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TABLE OF CONTENT

I. PART A: INTRODUCTION

1. Rationale.....	4
2. Aims of the study	4
3. Scope of the study	4
4. Methods of study.....	5
5. Design of study.....	5

II. PART B: DEVELOPMENT

Chapter 1: DEFINITION OF NUMERAL	6
1.1. History of numeral	6
Definition	10

Chapter 2: CLASSIFICATION OF NUMERAL

2.1. Classification of numeral	14
2.1.1. Cardinal numbers	14
2.1.2. Ordinal numbers.....	22
2.1.3. Dates.....	25
2.1.4. Fractions and decimals.....	30
2.1.5. Roman number	33
2.1.6. Specialised numbers.....	35
2.1.7. Empty numbers	38
2.2. The major differences between numeral in English and Vietnamese..	40
2.2.1. Dates.....	40
2.2.2. Phone numer	41
2.2.3. Zero number	42
2.2.4. Fraction	43

Chapter 3: EXERCISE IN APPLICATION	44
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III. PART C: CONCLUSION

1. Summary of study.....	48
2. Suggestion for further study	49
REFERENCES.....	50

I. PART A: INTRODUCTION

1. Rationale:

English is one of the most widely used languages worldwide when being used by over 60% the world population. It's used internationally in business, political, cultural relation and education as well. Thanks to the widespread use of English, different countries come close to each other to work out the problems and strive for prosperous community.

Realizing the significance of English, almost all Vietnamese learners have been trying to be good at English, Mastering English is the aim of every learners.

However, there still remain difficulties faced by Vietnamese learner of English due to both objective and subjective factors, especially in writing and reading numeral because learners sometimes skip when they think that it is an unimportant part.

Therefore, it is necessary to collect ground rule of reading and writing English numeral. This will help learner avoid confusedness of English numeral.

2. Aims of the study:

As we know, English numbers often appear in document, even daily communication. The learner of English sometimes don't know how to read or write them exactly. Therefore, this research is aimed at:

- ✓ Collecting type of popular numeral in English document and daily communication.
- ✓ Instructing writing and reading numeral exactly.

3. Scope of the study

Numeral in English is a wide category including: mathematic, technology, business....therefore I only collect numbers used in daily speaking cultures in this research paper.

4. Methods of the study

Being a student of Foreign Language Faculty with four years study at the university, I have a chance to equip myself with the knowledge of many fields in society such as :sociology, economy, finance, culture, etc...With the knowledge gained from professional teachers, specialized books, references and with the help of my friends the experience gained at the training time, I have put my mind on theme : “writing and reading numeral in English” for my graduation paper.

Documents for research are selected from reliable sources, for example “books published by oxford, website ...Furthermore, I illustrate with examples quoted from books, internet, etc...

5. Design of the study

The study is divided into three main parts of which the second one is the most important part.

- Part one is introduction that gives out the rationale for choosing the topic of this study, pointing out the aim, scope as well as methods of the study
- Part two is development that consists of.....chapter
- Part three is the conclusion of the study, in which all the issues mentioned in previous part of the study are summarized.

PART B: DEVELOPMENT

Chapter 1: DEFINITION OF NUMERAL

1.1. History of counting systems and numeral

Nature's abacus

Soon after language develops, it is safe to assume that humans begin counting - and that fingers and thumbs provide nature's abacus. The decimal system is no accident. Ten has been the basis of most counting systems in history.

When any sort of record is needed, notches in a stick or a stone are the natural solution. In the earliest surviving traces of a counting system, numbers are built up with a repeated sign for each group of 10 followed by another repeated sign for 1.

Egyptian numbers: 3000-1600 BC

In Egypt, from about 3000 BC, records survive in which 1 is represented by a vertical line and 10 is shown as \wedge . The Egyptians write from right to left, so the number 23 becomes $\text{lll}\wedge\wedge$

If that looks hard to read as 23, glance for comparison at the name of a famous figure of our own century - Pope John XXIII. This is essentially the Egyptian system, adapted by Rome and still in occasional use more than 5000 years after its first appearance in human records. The scribes of the Egyptian pharaohs (whose possessions are not easily counted) use the system for some very large numbers - unwieldy though they undoubtedly are.

From about 1600 BC Egyptian priests find a useful method of shortening the written version of numbers. It involves giving a name and a symbol to every multiple of 10, 100, 1000 and so on.

So 80, instead of being **to be drawn**, becomes; and 8000 is not but . The saving in space and time in writing the number is self-evident. The disadvantage is the range of symbols required to record a very large number - a range

impractical to memorize, even perhaps with the customary leisure of temple priests. But for everyday use this system offers a real advance, and it is later adopted in several other writing systems - including Greek, Hebrew and early Arabic

Babylonian numbers: 1750 BC

The Babylonians use a numerical system with 60 as its base. This is extremely unwieldy, since it should logically require a different sign for every number up to 59 (just as the decimal system does for every number up to 9). Instead, numbers below 60 are expressed in clusters of ten - making the written figures awkward for any arithmetical computation.

Through the Babylonian pre-eminence in astronomy, their base of 60 survives even today in the 60 seconds and minutes of angular measurement, in the 180 degrees of a triangle in the 360 degrees of a circle. Much later, when time can be accurately measured, the same system is adopted for the subdivisions of an hour. The Babylonians take one crucial step towards a more effective numerical system. They introduce the place-value concept, by which the same digit has a different value according to its place in the sequence. We now take for granted the strange fact that in the number 222 the digit '2' means three quite different things - 200, 20 and 2 - but this idea is new and bold in Babylon.

For the Babylonians, with their base of 60, the system is harder to use. For a number as simple as 222 is the equivalent of 7322 in our system ($2 \times 60^2 + 2 \times 60 + 2$).

The place-value system necessarily involves a sign meaning 'empty', for those occasions where the total in a column amounts to an exact multiple of 60. If this gap is not kept, all the digits before it will appear to be in the wrong column and will be reduced in value by a factor of 60.

Another civilization, that of the Maya, independently arrives at a place-value system - in their case with a base of 20 - so they too have a symbol for zero. Like the Babylonians, they do not have separate digits up to their base figure.

They merely use a dot for 1 and a line for 5 (writing 14, for example, as 4 dots with two lines below them).

Zero, decimal system, Arabic numerals: from 300 BC

In the Babylonian and Mayan systems the written number is still too unwieldy for efficient arithmetical calculation, and the zero symbol is only partly effective.

For zero to fulfil its potential in mathematics, it is necessary for each number up to the base figure to have its own symbol. This seems to have been achieved first in India. The digits now used internationally make their appearance gradually from about the 3rd century BC, when some of them feature in the inscriptions of Asoka.

The Indians use a dot or small circle when the place in a number has no value, and they give this dot a Sanskrit name - *sunya*, meaning 'empty'. The system has fully evolved by about AD 800, when it is adopted also in Baghdad. The Arabs use the same 'empty' symbol of dot or circle, and they give it the equivalent Arabic name, *sifr*.

About two centuries later the Indian digits reach Europe in Arabic manuscripts, becoming known as Arabic numerals. And the Arabic *sifr* is transformed into the 'zero' of modern European languages. But several more centuries must pass before the ten Arabic numerals gradually replace the system inherited in Europe from the Roman Empire.

The abacus: 1st millennium BC

In practical arithmetic the merchants have been far ahead of the scribes, for the idea of zero is in use in the market place long before its adoption in written systems. It is an essential element in humanity's most basic counting machine, the abacus. This method of calculation - originally simple furrows drawn on the ground, in which pebbles can be placed - is believed to have been used by Babylonians and Phoenicians from perhaps as early as 1000 BC.

In a later and more convenient form, still seen in many parts of the world today, the abacus consists of a frame in which the pebbles are kept in clear rows by being threaded on rods. Zero is represented by any row with no pebble at the active end of the rod.

Roman numerals: from the 3rd century BC

The completed decimal system is so effective that it becomes, eventually, the first example of a fully international method of communication.

But its progress towards this dominance is slow. For more than a millennium the numerals most commonly used in Europe are those evolved in Rome from about the 3rd century BC. They remain the standard system throughout the Middle Ages, reinforced by Rome's continuing position at the centre of western civilization and by the use of Latin as the scholarly and legal language.

Binary numbers: 20th century AD

Our own century has introduced another international language, which most of us use but few are aware of. This is the binary language of computers. When interpreting coded material by means of electricity, speed in tackling a simple task is easy to achieve and complexity merely complicates. So the simplest possible counting system is best, and this means one with the lowest possible base - 2 rather than 10.

Instead of zero and 9 digits in the decimal system, the binary system only has zero and 1. So the binary equivalent of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 is 1, 10, 11, 100, 101, 111, 1000, 1001, 1010, 1011 and so ad infinitum

(Resource: "History of COUNTING SYSTEMS AND NUMERALS")

1.2. What is definition of number?

The question is a challenging one because defining the abstract idea of number is extremely difficult. More than 2,500 years ago, the great number enthusiast Pythagoras described number as "the first principle, a thing which is undefined, incomprehensible, and having in itself all numbers." Even today, we still struggle with the notion of what numbers mean.

Numbers neither came to us fully formed in nature nor did they spring fully formed from the human mind. Like other ideas, they have evolved slowly throughout human history. Both practical and abstract, they are important in our everyday world but remain mysterious in our imaginations.

Numbers in Life, Life in Numbers.

- **The Numbers within Our Lives:** Early conceptual underpinnings of numbers were used to express different ideas throughout different cultures, all of which led to our current common notion of number.
- **The Lives within Our Numbers:** Born from our imagination, numbers eventually took on a life of their own within the larger structure of mathematics. This area of study is known as number theory, and the more it is explored, the more insight we gain into the nature of numbers.
- **Transcendental Meditation—The pi and e Stories:** Perhaps the two most important numbers in our universe, pi and e help us better understand nature and our universe. They are also the gateway into an exploration of transcendental numbers.
- **Algebraic and Analytic Evolutions of Number:** Two mathematical perspectives on how to create numbers, the algebraic view leads us to imaginary numbers, while the analytical view challenges our intuitive sense of what number should mean.
- **Infinity—"Numbers" Beyond Numbers:** The idea of infinity, just like the idea of numbers, can be understood and holds many fascinating features.

Some of these features, paradoxically, require us to return to the earliest notions of number.

There are many different types of numbers, each of which plays an important role within both mathematics and the larger world.

- real numbers: numbers that can be given by an infinite decimal representation (e.g., 34.5837 ...)
- natural numbers: also known as counting numbers, these are numbers used primarily for counting and ordering (e.g., 3)
- prime numbers: natural numbers greater than 1 that can be divided by only 1 and itself (e.g., 43)
- rational numbers: numbers that can be expressed as the ratio of two integers (e.g., $\frac{1}{2}$)
- irrational numbers: numbers that cannot be expressed as simple fractions (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$)
- transcendental numbers: irrational numbers that are not algebraic (e.g., π)

(Taught by Edward B. Burger Williams College Ph.D., The University of Texas at Austin)

The following is some other definitions of numeral:

That which admits of being counted or reckoned; a unit, or an aggregate of units; a numerable aggregate or collection of individuals; an assemblage made up of distinct things expressible by figures.

A collection of many individuals; a numerous assemblage; a multitude; many.

A numeral; a word or character denoting a number; as, to put a number on a door.

Numerousness; multitude.

The state or quality of being numerable or countable.

Quantity, regarded as made up of an aggregate of separate things.

That which is regulated by count; poetic measure, as divisions of time or number of syllables; hence, poetry, verse; -- chiefly used in the plural.

The distinction of objects, as one, or more than one (in some languages, as one, or two, or more than two), expressed (usually) by a difference in the form of a word; thus, the singular number and the plural number are the names of the forms of a word indicating the objects denoted or referred to by the word as one, or as more than one.

The measure of the relation between quantities or things of the same kind; that abstract species of quantity which is capable of being expressed by figures; numerical value.

To count; to reckon; to ascertain the units of; to enumerate.

To reckon as one of a collection or multitude.

To give or apply a number or numbers to; to assign the place of in a series by order of number; to designate the place of by a number or numeral; as, to number the houses in a street, or the apartments in a building.

To amount; to equal in number; to contain; to consist of; as, the army numbers fifty thousand.

(Webster's Revised Unabridged Dictionary (1913))

Chapter 2: CLASSIFICATION OF NUMERAL

2.1. Classification of numeral

2.1.1. Cardinal numbers

0	zero (nought) /'ziərəʊ/				
1	one /wʌ n/	11	eleven /i'levn/	10	ten /ten/
2	two /tu:/	12	twelve /twelv/	20	twenty /'twenti/
3	three /θri:/	13	thirteen /θə:'ti:n/	30	thirty /θə:ti/
4	four /fɔ :/	14	fourteen /fɔ :'ti:n/	40	forty /'fɔ :ti/ (no "u")
5	five /faiv/	15	fifteen /fif'ti:n/ (note "f", not "v")	50	fifty /'fifti/ (note "f", not "v")
6	six /siks/	16	sixteen /'siks'ti:n/	60	sixty /'siks'ti/
7	seven /'sevn/	17	seventeen /'sevn'ti:n/	70	seventy /'sevnti/
8	eight /eit/	18	eighteen /ei'ti:n/ (only one "t")	80	eighty /'eiti/ (only one "t")
9	nine /nain/	19	nineteen /nain'ti:n/	90	ninety /'nainti/ (note the "e")

If a number is in the range 21 to 99, and the second digit is not zero, one should write the number as two words separated by a hyphen.

21	twenty-one /'twenti'wʌ n/
25	twenty-five /'twenti'faɪv/
32	thirty-two /'θɜ:tɪ'tu/
58	fifty-eight /'fɪfti'eɪt/
64	sixty-four /'sɪksti fɔ :/
79	seventy-nine /'sevntɪ 'nain/
83	eighty-three /'eɪtɪ'θri:/
99	ninety-nine /'nainɪ'nain/

In English, the hundreds are perfectly regular, except that the word *hundred* remains in its singular form regardless of the number preceding it (nevertheless, one may on the other hand say "hundreds of people flew in", or the like)

100	one hundred /'wʌ n'hʌ ndrəd/
200	two hundred /'tu'hʌ ndrəd/
...	...
900	nine hundred /'nain'hʌ ndrəd/

So too are the thousands, with the number of thousands followed by the word "thousand"

1,000	one thousand /'wʌ n'θauz(ə)nd/
2,000	two thousand /'tu'θauz(ə)nd/
...	...
10,000	ten thousand /'ten'θauz(ə)nd/
11,000	eleven thousand /i'levn'θauz(ə)nd/
...	...

20,000	twenty thousand /'twenti'θauz(ə)nd/
21,000	twenty-one thousand /'twenti'wʌ n'θauz(ə)nd/
30,000	thirty thousand /'θə:ti 'θauz(ə)nd/
85,000	eighty-five thousand /'eiti faiv'θauz(ə)nd/
100,000	one hundred thousand /'wʌ n'hʌ ndrəd'θauz(ə)nd/
999,000	nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand (<i>British English</i>) /'nain'hʌ ndrəd ænd nainti-nain 'θauz(ə)nd/ nine hundred ninety-nine thousand (<i>American English</i>) /'nain'hʌ ndrəd nainti-nain 'θauz(ə)nd/
1,000,000	one million/'wʌ n 'miljən/

In American usage, four-digit numbers with non-zero hundreds are often named using multiples of "hundred" and combined with tens and ones: "One thousand one", "Eleven hundred three", "Twelve hundred twenty-five", "Four thousand forty-two", or "Ninety-nine hundred ninety-nine." In British usage, this style is common for multiples of 100 between 1,000 and 2,000 (e.g. 1,500 as "fifteen hundred") but not for higher numbers.

Americans may pronounce four-digit numbers with non-zero tens and ones as pairs of two-digit numbers without saying "hundred" and inserting "oh" for zero tens: "twenty-six fifty-nine" or "forty-one oh five". This usage probably evolved from the distinctive usage for years; 'nineteen-eighty-one'. It is avoided

for numbers less than 2500 if the context may mean confusion with time of day: "ten ten" or "twelve oh four."

Intermediate numbers are read differently depending on their use. Their typical naming occurs when the numbers are used for counting. Another way is for when they are used as labels. The second column method is used much more often in American English than British English. The third column is used in British English, but rarely in American English (although the use of the second and third columns is not necessarily directly interchangeable between the two regional variants). In other words, the British dialect can seemingly adopt the American way of counting, but it is specific to the situation (in this example, bus numbers).

	Common British vernacular	Common American vernacular	Common British vernacular
	<i>"How many marbles do you have?"</i>	<i>"What is your house number?"</i>	<i>"Which bus goes to the high street?"</i>
101	"A hundred and one."	"One-oh-one." <i>Here, "oh" is used for the digit zero.</i>	"One-oh-one."

109	"A hundred and nine."	"One-oh-nine."	"One-oh-nine."
110	"A hundred and ten."	"One-ten."	"One-one-oh."
117	"A hundred and seventeen."	"One-seventeen."	"One-one-seven."
120	"A hundred and twenty."	"One-twenty."	"One-two-oh", "One-two-zero."

152	"A hundred and fifty-two."	"One-fifty-two."	"One-five-two."
208	"Two hundred and eight."	"Two-oh-eight."	"Two-oh-eight."
334	"Three hundred and thirty-four."	"Three-thirty-four."	"Three-three-four."

Note: When writing a cheque (or *check*), the number 100 is always written "one hundred". It is never "a hundred".

Note that in American English, many students are taught not to use the word **and** anywhere in the whole part of a number, so it is not used before the tens and ones. It is instead used as a verbal delimiter when dealing with compound numbers. Thus, instead of "three hundred and seventy-three", one would say "three hundred seventy-three". For details, see American and British English differences.

For numbers above a million, there are two different systems for naming numbers in English:

- The long scale (decreasingly used in British English) designates a system of numeric names in which a thousand million is called a “*milliard*” (but the latter usage is now rare), and “*billion*” is used for a million million.
- The short scale (always used in American English and increasingly in British English) designates a system of numeric names in which a thousand million is called a “*billion*”, and the word “*milliard*” is not used.

Number notation	Power notation	Short scale	Long scale
1,000,000	10^6	One million/ 'miljən/	one million/ 'miljən/
1,000,000,000	10^9	one billion/ 'biljən/ <i>a thousand million</i>	one milliard/'milja :d/ <i>a thousand million</i>
1,000,000,000,000	10^{12}	one trillion/ 'triliən/ <i>a thousand billion</i>	one billion/ 'biljən/ <i>a million million</i>
1,000,000,000,000,000	10^{15}	One quadrillion/kwɔ 'driliən/ <i>a thousand trillion</i>	one billiard/ 'biljədz/ <i>a thousand billion</i>
1,000,000,000,000,000,000	10^{18}	one quintillion/ kwɪn'tiliən/ <i>a thousand quadrillion</i>	one trillion <i>a million billion</i>

Although British English has traditionally followed the long-scale numbering system, the short-scale usage has become increasingly common in recent years. For example, the UK Government and BBC websites use the newer short-scale values exclusively.

Here are some approximate composite large numbers in American English:

Quantity	Written	Pronounced
1,200,000	1.2 million	one point two million
3,000,000	3 million	three million
250,000,000	250 million	two hundred fifty million
6,400,000,000	6.4 billion	six point four billion
23,380,000,000	23.38 billion	twenty-three point three eight billion

Often, large numbers are written with (preferably non-breaking) half-spaces or thin spaces separating the thousands (and, sometimes, with normal spaces or apostrophes) instead of commas—to ensure that confusion is not caused in countries where a decimal comma is used. Thus, a million is often written 100000000.

In some areas, a point (. or ·) may also be used as a thousands' separator, but then, the decimal separator must be a comma.

2.1.2. Ordinal numbers

Ordinal numbers refer to a position in a series. Common ordinals include:

0 th	zeroth or noughth	10th	tenth /tenθ/		
1 st	first /fə:st/	11th	eleventh /i'levnθ/		
2 nd	second/ 'sekənd/	12th	twelfth /twelfθ/ (note "f", not "v")	20th	twentieth /'twentiəθ/
3 rd	third /θə:d/	13th	thirteenth/θə:'ti:nθ/	30th	thirtieth /'θə:tiəθ/
4 th	fourth /'fɔ :θ/	14th	fourteenth /fɔ :'ti:nθ/	40th	fortieth /'fɔ :tiəθ/
5th	fifth /fifθ/	15th	fifteenth /fifti:nθ/	50th	fiftieth /'fiftiəθ/
6th	sixth /siksθ/	16th	sixteenth /siks'ti:nθ/	60th	sixtieth /'siksitiəθ/
7th	seventh /'sevnθ/	17th	seventeenth/'sevntiəθ/	70th	seventieth /'sevntiəθ/
8th	eighth /eitθ/ (only one "t")	18th	eighteenth/ ei'ti:nθ/	80th	eightieth /eitiəθ/
9th	ninth / nainθ/ (no "e")	19th	nineteenth/nain'ti:nθ/	90th	ninetieth /'naintiəθ/

Zeroth only has a meaning when counts start with zero, which happens in a mathematical or computer science context.

Ordinal numbers such as 21st, 33rd, etc., are formed by combining a *cardinal* ten with an *ordinal* unit.

21st	twenty-first
25th	twenty-fifth
32nd	thirty-second
58th	fifty-eighth
64th	sixty-fourth
79th	seventy-ninth
83rd	eighty-third
99th	ninety-ninth

Higher ordinals are not often written in words, unless they are round numbers (thousandth, millionth, billionth). They are written using digits and letters as described below. Here are some rules that should be borne in mind.

- The suffixes *-th*, *-st*, *-nd* and *-rd* are occasionally written superscript above the number itself.
- If the tens digit of a number is 1, then write "th" after the number. For example: 13th, 19th, 112th, 9,311th.
- If the tens digit is not equal to 1, then use the following table:

If the units digit is:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
write this after the number	th	st	nd	rd	th	th	th	th	th	th

- For example: 2nd, 7th, 20th, 23rd, 52nd, 135th, 301st.

These ordinal abbreviations are actually hybrid contractions of a numeral and a word. 1st is "1" + "st" from "first". Similarly, we use "nd" for "second" and "rd" for "third". In the legal field and in some older publications, the ordinal abbreviation for "second" and "third" is simply, "d"

- For example: 42d, 33d, 23d.

Any ordinal name that doesn't end in "first", "second", or "third", ends in "th".

2.1.3. Dates

There are a number of ways to read years. The following table offers a list of valid pronunciations and alternate pronunciations for any given year of the Gregorian calendar. The favorable pronunciation is determined by number of syllables.

<u>Year</u>	Most common pronunciation method	Alternative methods
1 BC	(The year) One BC	1 Before Christ (BC) 1 before the Common/Christian era (BCE)
1	(The year) One	Anno Domini (AD) 1 1 of the Common/Christian era (CE) In the year of Our Lord 1
235	Two thirty-five	Two-three-five Two hundred (and) thirty-five
911	Nine eleven	Nine-one-one Nine hundred (and) eleven
999	Nine ninety-nine	Nine-nine-nine Nine hundred (and) ninety-nine Triple nine
1000	One thousand	Ten hundred 1K Ten aught Ten oh
1004	Ten oh-four	One thousand (and) four
1010	Ten ten	One thousand (and) ten
1050	Ten fifty	One thousand (and) fifty

1225	Twelve twenty-five	One-two-two-five One thousand, two hundred (and) twenty-five Twelve-two-five
1900	Nineteen hundred	One thousand, nine hundred Nineteen aught Nineteen oh
1901	Nineteen oh-one	Nineteen hundred (and) one One thousand, nine hundred (and) one Nineteen aught one
1919	Nineteen nineteen	Nineteen hundred (and) nineteen One thousand, nine hundred (and) nineteen
1999	Nineteen ninety-nine	Nineteen hundred (and) ninety-nine One thousand, nine hundred (and) ninety-nine
2000	Two thousand	Twenty hundred Two triple-oh 2K Twenty aught Twenty oh
2001	Two thousand (and) one	Twenty oh-one Twenty hundred (and) one 2K1
2009	Two thousand (and) nine	Twenty oh-nine Twenty hundred (and) nine 2K9
2010	Twenty-ten	Two thousand (and) ten Twenty hundred (and) ten
2013	Twenty-thirteen	Two thousand (and) thirteen Twenty hundred (and) thirteen
2020	Twenty-twenty	Two thousand (and) twenty

		Twenty hundred (and) twenty
2025	Twenty twenty-five	Two thousand (and) twenty five Twenty hundred (and) twenty five
2099	Twenty ninety-nine	Two thousand (and) ninety-nine Twenty hundred (and) ninety-nine
2100	Twenty-one hundred	Two thousand, one hundred Twenty-one-oh Twenty-one-aught
2101	Twenty-one-oh-one	Two thousand, one hundred (and) one Twenty one hundred (and) one

Month	Abbreviation
January/'dʒænjuəri/	Jan
February /'februəri/	Feb
March/mɑ :tʃ/	Mar
April/'eɪprəl]	Apr
May/mei/	May
June/dʒu:n/	June
July/dʒu:'lai/	July
August /ɔ :'gʌ st/	Aug
September/sep'tembə/	Sep

October/ɒ k'təʊ bə(r)/	Oct
November/nou'vembə/	Nov
December/di'sembə/	Dec

Day in week	Abbreviation
Monday /'mʌ ndi/	Mon
Tuesday /'tju:zdi/	Tues
Wednesday /'wenzdi/	Wed
Thursday /'θə:zdi/	Thurs
Friday /'fraidi/	Fri
Saturday /'sætədi/	Sat
Sunday /'sʌ ndi/	Sun

Years are rarely read explicitly as ordinal numbers, as "[...] in the one thousand one hundred and ninety-seventh year of our Lord" (that is, 1197), even though ordinal numbers are implicit in traditional western calendrical systems. Also, years are numbered with cardinal numbers in astronomical usage, and in the Hindu and Mayan calendrical systems (see Year zero). Some Quaker communities refer to days of the week in ordinal fashion; in this usage "First Day" is Sunday, "Second Day" is Monday, etc.

- In British, European and International (covering most of the world) English, the day usually comes before the month and the ordinal suffix is always vocalised and often appended: "the 1st of October 1984". However, other usages are not exceptional; "October the First is too Late" is the name of a novel by the English astronomer Fred Hoyle. In writing, "*the*" and especially "*of*", while vocalised, are generally left out from the written date, particularly when the date stands alone, such as when writing

cheques: *1 October 1984*. The full form was common in older English, as can be seen in old English literature. The three main written forms are therefore:

- The 25th of January 2005 (old English extended form rarely used now in written form, but still fully used for all three forms in spoken English)
 - 25th January 2005 (omitting "the" and "of")
 - 25 January 2005 (omitting the ordinal suffix)
- In North American English, the day usually comes after the month and the ordinal suffix is rarely written, but optionally vocalized: "September 4, 1990" (read "September four(th), nineteen ninety"). The British form is still used for certain dates such as *the Fourth of July*.

Compare:

- Today is (the) 14th (of) March 2004. (British and international form, read "Today is *the fourteenth of* March, two thousand and four").
- We signed the documents on June 10, 1969. (North American form, read "...on June ten(th), nineteen sixty-nine").

The comma before the year is optional. It is usually used in American English (September 4, 2004) but now seldom used in British and International English (4 September 2004). In abbreviations of month names, such as "Aug" for August, the period or full stop is often left out. For an explanation of British, American and International usage for dates written in numbers, such as 14/03/2004 or 3/14/2004 or 2004-03-14, see calendar date.

2.1.4. Fractions and decimals

In spoken English, ordinal numbers are also used to quantify the denominator of a fraction. Thus 'fifth' can mean the element between fourth and sixth, or the fraction created by dividing the unit into five pieces. In this usage, the ordinal numbers can be pluralized: one seventh, two *sevenths*. The sole exception to this rule is division by two. The ordinal term 'second' can only refer to location in a series; for fractions English speakers use the term 'half' (plural 'halves').

Here are some common fractions (**partitive numerals**^[2]):

1/16	One-sixteenth
1/10 or 0.1	One-tenth
1/8	One-eighth
2/10 or 0.2	Two-tenths
1/4	One-quarter <i>or</i> one-fourth
3/10 or 0.3	Three-tenths
1/3	One-third
3/8	Three-eighths
4/10 or 0.4	Four-tenths
1/2	One- half

6/10 or 0.6	Six-tenths
5/8	Five-eighths
2/3	Two-thirds
7/10 or 0.7	Seven-tenths
3/4	Three-quarters <i>or</i> three-fourths
8/10 or 0.8	Eight-tenths
7/8	Seven-eighths
9/10 or 0.9	Nine-tenths
15/16	Fifteen-sixteenths

Alternatively, and for greater numbers, one may say for $1/2$ "one over two", for $5/8$ "five over eight", and so on. This "over" form is also widely used in mathematics. (This form is not common in British English.)

Numbers with a decimal point may be read as a cardinal number, then "and", then another cardinal number followed by an indication of the significance of the second cardinal number (not common in British English); or as a cardinal number, followed by "point", and then by the digits of the fractional part. The indication of significance takes the form of the denominator of the fraction indicating division by the smallest power of ten larger than the second cardinal. This is modified when the first cardinal is zero, in which case neither the zero nor the "and" is pronounced, but the zero is optional in the "point" form of the fraction.

- For example:
 - 0.002 is "two thousandths" (mainly U.S.); or "point zero zero two", "point oh oh two", "nought point zero zero two", etc.
 - 3.1416 is "three and one thousand four hundred sixteen ten-thousandths" (mainly U.S.); or "three point one four one six"
 - 99.3 is "ninety-nine and three tenths" (mainly U.S.); or "ninety-nine point three".

In English the decimal point was originally printed in the center of the line (0·002), but with the advent of the typewriter it was placed at the bottom of the line, so that a single key could be used as a full stop/period and as a decimal point. In many non-English languages a full-stop/period at the bottom of the line is used as a thousands separator with a comma being used as the decimal point.

- Fractions together with an integer are read as follows:
 - $1 \frac{1}{2}$ is "one and a half"
 - $6 \frac{1}{4}$ is "six and a quarter"
 - $7 \frac{5}{8}$ is "seven and five eighths"

A space is required between the whole number and the fraction; however, if a special fraction character is used like " $\frac{1}{2}$ ", then the space can be done without, e.g.

- $9 \frac{1}{2}$
- $9\frac{1}{2}$

2.1.5. Roman numeral

Roman numerals are a numeral system originating in ancient Rome, adapted from Etruscan numerals. The system used in classical antiquity was slightly modified in the Middle Ages to produce the system we use today. It is based on certain letters which are given values as numerals.

Roman numerals are commonly used today in numbered lists (in outline format), clockfaces, pages preceding the main body of a book, chord triads in music analysis, the numbering of movie publication dates, successive political leaders or children with identical names, and the numbering of some sport events, such as the Olympic Games or the Super Bowl.

Roman numerals are written as combinations of the seven letters in the table below. The letters can be written as capital (XVI) or lower-case letters (xvi).

Roman Numerals	
I = 1	C = 100
V = 5	D = 500
X = 10	M = 1000
L = 50	

You can use a roman numerals chart or conversion table to lookup roman numerals or you can easily learn how to calculate them yourself with a few simple rules.

If smaller numbers follow larger numbers, the numbers are added. If a smaller number precedes a larger number, the smaller number is subtracted from the larger. For example, if you want to say 1,100 in Roman Numerals, you would say M for 1000 and then put a C after it for 100; in other words 1,100=MC in Roman Numerals.

Some more examples:

- VIII = 5+3 = 8
- IX = 10-1 = 9
- XL = 50-10 = 40
- XC = 100-10 = 90
- MCMLXXXIV = 1000+(1000-100)+50+30+(5-1) = 1984

Roman Numeral Table							
1	I	14	XIV	27	XXVII	150	CL
2	II	15	XV	28	XXVIII	200	CC

3	III	16	XVI	29	XXIX	300	CCC
4	IV	17	XVII	30	XXX	400	CD
5	V	18	XVIII	31	XXXI	500	D
6	VI	19	XIX	40	XL	600	DC
7	VII	20	XX	50	L	700	DCC
8	VIII	21	XXI	60	LX	800	DCCC
9	IX	22	XXII	70	LXX	900	CM
10	X	23	XXIII	80	LXXX	1000	M
11	XI	24	XXIV	90	XC	1600	MDC
12	XII	25	XXV	100	C	1700	MDCC
13	XIII	26	XXVI	101	CI	1900	MCM

2.1.6. Specialised numbers

A few numbers have special names (in addition to their regular names):

- 0: has several other names, depending on context:
 - zero: formal scientific usage
 - naught/ nought: mostly British usage
 - aught: Mostly archaic but still occasionally used when a digit in mid-number is 0 (as in "thirty-aught-six", the .30-06 Springfield rifle cartridge and by association guns that fire it)
 - oh: used when spelling numbers (like telephone, bank account, bus line)

- nil: in general sport scores, British usage ("The score is two-nil.")
 - nothing: in general sport scores, American usage ("The score is two to nothing.")
 - null: used technically to refer to an object or idea related to nothingness, such as the null value in computer science which is technically very different from zero. The 0th aleph number (\aleph_0) is pronounced "aleph-null".
 - love: in tennis (origin disputed, often said to come from French l'œuf, "egg")
 - zilch, nada (from Spanish), zip: used informally when stressing nothingness; this is true especially in combination with one another ("You know nothing—zero, zip, nada, zilch!")
 - nix: also used as a verb
- 2:
 - couple
 - brace
 - pair
- 6: half a dozen
 - 12: a dozen (first power of the duodecimal base), used mostly in commerce
 - 13: a baker's dozen
 - 20: a score (first power of the vigesimal base), nowadays archaic; famously used in the opening of the Gettysburg Address: "Four score and seven years ago..." The Number of the Beast in the King James Bible is rendered "Six hundred threescore and six".
 - 50: half a century, literally half of a hundred, usually used in cricket scores.
 - 100: a century, also used in cricket scores.

- 120: a great hundred (twelve tens; as opposed to the small hundred, i.e. 100 or ten tens), also called small gross (ten dozens), both archaic; also sometimes referred to as duodecimal hundred
- 144: a gross (a dozen dozens, second power of the duodecimal base), used mostly in commerce
- 1728: a great gross (a dozen gross, third power of the duodecimal base), used mostly in commerce
- 10,000: a myriad (a hundred hundred), commonly used in the sense of an indefinite very high number
- 100,000: a lakh (a hundred thousand), loanword used mainly in Indian English
- 10,000,000: a crore (a hundred lakh), loanword used mainly in Indian English
- 10^{100} : googol (1 followed by 100 zeros), used in mathematics; not to be confused with the name of the company Google (which was originally a misspelling of googol)
- $10^{10^{100}}$: googolplex (1 followed by a googol of zeros)
- $10^{10^{10^{100}}}$: googolplexplex (1 followed by a googolplex of zeros)

Combinations of numbers in most sports scores are read as in the following examples:

- 1–0 British English: one nil; American English: one-nothing, or one-zero
- 0–0 British English: nil-nil, or nil all; American English: zero-zero or nothing-nothing, (occasionally scoreless or no score)
- 2–2 two-two (or two to two, or two all, or twos, or even at two, or two up.)

Naming conventions of Tennis scores (and related sports) work a lot differently to most other sports.

A few numbers have specialised multiplicative numerals expresses how many fold or how many times: once, twice, thrice.

2.1.7. Empty numbers

Colloquial English has a small vocabulary of empty numbers that can be employed when there is uncertainty as to the precise number to use, but it is desirable to define a general range: specifically, the terms "umpteenth", "umpty", and "zillion". These are derived etymologically from the range affixes:

- "-teen" (designating the range as being between 10 and 20)
- "-ty" (designating the range as being in one of the decades between 20 and 100)
- "-illion" (designating the range as being above 1,000,000; or, more generally, as being extremely large).

The prefix "ump-" is added to the first two suffixes to produce the empty numbers "umpteen" and "umpty": it is of uncertain origin. There is a noticeable absence of an empty number in the hundreds range.

Usage of empty numbers:

- The word "umpteen" may be used as an adjective, as in "I had to go to umpteen stores to find shoes that fit." It can also be used to modify a larger number, usually "million", as in "Umpteen million people watched the show; but they still cancelled it."
- "Umpty" is not in common usage. It can appear in the form "umpty-one" (paralleling the usage in such numbers as "twenty-one"), as in "There are umpty-one ways to do it wrong." "Umpty-ump" is also heard, though "ump" is never used by itself.
- The word "zillion" may be used as an adjective, modifying a noun. The noun phrase normally contains the indefinite article "a", as in "There must be a zillion sites on the World Wide Web."
- The plural "zillions" designates a number indefinitely larger than "millions" or "billions". In this case, the construction is parallel to the one for "millions" or "billions", with the number used as a plural count noun, followed by a prepositional phrase with "of", as in "Out in the countryside, the night sky is filled with zillions of stars."
- Empty numbers are sometimes made up, with obvious meaning: "squillions" is obviously an empty, but very large, number; a "squintillionth" would be a very small number.
- Some empty numbers may be modified by actual numbers, such as "four zillion", and are used for jest, exaggeration, or to relate abstractly to actual numbers.
- Empty numbers are colloquial, and primarily used in oral speech or informal contexts. They are inappropriate in formal or scholarly usage.

2.2. The major differences between numeral in English and Vietnamese.

2.21. Date

Date in Vietnamese is written and reading according to:

Day....month...year.....

Example: Ngày 30 tháng 6 năm 2009.

In general, dates in Spoken English according to:

British English

In British English the day is usually put before the month. If you wish, you can add the ending of the ordinal number. The preposition “*of*” before the month is

usually dropped. You can put a comma before the year, but this is not common anymore in British English. 🗨️

Example: 5(th) (of) October(,) 2004

American English

In American English the month is usually put before the day. If you wish, you can put the definite article before the day. It is common to write a comma before the year.

Example: October (the) 5(th), 2004

You can also write the date by using numbers only. The most common forms are:

Example: 5/10/04 or 5-10-04

The learners often mistake when read and write ordinal number in date

Example: 1st → one 3rd → three

2nd → two

They also mistake : twenty one → 21th (False)

21st (True)

Thirty third → 33 th (False)

33rd (True)

.....

2.2.2. Phone number

Each figure is said separately.

24 - two four

The figure 'O' is called *oh*.

105 -one oh five

Pause after groups of 3 or 4 figures (last group).

376 4705 - three seven six, four seven oh five

If two successive figures are the same, in British English you would usually use the word *double* (in American English you would just say the figure twice) or word *triple* :

376.4775: three seven six, four double seven five

3764775: three,seven six, four seven seven five

0171 222 3344:"Oh-one-seven-one, triple two, double three, double four."

In Vietnamese, phone numbers is paused after groups of 3 or 4 figures (last group).

2.2.3. Zero number in English

0 number: **has several other names, depending on context:**

- zero: formal scientific usage
- aught: Mostly archaic but still occasionally used when a digit in mid-number is 0 (as in "thirty-aught-six", *the .30-06 Springfield rifle cartridge and by association guns that fire it*)
- oh: used when spelling numbers (like telephone, bank account, bus line)

- nil: in general sport scores, British usage (*"The score is two-nil."*)
Combinations of numbers in most sports scores are read as in the following
- Examples: 1–0 British English: *one nil*; American English: *one-nothing*, or *one-zero* 0–0 British English: *nil-nil*, or *nil all*; American English: *zero-zero* or *nothing-nothing*, (occasionally *scoreless* or *no score*)
- nothing: in general sport scores, American usage (*"The score is two to nothing."*)
- null: used technically to refer to an object or idea related to nothingness, such as the null value in computer science which is technically very different from zero. The 0th aleph number (\aleph_0) is pronounced "aleph-null".
- love: in tennis (origin disputed, often said to come from French l'œuf, "egg")
- zilch, nada (from Spanish), zip: used informally when stressing nothingness; this is true especially in combination with one another (*"You know nothing—zero, zip, nada, zilch!"*)
- nix: also used as a verb
- “Nought”: is much more (old-fashioned) English and means the same thing.....0, and we still use it in classrooms when teaching children Maths, but it is less common nowadays than zero.
- In mathematic it is read: “naught” however, in mark of test, is “zero”

In Vietnamese, there is only one way to read 0 number.

2.2.4. Fraction

1/3 is read : one-third

So, How to read 3/8? How many students will read: third- eight

This answer is false: because the true answer is: third-eights

Therefore, if numerator is greater than 1, denominator always has “s”

Vietnamese doesn't display the plural of denominator as English by “s”. It's simple to read: “3 phần 8” or “3 trên 8”

3. Chapter 3: EXERCISE IN APPLICATION

Numbers often make learners trouble. However, if it was applied in small game, learners become interested in them .The following number exercises can be applied in lessons in primary, secondary, high school even in university .

Exercise 1: How to exchange cardinal number to roman number

- 1) 1948
- 2) 325
- 3) 1888
- 4) 2327
- 5) 1721
- 6) 837

7) 645

8) 1756

9) 1310

10) 1900

To do the exercise, need to remember Roman numeral table to exchange:

Roman Numeral Table							
1	I	14	XIV	27	XXVII	150	CL
2	II	15	XV	28	XXVIII	200	CC
3	III	16	XVI	29	XXIX	300	CCC
4	IV	17	XVII	30	XXX	400	CD
5	V	18	XVIII	31	XXXI	500	D
6	VI	19	XIX	40	XL	600	DC
7	VII	20	XX	50	L	700	DCC
8	VIII	21	XXI	60	LX	800	DCCC
9	IX	22	XXII	70	LXX	900	CM
10	X	23	XXIII	80	LXXX	1000	M
11	XI	24	XXIV	90	XC	1600	MDC
12	XII	25	XXV	100	C	1700	MDCC
13	XIII	26	XXVI	101	CI	1900	MCM

Therefore, the answer is:

1) 1948= MCMXLVIII

2) 325 CCCXXV

3) 1888= MDCCCLXXXVIII

4) 2327= MMCCCXXVII

5) 1721= MDCCXXI

6) 837= DCCCXXXVII

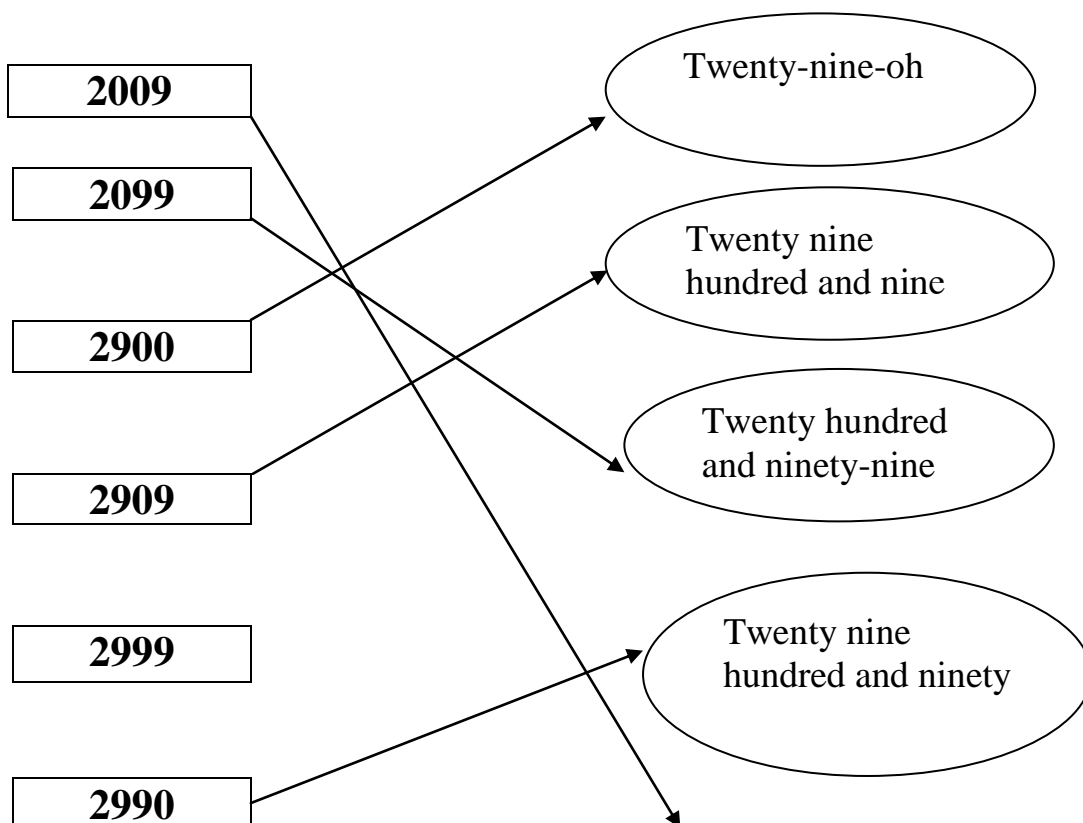
7) 645= DCXLV

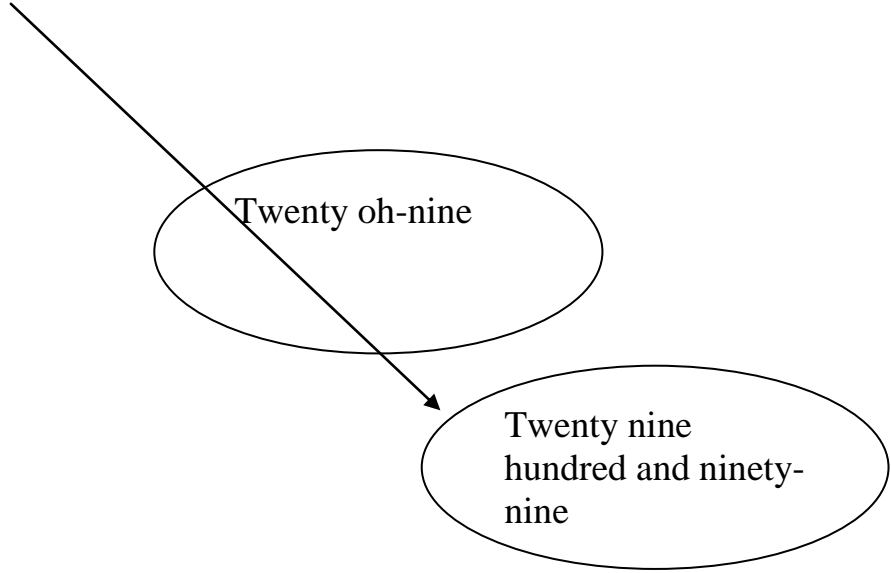
8) 1756 =MDCCLVI

9) 1310= MCCCX

10) 1900= MCM

Exercise 2: How to read





Exercise 3: Chose False and True:

$1/8$	One eight	T
	One eights	F
$3/8$	Three eights	T
	Three eight	F
$6 \frac{5}{8}$	Six and five eights	T
	Six and five eight	F

6 1/4	Six and quarter	T
	Six and quarters	F
8 th	Eighthth	F
	Eighth	T
9 th	Ninth	T
	Nineth	F
12 th	Twelve	F
	Twelfth	T
0.9	Nine-tenths	T
	Nine-tenth	F

Part C: Conclusion

1. Summary of study

With the help of the supervisor, teacher, friends, the research paper is finished at last. It can not be denied that English is one of the most widely used languages in the world. From my point of view ,we learn English to understand the masterpieces in English or simply just to understand each other when English is the most common means of communication both spoken and written .In this study ,to enable learners of English mastering English day by day and avoid mistakes, try to make graduation “reading and writing numeral in English” with hope that this research will help you learners of English some knowledge about writing and reading English numbers to avoid mistakes. Besides, I also indicate

some common errors in writing and reading numbers and some type of applied exercises.

The theoretical background about number was presented in chapter 1 to help learners have better awareness of the role of them in daily life. Knowing that reading and writing English numbers is considerable complex, I gave out all chapter B to analyze all types of numeral and the ways to translate into English and reading by transcription. Moreover, I display common differences between Vietnamese and English number to avoid mistake when translating from Vietnamese into English. Some types of applied exercises displayed in the chapter 3 can be applied in lesson at school to help students are more interested in numbers.

In short, to read and write English number exactly is not difficult. However it requires learner to spend more time to study about them during lesson at school as well as daily communication. I hope that readers will get benefit from my study to read and write English number exactly as well as have more interest in them.

2. Suggestion for further study

As I mentioned in the scope of the studying, due to the limitation of both of time and knowledge on doing this research paper, I only do some collection of type of numbers that often appears in daily communication, it has not yet concentrated to study specific field such as: chemical, physics.....it is only small part of Math. This is reason why I suggest that further exploration should be in to units at macro and specific level. This is both interesting and difficult to approach. I hope that I will have chances to study more about this and I will try my best to do so.

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- ✓ Lesson by **Edward B. Burger** Williams College Ph.D., The University of Texas at Austin.