added to nouns, the nominative singular endings -й and -ъ usually drop away.) Thus Ива́н becomes Ива́на; герой becomes геро́й; and учитель becomes учителя.

Feminine nouns take the accusative ending -y if the nominative form ends in -a, and the ending -ю if the nominative ends in -я. If the nominative ends in -ъ, there is no change to form the accusative. Thus стенá becomes стёну; земля ("earth") becomes зёмлю; and дверь remains the same. Стена́ and земля́ are examples of feminine nouns that undergo a shift in stress in the accusative. Other common feminines to which this rule applies
NOUNS

are страна ("country"), рука ("hand" or "arm"), нога ("foot" or "leg"), вода ("water"), зима ("winter") and душа ("soul").

All neuter nouns remain in exactly the same form in the accusative singular as in the nominative singular: окно, дерево, поле.

Use of the Accusative. The primary use of the accusative is to indicate that the noun in question is the direct object of the verb:

Сейча́с он читае́т Ту́ргенева. Right now he is reading Turgenev.
Ива́н ку́рит папи́рósu. Ivan is smoking a cigarette.
Я ви́жу дере́во. I see the tree.

The accusative is also used after the prepositions в ("to, into"; во before certain double consonants) and на ("on, to") when they indicate motion:

Она́ еде́т в Москву́. She is going to Moscow.
Мы́ еде́м на заво́д. We are going to the factory.

The Genitive Singular

Formation of the Genitive. Masculine nouns take the genitive ending -а if the nominative form ends in a consonant, and the ending -я if the nominative ends in -й or -ь. Thus стол becomes стола; лес becomes ле́са; герой becomes геро́я; and учитель becomes учите́ля.

Feminine nouns take the genitive ending -ь when the nominative form ends in -а or -б, or when the stem ends in г-, к-, х-, ж-, ч-, ш- or щ-. Otherwise the genitive ending is -ы. Thus Со́ня ("Sonia") becomes Со́ни; ночь becomes нощь; вóдка becomes вóдки; and кóмната ("room") becomes кóмнаты.

Neuter nouns take the genitive ending -а when the nominative ends in -о, and the ending -я when the nominative ends in -е. Thus окно becomes окна́; дерево becomes дере́ва; and поле becomes пóля.

Use of the Genitive. The primary purpose of the genitive case when used without a preposition is to show possession. The noun that possesses takes the genitive case and is always placed after the noun possessed. Thus, окнá repósa is the only possible Russian form for either "the glory of the hero" or "the hero's glory" in English. "Ivan's field" is пóле Ива́на.

In general, the Russian genitive construction corresponds to English phrases formed with the preposition "of," even if the relation is not one of possession narrowly understood, but of quality or relation:
A piece of bread
the roof of the building
a map of America
the cause of the fire

Note, however, that in a phrase like “the city of Moscow,” Russian considers the second noun to be in apposition to the first (as if the phrase were “the city Moscow”) and thus the second noun will be in the same case as the first.

Another use of the genitive is to convey the meaning “some” or “any” (even if these words are not expressed in English):

Give him some bread.
Do you want any water?

Those familiar with French will recognize this as the so-called partitive construction, and quite similar to sentences like “Donnez-lui du pain” and “Voulez-vous de l’eau?” A few masculine nouns—such as суп (“soup”), сыр (“cheese”) and чай (“tea”)—take the endings -у or -ю (instead of the normal genitive endings -а or -я) for this partitive use:

Give him some soup.
Do you want some tea?

The genitive is used after words expressing an indefinite quantity such as много (“much” or “many”), мало (“little” or “few”), сколько (“how much” or “how many”) and несколько (“several”). When the meaning is “much” or “little” the genitive singular is used:

How much bread do you have?
In northern Africa there is very little water.

The direct object (which is normally in the accusative case) often takes the genitive case in constructions in which the verb is negated. This occurs especially when the direct object is abstract or refers to an entire class of things rather than to a specific object or person:

We don’t want war.
I don’t drink tea. I don’t eat cheese.

There are a number of important verbs that govern the genitive case. These include добиваться (“to strive for”), жаждать (“to crave for”), желать (“to desire”), заслуживать (“to deserve”) and достигать (“to achieve”).
The genitive is also used with a number of prepositions (see page 43) and after numerals (see page 90).

The Dative Singular

Formation of the Dative. Masculine nouns take the dative ending -ю when their nominative form ends in -й or -î; otherwise, masculine nouns add the ending -у to form the dative. Thus герой becomes герою; учитель becomes учителю; and Иван becomes Ивану.

Feminine nouns with the nominative endings -а or -я change these endings to -е to form the dative. Feminines ending in -и in the nominative take the dative ending -и. Those ending in -ия in the nominative change the ending to -ии to form the dative. Thus книга becomes книге; София becomes Софье; дверь becomes двери; and партия (“party,” in the political sense) becomes партии.

Neuter nouns with the nominative ending -о change this to -у to form the dative; neuters with the nominative ending -е change this to -у. Thus дерево becomes дереву; and поле becomes полю.

Use of the Dative. The basic use of the dative (when used without a preposition) is to indicate the indirect object. This rule generally applies when the indirect object is a person:

Я дал книгу Ивану.
Кто продал Сергею эту машину?
Каждый месяц Наташа пишет Тамаре.
I gave the book to Ivan.
Who sold Sergei that car?
Every month Natasha writes to Tamara.

The dative case is also often used in impersonal constructions: Иван холедно (“Ivan is cold”); София жарко (“Sonia is hot”).

Some transitive verbs take a direct object (usually in the accusative) in the dative. The most common such verbs are помогать (“to help”), мешать (“to hinder”), советовать (“to advise”), вредить (“to harm”), напоминать (“to remind”), повиноваться (“to obey”), позволять (“to allow”), служить (“to serve”), верить (“to believe”) and завидовать (“to envy”):

Кто помогает Ивану?
Ivan is preventing Sonia from reading.

The dative is also used after certain prepositions (see page 44). Note that
nouns that do not denote persons usually require a preposition when they are in the dative.

**The Instrumental Singular**

**Formation of the Instrumental.** Masculine nouns take the instrumental ending -ем (or -ём if the ending receives the stress) when the nominative ends in -й or -ъ. Those masculine nouns ending in -ж, -ц, -ч, -ш or -щ in the nominative take the ending -ом if the stress is on the last syllable and -ем if it is not. All other masculine nouns take the ending -ом. Thus рерой becomes рерóm; учитель becomes учíтельем; словарь (“dictionary”) becomes словарём; нож (“knife”) becomes ножóm; товарищ (“comrade”) becomes товарищем; and стол becomes столом.

Feminine nouns ending in -а in the nominative take the ending -о́й (or, rarely, -ою) to form the instrumental unless the stem ends in ж-, ц-, ч-, ш- or ш-, in which case the instrumental ending is -е́й (or -ею). Feminine nouns ending in -я in the nominative take the ending -е́й (or -ею) or -е́й (when the ending receives the stress). Feminine nouns ending in -я in the nominative add the ending -ью to form the instrumental. Thus водка becomes вóдкой; птица (“bird”) becomes птице́й; Соня becomes Сóне́й; земля becomes земля́й; and осень (“autumn”) becomes осень́й.

Neuter nouns take the instrumental ending -ом if the nominative ends in -о; the ending -ем if the nominative ends in -е; and the ending -ем if the nominative ends in -е. Thus окно (“window”) becomes окном; поле becomes полем; and ружье (“gun”) becomes ружьём.

**Use of the Instrumental.** The primary use of the instrumental case (without a preposition) is to indicate the instrument or means by which some action is performed:

- Мы поехали туда машино́й. We went there by car.
- Учитель пишет на доске мёло́м. The teacher writes on the board with chalk.
- Он говорит шёпото́м. He speaks in a whisper.
- Они вернулись домой пóлем. They returned home by way of the field.

The complement of the verb быть (“to be”), when that verb is in the past or future tense, often takes the instrumental case:
 Он был механиком. He was a mechanic.
Я буду доктором. I will be a doctor.

When the verb быть is used in the past tense to indicate a permanent condition, however, the nominative rather than the instrumental is used. Compare these two sentences:

Пушкин был студентом. Pushkin was a student. [Temporary]
Пушкин был русский. Pushkin was a Russian. [Permanent]

Certain Russian verbs are always followed by the instrumental, irrespective of the tense. These include делать ("to become"), служить ("to serve [as]"); заниматься ("to study"), интересоваться ("to be interested in") and пользоваться ("to make use of"):

Это может служить хорошим примером.
This can serve as a good example.

Мой брат занимается грамматикой.
My brother is studying grammar.

The instrumental case is also used after certain prepositions (see page 44).

The Prepositional Singular

The prepositional case is so called because it must always be introduced by a preposition. The most common prepositions used with this case are в ("in, at"); на ("on, at") and о ("about, concerning"). When о is followed by a word beginning with a vowel it becomes об; thus: об Соне ("about Sonia"); об Америке ("about America"). When в and о are followed by words that begin with two or more consonants, they become во and обо, respectively.

Formation of the Prepositional. Masculine nouns take the ending -е to form the prepositional. Thus стол becomes столе; герой becomes героe; and словарь becomes словараe. A small but important group of masculine nouns, mostly monosyllabic ones, take the ending -y in the prepositional case after the prepositions в и на. Note that this -y ending is always stressed. This group of nouns includes пол ("floor"), берег ("shore"), мост ("bridge"), сад ("garden"), лес ("forest"), год ("year"), угол ("corner"), глаз ("eye"), час ("hour"), шкаф ("cupboard") and рот ("mouth"). Thus:
NOUN PLURALS

The plural forms of nouns are in general simpler to learn than the singular.

The Nominative Plural

Most masculine nouns take the ending -ы or -и in the nominative plural. They take the ending -и instead of -ы when the nominative singular ends in -о or -я. Feminine nouns with nominatives ending in -a or -я take the ending -е in the prepositional. Feminine nouns with nominatives ending in -ия, however, take the ending -ии; those with nominatives ending in -ъ take the ending -и. (The prepositions given in the following examples are to show usage—different prepositions could be used.) Thus комната becomes в комнате (“in the room”); Соня becomes о Со́не (“about Sonia”); партия becomes о па́ртии (“about the party”); and дверь becomes о двери (“about the door”).

Neuter nouns with the nominative ending in -о take the ending -е in the prepositional. Neuter nouns with the nominative ending in a consonant plus -е remain unchanged for the prepositional case; those with nominatives ending in -ие, however, take the ending -ии. (In the following examples the prepositions о and в are used to show that a noun in the prepositional case must always appear with a preposition, not necessarily о or в.) Thus дерево becomes о дереве (“about the tree”); поле becomes о поле (“about the field”); and зда́ние becomes в зда́нии (“in the building”).

Use of the Prepositional. Examples of the prepositional case used with the prepositions о (об), в (во) and на:

Лекция была о Пу́шкине. The lecture was about Pushkin.
Она в кóмнате. She is in the room.
Кни́га лежит на столе. The book is lying on the table.
-й or -ь, or in -г, -ж, -к, -х, -ч, -щ or -щ. Thus стол becomes столы ("tables"); герой becomes герои ("heroes"); автомобиль becomes автомобили ("cars"); and товарищ becomes товарищи ("companions"). Some masculine nouns take the nominative plural ending -а or -я (-я if the nominative singular ends in -ь). This group includes some very common words (note that their plural ending is always stressed):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Мачх / Мачи</th>
<th>Мачх / Мачи</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>глас / гласа</td>
<td>eye / eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>голос / голоса</td>
<td>voice / voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>город / города</td>
<td>city / cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>доктор / доктора</td>
<td>doctor / doctors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>дом / дома</td>
<td>house / houses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>поезд / поезда</td>
<td>train / trains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>профессор / профессора</td>
<td>professor / professors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>учитель / учителя</td>
<td>teacher / teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Feminine nouns take the ending -ы or -и in the nominative plural. They take the ending -я instead of -ы when the nominative singular ends in -я or -ь, or when the stem ends in г-, ж-, к-, х-, ч-, ш- or щ-. Thus птица becomes птицы ("birds"); партия becomes партии ("parties"); дверь becomes двери ("doors"); and книга becomes книги ("books").

Neuter nouns take the ending -а in the nominative plural if the nominative singular ends in -о; -я if it ends in -е (except that those neuters ending in -же, -це, -че, -ше or -ще in the singular take the ending -а in the plural). A few neuters take the nominative plural ending -и. Thus окно becomes окна ("windows"); поле becomes поля ("fields"); сердце ("heart") becomes сердца ("hearts"); and яблоко ("apple") becomes яблоки ("apples").

A large number of feminine and neuter nouns have a stress in the nominative plural that differs from that in the singular. (When the vowel e is involved, an e/e alternation sometimes occurs.) This change in stress often serves to differentiate the nominative plural from the genitive singular in spoken Russian:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM. SING.</th>
<th>GEN. SING.</th>
<th>NOM. PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>стена</td>
<td>стены</td>
<td>стены</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>жена</td>
<td>жены</td>
<td>жёны</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>поле</td>
<td>поля</td>
<td>поля</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Accusative Plural

For inanimate masculine nouns, the accusative plural is exactly like the nominative plural. Thus стол becomes столы. For animate masculines (persons and animals), the accusative plural is the same as the genitive plural (see next section).

The accusative plural of inanimate feminine nouns is like the nominative plural. Thus дверь becomes двери. For animate feminines, the accusative plural is the same as the genitive plural (see next section).

Inanimate neuters in the accusative plural are exactly like the nominative plural. Thus окно becomes окна; поле becomes поля; сердце becomes сердца; and яблоко becomes яблоки. The accusative plural of animate neuters is the same as the genitive plural (see next section).

The Genitive Plural

Masculine nouns generally take the ending -ов in the genitive plural. However, they take the ending -ев if the nominative singular ends in -й or in -ц (if the stress is on the preceding syllable). They take the ending -ей if the nominative singular ends in -ь or in -ж, -ч, -ш or -щ. Thus стол becomes столов; герой becomes героев; месяц becomes месяцев; учитель becomes учительей; and товарищ becomes товарищем.

The most common feminine nouns—those ending in -а in the nominative singular—take no ending in the genitive plural. Thus стенá becomes стен; книга becomes книг. Those feminines that end in -б in the nominative singular take the ending -ей in the genitive plural: дверь becomes дверей. Those that end in -я preceded by a consonant in the nominative singular take the ending -и in the genitive plural. Thus неделя ("week") becomes неделя. Those that end in -я preceded by a vowel in the nominative singular take the ending -й in the genitive plural. Thus нáртia becomes нáртia. When the stem ends in a consonant cluster, a vowel is often inserted between the consonants in the genitive plural. Thus бабушка ("grandmother") becomes бабушек; сестра becomes сестёр; and земля becomes земель.

Neuter nouns that end in -о in the nominative singular take no ending in the genitive plural: место ("place") becomes мест. Here again, a vowel is often inserted between final consonants: окно becomes окон. Neuters that end in -е (but not -ие) in the nominative singular take the ending -ей in the genitive plural: поле becomes полей. Those that end in -ие in the nominative singular take the ending -ий in the genitive plural: здание becomes зданий.
The Dative Plural

In the dative plural, all nouns end in -ам or -ям. The -ям ending is taken by (1) masculine nouns with nominative singulars ending in -й or -ь; (2) feminine nouns with nominative singulars ending in -я or -ь; and (3) neuter nouns with nominative singulars ending in -е. Thus стол becomes столам; герой becomes героям; учитель becomes учителям; стена becomes стенам; Соня becomes Соням; часть becomes частям; окно becomes окнам; and поле becomes полам.

The Instrumental Plural

In the instrumental plural, nouns take the ending -ами or -ями. The -ями ending is taken by those nouns that take the -ям ending in the dative plural. Thus стол becomes столами; герои becomes героями, etc.

The Prepositional Plural

In the prepositional plural, nouns take the ending -ах or -ях. The -ях ending is taken by those nouns that take the -ям ending in the dative case and the -ями ending in the instrumental case. Thus стол becomes столах; герои becomes героях, etc.

SPECIAL NOUN DECLENSIONS AND IRREGULAR NOUNS

There are a number of special noun declensions and irregular nouns that do not fall into any of the patterns given thus far. The most important of these subdeclensions and irregularities are shown in Appendix I: Special Noun Declensions and Irregular Nouns (page 87).

COLLECTIVE NOUNS AND NOUNS WITH ONLY SINGULAR OR ONLY PLURAL FORMS

1. Like English, Russian has a fairly large number of collective nouns, nouns that are grammatically singular although they refer to a group or class: толпа ("crowd"), народ ("nation, people," as in "the Chinese people"), молодежь ("young people, youth," as in "the youth of our cities"). Many such nouns in Russian refer to produce: лук ("onions"), картофель ("potatoes"), горох ("peas"), etc.
2. A number of Russian nouns have plural forms only. Sometimes the plural meaning is obvious and there is an English equivalent: брюки ("trousers"), ножницы ("scissors"), очки ("spectacles"). Some other important plural-only nouns are деньги ("money"), ворота ("gate"), сливки ("cream"), часы ("watch"), сани ("sled"). The accusative, dative and instrumental of these words presents no problem; you will only need to learn the way in which they form the genitive. The genitive of the words listed above: брюк, ножниц, очков, денег, ворот, сливок, часов, саней.

3. Two important plural-only nouns, дети ("children, babies") and люди ("people," not in the political sense), have equivalents in the singular that are completely different words. Дети (ACC. детей, GEN. детей, DAT. детям, INSTR. детям, PREP. детях) has the singular-number equivalent ребёнок ("child, baby"). Люди (ACC. людей, GEN. людей, DAT. людям, INSTR. людьми, PREP. людях) has the singular-number equivalent человечек ("person, human being").
ADJECTIVES

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES WITH NOUNS

Russian adjectives, like their English equivalents, may precede the noun they modify (e.g., “the tall man,” “the blue car”) or be linked to it by a verb (c.g., “the man is tall,” “the car was blue”). Unlike English adjectives, however, Russian adjectives must agree in gender, number (i.e., singular or plural) and case with the nouns they modify.

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

Hard Adjectives

Most adjectives end in -ый in the masculine nominative singular (the dictionary form for adjectives). Such adjectives are known as hard adjectives. For these adjectives the full declension is as follows (using the model word новьй, “new”):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td>FEM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>новьй</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>новьй</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>нового</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>нового</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>новому</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>новым</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>новом</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. If they modify animate nouns, masculine adjectives in the accusative singular, and adjectives of all genders in the accusative plural, have the same form as the genitive rather than the form of the nominative.

2. The letter р in the masculine and neuter genitive singular ending is pronounced like English v.
3. The feminine instrumental singular also possesses the old-fashioned ending -ою (as in новою), which appears in older literature.

4. When the stress falls on the last syllable of this class of adjectives, the masculine singular nominative (and inanimate accusative) has the ending -ый instead of -ый. Thus: больной ("ill"), голубой ("light blue"), молодой ("young"). All the other forms of such adjectives are as shown above.

5. When the stem ends in г-, к- or х-, the ъ of the endings is replaced by и. Thus, the adjective русский ("Russian") has the masculine and neuter instrumental русским and the plural forms: NOM. русские, ACC. русские, GEN. русских, DAT. русским, INSTR. русскими, PREP. русских.

6. When the stem ends in ж-, ч-, ш- or ц-, the ъ of the endings is replaced by и, and the о (when not stressed) is replaced by е. (Note that only the first о in the ending -оро is replaced.) Thus, in the case of свежий ("fresh"), the nominative and accusative neuter is свежее; the genitive forms are: MASC. & NEUT. свежего, FEM. свежей; the dative forms are: MASC. & NEUT. свежему, FEM. свежей; the feminine instrumental is свежей (or свежею); and the prepositional forms are: MASC. & NEUT. свежем, FEM. свежей.

**Soft Adjectives**

The adjective declension discussed above is the so-called hard declension. The important secondary declension is known as the soft declension. In the soft declension the masculine nominative singular always ends in -ий, and the endings never bear the stress. The declension for soft adjectives is as follows (using the model word синий, "dark blue"): 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td>FEM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>синий</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>синий</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>синего</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>синего</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>синему</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>синем</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>синем</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The feminine instrumental singular has an alternate ending -ею (синею).

The possessive adjectives мой ("my"), твой ("your"), etc., and a
number of other adjectives that partake of the nature of pronouns are discussed in the chapter on pronouns (see page 34).

**USE OF ADJECTIVES**

1. The following sentences demonstrate the agreement of adjectives with nouns:

   Я видел чёрного быка и белую корову в поле.
   I saw a *black* bull and a *white* cow in the field.
   (dictionary forms: чёрный, here masc. acc. sing. animate, modifying быка; and белый, here fem. acc. sing., modifying корову)

   Дети играют во дворе старого дома.
   The children are playing in the yard of the *old* house.
   (dictionary form: старый, here masc. gen. sing., modifying дома)

   Официант дал счет скучному дяде Серёю.
   The waiter gave the check to *stingy* Uncle Sergi.
   (dictionary form: скучный, here masc. dat. sing., modifying дяде)

   Учитель пишет жёлтым мелом.
   The teacher writes with *yellow* chalk.
   (dictionary form: жёлтый, here masc. instr. sing., modifying мелом)

   Контроль Петр в кирпичном здании на обратной стороне улицы.
   Peter’s office is in a *brick* building on the *opposite* side of the street.
   (dictionary forms: кирпичный, here neut. prep. sing., modifying здания; and обратный, here fem. prep. sing., modifying стороне)

   У нас сегодня нет свежих фруктов.
   We have no *fresh* fruit today.
   (dictionary form: свежий, here masc. gen. pl., modifying фруктов)

   Украсили зал яркими цветами.
   The hall has been decorated with *bright* flowers.
   (dictionary form: яркий, here masc. instr. pl., modifying цветами)

2. Russian adjectives can often be used as substantives—that is, as subjects or objects of a verb on their own account, with no noun expressed. Compare these two sentences:

   Больная девушка крикнула.  The *sick* girl cried out.

   Больная крикнула.
   *The sick woman* (OR: *woman patient*) cried out.
SHORT FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

Formation of the Short Form

So far (if we momentarily disregard the independent use of adjectives as nouns) we have been discussing only adjectives that immediately precede the nouns they modify; this is known as the attributive use of adjectives. But in Russian as in English, adjectives can occur in the predicate after verbs of being: “That book is useful,” “These flowers are beautiful,” etc. When used predicatively, many Russian adjectives (but never those declined like chhhh) have an optional short form, which naturally exists in the nominative only.

The masculine singular short form is the stem alone; the feminine singular short form ends in -a; the neuter in -o; and the plural for all genders in -bi (or -h if the stem ends in r-, K-, x-, jk-, h-, in- or m-). Thus, the short forms for KpactiBbm (“beautiful”) are KpacHB, xpacHBa, KpachBO, KpaCHBbl.

When consonants fall together at the end of the stem, a vowel (o, e or ê) is inserted in the masculine short form. Thus, the short forms of HHTep6cHbiii (“interesting”), 3jioh (“evil”) and yMHbift (“intelligent”) are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>интересен</td>
<td>интересе́на</td>
<td>интересе́но</td>
<td>интересе́ны</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>злой</td>
<td>зла</td>
<td>зло</td>
<td>злы</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>умён</td>
<td>умна́</td>
<td>умнб</td>
<td>умны́</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last example shows that stress is liable to shift in the short form.
Use of the Short Form

1. In modern spoken Russian, the long form is preferred in the predicate when there is a choice. But in some instances the short form must be used. In general, when a distinction is made, the long form denotes a permanent or intrinsic condition, and the short form denotes a transitory or qualified condition. Compare the following pairs of sentences:

Он очень способный.
He is very talented. [In general]

Он очень способен к языкам.
He is very good at languages. [A qualified, limited talent]

Её отец занятой человек.
Her father is a busy man.

Её отец занят.
Her father is busy at the moment.

2. Some predicative adjectives have different meanings depending on whether they are in the long or the short form. Thus, in the predicate, правый means “right” as opposed to “left,” whereas прав, правá means “right” as opposed to “wrong.” The long form of живой means “lively”; the short form жив, живá means “alive.”

3. Some adjectives are so descriptive of a momentary situation that they are usually in the short form when used predicatively. Examples (given here in the short form):

Я намерен пойти с вами.
I intend to go with you.

Вы должны пойти со мной.
You must go with me.

4. The adjective рад (“glad”) has only short forms: рад, рада, радо, рады.

5. One special use of the short form, with adjectives like великий (“big”) and малый (“small”), is to denote an excess. Thus:

Эти ботинки мне велики.
These shoes are too big for me.

Эта комната мала.
This room is too small.

Note that the words большой and маленький, the normal attributive adjectives for “big” and “small,” respectively, have no short forms.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES: THE COMPARATIVE

Formation of the Comparative

1. When an adjective is used attributively, its comparative degree is formed by placing the unchangeable adverb бóлеe (“more”) just before it. Thus: бóлее краcивый дом (“a more beautiful house”); бóлее краcивые домá (“more beautiful houses”). To express “less,” place the unchangeable adverb мёнее before the adjective: мёнее краcивый дом (“a less beautiful house”); мёнее краcивые домá (“less beautiful houses”).

2. When an adjective is used without a noun in the predicate after the verb “to be” (even when this verb is not expressed in the Russian), the comparative form with бóлеe may be used. However, unless the adjective is extremely long, it is more acceptable to form its comparative by dropping its ending and adding the unchangeable ending -ee. Thus, этóт дом краcивее is preferable to этóт дом бóлеe краcивый to express “this house is more beautiful.”

With few exceptions, the word stress in the -ee comparative form is on the ending if the adjective has a stem of one or two syllables; otherwise, the stress is the same as in the positive: умнёе (“more intelligent”), интерéснее (“more interesting”).

3. A considerable number of frequently used adjectives have special predicate comparative forms that display consonant mutation. Some of the most common adjectives of this type are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITIVE</th>
<th>COMPARATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>бли́зкий (“near”)</td>
<td>бли́же (“nearer”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>высо́кий (“high, tall”)</td>
<td>вы́ще (“higher, taller”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>глубо́кий (“deep”)</td>
<td>глубо́же (“deeper”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>дальё́кий (“distant”)</td>
<td>дальье́ (“more distant”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>до́лгий (“long,” in time)</td>
<td>до́льше (“longer”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>дорого́й (“dear, expensive”)</td>
<td>доро́же (“dearner”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>мя́гкий (“soft”)</td>
<td>мя́ще (“softer”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ти́хий (“quiet”)</td>
<td>ти́ше (“quieter”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>широ́кий (“wide”)</td>
<td>ши́ре (“wider”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adjective стáрый (“old”) has the regular comparative crapéé when referring to things and the special comparative стáрше when referring to people. Some comparative forms are more irregular than those listed above:
### ADJECTIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITIVE</th>
<th>COMPARATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>хороший (&quot;good&quot;)</td>
<td>лу́чше (&quot;better&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>плохой (&quot;bad&quot;)</td>
<td>хуже (&quot;worse&quot;)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word бо́льше ("bigger, more") serves as the comparative form of много ("much, many") as well as that of бо́льшой ("big"). Similarly, мё́ньше ("smaller, less") is the comparative form of both малó ("little, few") and маленький ("small").

Some types of adjectives cannot form comparatives with -ee; these include adjectives ending in -ckhh, -amft and -hhmh.

4. A few adjectives in the comparative degree have their own attributive form (in addition to the form with бо́льше): лу́чший ("better"), ху́дший ("worse"), ста́рший ("elder," of persons), ма́лый ("younger," of persons), бо́льший ("bigger"), мё́ньший ("smaller"). Thus, "the better student" can be expressed in two ways: бо́льше хоро́ший студе́нт or лу́чший студе́нт. With the exception of бо́льший and мё́ньший, the above comparatives are really superlatives ("best," "worst," "eldest," etc.) that can be used as attributive comparatives.

### Use of the Comparative

1. In Russian, the object of comparison (i.e., "B" in the expression "A is bigger than B") is either placed in the genitive case or introduced by the conjunction чем (preceded by a comma). In some instances, either construction can be used. Thus:

   Волга длиннее Невы.
   Павел лени́ве Петра.
   Волга длиннее, чем Невы.
   Павел лени́ве, чем Пётр.

   The Volga is longer than the Neva.
   Paul is lazier than Peter.
   The Volga is longer than the Neva.
   Paul is lazier than Peter.

The construction with чем must be used, however, when the objects compared are not in the nominative case:

Я люблю воду более, чем водку.
I like water more than vodka.

Here водку is in the accusative case just as воду is, since both these nouns are direct objects of люблю. Also compare the two sentences:

Я люблю Тамару более, чем Лиза.
I like Tamara more than Liza does.
Я люблю Тамару больше, чем Лизу.
I like Tamara more than (I like) Liza.

2. The comparative degree is frequently used with various prefixes and adverbs in standard expressions:

Саша постарше, чем Коля. Sasha is a little older than Kolya.
 Его работа становилась всё легче.
His work became easier and easier.
 Ваш дом большой, но наш еще больше.
Your house is big, but ours is bigger still.
 Идите сюда как можно скорее.
Come here as soon as possible.
 Чем больше, тем лучше. The more the better.
 Было гораздо больше людей, чем я ожидал.
There were many more people than I expected.

The adverb гораздо may be used to express “much” or “many” with a comparative; it has no other use.

THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

There are two ways in which to form the superlative degree (e.g., “biggest,” “most beautiful”) in Russian. These are the compound superlative and the suffixal superlative:

1. In formal Russian, the compound superlative is formed by placing the unchangeable adverb наимёнее (“most”) in front of the positive long form of the adjective:

Миша наимёнее умный мальчик в классе.
Misha is the most intelligent boy in the class.

In colloquial speech, however, it is more common for the positive form of the adjective to be preceded by самый (“most”):

Миша самый умный мальчик в классе.
Misha is the most intelligent boy in the class.

Unlike наимёнее, however, самый is an adjective, and must agree in gender, number and case with the adjective it precedes. Thus:

Ольга самая умная девушка среди студентов.
Olga is the most intelligent girl among the students.
Он один из самых ужасных тиранов в истории.
He is one of the most terrible tyrants in history.

There are four basic ways in which to express the entire group among which the superlative stands out:

(a) With the genitive:

Он самый умный студент класса.
He is the smartest student of the class.

(b) With the preposition в and the prepositional:

Он самый умный в классе.
He is the smartest in the class.

(c) With the preposition из ("out of"); йзо before double consonants and the genitive plural:

Он самый умный из всех студентов.
He is the smartest of all the students.

(d) With the preposition среди ("among") and the genitive plural:

Он самый умный среди студентов.
He is the smartest among (or: of) the students.

2. A number of Russian adjectives possess another superlative form that is not generally used to make an actual comparison, but to intensify the meaning of the adjective (e.g., "a most beautiful house," "an extremely beautiful house"). This is the so-called absolute superlative. It is formed by adding the suffix -ейший to the stem of the adjective. Unlike -ее, this suffix is a fully declinable form. Thus: красивейший дом ("a most beautiful house"); красавиная девушка ("an extremely beautiful girl").

Consonant mutation sometimes occurs in the adjectival stem. When the mutated stem ends in ж-, ч-, ш- or ш-, the ending becomes -айший and is always stressed. Thus высокий ("high, tall") becomes высочайший ("very high, very tall").
ADVERBS

ADVERBS DERIVED FROM ADJECTIVES

In English, many adverbs are formed by adding -ly to an adjective: quiet, quietly; swift, swiftly. In Russian, adverbs can be formed by adding -о or -е to the stem of adjectives. (Thus adverbs derived from adjectives have the same form as the neuter short form of the adjective.) For hard adjectives, the ending -о is added:

**ADJECTIVE** | **ADVERB IN -о**
---|---
быстрый ("quick") | быстро ("quickly")
красивый ("beautiful") | красиво ("beautifully")

For soft adjectives, the ending -е is added to the stem to form the adverb:

**ADJECTIVE** | **ADVERB IN -е**
---|---
искренний ("sincere") | искрение ("sincerely")
кра́йний ("extreme") | кра́йне ("extremely")

Adjectives ending in -ский have the adverbial ending -и: техни́ческий ("technical"), техни́чески ("technically").

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

The comparative degree of adverbs formed from adjectives is exactly like the comparative of the adjectives themselves. Thus: умнее ("more intelligent, more intelligently"); глубже ("deeper, more deeply").

To form the superlative degree of adverbs, either add наиболее before the positive degree, or add a genitive form of the pronoun/adjective very after the comparative degree: наиболее логиче́ски ("most logically"); мы зна́ем лу́чше все́го исто́рию ("we know history best").
OTHER ADVERBS

Like English, Russian has numerous independent adverbs that are not formed from adjectives (English examples: “now,” “there,” “onward,” “once”). Most Russian adverbs of this type are unchangeable in form and their use in sentences is basically the same as for English adverbs; they come not so much under the category of grammar as that of vocabulary to be learned. Therefore only a few basic notions and a small number of examples will be given here.

Adverbs of Time

Adverbs of time include such words as когда (“when?”), тогда (“then, at that time”), никогда (“never”), сейчас (“now”), сегодня* (“today”), наконец (“finally”), опять (“again”), уже (“already”).

Когда and тогда exemplify the frequent pairing in Russian of interrogative words beginning with к- and demonstratives beginning with т-. Когда, like other interrogatives, can be turned into an indefinite by adding -то or -нибудь: когда-то (“at some time”). The adverb никогда is an example of a negative formed from an interrogative through the addition of the prefix ни-.

Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of place fall into two main categories: those of position, or “place in which,” and those indicating direction or change in location, “place to or from which.” It is important, for example, to distinguish between где and куда, both of which can be translated as “where?”; где means “in which place?” and куда means “to which place?” Both здесь and сюда can be translated as “here”; здесь means “in this place” and сюда means “to this place.” Там means “there, in that place”; туда means “there, to that place.”

When preceded by не, the demonstrative adverbs там and туда mean “in the wrong place” and “to the wrong place,” respectively.

* The -r- in сегодня is pronounced like English v because it is historically part of the genitive singular ending -ero.
Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of degree include очень (“very”), много (“much, many, a lot”), мало (“little, few”), совсем (“completely”), почти (“almost”), слишком (“too, too much”).

With verbs of wanting and liking, очень is used alone to mean “very much”: Соня очень любит цветы (“Sonia loves flowers very much”). Otherwise много is used: он много работает (“he works a lot”). Of course, очень can still modify много in such cases: он очень много работает (“he works very hard”). Много and мало also serve as adverbs of quantity; as such they are discussed in the next section.

Adverbs of Quantity

The words много (“much, many”), немного (“a little, a few”), мало (“little, few”), сколько (“how much, how many?”), столько (“so much, so many”) and несколько (“somewhat, several”) can all be used as pure adverbs, but they can also function as pronouns or adjectives.

They are used with the genitive singular of nouns and pronouns to express amount, and with the genitive plural to express number: много хлеба (“a lot of bread”), немного людей (“a few people”), мало воды (“little water”), сколько друзей (“how many friends?”), столько времени (“so much time”), несколько товарищей (“several comrades”).

When followed by singular nouns, these quantity words occur only in the nominative and accusative. When followed by plural nouns, they can occur in the other cases as well; when used in the genitive, dative, instrumental or prepositional, they become adjectives taking the appropriate plural endings:

У немногох студентов были жалобы.
A few students had complaints.

Многою людей дали хлеб бесплатно.
Many people were given bread free of charge.

Related to много is the regularly declined plural-only adjective многие (it can also be used as a pronoun), which means “many” with an emphasis on the individuals composing the group:

Многие из новых студентов были совсем незнакомы мне.
Many of the new students were completely unfamiliar to me.
Miscellaneous Adverbs

1. Adverbs of manner include как ("how?") , так ("thus, in this way") and никак ("in no way").

2. Тоже and также both mean "also, too, as well," but также introduces a new subject while the predicate stays the same, and также introduces a new predicate while the subject stays the same:

Mikhail работает режиссёром; Boris, тоже.
Mikhail is a film director; Boris is, too.

Mikhail работает режиссёром. Он также пишет.
Mikhail is a film director. He writes, too.

3. The instrumental case of certain nouns is used adverbially. Among them are утром ("in the morning"), днём ("in the daytime"), весной ("in the spring") and рядом ("side by side"). In some instances, this instrumental form is all that remains in the language of an obsolete noun: пешком ("on foot").

4. Some adverbial expressions consist of the preposition no and the dative case of certain adjectives. Examples are: по-прежнему ("as before"), по-разному ("in various ways"), по-мое ("in my opinion").

Similar to this group are the expressions with no-plus-adverb meaning "in (a given language)"; по-российск ("in Russian"), по-английски ("in English"), по-французски ("in French"), по-немецки ("in German"), etc.

5. Many adverbs (historically originating as prepositions-plus-nouns) occur in sense groups based on the following notions: lack of motion, motion toward, motion away from. Some of these groups are:

(a) вдали ("in the distance"); вдаль ("into the distance"); издал ("from afar")

(b) впереди ("at a place ahead"); вперед ("to the front, forward"); спереди ("from up ahead, in the front")

(c) позади ("at the back"); назад ("to the back"); сзади ("from the back")

(d) внизу ("at a place below"); вниз ("downward"); снизу ("from below")
PRONOUNS

Many of the words discussed in this chapter have adjectival forms and strictly speaking are pronominal adjectives, but it is convenient and instructive to group them with the pure pronouns to which they are related.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The Russian personal pronouns are я ("I, me"), ты ("you"; this is the singular form, used when speaking to one person, and then only to a close friend or relative, small child or animal), он ("he, him, it"), она ("she, her, it"), они ("it"), мы ("we, us"), вы ("you"; this is not only the plural form, used when speaking to more than one person, but also the polite form of address to a single individual), and они ("they, them"). Like nouns, pronouns are declined; the cases of pronouns have the same uses as for nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>1ST PERSON</th>
<th>2ND PERSON</th>
<th>3RD PERSON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td>FEM.</td>
<td>NEUT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>я</td>
<td>ты</td>
<td>он</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>меня́</td>
<td>тебя́</td>
<td>(Н)ERÓ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>меня́</td>
<td>тебя́</td>
<td>(Н)ера́</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>мне</td>
<td>тебя́</td>
<td>(Н)ему́</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>мой́</td>
<td>тобо́й</td>
<td>(Н)им</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>мне</td>
<td>тебя́</td>
<td>нём</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>1ST PERSON</th>
<th>2ND PERSON</th>
<th>3RD PERSON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>мы</td>
<td>вы</td>
<td>они́y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>нас</td>
<td>вас</td>
<td>(Н)их</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>нас</td>
<td>вас</td>
<td>(Н)их</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

33
1. When вы refers to one person, long-form adjectives modifying it are in the singular, but short-form adjectives are in the plural:

Вы очень сонный сегодня.
You are very sleepy today.
Вы правы.
You are right.

2. The third person singular forms он, она and онó refer back to masculine, feminine and neuter nouns, respectively. Thus, он and она can both mean “it” as well as “he” and “she,” respectively:

Я купил новый костюм. Он серый.
I bought a new suit. It is gray.
Я купил новую шляпу. Она серая.
I bought a new hat. It is gray.

3. When the third person pronouns are governed by a preposition, the letter н- is added to the beginning: с ним (“with him”), один из них (“one of them”).

4. To express “— and I,” Russian uses the form мы с —. Thus: мы с братом (“my brother and I”).

### POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

The possessive pronouns/adjectives (“my, mine,” “your, yours,” etc.) that correspond to я, ты, мы и вы are: мой (“my, mine”), твой (“your, yours,” familiar singular), наш (“our, ours”) and ваш (“your, yours,” plural or polite singular). Твой is declined like мой, and ваш like наш:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEM.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>мой</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>мой</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>моегó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>моегó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>моему</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>мойм</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>моём</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Possessive adjectives must agree in gender, number and case with the noun they modify (the thing possessed). Thus, for example, “my sister” will be моя сестра whether the speaker (“I”) is masculine or feminine.

2. Note, however, that the possessives that correspond to the third person personal pronouns (singular and plural) are unchanging in form. Corresponding to он and она is его (“his, its”); corresponding to она is её (“her, hers, its”); and corresponding to они is их (“their, theirs”). These forms never have a prefixed н- when governed by prepositions. The possessive adjective своё (“one’s own”) is discussed on page 39.

Мы говорим о Москве и её зданиях.
We are talking about Moscow and its buildings.

3. In Russian, possessives are often omitted where used in English:

Он пишет матери.       He is writing to (his) mother.

Nor are possessives used with parts of the body, as in the English “My head hurts.” Instead, the construction used is: У меня болит голова (LIT.: “By me hurts the head”), or: У него руки замёрзли (“His hands are cold”; LIT.: “By him the hands froze”).

In general, the most common way of expressing possession in Russian is by using the preposition у plus the genitive of the noun or pronoun:

У Ивана новая шляпа.       Ivan has a new hat.

In the above expression, “new hat,” which is the direct object in the English construction, is the subject (nominative) in the Russian.

But when the sentence contains some directed action, the possessor of the object that is undergoing the action must be expressed by a noun or pronoun in the dative case:

Он пожал мне руку.
He shook my hand. [LIT.: He shook to me the hand.]
Парикмахер постри́г малы́чку во́лосы.
The barber cut the boy’s hair. [LIT.: The barber cut to the boy the hair.]

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

The demonstrative adjectives э́тот ("this," PL. "these") and тóт ("that," PL. "those") are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>э́тот</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>э́тот</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>э́того</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>э́того</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>э́тому</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>э́тим</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>э́том</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>тóт</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>тóт</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>тóгó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>тóгó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>тóмь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>тём</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>тóм</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The neuter singular forms — э́то, э́того, etc., and то, тóго, etc. — are used as the demonstrative pronouns "this" and "that," respectively. As the introductory word in Russian sentences, э́то can refer to people as well as to things: э́то мо́я жéна ("this is my wife"). Э́то is sometimes the equivalent of English "it" when the "it" refers not to a specific object (in which case он, она, or онó is needed) but to a fact or state of affairs:

Говорят, что завтра будет дождь. — Об э́том я ничего не слышал.
"They say that tomorrow there will be rain." "I didn’t hear anything about it."
He тот has the meaning of “the wrong —”:

Вы взяли не ту книгу. You took the wrong book.

2. The demonstrative pronominal adjective тако́й (“such”) is declined regularly: така́я дёвушка (“a girl such as this”), така́я краси́вая дёвушка (“such a beautiful girl”).

INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

1. The interrogative pronoun кто (“who?”) is always masculine singular, grammatically; что (“what?”) is neuter singular. They are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>ACC.</th>
<th>GEN.</th>
<th>DAT.</th>
<th>INSTR.</th>
<th>PREP.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>кто</td>
<td>чёто</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>кого</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>кого</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>комУ</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>кем</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ком</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
<td>что</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples of the use of кто and что:

Кого вы ви́дели? Whom did you see?
Чем вы пи́шете? With what are you writing?

2. Кто has an adjectival possessive чей (“whose?”), declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>MASC.</th>
<th>FEM.</th>
<th>NEUT.</th>
<th>ALL GENDERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>чей</td>
<td>чья</td>
<td>чьё</td>
<td>чьи</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>чей</td>
<td>чью</td>
<td>чьё</td>
<td>чьи</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>чьего</td>
<td>чьё</td>
<td>чьё</td>
<td>чьих</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>чьего</td>
<td>чьей</td>
<td>чьё</td>
<td>чьих</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>чьемУ</td>
<td>чьей</td>
<td>чьёмУ</td>
<td>чьимУ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>чьим</td>
<td>чьей</td>
<td>чьим</td>
<td>чьим</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>чьём</td>
<td>чьей</td>
<td>чьём</td>
<td>чьих</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remember that possessive adjectives must agree in gender, number and case with the thing possessed:

Чья эта кни́га? Whose book is this?
О чьей тёте вы говори́те? About whose aunt are you talking?
3. Two other interrogative pronominal adjectives, both declined like regular hard adjectives, are како́й (“what kind of?”) and кото́рый (“which?”). Кото́рый is now limited in use mainly to the expression кото́рый час? (“what time is it?”).

4. A number of interrogative pronouns also function as relative pronouns: кто (“who”), что (“what”), како́й (“what”), чей (“whose”) and кото́рый (“who,” “which,” “that”). Кото́рый, which is used very frequently as a relative, is declined regularly, following the pattern of hard adjectives. Its nominative forms are: MASC. кото́рый, FEM. кото́рая, NEUT. кото́рое, PL. кото́рые. It must agree in gender and number with the noun (animate or inanimate) to which it refers, but its case is determined by its function in the relative clause:

Вот кни́га, кото́рую я читал.
Here is the book that I was reading.

Вот дёвушка, кото́рой я дал кни́гу.
There is the girl to whom I gave the book.

Кто is used as a relative pronoun in reference to a number of pronouns including тот (tot, кто..., “the one who...”), те (те, кто..., “those who...”), никто́ (никто, кто..., “no one who...”) and всё (все, кто..., “everyone who...”).

Что is not used as frequently as кото́рый when the relative refers back to a noun (instead of a pronoun). It is used for the most part with the pronouns всё (“everything”) and то (то, что, “that which”):

Вы зна́ете всё, что я зна́ю. You know everything that I know.

INDEFINITE AND NEGATIVE PRONOUNS

1. Russian interrogative words in general (and not only pronouns) can be turned into indefinites by adding the unchangeable suffix -то or -ни́будь. Thus, кто-то and кто-ни́будь mean “someone, somebody” or “anyone, anybody”; что-то and что-ни́будь mean “something” or “anything.” The кто- and the что- elements are still fully declinable. Кто-то (like all indefinites with -то) denotes a clear-cut person whose identity is unknown. Кто-ни́будь denotes “anyone at all, anyone in the world”:

— Прихо́дил ли кто́-ни́будь? — Кто́-то прихо́дил, я не зна́ю кто.
“Did anyone come by?” “Somebody came, (but) I don’t know who.”

Да́йте биле́т кому́-ни́будь на у́лице.
Give the ticket to someone on the street.
2. The negative pronouns никто ("no one, nobody") and ничто ("nothing") are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Никто</th>
<th>Ничто OR Ничего</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>никто</td>
<td>ничто OR ничего</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>никого</td>
<td>ничего</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>никого</td>
<td>ничего</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>никому</td>
<td>ничему</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>никем</td>
<td>ничем</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>ни o ком</td>
<td>ни o чём</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The prepositional is given here with the sample preposition о to show that prepositions are placed between the ни and the кто or что element. This is true for other declensional cases as well:

Ни у кого нет денег.  
Nobody has any money.

REFLEXIVE, EMPHATIC, RECIPROCAL AND OTHER PRONOUNS

1. The reflexive pronoun себя ("himself, herself," etc,) never appears as the subject (nominative) of a sentence or clause; it always refers back to that subject, regardless of gender, person or number:

Она считает себя очень умной.
She considers herself very intelligent.

Мы считаем себя очень умными.
We consider ourselves very intelligent.

Себя is declined like the second person pronoun ты: ACC. себя, GEN. себя, DAT. себе, INSTR. собой, PREP. себе. Compare the sentences:

Вадим говорит о себе.  
Vadim is speaking about himself.

Вадим говорит о нём.  
Vadim is speaking about him (someone else).

2. The possessive adjective corresponding to себя is свой ("one's own"), which is declined like мой. Compare the sentences:

Иван написал письмо своей сестре.
Ivan wrote a letter to his (own) sister.

Иван написал письмо его сестре.
Ivan wrote a letter to his (someone else's) sister.
When the subject is in the first or second person ("I," "we," "you"), there is a choice between свой and the possessives мой, твой, наш or ваш:

Я очень люблю мой (OR: свой) собаку.
I love my dog very much.

3. Сам is an emphatic pronominal adjective corresponding to the "myself," "yourself," "himself," etc., in such English phrases as "I myself," "you yourself," "he himself," etc. Сам is declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM. сам</td>
<td>самы</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEM. сама</td>
<td>самы</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUT. само</td>
<td>самы</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL GENDERS са́ми</td>
<td>са́ми</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When modifying a noun, сам generally precedes it; when modifying a pronoun, it comes after it:

Я видел сам королеву в саду.
I saw the Queen herself in the garden.

Она сама сшила мне эту рубашку.
She herself sewed me this shirt.

4. The regularly declined adjective са́мый, which we have already seen used in the superlative degree of adjectives, means "itself," "the very" or "right" when used on its own — with inanimates only:

Мы доехали до самого конца линии.
We rode to the very end of the line.

Она была в самом бою.
She was right in the battle (OR: . . . in the thick of the battle).

5. The reciprocal pronoun "each other, one another" is expressed in Russian by друг другу, in which the first element remains undecorated while the second (declined like a masculine singular noun) conforms to the necessary case requirements:

Они часто дают друг другу подарки.
They often give presents to each other.
Мы иногда думаем друг о друге.
We sometimes think of each other.

6. The adjective/pronoun весь ("all, entire, whole") is declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MASC.</td>
<td>FEM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>весь</td>
<td>вся</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>весь</td>
<td>всю</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>всерёз</td>
<td>всерёз</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>всерёз</td>
<td>всерёз</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>всерёзь</td>
<td>всерёзь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>всерёзь</td>
<td>всерёзь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>всё</td>
<td>всё</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples of the use of весь:

Городок весь в снегу.
The town is all covered with snow.

Во всём мире такого животного нет.
There's no such animal in the whole world.

The plural (все, всех, etc.) is used pronominally to mean "everyone, everybody"; the neuter singular (всё, всерёз, etc.) is used to mean "everything":

Она всех знает. She knows everyone.
Они всё знают. They know everything.
PREPOSITIONS

Russian is exceedingly rich in prepositions. Only the most common ones can be considered here, but the basic concepts underlying the use of prepositions will be covered. Each preposition governs at least one grammatical case; that is, the noun or pronoun following it (its object) must have the appropriate case ending. When learning any new preposition not listed here, be sure to learn which case(s) it governs. Those prepositions that are followed by more than one case have correspondingly different shades of meaning; such prepositions will be discussed after those more closely bound to a single case. The special uses of certain prepositions in telling time are given later in the chapter Telling Time (see page 85).

PREPOSITIONS USED WITH THE ACCUSATIVE ONLY

Relatively few prepositions are used with the accusative case only. Among them are:

про (“about, concerning”)

моряк рассказал детям про свой приключения (“the sailor told the children about his adventures”); она говорит про эту книгу (“she is speaking about this book”)

сквозь (“through”)

сквозь туман (“through the fog”); сквозь дыру (“through a hole”)

через (“over, across, through, by way of; in, within; every other”)

через мост (“over the bridge”); через стену (“through the wall”); он узнал о награде через брата (“he learned of the award through his brother”); мы поехали в Киев через Москву (“we went to Kiev by way of Moscow”); я вернусь через неделю (“I’ll return in a week”); они ссорились через пять минут после его возвращения (“they quarreled within five minutes after his return”); через день (“every other day”)

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PREPOSITIONS USED WITH THE GENITIVE ONLY

Prepositions always followed by the genitive, and no other case, include:

без ("without")

без билета ("without a ticket"); без исключения ("without exception"); без интереса ("without interest")

вместо ("instead of")

вместо пиджака ("instead of a jacket"); вместо нас ("instead of us")

вокруг ("round, around, surrounding")

вокруг двора ("around the yard"); вокруг света ("round the world")

dля ("for, for the sake of")

этот ящик для писем ("this drawer is for letters"); я сделал это для вас ("I did this for your sake"); для разнообразия ("for a change")

do ("up to [but not including], as far as, until, before")

do самых стен крепости ("up to the very walls of the fortress"); я буду ждать до утра ("I’ll wait until morning"); до войны ("before the war")

из ("out of, from out of, made of")

он вышел из комнаты ("he went out of the room"); из любви к родине ("out of love for one’s homeland"); стол из дерева ("the table is made of wood"); один из студентов ("one of the students")

из-за ("from behind, from beyond; because of, through")

из-за кустов ("from behind the bushes"); из-за границы ("from abroad" [LIT.: "from beyond the border"]); из-за дождя ("because of the rain"); из-за неосторожности ("through carelessness")

кроме ("besides, in addition to, except")

никто кроме вас ("no one besides you")

около ("near, approximately")

около театра ("near the theater"); около пятнадцати человек ("around five people")
от ("from, away from")

он отошёл от стен́ы ("he moved away from the wall"); от Москв́ы до Києва ("from Moscow to Kiev"); он получил письмо от сестры́ ("he received a letter from his sister"); от нача́ла до конца́ ("from beginning to end"); он покраснел от смущения́ ("he blushed from embarrassment")

после ("after, since")

после рабо́ты ("after work"); после Рождества́ ("after Christ¬mas"); после его́ возвраще́ния ("since his return")

у ("next to, beside, by; at the home of; in the possession of")

у вхóда ("by the entrance"); я был у брáта ("I was at my brother’s"); у моегó брáта большиóй дом ("my brother has a big house"); у менéй болéт зуб ("I have a toothache" [LIT.: "by me aches a tooth"])

**PREPOSITIONS USED WITH THE DATIVE ONLY**

Of the prepositions that govern the dative case only, the most important by far is к.

к (ко before certain double consonants; "to, toward")

идите к доске́ ("go to the blackboard"); приходите к нам ("come to see us; visit us"); письмо к сестре́ ("a letter to one’s sister"); она́ добрá ко мне ("she’s kind to me")

Two other prepositions governing the dative are благодаря́ ("thanks to, owing to"): благодаря́ вам ("thanks to you"); and согласно́ ("according to"): согласно Толстóму ("according to Tolstoy").

**PREPOSITIONS USED WITH THE INSTRUMENTAL ONLY**

Important prepositions used only with the instrumental case are:

междú ("among, between")

междú дерéвьями ("among the trees"); междú на́ми ("between you and me"); междú обéдом и ужином ("between lunch and dinner"); междú окнóм и двéрью ("between the window and the door")

* Междú occasionally occurs with the accusative; the meaning is the same.
PREPOSITIONS USED WITH MORE THAN ONE CASE

над (надо before certain double consonants; "over, above," whether motion is involved or not)

над нами летал самолёт ("a plane flew over us"); над уровнем моря ("above sea level"); он поднялся надо мной по лестнице ("he climbed to a place above me on the ladder")

нёред (нёредо before certain double consonants; "before, in front of, prior to")

нёред двёрью ("in front of the door"); нёред моим отъездом ("just before my departure"); нёред обёдом ("before dinner")

PREPOSITIONS USED WITH THE PREPOSITIONAL ONLY

The only important preposition used exclusively with the prepositional case is при.

при ("at the time of, in the presence of, with")

при Сталине ("during the Stalin era"); не говорите так при моёй материи! ("don’t talk that way in front of my mother!"); при участии детей ("with the children’s participation")

PREPOSITIONS USED WITH MORE THAN ONE CASE

в (во before certain double consonants; WITH ACCUSATIVE: "to, into; per"); WITH PREPOSITIONAL: "in, at")

ACC.: вчера мы пришли в Москву ("we came to Moscow yesterday"); он вошёл в кухню ("he went into the kitchen"); три раза в неделю ("three times per week")

PREP.: родиться в Москве ("to be born in Moscow"); в кухне ("in the kitchen"); в коптере ("at the office"); в горах ("in the mountains"); в старости ("in one’s old age"); в отчаянии ("in despair")

за (WITH NOMINATIVE, together with что: "what sort of?"; WITH ACCUSATIVE: "[to a place] behind or beyond; for, in return for; in place of; in"; WITH INSTRUMENTAL: "[at a place] behind or beyond; at; for; after")

 NOM.: что это за безобразие? ("what sort of mess is this?"); что это за птица? ("what kind of bird is this?")
PREPOSITIONS

ACC.: они поехали за границу ("they went abroad" [LIT.: "they went beyond the border"]); солнце зашло за горизонт ("the sun went below the horizon"); машина завернула за угол ("the car went around the corner"); они сели за стол ("they sat down at the table"); спасибо за вашу помощь ("thanks for your help"); я буду работать за брата ("I’ll work in place of my brother"); мы все за мир ("we are all for peace"); я прочитал книгу за один недель ("I finished reading the book in one week")

INSTR.: сейчас он за границей ("he is now abroad"); солнце уже за горизонтом ("the sun is already below the horizon"); парикмахерская за углом ("the barbershop is just around the corner"); у него есть дача за городом ("he has a summer house outside of town"); они сидели за столом ("they were sitting at the table"); за завтраком ("at breakfast"); я зайду за вами в полдень ("I’ll come for you at noon"); день за днём ("day after day")

на (WITH ACCUSATIVE: "on[to]; to [instead of в with certain nouns]; by; for"; WITH PREPOSITIONAL: "on, at")

ACC.: он повесил картину на стену ("he hung the picture on the wall"); на завод, станцию, работу, собрание ("to the factory, the station, work, the meeting"); он старше меня на пять лет ("he’s five years older than I am" [LIT.: "he’s older than I by five years"]); материал на платье ("material for a dress"); что у нас будет на обед? ("what will we have for dinner?")

PREP.: он на работе ("he’s at work"); картина висит на стене ("a picture hangs on the wall"); мы приехали сюда на автобусе ("we came here on the bus [OR: by bus]")

о (об before vowels, обо before certain double consonants; WITH ACCUSATIVE: "against [in actions of contact]"; WITH PREPOSITIONAL: "about, concerning")

ACC.: корабль разбился о скалы ("the ship broke up on the rocks"); опираться о дерево ("to lean against a tree")

PREP.: он рассказал нам о своём путешествии ("he told us about his trip"); мы говорим о погоде ("we are talking about the weather")

но (WITH ACCUSATIVE: "up to [and including]"; apiece, each"; WITH DATIVE: "along, through; according to; on, by, in; apiece,* each")

* When meaning "apiece," no is followed by the accusative when two or more items are distributed to each party; by the dative when only one item is distributed to each party.
ACC.: води поднялась ему по колени ("the water rose to his knees"); с понедельника по четверг ("from Monday through Thursday"); матери раздала детям по два яблока ("the mother gave the children two apples apiece"); эти карандаши стоят по десять копеек ("these pencils cost ten kopecks each")

DAT.: по дорогое ("along the road"); по парку ("through the park"); по истории России ("throughout the history of Russia"); по плану ("according to plan"); по телевидению ("on television"); ударяли его по голове ("he was hit on the head"); по ошибке ("by mistake"); по почте ("by mail"); его мнению ("in his opinion"); специалист по русской литературе ("a specialist in Russian literature"); он работает по вечерам ("he works evenings"); студенты разъехались по домам на каникулы ("the students went to their homes for the vacation"—i.e., they dispersed, each going to his own home); матери раздала детям по одному яблоку ("the mother gave the children one apple apiece")

ВОД (подао before certain double consonants; WITH ACCUSATIVE: "[to a place] under, below"; WITH INSTRUMENTAL: "[at a place] under, below")

ACC.: поставьте портфель под стол ("put your briefcase under the table")

INSTR.: мальчик спал под деревом ("a boy was sleeping under a tree"); под горой ("at the bottom of the hill"); под руководством Ленина ("under Lenin’s leadership")

С (Со before certain double consonants; WITH ACCUSATIVE: "approximately; the size of"); WITH GENITIVE: "from off the top of [with verbs of action]; from [instead of из with certain nouns]; since"; WITH INSTRUMENTAL: "with, together with, and")

ACC.: мы прожили там с месяц ("we spent about a month there"); он ростом с брата ("he is about the same height as his brother"); грацины с яблоки ("hailstones the size of apples")

GEN.: он взял книгу со стола ("he took the book from [OR: off] the table"); с завода, станции, рабочих, собрания ("from the factory, the station, work, the meeting"); сколько с меня? ("how much do I owe?" [LIT.: "how much from me?"]); с русского на английский ("from Russian into English"); они здесь с понедельника ("they’ve been here since Monday")

INSTR.: она пошла в булочную со мной ("she went to the bakery with me"); с заходом солнца ("with the setting of the sun"); хлеб с сыром ("bread and cheese")
INTERRELATION OF PREPOSITIONS IN SENTENCES OF MOTION

It is clear from the above listing that the notion of location in a place, and of various types of motion to and from a place, have much to do with the proper choice of prepositions and the cases they govern. It is convenient to recapitulate some of the relevant prepositions in a grouping that clarifies their interrelation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATION (ABSENCE OF MOTION)</th>
<th>MOTION TOWARD</th>
<th>MOTION AWAY FROM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>в</strong> + prepositional</td>
<td><strong>в</strong> + accusative</td>
<td><strong>из</strong> + genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;in, at&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;into, to&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;out of, from&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Он в театре.</td>
<td>Он пошёл в театр.</td>
<td>Он вышёл из театра.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is in the theater.</td>
<td>He went into the theater.</td>
<td>He went out of the theater.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>на</strong> + prepositional</td>
<td><strong>на</strong> + accusative</td>
<td><strong>с</strong> + genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;on, at&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;on(to); to&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;off of; from&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Книга на столе.</td>
<td>Он положил книгу на стол.</td>
<td>Он взял книгу со стола.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The book is on the table.</td>
<td>He put the book on the table.</td>
<td>He took the book off the table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Он на собрании.</td>
<td>Он пошёл на собрание.</td>
<td>Он пришёл с собрания.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is at the meeting.</td>
<td>He went to the meeting.</td>
<td>He has come from the meeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>у</strong> + genitive</td>
<td><strong>к</strong> + dative</td>
<td><strong>от</strong> + genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;next to, beside, by&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;to(ward), up to the side of&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;away from the side of&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Он у окна.</td>
<td>Он подошёл к окну.</td>
<td>Он отошёл от окна.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is by the window.</td>
<td>He went up to the window.</td>
<td>He went away from the window.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Я был у брата.</td>
<td>Я пошёл к брату.</td>
<td>Я ушёл от брата.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was at my brother's.</td>
<td>I went to my brother's.</td>
<td>I went away from my brother's.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>за</td>
<td>+ instrumental</td>
<td>&quot;behind, beyond&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>за</td>
<td>+ accusative</td>
<td>&quot;behind, beyond&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>из-за</td>
<td>+ genitive</td>
<td>&quot;from behind, from beyond&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>под</td>
<td>+ instrumental</td>
<td>&quot;under, below&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>под</td>
<td>+ accusative</td>
<td>&quot;under, below&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>из-под</td>
<td>+ genitive</td>
<td>&quot;out from under&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Над ("over, above") and перед ("in front of") are always followed by the instrumental, whether motion is involved or not.
CONJUNCTIONS

Like English, Russian contains two general types of conjunction: coordinating and subordinating. Only the most common coordinating and subordinating conjunctions are given here together with examples of their use.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

и ("and," linking like parts of speech and compatible ideas)

у меня яблоки и апельсины ("I have apples and oranges"); он учится читать и писать ("he is learning to read and write")

и ... и ("both ... and")

и Иван, и Михаил будут работать за вас ("both Ivan and Mikhail will work in place of you"); он говорит и по-французски, и по-русски ("he speaks both French and Russian")

ни ... ни ("neither ... nor")

ни Иван, ни Михаил не будет работать за вас ("neither Ivan nor Mikhail will work in place of you"); он не говорит ни по-французски, ни по-русски ("he speaks neither French nor Russian")

а ("and, but, whereas," linking contrasting but not antithetical ideas)

его пальто чёрное, а моё серое ("his coat is black and mine is gray"); она хочет ждать, а я не хочу ("she wants to wait but I don’t")

но ("but," linking incompatible or antithetical ideas)

он был маленький, но храбрый ("he was small, but brave"); я вам помогу, но вы должны сказать мне правду ("I will help you, but you must tell me the truth")

или ("or")

это серебро или золото? ("is that silver or gold?")
SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

или ... или ("either ... or")

или Ива́н, или Михай́л будет работать за вас ("either Ivan or Mikhail will work in place of you")

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

что ("that," used after verbs of saying, thinking, believing, etc.)

я знаю́, что вы съездили за гра́ницу ("I know that you went abroad"); я ду́маю, что он дома́ ("I think that he is at home")

чтобы ("that," often unexpressed in English)

(a) With the past tense after verbs of request, command, warning, fearing or doubting:

я попроси́л, чтобы он зашёл ко мне се́годня ("I asked him to stop by today"); прокуро́р потре́бовал, чтобы обвиняемый призна́лся в преступлении ("the prosecutor demanded that the accused admit to his crime"); команда́р приказа́л, чтобы войска́ отступи́ли ("the commander ordered the troops to retreat"); я бо́йсясь, чтобы он не пришёл ("I was afraid that he might come")

(b) As a conjunction of purpose with the meaning "in order to, in order that, so that": (1) with an infinitive if the subject of the dependent clause is the same as the subject of the main clause; and (2) with the past tense if there is a change of subject. (When serving as a conjunction of purpose, чтобы is usually omitted when the main verb is a verb of motion when there is no change of subject.)

они́ пригласи́ли меня́, чтобы узна́ть о мо́ей но́вой кни́ге ("they invited me in order to find out about my new book"); гражда́не собра́лись, чтобы обсужда́ть вопро́с ("the citizens assembled in order to discuss the issue"); я встал, чтобы он мог сесть ("I stood up so that he could sit down"); он пришёл, чтобы верну́ть твою кни́гу ("he came in order to return your book")

потому́ что ("because")

я сча́стлив, потому́ что се́годня мой день рожде́ния ("I am happy because today is my birthday")

из-за тогó, что ("because," with the implication of failure or trouble)

из-за тогó, что вы опозда́ли, мы не успе́ли на поезд ("because you arrived late, we didn't make the train")
так как ("because, since")

так как я знал, что вы рано ложитесь спать, я не звонил ("since I knew that you go to bed early, I didn’t telephone")

хотя ("although")

хотя было уже поздно, он решил пойти ("although it was already late, he decided to go")

как ("like, as")

я люблю его как сына ("I love him like a son")

do того, как ("before")

до того, как он уехал, он позвонил мне ("before he left he telephoned me")

перед тем, как ("just before")

перед тем, как он уехал, он позвонил мне ("just before he left he telephoned me")

после того, как ("after")

после того, как он вышел из комнаты, она расплакалась ("after he left the room she burst into tears")

с тех пор, как ("since")

говорят, что он очень изменился с тех пор, как мы разлучились ("they say that he has changed a lot since we parted company")

вокá ... не ("until")

я ничего никому не скажу, пока вы не дадите разрешение ("I will not tell anyone anything until you give permission")

по мерé того, как ("as, in proportion as")

по мерé того, как милиционеры приближались, толпа кричала ("as the police approached the crowd shouted")
VERBS: FORMATION

TENSE AND ASPECT

The Russian verb system has only three tenses: present, past and future. However, Russian has a categorization of verbs that has almost no parallel in English: nearly every Russian verb is of one of two aspects, imperfective or perfective. It takes some time and effort to gain a comprehensive understanding of the ways in which these two aspects are used, but the most basic and important distinction between them is readily understandable:

Imperfective verbs describe actions without reference to the completion of those actions. They may describe an action in general (“Fish swim but people walk”), or an action in progress (“She was reading when I called”), or a repeated or habitual action (“They skate every day”).

Perfective verbs describe actions that have been or will be completed (“She has read the book”; “She will read the book”).

Thus, in Russian, verbs almost always come in pairs, a given verb in English being represented by two verbs in Russian to meet the two aspect requirements. For example, to correspond to the English “to read,” Russian has both the imperfective verb читать (implying “to read in general, to read habitually, to be reading”) and the perfective verb прочитать (implying “to read through, to finish reading”). In this case, it is a prefix (нпо-) that indicates the difference; sometimes it is a change in the stem (different vowel or inserted syllable); sometimes two completely different verbs are used.

THE INFINITIVE

The form in which Russian verbs are entered into dictionaries is the infinitive, corresponding to the English “to stroll,” “to be,” etc. Most verbs have infinitives ending in -ть. In general, the infinitive is used in much the same way as in English:

Я люблю гулять по парку. I love to stroll through the park.

Быть иль не быть, вот в чём вопрос. To be or not to be, that is the question. [From Pasternak’s translation of Hamlet.]
THE PRESENT TENSE

Imperfective verbs have three separate tenses: present, past and future. Since the present tense by its nature can never describe a completed action, and completed action is the hallmark of the perfective aspect, perfective verbs have only two separate tenses: past and future. The Russian present tense corresponds to all the different English constructions denoting present time: “he reads,” “he is reading,” “he does read.”

In the present tense, the overwhelming majority of Russian verbs have a different ending for each of the personal pronouns. These endings are added to the stem after dropping the -ть of the infinitive (and often the vowel preceding the -ть). There are two chief sets of these personal endings. In Conjugation I, e is the characteristic vowel of the endings, appearing in the forms for ты, он (or она or они), мы and вы. In Conjugation II, the characteristic vowel in the corresponding endings is i. Our model verb for Conjugation I will be the imperfective verb читать (“to read”); for Conjugation II, the imperfective verb говорить (“to speak”):

**CONJUGATION I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1ST PERS.</td>
<td>я читаю</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ND PERS.</td>
<td>ты читаешь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3RD PERS.</td>
<td>он читает</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONJUGATION II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1ST PERS.</td>
<td>я говорю</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ND PERS.</td>
<td>ты говоришь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3RD PERS.</td>
<td>он говорит</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. When the verb stem ends in ж-, ц-, ч-, ш- or ш-, the -то ending of the first person singular becomes -у and the -ят ending of the third person plural becomes -ат. Thus, for the imperfective Conjugation II verb точить (“to sharpen”), the first person singular is точу and the third person plural is точат.

2. Remember that the third person singular is the form to use with any of the third person singular personal pronouns (он, она or они).

3. Every Russian verb in the present tense will conform to one of three possible stress patterns: (1) the stress will be on the stem throughout (as for читать); (2) the stress will be on the endings throughout (as for говорить); (3) the stress will be on the stem in the first and second persons singular and on the ending in the third person singular and plural (as for toшить).
THE PRESENT TENSE

55

When the stress falls on the endings throughout in Conjugation I, those endings then become: -у, -ешь, -ет, -ем, -ете, -ут. Thus, the imperfective verb несъ (“to carry”) has the present tense: несу, несыешь, несет, несем, несете, несут.

4. We have already seen consonant mutation at work in the comparative degree of adjectives: тихий (“quiet”)/тише (“quieter”). It may also take place in the present tense of verbs; when it occurs, it does so in a systematic and predictable way. In Conjugation I it affects every form; in Conjugation II, only the first person singular. Thus, the imperfective Conjugation I verb писать (“to write”) drops the а as well as the т of the infinitive before adding the personal endings; the с at the end of the stem mutates into ш; and we get the present tense: пишу, пишешь, пишет, пишем, пишете, пишут. The imperfective Conjugation II verb сидеть (“to sit”) has the stem сид- and the д mutates to ж in the first person singular, giving: сижу, сидишь, сидит, сидим, сидите, сидят. Among the most common patterns of mutation of consonants or consonant clusters at the end of verb stems are: (1) р, д and з may mutate to ж; (2) с, к, т and ц may mutate to ч; (3) х may mutate to ш; and (4) ск and ст may mutate to щ. Additional examples: указать (“to show”)/указу, указешь, etc.; плакать (“to cry, weep”)/плаку, плакешь, etc.; искать (“to look for, seek”)/ищу, ищешь, etc.; грустить (“to grieve, mourn”)/грущу, грустишь, etc.

It will be noted that, by keeping in mind the rules about the distribution of stress and of mutated consonants within the present tense, you can conjugate any verb in that tense if you know the first and second person singular forms in addition to the infinitive. For instance, from пишать/пишу, пишешь one learns that the stem ends with the с, which is mutated into ш; that the verb belongs to Conjugation I (because the vowel of the ending is е and because the mutation extends beyond the first person singular; and that the stress is a shifting one. From this point on, there will be no need to give the full present conjugation of verbs (unless they have further irregularities), but merely give these three forms.

5. In verbs with stems ending in б-, в-, м-, п- or ф-, the letter л is inserted between the stem and the present tense endings (in all forms, for Conjugation I; in the first person singular, for Conjugation II). All such verbs have shifting stress. Examples: любить (“to love, like”)/люблю, любишь; ловить (“to catch”)/ловлю, ловишь; дремать (“to doze”)/дремлю, дремлешь; утопить (“to drown”)/утоплю, утопишь.
PATTERNS OF PRESENT TENSE CONJUGATION

In the following arrangement of Russian verbs by their present tense, each group is represented by one or more typical verbs shown in the infinitive and in the first and second persons singular (more forms given where necessary). Remember that rules of consonant mutation and stress may account for specific differences within each group. Mutation can only come into play where a mutable consonant immediately precedes the personal endings.

Infinitives Ending in -ать

All verbs with infinitives ending in -ать are Conjugation I except for those in group 7.

1. Читать (“to read”)/читаю, читаешь is one of thousands of verbs in which the stem is the infinitive minus the -ть.

2. Писать (“to write”)/пишу, пишешь is one of about 60 verbs in which -ать is dropped to find the stem, and there is a mutation wherever possible. All verbs formed on the root -казать (basic meaning: “to show, to tell”) are in this group, as well as such common verbs as двигать (“to move”), искать (“to seek”), плакать (“to cry”), пряятать (“to hide”) and резать (“to cut”).

3. Another group of verbs that drop -ать begin with consonant clusters; e.g.: ждать (“to wait”)/жду, ждёшь; врать (“to tell lies”)/вру, врёшь. In some cases a vowel is inserted between the stem consonants, and there is stress on the personal endings; e.g.: брать (“to take”)/ беру, берёшь; звать (“to call”)/зову, зовёшь.

4. Требовать (“to demand”)/требую, требуешь is one of thousands of verbs in which the stem is formed by dropping the -овать and inserting y before the personal endings. Many loan words from other languages are formed in this way; e.g.: ликвидировать (“to liquidate”)/ликвидирую, ликвидируешь. When the infinitive ending is -евать, the inserted vowel is ю, as in воевать (“to wage war”) /воюю, воюешь, unless this is precluded by the nature of the preceding consonant, such as the ч in ночевать (“to spend the night”) /ночую, ночуешь.

5. A small category consists of verbs built on the roots -давать (basic meaning: “to give”), -знавать (basic meaning: “to know”) and -ставать (basic meaning: “to stand, to stay”). The pattern in this group is to drop the -вать before adding the personal endings: давать (“to give”)/даю, даёшь.
6. Some verbs have н inserted before the personal endings. Sometimes the a of the infinitive ending is retained: встать ("to get up")/встану, встанешь. Sometimes it is not: начать ("to begin")/начну, начнешь.

7. Only about 30 verbs ending in -ать are Conjugation II. In these verbs, for which the -ать is dropped, the stem usually ends in ж-, ч-, ш- or ш-. Examples: дрожать ("to tremble")/дрожу, дрожишь; держать ("to hold")/держу, держишь. The verb бежать ("to run") has the irregular conjugation бегу, бежишь, бежит, бежим, бежите, бегут. The verb спать ("to sleep") is conjugated сплю, спишь, etc. The verb гнать ("to drive animals") and the verbs derived from it by means of prefixes, such as догнать ("to catch up with"), have an inserted о: гоню, гонишь.

Infinitives Ending in -ять

Infinitives ending in -ять are all Conjugation I except for бояться ("to fear") and стоять ("to stand").

1. For most of these verbs, the -ать is dropped, leaving a stem that ends in a vowel; e.g.: сеять ("to sow")/сею, сеешь.

2. When the -ать is preceded by н, the -ать is dropped and им is inserted before the personal endings: снять ("to take off")/сниму, снимешь; обнять ("to embrace")/обниму, обнимешь. Somewhat irregular verbs in this group are принять ("to take, to accept")/приму, примешь; понять ("to understand")/пойму, поймешь; and занять (“to borrow”)/займу, займешь.

Infinitives Ending in -ить

1. Говорить ("to speak")/говорю, говоришь is one of thousands of verbs in which the stem is the infinitive minus the -ить and the first person singular mutates where possible.

2. A small subgroup has an inserted ь and Conjugation I endings; e.g.: бить ("to beat")/бью, бьёшь, бьет, бьем, бьете, бьют. Other important verbs in this group are пить ("to drink"), лить ("to pour"), шить ("to sew") and вить ("to wind").

3. The verb жить ("to live") conjugates живу, живёшь, живёт, живём, живёте, живут. The verb брить ("to shave") conjugates брёю, брёешь, etc.
Infinitives Ending in -еть

1. In one group, of Conjugation I, only the -ть is dropped: уметь ("to be able, to know how")/умёю, уметь.

2. In another group, of Conjugation II, the -еть is dropped, leaving a stem that ends in a consonant; e.g.: видеть ("to see")/вижу, видишь; лететь ("to fly")/лечу, летишь.

3. When the full infinitive ending is -ереть, that whole ending is dropped and p is inserted before the stressed Conjugation I personal endings: умереть ("to die")/умрёшь, умерешь. When a prefix causes an uncomfortable consonant cluster, o is inserted after it: стереть ("to wipe, to clean")/стёр, стёрь; отпёреть ("to unlock")/отопрёшь, отопрёшь.

4. The verb петь ("to sing") conjugates пою, поешь, поёт, поём, поете, поют. The verb одеть ("to clothe") conjugates одену, оденешь, etc.

Infinitives Ending in -оть

Verbs with infinitives ending in -оть are Conjugation I. The -оть is dropped; e.g.: бороться* ("to fight")/борюсь, борешься. The verb молоть ("to grind") has a change in its stem vowel: мелью, мелеешь.

Infinitives Ending in -быть

Verbs with infinitives ending in -быть are Conjugation I. The -быть is dropped and a stressed o is inserted before the personal endings: мыть ("to wash")/мою, моешь; открывать ("to open")/открываю, открываешь. The verb плыть ("to swim") conjugates плыву, плывешь, etc.

Infinitives Ending in -ути

Verbs with infinitives ending in -ути are Conjugation I. The -ути is dropped: дуть ("to blow")/дую, дуешь. When the -ути is preceded by н (-нуть verbs are almost always perfectives), the -ути is dropped and the first person singular ends in -y even when unstressed: исчезнуть ("to disappear")/исчезну, исчезнешь.

* The significance of the verbal suffixes -ся and -сь is explained on page 64.
Infinitives Ending in Other Than Vowel-Plus-ть

1. идти (“to walk, to go on foot”) is conjugated иду, идёшь, etc. Прийти (“to arrive, to come on foot”) conjugates придь, придёшь. Пойти (“to go”) gives пойдь, пойдёшь.

2. In verbs with infinitives ending in -сти or -сть (they are Conjugation I, with stressed endings), the с is the end of the stem and usually mutates into д or т (sometimes б) before the personal endings are added; e.g.: вести (“to lead”)/ведь, ведёшь; плести (“to weave”)/плеть, плетёшь; украсть (“to steal”)/украдь, укрядёшь; грести (“to row, to rake”)/гребь, грёбёшь. The verb сесть (“to sit down”) has a change in its stem vowel: сядь, сядёшь. Two verbs in which the с is not mutated are нести (“to carry”)/несь, несёшь and трясти (“to shake”)/трясёшь, трясяшь.

3. In verbs with infinitives ending in -зть or -зть (Conjugation I, stressed endings), the з is the end of the stem but there is no mutation: везти (“to haul”)/везь, везёшь.

4. In verbs with infinitives ending in -чь (Conjugation I), the -чь is dropped and a р or к is inserted that is subject to mutation (into ж and ч, respectively) in the second and third persons singular and the first and second persons plural; e.g.: мочь (“to be able”)/могь, можешь, может, можем, можете, могут; печь (“to bake”)/печь, печёшь, печёт, печём, печете, печут. The verb лечь (“to lie down”) has a change in its stem vowel: лёгь, лёжешь, etc.

Some Additional Irregular Verbs

Six important additional irregular verbs are: дать (“to give”)/дам, дашь, даст, дадым, дадите, дадут; есть (“to eat”)/ем, ешь, ест, еди́м, едите, едят; ехать (“to go by conveyance”)/еду, едешь, etc.; взять (“to take”)/возьму, возьмёшь, etc.; прочесть (“to read through”)/прочту, прочтёшь, etc.; хотеть (“to want, to like”)—which has a Conjugation I singular and a Conjugation II plural—хочу́, хочешь, хоче́т, хотим, хотите, хотят.

THE IMPERATIVE OR COMMAND FORM

The imperative form of verbs, used to make commands or requests (e.g., “Come here!” “Read this book!”), is closely connected to the present tense conjugation pattern of the verb.
1. When the second person singular form of the present tense has a vowel just before the personal ending -ешь or -ешь, then the imperative is formed by dropping that ending and adding -й or -йте. (The ending -й gives the familiar singular command form, corresponding to the personal pronoun ты; the ending -йте gives the familiar plural command form, but also the polite form singular or plural, corresponding to the personal pronoun вы. Note, however, that normally no subject pronoun is used with the imperative itself.)

Thus, using the same model verbs as in the preceding section on conjugation patterns, we get:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
<th>2ND PERS. SING.</th>
<th>FAMILIAR SING.</th>
<th>POLITE OR PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>чита́ть (&quot;to read&quot;)</td>
<td>чита́ешь</td>
<td>чита́й</td>
<td>чита́йте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>трё́бовать (&quot;to demand&quot;)</td>
<td>трё́буйшь</td>
<td>трё́буй</td>
<td>трё́буйте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>се́ять (&quot;to sow&quot;)</td>
<td>се́ешь</td>
<td>се́й</td>
<td>се́йте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>брить (&quot;to shave&quot;)</td>
<td>брё́ешь</td>
<td>брёй</td>
<td>брёйте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>петь (&quot;to sing&quot;)</td>
<td>поё́шь</td>
<td>пой</td>
<td>пойте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>мыть (&quot;to wash&quot;)</td>
<td>моё́шь</td>
<td>мо́й</td>
<td>мо́йте</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>дуть (&quot;to blow&quot;)</td>
<td>дуё́шь</td>
<td>дуй</td>
<td>дуйте</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. When the personal endings of the present tense are preceded by a consonant, the choice of imperative endings depends on the stress pattern of that conjugation. (a) When the present tense stress falls on any ending at all (the first person singular is a good indicator for this), drop the personal ending of the third person plural (-ют, -ят or -ют) and add -й (familiar) or -йте (polite). (b) When the present tense stress falls on the stem throughout, drop the third person plural ending and add -й (familiar) or -йте (polite). (c) When the personal endings of the present tense are preceded by two consonants, the imperative endings are -й and -йте, regardless of present tense stress.

Referring again to the model verbs in the conjugation section:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
<th>1ST PERS.</th>
<th>3RD PERS.</th>
<th>FAMILIAR</th>
<th>POLITE OR PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>пишъ́ть (&quot;to write&quot;)</td>
<td>пишу́</td>
<td>пишут</td>
<td>пиши́</td>
<td>пишите</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>брать (&quot;to take&quot;)</td>
<td>беру́</td>
<td>берут</td>
<td>бер́и</td>
<td>берите</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>бежать (&quot;to run&quot;)</td>
<td>бегу́</td>
<td>бегут</td>
<td>беги́</td>
<td>бегите</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>гнать (&quot;to drive animals&quot;)</td>
<td>гоню́</td>
<td>гонят</td>
<td>гони́</td>
<td>гоните</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>снять (&quot;to take off&quot;)</td>
<td>сниму́</td>
<td>снимут</td>
<td>сними́</td>
<td>снимите</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE IMPERATIVE OR COMMAND FORM


3. Still referring to the model verbs of the conjugation section: there are irregularities in the group -даться (-знавать, -ставать), which forms the imperative as -дай, -дайтесь, etc.; and in the group быть (писать, легать, etc.), which forms the imperative as бей, бейте, etc.

The verb дать ("to give") has the imperative даи, даите; the verb есть has the imperative ешь, ешьте. The imperfactive verb быть ("to be"; not in the section on the present tense because its present tense is no longer expressed in modern Russian*) has the imperative будь, будьте.

4. The expression "let's" (as in "let's go!")", sometimes referred to as the first-person imperative, is most often conveyed in Russian by the first person plural form of the present tense (which is then not preceded by the pronoun мы): пойдём ("let's go!"). The suffix -те may be added if more politeness is desired: пойдёмте.

The expression "let him" (or "her," "it" or "them"; as in "let him come!")", sometimes referred to as the third-person imperative, is conveyed by the word пускай (or пускать) plus the third person ending (singular or plural as the situation demands) of the present tense: пусть он придет (or пускай он придет, "let him come!"); пусть пойдёт, если хочет ("let them go if they want").

* Есть ("is"), not to be confused with the infinitive есть ("to eat"), is a relic of the present tense of быть; it is often used with the meaning "there is, there are": есть только один способ его убедить ("there is only one way to persuade him").
THE PAST TENSE

The Russian past tense corresponds to all the English constructions denoting past time: “he wrote,” “he did write,” “he was writing,” “he used to write,” “he (would) often write,” “he had written,” “he had been writing.” It is formed the same way for both perfective and imperfective verbs. For most verbs, the -ть is dropped from the infinitive and the ending -л, -ла, -ло or -ли is added.

1. These endings of the past tense, unlike those of the present, do not correspond to persons (first, second, third) but to the gender and number of the verb’s subject. Thus—using the verb писать (“to write”)—писал is the form used whenever the subject is a masculine singular, whether it is “I” (a male speaking), “you” (ты; a male being familiarly addressed), “he” or a masculine singular noun; писала is the form used whenever the corresponding subjects are female or feminine (я, ты, она or a feminine singular noun); писало when they are neuter. The form писали is used for all plurals, regardless of gender, and for the pronoun вы (whether familiar plural, polite singular or polite plural).

2. The past tense exhibits fewer variations and irregularities than the present, but the following should be noted:

(a) In the verb group with infinitives ending in -ереть (умереть, “to die”; тереть, “to rub”; отпереть, “to unlock”; etc.), the -етъ is dropped before adding the past endings; the masculine singular has no -л (in monosyllables, the e before the p becomes ё): умереть/умер, умерла, умерло, умерли; тереть/тёр, тёрла, тёрло, тёрли; отпереть/отпер, отперла, отперло, отперли.

(b) Among verbs with infinitives ending in -нуть, most (e.g., крикнуть, “to shout”) are regular (крикнул, крикнула, крикнуло, крикнули), while a few (e.g., исчезнуть, “to disappear”) have the pattern исчез, исчезла, исчезло, исчезли.

(c) In most of the verb group with infinitives ending in -сти or -сть (вести, укрась, сесть, etc.), that whole ending is dropped before adding the past endings: вести/вёл, вела, вел; укрась/украс, украса, украси; сесть/села, села, сёла.

In two verbs, нести and трясти, the c of the infinitive is not dropped, and the masculine singular has no -л: несть/нёе, неслá, неслó, неслí; трясти/тряс, тряслá, тряслó, тряслÍ.

(d) In the verb group with infinitives ending in -зить or -зть (e.g., везти), the з is retained and the masculine singular has no -л: везти/вёз, везлá, везлó, везлی.

(e) In the verb group with infinitives ending in -чь (мочь, печь, лечь, etc.), the -чь is dropped and the г or к that appeared in the first person
THE FUTURE TENSE

The Future Tense of Perfective Verbs

The future tense of perfective verbs, which have no present tense, is formed *exactly* the same way as the present tense of imperfective verbs. Thus, the Russian present tense in fact serves as a present/future tense: я пишу́ [IMPR.] письмо́ ("I am writing a letter"); я напишу́ [PR.] письмо́ ("I shall write a letter"); он читает́ [IMPR.] книгу́ ("he is reading the book"); он прочитает́ [PR.] книгу́ ("he will read the book").

The Future Tense of Imperfective Verbs

Imperfective verbs have a separate compound future tense. This consists merely of the future tense of the verb быть́ ("to be")—буду́, будешь́, будет, будем, будете, будут—plus the infinitive of the imperfective verb in question. Thus: я буду́ читать книгу́ ("I will read the book,"); "I will be reading the book"); мы будем́ писать письмо́ ("we shall write the letter,"); "we shall be writing the letter"). There are no exceptions to this formation.
Naturally, the future tense of быть can be used independently to mean "will be": завтра я буду дома ("tomorrow I will be at home").

THE SUFFIX -СЯ; PASSIVE, REFLEXIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. The invariable suffix -ся (-сь after vowels), which causes no change in the conjugation of the main part of the verb, can do one of three things to a verb to which it is attached:

   (a) It can make the verb passive (in this situation, the subject of the -ся verb is normally inanimate). Thus: строить ("to build, construct, erect"); строится ("to be built, constructed, erected").

   Инженёры строят новое здание.
   The engineers are constructing a new building.

   Новое здание строится инженёрами.
   The new building is being constructed by the engineers.

As seen in инженёрами, the agent of the action is in the instrumental case.

   (b) It can make the verb reflexive. (In this situation, the subject of the -ся verb is almost always animate.) Thus: одевать ("to clothe, to dress someone else"), одевается ("to dress [oneself], to get dressed"); мыть ("to wash [something or someone]"), мается ("to wash [oneself], to get washed").

   Мать одевает мальчика.
   The mother is dressing the little boy.

   Мальчик одевается.
   The little boy is dressing (himself).

   Лена посмотрела в зеркало.
   Lena looked at herself in the mirror.

Sometimes the action indicated by -ся is reciprocal (expressing "each other") rather than reflexive:

   Они часто встречаются.
   They often meet (each other).

   Они видятся каждый день.
   They see each other every day.

   (c) It can make the verb intransitive. (In this situation, the subject is generally animate, but not always.) Thus: кончить ("to complete"), кончается ("to [come to an] end"); возвращаться ("to return [something]"); возвращается ("to return [to a place]").

   Я кончил работу в пять часов.
   I finished work at five o'clock.
The lesson ended at two o'clock.

We return our books to the library.

We return to the library.

2. There are a few verbs that change their meaning more drastically when -ся is added; for instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Russian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>слушать (“to listen”)</td>
<td>слушаться (“to obey”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>признать (“to recognize”)</td>
<td>признаться (“to confess”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>состоять (“to consist of”)</td>
<td>состояться (“to take place”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. A number of verbs never occur without the suffix -ся, even if their English meaning does not seem to fit the above-mentioned situations. Some of the more important verbs of this kind are бороться (“to fight”), бояться (“to fear”), надеяться (“to hope”) and смеяться (“to laugh”). The accusative case is never used for the direct object of such verbs.

4. There is an idiomatic use of -ся in which it is attached to the third person singular (neuter) form of the verb, and the logical subject of the verb is in the dative case:

Как вам живётся? How’s life treating you?

This construction lends a passive flavor to the expression, implying that the event is not controlled by you but happening to you whether you like it or not.

5. Naturally, Russian has numerous verbs that are purely intransitive (i.e., take no direct object at all in any grammatical case), and do not need the further addition of -ся. Such verbs include краснеть (“to blush”), спеть (“to ripen”), идти (“to go”) and падать (“to fall”). In some instances, the transitive and intransitive counterparts of a given action are expressed not by a single verb with and without -ся, but by two different (though often closely related) verbs. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Intransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ве́сить (“to hang [something]”)</td>
<td>висе́ть (“to hang [from something]”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>жечь (“to burn [something]”)</td>
<td>горе́ть (“to be aflame”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>суши́ть (“to dry [something]”)</td>
<td>сохнуть (“to get dry”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS

1. There are a number of impersonal verbs in Russian that have only a third person singular form in the present tense. They usually refer to climatic conditions or other natural phenomena: светает ("it is getting light"); смеркается ("it is getting dark"). In the past tense, the neuter form is used: смеркалось ("it was getting dark").

2. Some reflexive verbs can be used impersonally to express a physical state or feeling; they take the dative of the person to whom the action refers. The verb хочется ("to want") is frequently used in this way:

Мне хочется есть. I feel hungry.
Ему хочется пить. He feels thirsty.
Брату не работает. My brother doesn’t feel like working.
Мне не спится. I don’t feel sleepy.

3. Another important kind of impersonal construction that also involves the dative case is formed with the neuter short form of the adjective: мне холодно ("I am cold"); брату жарко ("my brother is hot"); ему скучно ("he is bored").

4. There are a number of impersonal constructions expressing success or chance; here the person affected by the action is in the dative:

Мне удалось достать билет на "Лебединое озеро". I succeeded in getting a ticket to "Swan Lake."
Брату довелось поговорить с ним по телефону. My brother had occasion to talk to him on the telephone.
Брату не везёт в карты. My brother has no luck at cards.

5. The third person plural of a verb can be used (without the pronoun они) in impersonal constructions. The unspecified agent of the verbal action is equivalent to the English "they," "one" or "people." It can often be rendered in English by a passive:

Говорят, что завтра дождь пойдёт. They say that it will rain tomorrow.
Его послали на фронт. They sent him [or: He was sent] to the front.
EXPRESSING OBLIGATION, NECESSITY AND POSSIBILITY

1. Obligation is expressed in the present tense by using дождён ("must, ought, have to") followed by an infinitive (e.g., я дождён читать эту книгу, "I must read this book"). Дождён must agree in gender and number with its subject; its forms are: MASC. дождён, FEM. должная, NEUT. долж но, PL. долж ны. (Note that when the pronoun я or ты refers to a feminine subject then the form должна is used.) Thus:

Сегодня она должна работать.
Today she must work.

Сегодня мы должны работать.
Today we must work.

In forming the past and future tenses, дождён is used together with the appropriate form of the past or future tense of быть and the infinitive of the main verb:

Вчера я должна была работать.
Yesterday I had to work.

Завтра они должны будут работать.
Tomorrow they will have to work.

2. Necessity is expressed in the present tense by using нужно or надо ("it is necessary") followed by the infinitive (e.g., нужно поехать туда, "it is necessary to go there"). In the past tense, нужно (or надо) is used with было and an infinitive; in the future tense it is used with будет and an infinitive:

Вчера нужно было поехать туда.
Yesterday it was necessary to go there.

Завтра нужно будет поехать туда.
Tomorrow it will be necessary to go there.

Note the following difference in negative constructions between нужно and надо:

Не нужно идти домой.
It is not necessary to go home.

Не надо идти домой.
You should not go home.

3. Можно is used to express possibility or permission; нельзя to express impossibility or prohibition:
Можно решить задачу. It is possible to solve the problem.
Здесь можно играть. One may play here.
Нельзя согласиться с вами. It is impossible to agree with you.
Здесь нельзя курить. It is not permitted to smoke here.

Both можно and нельзя form the past and future tenses with было and будет in the same way as нужно.

**VERBS OF MOTION**

In Russian there are 14 kinds of motion that are each expressed by two separate imperfective verbs. These imperfective pairs are: ходить/идти ("to go," on foot); ездить/ехать ("to travel"); бегать/бежать ("to run"); летать/лететь ("to fly"); плывать/плыть ("to swim, float"); носить/нести ("to carry"); водить/вести ("to lead"); возить/вести ("to convey, transport"); лазить/лезть ("to climb"); гонять/гнать ("to drive, chase"); таскать/тащить ("to drag"); ползать/ползти ("to crawl"); катать/катить ("to roll"); бродить/брести ("to wander").

The first verb in each of the above pairs indicates habitual movement, movement in more than one direction, movement in general. Thus:

Птицы летают, рыба плавает, люди ходят.
Birds fly, fish swim, people walk.

Я люблю ездить на машине. I love to ride in the car.

The second verb in each of the above pairs indicates motion in one, often stipulated, direction, usually on one specific occasion:

Она летит в Москву. She is flying to Moscow.

Когда я шёл в школу, я купил газету.
When I was on my way to school, I stopped to buy a newspaper.

The perfective aspect of verbs of motion is formed by adding the prefix no- to the second verb of each pair (e.g., пойти [the contracted form of по + идти], поехать, полететь, etc.). This prefix does not alter the imperfective meaning of the verb other than to imply the initiation of the action. Thus он пошёл means "he went," "he set out."

Compounded verbs of motion can be created to express direction by adding the appropriate prefix: (1) to the first verb in each of the pairs, thus creating an imperfective verb (e.g., приходить, "to arrive"; входить, "to enter"; вылетать, "to fly off"); or (2) to the second verb in each of the pairs, thus creating a perfective verb (e.g., прийти, "to arrive"; войти, "to enter"; вылететь, "to fly off").
THE CONDITIONAL

The conditional mood expresses an action that might have taken place, that might be taking place or that might take place in the future. It is formed simply by using the past tense of the verb, imperfective or perfective, and the particle бы (sometimes б after a vowel). Thus: я пошёл бы (“I would go”). Note, however, that this construction can express not only the present conditional but the past and future conditional as well. Thus я пошёл бы can also mean “I would have gone” or “I would go (tomorrow).” Бы usually follows the verb, but can be placed elsewhere for emphasis: я бы пошёл (“I would go”).

In a conditional sentence in which the main verb is in the conditional, the dependent clause is introduced by если бы and a verb in the past tense:

Если бы я не был так занят, я пошёл бы.
If I were not so busy I would go.

Если бы дождь пошёл, мы отменили бы матч.
If it were to rain we would cancel the game.

In a conditional sentence in which no genuine hypothesis is implied, then both clauses are in the indicative:

Если пойдёт дождь, мы отменим матч.
If it rains we will cancel the game.

PARTICIPLES

Active Participles

Russian active participles are verbal adjectives, having the form of verbs but with adjectival endings (e.g., “The man sitting there is my friend,” “The fire burning in the fields was started by accident”). Like adjectives, they are fully declinable and must agree in gender, number and case with the modified noun. There are two kinds of active participle in Russian: present and past. Present active participles can be formed only from imperfective verbs; past active participles can be formed from imperfective or perfective verbs.

The Present Active Participle. The present active participle is formed by taking the third person plural of the present tense of an imperfective verb, dropping the final -т of the personal ending and adding the adjectival
ending: MASC. -щий, FEM. -шая, NEUT. -щее, PL. -щие. Thus the nominative forms of the present active participle of читать (third person plural читают) are читающий, читающая, читающеее and читающие.

Present active participles are declined like those hard adjectives with stem ending in -щ-. When a present active participle is formed from a verb with the -ся or -сь ending, the participle always takes -ся throughout: строиться (“to be built”)/строящихся, строящаяся, строющеее, строющиеся. The stress in present active participles is usually the same as for the third person plural of the present tense.

The present active participle is used like an adjective to modify a noun; most often it is placed after the modified noun and replaces an entire relative clause. It is used when that clause would also be in the present tense if expressed. (It is important to note that Russian participles are never used as a complement to the verb “to be” as in English constructions such as “I am seeing,” “we are doing.”)

Мужчина, идущий по улице, мой отец.
The man (who is) going down the street is my father.

Я не знаю мужчины, говорящего с моим соседом.
I don’t know the man (who is) talking to my neighbor.

The Past Active Participle. The past active participle is formed by taking the masculine singular of the past tense of the verb (imperfective or perfective), dropping the final -л (if there is one) and adding -шь (—ышая, etc.). Thus the nominative forms of the past active participle of читать (masc. sing. past читал) are: MASC. читающий, FEM. читающая, NEUT. читающеее, PL. читающиее; for the perfective verb прочитать (masc. sing. past прочитал) the forms are: MASC. прочиташий, FEM. прочитающая, etc. The past active participle of reflexive verbs always ends in -ся.

The past active participle, which is declined and used like the present participle, usually replaces a relative clause that would be in the past tense if expressed:

Я продал билет мужчине, стоящему на углу.
I sold the ticket to the man (who was) standing on the corner.

Many active participles are also used as adjectives or nouns: блестящий (“brilliant”), соответствующий (“appropriate”), курящий (“a smoker”), начинающий (“a beginner”), бывший (“former”), сумасшедший (“a madman”), уцелевший (“a survivor”).
PARTICIPLES

Passive Participles

Like active participles, passive participles are also verbal adjectives (e.g., "The book being read is by Tolstoy," "The car being driven by my sister was green"). They are formed from verbs taking adjectival endings. Like adjectives, they are fully declinable and can be used attributively in the long form or predicatively in the short form. There are two kinds of passive participles: present and past. The present passive participle can only be formed from imperfective verbs; the past passive participle is for the most part formed from perfective verbs.

The Present Passive Participle. The present passive participle is formed by taking the first person plural of the present tense of a transitive imperfective verb and adding the adjectival ending: MASC. -ый, FEM. -ая, NEUT. -ое, PL. -ые. Thus the nominative forms of the present passive participle of читать (first person plural читаю) are читаемый, читаемая, читаемое, читаемые. The only exceptions to this rule for forming the participle are: (1) verbs with infinitives ending -ать, which take the participle form -аваемый, not -аемый, (e.g., давать/даваемый); and (2) a few verbs with first person plurals ending in -ём, in which the е changes to о in the participle (e.g., вести/ведёмый).

The stress in the participle is usually the same as in the first person plural of the present tense.

Many common verbs do not have any present passive participle; these include: (1) verbs with infinitives ending in -еть, -ть, -оть, -стъ, -утъ and -чъ; and (2) many monosyllabic verbs (e.g., бить, брать, есть, ждать, звать, знать, лить, мыть, пить, петь).

The present active participle is declined like an adjective ending in -ый (e.g., красный). The short form of the participle is the same as the short form of the adjective except that the stress remains the same as in the long form. Thus the short form of the present passive participle formed from читать is читаю, читаёма, читаёмое, читаёмые, etc. The present passive participle, which is used infrequently, can precede or follow the noun modified, and replaces a relative clause:

Книга, читающая студентами, очень скучная.
The book (that is) being read by the students is very dull.

The Past Passive Participle. The past passive participle is more widely used than the present passive participle. It is formed in one of two ways: (1) with the suffix -т-; or (2) with the suffix -нн-.
1. Only a few verbs form their past passive participles with the -т- suffix. The participle is formed by replacing the infinitive ending -ть with the following endings: MASC. -тый, FEM. -тая, NEUT. -тое, PL. -тые. Verbs that form their past passive participle in this way include:

(a) Verbs with infinitives ending in -уть, -тъ, -отъ or -ерётъ. Thus покинуть (“to abandon”), забыть (“to forget”), смолоть (“to grind”) and заперётъ (“to lock”) have the masculine nominative participle forms покинутый, забытый, смолотый and запертый (note that the second e is dropped in verbs ending in -ерётъ).

(b) Monosyllabic verbs (and their prefixed compounds) with infinitives ending in -ить or -еть. Thus одеть and убить have the past passive participle forms одетый and убитый.

(c) All verbs that introduce an н or м in the present tense conjugation. Thus взять, занять (“to crumple”) and начать have the past passive participle forms взятый, занятый and начатый.

The short form of these participles resembles the short form of the adjective. Thus for одеть, the short forms of the nominative are: MASC. одет, FEM. одета, NEUT. одето, PL. одеты.

2. The vast majority of verbs form their past passive participle with the -нн- suffix. They take the participle endings: MASC. -нный, FEM. -нная, NEUT. -нное, PL. -нные. Verbs that belong to this group include:

(a) Conjugation I verbs with infinitives ending in -ать or -ять. These verbs replace the -ть of the infinitive with the ending -ный, (-нна, etc.) to form the participle. Thus прочитать and потерять have the past passive participle forms прочитанный and потерянный.

(b) Conjugation I verbs with infinitives ending in -сти or -сти. These verbs replace the -y of the first person singular of the present tense with the ending -нный. Thus привести (first person singular приведен) and принести (first person singular принесен) have the past passive participle forms приведённый and принесённый.

(c) Conjugation I verbs with infinitives ending in -чь. These verbs replace the -ёшь of the second person singular of the present tense with the ending -нный. Thus сжечь (second person singular сожжён) has the past passive participle сожжённый.

(d) Conjugation II verbs with infinitives ending in -ить or -еть. These verbs replace the -y or -ю of the first person singular of the present tense with -ённый (or -еный). Thus купить (first person singular куплен) and решить (first person singular решён) have the past passive participle forms купленный and решённый.
The short form of participles ending in -ный differs from the usual adjectival short form in that it drops one н. Thus the short form of прочитанный is прочитан, прочитана, прочитано, прочитанные.

There are no straightforward guidelines to stress in the past passive participles. Only a rudimentary analysis can be provided here:

(a) In verbs with infinitives ending in -уть, -оть or -ереть, and in verbs like начать, the stress in the participle moves one syllable back from its position in the infinitive (e.g., начать/начатьый).

(b) In verbs with a past passive participle ending in -анный or -анный the stress falls on the syllable preceding the -а- or -я- of the ending (e.g., прочитанный, потёрзанный).

(c) In Conjugation II verbs with a past passive participle ending in -енный or -ённый the stress is the same as in the second person singular of the present tense. Thus: купленный (second person singular купишь); решённый (second person singular решишь).

The past passive participle can be used to replace a relative clause as an attribute of a noun (with which it must agree in gender, case and number). Used attributively, the participle must be in the long form.

Этот мост, построенный инженерами, очень крепкий.
This bridge (that was) built by the engineers is very strong.

The past passive participle can also be used (in the short form only) as a complement to the verb быть:

Мой брат был убит во время войны.
My brother was killed during the war.

GERUNDS

Russian gerunds are verbal adverbs corresponding to English verbal forms ending in “-ing” (e.g., “reading,” “writing,” “walking”), but are distinguished from participles in that they never describe nouns; instead they describe actions. For instance, in the sentence “She sits reading,” the word “reading” would be rendered in Russian by the gerund читать. There are two kinds of gerund in Russian: present gerund and past gerund. Both present and past gerunds are indeclinable.

Formation of the Present Gerund

The present gerund is formed by taking the present tense stem of an imperfective verb and adding the ending -я (or -а if the stem ends in ж-, ч-,
ш- or щ-. Thus the present gerunds of читать and дышать ("to breathe") are читать ("reading") and дышать ("breathing"). Verbs with infinitives ending in -авать are the only exception to the above rule; they take the ending -ава (e.g., давать, "giving"). The present gerund of reflexive verbs always takes the reflexive ending -сь (e.g., смейться, "laughing"). Stress in the present gerund is the same as in the first person singular of the present tense.

Many Russian verbs do not have a present gerund. These include: (a) the common verbs бежать, бить, врать, гнить, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть, есть; (b) verbs ending in -епать; (c) verbs ending in -Hyать.

**Formation of the Past Gerund**

The past gerund is formed almost exclusively from perfective verbs. Perfective verbs with a masculine singular past tense ending in -л drop the -л and add the ending -в (or sometimes -вши) to form the past gerund. Thus the past gerunds of the perfective verbs прочитать and поговорить are прочитав ("having read") and поговорив ("having said"). Reflexive verbs take the ending -вши (e.g., вернувшись, "having returned"). For verbs with no -л in the masculine singular past tense, the past gerund is formed by adding the ending -ши to the masculine singular form of the past tense. Thus the past gerunds of принести (masc. sing. past принёс) and вылезь (masc. sing. past вылез) are принёсши ("having brought") and вылезши ("having climbed out"). The forms ending in -ши are not common and are usually replaced by a present gerund formed from the perfective verb.

**Use of the Gerund**

Gerunds are used to describe an action or to modify a previous verb; they cannot be used as participles to describe a noun. Thus the gerund replaces a clause consisting of a verb and conjunction. The sentence "she sits and reads" can be rendered using a present gerund as она сидит, читая.

The present gerund is used to describe an action that occurs at the same time as the action expressed by the main verb, irrespective of the tense (past, present, future) or aspect of that verb:

Смейся и улыбайся, дети слушают басню.
*Laughing and smiling, the children listen to the fable.*
Laughing and smiling, the children listened to the fable.

The past gerund is usually used to express an action that precedes the action expressed by the main verb, irrespective of the tense or aspect of that verb:

\[ \text{Having drunk their fill, the travelers began to relate their adventures.} \]

There are a number of gerunds that have taken on the value of prepositions and adverbs. These include благодаря + dat. ("thanks to"), исключа́я + gen. ("except for, excluding"), кончая́ + instr. ("ending with"), начиная́ с + gen. ("beginning with"), несмотря́ на + acc. ("in spite of, despite"), молча́ ("silently"), нёхотя́ ("unwillingly").

**VERBAL PREFIXES**

Prefixes are an important element of numerous Russian verbs, imperfective as well as perfective. Except when the only use of a prefix is to transform an imperfective into a perfective (e.g., чита́ть into прочи́тать), it usually has a specific meaning or set of meanings that alter the basic meaning of the verb accordingly. In the following list of common prefixes, it will be obvious how many correspond to prepositions, often with exactly the same meanings (these prefixes also occur on many nouns and adjectives with similar connotations).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREFIX</th>
<th>VERB WITHOUT PREFIX</th>
<th>VERB WITH PREFIX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>в- (во; “into”)</td>
<td>ходи́ть (“to go”)</td>
<td>вхо́дить (“to enter”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>вз- (воз-, в-; “upward”)</td>
<td>лете́ть (“to fly”)</td>
<td>взле́теть (“to fly up, take off”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>вы- (“out of”)</td>
<td>води́ть (“to lead”)</td>
<td>выво́дить (“to lead out”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>до- (“up to, to the end”)</td>
<td>чита́ть (“to read”)</td>
<td>дочи́тать (“to read up to [a certain point]”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>за- (“behind, beyond”; beginning of an action; filling up)</td>
<td>пусты́ть (“to let go”)</td>
<td>запу́стить (“to launch”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>молчáть (“to be silent”)</td>
<td>замолчáть (“to fall silent”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>из- (ис-; “out; completely”)</td>
<td>стро́ить (“to build”)</td>
<td>застро́ить (“to build up [an area]”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>брать (“to take”)</td>
<td>избрать (“to pick out, choose”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>писа́ть (“to write”)</td>
<td>испи́сать (“to cover with writing”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VERBS: FORMATION

на- (“on, onto; a lot”) падать (“to fall”) нападать (“to fall upon, attack”)
над- (“over”) пить (“to drink”) напить (“to drink a lot”)
нм’ (“to drink”) написать (“to superscribe, endorse”)
нм’ (“to drink a lot”) объехать (“to detour”)
нм’ (“to drink upon, attack”) отходить (“to move away from”)
нм’ (“to move away from”) отдавать (“to give back”)
нм’ (“to move away from”) пережить (“to experience”)
но- (“over”) перечитать (“to reread”)
нм’ (“to drink upon, attack”) переносить (“to overfulfill”)
шт (“around, about”) сидеть (“to sit”) посидеть (“to sit for a while”)
от- (ото-; “away from; back”) любить (“to love”) полюбить (“to start to love”)
нм’ (“to drink upon, attack”) поддержать (“to support”)
пере- (“across, through; again; over and above”) ходить (“to go”) подходить (“to approach”)
пода- (“for a while”; beginning of an action) держать (“to hold”) подойти (“to approach”)
пода- (“for a while”; beginning of an action) выполнять (“to fulfill”) подойти (“to approach”)
под- (“under; toward”) предсказывать (“to foretell”) предсказывать (“to foretell”)
нм’ (“to drink upon, attack”) приходить (“to arrive”) приходить (“to arrive”)
пода- (“for a while”; beginning of an action) проходить (“to pass by”) проходить (“to pass by”)
про- (“through, by, past”) разбить (“to break into bits”) разбить (“to break into bits”)
раз- (“apart; un-”) разлюбить (“to cease to love”) разлюбить (“to cease to love”)
кор- (“downward; off”) сходить (“to come down, go off”) сходить (“to come down, go off”)
у- (“away from”) брать (“to take”) убрать (“to take away”)

When certain prefixes are added to verbs in conjunction with the suffix -ся, special connotations are generated:

1. When the verb has the prefix но- and the suffix -ся, the implication is successful completion of the basic meaning: звонить (“to call up”), дозваниваться (“to reach by telephone, to complete the call”).

2. With the prefix за- and the suffix -ся, the implication is excessive action that causes a loss of control: мечтать (“to daydream”), замечаться (“to become lost in daydreams”).
3. With the prefix на- and the suffix -ся, the implication is action done to satiety: пить ("to drink"), напиться ("to drink one's fill").

4. With the prefix о- and the suffix -ся, the implication is the incorrect performance of the verb action: ступать ("to take a step"), осту́паться ("to stumble").

5. With the prefix раз- and the suffix -ся, the implication is sudden, intense action: гореть ("to burn"), разгореться ("to blaze up suddenly").

6. With the prefix с- and the suffix -ся, the implication is convergence on a single point: брать ("to take"), собраться ("to assemble").
VERBS: ASPECT

We have already seen that most Russian verbs occur in imperfective/perfective aspectival pairs, distinguished by prefixing, difference in conjugational endings or alteration in the stem; sometimes two completely different verbs are used to form the pair. We have also seen that, in simplest terms, imperfective verbs describe uncompleted actions, and perfective verbs describe actions that have been or will be completed. It is now time to elaborate on the use of the two aspects. It should be borne in mind that, in any verb pair, the role played by aspect is closely connected with the kind of action denoted. Of course, there are many subtle rules of aspect that cannot be given here. Mastery of all the niceties of aspect requires long personal experience of the language. (In this chapter, whenever aspectival pairs are separated by a slash [\/] , the imperfective precedes the perfective.)

BASIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN IMPERFECTIVE AND PERFECTIVE

1. Imperfective verbs denote:
   (a) Generic action (no reference to a specific performance of the action):

   Недавно я научился плавать. Not long ago I learned to swim.

   (b) Action in progress (any tense):

   Сейчас он разговаривает с тётей.
   Right now he is talking with his aunt.

   Она читала книгу, когда я вошёл в комнату.
   She was reading a book when I entered the room.

   Я буду работать всю ночь над этим.
   I will be working all night on this.

   (c) Repeated or habitual action (any tense):

   Каждое утро он пьёт кофе.
   Every morning he drinks coffee.

   В детстве я часто ездили верхом.
   In my childhood I often rode on horseback.
С этих пор я рано буду вставать.
From now on I will get up early.

The imperfective is also used in questions when one wants to know merely whether or not an action took place, or who is responsible for an action that has taken place:

Вы читали «Мёртвые души»? Have you read “Dead Souls”?

One subtle use of the imperfective (of certain verbs, in the past tense only) is to show that a given action was done and then undone—for instance, that a window was opened and then closed again:

Кто открывал [imperf.] окно?
Who opened the window (and then closed it again)?

Кто открыл [pf.] окно?
Who opened the window (and left it open)?

2. Perfective verbs delimit the action. They denote:

(a) Action that is carried through from beginning to end:

Я прочитал эту книгу за три недели.
I read through this book in three weeks.

(b) A single, instantaneous action:

Учитель ударил по столу.
The teacher gave a rap on his desk.

(c) The very beginning of an action:

Девочка закричала, когда она увидела медведя.
The girl began to shriek when she caught sight of the bear.

(d) Action performed for a short while:

Он посидел и почитал.
He sat for a while and read a bit.

When a specific action is to be completed, even though it is to be repeated in a series, as in “Write this word a hundred times,” the perfective is used (i.e., напишите, not пишите) because the idea of the completion of the action is the stronger element.
POSITIVE:
Я вам советую написать [PF.] ему.
I advise you to write to him.

NEGATIVE:
Я вам советую не писать [IMPF.] ему.
I advise you not to write to him.

This is because the action in general is being denied, prevented or negated. When the negated verb is perfective, the implication is that the action was undertaken but never completed:

Я не читал [IMPF.] эту книгу. I haven't read that book (at all).
Я не прочитал [PF.] эту книгу. I haven't read that book through.

2. If the degree of negation is not total, the attitude of the speaker is a determining factor as to which aspect is used. If the action being denied or negated was never expected to happen, the imperfective is used:

Я не получил письма сегодня.
I didn't get any letter today [but wasn't expecting one].

If the negated action is still expected to take place, either aspect can be used:

Я ещё не получил/получил свидений.
I have not yet received news [but I expect some].

If an action was expected, but never took place, the perfective is used:

Я долго ждал, но он так и не пришёл.
I waited a long time but he didn't come.

If the absence of an action continues for some time, the imperfective is used:

Мы давно не виделись.
We haven't seen each other for some time.

All of the above situations shed light on a basic distinction between the two aspects: the imperfective verb is more general than the perfective. Accordingly, its negation is more sweeping and far-reaching. Perfective verbs always refer to a specific situation or set of conditions.

ASPECT OF INFINITIVES AND IMPERATIVES

1. There are instances when infinitives must be of a particular aspect. They must be imperfective:
(a) After verbs of beginning, continuing and ceasing (because those very verbs already provide the limitation of the action):

Вчера она начала читать «Идиота».
Yesterday she started to read “The Idiot.”

(b) After verbs of learning and becoming accustomed (because the reference is to the action of the infinitive in general):

Он привык исполнять свои обещания.
He is accustomed to keep his promises.

After perfective verbs that refer to a single instance, the infinitive must be perfective:

Я забыл оставить ключ на столе.
I forgot to leave the key on the table.

When the main verb of the sentence is imperfective, the infinitive can be of either aspect:

Я всегда забываю оставлять/оставить ключ на столе.
I always forget to leave the key on the table.

2. The imperative, like the verb in general, uses the perfective when referring to a single, defined action. Thus, “open the window!” is normally откройте окно! The use of the imperfective here would express exasperated impatience: открывайте уже (“get a move on and open it!”). However, verbs of invitation are usually in the imperfective and the perfective would be considered rude. Thus: садитесь! (“have a seat!”), входите! (“come in!”), приходите! (“come over!”), etc., are all imperfectives.

In negative imperatives, the imperfective is normally used even if a single, instantaneous action is being referred to: не поите эту песню! (“don’t sing that song!”). When the negative perfective is used, it is with the connotation “be careful not to . . . in order to avoid bad consequences.” Thus: не забудьте! (“don’t forget!”).

STRUCTURAL RELATIONS BETWEEN IMPERFECTIVES AND PERFECTIVES

1. Some of the structural differences between imperfective and perfective verbs have already been mentioned. The perfective verb may have a prefix that the imperfective does not have: читать/прочитать (“to read”), писать/написать (“to write”), шить/сшить (“to sew”), etc. The vowels of the endings may differ: кончать/кончить (“to finish”), умень-
шать/уменьшить ("to decrease"), решать/решить ("to decide"). But there are numerous other variations in these structural differences between the two aspects, and until one has learned enough pairs to recognize patterns, there is no reliable way of predicting the structure of a given verb's counterpart.

Generally speaking, the two members of an imperfective/perfective verb pair differ in meaning solely with regard to aspect. Thus, писать and написать, its perfective partner, both have the basic meaning "to write." But, as we have seen, prefixes can change the basic meaning: переписать ("to rewrite"), выписать ("to delete"), подписать ("to sign"), прописать ("to prescribe"), etc. This type of verb—formed by the addition of prefixes directly to the original verb—is always perfective, and the differences in meaning between those with the same base is derived solely from the prefixes.

2. (a) Since these newly formed prefixed verbs are perfective, they must have imperfective counterparts that retain the meaningful prefixes. The changes that distinguish the aspects must thus appear in the endings, in the main stems or in both. For example, the imperfective corresponding to переписать is переписывать; the imperfective corresponding to перечитать ("to reread") is перечитывать. The other -писать and -читать verbs do the same. These are just some of the verbs in which the imperfective differs from the perfective by having -в- inserted into it. Examples of other possible structural relations follow:

(b) The element -ва- inserted in the imperfective: одевать/одеть ("to dress"), открывать/открыть ("to open"), отставать/отстать ("to fall behind").

(c) The element -ин- inserted in the imperfective: начинать/начать ("to begin").

(d) The vowel -и- or -ы- inserted in the imperfective: избира́ть/избрать ("to choose"), посылать/послать ("to send").

(e) The alternation of -ать (or -я́ть) in the imperfective with -ить in the perfective infinitive (with consequent alternation of personal endings between Conjugation I and Conjugation II): бросать/бросить ("to throw"; an instance of a verb pair in which neither has a prefix), получать/получить ("to receive"), изменять/изменить ("to change"), исполнить/исполнить ("to fulfill").

(f) In some instances of the -ять/-и́ть alternation, -л- is also inserted in the imperfective. (This is analogous to the -л- inserted in the first person singular—люблю—of such verbs as любить.) Thus: представля́ть/представля́ть ("to introduce").

(g) Other types of consonant mutation may occur in the -ать/-и́ть pairs: отвечать/ответить ("to answer"), прекращать/прекратить ("to
discontinue”), прощаться/проститься (“to say goodbye”), приглашать/пригласить (“to invite”).

(h) In some verbs, the -ать/-ить alternation is combined with the insertion in the imperfective of -лив- or -ив- (sometimes also involving the insertion of -л-, consonant mutation and/or an a/o alternation in stem vowels): останавливать/остановить (“to stop”), сосредоточивать/сосредоточить (“to concentrate”), спрашивать/спросить (“to ask”).

(i) Another alternation, -ать/-нуть, can involve consonant mutation and changes in the stem vowel: стихать/стыхнуть (“to become quiet”), кричать/крикнуть (“to shout, cry out”), отдыхать/отдохнуть (“to rest”). With almost no exceptions, -нуть verbs indicate that the action takes place instantaneously and just once; thus, крикнуть means “to utter a single shout or cry.”

(j) The perfective -нать verbs have -нимать imperfectives: снимать/снять (“to take away”).

3. To generalize about identifying a given verb as being imperfective or perfective:
   (a) When one verb in an aspectival pair has a prefix and the other does not, the prefixed one is almost always perfective. When both verbs have prefixes, the longer of the two is likely to be the imperfective.
   (b) Verbs with infinitives ending in -ывать, -ать or -ать tend to be imperfective, and those ending in -ить are often perfective.
   (c) When there is an alternation between a and o in the stem of a verb pair, the one with the a is likely to be imperfective and the one with the o perfective.

4. In addition to all the above-mentioned instances of structural alternations between imperfective and perfective verbs, there are a number of pairs in which the verbs are totally different. These include: брать/взять (“to take”), ловить/поймать (“to catch”), кладь/положить (“to place, put”), говорить/сказать (“to speak, say, tell”).

When prefixes are added to the verbs, the tendency is for only one form out of the unprefixed pair to be used as the base of both the imperfective and the perfective of the new prefixed pair (structural changes of the above-mentioned types are also involved). The member of the unprefixed pair that is usually chosen is the imperfective one. Thus, the prefixed verbs formed from the брать/взять pair are отбирать/отобрать (“to take away”), набирать/набрать (“to gather”), etc. A prefixed verb formed from the ловить/поймать pair is улавливать/уловить (“to seize, grasp”). On the other hand, the кладь/положить pair retains both forms, in the appropriate aspects, when prefixes are added: укладывать/уложить
VERBS: ASPECT

(“to pack, put away”), откладывать/отложить (“to postpone”), etc. The говорить/сказать pair forms new prefixed verbs with the same form as the base of both imperfective and perfective, but some of the new prefixed verbs use говорить and some use сказать. Thus: уговаривать/уговорить (“to persuade”), отговорить/отговорить (“to dissuade”); выскаживать/высказать (“to express”), рассказывать/рассказать (“to relate”).

ASPECTIVAL PAIRS OF AN ATTEMPT/SUCCEED NATURE

Although the two members of aspectival pairs generally have the same meaning (except with regard to aspect), there are a number of important verbs whose imperfectives indicate an attempt to achieve a certain goal, and whose perfectives denote the successful attainment of the goal or completion of the action. Examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECTIVE</th>
<th>PERFECTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>будить (“to try to awaken”)</td>
<td>разбудить (“to awaken”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>добывать (“to try to obtain”)</td>
<td>добиться (“to obtain”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>доказывать (“to try to prove”)</td>
<td>доказать (“to prove”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ловить (“to try to catch”)</td>
<td>поймать (“to catch”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>объяснять (“to try to explain”)</td>
<td>объяснить (“to explain”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>решать (“to try to solve”)</td>
<td>решить (“to solve”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>убеждать (“to try to convince”)</td>
<td>убедить (“to convince”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>уговаривать (“to try to persuade”)</td>
<td>уговарить (“to persuade”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples of usage:

Милиция долго ловила его и в конце концов поймала.
The police tried to catch him for a long time and finally did (catch him).

Она будила и будила, но не разбудила его.
She tried and tried (to wake him), but she couldn’t wake him up.

Since perfectives have no present tense, the imperfectives of these verb pairs can be used to denote success in the present:

Каждое утро мать его будит.
His mother wakes him up every morning.
TELLING TIME

There are two ways in which to ask “What time is it?” in Russian: Котрый час? or, colloquially, Сколько времени? The answer, when indicating a time on the hour, is expressed using cardinal numbers and the word час (час is in the genitive singular when preceded by два, “two”; три, “three”; or четыре “four”; in the genitive plural when preceded by the other numbers): два часа (“two o’clock”), три часа (“three o’clock”), пять часов (“five o’clock”). “One o’clock” is simply час.

Half hours are expressed using половина (“half”) and the genitive masculine singular of the ordinal of the following hour: половина трёх (“half past two”), половина четырёх (“half past three”).

“Quarter past” is expressed using четверть and the genitive masculine singular of the ordinal of the following hour: четверть трёх (“quarter past two”), четверть четырёх (“quarter past three”).

Minutes past the hour are expressed using cardinal numbers plus минута (in the genitive, singular or plural) and the genitive masculine singular of the ordinal of the following hour for the hour: пять минут одиннадцатого (“five minutes past ten”), двадцать минут шестого (“twenty minutes past five”).

Minutes to the hour are expressed using the preposition без plus the number of minutes (in the genitive) and the nominative of the cardinal number for the hour: без десяти шестого (“ten to six”), без четверти пять (“quarter to five”).

To express “at [a given hour]” the preposition в is used with the accusative of the hour: в час (“at one o’clock”), в три часа (“at three o’clock”). Note that в is not used with без; thus без десяти шесть can mean “ten to six” or “at ten to six” as the context requires.
USEFUL EXPRESSIONS

Listed below are some useful expressions that have not appeared in the main body of this grammar:

Пожалуйста.
Спасибо.
Мо́жет быть.
Здра́вствуй(те).
До свида́ния.
До́бре утро.
Добры́й ве́чер.
Спокойной но́чи.
Поздравляю.
Как вы пожи́ваете?
очень хоро́шо, а как вы?
Хорошо.
Извините.
очень при́ятно.
Как ва́ше имя?
Мо́е имя . . .
Как ва́ша фами́лия?
Вы гово́рите по-а́нглийски?
Пожа́луйста, гово́рите медленнее.
Как по-ру́сски . . .?
Я не пони́маю.
Сколько это сто́ит?
Я хочу́ есть/пить.

Please.
Thank you.
Perhaps.
How do you do?
Good-bye.
Good morning.
Good evening.
Good night.
Congratulations.
How are you?
Very well, and you?
All right.
Excuse me.
Pleased to meet you.
What is your (first) name?
My name is . . .
What is your surname?
Do you speak English?
Please speak more slowly.
What is Russian for . . .?
I don’t understand.
How much does this cost?
I am hungry/thirsty.
APPENDIX I: SPECIAL NOUN DECLENSIONS
AND IRREGULAR NOUNS

MASCULINE NOUNS

1. The word брат (“brother”) has the following plural: NOM. братья, ACC. братьев, GEN. братьев, DAT. братьям, INSTR. братьями, PREP. братьях. Similarly declined in the plural (except that, as inanimates, their accusative is like their nominative, not like their genitive) are стол (“chair”) and лист (“leaf”). (Note that when лист means “sheet of paper” it has the regular plural: NOM. листы, GEN. листов, etc.)

2. The word муж (“husband”) has the plural: NOM. мужья, ACC. мужей, GEN. мужей, DAT. мужьям, INSTR. мужьями, PREP. мужьях. The word князь (“prince”) is declined in the same way in the plural, as is друг (“friend”), except that the г of друг changes to з: князь, князей, etc.; друзь, друзей, etc. Similar is сын (“son”), except that -ов- is inserted between stem and endings: сыновья, сыновей, etc.

3. A few masculine nouns have a genitive plural that is the same as the nominative singular: глаз (“eye”), солдат (“soldier”), сапог (“boot”), ботинок (“shoe”), чулок (“stocking”), человек (“person”), раз (“time,” as in “one more time”). There is a shift in stress in волос (“hair,” nom. sing.)/волос (gen. pl.).

4. In both singular and plural, the word путь (“way, road”) is declined like the feminine nouns that end in -ь: NOM. путь, GEN. пути, etc., except that the stress is always on the endings and the instrumental singular is путём.

5. A small group of masculine nouns, usually referring to a national or social group of people, end in -анин or -янин in the nominative singular. The singular is always regular: гражданин (“citizen”), гражданину, гражданина, etc.; крестьянин (“peasant”), крестьянину, крестьянна, etc. The plural of гражданин is: NOM. гражданин, ACC. гражда, GEN. гражданин, DAT. гражданам, INSTR. гражданиями, PREP. граждани. The plural of крестьянин is: NOM. крестьянин, ACC. крестьян, GEN. крестьян, DAT. крестьянам, INSTR. крестьянами, PREP. кресть-
Declined like гражданин (aside from stress) are such words as христианин ("Christian") and персиянин ("Persian"). Declined like крестьянин (aside from stress) are армянин ("Armenian") and славянин ("Slav"). The feminine counterparts of -анин/-янин masculines—such as граждanka ("woman citizen") and крестьянка ("peasant woman")—are regular in declension.

6. Nouns with nominative singulars ending in -онок or -ёнок denote the young of human beings or animals: ребёнок ("baby, child"), котёнок ("kitten"), медведёнок ("bear cub"), etc. They are regular in the singular: NOM. котёнок, ACC. котёнка, GEN. котёнка, DAT. котёнку, INSTR. котёнком, PREP. котёнке. They have the plural pattern: NOM. котёта, ACC. котят, GEN. котят, DAT. котятам, INSTR. котятами, PREP. котятах. Exception: щенок ("puppy"), with the plural щенки, щенков, etc.

**FEMININE NOUNS**

1. The word мать ("mother") is declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM. мать</td>
<td>материи</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC. мать</td>
<td>материей</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN. матери</td>
<td>материем</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT. матери</td>
<td>материем</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR. материю</td>
<td>материами</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP. матери</td>
<td>матерях</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word дочь ("daughter") is declined in the same way—дочь, дочь, дочери, etc.—except for the instrumental plural, which is дочерью.

2. Though most feminines with nominative singulars ending in -я preceded by a consonant have a genitive plural ending in -ъ (неделя/недель), the genitive plural of -я feminines usually ends in -ен: песня ("song"), GEN. PL. песен. However, деревня ("countryside") and кухня ("kitchen") are regular, the genitive plurals being деревень and кухонь.

**NEUTER NOUNS**

1. The small but important group of neuters with nominative singulars ending in -мя (e.g., время, "time") are declined as follows:
Others in this group are брёмя ("burden"), знамя ("banner"), имя ("name"), плáмя ("flame"), плёмя ("tribe") and сёмя ("seed"). The only one that deviates at all in declension is знамя, which has the plural: NOM. знамёна, ACC. знамёна, GEN. знамён, DAT. знамёном, INSTR. знамёнями, PREP. знамёнах.

2. The word чудо ("miracle, wonder") has the plural: NOM. чудесá, ACC. чудесá, GEN. чудесé, DAT. чудесáм, INSTR. чудесáми, PREP. чудесáх. Declined in the same way is небо ("sky"), which means "heavens" in the plural: NOM. небесá, ACC. небесá, GEN. небесé, etc.

3. A number of neuters have other irregularities in the plural; only a few common ones are mentioned here. The word дерево ("tree") has the plural: NOM. деревá, ACC. деревá, GEN. деревéв, DAT. деревéм, INSTR. деревéями, PREP. деревéях. Declined like дерево are крыло ("wing")—крылья, крылья, крылье, etc.—and перо ("feather")—пёры, пёры, пёрые, etc. The word яблоко ("apple") is irregular only in the nominative and accusative plural: яблоки. The words плáтье ("dress") and облáкó ("cloud") are irregular in the genitive plural only: плáтьев, облакóв. The word колéно ("knee") has the plural: колéни, колéни, колéней, etc. The word ухо ("ear") has the plural: уши, уши, ушей, etc.
APPENDIX II: DECLENSION OF NUMERALS

CARDINAL NUMERALS

1. Один ("one") must agree in gender, number and case with the noun it precedes; a noun modified by один is always in the singular unless it is a plural-only noun. The nominative forms of один are: MASC. один, FEM. одна, NEUT. одно, PL. один. (The -и- appears only in the nominative singular.) Thus: один стол ("one table"); одна книга ("one book"); одно окно ("one window"); один часы ("one clock"). Один declines like этот, except that the stress is on the ending.

Один can also have the meaning "alone": я один (OR: одна) знаю ("I alone know"); они пришли один ("they came alone").

2. Два ("two") has two forms in the nominative and inanimate accusative: MASC. & NEUT. два, FEM. две. Both три ("three") and четыре ("four") have only one nominative form. They are declined thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Стress</th>
<th>one</th>
<th>two</th>
<th>three</th>
<th>four</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>два (две)</td>
<td>три</td>
<td>четыре</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>два (две)</td>
<td>три</td>
<td>четыре</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>двух</td>
<td>трёх</td>
<td>четырёх</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>двух</td>
<td>трёх</td>
<td>четырёх</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>двумя</td>
<td>трём</td>
<td>четырьмя</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>двух</td>
<td>трёх</td>
<td>четырёх</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>двух</td>
<td>трёх</td>
<td>четырёх</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These three numerals, when in the nominative or accusative (except when referring to human beings), are followed by nouns in the genitive singular. Thus: два стола ("two tables"); две книги ("two books"); три собаки ("three dogs"). In the accusative, when referring to human beings (but not animals), and in the other cases the noun takes the same case as the numeral and is in the plural.

3. Оба ("both") has two gender-indicating forms: MASC. & NEUT. оба, FEM. обе. Оба is declined thus:
### CARDINAL NUMERALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>obа</th>
<th>обе</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>оба</td>
<td>обе</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
<td>обе́их</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
<td>обе́их</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>обо́им</td>
<td>обе́им</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>обо́ими</td>
<td>обе́ими</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
<td>обе́их</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MASC. &amp; NEUT.</th>
<th>FEM.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>оба</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>оба</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>обо́им</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>обо́ими</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>обо́их</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Оба (обе) follows the same rules as those governing два (две).

4. Пять ("five") is declined: NOM./ACC. пять, GEN./DAT./PREP. пяти, INSTR. пятью. Шесть ("six") through двадцать ("twenty"), and тридцать ("thirty") are declined like пять. (Note, however, that the -е- in восьмь ["eight"] is replaced by -ь- in the genitive, dative and prepositional cases.) All these numerals follow the same rules as those for два, except that they are followed by the genitive plural when in the nominative and accusative. The nominative and accusative of all numerals from 5–999 are followed by the genitive plural.

5. Compound numerals are formed as in English, except that no hyphen or conjunction is used. Thus: двадцать четыре ("twenty-four"). Nouns modified by compound numerals are governed by the last element.

6. Сорок ("forty") has an accusative form identical to the nominative. In all the other cases it takes the ending -а (сорока). Девяносто ("ninety") and сто ("hundred") are both declined like сорок. Thus their genitives are девяноста and ста.

7. In each of the numerals from пятьдесят ("fifty") to восьмидесят ("eighty") both elements decline. Thus пятьдесят declines: NOM./ACC. пятьдесят, GEN./DAT./PREP. пя́тьдеся́ти, INSTR. пятьюдеся́тью.

8. Both elements decline in the numerals две́сти ("two hundred") through девятьсот ("nine hundred"); note that the сто element is declined as a plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>две́сты</th>
<th>трь́ста</th>
<th>пять́сот</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>две́сти</td>
<td>трь́ста</td>
<td>пять́сот</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>двухсё́т</td>
<td>трёхсё́т</td>
<td>пятисё́т</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>двумстáм</td>
<td>трёмстáм</td>
<td>пятистáм</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>двумястáми</td>
<td>тремястáми</td>
<td>пятьюстáми</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>двухстáх</td>
<td>трёхстáх</td>
<td>пятистáх</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Тысяча ("thousand") and миллион ("million") are both declined like nouns (but note that тысяча has the instrumental тысячью). They are followed by a noun in the genitive plural.

**ORDINAL NUMERALS**

Ordinal numerals (e.g., первый, “first”; второй, “second”; третий, “third”) are declined like hard adjectives ending in -ый or -ой and, like adjectives, must agree in gender, number and case with the modified noun. Thus: в первом доме (“in the first house”). Note, however, the special declension of третий:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>All Genders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>третий</td>
<td>третья</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>третий</td>
<td>третью</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ANIM.)</td>
<td>третьего</td>
<td>третьей</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>третьего</td>
<td>третьей</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>третьему</td>
<td>третьей</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>третьим</td>
<td>третьей</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>третьем</td>
<td>третьей</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX III: DECLENSION OF NAMES

1. Russian first names (e.g., Иван, Софья) and patronyms (e.g., Иванович, Ивановна) are declined like nouns.

2. Russian surnames ending in -ев, -ев, -ов or -ов are declined partly like nouns and partly like adjectives. Their full declension (using the model name Петров) is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>Петров</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>Петровь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>Петровой</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>Петрову</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTR.</td>
<td>Петровым</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP.</td>
<td>Петрове</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Surnames ending in -ский are declined like adjectives; those ending in -ко are usually not declined; those ending in -аго, -яго, -ово, -их, -ых and stressed -кó do not decline.
A GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

E. F. BLEILER

This section is intended to refresh your memory of grammatical terms or to clear up difficulties you may have had in understanding them. Before you work through the grammar, you should have a reasonably clear idea what the parts of speech and parts of a sentence are. This is not for reasons of pedantry, but simply because it is easier to talk about grammar if we agree upon terms. Grammatical terminology is as necessary to the study of grammar as the names of automobile parts are to garagmen.

This list is not exhaustive, and the definitions do not pretend to be complete, or to settle points of interpretation that grammarians have been disputing for the past several hundred years. It is a working analysis rather than a scholarly investigation. The definitions given, however, represent most typical American usage, and should serve for basic use.

The Parts of Speech

English words can be divided into eight important groups: nouns, adjectives, articles, verbs, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions. The boundaries between one group of words and another are sometimes vague and ill-felt in English, but a good dictionary, like the Webster Collegiate, can help you make decisions in questionable cases. Always bear in mind, however, that the way a word is used in a sentence may be just as important as the nature of the word itself in deciding what part of speech the word is.

Nouns. Nouns are the words for things of all sorts, whether these things are real objects that you can see, or ideas, or places, or qualities or groups or more abstract things. Examples of words that are nouns are cat, vase, door, shrub, wheat, university, mercy, intelligence, ocean, plumber, pleasure, society, army. If you are in doubt whether a given word is a noun, try putting the word “my,” or “this” or “large” (or some other adjective) in front of it. If it makes sense in the sentence the chances are that the word in question is a noun. [All the words in italics in this paragraph are nouns.]
Adjectives. Adjectives are the words that delimit or give you specific information about the various nouns in a sentence. They tell you size, color, weight, pleasantness and many other qualities. Such words as big, expensive, terrible, insipid, hot, delightful, ruddy, informative are all clear adjectives. If you are in any doubt whether a certain word is an adjective, add “-er” to it, or put the word “more” or “too” in front of it. If it makes good sense in the sentence, and does not end in “-ly,” the chances are that it is an adjective. (Pronoun-adjectives will be described under pronouns.) [The adjectives in the above sentences are in italics.]

Articles. There are only two kinds of articles in English, and they are easy to remember. The definite article is “the” and the indefinite article is “a” or “an.”

Verbs. Verbs are the words that tell what action, or condition or relationship is going on. Such words as was, is, jumps, achieved, keeps, buys, sells, has finished, run, will have, may, should pay, indicates are all verb forms. Observe that a verb can be composed of more than one word, as will have and should pay, above; these are called compound verbs. As a rough guide for verbs, try adding “-ed” to the word you are wondering about, or taking off an “-ed” that is already there. If it makes sense, the chances are that it is a verb. (This does not always work, since the so-called strong or irregular verbs make forms by changing their middle vowels, like spring, sprang, sprung.) [Verbs in this paragraph are in italics.]

Adverbs. An adverb is a word that supplies additional information about a verb, an adjective or another adverb. It usually indicates time, or manner, or place or degree. It tells you how, or when, or where or to what degree things are happening. Such words as now, then, there, not, anywhere, never, somehow, always, very and most words ending in “-ly” are ordinarily adverbs. [Italicized words are adverbs.]

Pronouns. Pronouns are related to nouns, and take their place. (Some grammars and dictionaries group pronouns and nouns together as substantives.) They mention persons, or objects of any sort without actually giving their names.

There are several different kinds of pronouns. (1) Personal pronouns: by a grammatical convention I, we, me, mine, us, ours are called first person pronouns, since they refer to the speaker; you and yours are called second person pronouns, since they refer to the person addressed; and he, him, his, she, her, hers, they, them, theirs are called third person pronouns, since they refer to the things or persons discussed. (2) Demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these, those. (3) Interrogative, or question, pronouns: who, whom, what, whose, which. (4) Relative pronouns, or pronouns that refer back to
something already mentioned: *who, whom, that, which*. (5) Others: *some, any, anyone, no one, other, whichever, none, etc.*

Pronouns are difficult for *us*, since our categories are not as clear as in some other languages, and *we* use the same words for *what* foreign-language speakers see as different situations. First, *our* interrogative and relative pronouns overlap, and must be separated in translation. The easiest way is to observe whether a question is involved in the sentence. Examples: "Which [int.] do you like?" "The hotel, which [rel.] was not far from the airport, had a restaurant." "Who [int.] is there?" "I don’t know who [int.] was there." "The porter who [rel.] took our bags was Number 2132." This may seem to be a trivial difference to an English speaker, but in some languages it is very important.

Secondly, there is an overlap between pronouns and adjectives. In some cases the word "this," for example, is a pronoun; in other cases it is an adjective. *This* also holds true for *his, its, her, any, none, other, some, that, these, those* and many other words. Note whether the word in question stands alone or is associated with another word. Examples: "This [pronoun] is mine." "This [adj.] taxi has no springs." Watch out for the word "that," which can be a pronoun or an adjective or a conjunction. And remember that "my," "your," "our" and "their" are always adjectives. [All pronouns in this section are in italics.]

**Prepositions.** Prepositions are the little words that introduce phrases that tell about condition, time, place, manner, association, degree and similar topics. Such words as *with, in, beside, under, of, to, about, for and upon* are prepositions. In English prepositions and adverbs overlap, but, as you will see by checking in your dictionary, there are usually differences of meaning between the two uses. [Prepositions in this paragraph are designated by italics.]

**Conjunctions.** Conjunctions are joining-words. They enable you to link words or groups of words into larger units, *and* to build compound or complex sentences out of simple sentence units. Such words as *and, but, although, or, unless* are typical conjunctions. Although most conjunctions are easy enough to identify, the word "that" should be watched closely to see that it is not a pronoun or an adjective. [Conjunctions italicized.]

**Words About Verbs**

Verbs are responsible for most of the terminology in this short grammar. The basic terms are:

**Conjugation.** In many languages verbs fall into natural groups, according to the way they make their forms. These groupings are called conjugations,
and are an aid to learning grammatical structure. Though it may seem difficult at first to speak of First and Second Conjugations, these are simply short ways of saying that verbs belonging to these classes make their forms according to certain consistent rules, which you can memorize.

**Infinitive.** This is the basic form that most dictionaries give for verbs in most languages, and in most languages it serves as the basis for classifying verbs. In English (with a very few exceptions) it has no special form. To find the infinitive for any English verb, just fill in this sentence: "I like to . . . . . (walk, run, jump, swim, carry, disappear, etc.)." The infinitive in English is usually preceded by the word "to."

**Tense.** This is simply a formal way of saying "time." In English we think of time as being broken into three great segments: past, present and future. Our verbs are assigned forms to indicate this division, and are further subdivided for shades of meaning. We subdivide the present time into the present (I walk) and present progressive (I am walking); the past into the simple past (I walked), progressive past (I was walking), perfect or present perfect (I have walked), past perfect or pluperfect (I had walked); and future into simple future (I shall walk) and future progressive (I shall be walking). These are the most common English tenses.

**Present Participles, Progressive (Continuous) Tenses.** In English the present participle always ends in *-ing*. It can be used as a noun or an adjective in some situations, but its chief use is in *forming* the so-called progressive or continuous tenses. These are made by putting appropriate forms of the verb "to be" before a present participle. "To walk" [an infinitive], for example, has the present progressive: I am walking, you are walking, he is walking, etc.; past progressive, I was walking, you were walking, etc. [Present participles are in italics.]

**Past Participles, Perfect Tenses.** The past participle in English is not *formed* as regularly as is the present participle. Sometimes it is *constructed* by adding "-ed" or "-d" to the present tense, as walked, jumped, looked, received; but there are many verbs where it is *formed* less regularly: seen, been, swum, chosen, brought. To find it, simply fill-out the sentence "I have . . . . .," putting in the verb form that your ear tells you is right for the particular verb. If you speak grammatically, you will have the past participle.

Past participles are sometimes used as adjectives: "Don't cry over spilt milk." Their most important use, however, is to form the system of verb tenses that are called the perfect tenses: present perfect (or perfect), past perfect (or pluperfect), etc. In English the present perfect tense is *formed* with the present tense of "to have" and the past participle of a verb: I have
A GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

walked, you have run, he has begun, etc. The past perfect is formed, similarly, with the past tense of “to have” and the past participle: I had walked, you had run, he had begun. Most of the languages you are likely to study have similar systems of perfect tenses, though they may not be formed in exactly the same way as in English. [Past participles are in italics.]

Auxiliary Verbs. Auxiliary verbs are special words that are used to help other verbs make their forms. In English, for example, we use forms of the verb “to have” to make our perfect tenses: I have seen, you had come, he has been, etc. We also use shall or will to make our future tenses: I shall pay, you will see, etc. French, German, Greek and Italian also make use of auxiliary verbs, but although the general concept is present, the use of auxiliaries differs very much from one language to another, and you must learn the practice for each language. [Auxiliary verbs are in italics.]

Reflexive. This term, which sounds more difficult than it really is, simply means that the verb flexes back upon the noun or pronoun that is its subject. In modern English the reflexive pronoun always has “-self” on its end, and we do not use the construction very frequently. In other languages, however, reflexive forms may be used more frequently, and in ways that do not seem very logical to an English speaker. Examples of English reflexive sentences: “He washes himself.” “He seated himself at the table.”

Passive. In some languages, like Latin, there is a strong feeling that an action or thing that is taking place can be expressed in two different ways. One can say, A does-something-to B, which is “active”; or B is-having-something-done-to-him by A, which is “passive.” We do not have a strong feeling for this classification of experience in English, but the following examples should indicate the difference between an active and a passive verb: Active: “John is building a house.” Passive: “A house is being built by John.” Active: “The steamer carried the cotton to England.” Passive: “The cotton was carried by the steamer to England.” Bear in mind that the formation of passive verbs and the situations where they can be used vary enormously from language to language. This is one situation where you usually cannot translate English word for word into another language and make sense.

Impersonal Verbs. In English there are some verbs that do not have an ordinary subject, and do not refer to persons. They are always used with the pronoun “it,” which does not refer to anything specifically, but simply serves to fill out the verb forms. Examples: “It is snowing.” “It hailed last night.” “It seems to me that you are wrong.” “It has been raining.” “It won’t do.”
Words About Nouns

Declensions. In some languages nouns fall into natural groups according to the way they make their forms. These groupings are called declensions, and making the various forms for any noun, pronoun or adjective is called declining it.

Declensions are simply an aid to learning grammatical structure. Although it may seem difficult to speak of First Declension, Second, Third and Fourth, these are simply short ways of saying that nouns belonging to these classes make their forms according to certain consistent rules, which you can memorize. In English we do not have to worry about declensions, since almost all nouns make their possessive and plural in the same way. In other languages, however, declensions may be much more complex.

Agreement. In some languages, where nouns or adjectives or articles are declined, or have gender endings, it is necessary that the adjective or article be in the same case or gender or number as the noun it goes with (modifies). This is called agreement.

This may be illustrated from Spanish, where articles and adjectives have to agree with nouns in gender and number:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>una casa</td>
<td>one white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blanca</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un libro</td>
<td>one white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blanco</td>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dos casas</td>
<td>two white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blancas</td>
<td>houses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dos libros</td>
<td>two white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blancos</td>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here *una* is feminine singular and has the ending -*a* because it agrees with the feminine singular noun *casa*; *blanca* has the ending -*a* because it agrees with the feminine singular noun *casa*. *Blanco*, on the other hand, and *un* are masculine singular because *libro* is masculine singular.

Gender. Gender should not be confused with actual sex. In many languages nouns are arbitrarily assigned a gender (masculine or feminine, or masculine or feminine or neuter), and this need not correspond to sex. You simply have to learn the pattern of the language you are studying in order to become familiar with its use of gender.

Case. The idea of case is often very difficult for an English-speaker to grasp, since we do not use case very much. Perhaps the best way to understand how case works is to step behind words themselves, into the ideas that words express. If you look at a sentence like “Mr. Brown is paying the waiter,” you can see that three basic ideas are involved: Mr. Brown, the waiter and the act of payment. The problem that every language has is to show how these ideas are to be related, or how words are to be interlocked to form sentences.
Surprisingly enough, there are only three ways of putting pointers on words to make your meaning clear, so that your listener knows who is doing what to whom. These ways are: (1) word order; (2) additional words; (3) alteration of the word (which for nouns, pronouns and adjectives is called case).

Word order, or the place of individual words in a sentence, is very important in English. For us, “Mr. Brown is paying the waiter” is entirely different in meaning from “The waiter is paying Mr. Brown.” This may seem so obvious that it need not be mentioned, but in some languages, like Latin, you can shift the positions of the words and come out with the same meaning for the sentence, apart from shifts of emphasis.

Adding other elements, to make meanings clear, is also commonly used in English. We have a whole range of words like “to,” “from,” “with,” “in,” “out,” “of,” and so on, that show relationships. “Mr. Jones introduced Mr. Smith to the Captain” is unambiguous because of the word “to.”

Case is not as important in English as it is in some languages, but we do use case in a few limited forms. We add an ‘s to nouns to form a possessive; we add a similar -s to form the plural for most nouns; and we add (in spelling, though there is no sound change involved) an ‘ to indicate a possessive plural. In pronouns, sometimes we add endings, as in the words “who,” “whose” and “whom.” Sometimes we use different forms, as in “I,” “mine,” “me”; “he,” “his,” “him”; “we,” “ours” and “us.”

When you use case, as you can see, you know much more about individual words than if you do not have case. When you see the word “whom” you automatically recognize that it cannot be the subject of a sentence, but must be the object of a verb or a preposition. When you see the word “ship’s,” you know that it means “belonging to a ship” or “originating from a ship.”

If you assume that endings can be added to nouns or pronouns or adjectives to form cases, it is not too far a logical leap to see that certain forms or endings are always used in the same circumstances. A preposition, for example, may always be followed by a noun or pronoun with the same ending; a direct object may always have a certain ending; or possession may always be indicated by the same ending. If you classify and tabulate endings and their uses, you will arrive at individual cases.

Miscellaneous Terms

Comparative, Superlative. These two terms are used with adjectives and adverbs. They indicate the degree of strength within the meaning of the word. “Faster,” “better,” “earlier,” “newer,” “more rapid,” “morec
detailed,” “more suitable” are examples of the comparative in adjectives, while “more rapidly,” “more recently,” “more suitably” are comparatives for adverbs. In most cases, as you have seen, the comparative uses “-er” or “more” for an adjective, and “more” for an adverb. Superlatives are those forms that end in “-est” or have “most” prefixed before them for adjectives, and “most” prefixed for adverbs: “most intelligent,” “earliest,” “most rapidly,” “most suitably.”

The Parts of the Sentence

Subject, Predicate. In grammar every complete sentence contains two basic parts, the subject and the predicate. The subject, if we state the terms most simply, is the thing, person or activity talked about. It can be a noun, a pronoun, or something that serves as a noun. A subject would include, in a typical case, a noun, the articles or adjectives that are associated with it and perhaps phrases. Note that in complex sentences, each part may have its own subject. [The subjects of the sentences and clauses above have been italicized.]

The predicate talks about the subject. In a formal sentence the predicate includes a verb, its adverbs, predicate adjectives, phrases and objects—whatever happens to be present. A predicate adjective is an adjective that happens to be in the predicate after a form of the verb “to be.” Example: “Apples are red.” [Predicates are in italics.]

In the following simple sentences subjects are in italics, predicates in italics and underlined. “Green apples are bad for your digestion.” “When I go to Russia, I always stop in Novgorod.” “The man with the handbag is traveling to Moscow.”

Direct and Indirect Objects. Some verbs (called transitive verbs) take direct and/or indirect objects in their predicates; other verbs (called intransitive verbs) do not take objects of any sort. In English, except for pronouns, objects do not have any special forms, but in languages such as Russian, which have case forms or more pronoun forms than English, objects can be troublesome.

The direct object is the person, thing, quality or matter that the verb directs its action upon. It can be a pronoun, or a noun, perhaps accompanied by an article and/or adjectives. The direct object always directly follows its verb, except when there is also an indirect object present, which comes between the verb and the object. Prepositions do not go before direct objects. Examples: “The cook threw green onions into the stew.” “The border guards will want to see your passport tomorrow.”
“Give it to me.” “Please give me a glass of red wine.” [We have placed direct objects in this paragraph in italics.]

The indirect object, as grammars will tell you, is the person or thing for or to whom the action is taking place. It can be a pronoun or a noun with or without article and adjectives. In most cases the words “to” or “for” can be inserted before it, if not already there. Examples: “Please tell me the time.” “I wrote her a letter from Pskov.” “We sent Mr. Chernyshev ten rubles.” “We gave the most energetic guide a large tip.” [Indirect objects in this paragraph are in italics.]

Clauses: Independent, Dependent, Relative. Clauses are the largest components/that go to make up sentences./ Each clause, in classical grammar, is a combination of subject and predicate./If a sentence has one subject and one predicate,/it is a one-clause sentence./If it has two or more subjects and predicates,/it is a sentence of two or more clauses./

There are two kinds of clauses: independent (principal) and dependent (subordinate) clauses./ An independent clause can stand alone;/it can form a logical, complete sentence./ A dependent clause is a clause/that cannot stand alone;/it must have another clause with it to complete it./

A sentence containing a single clause is called a simple sentence./ A sentence with two or more clauses may be either a complex or a compound sentence./ A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses,/and/these independent clauses are joined together with “and,” “or” or “but.”/ A complex sentence is a sentence/that contains both independent and dependent clauses./

A relative clause is a clause/that begins with a relative pronoun: who, whom, that, which./ It is by definition a dependent clause,/since it cannot stand by itself./ [Each clause in this section has been isolated by slashes./Dependent clauses have been placed in italics;/independent clauses have not been marked./]
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