Louis Alexander was born in London in 1932. He was educated at Godalming Grammar School and London University. He taught English in Germany (1954-56) and Greece (1956-65), where he was Head of the English Department of the Protypon Lykeion, Athens. He was adviser to the Deutscher Volkshochschulverband (1968-78) and contributed to the design of two important English examinations in German Adult Education. He was a member of the Council of Europe Committee on Modern Language Teaching (1973-78) and is one of the authors of *The Threshold Level* (1975) and *Waystage* (1977). These modern syllabuses are the basis of many communicative language courses. He is also one of the authors of *English Grammatical Structure* (1975), a basic syllabus for grading structures for teaching/learning purposes. In 1986-88 he was adviser to the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate for the Cambridge Certificate in English for International Communication.


He created the blueprint for the self-study series in modern languages, *Survive* (1980-83) and has published language courses in the field of computer-assisted language learning.

The *Longman English Grammar* is the culmination of more than thirty years' work in English as a foreign language.
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Acknowledgements

A grammar takes shape over a long period of time, evolving in version after version an author's ideas must be challenged repeatedly for the work to develop it is a process which does not end with publication, for, of course, a grammar can never be complete or completed.

I have been privileged to have the many versions of my manuscript read over a period of years by one of the foremost grammarians of our time, R.A. Close. His detailed comments have helped me to shape my ideas and realize my aims. I owe him a debt of gratitude that cannot be measured. I am equally indebted to my editorial and research assistant, Penelope Parfitt, for her invaluable commentaries and for the arduous compilation of lists.

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Only a comparison of the successive drafts of this work with the final text could reveal how great is my debt to these commentators - though they certainly will not agree with many of the decisions I have made. I take full responsibility for the book that has finally emerged and lay sole claim to its imperfections.

A grammar taxes the resources of a publisher as much as it strains the abilities of an author. I would like to thank my publishers for their faith and unstinted support while the work was in progress. Specifically, my thanks are due to my publisher, Michael Johnson, for his constructive advice and for the exercise of his formidable managerial skills. To Paul Price-Smith for designing the work with such zest and imagination, to Joy Marshall for her superlative editing and amazingly retentive memory, to Tina Saunders and Joy Cash for photocopying, collating and dispatching recurring mountains of paper, to Ken Moore of the computer department and Clive McKeough of the production department for resolving the innumerable technical problems involved in computer-setting from disks.

Constantly rather than finally, I depend on the patient support of my wife, Julia, who shared with me not only her own acute linguistic insights, but beyond that, the exhilaration and despair which such work inevitably brings.

L.G.A.
Introduction

Aims and level
Grammatical descriptions of English which are addressed to learners are often oversimplified and inaccurate. This is the inevitable result of lack of time in the classroom and lack of space in course books and practice books. Badly expressed and inaccurate rules, in turn, become enshrined in grammar books directed at teachers and students. The misrepresentation of English grammar gives a false view of the language, perpetuates inaccurate ‘rules’, and results in errors in communication. It is against this background that the Longman English Grammar has been written.

The primary aim of this book is to present a manageable coverage of grammar at intermediate and advanced levels, which will serve two purposes:

1. To present information which can be consulted for reference.
2. To suggest the range of structures that a student would need to be familiar with receptively and (to a lesser extent) productively to be able to communicate effectively.

In other words, the book aims to be a true pedagogical grammar for everyone concerned with English as a foreign language. It attempts to provide reasonable answers to reasonable questions about the workings of the language and to define what English as a Foreign Language is in terms of grammar.

Rationale
Many learners approach the study of English already in possession of a fair knowledge of the grammar of their own languages. They are the product of their own learning traditions, which have often equipped them with a ‘grammatical consciousness’. Native-speaking teachers of English gradually acquire the grammatical consciousness of their students through the experience of teaching, so that they, too, learn ‘English as a foreign language’. This book assumes the existence of such a consciousness. The grammar has been written, as it were, through the eyes of the user. It has been informed by the common errors made by learners and as a result has been written as precisely as possible for their requirements. This awareness of the learner will be apparent in the way the book has been organized and written, and in the use of technical terms.

Organization
Complex forms of organization, often found in modern grammars, have been avoided. Before they begin the study of English, many students are familiar with the idea of sentence formation and word order and the
idea of ‘parts of speech’ the use of nouns, verbs, prepositions, and so on And this is the pattern this grammar follows A glance at the Contents pages will give the user an overview of the way the book has been organized

The main chapters are followed by an Appendix, which contains useful lists (e.g., of phrasal verbs) that would otherwise clutter the text and make it unreadable Or they contain detailed notes on e.g., prepositions, dealing with such problems as the similarities and differences between *over* and *above*, which there is not normally room for in a grammar of this size

**Style**
Writing about language is difficult because the object of study (language) is also the medium through which it is discussed There has been a conscious avoidance of passive constructions so that the descriptions of how the English language works are as simple and direct as possible, given the complexity of the subject

The usual sequence in each section is to present *form* first, followed by *use* Paradigms, where they occur, are given in full, in traditional style, as this may be the way students have already encountered them in their own languages These are often followed by notes which focus on particular problems ‘Rules’ are descriptive, rather than prescriptive, and are written as simply and accurately as possible

**Technical terms**
The book defines common technical terms, such as *noun*, *verb*, etc. that are probably familiar to the user While it avoids complex terms, it does introduce (and define) terms which are necessary for an accurate description of what is happening The index uses the symbol D to refer to the user to the point where such terms are defined An intelligent discussion of English requires the use of terms like *determiner, stative verb, the causative, the zero article*, and so on If we avoid such terms, descriptions will be unnecessarily wordy, repetitive and/or inaccurate For example, to speak of ‘the omission of the article’ in e.g., ‘Life is difficult’ is a misrepresentation of what happens We actively use the zero article here, we do not ‘omit’ anything

**Retrieving information**
Page headings and numbered subsections indicate at every point what features of the language are being discussed Users can make their own connexions through the extensive cross-referencing system, or they can find what they want in the detailed index

**Ease of use**
Attempting to write a grammar that is up-to-date, accurate and readable is one thing, making a book out of the material is quite another Through careful presentation and design, we have tried to create a work that will be a pleasure to use We also hope that it will prove to be a reliable and indispensable companion to anyone interested in the English language
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<td>back</td>
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from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
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<td>BrE</td>
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<td>likely student error</td>
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1 The sentence

Sentence word order

1.1 Inflected and uninflected languages

Many modern European languages are inflected. Inflected languages usually have the following characteristics:

1. Nouns have endings which change depending on whether they are, for example, the subject or object of a verb.
2. There are complex agreements between articles, adjectives and nouns to emphasize the fact that a noun is, for example, subject or object, masculine or feminine, singular or plural. The more inflected a language is (for example, German or Greek), the more complex its system of endings ('inflexions').
3. Verbs 'conjugate', so that it is immediately obvious from the endings which 'person' (first, second, third) is referred to and whether the 'person' is singular or plural.

English was an inflected language up to the Middle Ages, but the modern language retains very few inflexions. Some survive, like the genitive case in e.g. lady's handbag where lady requires 's to show singular possession, or like the third person in the simple present tense (I work ~ He/She/It works) where the -s ending identifies the third person, or in the comparative and superlative forms of many adjectives (nice nicer nicest) There are only six words in the English language which have different subject and object forms: I/me he/him she/her we/us they/them and who/whom. This lack of inflexions in English tempts some people to observe (quite wrongly) that the language has 'hardly any grammar'. It would be more accurate to say that English no longer has a grammar like that of Latin or German, but it has certainly evolved a grammar of its own, as this book testifies.

In inflected languages we do not depend on the word order to understand which noun is the subject of a sentence and which is the object; the endings tell us immediately. In English, the order of words is essential to the meaning of a sentence. We have to distinguish carefully between the subject-group and the verb-group (or predicate). The predicate is what is said about the subject, i.e. it is all the words in a sentence except the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject group</th>
<th>verb group (predicate)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The dog</td>
<td>bit the man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The man</td>
<td>bit the dog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As these examples show, a change in word order brings with it a fundamental change in meaning, which would not be the case if the nouns had endings. This means that English is far less flexible in its word order than many inflected languages.
1 The sentence

1.2 The sentence: definitions of key terms

No discussion of the sentence is possible without an understanding of the terms finite verb, phrase, clause and sentence

**A finite verb** must normally have
- a subject (which may be 'hidden') e.g. He makes They arrived We know
  - Open the door (i.e. You open the door)
- a tense e.g. He has finished She will write They succeeded

So, for example, he writes she wrote and he has written are finite, but written, by itself, is not Made is finite if used in the past tense and if it has a subject (He made this for me), but it is not if it is used as a past participle without an auxiliary (made in Germany) The infinitive (e.g. to write) or the present and past participles (e.g. writing written) can never be finite Modal verbs (> Chapter 11) are also finite, even though they do not have tense forms like other verbs e.g. he must (wait) he may (arrive), as are imperatives e.g. Stand up! (> 9.51-56)

**A phrase** is a group of words which can be part of a sentence A phrase may take the form of
- a noun phrase e.g. a tube of toothpaste
- a prepositional (or adverbial) phrase e.g. over the bridge
- a verb phrase, e.g. a single verb-form built (in stone) or a combination of verbs e.g. will tell have done
- a question-word + infinitive e.g. what to do when to go

**A clause** is a group of words consisting of a subject + finite verb (+ complement [> 1.9] or object [> 1.4, 1.9] if necessary)

A sentence which contains one clause is called a **simple sentence**

Stephen apologized at once [> 1.7]

Or it may contain more than one clause, in which case it is either a **compound sentence [> 1.17]**

Stephen realized his mistake and (he) apologized at once

or a **complex sentence [> 1.21]**

When he realized his mistake Stephen apologized at once

**A sentence** can take any one of four forms
- a statement The shops close/don't close at 7 tonight
- a question Do the shops close at 7 tonight?
- a command Shut the door!
- an exclamation What a slow tram this is!

A sentence is a complete unit of meaning When we speak, our sentences may be extremely involved or even unfinished, yet we can still convey our meaning through intonation, gesture, facial expression, etc. When we write, these devices are not available, so sentences have to be carefully structured and punctuated A written sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop (.), a question mark (?) or an exclamation mark (!)

One-word or abbreviated utterances can also be complete units of
Sentence word order

meaning, particularly in speech or written dialogue e.g. All right? Good? Want any help? However, these are not real sentences because they do not contain a finite verb

1.3 Basic word order in an English sentence

Although variations are possible [> 1.6], the basic word order in a sentence that is not a question or a command is usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject group</th>
<th>verb group (predicate)</th>
<th>adverbials</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverbials</td>
<td>time [&gt;7.19.1]</td>
<td>manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>place [&gt; 7.22]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

/ bought a hat yesterday
The children ran home
The taxi driver shouted at me angrily
We ate our meal in silence
The car stopped suddenly
A young girl walked confidently across the room with long black hair

1.4 Word order: definitions of key terms

A subject is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase, it usually goes before the verb. The verb must 'agree' with the subject, so the subject dictates the form of the verb (e.g. / wait John waits I am you are I have the new edition has). This 'agreement' between subject and verb is often called concord. An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase, it usually goes after the verb in the active. It can become the subject of a verb in the passive [> 12.1-2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>predicate</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>active</td>
<td>They drove him away in a police car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>passive</td>
<td>He was driven away in a police car</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A sentence does not always require an object. It can just be:
- subject + verb We all laughed
- subject + verb + adverb We laughed loudly
Some verbs do not take an object [> 1.9-10]

1.5 Making the parts of a sentence longer

We can lengthen a subject or object by adding a clause or a phrase:
- lengthening the subject
  The man ran away
  The man who stole the money ran away
- lengthening the object
  I bought a raincoat
  I bought a raincoat with a warm lining
1 The sentence

1.6 Some common variations on the basic word order

We normally avoid separating a subject from its verb and a verb from its object [e.g. with an adverb > 1.3], though there are exceptions even to this basic rule [> 7.16]. However, note these common variations in the basic subject/verb/(object)/(adverbial) order

- questions [> Chapter 13]
  Did you take your car in for a service?
  When did you take your car in for a service?

- reporting verbs in direct speech [> 15.3n4]
  You’ve eaten the lot’ cried Frank

- certain conditional sentences [> 14.8, 14.18.3]
  Should you see him please give him my regards

- time references requiring special emphasis [> 7.22, 7.24]
  Last night we went to the cinema

- adverbs of manner/indefinite time [> 7.16.3, 7.24]
  Suddenly the whole building began to shake

- adverbs of indefinite frequency [> 7.40]
  We often played dangerous games when we were children

- adverb phrases [> 7.19.2, 7.59.2]
  Inside the parcel (there) was a letter
  and

- adverb particles (e.g. back) and here there [> 7.59.1]
  Back came the answer - no’
  Here/There is your coat Here/There it is.

- negative adverbs [> 7.59.3]
  Never in world history has there been such a conflict

- ‘fronting’
  Items in a sentence can be put at the front for special emphasis
  A fine mess you’ve made of this!

The simple sentence

1.7 The simple sentence

The smallest sentence-unit is the simple sentence. A simple sentence normally has one finite verb [but see 1.16]. It has a subject and a predicate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject group</th>
<th>verb group (predicate)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>ve eaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of our aircraft</td>
<td>is missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The old building opposite our school</td>
<td>is being pulled down</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.8 Five simple sentence patterns

There are five simple sentence patterns. Within each of the five groups there are different sub-patterns. The five patterns differ from each other according to what (if anything) follows the verb.

1 subject + verb

My head aches
The simple sentence

2 subject + verb + complement
Frank is clever/an architect

3 subject + verb + direct object
My sister enjoyed the play

4 subject + verb + indirect object + direct object
The firm gave Sam a watch

5 subject + verb + object + complement
They made Sam redundant/chairman

The examples listed above are reduced to a bare minimum To this minimum, we can add adjectives and adverbs
His old firm gave Sam a beautiful gold watch on his retirement

1.9 Sentence patterns: definitions of key terms

Any discussion of sentence patterns depends on a clear understanding of the terms subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, complement, transitive verb and intransitive verb

A direct object refers to the person or thing affected by the action of the verb. It comes immediately after a transitive verb.

Please don’t annoy me
Veronica threw the ball over the wall

An indirect object usually refers to the person who ‘benefits’ from the action expressed in the verb. Someone you give something to, or buy something for. It comes immediately after a verb.

Throw me the ball
Buy your father a present

A complement follows the verb be and verbs related to be, such as seem. It cannot be followed by an object. A complement (e.g. adjective, noun, pronoun) completes the sense of an utterance by telling us something about the subject. For example, the words following is tell us something about Frank.

Frank is clever Frank is an architect

A transitive verb is followed by an object. A simple test is to put Who(m)? or What? before the question-form of the verb. If we get an answer, the verb is transitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wh- question-form</th>
<th>object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I met Jim this morning</td>
<td>Who(m) did you meet?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m reading a book</td>
<td>What are you reading?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most transitive verbs can be used in the passive. Some transitive verbs consist of more than one part e.g. listen to (>) Apps 28-30, 32-33, 37)

An intransitive verb is not followed by an object and can never be used in the passive (>) App 1). Some intransitive verbs consist of more than one part e.g. touch down (>) App 36)

My head aches The plane touched down

Some verbs, like enjoy, can only be used transitively and must always be followed by an object, others, like ache, are always intransitive.
Verbs like open can be used transitively or intransitively [> App 1.3]
- verb + object (transitive) Someone opened the door
- verb without object (intransitive) The door opened

1.10 Pattern 1: subject + verb

My head + aches

Verbs used in this pattern are either always intransitive or verbs which can be transitive or intransitive, here used intransitively

1.10.1 Intransitive verbs [> App 1.2]
- Examples ache appear arrive come cough disappear fall go Quick The train’s arrived It’s arrived early
- verb + particle [> 7.3.4] He came in He sat down He stood up
- verb + adverbial phrase [> 7.3.3] A crowd of people came into the room

1.10.2 Verbs which are sometimes intransitive [> App 1.3]
Many verbs can be used transitively with an object (answering questions like What did you do?) and intransitively without an object (answering the question What happened?) break bum close drop fly hurt move open ring shake shut understand
- with an object I rang the bell I rang it repeatedly
- without an object The phone rang It rang repeatedly
Other examples
The fire burnt furiously Your essay reads well
Sometimes the object is implied
William smokes/eats/drinks too much

1.11 Pattern 2: subject + verb + complement

Frank is clever an architect

The verb in this pattern is always be or a verb related to be, such as appear become look seem sound and taste [> 10.23-26]

1.11.1 Subject + ‘be’ + complement
The complement may be
- an adjective Frank is clever
- a noun Frank is an architect
- an adjective + noun Frank is a clever architect
- a pronoun it’s mine
- an adverb of place or time The meeting is here/at 2.30
- a prepositional phrase Alice is like her father

1.12 Pattern 3: subject + verb + direct object

My sister answered the phone

Most verbs in the language can be used in this pattern [> App 1.1] The direct object may take a variety of forms, some of which are
- a noun [> 2.1] We parked the car in the car park
- a pronoun [> 4.1] We fetched her from the station
The simple sentence

- a reflexive pronoun \([> 4.24]\) We enjoyed ourselves at the party
- an infinitive \([> 16.13]\) I want to go home now
- an -ing form \([> 16.42]\) I enjoy sitting in the sun

1.12.1 Verb + object + 'to' or 'for' + noun or pronoun \([> 1.9.1, 13.2-3]\)

The following verbs can have a direct object followed by to + noun or pronoun, or (where the sense permits) for + noun or pronoun They do not take an indirect object admit announce confess confide declare demonstrate describe entrust explain introduce mention propose prove repeat report say state and suggest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>(to + noun or pronoun)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>introduced</td>
<td>his guests</td>
<td>to Jane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The noun or pronoun following to or for cannot be put after the verb, so we cannot say 'explain me this' as, for example, we can say give me this where the indirect object can immediately follow the verb \([> 1.13]\)

Gerald explained the situation to me (Not 'explained me')
He explained it to me (Not 'explained me')
Say it to me (Not 'say me')
I can't describe this Would you describe it for me please?

The passive is formed as follows [compare > 1.13.2]

The guests were introduced to Jane
The situation was explained to me

To + noun or pronoun normally precedes a that-clause or an indirect question when the object is very long

Catherine explained to me what the situation was

1.13 Pattern 4: subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

They gave him a watch

1.13.1 General information about Pattern 4 [compare > 12.3n4]

Verbs like bring buy and give can have two objects. The indirect object always follows the verb and usually refers to a person

The firm gave Sam a gold watch

Sam is an indirect object. However, the direct object can come after the verb if we wish to emphasize it. When this is the case, the indirect object is replaced by a prepositional phrase beginning with fo or for

The firm gave a watch with a beautiful inscription on it to Sam

They bought a beautiful gold watch for Sam

The indirect object does not have to be a person

I gave the car a wash

If the direct object is a pronoun (very often it or them) it normally comes immediately after the verb. The indirect object is replaced by a prepositional phrase

They gave it to Sam They gave it to him

However, if both direct and indirect objects are pronouns, some verbs such as bring buy fetch give hand pass send show and teach can be used as follows, particularly in everyday speech

Give me it Show me it

Give it me Show it me
Give me it is more common than Give it me. The pattern give it me does not often occur with verbs other than give. The use of the object pronoun them (Give them me) is very rare.

The verbs in Pattern 4 can fall into three categories.

1.13.2 Pattern 4: Category 1: verbs that can be followed by ‘to’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>indirect object</th>
<th>direct object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>showed</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>the photo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the passive, the subject can be the person to whom something is ‘given’ or the thing which is ‘given’, depending on emphasis.

The photo was shown to me.

Here is a selection of verbs that can be used in this way: bring, give, grant, hand, leave, lend, offer, owe, pass, pay, play, post, promise, read, recommend, sell, send, serve, show, sing, take, teach, tell, throw, and write.

1.13.3 Pattern 4: Category 2: verbs that can be followed by ‘for’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>indirect object</th>
<th>direct object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>a present</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These sentences can be put into the passive in two ways:

Jane was bought a present.

A present was bought for Jane.

Here is a selection of verbs that can be used in this pattern: normally only bring and buy can have a person as a subject in the passive. bring, build, buy, call, catch, change, choose, cook, cut, do, fetch, find, fix, get, keep, leave, make, order, prepare, reach, reserve, save, sing.

In Categories 1 and 2, to or for + noun or pronoun can be used when we wish to emphasize the person who benefits from the action or when the indirect object is longer than the direct object.

Barbara made a beautiful dress for her daughter.

He bought a gift for his niece who lives in Australia.

For can be ambiguous and its meaning depends on context. The emphasis can be on ‘the recipient’:

Mother cooked a lovely meal for me (= for my benefit)

or on the person acting on the recipient’s behalf:

I’ll cook the dinner for you (= on your behalf, instead of you).

For can be ambiguous when used after most of the verbs listed in 1.13.3, for can refer to the person acting on the recipient’s behalf when used after most of the verbs in 1.13.2.
The simple sentence

1.13.4 Pattern 4: Category 3: verbs that can be used without 'to' or 'for'

subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'll tell you the truth soon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The passive can be formed in two ways

You will be told the truth soon
The truth will be told to you soon

The direct object may often be omitted but is implied after ask bet forgive grant owe pay promise show teach tell write

I'll write you I bet you I grant you I'll promise you etc

1.14 Pattern 5: subject + verb + object + complement

Verbs used in this pattern are often in the passive Here is a selection of common ones appoint baptize call consider christen crown declare elect label make name proclaim pronounce vote

They appointed him chairman He was appointed chairman
They made Sam redundant Sam was made redundant

The complement is usually a noun, though after call consider declare make pronounce it can be an adjective or a noun

They called him foolish/a fool

Here are a few verbs that combine with an object + adjectival complement drive (me) crazy/mad/wild get (it) clean/dirty dry/wet open/shut find (it) difficult/easy hold (it) open/still keep (it) cool/fresh/shut leave (it) clean/dirty open/shut like (it) hot make (it) easy/plain/safe open (it) wide paint (it) brown/red prefer (it) fried pull (it) shut/tight push (it) open/want (it) raw wipe (it) clean/dry

Loud music drives me crazy I'm driven crazy by loud music

1.15 Joining two or more subjects

The subjects of two simple sentences can be joined to make one simple sentence with conjunctions like and but both and either or neither nor and not only but also Note the agreement between subject and verb in the following [compare > 5.31]

The boss is flying to Paris His secretary is flying to Paris
The boss and his secretary are flying to Paris

Both the boss and his secretary are flying to Paris

The boss is flying to Rome His secretary is not flying to Rome
The boss but not his secretary is flying to Rome

The boss may be flying to Berlin His secretary may be flying to Berlin (One of the two may be flying there)
Either the boss or his secretary is flying to Berlin

Either the boss or his secretary is flying to Berlin

The boss isn't flying to York His secretary isn't flying to York
Neither the boss nor his secretary is flying to York
1.16 Joining two or more objects, complements or verbs

The objects of two simple sentences may be joined to make one simple sentence with conjunctions such as and, both and:

I met Jane and I met her husband
I met both Jane and her husband
I didn't meet Jane I didn't meet her husband
I didn't meet either Jane or her husband
I met neither Jane nor her husband

Adjective complements can be joined in the same way:

It was cold It was wet
It was cold and wet
It wasn't cold It wasn't wet
It wasn't cold or wet It was neither cold nor wet

Two or more finite verbs can be joined to make a simple sentence:

We sang all night We danced all night
We sang and danced all night

The compound sentence

1.17 The compound sentence

We often need to join ideas. One way we can do this is to link simple sentences to form compound sentences. This linking is achieved by any of the following:
- a semi-colon:
  We fished all day, we didn't catch a thing
- a semi-colon, followed by a connecting adverb (> App 18):
  We fished all day, however, we didn't catch a thing
- a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g. and, but, so yet) often preceded by a comma:
  We fished all day but (we) didn't catch a thing

In a compound sentence, there is no single main clause with subordinate clauses depending on it (> 1.21): all the clauses are of equal importance and can stand on their own, though of course they follow a logical order as required by the context. We often refer to clauses in a compound sentence as co-ordinate main clauses.

1.18 Word order and co-ordinating conjunctions

The word order of the simple sentence is generally retained in the compound sentence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>conjunction</th>
<th>subject verb complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jimmy</td>
<td>fell off his bike, but (he) was unhurt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The co-ordinating conjunctions which can be used to form compound sentences are: and, and then, but, for nor, or so, yet, either or neither nor, not only but (also/as well/too). These can be used for
The compound sentence

the purposes of addition (and), contrast (but, yet), choice (or), reason (for), continuation (and then) and consequence or result (so). However, a single conjunction like and can serve a variety of purposes to express:

- **addition:** We were talking and laughing (= in addition to)
- **result:** He fell heavily and broke his arm (= so)
- **condition:** Weed the garden and I’ll pay you £5 (= If...then)
- **sequence:** He finished lunch and went shopping (= then)
- **contrast:** Tom’s 15 and still sucks his thumb (= despite this)

1.19 Joining sentence patterns to make compound sentences

The five simple sentence patterns [> 1.8] can be joined by means of co-ordinating conjunctions (P1 = Pattern 1, etc.):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>manner (P1)</th>
<th>+</th>
<th>(subject)</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>complement (P2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frank</td>
<td>worked hard</td>
<td>+ (he)</td>
<td>became</td>
<td>an architect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have got a cold</td>
<td>+ I</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>to bed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>chairman</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>didn’t increase</td>
<td>his salary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Her birthday</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>next Monday</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>must buy</td>
<td>her a present</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.20 The use of co-ordinating conjunctions

When the subject is the same in all parts of the sentence, it is usual not to repeat it. We do not usually put a comma in front of and, but we generally use one in front of other conjunctions:

1.20.1 **Addition/sequence:** ‘and’; ‘both...and’; ‘not only...but...(too/as well)’; ‘not only...but (also)’; ‘and then’

He washed the car and polished it
He washed the car and polished it
**He not only washed the car, but polished it (too/as well)**
He washed the car and then polished it

When the subjects are different, they must both be used:

You can wait here and I’ll get the car
Jim speaks Spanish, but his wife speaks French

1.20.2 **Contrast:** ‘but’; yet

He washed the car He didn’t polish it
He washed the car but didn’t polish it
She sold her house She can’t help regretting it
She sold her house, but/yet (she) can’t help regretting it

1.20.3 **Alternatives:** either...or...; ‘neither...nor...

He speaks French Or perhaps he understands it
He either speaks French, or understands it (I’m not sure which)
He doesn’t speak French He doesn’t understand it
He neither speaks French, nor understands it

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1.20.4 Result: 'so'  
He couldn't find his pen he wrote in pencil  
He couldn't find his pen so he wrote in pencil  
The subject is usually repeated after so

1.20.5 Cause: 'for'  
We rarely stay in hotels we can't afford it  
We rarely stay in hotels for we can't afford it  
Forges the reason for something that has already been stated Unlike because (> 1.48), it cannot begin a sentence The subject must be repeated after for This use of for is more usual in the written language

1.20.6 Linking simple sentences by commas, etc.  
More than two simple sentences can be joined by commas with only one conjunction which is used before the final clause The use of a comma before and is optional here  
I found a bucket put it in the smk() and turned the tap on  
I took off my coat searched all my pockets but couldn't find my key

Sometimes subject and verb can be omitted In such cases, a sentence is simple, not compound (> 1.15-16)  
The hotel was cheap but clean  
Does the price include breakfast only or dinner as well?  
A second question can be avoided by the use of or not  
Does the price include breakfast or not? (= or doesn't it?)

The complex sentence: introduction

1.21 The complex sentence  
Many sentences, especially in written language, are complex They can be formed by linking simple sentences together, but the elements in a complex sentence (unlike those of a compound sentence) are not of equal importance There is always one independent (or 'main') clause and one or more dependent (or 'subordinate') elements If removed from a sentence, a main clause can often stand on its own

Complex sentences can be formed in two ways  
1 by joining subordinate clauses to the main clause with conjunctions  
The alarm was raised (main clause) as soon as the fire was discovered (subordinate clause)  
If you're not good at figures (subordinate clause) it is pointless to apply for a job in a bank (main clause)

2 by using infinitive or participle constructions (> 1.57) These are non-finite and are phrases rather than clauses, but they form part of complex (not simple) sentences because they can be re-expressed as clauses which are subordinate to the main clause  
To get into university you have to pass a number of examinations  
(= If you want to get into university )  
Seeing the door open, the stranger entered the house  
(= When he saw the door open )
The complex sentence noun clauses

Many different constructions can be present in a complex sentence:
(a) Free trade agreements are always threatened (main clause)
(b) when individual countries protect their own markets
   (subordinate clause dependent on (a))
(c) by imposing duties on imported goods
   (participle construction dependent on (b))
(d) to encourage their own industries
   (infinitive construction dependent on (c))

The subject of the main clause must be replaced by a pronoun in a subordinate clause if a reference is made to it
The racing car went out of control before it hit the barrier
A pronoun can occur in a subordinate clause before the subject is mentioned This is not possible with co-ordinate clauses
When she got on the tram Mrs Tomkins realized she had made a dreadful mistake

Co-ordinate and subordinate clauses can combine in one sentence
The racing car went out of control and hit the barrier several times before it came to a stop on a grassy bank

The five simple sentence patterns [> 1.8] can be combined in an endless variety of ways Subordinate clauses can be classified under three headings
- noun clauses He told me that the match had been cancelled
- relative (or adjectival) clauses Holiday resorts which are very crowded are not very pleasant
- adverbial clauses However hard I try I can t remember people s names

The complex sentence: noun clauses

1.22 How to identify a noun clause

Compare
He told me about the cancellation of the match
He told me that the match had been cancelled
Cancellation is a noun, that the match had been cancelled is a clause (it has a finite verb) The clause is doing the same work as the noun, so it is called a noun clause Like any noun, a noun clause can be the subject or (far more usually) object of a verb, or the complement of the verb be or some of the verbs related to be, such as seem and appear
I know that the match will be cancelled (object)
That the match will be cancelled is now certain (subject of be)

1.23 Noun clauses derived from statements

Noun clauses derived from statements are usually that-clauses (sometimes what -clauses), though the conjunction that is often omitted
Look at the following statement
Money doesn t grow on trees
The sentence

By putting that in front of a statement, we turn it into a subordinate noun clause which can be joined to another clause. As such, it will do the same work as a noun and can be used as follows:

1.23.1 Noun clause as the subject of a verb

Money doesn't grow on trees. This should be obvious.

That money doesn't grow on trees should be obvious.

We tend to avoid this construction, preferring to begin with it, followed by be seem, etc.

It is obvious (that) money doesn't grow on trees.

Such clauses are not objects, but are 'in apposition' to the 'preparatory subject' it (> 4.13). That cannot be omitted at the beginning of a sentence, but can be left out after many adjectives (> App 44) and a few nouns such as (it's) a pity a shame.

1.23.2 Noun clause as the object of a verb

That is often omitted before a noun clause which is the object of a verb, especially in informal style.

Everybody knows (that) money doesn't grow on trees.

After many verbs (e.g., believe, know, think) the use of that is optional.

After some verbs (e.g., answer, imply) that is generally required. That is also usual after 'reporting verbs', such as assure, inform, which require an indirect object (> App 45.2). That is usually obligatory in longer sentences, especially when the if/after-clause is separated from the verb.

The dealer told me how much he was prepared to pay for my car and that I could have the money without delay.

A that-clause cannot follow a preposition.

He boasted about his success = He boasted that he was successful.

However, a preposition is not dropped before a noun clause that begins with a question-word (> 1.24.2).

He boasted about how successful he was.

1.23.3 Noun clauses after 'the fact that', etc.

By using expressions like the fact that and the idea that we can avoid the awkwardness of beginning a sentence with that.

The fact that his proposal makes sense should be recognized.

The idea that everyone should be required to vote by law is something I don't agree with.

His proposal makes sense. This should be recognized.

These expressions can be used after verbs such as to face.

We must face the fact that we might lose our deposit.

The fact that also follows prepositions and prepositional phrases (> App 20.3) like because of in view of on account of owing to due to in spite of despite and notwithstanding (formal).

His love of literature was due to the fact that his mother read poetry to him when he was a child.

In spite of/Despite the fact that hotel prices have risen sharply the number of tourists is as great as ever.
The complex sentence noun clauses

1.23.4 Noun clauses after adjectives describing feelings
Many adjectives describing personal feelings (e.g., afraid, glad, happy, pleased, sorry) or certainty (e.g., certain, sure) can be followed by that (optional) [> App 44]

I'm afraid (that) we've sold out of tickets

1.23.5 Transferred negatives after verbs of thinking and feeling
After verbs like believe, imagine, suppose, think, we can transfer the negative from the verb to the that-clause without really changing the meaning [compare 'contrasting negatives' > 16 14] So, for example, these pairs of sentences have almost the same meaning

I don't believe she'll arrive before 7
I believe she won't arrive before 7
I don't suppose you can help us
I suppose you can't help us

1.24 Noun clauses derived from questions
Noun clauses can be derived from Yes/No questions and question-word questions [> Chapter 13]

1.24.1 Noun clauses derived from Yes/No questions [> 15.17-18]
Here is a direct Yes/No question

Has he signed the contract?

By putting if or whether in front of it and by changing the word order to subject-predicate, we turn it into a subordinate noun-clause that can be used

- as a subject
  Whether he has signed the contract (or not) doesn't matter
  (If is not possible)
- as a complement after be
  The question is whether he has signed the contract
  (If is not possible)
- as an object after verbs, especially in indirect questions [> 15.18n5]
  I want to know whether/if he has signed the contract (or not)
- as an object after a preposition
  I'm concerned about whether he has signed the contract (or not)
  (If is not possible)

Whether is obligatory if the clause begins a sentence, it is obligatory after be and after prepositions. Either whether or if can be used after a verb and after a few adjectives used in the negative, such as not sure and not certain [> App 44] If there is doubt about the choice between whether and if as subordinating conjunctions, it is always safe to use whether. Note how or not can be used optionally, particularly with whether.

1.24.2 Noun clauses derived from question-word questions [> 15.19-23]
Here is a direct question-word question

How soon will we know the results?

Question-word questions (beginning with who(m) what which when
1 The sentence

*where why and how plus a change in word order* can function as noun clauses and can be used
- as a subject  *When he did it* is a mystery
- after be  *The question is when he did it* [> 16.24]
- after reporting verbs  *I wonder when he did it* [> 16.24]
- after *verb + preposition* or *adjective + preposition*  *It depends on when he did it*  *I'm interested in when he did it*

We can use *what* (not *that which*) instead of the *thing(s) that* to introduce a noun clause *What* may be considered to be a relative pronoun [> 1.27] here

**What matters most** is good health  (*i.e.* the thing that matters)

Compare the use of *What* as a question word (when it does not have the meaning 'the thing(s) that') in direct and indirect questions

*What* made him do it? I wonder *what* made him do it

### The complex sentence: relative pronouns and relative clauses

#### 1.25 How to identify a relative clause

**Compare**

Crowded holiday resorts are not very pleasant

*Holiday resorts which are crowded* are not very pleasant

The word *crowded* in the first sentence is an adjective which *are crowded* is a clause (*it has a finite verb are*) The clause is doing exactly the same work as the adjective it is describing the holiday resorts (or qualifying the noun *holiday resorts*) So we can call it an adjectival clause or (more usually) a relative clause because it relates to the noun, in this case by means of the word *which* Relative clauses (like adjectives) can describe persons things and events

#### 1.26 The use and omission of commas in relative clauses

There are two kinds of relative clauses in the written language
1. Relative clauses without commas (sometimes called *defining restrictive* or *identifying*) They provide essential information about the subject or object

*What kind of government would be popular?*

- *The government which promises to cut taxes*

2. Relative clauses with commas (sometimes called *non-defining non-restrictive* or *non-identifying*) They provide additional information which can be omitted

*The government which promises to cut taxes will be popular*

The inclusion or omission of commas may seriously affect the meaning of a sentence Compare

*The government which promises to cut taxes will be popular*  
*The government which promises to cut taxes will be popular*

The first sentence refers to *any* government which may come to power in the future The second is making a statement about the popularity of
The complex sentence relative pronouns and clauses

the government that is actually in power at the moment Whatever it
does this government will be popular Among other things it promises
to cut taxes Alternative punctuation, such as dashes, would further
emphasize the introduction of additional information

The government - which promises to cut taxes - will be popular
Or we could use brackets

The government (which promises to cut taxes) will be popular
In speech, a break in the intonation pattern indicates these markings
eg when reading aloud or delivering a news bulletin

Not all relative clauses need be rigidly classified as defining or
non-defining The inclusion or omission of commas may be at the
writer’s discretion when it does not result in a significant change in
meaning

He asked a lot of questions () which were none of his business ()
and generally managed to annoy everybody

1.27 Form of relative pronouns in relative clauses

Relative pronouns as subject:
People He is the man who (or that) lives next door
Things This is the photo which (or that) shows my house
Possession He is the man whose car was stolen

Relative pronouns as object:
People He is the man (who/whom/that) I met
People He is the man ( - ) I gave the money to
Things This is the photo (which/that) I took
Things This is the pan ( - ) I boiled the milk in
Possession It was an agreement the details of which could not
be altered

1.28 Relative pronouns relating to people

Relative pronouns which can be used with reference to people are
who whom and that and the possessive whose Don’t confuse the
relative pronoun that with the subordinating conjunction [> 1.23]

1.29 Relative pronoun subject of relative clause: people

Who and that can be used in place of noun subjects or subject
pronouns (I you he etc ) [> 4.3] When they refer to the subject they
cannot normally be omitted We never use a subject pronoun and a
relative pronoun together to refer to the subject Not “He is the man
who he lives next door” Who and that remain unchanged whether they
refer to masculine feminine, singular or plural

masculine He is the man who/that lives next door
feminine She is the woman who/that lives next door
plural masculine They are the men who/that live next door
plural feminine They are the women who/that live next door

We can use that in place of who, but we generally prefer who when the
reference is to a person or persons as subject of the verb
1 The sentence

1.29.1 Typical defining relative clause with 'who' as subject

Who or that is possible in the relative clause
A doctor examined the astronauts They returned from space today
A doctor examined the astronauts who returned from space today

1.29.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with 'who' as subject

Who must be used in non-defining clauses that is not possible
The astronauts are expected to land on the moon shortly They are reported to be very cheerful
The astronauts who are reported to be very cheerful are expected to land on the moon shortly

1.30 Relative pronouns relating to things and animals
Relative pronouns which can be used with reference to things and animals are which and that [but compare > 4.8]

1.31 Relative pronoun subject of relative clause: things/animals

Which and that can be used in place of noun subjects that refer to things or animals, or in place of the subject pronouns it or they. When which/that refer to the subject, they cannot normally be omitted. We never use a subject pronoun and a relative pronoun together to refer to the subject. Not * The cat which it caught the mouse Which and that remain unchanged whether they refer to the singular or the plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Relative Pronoun</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td>This is the photo which/that shows my house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This is the cat which/that caught the mouse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td>These are the photos which/that show my house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>These are the cats which/that caught the mouse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.31.1 Typical defining relative clause with 'which' as subject

Which or that are possible in the relative clause
The tiles fell off the roof They caused a lot of damage
The tiles which fell off the roof caused serious damage

1.31.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with 'which' as subject

Which must be used in non-defining clauses that is not possible
The Thames is now clean enough to swim in It was polluted for over a hundred years
The Thames which is now clean enough to swim in, was polluted for over a hundred years

1.32 'Whose' as the subject of a relative clause: people/things

Whose can be used in place of possessive adjectives (my your his her, etc ) [> 4.19] It remains unchanged whether it refers to masculine, feminine, singular or plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Relative Pronoun</th>
<th>Subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>masculine</td>
<td>He is the man whose car was stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feminine</td>
<td>She is the woman whose car was stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural masculine</td>
<td>They are the men whose cars were stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural feminine</td>
<td>They are the women whose cars were stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whose can replace the possessive adjective its
This is the house whose windows were broken
The complex sentence relative pronouns and clauses

However, this use of whose is often avoided by native speakers who regard whose as the genitive of the personal who. Instead of this sentence, a careful speaker might say

This is the house where the windows were broken

Where the context is formal, of which should be used, not whose

It was an agreement the details of which could not be altered
Or of which the details could not be altered

1.32.1 Typical defining relative clause with 'whose' as subject
The millionaire has made a public appeal. His son ran away from home a week ago
The millionaire whose son ran away from home a week ago has made a public appeal

1.32.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with 'whose' as subject
Sally Smiles has resigned as director. Her cosmetics company has been in the news a great deal recently
Sally Smiles whose cosmetics company has been in the news a great deal recently has resigned as director

1.33 Relative pronoun object of relative clause: people
Who(m) and that can be used in place of noun objects that refer to people, or in place of object pronouns (me you him, etc.) (> 4.3)
When they refer to an object, they are usually omitted, but only in defining clauses. When included, whom is commonly reduced to who in everyday speech. We never use an object pronoun and a relative pronoun together to refer to the object. Not "He is the man (that) I met him." Who(m) and that remain unchanged whether they refer to masculine, feminine, singular or plural

masculine
He is the man who(m)/that I met on holiday
He is the man I met on holiday

feminine
She is the woman who(m)/that I met on holiday
She is the woman I met on holiday

plural masculine
They are the men who(m)/that I met on holiday
They are the men I met on holiday

plural feminine
They are the women who(m)/that I met on holiday
They are the women I met on holiday

1.33.1 Typical defining relative clause with ('who(m)/that) as object
When the reference is to a person or persons as the object of the verb, we often use that. Alternatively, we omit the relative pronoun to avoid the choice between who and whom

That energetic man works for the EEC. We met him on holiday
That energetic man (who(m)/that) we met on holiday works for the EEC

1.33.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with 'who(m)' as object
Who(m) must be used in non-defining clauses that is not possible

The author of 'Rebels' proved to be a well known journalist. I met him at a party last week
The author of 'Rebels' who(m) I met at a party last week proved to be a well known journalist
1.34 Relative pronoun object of relative clause: things/animals

That and which, referring to things and animals, are interchangeable in the object position. However, both are commonly omitted, but only in defining clauses. We never use an object pronoun and a relative pronoun together to refer to the object: Not "This is the photo (which) I took it". That and which remain unchanged whether they refer to singular or plural:

**Singular:**
- This is the photo *that/which* I took
- This is the photo *that/which* I took
- This is the cat *that/which* I photographed
- This is the cat *that/which* I photographed

**Plural:**
- These are the photos *that/which* I took
- These are the photos *that/which* I took
- These are the cats *that/which* I photographed
- These are the cats *that/which* I photographed

1.34.1 Typical defining relative clause with 'that' or 'which' as object

The shed has begun to rot We built it in the garden last year

The shed *(that/which)* we built in the garden last year has begun to rot

1.34.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with 'which' as object

*Which* must be used in non-defining clauses; *that* is not possible:

The shed in our garden has lasted for a long time. My father built it many years ago

The shed in our garden, *(which)* my father built many years ago, has lasted for a long time

1.35 Relative pronoun object of a preposition: people

When we wish to refer to a person, only whom (not *that*) can be used directly after a preposition. In this position, whom cannot be omitted and cannot be reduced to who or be replaced by that. This use is formal and rare in everyday speech:

He is the man to *whom* I gave the money

The preposition can be moved to the end-position. If this happens, it is usual in speech to reduce whom to who; it is also possible to replace who(m) by that:

She is the woman *whom* *(or who, or that)* I gave the money to

However, the most usual practice in informal style, when the preposition is in the end-position, is to drop the relative pronoun altogether, but only in defining clauses:

They are the people I gave the money to

There’s hardly anybody he’s afraid of

1.35.1 Typical defining relative clause with a preposition

That person *is* the manager I complained *to him*

The person *to whom* I complained *is* the manager

The person *who(m)/that* I complained to *is* the manager

The person I complained to *is* the manager
1.35.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with a preposition
Who(m) must be used in non-defining clauses: that is not possible:
The hotel manager refunded part of our bill I complained to him about the service
The hotel manager, to whom I complained (or who(m) I complained to) about the service, refunded part of our bill

1.36 Relative pronoun object of a preposition: things/animals
When we wish to refer to things or animals, only which (not that) can be used directly after a preposition. When used in this way, which cannot be omitted. This use is formal and rare in speech:
This is the pan in which I boiled the milk

The preposition can be moved to the end-position. If this happens, it is possible to replace which by that:
This is the pan that (or which) I boiled the milk in

However, the relative is usually dropped altogether when the preposition is in the end-position, but only in defining clauses:
This is the pan I boiled the milk in
These are the cats I gave the milk to

1.36.1 Typical defining relative clause with a preposition
The agency is bankrupt We bought our tickets from it
The agency from which we bought our tickets is bankrupt
The agency which/that we bought our tickets from is bankrupt

1.36.2 Typical non-defining relative clause with a preposition
Which must be used in non-defining clauses; that is not possible:
The Acme Travel Agency has opened four new branches Our company has been dealing with it for several years.
The Acme Travel Agency, with which our company has been dealing (or which our company has been dealing with) for several years, has opened four new branches

1.37 'Whose' + noun with a preposition
Whose + noun can be used as the object of a preposition. The preposition may come before whose or at the end of the clause:
He is the man from whose house the pictures were stolen
He is the man whose house the pictures were stolen from

1.37.1 Typical defining relative clause using 'whose' with a preposition
In 1980 he caught a serious illness He still suffers from its effects
In 1980 he caught a serious illness from whose effects he still suffers (or the effects of which he still suffers from).

1.37.2 Typical non-defining relative clause using 'whose' with a preposition
Mr Jason Matthews died last night A valuable Rembrandt was given to the nation from his collection of pictures
Mr Jason Matthews, from whose collection of pictures a valuable Rembrandt was given to the nation, died last night
The sentence

1.38 Relative clauses of time, place and reason

Defining and non-defining relative clauses of time, place and reason are possible in which when, where and why are used in place of relative pronouns. They can also replace words like the time, the place and the reason. Though we can say the time when, the place where and the reason why, we cannot say 'the way how' [> 1.47.1]. Note that when follows only 'time' nouns, such as day, occasion, season; where follows only 'place' nouns, such as house place, town, village; why normally follows the noun reason.

1.38.1 Time defining: 1979 was the year (in which) my son was born 1979 was (the year) when my son was born
non-defining: The summer of 1969, the year (in which) men first set foot on the moon, will never be forgotten
The summer of 1969, (the year) when men first set foot on the moon, will never be forgotten.

1.38.2 Place defining: This is the place in which I grew up
This is the place which I grew up in
This is the place I grew up in
This is (the place) where I grew up
non-defining: The Tower of London, in which so many people lost their lives, is now a tourist attraction
The Tower of London, (the place) where so many people lost their lives, is now a tourist attraction

1.38.3 Reason defining: That's the reason (for which) he dislikes me
That's (the reason) why he dislikes me
non-defining: My success in business, (the reason) for which he dislikes me, has been due to hard work
My success in business, the reason why he dislikes me, has been due to hard work (The reason cannot be omitted before why.)

1.38.4 ('That') in place of 'when', 'where', 'why'
That is possible (but optional) in place of when, where and why but only in defining clauses:
I still remember the summer (that) we had the big drought ((That) can be replaced by when or during which.)
I don't know any place (that) you can get a better exchange rate ((That) can be replaced by where or at which.)
That wasn't the reason (that) he lied to you ((That) can be replaced by why or for which.)
For relatives after it [> 4.14].

1.39 Relative clauses abbreviated by 'apposition'

We can place two noun phrases side-by-side, separating the phrases by commas, so that the second adds information to the first. We can
The complex sentence relative pronouns and clauses

then say that the noun phrases are 'in apposition' [> 3.30]. This is more common in journalism than in speech. A relative clause can sometimes be replaced by a noun phrase in this way:

My neighbour Mr Watkins never misses the opportunity to tell me the latest news (defining, without commas)

Mr Watkins, a neighbour of mine, never misses the opportunity to tell me the latest news (non-defining, with commas)

(= Mr Watkins, who is a neighbour of mine, ...)

1.40 'That' after 'all', etc. and superlatives

That (Not 'which') is normally used after words like all any anything everything, a few and the only one when they do not refer to people.
Clauses of this kind are always defining:

All that remains for me to do is to say goodbye
Everything that can be done has been done
I'll do anything (that) I can

Who is used after all, any and a few when they refer to people:

God bless this ship and all who sail in her [> 5.24]

That is also common after superlatives. It is optional when it refers to the object [> 6.28.1]:

It's the silliest argument (that) I've ever heard
but not optional when it refers to the subject:

Bach's the greatest composer that's (or who's) ever lived.

1.41 'Of' + relative referring to number/quantity

Of can be used before whom and which in non-defining clauses to refer to number or quantity after numbers and words like the following: a few several some any many much (of which), the majority, most all none either/neither the largest/the smallest, the oldest/the youngest; a number half a quarter

Both players neither of whom reached the final, played well
The treasure some of which has been recovered has been sent to the British Museum

1.42 'Which' in place of a clause

Which can be used to refer to a whole clause, not just one word. In such cases, it can be replaced by and this or and that:

She married Joe which (= and this/that) surprised everyone

Which, in the sense of this or that, can also be used in expressions such as in which case at which point, on which occasion, which can refer back to a complete clause:

I may have to work late, in which case I'll telephone

The speaker paused to examine his notes, at which point a loud crash was heard

Which, in the sense of this or that, can replace a whole sentence and, in informal style, can even begin a sentence:

He was fined £500 Which we all thought served him right
1 The sentence

1.43 Reference in relative clauses
A relative clause follows the person or thing it refers to as closely as possible to avoid ambiguity. Compare:

- *I cut out the advertisement which you wanted in yesterday's paper* (an unambiguous reference to the advertisement)
- *I cut out the advertisement in yesterday's paper which you wanted* (which could refer either to the advertisement or the paper)

A sentence can contain more than one relative:

- *It's the only building (which) I've ever seen which is made entirely of glass* (The first which would normally be omitted)

The complex sentence: adverbial clauses

1.44 How to identify an adverbial clause

Compare:

- *I try hard, but I can never remember people's names*
- *However hard I try I can never remember people's names*

Hard is an adverb, however hard I try is an adverbial (or adverb) clause it is telling us something about (or 'modifying') can never remember. Adverbs can often be identified by asking and answering the questions *When? Where? How? Why?*, etc (> 7.2) and adverbial clauses can be identified in the same way:

- **time**  
  *Tell him as soon as he arrives* (When?)
- **place**  
  *You can sit where you like* (Where?)
- **manner**  
  *He spoke as if he meant business* (How?)
- **reason**  
  *He went to bed because he felt ill* (Why?)

1.45 Adverbial clauses of time

1.45.1 Conjunctions in adverbial clauses of time

These clauses broadly answer the question *When?* and can be introduced by the following conjunctions: *when* after *as* as long as as soon as *before* by the time (that) directly *immediately* the moment (that) *now* (that) *once* since until/till whenever, and *while*

- *We generally use a comma when the adverbial clause comes first*:
  - *You didn't look very well when you got up this morning*  
  - *After she got married Madeleine changed completely*  
  - *I pulled a muscle as I was lifting a heavy suitcase*  
  - *You can keep these records as long as you like* [compare as long as in conditional sentences > 14.21]  
  - *Once you've seen one penguin you've seen them all*  
  - *He hasn't stopped complaining since he got back from his holidays* [compare since in clauses of reason > 1.48]  
  - *We always have to wait till/ until the last customer has left*

1.45.2 Tenses in adverbial clauses of time: 'no future after temporals'

When the time clause refers to the future, we normally use the simple present after *as soon as* before *by the time* directly immediately
The complex sentence adverbial clauses

the moment till until and when where we might expect a simple future, or we use the present perfect where we might expect the future perfect These two tenses are often interchangeable after temporal conjunctions

The Owens will move to a new flat when their baby is born (or has been born)

The present perfect is often used after once and now that

Once (= when) we have decorated the house we can move in

Now that we have decorated the house (action completed) we can move in

1.45.3 Will' after when'

Though we do not normally use the future in time clauses will can be used after when in noun clauses [> 1.24.2]

The hotel receptionist wants to know when we will be checking out tomorrow morning

When meaning ‘and then’ can be followed by present or future

I shall be on holiday till the end of September when I return (or when I shall return) to London

1.46 Adverbial clauses of place

These clauses answer the question Where? and can be introduced by the conjunctions where wherever anywhere and everywhere

You can't camp where/wherever/anywhere you like these days

Anywhere everywhere and wherever (but not usually where) can begin a sentence, depending on the emphasis we wish to make

Everywhere Jenny goes she's mistaken for Princess Diana

Where generally refers to a definite but unspecified place [> 1.38]

The church was built where there had once been a Roman temple

Wherever anywhere and everywhere suggest ‘any place’

With a special tram ticket you can travel wherever/anywhere/ everywhere you like in Europe for just over £100

1.47 Adverbial clauses of manner

1.47.1 ‘As’ [> App 25.25] and ‘in the way that’

These clauses answer the question How? and can be introduced by the conjunction as Adverbial clauses of manner normally come after the main clause

Type this again as I showed you a moment ago (i.e. in the way I showed you)

This fish isn’t cooked as I like it (i.e. in the way I like it)

How and the way can be used colloquially in place of as

This steak is cooked just how/the way I like it

Clauses of manner can also express comparison when they are introduced by expressions like (in) the way (in) the way that the way in which (in) the same way (in) the same way as

She’s behaving (in) the same way her elder sister used to
1.47.2 ‘As if and as though’ after ‘be’, ‘seem’, etc.
Adverbial clauses of manner can also be introduced by the conjunctions *as if* and *as though* after the verbs *be* act appear behave feel look seem smell sound taste

*I feel as if/as though I’m floating on air*

Note also constructions with *it*

*It sounds as if/as though the situation will get worse*

*It feels as if/as though it’s going to rain* (i.e., I feel that this is going to happen)

As if as though can be used after any verbs describing behaviour

*Lillian was trembling as if/as though she had seen a ghost*

*She acted as if she were mad* [*11.75.1n2*]

1.48 Adverbial clauses of reason

1.48.1 Conjunctions in adverbial clauses of reason
These clauses broadly answer the question *Why?* and can be introduced by the following conjunctions *because* as seeing (that) and since

*As/Because/Since there was very little support the strike was not successful* [compare since in time clauses > 1.45.1]

*I’m afraid we don’t stock refills for pens like yours because there’s little demand for them*

1.48.2 The relative position of clauses of reason and main clauses
As a general rule, whatever we want to emphasize (reason or main clause) comes at the end

We often begin sentences with *as* or *since* because the reasons they refer to may be known to the person spoken to and therefore do not need to be emphasized

*As/Since you can’t type the letter yourself you’ll have to ask Susan to do it for you*

*Because* generally follows the main clause to emphasize a reason which is probably not known to the person spoken to [see for > 1.20.5]

*Jim’s trying to find a place of his own because he wants to feel independent*

*Because* can always be used in place of *as since* and for to give a reason or reasons, but these conjunctions cannot always be used in place of *because*

1.49 Adverbial clauses of condition [*chapter 14*]

These clauses can be introduced by conjunctions such as assuming (that) if on condition (that) provided (that) providing (that) so ‘as long as and unless

1.50 Adverbial clauses of concession
Adverbial clauses of concession introduce an element of contrast into a sentence and are sometimes called contrast clauses. They are introduced by the following conjunctions although considering (that) though even though even if much as while whereas however
The complex sentence adverbial clauses

much/badly/good etc no matter how, etc, no matter how much, etc
Even though is probably more usual than though/although in speech
Although/Though/Even though I felt sorry for him I was secretly pleased that he was having difficulties
We intend to go to India even if air fares go up again between now and the summer
Much as I'd like to help there isn't a lot I can do
While I disapprove of what you say I would defend to the death your right to say it

However combines with numerous adjectives and adverbs
However far it is I intend to drive there tonight
No matter can combine with question words (who when where, etc) to introduce clauses of concession
No matter where you go you can't escape from yourself
Compounds with -ever can introduce clauses of concession in the same way as No matter
Whatever I say I seem to say the wrong thing (No matter what )

We can use may in formal style in place of the present after all conjunctions introducing clauses of concession
However brilliant you are/may be you can't know everything
Whatever you think/may think I'm going ahead with my plans

As and though to mean 'regardless of the degree to which' can be used after some adjectives, adverbs and verbs to introduce clauses of concession in formal style
Unlikely as it sounds/may sound what I'm telling you is true (i.e. Though it sounds/may sound unlikely )
Beautiful though the necklace was we thought it was over-priced so we didn't buy it (i.e. Though the necklace was beautiful )
Try as he might he couldn't solve the problem (i.e. Though he tried he couldn't )

1.51 Adverbial clauses of purpose

1.51.1 Conjunctions in adverbial clauses of purpose
These clauses answer the questions What for? and For what purpose? and can be introduced by the following conjunctions so that in case lest and for fear (that)

So as to and in order to also convey the idea of purpose, but they are variations on the to-infinitive, not conjunctions They do not introduce a group of words containing a finite verb (> 1.21n2) Constructions with to so as to and in order to are much simpler than those with that and are generally preferred (> 16.12.1)

1.51.2 Sequence of verb forms in adverbial clauses of purpose
When the verb in the main clause is in the present, present perfect or future, so that and in order that can be followed by may can or will So that is more common than in order that
I've arrived early so that/in order that I may/can/will get a good view of the procession
The sentence

1. So that and in order that may also be followed by the present:
   Let us spend a few moments in silence so that/in order that we remember those who died to preserve our freedom
   When the verb in the main clause is in the simple past, the past progressive, or the past perfect, so that and in order that are followed by should could might or would:
   I arrived early so that/in order that I should/could/might/would get a good view of the procession

   Note the negative after so that and in order that:
   I arrived early so that/in order that I might not miss anything
   (Should not and would not would be possible, but not could not)
   Infinitive constructions with not to so as to and in order not to are more natural (> 16.12.1):
   I arrived early so as not to miss anything
   They must have worn gloves in order not to leave any fingerprints

1.51.3 'In case', 'lest' and 'for fear'

   Should might or the present must be used after in case when there is a future reference:
   We ve installed an extinguisher next to the cooker in case there is ever (there should/might ever be) a fire
   I'm taking a raincoat with me in case I need it.
   Should is optional after (the relatively rare) lest:
   We have a memorial service every year lest we (should) forget our debt to those who died in battle (i.e. so that/in order that we might not forget...)
   The subjunctive (> 11.75.1n2) could also be used after lest:
   I avoided mentioning the subject lest he be offended
   I asked them to ring first lest we were out
   For fear is usually followed by might, but the same idea can be expressed more easily with in case + past:
   I bought the car at once for fear (that) he might change his mind
   I bought the car at once in case he changed his mind

1.52 Adverbial clauses of result

1.52.1 Conjunctions and sequence of verb forms in clauses of result

   These clauses describe consequences. They can be introduced by that after so + adjective to answer, e.g. How (quick)? :
   His reactions are so quick (that) no one can match him
   and by that after so + adverb to answer, e.g. How (quickly)? :
   He reacts so quickly (that) no one can match him
   They can also be introduced by that after such (a) + noun (or adjective + noun) to answer questions like What s (he) like?:
   He is such a marvellous joker (that) you can't help laughing
   They are such wonderful players (that) no one can beat them
   When that is omitted informally, a comma is sometimes used:
   His reactions are so quick() no one can match him
   Such + obligatory that can be used in formal English as follows:
   His reactions are such that no one can match him
The complex sentence adverbial clauses

Result clauses with and without that can also be used after so + much many, few, little, etc.:

There was so much to lose (that) we couldn’t take any risks

They can also be used after such a lot of:

There was such a lot of rain (that) we couldn’t go out

So and such (heavily stressed in speech) can be used without that, so a that-clause may be strongly implied:

He was so angry (i.e. that there were consequences)
The children made such a mess! (i.e. that there were consequences)

In colloquial English that is sometimes heard in place of so:

It was that cold, (that) I could hardly get to sleep
The roads were that icy! (i.e. that there were consequences)

1.52.2 Clauses of purpose compared with clauses of result

In a purpose clause we can always replace so that by in order that which we cannot do in a result clause:

We arrived early so that (or in order that) we could/should/might/would get good seats (i.e. we arrived early for that purpose)
We arrived early so that we got good seats (i.e. we got good seats as a result of arriving early)

Or: We arrived so early that we got good seats

A further difference is that a result clause always follows the main clause, whereas a purpose clause can precede the main clause:

So that I shouldn’t worry he phoned me on arrival

In the spoken language there are differences in intonation between so that (purpose) and so that (result).

1.53 Adverbial clauses of comparison [compare > 4.7.3, 6.27.1]

These clauses often answer How? followed by or implying in relation to or compared with (How quick is he in relation to/compared with ?). They involve the use of as + adjective + as (as quick as), as + adverb + as (as quickly as) not so/as/...er than, more than, less than ‘the. the. When continuing with the same verb in the same tense, we can omit the second verb, so the clause of comparison is implied:

He is as quick in answering as his sister (is)
He answers as quickly as his sister (does)
He is not so/as quick in answering as his sister (is)
His sister is quicker than he (is)
He moves more slowly than his sister (does)

The more you practise the better you get

There are instances when we can drop both subject and verb:

When I spoke to him on the phone this morning, he was more agreeable than (he was) last night

Adverbial clauses of comparison can involve the use of as (or so) much + noun + as and as many + noun + as. Words like half, nearly and nothing like will often combine with as or so:

He didn’t sell half as/so many videos as he thought he would

Words like just, twice/ten times will combine only with as:

You’ve made just as (Not *so*) many mistakes as I have
1.54 Limiting clauses
A main clause can be qualified or limited by clauses introduced by in that in so far as and inasmuch as. The demonstration was fairly peaceful in that/in so far as there were only one or two clashes with the police. Inasmuch as can be used like in so far as but is formal and rare.

1.55 Abbreviated adverbial clauses
Most kinds of clauses can be abbreviated by deleting the subject and the verb be after the conjunction:

- time: While (she was) at college Delia wrote a novel
- place: Where (it is) necessary improvements will be made
- manner: He acted as if (he was) certain of success
- condition: If (it is) possible please let me know by this evening
- concession: Though (he was) exhausted he went to bed very late

Clauses of reason cannot be abbreviated in this way. However, they can often be replaced by participle constructions. Such constructions also have the effect of shortening clauses. [> 1.58]

The complex sentence: participle constructions

1.56 Form of participles [compare > 16.41]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>active</th>
<th>present</th>
<th>perfect</th>
<th>past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>finding</td>
<td>having found</td>
<td>having been found</td>
<td>found</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.57 Joining sentences with participles
Simple sentences can be combined into one sentence that contains a main clause + a participle or an infinitive construction. Participle constructions are generally more typical of formal style than of informal, though they can easily occur in both:

- simple sentences: He walked out of the room He slammed the door behind him
- compound sentence: He walked out of the room and slammed the door behind him
- participle construction: He walked out of the room slamming the door behind him
- simple sentences: You want to order a vehicle You have to pay a deposit
- complex sentence: if you want to order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit
- infinitive construction: To order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit
- participle construction: When ordering a vehicle you have to pay a deposit
Participle constructions can come before or after the main clause, depending on the emphasis we wish to make. 

- **Making sure** I had the right number I phoned again  
- Or ‘phoned again **making sure** I had the right number

More than one participle construction is possible in a sentence. 

- After **looking up** their number in the phone book and **making sure** I had got it right I phoned again

1.58 **Present participles in place of clauses**

1.58.1 **Participle constructions in place of co-ordinate clauses**

The co-ordinating conjunction **and** must be dropped.

- She lay awake all night **and recalled** the events of the day
- She lay awake all night **recalling** the events of the day

1.58.2 **Present participle constructions in place of clauses of time**

Present participles can be used after the time conjunctions **after**, **before**, **since**, **when**, **while**. They cannot be used after the conjunctions **as**, **as soon as**, **directly**, **until**, etc.

- Since I phoned you this morning I have changed my plans  
- Since phoning you this morning I have changed my plans

We cannot use this construction when **since = because** [> 1.48]

- On and **m** can be used to mean ‘when’ and ‘while’
  - **On finding** the front door open I became suspicious  
  - **In/While trying** to open the can I cut my hand

1.58.3 **Present participle constructions in place of clauses of reason**

- As I was anxious to please him I bought him a nice present  
- **Being** anxious to please him I bought him a nice present

1.58.4 **Present participle constructions in place of conditionals**

The present participle can be used after **if** and **unless**.

- If you are travelling north you must change at Leeds  
- If travelling north you must change at Leeds

- Unless you pay by credit card please pay in cash  
- Unless paying by credit card please pay in cash

1.58.5 **Present participles in place of clauses of concession**

The present participle can be used after the conjunctions **although**, **even though**, **though, and while**

- While he admitted that he had received the stolen jewellery he denied having taken part in the robbery  
- While admitting that he had received the stolen jewellery he denied having taken part in the robbery

1.58.6 **Present participle constructions in place of relative clauses**

The present participle can be used in place of defining [> 1.26] clauses in the simple present or present progressive after relative pronouns.

- **The train which is arriving** at Platform 8 is the 17 50 from Crewe  
- **The train arriving** at Platform 8 is the 17 50 from Crewe
1.59 Perfect participle constructions

Perfect participle constructions can be used in place of clauses in the present perfect and past perfect and the simple past. The action described in the perfect participle construction has always taken place before the action described in the main clause.

**active**  
We have invited him here to speak so we'd better go to his lecture  
Having invited him here to speak we'd better go to his lecture

**passive**  
I have been made redundant so I'm going abroad  
Having been made redundant I'm going abroad

1.60 Participle constructions with 'being' and 'having been'

The present participle form of be (being) can be used in place of the finite forms is/are/was/were, the perfect participle form (having been) can be used in place of the finite forms have been and had been.

These participle constructions are rare in everyday speech and only likely to occur in formal writing.

He is so ill he can't go back to work yet  
Being so ill he can't go back to work yet  
He was so ill he couldn't go back to work for a month  
Being so ill he couldn't go back to work for a month  
He has (or had) been ill for a very long time so he needs/needed more time to recover before he can/could go back to work  
Having been ill for a very long time he needs/needed more time to recover before he can/could go back to work

These forms occur in passive constructions [>12.2]

Participle constructions with it and there occur in formal style.

It being a bank holiday all the shops were shut (i.e., As it was)  
There being no further business I declare the meeting closed (As there is no further business, I declare the meeting closed)

Participle constructions are common after with/without [>App 25.36]

The crowds cheered The royal party drove to the palace  
With the crowds cheering the royal party drove to the palace

They debated for hours No decision was taken  
They debated for hours without a decision being taken

1.61 Avoiding ambiguity with present participle constructions

The participle must relate to the subject of both verbs.

Reading my newspaper, I heard the doorbell ring  
(= I was reading my newspaper and I heard the doorbell ring)

Now compare  
*Reading my newspaper, the doorbell rang*  
This sentence suggests that the doorbell is the subject and it was reading my newspaper Reading is here called an 'unrelated participle' and the sentence is unacceptable. However, this rule does not apply to a number of fixed phrases using 'unrelated participles', e.g., broadly/generally/strictly speaking considering judging supposing taking everything into account
The complex sentence participle constructions

*Strictly speaking, you* ought to sign the visitors book before entering the club (you are not strictly speaking)

*Judging from past performances* he is not likely to do very well in his exams (he is not judging)

When the participle construction follows the object it must be related to the object and then the sentence is acceptable

* I found him lying on the floor (= He was lying on the floor)*

### 1.62 Past participle constructions in place of clauses

Past participle constructions are more likely to occur in formal and literary style than in conversation

#### 1.62.1 Past participle constructions in place of the passive

The past participle can be used *without* any conjunction in front of it in place of the passive

* When it was viewed from a distance the island of Nepenthe looked like a cloud

* Viewed from a distance the island of Nepenthe looked like a cloud*

#### 1.62.2 Past participle constructions in place of adverbial clauses

The past participle can also be used *with* a conjunction in front of it to replace a passive

* Although it was built before the war the engine is still in perfect order

* Although built before the war the engine is still in perfect order

* If you are accepted for this post you will be informed by May 1st

* If accepted for this post you will be informed by May 1st

* Unless it is changed this law will make life difficult for farmers

* Unless changed this law will make life difficult for farmers*

After before since on and in cannot be followed directly by a past participle they require *being + past participle*

* After/When we were informed the flight would be delayed we made other arrangements

* After/On being informed the flight would be delayed we made other arrangements*

#### 1.62.3 Past participle constructions in place of relative clauses

Past participle constructions can be used in place of defining clauses

* The system which is used in this school is very successful

* The system used in this school is very successful* 

[> 1.26] deleting *which + be*

#### 1.63 Avoiding ambiguity with past participle constructions

Same subject, therefore acceptable [compare > 1.61]

* Seated in the presidential car, the President waved to the crowd

Unrelated, therefore unacceptable

* ‘Seated in the presidential car the crowd waved to the President ’* 

Past participle related to the object

* We preferred the house painted white

(Not ‘Painted white, we preferred ’)
One-word nouns

2.1 What a noun is and what it does

A noun tells us what someone or something is called. For example, a noun can be the name of a person (John), a job title (doctor) the name of a thing (radio), the name of a place (London), the name of a quality (courage), or the name of an action (laughter/laughing). Nouns are the names we give to people, things, places, etc. in order to identify them. Many nouns are used after a determiner, e.g., the this (> 3.1) and often combine with other words to form a noun phrase e.g., the man the man next door that tall building the old broom in the cupboard. Nouns and noun phrases answer the questions Who? or What? and may be

- the subject of a verb (> 1.4)
  Our agent in Cairo sent a telex this morning
- the direct object of a verb (> 1.9)
  Frank sent an urgent telex from Cairo this morning
- the indirect object of a verb (> 1.9)
  Frank sent his boss a telex
- the object of a preposition (> 8.1)
  I read about it in the paper
- the complement of be or a related verb like seem (> 1.9)
  Jane Forbes is our guest
- used ‘in apposition’ (> 1.39, 3.30)
  Laura Myers, a BBC reporter asked for an interview
- used when we speak directly to somebody
  Caroline shut that window will you please?

2.2 Noun endings

Some words function only as nouns (desk), others function as nouns or verbs (work), while others function as nouns or adjectives (cold). We cannot identify such words as nouns from their endings or suffixes. However, many nouns which are related to verbs or adjectives have characteristic endings. For example, -er, added to a verb like play, gives us the noun player. -ity, added to the adjective active, gives us the noun activity. There are no easy rules to tell us which endings to use to make nouns. A dictionary can provide this kind of information, but (> App 2)

2.3 Noun/verb contrasts

Some words can be either nouns or verbs. We can often tell the difference from the way they are stressed and pronounced.
Compound nouns

2.3.1 Nouns and verbs distinguished by stress

*eg*  *discount entrance export import object* [*> App 3.1*]

When the stress is on the first syllable, the word is a noun, when the stress is on the second syllable, it is a verb.
The meanings are generally related.

**noun**  *We have finished Book 1  We have made good *progress*  
**verb**  *We are now ready to *pro’gress* to Book 2  
but can be different

**noun**  *My son’s *conduct* at school hasn’t been very good  
**verb**  *Mahler used to *con’duct* the Vienna Philharmonic*

2.3.2 Nouns distinguished by pronunciation:

/s/ and /z/  *abuse*/*abuse* advice/*advise* house/*house* use/*use*  
/fl/ and /vl/  *belief*/*believe* proof/*prove* shelf/*shelf* shelve/*shelve*  
/ɵ/ and /ð/  *cloth*/*clothe* teeth/*teethe*  

Exceptions /s/ only in practice (noun)/*practise* (verb) and licence (noun)/*license* (verb)

And note words like associate/*graduate* and estimate/*estimate* where the pronunciation of the noun is different from that of the verb.

*I’m not a university *graduate* /ɡ्रɑːdʒət/ yet  
*I hope to *graduate* /ɡɾədʒət/ next summer*

2.3.3 Nouns and verbs with the same spelling and pronunciation

*eg*  *answer change dream end hope offer trouble* [*> App 3.2*]

Compound nouns

2.4 Compound nouns

Many nouns in English are formed from two parts (*classroom*) or, less commonly, three or more (*son-in-law stick in the mud*) Sometimes compounds are spelt with a hyphen, sometimes not [*> 2.11*] They are usually pronounced with the stress on the first syllable, but there are exceptions noted below

2.5 Single-word compound nouns

There are many words which we no longer think of as compounds at all, even though they are clearly made up of two words.

*eg*  *a ’cupboard* a ’raincoat* a ’saucepan* the ’seaside* a ’typewriter*

2.6 Nouns formed with adjective + noun

*eg*  *a ’greenhouse* a ’heavyweight* ’longhand* a ’redhead*

Note the difference in meaning when these words are rearranged as adjective + noun

a ’heavyweight*(= a boxer)*  
a ’heavy ‘weight*(= a weight that is heavy)*
2 Nouns

2.7 Nouns formed with gerund + noun
   e.g. ‘drinking water’ ‘frying pan’ ‘walking stick’ [> 2.11n3]
   The meaning is ‘something which is used for doing something’
   e.g. a ‘frying pan’ (hyphen optional, = a pan that is used for frying)
   Compare other ing + noun combinations which are not compound nouns and where the -ing form is a participle used as an adjective
   These combinations are not ‘fixed’, are not spelt with a hyphen, and are stressed in both parts ‘boiling water’ (= water that is boiling) [> 6.2, 6.3.1, 6.14, 16.38, 16.39.3]

2.8 Nouns formed with noun + gerund
   e.g. ‘horse-riding’ ‘sight seeing’ ‘sunbathing’ [> 2.11n.n]3
   Here the meaning is ‘the action of’ ‘horse-riding’ (= the action of riding a horse)

2.9 Nouns formed with adverb particles
   These compound nouns are combinations of verbs and adverb particles e.g. ‘breakdown’ ‘income’ ‘make up’ [> Apps 31.35]

2.10 Nouns formed with noun + noun
   When two nouns are used together to form a compound noun, the first noun (noun modifier) usually functions like an adjective and is nearly always in the singular. This is the largest category of compound nouns and it can be considered under several headings

2.10.1 Compound nouns in place of phrases with ‘of’
   e.g. a ‘car key’ a ‘chair leg’ a ‘door knob’ a ‘typewriter key’
   When we want to say that one (non-living) thing is part of another, we can use of the key of the car [> 2.47] However, this can sound rather emphatic so we often use a compound noun instead (e.g. a car key) for things which are closely associated.

2.10.2 Compound nouns which refer to place
   The first word refers to a place and the second word to something that is in that place. Both words are closely associated and are stressed but not hyphenated.
   e.g. the ‘bank’ ‘safe’ a ‘personal computer’ a ‘kitchen’ ‘sink’
   Also note place names ‘London’ ‘Airport’ ‘Moscow’ ‘Stadium,’ etc.

2.10.3 Compound nouns which refer to streets and roads
   Where the word ‘street’ occurs, the stress is on the first syllable e.g. ‘Baker Street’ ‘Oxford Street’ Where the word ‘road’ occurs, both parts are stressed e.g. ‘Canterbury Road’ ‘The Oxford Road’
   Compound place names are not hyphenated.

2.10.4 Compound nouns which tell us about purpose [compare > 2.7]
   e.g. a ‘bookcase’ a ‘can opener’ a ‘meeting point’ a ‘sheep dog’
   The second word suggests a use relating to the first (hyphen normally optional) A can opener is ‘a device for opening cans’
2.10-5 **Compound nouns which tell us about materials and substances**
e.g. a ‘cotton’ blouse, a ‘gold’ watch, a ‘plastic’ raincoat
The first word refers to a substance or material, the second to something made of that substance or material [> 6.13]

2.10-6 **Compound nouns which classify types**
e.g. a ‘horror’ film, a ‘headlamp’ a ‘seat belt’
The first word answers the question *What kind of?* These combinations can be extended to people and the things they do, as in a ‘bookseller’ a ‘factory worker’ a ‘taxi driver’. Note the difference between an ‘English’ teacher (i.e., one who teaches English) and an ‘English’ ‘teacher’ (i.e., one who is English). Other compounds refer to pieces of apparatus and what operates them, as in a ‘gas boiler’ a ‘pressure cooker’ a ‘vacuum cleaner’

2.10-7 **Compound nouns which refer to containers**
e.g. a ‘biscuit’ tin, a ‘coffee’ cup, a ‘teapot’ a ‘sugar bowl’
The second item is designed to contain the first [> 2.18.2]

2.10-8 **Compound nouns which relate to time**
A number of combinations relate specifically to the time at which an activity takes place or to its duration e.g. an ‘afternoon’ ‘tea’, ‘morning’ ‘coffee’, the ‘Sunday’ ‘lunch’, a ‘two-hour’ ‘walk’. Also note other nouns relating to time: an ‘evening’ ‘dress’, a ‘night’ ‘nurse’

2.10-9 **Compound nouns formed with ‘self’, ‘man’, ‘woman’ and ‘person’**
- *self-* (stress on some part of the second word)
e.g. self-consciousness, self-control, self-denial, self-respect
- *man/woman* (stress on first word)
e.g. an airman, a fireman, a gentleman/woman, a man-eater, a man-hour, a horseman/woman, a policeman, a woman, a workman
Some people replace man by person in a few nouns when the reference is to either sex: a chairperson, a salesperson [> 2.40.4]

2.10-10 **Proper nouns with two or more parts**
e.g. a ‘Ford’ car, an ‘IBM’ computer, ‘Longman’ Books, ‘Shell’ Oil, a ‘North Sea’ oil rig, an ‘the Tate’ Gallery Exhibition

2.11 **A note on hyphens**
There are no precise rules, so the following are brief guidelines:

1. When two short nouns are joined together, they form one word without a hyphen (a teacup). We do not join two short nouns if this leads to problems of recognition: bus stop (Not “busstop”).

2. Hyphens are often used for verb + particle combinations (make up) [> App 31.35] and self combinations (self-respect).

3. When a compound is accepted as a single word (e.g., it has an entry in a dictionary), the tendency is to write it as one word (sunbathing). In other cases, the use of the hyphen is at the discretion of the writer (writing paper or writing paper), but the tendency is to avoid hyphens where possible.
2 Nouns

Countable and uncountable nouns

2.12 Types of nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>proper</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>countable noun</td>
<td>a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>common</td>
<td>an idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncountable</td>
<td>courage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concrete</td>
<td>clothing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

abstract

2.13 Proper nouns and common nouns

All nouns fall into one of two classes: They may be either proper nouns or common nouns.

2.13.1 Proper nouns

A proper noun (sometimes called a ‘proper name’) is used for a particular person, place, thing or idea which is, or is imagined to be unique. It is generally spelt with a capital letter. Articles are not normally used in front of proper nouns, but > 3.9.4 3.31. Proper nouns include, for example:

- Personal names (with or without titles) Andrew Andrew Smith, Mr Andrew Smith, President Kennedy
- Forms of address: Mum, Dad, Auntie, Uncle Fred
- Geographical names: Asia, Berkshire, India, Wisconsin
- Place names: Madison Avenue, Regent Street
- Months, days of the week, festivals, and seasons: April, Monday, Easter, Christmas, spring, or Spring.
- For other names > 3.22, 3.27, 3.31.

First names commonly used in other languages often have their English equivalents (e.g., Charles for Carlos, Karl, etc.). Well-known foreign place names are normally anglicized, e.g., Cologne for Koln, Prague for Praha, Rome for Roma, Vienna for Wien.

2.13.2 Common nouns

Any noun that is not the name of a particular person, place, thing or idea is a common noun. We can use a/an the or the zero article in front of common nouns > Chapter 3.

2.14 How to identify countable and uncountable nouns

All common nouns fall into one of two sub-classes: they may be either countable nouns (sometimes known as unit or count nouns) or uncountable nouns (sometimes known as mass or non-count nouns). The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is
fundamental in English, for only by distinguishing between the two can we understand when to use singular or plural forms and when to use the indefinite, definite and zero articles a/an the and 0 [> 3.2-3] or the appropriate quantifier a few much many, etc [> 3.1,5.1]

Unfortunately, we cannot always rely on common sense (using the idea of counting as a guide) to tell us when a noun is countable or uncountable. For example, the noun information is uncountable in English, but its equivalent in another language may refer to an item or items of information and will therefore be countable [> 2.17]

*Experience* is uncountable, but we can refer to an experience to mean an event which contributes to experience

They want someone with experience for this job
I had a strange experience the other day

Many nouns which are normally uncountable can be used as countables in certain contexts [> 2.16.3] This suggests that strict classifications of nouns as countable or uncountable are in many cases unreliable. It would be better to think in terms of countable and uncountable uses of nouns. For detailed information about individual nouns, consult a good dictionary

2.14.1 Countable nouns
If a noun is countable
- we can use a/an in front of it: a book an envelope
- it has a plural and can be used in the question How many?
  * How many stamps/envelopes? - Four stamps/envelopes
- we can use numbers: one stamp two stamps

2.14.2 Uncountable nouns
If a noun is uncountable
- we do not normally use a/an in front of it: Sugar is expensive
- it does not normally have a plural and it can be used in the question How much?
  * How much meat/oil? - A lot of meat A little oil
- we cannot normally use a number (one two) in front of it

2.15 Concrete and abstract nouns
Many countable nouns are concrete (having an individual physical existence). For example:

Persons, animals, plants
  a girl a horse a geranium

Groups
  an army a crowd a herd

Units of measurement
  a franc a kilo a litre a metre

Parts of a mass
  a bit a packet a piece a slice

Concrete uncountable nouns (sometimes having physical but not "individual" existence) include words like:

Materials, liquids, gases
  cotton milk air

'Grains' and 'powder'
  barley rice dust flour

Activities
  camping drinking eating sailing

Languages
  Arabic Italian Japanese Turkish
2 Nouns

A few countable nouns are abstract: e.g. a hope, an idea a nuisance a remark a situation. A number of abstract nouns can be used only as countables: e.g. a denial a proposal a scheme a statement Many uncountable nouns are abstract: e.g. anger, equality, honesty

2.16 Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable

Some nouns may be countable or uncountable depending on their use.

2.16.1 Nouns we can think of as 'single items' or 'substances'
e.g. a chicken/chicken an egg/egg a ribbon/ribbon

When we use these as countables, we refer to them as single items; when we use them as uncountables, we refer to them as substances.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>countable (a single item)</th>
<th>uncountable (substance/material)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He ate a whole chicken!</td>
<td>Would you like some chicken?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had a boiled egg for breakfast</td>
<td>There’s egg on your face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I tied it up with a ribbon</td>
<td>I bought a metre of ribbon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.16.2 Nouns which refer to objects or material

e.g. a glass/glass an ice/ice, an iron/iron, a paper/paper

When we use such nouns as countables, we refer to e.g. a thing which is made of the material or which we think of as being made of the material; when we use them as uncountables, we refer only to the material.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>countable ('thing')</th>
<th>uncountable ('material')</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I broke a glass this morning</td>
<td>Glass is made from sand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you like an ice?</td>
<td>Ice floats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve got a new iron</td>
<td>Steel is an alloy of iron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do the papers say?</td>
<td>Paper is made from wood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.16.3 Normally uncountable nouns used as countables

Many nouns which are normally uncountable can be used as countables if we refer to particular varieties. When this occurs, the noun is often preceded by an adjective (a nice wine) or there is some kind of specification (a wine of high quality);

This region produces an excellent wine (i.e. a kind of wine which. .) Kalamata produces some of the best olive oil in the world, it’s an oil of very high quality (i.e. a kind of oil which...)
The North Sea produces a light oil which is highly prized in the oil industry

Normally uncountable nouns used exceptionally as countables can also occur in the plural:

This region produces some awful wines as well as good ones I go out in all weathers

Note also many words for drinks, which are uncountable when we think of them as substances:

Beer/coffee/tea is expensive these days
Countable and uncountable nouns

However, we can sometimes use a/an to mean e.g. a glass of, etc. [>] 2.18] or numbers in front of these words, or we can make them plural, for example when we are ordering in a restaurant:

A (or One) beer please Two teas and four coffees, please

2.16.4 Nouns which can refer to something specific or general

E.g. an education/education, a light/light, a noise/noise

As countables, these nouns refer to something specific (He has had a good education I need a light by my bed). As uncountables, the reference is general (Standards of education are falling Light travels faster than sound).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>countable (&quot;specific&quot;)</th>
<th>uncountable (&quot;general&quot;)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A good education is expensive</td>
<td>Education should be free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try not to make a noise</td>
<td>Noise is a kind of pollution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some countable nouns like this can be plural (a light/lights, a noise/noises). Other nouns (education knowledge) cannot be plural; as countables they often have some kind of qualification (a classical education, a good knowledge of English).

2.16.5 Nouns ending in ‘-ing’

E.g. a drawing/drawing, a painting/painting, a reading/reading

-ing forms are generally uncountable [>] 16.39.1, but a few can refer to a specific thing or event.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>countable (&quot;specific&quot;)</th>
<th>uncountable (&quot;general&quot;)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are these drawings by Goya?</td>
<td>I'm no good at drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has a painting by Hockney</td>
<td>Painting is my hobby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She gave a reading of her poems.</td>
<td>Reading is taught early</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A few -ing forms (a thrashing, a wedding) are only countable.

2.16.6 Selected uncountable nouns and their countable equivalents

Some uncountables cannot be used as countables to refer to a single item or example. A quite different word must be used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>uncountable</th>
<th>equivalent countable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>a loaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothing</td>
<td>a garment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laughter</td>
<td>a laugh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luggage</td>
<td>a case, a bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poetry</td>
<td>a poem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td>a coin, a note</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work [but &gt; 2.31, 2.33]</td>
<td>a job</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns for animals are countable; nouns for meat are uncountable:

a cow/beef a deer/venison a pig/pork, a sheep/mutton

2.17 Nouns not normally countable in English

A number of nouns which are countable in other languages (and are therefore used in the singular and plural in those languages) are
2 Nouns

usually uncountable in English (and therefore not normally used with a/an or in the plural). A few common examples are: baggage, furniture, information, macaroni, machinery, spaghetti [> App 4]:

We bought (some) **new furniture** for our living room recently.
I'd like **some information** please.

2.18 Partitives: nouns which refer to part of a whole

We can refer to a single item (a loaf of bread), a part of a whole (a slice of bread) or a collection of items (a packet of biscuits) by means of **partitives**. Partitives are useful when we want to refer to specific pieces of an **uncountable** substance, or to a limited number of **countable** items. They can be singular (a piece of paper; a box of matches) or plural (two pieces of paper; two boxes of matches) and are followed by of when used before a noun. The most useful are:

2.18.1 General partitives

Words such as piece and (less formal) bit can be used with a large number of uncountables (concrete or abstract):

**singular**: a piece of/bit of chalk/cloth/information/meat/plastic

**plural**: pieces of/bits of chalk/cloth/information/meat/plastic.

2.18.2 Specific partitives

Here is a brief summary, but [> App 5] for more examples:

Single items or amounts:

- a ball of string, a bar of chocolate, a cube of ice,
- a lump of sugar; a sheet of paper, a slice of bread

A few of these can be re-expressed as compounds:

- e.g. a sugar lump, ice cubes

'Containers' used as partitives:
- a bag of flour; a box of matches, a cup of coffee; a jar of jam,
- a packet of biscuits, a pot of tea; a tube of toothpaste

Most of these can be re-expressed as compounds: e.g. a jam-jar, a matchbox, a teapot, to describe the container itself. Thus a teapot describes the container (which may be full or empty), while a pot of tea describes a pot with tea in it [> 2.10.7].

Small quantities:

- a drop of water, a pinch of salt

Measures:

- a kilo of sugar, a metre of cloth

'a game of:

- a game of football

Abstract concepts:

- a period of calm, a spell of work

Types and species:

- a make of car, a sort of cake

'a pair of:

- a pair of gloves, a pair of jeans [> App 5.8]

2.19 Collective nouns followed by 'of

These describe groups (or 'collections') of people or things:

People: an army of soldiers a board of directors

Animals, birds, insects: a flock of birds/sheep, a swarm of bees

Plants and fruit: a bunch of flowers; a crop of apples

Things: a set of cutlery, a suit of clothes

For more examples [> App 6]. For other collective nouns [> 2.28].
Number (singular and plural)

2.20 Singular and plural forms of nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regular spelling</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-s after most nouns:</td>
<td>cat</td>
<td>cats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tub</td>
<td>tubs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-es after nouns ending in -o</td>
<td>potato</td>
<td>potatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c:</td>
<td>class</td>
<td>classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-x:</td>
<td>box</td>
<td>boxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ch:</td>
<td>watch</td>
<td>watches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sh:</td>
<td>bush</td>
<td>bushes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consonant + -y becomes -ies:</td>
<td>country</td>
<td>countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that vowel + -y adds -s:
- ay: day | days
- ey: key | keys
- oy: boy | boys
- uy: guy | guys

Proper nouns ending in -y add -s in the plural:
- Fry: the Frys
- Kennedy: the Kennedys

Irregular spelling

Some endings in -f/-fe take -ves.
- wife | wives

Internal vowel change
- en: ox | oxen

No change:
- sheep | sheep

Foreign plurals, e.g.
- analysis | analyses

2.21 Pronunciation of nouns with regular plurals

The rules for pronunciation are the same as those for the 3rd person simple present of regular verbs.

- /s/ after
  - ch / chiefs, coughs, proofs
  - k / cakes, forks, proofs
  - p / drops, taps, tapes
  - t / pets, pockets, skirts

- /z/ after
  - /θ/ depths, months, myths
  - /ð/ tubs, tubes, verbs
  - /d/ friends, hands, roads
  - /g/ bags, dogs, legs
  - /l/ bells, tables, walls
  - /m/ arms, dreams, names
  - /n/ lessons, pens, spoons
  - /ŋ/ songs, stings, tongues

Vowel + /r/: chairs, doors, workers

Vowel sounds:
- eyes, ways, windows

Note that e is not pronounced in the categories above when the plural ends in -es: e.g. cakes, clothes, stones, tapes, tubes

Nouns ending in the following take an extra syllable pronounced /iz/:
- mazes, noises
- buses, crashes, dishes

No change:
- matches, patches, speeches
- axes, boxes, taxes

- bridges, oranges,
  - pages
- classes, masses
2.22 Nouns with regular spelling/irregular pronunciation

The ending of the following nouns is pronounced /z/ in the plural:
- baths
- mouths
- oaths
- paths
- truths
- wreaths
- youths

The plural of house (houses) is pronounced /hauziz/

2.23 Nouns with irregular pronunciation and spelling

The following thirteen nouns with spellings ending in -for/-fe (pronounced /fI/) in the singular, are all spelt with -ves in the plural (pronounced /vz/):
- calf/calves
- elf/elves
- half/halves
- knife/knives
- leaf/leaves
- life/lives
- loaf/loaves
- self/selves
- sheaf/sheaves
- shelf/shelves
- thief/thieves
- wife/wives
- wolf/wolves

The following nouns have regular and irregular plural pronunciation and spellings:
- dwarf/dwarfs
- ordwarves
- hoof/hoofs
- orhooves
- scarf/scarfs
- or
- scarves
- wharf/wharfs
- or
- wharves

But note the following nouns which have regular spelling, but both regular and irregular pronunciation in the plural (/fs/ or /vs/):
- handkerchief/handkerchiefs
- roof/roofs

2.24 Nouns with plurals ending in -'s

There are a few instances where s is commonly used to form a plural:
- after letters: Watch your p's and q's
- years: the 1890s or 1890s
- abbreviations: VIPs or VIP's (Very Important Persons)

Note the finals is a small letter:

2.25 The plural of nouns ending in -o

Many commonly used nouns (techo, hero, potato, tomato) ending in -o are spelt -oes in the plural. The following are spelt with -oes or -os:
- buffalo
- cargo
- commando
- grotto
- halo
- mosquito
- tornado
- volcano

All these endings are pronounced /əʊz/.

The following have plurals spelt with -o:
- nouns ending in vowel + -o or double o: bamboos, folios, oratorios, radios, studios, videos, zoos
- abbreviations: kilos (for kilograms), photos (for photographs)
- Italian musical terms: e.g., concertos, pianos, solos, sopranos
- proper nouns: Eskimos, Filipinos

2.26 Irregular spelling: internal vowel change

The following nouns form their plurals by changing the internal vowel(s) (this is a survival from old English):
- foot/feet
- goose/geese
- louse/louse
- man/men
- mouse/mice
- tooth/teeth
- woman/women

Compound nouns formed with man or woman as a suffix form their
Number (singular and plural)

- Plurals with -men or -women: policeman/policemen policewoman/policewomen. Both -man and -men in such compounds (but not -woman/women) are often pronounced /mən/
- Other survivals from the past are a few nouns which form their plurals with -en: brother brethren child/children ox/oxen. Brethren is used in religious contexts, otherwise brothers is the normal plural of brother.
- Penny can have a regular plural pennies when we are referring to separate coins (ten pennies) or a collective plural, pence, when we are referring to a total amount (ten pence).

2.27 Nouns with the same singular and plural forms

- Some nouns do not change in form. These include names of certain animals, birds, and fish: deer, grouse, mackerel, plaice, salmon, sheep, trout.
- Craft and aircraft: hovercraft, spacecraft.
- Financial units: penny, pound.
- A few nouns describing nationalities: e.g., a Chinese, a Swiss, a Vietnamese. He is a Vietnamese; The Vietnamese are noted for their cookery.
- Note that some names of fish, etc. can form a regular plural: Herrings were (or Herring were) once very plentiful.
- Fish is the normal plural of fish (singular), but fishes can also be used, especially to refer to species of fish: My goldfish has died (one); My goldfish have died (more than one).
- You'll see many kinds of fish(es) in the fish market.

2.28 Collective noun + singular or plural verb

2.28.1 Collective nouns which have plural forms

- Some collective nouns such as audience, class, club, committee, company, congregation, council, crew, crowd, family, gang, government, group, jury, mob, staff, team, and union can be used with singular or plural verbs. They are singular and can combine with the relative pronouns which/that and be replaced by it when we think of them in an impersonal fashion, i.e., as a whole group.
- The present government, which hasn't been in power long is trying to control inflation. It isn't having much success.
- They are plural and can combine with who and be replaced by they or them when we think of them in a more personal way, i.e., as the individuals that make up the group.
- The government, who are looking for a quick victory are calling for a general election soon. They expect to be re-elected. A lot of people are giving them their support.
- These collective nouns can also have regular plural forms.
- Governments in all countries are trying to control inflation.
- For plural nouns in a collective sense (e.g., the workers) [3.19.4]
- Some proper nouns (e.g., football teams) can be used as collectives: Arsenal is/are playing away on Saturday.
2 Nouns

2.28.2 Collective nouns which do not have plural forms

The following collective nouns have no regular plural but can be followed by a singular or plural verb: the aristocracy, the gentry, the proletariat, the majority, the minority, the public, the youth of today

Give the public what it wants/they want

Offspring has no plural form but can be followed by a singular verb to refer to one or a plural verb to refer to more than one:

Her offspring is like her in every respect (one child)

Her offspring are like her in every respect (more than one child)

The youth of today (= all young people) should not be confused with a/the youth (= a/the young man), which has a regular plural youths.

The youth of today is/are better off than we used to be

The witness said he saw a youth/five youths outside the shop

Youth (= a time of life) is used with singular verbs:

Youth is the time for action; age is the time for repose

2.29 Collective noun + plural verb

The following collective nouns must be followed by a plural verb; they do not have plural forms: cattle, the clergy, the military, people, the police, swine, vermin

Some people are never satisfied

The police/the military have surrounded the building

People should not be confused with a/the people, meaning 'nation' or 'tribe', which is countable:

The British are a sea-faring people

The English-speaking peoples share a common language

For the + adjective + plural verb (e.g. the blind) [> 6.12.2].

2.30 Nouns with a plural form + singular verb

The following nouns, though plural in form, are always followed by a verb in the singular:

- the noun news, as in: The news on TV is always depressing
- games, such as billiards, bowls, darts, dominoes

Billiards is becoming more and more popular

- names of cities such as Athens, Brussels, Naples

Athens has grown rapidly in the past decade

2.31 Nouns with a plural form + singular or plural verb

The following nouns ending in -ics take a singular verb:

athletics, gymnastics, linguistics, mathematics, and physics:

Mathematics is a compulsory subject at school

However, some words ending in -ics, such as acoustics, economics, ethics, phonetics, and statistics take a singular or plural verb. When the reference is to an academic subject (e.g. acoustics = the scientific study of sound) then the verb must be singular:

Acoustics is a branch of physics

When the reference is specific, (e.g. acoustics = sound quality) then the verb must be plural:

The acoustics in the Festival Hall are extremely good.
Number (singular and plural)

Plural-form nouns describing illnesses [> 3.15] have a singular verb:

*German measles is a dangerous disease for pregnant women*

However, a plural verb is sometimes possible:

*Mumps are (or is) fairly rare in adults*

Some plural-form nouns can be regarded as a single unit (+ verb in the singular) or collective (+ verb in the plural). Examples are:

- single unit: *This species of rose is very rare*
- more than one: *There are thousands of species of butterflies*

The word *means* (= a way to an end) is followed by a singular or plural verb, depending on the word used before it:

*All means have been used to get him to change his mind*

*One means is still to be tried*

2.32 Nouns with a plural form + plural verb

Nouns with a plural form only (+ plural verb) are:

- nouns which can combine with a *pair of* [> App 5.8]:

  *My trousers are torn*
  
  Used with a *pair of*, these words must have a singular verb:

  *A pair of glasses costs quite a lot these days*
  
  We cannot normally use numbers in front of these words, but we can say two, etc. *pairs of*:

  *Two pairs of your trousers are still at the cleaner's*

  Some of these nouns can have a singular form when used in compounds: e.g. *pyjama top, trouser leg*

  *Where did I put my pyjama top?*

- a few words which occur only in the plural and are followed by a plural verb. Some of these are: *Antipodes belongings, brains (= intellect), clothes, congratulations, earnings, goods, greens (= green vegetables), lodgings, locks (= good looks), means (= money or material possessions), oats odds (in betting), outskirts particulars quarters (= accommodation), remains, riches, stairs suds surroundings thanks, tropics*

  *All my belongings are in this bag*

2.33 Nouns with different singular and plural meanings

Some nouns have different meanings in the singular and plural. Typical examples: *air/airs, ash/ashes content/contents custom/customs, damage/damages drawer/drawers fund/funds glass/glasses look/looks, manner/manners, minute/minutes, pain/pains scale/scales saving/savings spectacle/spectacles step/steps, work/works Some times the meanings are far apart (air/airs), sometimes they are quite close (fund/funds).*

*One small step for man, one giant leap for mankind*

You can only reach that cupboard with a *pair of steps*

Of course, the countable nouns in the above list have their own plurals: *dirty looks five minutes sharp pains, two steps, etc.*
2.34 Nouns with foreign plurals
There is a natural tendency to make all nouns conform to the regular rules for the pronunciation and spelling of English plurals. The more commonly a noun is used, the more likely this is to happen. Some native English speakers avoid foreign plurals in everyday speech and use them only in scientific and technical contexts.

2.34.1 Nouns of foreign origin with anglicized plurals, e.g.
album, albums, apparatus/apparatuses, genius/geniuses

2.34.2 Nouns with both foreign and anglicized plurals, e.g.
-us: cactus/cacti/cactuses, -a: antenna/antennae/antennas
-ex/ix: index/indexes/indexes appendix/appendices/appendixes
-on: automaton/automatas/automata
-eu/-eau: adieu/adieux/adieus, plateau/plateaus/plateaux (Izl).
Alternative plurals can have different meanings: e.g. antennae is a biological term; antennas can describe e.g. radio aerials.

2.34.3 Nouns with foreign plurals only, e.g.
-us: alumnus/alumni; -a: alumna/alumnae, -um: stratum/strata,
-is: analysis/analyses, -on: criterion/criteria

Media + singular or plural verb is used to refer to the press, TV, etc., data is used with a singular or plural verb; agenda is a foreign plural used in the singular in English with a regular plural, agendas.

2.35 Compound nouns and their plurals

2.35.1 Plural mainly in the last element
The tendency is to:
- put a plural ending (-s -es, etc.) on the second noun in noun + noun combinations: boyfriends, flower shops, matchboxes, etc.
- put a plural ending on the noun: onlookers lookers-on, passers
- put a plural ending on the last word when no noun is present: breakdowns forget-me-nots, grown-ups, lay-offs, etc.

2.35.2 Plural in the first element in some compounds
attorney general/attorneys general, court-martial/courts-martiai
man-of-war>men~of-war, mother-in-law/mothers-in-law (but in laws in general references: Our in-laws are staying with us) notary
public/notaries public, spoonful/spoonsful (or spoonfuls).

2.35.3 Plural in the first and last element
When the first element is man or woman, then both elements change
man student'men students woman student/women students, but
note compounds with lady lady friend lady friends.
Other compounds with man and woman form their plurals only in the second word: man-eaters, manholes, woman-haters, etc. [> 2.10.9]

2.36 The plural of proper nouns
Plural surnames occur when we refer to families:
+ -s; The Atkinsons/The Frys are coming to dinner
+ -es; They're forever trying to keep up with the Joneses
Gender

Other examples with proper nouns are:

*There are three Janes and two Harrys in our family.*

*We've had two very cold Januaries in a row [not -ies > 2.20]*

We do not add -(e)s to the spelling where this would suggest a false pronunciation: three King Louis the Dumas father and son

2.37 Numbers and their plurals [> APP 47]

2.37.1 Dozen(s), hundred(s), etc.

The word *dozen* and numbers do not add -s when they are used in front of plural nouns: two dozen eggs three hundred men ten thousand pounds, etc. They add -s before of (i.e. when the number is not specified):

*Hundreds of people are going to the demonstration*  
*Thousands of pounds have been spent on the new hospital*  
*I said it was a secret but she s told dozens of people*

237-2 'A whole amount'

When the reference is to 'a whole amount' a plural subject is followed by a singular verb, with reference to:

Duration:  *Three weeks is a long time to wait for an answer*  
Money:  *Two hundred pounds is a lot to spend on a dress*  
Distance:  *Forty miles is a long way to walk in a day*  

2.38 Two nouns joined by 'and'

Nouns that commonly go together such as *bacon and eggs, bread and butter, cheese and wine fish and chips, lemon and oil, tripe and onions, sausage(s) and mash* are used with verbs in the singular when we think of them as a single unit. Noun combinations of this kind have a fixed order of words:

*Fish and chips is a popular meal in Britain*  

If we think of the items as 'separate', we use a plural verb:  
*Fish and chips make a good meal*  

Gender

2.39 General information about gender

| people: | man. actor. | he |
|         | woman, actress- | she |
|         | guest, student, teacher- | he or she |
| animals: | bull, cow | it |
| things: | chair, table. | it |

In many European languages the names of things, such as *book chair, radio, table* have *gender*: that is they are classified grammatically as masculine, feminine or neuter, although very often gender doesn't relate to sex. Grammatical gender barely concerns nouns in English. It mainly concerns personal pronouns, where a distinction is drawn between *e.g. he she* and *It; possessive*
adjectives, his, her and its [> 4.1]; and relative pronouns, where a distinction is drawn between who and which [> 1.27]. The determiners [> 3.1] we use do not vary according to gender in front of nouns. We can refer to a man a woman a box, the man, the woman, the box many men, many women, many boxes

2.40 Identifying masculine and feminine through nouns

A few nouns are automatically replaced by masculine or feminine pronouns, or by it. Some of these are as follows:

2.40.1 Contrasting nouns describing people (replaceable by e.g. 'he/she')
bachelor/spinster, boy/girl, brother/sister, father/mother
gentleman/lady, grandfather/‘grandmother, grandson/granddaughter
husband/wife, king/queen, man/woman monk/nun, Mr/Mrs,
nephew/niece sir/madam, son/daughter, uncle/aunt

2.40.2 Contrasting nouns describing animals (normally replaceable by 'it')
bull/cow, cock (or rooster)/hen, dog/bitch gander/goose pig/sow
ram/eve stallion/mare

2.40.3 ‘-ess’ endings and other forms indicating sex/gender

A common way of indicating sex or gender is to change the ending of the masculine noun with the suffix -ess-
actor/actress god/goddess heir/heiress host/hostess,
prince/princess steward/stewardess, waiter/waitress.
This distinction is becoming rarer so that words like author instructor
and manager are now commonly used for both sexes. Some words, such as poetess, are falling into disuse because they are considered disparaging by both sexes. In a few cases, -ess endings are used for female animals, e.g. leopard/leopardess, lion/lioness, tiger/tigress Or
he-‘she- (stressed) is used as a prefix in e.g. he-goat/she-goat, or
wolf/she-wolf

Similar references can be made with other endings, etc. as well:
bendgroom/bride hero/heroine, lad/lass, landlord/landlady
male/female, masseur/masseuse usher/usherette widower/widow

2.40.4 Identifying masculine and feminine by ‘man’, ‘woman’, etc.

Certain nouns ending in -man refer to males: e.g. dustman,
policeman postman, salesman Others, ending in -woman, refer to women: e.g. policewoman. postwoman, saleswoman A few, such as chairman, can be used for men and women [> 2.10.9].

We tend to assume that words like model and nurse refer to women and words like judge and wrestler refer to men. If this is not the case and we wish to make a point of it, we can refer to a male model or a
male nurse, or to a woman judge or a woman wrestler

2.41 Identifying masculine or feminine through pronouns

With many nouns we don't know whether the person referred to is male or female until we hear the pronoun:

My accountant says he is moving his office
My doctor says she is pleased with my progress
The genitive

This applies to nouns such as: adult, artist comrade, cook cousin darling, dear doctor enemy foreigner, friend guest journalist, lawyer librarian musician neighbour orphan, owner, parent, passenger, person pupil, relation relative, scientist, singer, speaker spouse stranger student teacher tourist traveller visitor writer

Sometimes we can emphasize this choice by using both pronouns:

\textit{If a student wants more information he or she should apply in writing}

However, this is becoming less acceptable. The tendency is to avoid this kind of construction by using plurals [compare > 4.40]:

\textit{Students who want more information should apply in writing}

The genitive

2.42 Form of the genitive

| Add 's to singular personal nouns: | child + s child's |
| Add 's to singular personal nouns ending in -s. | actress + s actress's |
| Add 's to the plural of irregular personal nouns: | children + s children's |
| Add ' to the plural of personal nouns ending in -s: | girls + ' girls' |
| Add 's to some names ending in -s: | James + 's James's |

2.43 The survival of the genitive in modern English

The only 'case-form' for nouns that exists in English is the genitive (e.g. man's), sometimes called the possessive case or the possessive form. The -es genitive ending of some classes of nouns in old English has survived in the modern language as 's (apostrophe s) for some nouns in the singular and s’ (s apostrophe) for some nouns in the plural, but with limited uses.

2.44 When we add s and s’

We normally use 's and s' only for people and some living creatures [> 2.48]. The possessive appears before the noun it refers to.

However, it can be used without a noun as well [> 2.51]:

'I'll go in Frank's car and you can go in Alan's

The simplest rule to remember is: 'add s to any personal noun unless it is in the form of a plural ending in -s - in which case, just add an apostrophe ('). In practice, this means:

| Singular and plural common nouns and names not ending in -s |
| - add s to singular nouns and to names not ending in -s: |
| a child's dream, the dog's kennel, Frank's new job |
| If two names are joined by and, add 's to the second: |
| John and Mary's bank balance Scott and Amundsen's race |
| - add 's to singular nouns ending in -s: |
| an actress's career, a waitress's job |
| - add 's to irregular plural nouns: |
| children’s games the men's club, sheep’s wool |
| - add an apostrophe ('') after the s of regular plurals: |
| boys' school, girls' school Cheltenham Ladies' College |
2 Nouns

2.44.2 's with compound nouns
With compound nouns the s comes after the last word:

My sister-in-law's father is a pilot

The rule also applies to titles, as in: Henry the Eighth's marriages
the Secretary of State's visit

Two genitives are also possible, as in:

My brother's neighbour's sister is a nurse

2.44.3 The use of the apostrophe after names ending in -s
We add 's to names ending in -s: Charles's address Doris's party
However, we can sometimes use' or s: St James' (or St James's)
Park, Mr Jones' (or Jones's) car St Thomas' (or St Thomas's)
Hospital. No matter how we write the genitive in such cases, we
normally pronounce it as /iz/. With some (especially famous) names
ending in -s we normally add an apostrophe after the -s (pronounced
/s/ or /iz/: Keats' works Yeats' poetry

We can show possession in the plural forms of names ending in -s by
adding an apostrophe at the end: the Joneses' houses, etc.

With ancient Greek names we add an apostrophe after the -s, but
there is no change in pronunciation, Archimedes' being pronounced
the same as Archimedes- Archimedes' Principle

Initials can be followed by s when the reference is singular: an MP's
salary (= a Member of Parliament's salary), or s' when the reference
is plural: MP's salaries [> 2.24].

2.45 The pronunciation of s and s'
The pronunciation of s and s' depends on the sound that precedes
them and follows the same rules as for plural nouns [> 2.21]: e.g.
/s/: Geoff's hat Jack's or a months salary. Pats handbag
/iz/: Ben's opinion Bill's place Bob's house the workers club
/iz/: an actress's career, the boss's office, Mrs Page's jam

2.46 The use of 's/s' for purposes other than possession
While the genitive is generally associated with possession (usually
answering the question Whose ?), apostrophe s serves other
purposes as well, for example:

Regular use: Father's chair (= the one he usually sits on)
Relationship: Angela's son (i.e. Angela has a son)
+ favourite: Fish and chips is John's favourite dish
Actions: Scott's journey (i.e. the journey Scott made)
Purpose: A girls' school (= a school for girls)
Characteristics: John's stammer (i.e. John has a stammer)
Others: Building oil rigs is a man's work (= suitable for)

Mozart is a composer's composer (= appreciated by)

2.47 The use of 's and s' compared with the use of 'of
The 's construction is not possible in e.g. the key of the door or the
leg of the table because we do not normally use 's with non-living
things [> 2.10.1, 2.44]. When-s indicates ownership, every 's
The genitive

construction can have an of equivalent, but not every of-construction can have an 's equivalent. So:

- a man's voice can be expressed as the voice of a man
- Keats' poetry can be expressed as the poetry of Keats

And instead of the leg of the table, we can say the table-leg

2.48 The use of 's and 's' with living things

We may use 's or 's' after:

- Personal names: Gus's Restaurant, Jones' car
- Personal nouns: the doctor's surgery, man's future
- Indefinite pronouns: anyone's guess, someone's responsibility
- Collective nouns: the army's advance, the committee's decision
- 'Higher animals': the horse's stable, the horses stables
- Some 'lower animals': an ants nest, a bees sting

When we refer to material which is produced or made by a living animal, 's is generally required (stress on first word): a bird's nest, cow's milk, lamb's wool, etc. Where the source of a material is an animal that has been slaughtered, 's is not generally used (varied stress): beef broth, cowhide, a ham sandwich, sheepskin, etc.

2.49 The use of 's and 's' with non-living things

We may use 's or 's' or the of-construction with the following:

- Geographical reference: America's policy, Hong Kong's future
- Institutional reference: the European Economic Community's exports

's or 's' are normally used with the following:

- Place noun + superlative: New York's tallest skyscraper
- Churches and cathedrals: St Paul's Church, St Stephen's Cathedral
- Time references: a day's work, an hour's delay, a month's
- 'Money's worth': twenty dollars' worth of gasoline
- Fixed expressions: (keep someone) at arm's length, (be) at death's door, the earth's surface for goodness sake, (to) one's heart's content, journey's end, the ship's company

An 's is sometimes used with reference to cars, planes and ships: the car's exhaust, the plane's engines, the ship's propeller

We can only learn from experience when to use 's with non-living things. When in doubt, it is best to use the of-construction.

2.50 The use of the of-construction' to connect two nouns

We normally use the of-construction (not 's/s) when referring to:

- Things (where a compound noun [> 2.10.1] is not available): the book of the film, the shade of a tree
- Parts of things: the bottom/top'side inside of the box
- Abstract reference: the cost of living, the price of success
2 Nouns

The of-construction can be used to suggest be/behave/look like in e.g. an angel of a child, that fool of a ticket-inspector. We also use this construction when the noun in the of-phrase is modified by an additional phrase or clause:

Can't you look at the book of the boy behind you?
This was given to me by the colleague of a friend of mine

The of-construction can be used with plural nouns to avoid ambiguity. The advice of the specialists may be preferable to the specialists' advice (more than one specialist), which could be confused with the specialists’ advice (only one specialist).

A noun + of can sometimes be used in place of an infinitive:
It's forbidden to remove books from this reference library
The removal of books from this reference library is forbidden

2.51 Omission of the noun after 's and s'

The 's/s' construction can be used on its own when we refer to:
- a noun that is implied:
  We need a ladder We can borrow our neighbour's
- where someone lives:
  I'm staying at my aunt's I'm a guest at the Watsons'
- shops and businesses: e.g. the butcher's, the hairdresser's
  Would you mind going to the chemist's for me?
- medical practitioners: e.g. the dentists, the doctor's
  I've got an appointment at the dentist's at 11.15

When we refer to well-known stores (e.g. Macy's Harrod's), an apostrophe before the s is optional, but is usually omitted'.

You can't go to London without visiting Harrods/Harrod's

When we refer to well-known restaurants by the name of the owner or founder (e.g. Langan's, Scott's) s is included.

Churches and colleges (often named after saints) are frequently referred to in the same way; always with s:
They were married in St Bartholomew's

2.52 The double genitive

The 's construction can be used after the of-construction in: e.g. a friend of my father's, a play of Shakespeare’s (= one of my father's friends; one of Shakespeare's plays). This can happen because we usually put only one determiner in front of a noun [> 3.4], so, for example, we would not use this and my together in front of e.g. son.

Instead, we have to say this son of mine. And note other possessive pronouns: a friend of yours, a cousin of hers, etc. We can use a this that, these those some any, no, etc. in front of the noun, but not the:
Isn't Frank Byers a friend of yours?
He's a friend of mine is more common than He is my friend, which implies he is my special or only friend. He's no friend of mine can mean 'I don't know him' or 'He's my enemy'.

The use of demonstratives [> 4.32-36] often suggests criticism:
That silly uncle of yours has told me the same joke five times
3 Articles

General information about 'a/an', 'the' and the zero article

3.1 Determiners: what they are and what they do

We use a number of words in front of common nouns (or adjective + common noun) which we call determiners because they affect (or 'determine') the meaning of the noun. Determiners make it clear, for example, which particular thing(s) we are referring to or how much of a substance we are talking about. Singular countable nouns must normally have a determiner in front of them. There are two classes:

1. Words which help us to classify or identify:
   - indefinite article: / bought a new shirt yesterday
     (but it's not necessary to say which)
   - definite article: The shirt I am wearing is new.
     (i.e. I am telling you which)
   - demonstratives [> 4.32]: / bought this/that shirt yesterday
     (i.e. the one I am showing you)
   - possessives [> 4.19]: Do you like my new shirt?
     (i.e. the one that belongs to me)

2. Words which enable us to indicate quantity:
   - numbers [> App 47]: / bought two new shirts yesterday
     (i.e. that's how many I bought)
   - quantifiers [> 5.1]: I didn't buy many new shirts yesterday
     (i.e. not a great number)
     There wasn't much material in the shop
     (i.e. not a great quantity)

Proper nouns [> 2.13] do not generally require identification, but for place names, etc. [> 3.22, 3.31]:

John is flying to Helsinki on Tuesday.

3.2 Indefinite ('a/an'), definite ('the'), or zero (0)?

In most European languages there are rules about when to use (or not to use) indefinite and definite articles. These rules generally depend on the gender of the noun and on whether it is singular or plural. In English, gender does not affect our choice [> 2.39], but whether a word is singular or plural may do so.

We often use no article at all in English. This non-use of the article is so important that we give it a name, the zero article [> 3.24]. The problems of choice can be summarized as follows:

- whether to use a/an or the-
- whether to use a/an or nothing (zero).
- whether to use the or nothing (zero).
In addition we have to decide:
- whether to use zero or some.
- whether to use the or some.

Because articles don’t have gender or special plural forms in English, their use seems easy to learners at first. However, choice is complicated by three factors:
- whether a noun is countable or uncountable.
- whether we are making general statements.
- whether we are referring to something the listener or reader can positively identify or not.

3.3 'A/an', 'the' or zero before countables and uncountables

The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns must be clearly understood because it affects our choice of article. The rules for the use of a/an, the and zero + countable or uncountable can be summarized as follows:

- **a/an** is used only in front of a singular countable: a hat
- **the** can be used in front of a singular countable: the hat
- **a/an** is used in front of an uncountable: the water
- **the** can be used in front of an uncountable: the water
- **zero** is used in front of a plural countable: hats
- **zero** is used in front of an uncountable: water

Putting it in another way, we can use:
- **a/an** or **the** + singular countable: a hat, the hat
- **the** or **zero** + plural countable: the hats, hats
- **the** or **zero** + uncountable: the water, water

Examples of a singular countable preceded by:
- a- The man who lives next door is **a doctor**
- an- My sister is **an architect**
- the- The architect who designed this block won a prize

Examples of a plural countable preceded by:
- zero The people who work next door **are architects**
- the The architects who designed this block won a prize

Examples of an uncountable preceded by:
- zero Sugar is bad for you
- the The sugar you bought yesterday has got damp

3.4 Word order and determiners

We usually put only one determiner in front of a noun or noun phrase; and the determiner is nearly always the first word in a noun phrase:

- e.g. **a new pen**. We can never use two of the following before a noun: a, the, this, that, these, those, my, your, his, her, Susan’s, etc.

So, for example, we can say:
- the pen or my pen

but we cannot use the and my together in front of a noun or noun phrase. Some words (called **pre-determiners**) can come before articles and other determiners: for example **both and all**. [> 5.18]
The indefinite article 'a/an'

3.5 Form and use of 'a/an', zero article and 'some'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a book</td>
<td>books</td>
<td>It's a book</td>
<td>They're books</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
<td>It's an egg</td>
<td>They're eggs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/an and zero referring to quantity [&gt; 3.10]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a book</td>
<td>some books</td>
<td>I've got a book</td>
<td>I've got some books</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an egg</td>
<td>some eggs</td>
<td>I've got an egg</td>
<td>I've got some eggs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 How we refer to singular and plural

To **classify** or **identify** something, we can say:

- It's a book (a/an + singular noun)
- They're books (zero + plural noun)

To refer to **quantity**, we can say:

- I've got a book (a/an + singular noun)
- I've got some books (some + plural noun)

In-the plural, when the exact number is not important, we can use quantifiers like **some**, **a few**, **a lot of** [> 5.2]. **Some/any** [> 5.10] are the commonest of these and can be said to be the plural of 'a/an' when we are referring to unspecified number.

- I've got some books (some + plural noun)

3.7 The pronunciation of 'a' and 'an'

A (pronounced /a/ in fluent speech) is used before consonant sounds (not just consonant letters); an /æn/ is used before vowel sounds (not just words beginning with the vowel letters, a, e, i o u),

- This can be seen when we use a or an with the alphabet (e.g. This is a U This is an H).
- (This is) a B, C, D, G, J, K P, Q, T U, V W, Y Z
- (This is) an A, E, F, H, I, L M, N, O, R, S, X

Compare: a fire but an F a noise but an N
- a house but an H a radio but an R
- a liar but an L a sound but an S

A man but an M a xylophone but an X
- an umbrella but a uniform
- an unusual case but a union
- a year, a university, a European, but an eye, an ear
- a hall but an hour (h not pronounced, a hot dinner but an honour see below)

A few words beginning with h may be preceded by a or an at the discretion of the speaker: e.g. a hotel, a historian or an hotel, an historian If such words are used with an, then h is not pronounced or is pronounced softly. H is not pronounced at all in a few words:

- e.g. an hen an honest man, an honour an hour
3 Articles

Some common abbreviations (depending on their first letter) are preceded by a: a B.A. (a Bachelor of Arts), or by an: an I.Q. (an Intelligence Quotient).

The pronunciation /ei/ instead of /ə/ for a is often used when we are speaking with special emphasis, with or without a pause: He still refers to his record-player as ‘a /ei/ gramophone’.

Many native speakers disapprove of the strong pronunciation of a, commonly heard in the language of e.g. broadcasters, because it sounds unnatural.

3.8 Basic uses of ‘a/an’

There is no difference in meaning between a and an. When using a,’an we must always bear in mind two basic facts:

1 A/an has an indefinite meaning, (i.e. the person, animal or thing referred to may be not known to the listener or reader, so a/an has the sense of any or can’t/won’t tell you which, or it doesn’t matter which).

2 A/an can combine only with a singular countable noun. These two facts underlie all uses of a/an. Some of the most important of these uses are discussed in the sections that follow.

3.9 Classification: ‘a/an’ to mean ‘an example of that class’

3.9.1 Classification: general statements and descriptive labels

When we say a rose is a flower, we mean that a rose is an example of a class of items we call flowers; a daffodil is another example; a daisy is another example, and so on. We use a/an in this way when we wish to classify people, animals or things. We can classify them in two ways:

1 By means of general statements:
   An architect is a person who designs buildings.
   A clever politician never promises too much.

2 By means of labels (a/an + noun after the verb be):
   Andrew Bright is an architect

3.9.2 Classification by means of general statements

General statements with a/an often take the form of definitions:

A cat is a domestic animal.

Definitions of this kind are possible because we can easily think of one cat at a time. If we make general statements with cats, we are referring to the whole species, not one example, but the-meaning is the same [> 3.19.1, 3.26.1]:

Cats are domestic animals.

Many uncountable nouns can be used after a/an when we are referring to ‘an example of that class’ [> 2.16.3]:

This is a very good coffee Is it Brazilian?

3.9.3 Classification by means of descriptive labels [compare > 3.19.1]

We often wish to classify people in terms of the work they do, where they come from, etc. In English (unlike many other European languages) we need to use a/an when we are, as it were, attaching labels to people with regard to: e.g.
The indefinite article: 'a/an'

**Origins:**  He's a Frenchman/an American. [> App 49]
**Occupation:**  She's a doctor/He's an electrician.
**Religion:**  She's a Catholic/He's an Anglican
**Politics:**  He's a Socialist/a Republican

The plurals would be: They're Frenchmen/doctors, etc. Adjectival equivalents (where they exist) can be used in place of nouns for all the above examples except occupation:

- He's European/French/Catholic/Socialist
- But: What does he do? - He's a taxi-driver

We need a/an with any kind of 'labelling': e.g.
- with nouns: You're an angel/a saint/a wonder
- with adjective + noun: You're a good girl/a real angel

Things, animals, etc. can also be classified with a/an:

**Objects:**  It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) bottle-opener
**Insects:**  It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) beetle
**Plants:**  It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) rose

A kind of, etc. is more specific when used with reference to things, etc. than when it is used for people:

- I'm a kind of (sort of/type of) engineer
  (= That's the nearest I can come to describing my job.)
- It's a kind of (sort of/type of) beetle
  (= It's a member of a particular class of beetle.)

3.9.4 **The uses of 'a/an' to classify people, etc. [> 2.13.1]**

A/an can be used freely to refer to 'an example of that class'. We can use He's/It's a + name for 'tangible examples': He's a Forsyte; It's a Picasso; It's a Dickens novel. Other examples are: a Brecht play; a Laura Ashley dress; a Shakespeare sonnet; a Smith and Wesson revolver; a Titian; a Wren church, [compare > 3.27.4]

3.9.5 **The use of 'a/an' to refer to 'a certain person'**

A/an can be used before titles (Mr, Mrs, Miss, etc.) with the sense of 'a certain person whom I don't know':

- A Mr Wingate phoned and left a message for you.
- A Mrs Tadley is waiting to see you.

The phrase a certain, to refer to people whose identity is not yet known, is common in fables and folk stories:
Many years ago a certain merchant arrived in Baghdad

3.10 **Quantity: the use of 'a/an' to mean 'only one'**

3.10.1 **The use of 'a/an' with reference to quantity**

The most common use of a/an is in the sense of 'only one' when we are not specifying any particular person or thing:

- I'd like an apple (i.e. only one; it doesn't matter which)
- When we express this in the plural, we use some or any [> 5.10]:
  - I'd like some apples // I don't want any apples [compare > 3.28.8]

For a/an + uncountable to refer to 'only one' [> 2.16.3, 3.9.2].
3.10.2 The use of ‘a/an’ when something is mentioned for the first time

A/an is used before a countable noun mentioned for the first time: the speaker assumes the listener does not know what is referred to:

I looked up and saw a plane (Mentioned for the first time - you don't know which plane I mean.) The plane flew low over the trees (You now know exactly which plane I mean and the plane is, in that sense, identified.) [> 3.20.1]

This rule governing the choice between definite and indefinite article is common in European languages.

3.11 The difference between 'a/an' and 'one'

One and a/an cannot normally be used interchangeably. We use one when we are counting (one apple, as opposed to two or three):

It was one coffee we ordered, not two

But we could not use one to mean 'any one' (not specified):

A knife is no good You need a screwdriver to do the job properly

One is often used with day, morning, etc. in story-telling:

One day, many years later, I found out what had really happened

A/an and one can be used interchangeably when we refer to:

Whole numbers: a (or one) hundred, thousand, million [> App 47]
Fractions: a (or one) quarter, third, half, etc.
Money: a (or one) pound/dollar, etc. We say ‘One pound 50
Weight/measure: a (or one) pound/kilo, foot/metre, etc.

A/an and one are interchangeable in some expressions (with a/one blow), but not in others (a few). For one as a pronoun [> 4.9-11].

3.12 The use of 'a/an' with reference to measurement

A/an is used when we refer to one unit of measurement in terms of another. If we want to emphasize 'each', we use per instead of a/an:

Price in relation to weight: 80p a/per kilo
Distance in relation to speed: 40 km a/per hour
Distance/fuel consumption: 30 miles a/per gallon
Frequency/time: twice a/per day

3.13 The use of 'a/an' after 'what' and 'such'

A/an is used with countable nouns after What in exclamations:

What a surprise! What an interesting story

A/an is used after such when we wish to emphasize degree [> 7.51.1]:

That child is such a pest! My boss is such an idiot!
What a lot ‘ (Not "How much/many...!") is used for exclamations:

What a lot of flowers! What a lot of trouble

3.14 The use of 'a/an' with pairs of nouns

Many nouns are 'paired', that is they are considered to accompany each other naturally, and a/an is used before the first noun of a pair:

a cup and saucer, a hat and coat, a knife and fork-

It's cold outside Take a hat and coat with you
If two words are used which are not considered to be a 'natural pair',
the indefinite article must be used before each noun:

When you go on holiday, take a raincoat and a camera

3.15 The use of 'a/an', etc. with reference to illnesses/conditions

The use of the indefinite and zero articles with illnesses can be
defined in four categories:

1 Expressions where the use of the indefinite article is compulsory:
   e.g. a cold, a headache, a sore throat, a weak heart, a broken leg
   I've got a headache/a cold

2 Expressions where the use of the indefinite article is optional:
   e.g. catch (a) cold, have (a) backache/stomach-ache/toothache,
        (an) earache
   I've had (a) toothache all night

3 With illnesses which are plural in form (e.g. measles, mumps
   shingles) no article is used [compare > 2.31]:
   My children are in bed with mumps

4 With illnesses which are defined as 'uncountable' (e.g. flu, gout
   hepatitis, etc.) no article is used:
   I was in bed with flu for ten days
   The will also combine with e.g. flu, measles and mumps-
   He's got the flu/the measles/the mumps

The definite article: 'the'

3.16 Form of the'

The never varies in form whether it refers to people or things, singular or plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular:</th>
<th>plural:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the man</td>
<td>the men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He's</td>
<td>They're</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the woman</td>
<td>the women</td>
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<tr>
<td>That's</td>
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<td>I was telling you about</td>
<td>I was telling you about</td>
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<tr>
<td>I was telling you about</td>
<td>I was telling you about</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.17 The pronunciation of 'the'

The is pronounced /ðeɪ/ before consonant sounds: the day, the key, the house, the way
The is pronounced /ði/ before vowel sounds (i.e. words normally
preceded by an): the end, the hour, the inside, the outside, the ear, the eye, the umbrella

When we wish to draw attention to the noun that follows, we use the
pronunciation /ði:/ = 'the one and only' or 'the main one':

Do you mean the Richard Burton, the actor?
If you get into difficulties, Monica is the person to ask.
Mykonos has become the place for holidays in the Aegean.
3 Articles

Some common abbreviations are preceded by the, pronounced: 
/ðə/ the BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation) or /di/ the EEC (the European Economic Community). Compare B.A. (> 3.7): we tend to use full stops with titles, but not with institutions, etc.

3.18 Basic uses of ‘the’

When using the, we must always bear in mind two basic facts:
1 The normally has a definite reference (i.e. the person or thing referred to is assumed to be known to the speaker or reader).
2 The can combine with singular countable, plural countable, and uncountable nouns (which are always singular).

These two facts underlie all uses of the. Some of the most important of these uses are discussed in the sections that follow.

3.19 The use of ‘the’ for classifying

3.19.1 Three ways of making general statements: ‘the’, zero, ‘a/an’

1 With the + singular: The cobra is dangerous, (a certain class of snakes as distinct from other classes, such as the grass snake)
2 With zero + plural: Cobras are dangerous, (the whole class: all the creatures with the characteristics of snakes called cobras)
3 With a/an + singular: A cobra is a very poisonous snake, (a cobra as an example of a class of reptile known as snake)

3.19.2 The group as a whole: ‘the’ + nationality adjective [> App 49]

Some nationality adjectives, particularly those ending in -ch, -sh and -ese are used after the when we wish to refer to ‘the group as a whole’: e.g. The British = The British people in general.
However, we cannot say ‘many British’ or ‘those two British’, etc.
plural nationality nouns can be used with the or the zero article to refer to the group as a whole: the Americans or Americans; or with numbers or quantifiers like some and many to refer to individuals: two Americans, some Americans:

The British and the Americans have been allies for a long time.
The Japanese admire the traditions of the Chinese

For the use of the + adjective (the young, the old, etc.) [> 6.12.2].

3.19.3 The group as a whole: ‘the’ + plural names [compare > 3.22]
The + plural name can refer to ‘the group as a whole’:
Families: The Price sisters have opened a boutique.
‘Races’: The Europeans are a long way from political unity.
Politics: The Liberals want electoral reform

Titles beginning with the axe given to particular groups to emphasize their identity: e.g. the Beatles, the Jesuits.

3.19.4 Specified groups: ‘the’ + collective noun or plural countable

We can make general statements about specified groups with the + collective nouns, such as the police, the public [> 2.28.2, 2.29]:
This new increase in fares won’t please the public
Many plural countables can be used in a collective sense in the same way when particular groups are picked out from the rest of the human community: e.g. the bosses, the unions [compare > 2.28.1]:

Getting the unions and the bosses to agree isn't easy

3.20 The use of 'the' for specifying

When we use the, the listener or reader can already identify what we are referring to, therefore the shows that the noun has been specified by the context/situation or grammatically. For example:

3.20.1 Specifying by means of back-reference [compare > 3.10.2]

Something that has been mentioned is referred to again:

Singleton is a quiet village near Chichester. The village has a population of a few hundred people.

3.20.2 Specifying by means of 'the' + noun + 'of' [compare > 3.26.2]

The topics referred to (e.g. freedom, life) are specified:

The freedom of the individual is worth fighting for.

The life of Napoleon was very stormy.

3.20.3 Specifying by means of clauses and phrases

We can specify a person, thing, etc. grammatically by means of the ... + clause or the .. + phrase:

The Smith you're looking for no longer lives here.

The letters on the shelf are for you.

3.20.4 Specifying within a limited context

The can be used in contexts which are limited enough for the listener or reader to identify who or what is referred to.

Reference can be made to:
- people: Who's at the door? - It's the postman
- places [› Apps 21-23]:
  - Where's Jenny? - She's gone to the butcher's.
  - She's at the supermarket/in the garden.

Most references of this kind refer to a single identifiable place.

However, in big towns and cities, it is a matter of linguistic convention to say He’s gone to the cinema/the doctor's, etc. without referring to any specific one. This convention extends to locations like the country, the mountains, the seaside. Locations which are 'one of a kind' always require the: e.g. the earth, the sea, the sky, the sun, the moon, the solar system, the galaxy, the universe [compare > 3.22, 3.31].

- things: Pass me the salt, please.
- parts of a whole. When we know what is being referred to ('the whole') we can use the to name its parts. Assuming the listener or reader knows that we are talking about: e.g.
  - a human being, we can refer to the body, the brain, the head, the heart, the lungs, the mind, the stomach, the veins.
  - a room, we can refer to the ceiling, the door, the floor.
  - an object, we can refer to the back/the front, the centre, the inside/the outside, the top/the bottom.
  - a town, we can refer to the shops, the street.
  - an appliance, we can refer to the on/off switch
3.21 The use of 'the' in time expressions [> App 48]

3.21.1 The use of 'the' in time sequences

e.g. the beginning, the middle, the end; the first/last; the next; the
following day, the present, the past, the future

In the past, people had fewer expectations.

3.21.2 The use of 'the' with parts of the day [compare > 8.13]

e.g. in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, etc.: We spent the day at home in the evening, we went out.

Note that though many time references require the, many do not: e.g. next week, on Tuesday, last year.

3.21.3 The use of 'the' with the seasons [> App 24]

(The) spring/summer/autumn/winter. The is optional: We get a good crop of apples in the autumn.

3.21.4 The use of 'the' in dates [> App 47. 4]

Ordinal numbers usually require the when they are spoken, but not when they are written.

Compare:
'I'll see you on May 24th' (spoken as May the 24th)
(e.g. on a letter): 24(th) May (spoken as the 24th of May)

3.21.5 The use of 'the' in fixed time expressions

all the while, at the moment, for the time being, in the end, etc.: I'm afraid Mr Jay can't speak to you at the moment.

3.22 The use of 'the' with unique items other than place names

We often use the with 'unique items' (i.e. where there is only one of a kind). A few examples [> 3.31 for place names]:

Institutions and organizations: the Boy Scouts, the United Nations

Historical events, etc.: the French Revolution, the Victorian age.

Ships: the Canberra, the Discovery, the Titanic.

Documents and official titles: the Great Charter, the Queen

Political parties: the Conservative Party, the Labour Party

Public bodies: the Army, the Government, the Police

The press (The is part of the title): The Economist, The New Yorker,
The Spectator, The Times

Note: the press, the radio, the television.

Compare: What's on (the) television? What's on TV?

Items with zero: Life Newsweek, Punch, Time

Titles (books, films, etc.: The is part of the title): The Odyssey, The
Graduate Items with zero: Exiles, Jaws

Beliefs: the angels, the Furies, the gods, the saints

Compare God, Muhammad, etc. (proper nouns)

Climate, etc.: the climate, the temperature, the weather

Species: the dinosaurs, the human race, the reptiles

(Compare: Man developed earlier than people think)
The zero article

3.23 Other references with 'the'
Examples of items with the:
- with superlatives: It's the worst play I've ever seen
- with musical instruments: Tom plays the piano/the flute/the violin
  The is often omitted in references to jazz and rock:
  This is a 1979 recording with Ellison on bass guitar
- fixed phrases with the: the sooner the better.
- fixed expressions: do the shopping, make the beds

The zero article

3.24 The zero article: summary of 'form' and use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>plural countables.</th>
<th>0Girls do better than 0 boys at school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some people want 0 chips with everything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncountables (always singular): 0Butter makes you fat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proper nouns: 0 Honesty is the best policy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 John lives in 0 London</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of nouns on their own without an article is so fundamental in English that we should not regard this merely as 'the omission of the article', i.e. as something negative. We should think of the non-use of the article as something positive and give it a name: the zero article, which is usually given the symbol 0.

Abbreviations with zero, often acronyms (i.e. words made from the first letters of other words), include:

Chemical symbols: H₂O (water).
Acronyms which form 'real words': BASIC (Beginners' All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code); radar (Radio Detection And Ranging).

3.25 Basic uses of the zero article

We use the zero article before three types of nouns:
1. Plural countable nouns: e.g. beans.
2. Uncountable nouns (always singular): e.g. water.
3. Proper nouns: e.g. John.

The can occur in front of plural countables and (singular) uncountables in normal use to refer to specific items: The pens I gave you were free samples
The water we drank last night had a lot of chlorine in it
The can even occur in front of names: The Chicago of the 1920s was a terrifying place.

For a/an + uncountable: The Chicago is a well-run city today

Articles are frequently not used in general statements in English where they would be required in other European languages. Examples are given in the sections that follow.
3 Articles

3.26 The class as a whole: zero article + countable/uncountable

A few examples of general statements are [compare > 3.19.1]:

3.26.1 Zero article + plural countable nouns

People: Women are fighting for their rights.
Places: Museums are closed on Mondays
Food: Beans contain a lot of fibre.
Occupations: Doctors always support each other.
Nationalities: Italians make delicious ice-cream. [> 3.19.2]
Animals: Cats do not like cold weather.
Insects: Ants are found in all parts of the world.
Plants: Trees don’t grow in the Antarctic.
Products: Watches have become very accurate.

These can be modified by adjectives and other phrases: e.g. women all over the world, local museums, broad beans, quartz watches.

3.26.2 Zero article + uncountable nouns (always singular)

Food: Refined foods like sugar should be avoided.
Drink: Water must be pure if it is to be drunk.
Substances: Oil is essential for the manufacture of plastic
Collections: Money makes the world go round.
Colours: Red is my favourite colour.
Activities (-ing): Smoking is bad for the health.
Other activities: Business has been improving steadily this year
Sports, games: Football is played all over the world.
Abstract: Life is short; art is long.
Politics: Capitalism is a by-product of free enterprise.
Philosophy: Determinism denies the existence of free will.
Languages: English is a world language.

These can be modified by adjectives and other phrases: e.g. purified water, oil from the North Sea, heavy smoking.

3.27 Unique items: zero article + proper nouns

3.27.1 Zero article + names of people

First names: Elizabeth was my mother’s name.
Surname: These tools are made by Jackson and Son
Full names: Elizabeth Brown works for this company.
Initials: J. Somers is the pseudonym of a famous author.

Names can be modified by adjectives: young Elizabeth, old Frank Robinson, Frank Robinson Jr (= Junior, AmE), Tiny Tim.

3.27.2 Zero article + titles

Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms, Dr (full stops may be used optionally after the abbreviations Mr, Mrs and Dr).
Mr and Mrs are always followed by a surname or first name + surname (not just a first name!):

Mr and Mrs Jackson are here to see you.

Mr and Mrs cannot normally be used on their own as a form of address. Miss is also followed by a surname (Miss Jackson) but is used as a form of address by schoolchildren (Please Miss!)

It is sometimes heard as a form of address by adults, though this is
The zero article

not universally acceptable: Can I help you, Miss? Ms /məz/, a recent innovation, is rarely heard in speech, but is common nowadays in the written language to apply to both married and unmarried women. Dr is usually followed by a surname and is abbreviated in writing (This is Dr Brown), but can also be used on its own as a form of address (written in full):

It’s my liver, Doctor

Some other titles that can be used with surnames or on their own are:

Captain, Colonel, Major, Professor.

May I introduce you to Captain/Colonel/Major Rogers?

Yes, Captain/Colonel/Major!

Headmaster and Matron are not used with a name after them: Thank you, Headmaster; Yes, Matron

Madam and Sir are often used in BrE as a form of address (e.g. by shop-assistants in Can I help you, Madam/Sir?). Sir is common in AmE when we are speaking to strangers. In formal letter-writing we use Dear Sir and Dear Madam as salutations to address people whose names we do not know.

Given titles (e.g. Sir + first name + surname or Lord + surname) are peculiar to BrE: Lord Mowbray, Queen Elizabeth, Sir (unstressed) John Falstaff (Sir John, but not *Sir Falstaff*). And note also:

Chancellor Adenauer, Pope John, President Lincoln, etc.

The only titles applied to relations which can be used with names or on their own as forms of address are uncle and aunt (or auntie):

Here comes Uncle Charlie/Aunt Alice (Note: first names only.)

Thank you, Uncle/Aunt/Auntie

Some other titles that are used on their own as forms of address are:

Mother, Mum (BrE), Mom (AmE), Mummy (BrE), Mommy (AmE),

Father, Dad (BrE), Pop (AmE), Pa, Daddy, Granddad, Grandpa, Grandma, Baby. Words like cousin, sister, brother are no longer used as forms of address with reference to relations. Mother and Sister can be used for nuns and Brother for monks. Sister can sometimes be used for nurses, like Nurse. Mother + surname occurs as a nickname (Mother Reilly) and Father is used as a form of address for Roman Catholic priests (Father O’Brien). People often refer to (but do not usually address) grandparents as Grandpa Jenkins or Grandma Jenkins to distinguish them from another set of grandparents with a different surname.

Adjectives can be used in front of many titles: kind Aunt Lucy, old Mrs Reilly, mad Uncle Bill, in some contexts, the adjective can be capitalized so that it is part of the name: Old Mrs Reilly. No article is required in familiar reference (Good old/Poor old George), but other adjectives need the definite article (the illustrious Dr Schweitzer, the notorious Mr Hyde). The is optional and often omitted when the title is a complement:

Wilson became (the) President of the USA

The is omitted when as is used or implied:

Wilson was elected President of the USA.
3 Articles

3.27.3 Zero article for days, months, seasons and holidays [>] Apps 24,48
Mondays are always difficult. Monday is always a difficult day
June is my favourite month. Spring is a lovely season
Christmas is the time for family reunions
For next, last [>] 3.21.2, 8.12; for all [>] 5.22.2.

3.27.4 Zero article for artists and their work [compare > 3.9.4]
The names of artists can represent their work as a whole:
e.g. Brahms, Keats, Leonardo, Lorca, Rembrandt:
Bach gives me a lot of pleasure (i.e. Bach's music)
Chaucer is very entertaining (i.e. Chaucer's writing)
Adjectival combinations: early Beethoven, late Schubert, etc.

3.27.5 Zero article for academic subjects and related topics
Art, Biology, Chemistry, Geography. History, Physics, etc.:
According to Henry Ford, History is bunk.

English is a difficult language to learn well.
Adjectival combinations: e.g. Renaissance Art American History

3.28 Other combinations with the zero article

3.28.1 Zero article for times of the day and night [>] 8.11-13, App 48
Combinations are common with at, by, after and before: at
dawn/daybreak, at sunrise/sunset/noon/midnight/dusk/night, by
day/night, before morning, at/by/before/after 4 o'clock.
We got up at dawn to climb to the summit

3.28.2 Zero article for meals
breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, supper.
Dinner is served Michael's at lunch Let's have breakfast
The zero article is used after have [>] App 42.1.1, but note the use of the
where a meal is specified [>] 3.20:
The breakfast I ordered still hasn't arrived
and the use of a when classifying:
That was a very nice dinner

3.28.3 Zero article for nouns like 'school', 'hospital', etc.
The following nouns are used with the zero article when we refer to
their 'primary purpose', that is the activity associated with them:
e.g. He's in bed (for the purpose of sleeping): bed, church, class,
college, court, hospital, market prison, school, sea, town, university,
work [>] 10.9.7, 10.13 4 for home ] They frequently combine with be
in/at, have been/gone to [>] Apps 21-23):
He was sent to prison for four years
The children went to school early this morning
But note the use of the when the item, etc. is specified:
Your bag is under the bed There's a meeting at the school at 6
Words such as cathedral, factory, mosque, office, etc. are always
used with a or the.

3.28.4 Zero article for transport
by air by bicycle, by bike, by boat, by bus, by car, by coach, by
land, by plane, by sea, by ship, by tram, by tube, on foot-
We travelled all over Europe by bus
The zero article

By + noun is used in fixed expressions of this kind, but not where the means of transport is specified:
/ I came here on the local bus  You won't go far on that old bike

3.28.5 Zero article in fixed phrases
e.g. arm in arm, come to light, face to face, from top to bottom, hand in hand, keep in mind, make friends, make fun of

3.28.6 Zero article for 'pairs' joined by 'and' [compare > 2.38, 3.14, 6.12.2]
e.g. day and night, father and son, husband and wife, light and dark, young and old, pen and ink, sun and moon
This business has been run by father and son for 20 years

3.28.7 Zero article after 'what' and 'such' [> 3.13]
The noun is stressed after What; such is stressed before the noun:
- + plural countable:
  What fools they are!
We had such problems getting through Customs!
- + (singular) uncountable:
  What freedom young people enjoy nowadays!
  Young people enjoy such freedom nowadays!

3.28.8 Zero article for unspecified quantity [> 3.6, 5.3, 5.10]
Sometimes we do not use some or any to refer to indefinite number or amount:
/ I have presents for the children I have news for you
Are there presents for me too? Is there news for me too?

3.29 Deliberate omission of 'a/an' and 'the'
There are many instances in everyday life when we deliberately omit both definite and indefinite articles to save space, time and money. For example:

Newspaper headlines: HOTEL FIRE DISASTER

Nouns in apposition: e.g. Film star Britt Ekland  War hero Douglas Bader  , Miracle heart-swap man Keith Castle  (no commas)
'Small ads': 1st fl fit in mod blk close West End, dble recep (= A first floor flat in a modern block close to the West End with a double reception room...)

Notes: Causes of 2nd World War- massive re-armament, invasion Czechoslovakia, etc. (= The causes of the Second World War: massive re-armament, the invasion of Czechoslovakia, etc.)
(Shopping) lists: Cleaner's collect skirt
Supermarket: meat, eggs, sugar, melon

Instructions: Cut along dotted line (= Cut along the dotted line.)

Notices: Lift out of order (= The lift is out of order.)

Labels: Beside e.g. a picture of a bicycle, an arrow pointing to the 'frame', with the label FRAME  (for the frame)
Some dictionary filling material used to fill cavity in tooth (= filling: a definitions: material used to fill a cavity in a tooth.)
3 Articles

3.30 'A/an', 'the', zero article + nouns in apposition

When two nouns or noun phrases are used in apposition [> 1.39], the use of the indefinite, definite and zero articles before the second noun or noun phrase sometimes affects the meaning:

*D H Lawrence, an author from Nottingham, wrote a book called 'Sons and Lovers' (This implies that the reader may not have heard of D.H. Lawrence.)*

*D H Lawrence, the author of 'Sons and Lovers', died in 1930* (This implies that many people have heard of D.H. Lawrence, or, if not, of 'Sons and Lovers'.)

*D H Lawrence, author of 'Sons and Lovers', died in 1930* (This implies that everyone has heard of D.H. Lawrence.)

3.31 Zero article or 'the' with place names

Most place names are used with zero, but there is some variation. In particular, the is used when a countable noun like one of the following appears in the title: bay, canal, channel, gulf, kingdom, ocean, republic, river, sea, strait, union. The is often omitted on maps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continents:</td>
<td>zero: Africa, Asia, Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Arctic, the Balkans, the Equator, the Middle East, the North Pole, the West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical areas:</td>
<td>zero: Central Asia, Inner London, Lower Egypt, Outer Mongolia, Upper Austria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Arctic, the Balkans, the Equator, the Middle East, the North Pole, the West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical references:</td>
<td>zero: Ancient Greece, Medieval Europe, pre-war/post-war Germany, Roman Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Dark Ages, the Renaissance, the Stone Age, the Stone Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakes</td>
<td>zero: Lake Constance, Lake Erie, Lake Geneva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Pacific (Ocean), the Caspian (Sea), the Nile (or the River Nile), the Mississippi (or the Mississippi River), the Suez Canal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceans/seas/rivers:</td>
<td>zero: the Pacific (Ocean), the Caspian (Sea), the Nile (or the River Nile), the Mississippi (or the Mississippi River), the Suez Canal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Pacific (Ocean), the Caspian (Sea), the Nile (or the River Nile), the Mississippi (or the Mississippi River), the Suez Canal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountains:</td>
<td>zero: Everest Mont Blanc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Jungfrau, the Matterhorn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain ranges:</td>
<td>zero: the Alps, the Himalayas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islands</td>
<td>zero: Christmas Island, Delos, Easter Island</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the: the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups of islands:</td>
<td>zero: the Azores, the Bahamas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deserts</td>
<td>zero: the Gobi (Desert), the Kalahari (Desert), the Sahara (Desert)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Countries

**Zero article:**
- Most countries.
- Finland, Germany
- Turkey, etc.

**The article:**
- the ARE (the Arab Republic of Egypt), the
- the UK (the United Kingdom), the
- the USA (the United States of America) the
- USSR (the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)

**A few countries:**
- the Argentine (or Argentina), the
- Netherlands, the
- Philippines, (the) Sudan, (the) Yemen

### States/counties

**Zero article:**
- Bavaria, Ohio, Surrey

**The article:**
- the Vatican

### Cities

**Zero article:**
- Denver, London, Lyons

**The article:**
- the City of London, The Hague

### Universities

**Zero article:**
- Cambridge University

**The article:**
- the University of Cambridge

### Streets, etc

**Zero article:**
- London Road, Madison Avenue, Oxford Street, Piccadilly Circus

**The article:**
- the High Street, the
- Strand, The Drive

**Note:**
- the London road (= the road that leads to London)

### Parks

- Central Park, Hyde Park

### Addresses

- 49 Albert Place, 3 West Street, 2 Gordon Square Crescent
- 25 The Drive, 74 The Drive

### Buildings

- Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey
- the British Museum, the Library of Congress

### Other locations

**The is sometimes part of the title, sometimes not:**

**Bridges:**
- London Bridge
- The Golden Gate Bridge
- The Thames Bridge

**Cinemas:**
- The Gaumont
- The Odeon

**Hospitals:**
- Guy's (Hospital)
- The London Hospital
- The Royal Free Hospital

**'Places':**
- Death Valley
- Heaven, Hades
- The Everglades
- The Underworld

**Pubs:**
- The White Horse

**Restaurants:**
- Leon's (Restaurant)
- The Cafe Royal

**Shops:**
- Selfridges
- The Scotch House

**Stations:**
- Victoria (Station)
- Waterloo (Station)

**Theatres:**
- Her Majesty's (Theatre)
- Sadler's Wells (Theatre)
- The Phoenix (Theatre)
- The Coliseum (Theatre)
4 Pronouns

General information about pronouns, possessives and determiners

4.1 Form of personal/reflexive pronouns and possessives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>personal pronouns:</th>
<th>possessives:</th>
<th>reflexive pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>adjetives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>its</td>
<td>itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>(one’s)</td>
<td>oneself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him</td>
<td>his</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td>hers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>itself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>oneself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- demonstrative adjectives and pronouns: this/that/these/those [> 4.32].
- indefinite pronouns: some, any and their compounds [> 4.37].
- relative pronouns: who whom, that, which [> 1.27].
- possessive adjectives {my, etc. [> 4.19]) function as determiners rather than pronouns, but they are treated together with possessive pronouns (mine, etc.) because they are related in form and meaning.

4.2 The difference between pronouns and determiners

4.2.1 Pronouns
A pronoun is a word that can be used in place of a noun or a noun phrase, as the word itself tells us: pro-noun. We do not normally put a noun after a pronoun except in special combinations such as you students she-bear, etc. We use pronouns like he she, it and they when we already know who or what is referred to. This saves us from having to repeat the name or the noun whenever we need to refer to it:

John arrived late last night. He had had a tiring journey
I wrote to Kay and told her what had happened.

However, we normally use I/me, you and we/us for direct reference to ourselves or the person(s) addressed and not in place of nouns.

4.2.2 Determiners [> 3.1] compared with pronouns
Determiners are always followed by a noun. Words such as some [> 5.10] and this [> 4.32] followed by a noun function as determiners. When they stand on their own, they function as pronouns:

I want some milk, (some + noun, functioning as determiner)
I want this book (this + noun, functioning as determiner)
I want this (this on its own, functioning as pronoun)
4.3 Form of personal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>you</th>
<th>he</th>
<th>she</th>
<th>it</th>
<th>one</th>
<th>we</th>
<th>you</th>
<th>they</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Notes on the form of personal pronouns

1. Though these words are called personal pronouns, they do not refer only to people. For example:
   - Your breakfast is ready. It is on the table.
   - We call them 'personal pronouns' because they refer to grammatical 'persons' (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and can be grouped like this:
     - 1st person: I, we
     - 2nd person: you
     - 3rd person: he, she, it, one, they

2. Most European languages have two forms of you, an informal one for family, close friends, children, etc. and a formal one for strangers, superiors, etc. In English, we do not make this distinction: the one word, you, is used for everybody. There aren't different singular and plural forms of you (except for yourself yourselves).

3. Note that the singular subject pronouns he she and it have the same plural form: they; and the singular object pronouns him her and have the same plural form: them.

4. The choice of pronoun depends on the noun that is being replaced (> 2.39-40, 4.2.1). Pronouns (except for you) agree with the nouns they replace in number (showing us whether they are referring to singular or plural). Some agree in gender (showing us whether they are referring to masculine, feminine or neuter):
   - John is here. He (replacing John) can't stay long.
   - The windows are dirty. I must wash them (replacing windows).
   - If you see Joanna please give her (replacing Joanna) this message.

5. We do not normally use a noun and a pronoun together:
   - My friend invited me to dinner  (Not *My friend, he...*)
   - I parked my car outside  (Not *My car, I parked it...*)

4.5 Subject pronouns

Subject pronouns nearly always come before a verb in statements. They are used when the person or thing referred to can be identified by both speaker and hearer:

- John didn't find us in so he left a message.

In English, the subject of a sentence must be expressed. If it is not directly expressed, its presence is strongly implied (> 4.5.8). This can be contrasted with some other European languages, where the use of subject pronouns can be optional.

4.5.1 The first person singular: 'I'
The speaker or writer uses / when referring to himself or herself. This is the only personal pronoun which is always spelt with a capital letter.
Note that / is written as a capital letter whether it’s at the beginning of a sentence or not

/i think therefore I am John told me I needn t wait\n
In polite usage it is usual to avoid mentioning yourself first

\textit{Jane and I have already eaten} (in preference to / and Jane)\n
\subsection*{4.5.2 The second person singular and plural: ‘you’}

We use this when we address another person, or two or more people

\textit{Are you ready} Jill\textsuperscript{9} Or \textit{Are you (both/all) ready?} \n
\textit{Fox you in the sense of ‘anyone in general’} [> 4.9]\n
\subsection*{4.5.3 The third person singular masculine: ‘he’ [compare > 4.8]}

\textit{He} stands for a male person who has already been mentioned

\textit{Don’t expect David to accept your invitation} He s far too busy

\textit{He} is used in certain proverbial expressions to mean ‘anyone’

\textit{He who hesitates is lost}\n
\subsection*{4.5.4 The third person singular feminine: ‘she’ [compare > 4.8]}

\textit{She} stands for a female person who has already been mentioned

\textit{Ask Jennifer if she} Il be home in time for dinner\n
\subsection*{4.5.5 The third person singular neuter: ‘it’ [compare > 4.8]}

\textit{It} can refer to a thing, a quality, an event, a place, etc

\textit{That vase is valuable} It s more than 200 years old

\textit{Loyalty must be earned} It can t be bought

\textit{I love swimming} It keeps me fit

\textit{Last night I ran out of petrol} It really taught me a lesson

\textit{You should visit Bath} It s not far from Bristol

We can use \textit{it} to identify people

\textit{There s a knock at the door} Who is it? –It’s the postman

\textit{Who s that?} –\textit{It’s our new next-door neighbour Mrs Smith}

Compare this request for information (not identification)

\textit{Who s Mrs Smith?} –\textit{She s our new next-door neighbour}

We also use \textit{it} when we don’t know the sex of a baby or child

\textit{It s a lovely baby} Is it a boy or a girl?

We refer to an animal as \textit{it} when the sex is not known or not worth identifying

I m fed up with that dog of yours It never stops barking

\subsection*{4.5.6 The first person plural: ‘we’ (two or more people)}

We can include the listener or not

\textit{Let’s go shall we}\textsuperscript{9} (including the listener)

\textit{We re staying here} What about \textit{you?} (not including the listener)

We is often used to mean ‘anyone/everyone’, e.g. in newspapers

\textit{We should applaud the government s efforts to create more jobs}

\textit{We is used in the same way in general statements}

\textit{We all fear the unknown}\n
\subsection*{4.5.7 The third person plural: ‘they’ (two or more people, things, etc.)}

They can stand for persons, animals or things already mentioned

\textbf{John and Susan} phoned \textbf{They} re coming round this evening

\textit{Look at those cows!} \textit{They never stop eating}

\textit{Our curtains} look dirty \textit{They need a good wash}
Personal pronouns

They can be used in general statements to mean 'people'

They say (or People say) oil prices will be going up soon

They is also commonly used to refer to 'the authorities'

They re putting up oil prices again soon

They is also used to mean 'someone else, not me'

If you ask at Reception they will tell you where it is

For they in place of anyone, etc [> 4.40]

For the use of we you and they with both and all [> 5.19-20]

4.5.8 Omission of subject in abbreviated statements
In everyday speech, we sometimes omit subject pronouns

Found this in the garden Know who it belongs to?

(= I found this in the garden Do you know who it belongs to?)

4.6 Object pronouns
Object pronouns replace nouns in object positions They can be

- direct objects [> 1.9] Have you met Marilyn? I ve never met her
- indirect objects [> 1.9] If you see Jim give him my regards
- objects of prepositions [> 8.1] I really feel sorry for them

In polite usage it is usual to avoid mentioning yourself first

They were met by John and me (in preference to me and John)

We often use both and all with you to avoid ambiguity (since you can refer to both or all) [> 5.19-20]

Good luck to you both/all

Us is often used very informally in place of me, particularly after the imperatives of verbs like give and pass

Give us a hand with this trunk will you?

In everyday speech, it is normal for unstressed him her and them to be pronounced im er and em

Give 'im the money Give 'er a kiss Give 'em all you ve got

4.7 Subject or object pronoun?
Here are a few exceptions to the rules for using subject and object pronouns outlined in.4 5 and 4.6

4.7.1 Object pronouns after 'be'
Object pronouns are normally used in preference to subject pronouns after be in everyday speech

Who is it? - It s me/him/her/us/them

4.7.2 Object pronouns (especially 'me') as subjects [> 13.29.3, 13.42n2]
Subject pronouns (/ she, etc ) are not normally used by themselves or in short answers with not Object pronouns are used instead

Who wants a ride on my bike? - Me/Not me!

An object pronoun can also occur as the subject of a particular kind of exclamatory question for stress or emphasis

You can tell him - Me tell him. Not likely!
Me occurs very informally in 'cleft sentences' [> 4.14]

Don t blame Harry It was me who opened the letter

where careful usage would require

It was I who (Or I was the one who )
4 Pronouns

4.7.3 Object or subject pronouns after comparatives with 'as' and 'than'
Object pronouns are commonly used in statements like the following when as and than function as prepositions:

*She's as old as me/as him* You're taller than me/than her

However, subject pronouns are used if as or than function as conjunctions, i.e. when they are followed by a clause (> 1.53, 6.27.1):

*She's as old as I am/he is* You're taller than I am/she is

4.7.4 Object pronouns in exclamations
Object pronouns often occur in exclamations like the following:

*He's got to repay the money - Poor him!* (= Isn't he unlucky!)
*She's been promoted - Lucky her!* (= Isn't she lucky!)

4.8 Gender in relation to animals, things and countries
Animals are usually referred to with it as if they were things (> 4.5.5). We only use he, she, who, etc. when there is a reason for doing so. For example, animals may be 'personalized' as pets, as farm animals, or in folk tales, and referred to as male or female:

*What kind of dog is Spot? He's a mongrel.*

Other 'lower animals' and insects are only referred to as he, she, etc. when we describe their biological roles:

*The cuckoo lays her eggs in other birds' nests* or, sometimes, when we regard their activities with interest:

*Look at that frog! Look at the way he jumps!*

Ships, cars, motorbikes and other machines are sometimes referred to as if they were feminine when the reference is affectionate:

*My cars not fast, but she does 50 miles to the gallon*

Countries can also be 'personified' as feminine: e.g.

*In 1941 America assumed her role as a world power*

'One'

4.9 General statements with 'one' and 'you'
One, used as an indefinite pronoun meaning 'everyone/anyone' (> 4.37), is sometimes used (formally) in general statements:

*World trade is improving, but one cannot expect miracles*

In everyday speech, the informal you is preferred:

*Can you buy refrigerators in Lapland? (= Can anyone ...?)*

One may be used to replace I, but this tends to sound pompous:

*One likes to have one's breakfast in bed now and again.*

One can be linked with one's, just as you can be linked with your-

However, constructions with one, one's and oneself are often awkward because of the repetition of one-

*One should do one's best at all times*  
(For: *You should do your best at all times *)

*One shouldn't be too hard on oneself*  
(For: *You shouldn't be too hard on yourself*)

In AmE one's/oneself can be replaced by his/her, himself/herself-

*One should give himself/herself a holiday from time to time*  
For the use of the passive in place of one (> 12.4.3).
4.10 ‘One’ as a ‘prop word’ after a determiner [compare > 4.16, 5.30]
One and ones are frequently used as substitution words after a
determiner (that one, etc). One(s) is sometimes called a prop word
because it supports the meaning of the noun it replaces. One is used
to replace a countable noun in the singular and ones to replace a
plural countable. One and ones can refer to people or things and we
use them when we wish to avoid repeating a noun:
Things:  Have you seen this dictionary? (singular countable)
- Is that the one that was published recently?
People:  Have you met our German neighbours? (plural countable)
- Are they the ones who moved here recently?
We cannot use one when referring to an uncountable noun:
Don’t use powdered milk Use this fresh (milk) (Not *one*)
One and ones as prop words are most commonly used when we are
identifying people and things, particularly after Which?, this/that,
and adjectives [compare > 6.6]. One and ones are optional after Which?,
after this/that and after superlatives. Ones can be used after these’
those, though it is usually avoided:
Which (one) would you like? - This (one) or that (one)?
Which (ones) would you like? - These (ones) or those (ones)?
Which (one/ones) do you want? - The cheapest (one/ones)
We normally use one/ones after the positive form of adjectives:
Which (one/ones) do you want? - The large one/ones
After colour adjectives, one and ones may be omitted in answers:
Which (one/ones) do you want? - I’ll have the red (one/ones)
In statements, requests, etc. one and ones must be used after
this/that/these/those + adjective:
I’ll try on a few of these shirts Please pass me that white one
One and ones can be used in specific references after the definite
article (the one/the ones), demonstratives (this one) or with defining
phrases (the one/ones with pink ribbons) to identify or to indicate the
location of people and things:
Which woman do you mean?      - The one in the green dress
Which boys rang the doorbell?   - The ones in the street
Which shirt(s) do you want?       - The one(s) in the window

4.11 Reference to two: ‘the one…the other’
We can refer to two people or things (or to two groups) through the
following combinations: (the) one  the other, the first  the second, or
more formally, the former  the latter
You shouldn’t get Botticelli and Bocchenni mixed up
(The) one  the other
The first  is a painter  the second  is a composer
The former  the latter
The former and the latter can have a plural verb:
Beans and peas are good value The former/The latter are cheap
4 Pronouns

'it'

4.12 'it' as an 'empty subject'

We often use 'it' in sentences referring to time, the weather, temperature or distance. When used in this way, it is sometimes called an empty subject because it carries no real information. It is present because every English sentence has to contain a subject and a verb [> 4.5]:

- **Time:** It's 8 o'clock. It's Tuesday. It's May 25th.
- **Weather:** It's hot. It's raining. It rains a lot here.
- **Temperature:** It's 37° centigrade/Celsius.
- **Distance:** It's 20 miles to/from London.
- **The tides:** It's high tide at 11.44.
- **Environment:** It's noisy/smoky in here.
- **Present situation:** Isn't it awful? Isn't it a shame?
- **With since:** It's three years since we last met.
- **With says:** It says here there was a big fire in Hove.
- **With take [> 16.21]:** It takes (us) half an hour to get to work.

And note many expressions with 'it', e.g. it doesn't matter, it's no use.

(it as subject); I've had it; That does it? (it as object).

4.13 'it' as a 'preparatory subject'

Sometimes sentences beginning with 'it' continue with an infinitive, a gerund or a noun clause [> 1.23.1, 16.27.2, 16.47]. It is possible to begin such sentences with an infinitive or gerund, but we generally prefer 'it'.

- **It's pleasant to lie in the sun** (To lie in the sun is pleasant)
- **It's lying in the sun** (Lying in the sun is pleasant)
- **It's a shame that Tom isn't here** (That Tom isn't here is a shame)
- **It doesn't matter when we arrive** (When we arrive doesn't matter)

The true subject in the above sentences with 'it' is the infinitive, gerund or noun clause and 'it' is preparatory to the subject.

- **adjectives:** e.g. difficult, easy, important, vital [> App 44]:
  - It's easy (for me) to make mistakes.
- **nouns:** e.g. fun, a pity, a pleasure, a shame [> 1.23.1, 16.34]:
  - It's a pleasure (for us) to be here.
- **verbs:** e.g. appear, happen, look, seem [> 1.47.2, 10.25]:
  - It appears that he forgot to sign the letter.
  - It now looks certain that the fire was caused by a cigarette end.

4.14 The use of 'it' in 'cleft sentences'

We can begin sentences with 'it is' or 'it was' + subject + that or who(m), if we wish to emphasize the word or phrase that follows. Sentences formed in this way are called cleft sentences because a simple sentence is split up (cleft) into two clauses using the it-construction:
Freda phoned Jack last night (simple sentence, no emphasis)
It was Freda who phoned Jack last night (and not Rita)
It was Jack who(m) Freda phoned last night (and not Richard)
It was last night that Freda phoned (and not this morning)

4.15 'It' as a 'preparatory object' [compare > 1.14]

It + adjective can be used after verbs like find [> 16.22] to prepare us for the infinitive or the that-clause that follows:
+ infinitive: Tim finds it difficult to concentrate
+ that-clause: Jan thinks it funny that I've taken up yoga

It can also be used after verbs like enjoy, hate, like, love
I don't like it when you shout at me.

4.16 Specific 'it/they', etc. and non-specific 'one/some', etc.

4.16.1 Obligatory subjects: 'it', 'they', 'one', 'some' (for things)

It and they are used as subjects if the reference is specific:

specific: Did the letter I've been expecting come?
- Yes, it came this morning (the + singular noun = it)
Did the letters I've been expecting come?
- Yes, they came this morning, (the + plural noun = they)

One and some, functioning on their own as pronouns, can be used as subjects if the reference is non-specific:

non-specific: Did a letter come for me?
- Yes, one came/some came for you this morning
(a/an + singular noun = one)
Did any letters come for me?
- Yes, some came/one came for you this morning
(any/some + plural noun = some in a positive answer or none in a negative answer)

16.2 Obligatory objects: 'it', 'them', 'one', 'some', 'any'(for things)

An object is obligatory after transitive verbs, such as enjoy or make, and verbs which are being used transitively, such as play [> App 1].

It, them or a noun must be used as objects when the reference is specific [> 4.16.1]:

What do you think of this cake?
- I like it/I don't like it (Not */ I like/don't like*)

What do you think of these cakes?
- I like them/I don't like them (Not */ I like/don't like*)

One must be used as an object when it stands for a/an + countable noun (i.e. the reference is non-specific) [> 4.16.1]:

Have a biscuit - I've had one/I don't want one thank you
Would you like a drink? - I'd love one thank you

Some and any [> 5 10] must be used as objects when there is a non-specific reference to uncountable nouns and plural countables:

Have you got any sugar? Can you lend me some please?
- Sorry, I haven't got any (to spare).
Have you got any drawing-pins? Can I borrow some please?
- I'm afraid I haven't got any (to spare)
4 Pronouns

4.17 'So', not 'it' with certain verbs [compare > 1.23.5]
After verbs such as believe, expect, fear, guess (especially AmE: I guess so), hope, imagine, presume, say, suppose, tell someone 'think (also after I'm afraid and It seems/appears), it is usual to follow with so (never ,t) in affirmative responses, so that we do not repeat a whole clause:
Is it true that Geoff has had a heart attack?
- I am afraid so/I believe so/I think so It seems so

In negative responses, not can be used directly after be afraid believe, expect, fear guess (especially AmE: I guess not) hope imagine, presume, suppose, think (and It seems/appears)- Has Anne got into university?
- I am afraid not/I believe not/I think not It seems not

Alternative responses using not so are possible with believe expect imagine, say, suppose and think:
I don't believe so/ imagine so/ suppose so/ think so

So can also precede the subject in short responses-
- with verbs like believe, gather, hear, notice, see understand
  The stock market share-index has risen sharply
  So I believe/gather/hear/notice/see/understand
- with verbs like say, tell, seem, appear
  So you said So he told me So it seems So it appears
- before or after (I) should/would + verbs like expect, hope say think (implying 'this is what ought to happen')-
  So I should (or would) hope I Or: I should (or would) hope so'

4.18 'So' or 'it' after certain verbs
So and it are normally interchangeable after do, when do substitutes for another verb which has already been used and when it reflects an action that has been deliberately performed-
Please lay the table - I've just done so / I've just done it

After verbs like guess, know, remember, it can be used or omitted-
Jack and Jill were secretly married - Yes, I know I had guessed
(= I know it. I had guessed it.)

Possessive adjectives/possessive pronouns

4.19 Form of possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns
adjectives my your his her its one's our your their pronouns mine yours his hers - - ours yours theirs

4.20 Notes on form (possessive adjectives/ pronouns)
1 With the exception of one’s, the apostrophe s (‘s) is unacceptable with possessive adjectives and pronouns. We should not confuse its (possessive) with it’s = it is [> 10.6] or it has [> 10.29]
Possessive adjectives/pronouns

2 There are no familiar/non-familiar forms for the second person singular and plural (> 4.4n.2): your and yours are used in all cases.
3 One’s can be used as an impersonal possessive adjective, but not as a pronoun: One’s first duty is to one’s family (> 4.9)

1.21 Possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns compared
Possessive adjectives and pronouns show possession, i.e. that someone or something belongs to somebody. They answer the question Whose? The possessive adjectives my, your, etc. are determiners (> 3.1, 4.2.2) and must always be used in front of a noun. Their form is regulated by the possessor, not by the thing possessed. 

His refers to possession by a male: John’s daughter (= his daughter).

Her refers to possession by a female: Jane’s son (= her son).

Its refers to possession by an animal or thing: the cat’s milk (= its milk). the jacket of this book (= its jacket).

My, your and their refer to possession by males or females:

My house is there, ’Sally said / John said

Here is your tea, Sally/John,’ mother said

The boys’ coats are here and their caps are there

The girls’ coats are here and their berets are there

Their can also refer to possession by animals or things, as in:

Dogs should have their own kennels outside the house

Cars with their engines at the back are very noisy

The possessive pronouns mine, yours, etc. are never used in front of nouns and are stressed in speech. They refer equally to persons and things, singular or plural. Its is never used as a pronoun.

These are my children These children are mine

These are my things These things are mine

I can’t find my pen Can you lend me yours?

Possessive pronouns can come at the beginning of a sentence:

This is my cup Yours is the one that’s chipped

My father/My mother is a lawyer - Mine is a doctor

For ‘s/s’ possession without a noun (> 2.44, 2.51).

Noun + of it can sometimes be used in place of its + noun [compare > 2.50]:

How much is that book? I’ve forgotten the price of it/its price

For the use of of + possessive pronoun (> 2.52).

4.22 The use of ’my own’
Extra emphasis can be given to the idea of possession by the addition of own to all possessive adjectives (not pronouns). The resulting combinations can function as possessive adjectives (my own room) or possessive pronouns (it is my own). Instead of (my) own + noun we often use a/an + noun of (my) own. -

I’d love to have my own room/a room of my own

Our cat has its own corner/a corner of its own in this room

Further emphasis can be given with very-

I’d love to have my very own room/a room of my very own
4 Pronouns

We can say one’s own room or a room of one’s own, but we do not use one as a prop word (> 4.10) after (my) own:
Don’t use my comb Use your own (Not “your own one”)

4.23 The use of ‘the’ in place of possessive adjectives
The is never used with possessive adjectives and pronouns:
This is my car This car is mine, (no the) (> 3.4)
However, sometimes the is used where we might expect a possessive adjective, e.g. with parts of the body after prepositions:
He punched me in the face A bee stung her on the nose
This use can be extended to hair and clothes (i.e. things which are ‘attached’ to the body):
Miss Pingle pulled Clannda by the hair/ by the sleeve
Possessive adjectives (not “the”) must be used in most other cases:
She shook her head/ cleaned her teeth I’ve hurt my finger
In informal contexts, the can be used instead of (usually) my/your/our children, family, kids, as in:
How’s the family? Where are the children?
But e.g. Meet the wife is familiar but not universally acceptable.

Reflexive pronouns

4.24 Form of reflexive pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular:</th>
<th>myself</th>
<th>yourself</th>
<th>himself, herself, itself, oneself</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plural:</td>
<td>ourselves</td>
<td>yourselves</td>
<td>themselves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflexive pronouns are really compounds formed from possessive adjectives + -self; e.g. myself yourself; or from object pronouns + -self: e.g. himself.

4.25 Obligatory use of reflexive pronouns after certain verbs

There are only a very few verbs in English which must always be followed by a reflexive pronoun: e.g.absent avail, pride-
The soldier absented himself without leave for three weeks
Other verbs are very commonly followed by reflexives: e.g.amuse blame, cut, dry, enjoy, hurt, introduce
I cut myself shaving this morning
We really enjoyed ourselves at the funfair
Of course, these verbs can be followed by ordinary objects:
I’ve cut my lip We enjoyed the funfair
The important thing to remember is that verbs of this kind are never followed by object pronouns (me, him, her, etc.) when the subject and object refer to the same person:
I’ve cut myself (Not ‘me”)
Note that these verbs are all transitive (> 1.9). This means they must have an object and this is commonly a reflexive pronoun. The one exception is the intransitive verb behave, which can be followed (but need not be) by a reflexive pronoun:
Please behave (yourself) The children behaved (themselves)
4.26 Optional use of reflexive pronouns after certain verbs

Other verbs which can point the action back to the subject (e.g. dress, hide, shave, wash) can be intransitive, so we don’t need reflexive pronouns, though it would not be ‘wrong’ to use them. When these verbs are intransitive, it is assumed that the subject is doing the action to himself:

*I must dress/wash* (as opposed to dress/wash myself)

We often use (and stress) reflexive pronouns after such verbs when referring to children, the very old, invalids, etc. to indicate that an action is performed with conscious effort:

*Polly’s nearly learnt how to dress herself now*

4.27 Verbs which are not normally reflexive

Verbs such as get up, sit down, stand up, wake up and combinations with get (get cold/hot/tired, dressed, married), often reflexive in other European languages, are not normally so in English:

*got up with difficulty*

Reflexives would be used for special emphasis only:

*Will you get yourself dressed? We’re late*

4.28 Reflexive pronouns as objects of ordinary verbs

Reflexive pronouns can be used after many ordinary verbs if we wish to point back to the subject:

*I got such a shock when I saw myself in the mirror.*

Reflexives can be used as indirect objects:

*The boss gave himself a rise (= gave a rise to himself)*

Note there are a number of short conversational expressions with reflexive pronouns: e.g. Help yourself, Make yourself at home, Don’t upset yourself; and also a few fixed expressions: e.g. hear (yourself) speak, make (yourself) heard;

*I couldn’t make myself heard above the noise*

There is a difference in meaning between themselves and each other after verbs such as accuse, blame, help, look at [compare > 5.28]:

*The two bank clerks blamed themselves for the mistake* (= They both took the blame.)

*The two bank clerks blamed each other for the mistake* (= The one blamed the other.)

4.29 Reflexive pronouns as objects of prepositions

Reflexive pronouns can occur after prepositions which often follow verbs, nouns or adjectives [> Apps 27-29]:

*Look after yourself!*

*Lucy’s looking very pleased with herself*

or in combination with adverb particles: the reflexive comes between the verb and the particle [> 8.28]:

*We gave ourselves up*

*We pulled ourselves out (of the water)*
4 Pronouns

Myself is sometimes used (unnecessarily) instead of me or I:

They sent invitations to Geoff and myself (me is preferable)
Kate and myself think (Kate and I is preferable)

Reflexives also occur in a few idiomatic expressions, such as:

Strictly between ourselves, do you think she’s sane?
In itself his illness is nothing to worry about

In all other cases we use object pronouns after prepositions when the reference is to place or after with-:

I haven’t got any money on me (Not “myself”)
There was a bus in front of us (Not “ourselves”)
Did you bring any money with you?

By + reflexive means “unaided” or “alone”:

Susie made this doll’s dress all by herself (= unaided)
He lives by himself (= alone)

Reflexives can be used for emphasis after e.g. but and than-:

You can blame no one but yourself (= except yourself)
Harry would like to marry a girl younger than himself

After some prepositions we can use either form of pronoun:

Who’s prepared to work overtime besides me/myself

4.30 Reflexive pronouns used for emphasis

Reflexive pronouns can be used freely (but optionally) after nouns and pronouns for emphasis to mean ‘that person/thing and only that person/thing’ (I myself, you yourself, Tom himself, etc.):

You yourself heard the explosion quite clearly

The engine itself is all right, but the lights are badly damaged

The reflexive can also come at the end of a sentence or clause:

You heard the explosion yourself

and particularly where there is a comparison or contrast:

Tom’s all right himself, but his wife is badly hurt

When used for special emphasis, reflexives are stressed in speech, especially when there is a possibility of ambiguity:

Mr Bates rang the boss him’self (and not the boss’s secretary)

Reflexive pronouns are used in (often rude) rejoinders, such as:

Can you fetch my bags, please? - Fetch them yourself

And note the special use of Do it yourself (often abbreviated to D.I.Y.) to refer to decorating, repairs, etc. we do ourselves (e.g. to save money) instead of employing others:

I read about it in a Do It Yourself magazine

4.31 Reflexive pronouns after ‘be’ and verbs related to ‘be’

After be and related verbs such as feel, look, seem, reflexives can be used to describe feelings, emotions and states:

I don’t know what’s the matter with me I’m not myself today

Occasionally, we use a possessive adjective + adjective + self (noun):

Meg doesn’t look her usual cheerful self today

Frank didn’t sound his happy self on the phone this morning
Demonstrative adjectives and pronouns

4.32 Form of demonstrative adjectives and pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'Near' references matching here:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>singular:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'Distant' references matching there:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>singular:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.33 'This/that' and 'these/those': nearness and distance

'Nearness' may be physical. *This* and *these* may refer to something you are actually holding or that is close to you, or that you consider to be close to you, or to something that is present in a situation. We can associate *this* and *these* with *here*:

The picture I am referring to is **this one here**
The photographs I meant are **these here**

*This* and *these* can refer to nearness in time *(now)*:

Go and tell him now, **this instant!**

'Distance' may be physical. *That* and *those* can refer to something that is not close to you, or that you do not consider to be close to you. We can associate *that* and *those* with *there*:

The picture I am referring to is **that one there**
The photographs I meant are **those there**

*That* and *those* can refer to distance in time *(then)*:

Operations were difficult in the 18th century in **those days there**
were no anaesthetics

4.34 Demonstrative adjectives/pronouns compared

Demonstratives can be adjectives: that is, they can be determiners [§ 3.1] and go before a noun or one/ones [§ 4.10]; or they can be pronouns used in place of a noun or noun phrase [§ 4.2.1]:

**adjective + noun:** I don't like **this coat**

**adjective + one** I don't like **this one**

**pronoun:** I don't like **this**

Demonstratives used as pronouns normally refer to things, not people:

I found **this wallet** I found **this (pronoun)**

I know **this girl** *(this cannot stand on its own here)*

Demonstrative pronouns after What? refer to things:

What's **this/that?** What are **these/those?**

This and that as pronouns after Who? refer to people:

Who's **this?** Who's **that?**

*These* and those referring to people are followed by a (plural) noun. Compare *What are these/those?* (i.e. things) with:

*Who are these/those people/men/women/children?*

But those, closely followed by who, can be used on its own:

**Those (of you) who** wish to go now may do so quietly
4 Pronouns

4.35 Common uses of 'this/that' and 'these/those'

This/that/these/those used as adjectives or as pronouns have many different uses. For examples [> App 7].

4.36 Subject pronouns replacing demonstratives

Demonstratives are replaced by it or they in short responses when the thing or things referred to have been identified [compare > 13.19n7]:

Is this/that yours? Yes, it is (Not *Yes, this/that is*)
Are these/those yours? Yes, they are. (Not *Yes, these/those are*)
He/she can replace this/that when the reference is to people:
This/That is Mrs/Mr Jones She's/He's in charge here

Indefinite pronouns

4.37 Form of indefinite pronouns

Compounds of some, any, no and every

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>some-</th>
<th>any-</th>
<th>no-</th>
<th>every-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>someone</td>
<td>anyone</td>
<td>no one</td>
<td>everyone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somebody</td>
<td>anybody</td>
<td>nobody</td>
<td>everybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>something</td>
<td>anything</td>
<td>nothing</td>
<td>everything</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.38 Notes on the form of indefinite pronouns

1 There is no noticeable difference in meaning and use between -one forms and -body forms. They refer to male(s) and female(s).
2 These compounds (except no one) are normally written as one word.
3 These compounds (except those formed with -thing) have a genitive form [> 2.48]: Grammar isn't everyone's idea of fun
4 Compare compound adverbs which are formed with -where: somewhere, anywhere, nowhere and everywhere [> 7.18].

4.39 Uses of 'some/any/no/every' compounds

Some/any/no/every compounds (except -where compounds) function as pronouns. They are called indefinite because we do not always know who or what we are referring to. These compounds follow the rules given for the use of some, any and no [> 5.10-11].

Briefly, some compounds are used in:
- the affirmative: I met someone you know last night
- questions expecting 'yes': Was there something you wanted?
- offers and requests: Would you like something to drink?

Any compounds are used:
- in negative statements: There isn't anyone who can help you
- in questions when we are doubtful about the answer: Is there anyone here who's a doctor?
- with hardly, etc: I've had hardly anything to eat today

No compounds are used when the verb is affirmative [> 13.9]:

There's no one here at the moment
(= There isn't anyone...)
Indefinite pronouns

4.40 Personal pronoun reference with indefinite pronouns

The main problem (also for native speakers) is to know which personal pronouns to use to 'replace' the indefinite pronouns referring to people (someone anyone/no one-everyone). This is because English has no singular personal pronouns for both male and female. If we want to use personal pronouns (in place of the gaps) in a sentence like:

Everyone knows what has to do doesn’t?

the traditional rule is to use masculine pronouns, unless the context is definitely female (e.g. a girls’ school):

Everyone knows what he has to do doesn’t he?

However, in practice, the plural pronouns, they them, etc. (which refer to both sexes) are used instead without a plural meaning:

Everyone knows what they have to do don’t they?

This has the advantage of avoiding clumsy combinations like he or she and does not annoy mixed groups of people. However, it is not considered acceptable by some native speakers [compare > 2.41,5.31].

4.41 Indefinite pronouns + adjectives and/or the infinitive

Indefinite pronouns can combine with:
- positive adjectives: This is something special
  This isn’t anything important
- comparative adjectives: I’d like something cheaper
- the infinitive: Haven’t you got anything to do?
- for (me) + infinitive: Is there anything for me to sit on?

(Note that adjectives come after indefinite pronouns.)

4.42 Indefinite pronouns + 'else'

Like question-words (What Who, etc. [> 13.31n8]), indefinite pronouns readily combine with else (everyone else someone else, anything else, etc.); else can mean ‘additional/more’ or ‘different’:
- ‘more’: We need one more helper Can you find anyone else?
- ‘different’: Take this back and exchange it for something else

Anything (else) and nothing (else) can be followed by but

Nothing (else) but a major disaster will get us to realize that we can’t go on destroying the ram forests of the world

Else than is also heard, but this is usually replaced by other than, especially with reference to people:

Someone other than your brother should be appointed manager

Indefinite pronouns referring to people can combine with else s

This isn’t mine It is someone else’s It’s someone else’s coat
5 Quantity

General introduction to quantity

5.1 Quantifiers: what they are and what they do

Quantifiers are words or phrases like few little plenty (of), which often modify nouns and show how many things or how much of something we are talking about. Some quantifiers combine with countable nouns, some with uncountable and some with both kinds [> 2.14]

1 Quantifiers combining with countable nouns answer How many?
   How many eggs are there in the fridge? - There are a few

2 Quantifiers combining with uncountable nouns answer How much?
   How much milk is there in the fridge? - There is a little

3 Quantifiers combining with uncountable or with countable answer How many’ or How much?
   How many eggs are there in the fridge? - There are plenty
   How much milk is there in the fridge? - There is plenty

Quantifiers can function as determiners [> 3.1] or (with the exception of every and no) as pronouns [> 4.2.2], some of them can function as adverbs I don’t like coffee very much [> 7.41]

5.2 Quantifier + noun combinations

Quantifiers combine with different types of nouns

1 Quantifier + plural countable noun not many books any number more than one (2, 3, etc.), both a couple of dozens hundreds of (a) few fewer the fewest a the majority of (not) many a minority of a number of several We have fewer students specializing in maths than in English

2 Quantifier + uncountable noun not much sugar a (small) amount of a bit of a drop of (liquid) a great good deal of (a) little less [but > 5.16], the least (not) much I’d like a bit of bread with this cheese

3 Quantifier + plural countable noun a lot of books or + (singular) uncountable noun a lot of sugar some (of the) any (of the) all (the) hardly any enough half of the half the a lot of lots of more most most of the none of the the other part of the plenty of the rest of the There isn’t any traffic on the road at the moment

4 Quantifier + singular countable noun each book all (of) the another any (of the) each either every half (of) the most of the neither no none of the one the only the other some (of the) the whole (of the)
   It’s each/every man for himself in this business
5.3 Degrees of indefinite quantity

References to quantity can be **definite** that is, we can say exactly how many or how much.

*We need six eggs and half a kilo of butter.*

However, most quantifiers are **indefinite** that is, they do not tell us exactly how many or how much.

**Some** and **any** refer to indefinite number or amount.

- Are there **(any)** apples in the bag?
- There are **(some)** apples in the bag (We are not told how many)
- Is there **(any)** milk in the fridge?
- There is **(some)** milk in the fridge (We are not told how much)

**No + noun** indicates a complete absence of the thing mentioned.

- There are **no apples**
- There is **no milk**

Most quantity words give us more information than **some** and **any**, telling us the comparative degree of the number or amount e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural countable nouns</th>
<th>Uncountable nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximately <strong>too many</strong> eggs</td>
<td>Approximately <strong>too much</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plenty of eggs</td>
<td>Plenty of milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot of/lots of eggs</td>
<td>A lot of/lots of milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(not) enough eggs</td>
<td>(not) enough milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A few eggs</td>
<td>A little milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very few eggs</td>
<td>Very little milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not many eggs</td>
<td>Not much milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly any eggs</td>
<td>Hardly any milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No eggs</td>
<td>No milk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4 Distributives: whole amounts and separate items

Words like **all** both each every either and **neither** are sometimes called **distributives**. They refer to whole amounts (all/both the children all both the books all the cheese), or to separate items (each child either of the books) [> 5.18-31]

5.5 The use of ‘of’ after quantifiers

Some quantity phrases used as determiners always take of.

*We ve had a lot of answers.* (a lot of answers = determiner + noun)

But when they are used as pronouns, of is dropped:

*We ve had a lot.* (a lot as a pronoun)

5.5.1 General references with quantifiers

Quantifiers which always take of before nouns/pronouns include:

- A couple of
- Dozens of hundreds of
- The majority a minority of
- A number of
5 Quantity

*a large small amount of cheese (uncountable)*
*a bit of*
*a lot of lot of*
*books cheese (plural countable or plenty of uncountable)*

These references are general i.e. we are not saying which particular people, etc.

Other quantifiers (any (a) few more most some, etc.) go directly before the noun (no of) in general references

There are hardly any eggs a few eggs in the fridge
There is some butter no butter in the dish

5.5.2 Specific references with quantifiers

If we need to be specific (i.e. point to particular items) we can follow a quantifier with of + a determiner (the this my) [> 3.1]

Have some of this/a little of my wine (e.g. the wine in this bottle)
I'll lend you some of these/a few of my books (specified books)

In the same way we can make specific references with quantifiers which are always followed by of [> 5.5.1] by using determiners after them Compare

A lot of students missed my lecture yesterday (general reference)
A lot of the students who missed my lecture yesterday want to borrow my notes (specific reference)

Note the following quantifiers which are always specific and which must therefore be followed by of + determiner

None of the/this milk can be used
Part of/The rest of this food will be for supper
Put the rest of those biscuits in the tin

Note the omission and use of of in
How much is left? - None (of it) Part of it The rest of it
How many are left? - None (of them) Part of/The rest of them

5.6 The use of 'more' and 'less' after quantifiers

5.6.1 Quantifier + 'more'

More can be used after these quantifiers with plural countable nouns some any a couple dozens hundreds a few hardly any a lot lots many no numbers, plenty several weights, measures

More can be used after these quantifiers with uncountable nouns some any a bit a good great deal hardly any a little a lot lots much no plenty weights

Quantifier + more combinations can be used as follows
- directly in front of nouns I'd like some more chips/milk
- before of + determiner Do you want some more of these chips? as pronouns I don't want any more thank you

5.6.2 Quantifier + 'less' [see also > 5.16.1]

Less can be used after these quantifiers with uncountable nouns an\a bit a good great deal a little a lot lots much, as follows
Particular quantifiers and their uses

- directly in front of nouns  *Much less soup please*
- before of + determiner  *I'd like much less of that soup*
- as pronouns  *I want much less please*

5.7 The use of ‘...left’ and ‘...over’ after quantifiers

Left (= not consumed or remaining) and over (= more than is wanted) combine with many quantifiers whether they are used as determiners or pronouns

_Are there any sweets left? - I haven't got any left I'm afraid_

_Were prepared too much food for the party and we had a lot over_

_I thought we mightn't have enough pies but there's one over_

5.8 The use of ‘not’ before quantifiers

_Not_ (Not “no”) can be used directly in front of e.g. _all another (one) enough every a few half the least a little many more much one the only one_ as follows [compare > 5.13,13.13]

- to begin statements  _Not much is happening in our office at the moment_
- to emphasize the opposite in front of e.g. _a few and a little_
  _She's had not a few proposals of marriage in her time (= a lot)_
- in short negative answers  _How much did they offer you? - Not enough’_
- (in a few cases) to express surprise  _I bought a new hat - Not another one’_

5.9 Numbers [*App 47*

Exact indications of quantity can be conveyed by means of numbers

5.9.1 Cardinal numbers [compare > 2.37.1, 3.11]

Cardinal numbers can be used as quantifiers (two apples) or pronouns (_I bought two_) The number _one_ will combine with any noun used as a singular countable noun

_We've got one micro and two electric typewriters in our office_

All other numbers combine with plural countable nouns

_Two cabbages three pounds of tomatoes and twelve oranges_

Note also ordinals followed by cardinals (_the first three the second two etc_) and _the next last two etc_

_The first three runners won medals_

5.9.2 Counting

A number of adverbial expressions can be used to describe quantities and groups e.g. _one at a time one by one two by two by the dozen by the hundred in tens in five hundreds_

_How would you like your money? - In fives please_

5.9.3 Fractions [*App 47.3.2*]

We can say eg  (_a one half_  _a one quarter or one fourth AmE) and  (_a one third_ Otherwise we make use of cardinal and
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ordinal numbers when referring to a fraction on its own 9/16 (nine sixteenths) or to a whole number + fraction 2 2/3' (two and two thirds)

2 1/4  (Two and a quarter) plus 3 1/2  (three and a half) equals 5 3/4  (five and three quarters)

We use a (Not "one") with fractions for weights and measures [> 3.11] I bought half a pound of tea and a quarter of a pound of coffee

This could also be expressed as a half pound of tea a quarter pound of coffee

5.9.4 Decimals [> App 47 3 3]

Fractions expressed as decimals are referred to as follows 0.5 (nought point five or point five), 2.05 (two point nought five or two point oh five), 2.5 (two point five)

The front tyre pressure should be 1.8 (one point eight) and the rear pressure 1.9 (one point nine)

5.9.5 Multiplying and dividing quantity

The following can be used to refer to quantity double (the quantity or amount), twice as much (or twice the quantity or amount), half as much (or half the quantity or amount), etc.

We need double/twice/three times the quantity/amount

5.9.6 Approximate number and quantity

Numbers can be modified by e.g. about almost exactly fewer than at least less than more than nearly over under

There were over seventy people at the party (= more than)
You can t vote if you re under eighteen (= less than)

5.10 The use of 'some' and 'any'

Some and any are the most frequently used quantity words in the language They never answer How many? and How much? How many do you want? • e.g. Just a few (Not 'some') How much do you want? • e.g. Just a little (Not 'some')

We generally use some and any when it is not important to state exactly how great or how small the quantity is They often function as if they were the plural of a an [> 3.6, 4.16]

There are some letters for you (unspecified number)

How many (letters are there)? Seven (number specified)

There is some bread in the bread-bin (unspecified amount)

How much (bread is there)? Half a loaf (amount specified)

It is sometimes possible to omit some or any [> 3.28.8, 5.3]

My wife bought me medicine and pastilles for my cough

Some (= indefinite quantity or amount) is normally used - in the affirmative

There are some eggs in the fridge (i.e. an unstated number)

There is some milk in the fridge (i.e. an unstated quantity)

- in questions when we expect (or hope to get) the answer 'Yes'

Have you got some paper-clips in that box? (i.e. I know or I think you've got some and expect you to say 'Yes')

- in offers, requests, invitations and suggestions when we expect the answer 'Yes' or expect implied agreement
Particular quantifiers and their uses

The following are in the form of questions though we are not seeking information [> 11.35-36]

Would you like some (more) coffee? (expecting ’Yes)  
May I have some (more) coffee? (expecting ’Yes )

- to mean ’certain but not all  

Some people believe anything they read in the papers  
Not some can be used in certain contexts to mean not all

I didn’t understand some of the lectures some of the information

Some + countable or uncountable noun is normally unstressed in fluent speech and is pronounced /səm/  

There are some /səm/ letters for you

As a pronoun some is pronounced /səm/ but not usually stressed

Would you like any sugar? – I’ve had some /səm/ thank you

Some, meaning certain but not all (see note above) is usually stressed and is pronounced /səm/. It can be stressed at the beginning of a statement to emphasize a contrast

Some /səm/ people have no manners

It can be stressed to refer to an unspecified person/thing  

’some /səm/ boy left his shirt in the cloakroom’ [> 5.12.1]

Any (= indefinite quantity or amount) is normally used

- in negative statements containing not or n t

We haven’t got any shirts in your size

There isn’t any milk in the fridge

- in questions when we are not sure about the answer or expect No

Have you got any paper-clips in the box? (i.e I don’t know if you’ve got any and wouldn’t be surprised if you said ’No’)

- in sentences containing a negative word other than not such as hardly never seldom or without or when there is any suggestion of doubt e.g with if or whether [implied negatives > 13.8]

There’s hardly any petrol in the tank

We got to Paris without any problems

I don’t know if/whether there’s any news from Harry

- with at all and (more formally) whatever for special emphasis

I haven’t got any idea at all/whatever about what happened

5.11 The use of ’not...any’, ’no’ and ’none’

5.11.1 Not...any and no’

An alternative way of forming a negative is with no [compare > 13.9]

not any There aren’t any buses after midnight

no There are no buses after midnight

A clause can contain only one negative word so that not and e.g no or never cannot be used together [> 7.39, 13.10]

I could get no information (Not ’I couldn’t’)

When used in preference to not any no is slightly more formal and makes a negative idea more emphatic. Negatives with not any are used in normal conversation but we must always use no (Never ’not any’) if we wish to begin a sentence with a negative

No department stores open on Sundays
5 Quantity

No can combine with a singular noun:

- *There's no letter for you* (= There isn't a letter for you.)
- *I'm no expert but I think this painting is a fake*

No at the beginning of a statement strongly emphasizes a negative idea [compare > 13.9].

5.11.2 'No' and 'none' [compare 'none of, > 5.5.2]

No meaning not any is a determiner and can only be used before a noun; none stands on its own as a pronoun:

- *There isn't any bread*   *There's no bread*        *There's none*
- *There aren't any sweets* *There are no sweets*     *There are none*

Like no, none is more emphatic than not any. When no or none are used, not cannot be used as well [> 7.39, 13.10];

- *I couldn't get any information about flights to the USA*
- *I could get no information about flights to the USA*
- *Do you have any new diaries? – We've got none at the moment*

5.12 Special uses of 'some', 'any' and 'no'

5.12.1 'Some'

Apart from its common use as a quantifier, some can be used to refer to an unspecified person or thing, etc. When used in this way it is generally stressed [> 5.10] and can mean:

- 'several': *I haven't seen Tom for some years*
- 'approximately': *There were some 400 demonstrators*
- 'extraordinary': *That's some radio you've bought' (informal)*
- 'an unknown': *There must be some book which could help*
- 'no kind of': *That's some consolation I must say' (ironic)*

With abstract nouns some can be used to mean 'an amount of:

*We've given some thought to your idea and find it interesting*

5.12.2 'Any'

Apart from its common use as a quantifier, any can be used to refer to an unspecified person or thing and can occur in affirmative statements. When used in this way it is stressed and can mean:

- 'usual': *This isn't just any cake (it's special)*
- 'the minimum/maximum': *He'll need any help he can get*
- 'I don't care which': *Give me a plate Any plate/one will do*

5.12.3 'Any' and 'no' + adjective or adverb

Any and no, used as adverbs to mean 'at all', will combine with adjectives and adverbs in the comparative:

- *Is he any better this morning?*    *No he's no better*

Any and no, used as adverbs, combine with a few positive adjectives, e.g. good (any good) and different (any different)

- *Is that book any good?* - *It's no good at all*

5.13 Common uses of 'much' and 'many' [also > 6.24, 7.4]

We normally use much (+ uncountable) and many (+ plural countable):

- in negative statements:
  *I haven't much time*    *There aren't many pandas in China*
Particular quantifiers and their uses

- in questions: (For questions with How much many? [> 13.40.1])
  Is there much milk in that carton? Have you had many inquiries?
In everyday speech we usually avoid using much and many in affirmative statements. We use other quantifiers, especially a lot of [> 5.14]. Much and many occur in formal affirmative statements:
  Much has been done to improve conditions of work
  Many teachers dislike marking piles of exercise books
Combinations like as much as and as many as are used in the affirmative or negative:
  You can/can’t have as much as (as many as) you like
When much and many are modified by much and far (much far too much far too many) they tend to be used in the affirmative:
  Your son gets much/far too much pocket money
  There are far too many accidents at this junction
Many in time expressions occurs in the affirmative or negative:
  I have lived here/haven’t lived here (for) many years
Not much and not many commonly occur in short answers:
  Have you brought much luggage?    No not much
  Have you written many letters?    No not many
Not much and not many can be subjects or part of the subject:
  Not much is really known about dinosaurs
  Not many people know about Delia’s past
Much occurs in a number of expressions (e.g. there is not much point in it’s a bit much, he’s not much of a):
  There’s not much point in telling the same story again
Not so much occurs in comparisons:
  It’s not so much a bedroom, more a studio
  Dennis is not so much a nuisance as a menace
  It’s not so much that he dislikes his parents, as that/but that he wants to set up on his own
Many (like few [> 5.15.1]) can be modified by the my your, etc.:
  One of the many people he knows can help him to get a job

5.14 ‘A lot of compared with similar quantifiers
Much and many do not normally occur in the affirmative in everyday speech [> 5.13]. Instead, we use a lot of and (informally) lots of:
  I’ve got a lot of/lots of time I’ve got a lot of/lots of books
A lot of lots of and plenty of (+ plural countable or singular uncountable) are normally used in the affirmative. They also occur in questions, especially when we expect the answer ‘Yes’:
  I met a lot of/lots of interesting people on holiday
  Don’t worry We’ve got plenty of time before the tram leaves
  Were there a lot of/lots of questions after the lecture?
A lot of and lots of occur in the negative as well, especially when we are emphasizing a negative or denying, but the use of plenty of in negative statements is less common:
  haven’t got a lot of patience with hypochondriacs!
5 Quantity

A lot of (not lots of or plenty of) can be modified by quite/rather:

Jimmy’s caused quite a lot of trouble at his new school.
The new law has affected rather a lot of people.

Plenty of a lot of and lots of can be used with singular or plural verbs depending on the noun that follows them:

There has been a lot of/lots of/plenty of gossip about her.
(uncountable noun, so singular verb)

There have been a lot of/lots of/plenty of inquiries.
(plural countable, so plural verb)

Several can only be used with plural countables in the affirmative:

We’ve already had several offers for our flat.

Several hundred people took part in the demonstration.

A lot of/lots of are often considered unsuitable in formal style. Instead, we use much/many or other quantifiers, such as:

- A great deal of or a great amount of + uncountable noun:
  A great deal of money is spent on research

- A large number of or a great number of + plural countable noun:
  A large number of our students are American

Some native speakers use amount of with countable nouns as well:

A large/great amount of our investments are in property.

5.15 '(A) few' and '(a) little'

5.15.1 'Few' and 'a few'

Few and a few are used with plural countables.

Few is negative, suggesting 'hardly any at all', and is often used after very.

Mona has had very few opportunities to practise her English.
In everyday speech we prefer not many or hardly any -
Mona hasn’t had many opportunities to practise her English.
Mona has hardly any opportunities to practise her English.

Few can also convey the idea of 'not as many as were expected':

A lot of guests were expected but few came.

A few is positive, suggesting 'some, a (small) number':

The police would like to ask him a few questions.
A few can mean 'a very small number', or even 'quite a lot'. The size of the number depends on the speaker’s viewpoint:

I don’t know how much he’s got, but it must be a few million.
A few can be used to mean 'more than none, more than expected':

Have we run out of sardines? - No there are a few tins left.

A few can also combine with other words: e.g.

just How many do you want? Just a few please.
(i.e. a limited number, not many)

only There are only a few seats left.
(i.e. very few, hardly any)

quite How many do you want? Quite a few please.
(i.e. quite a lot)
Particular quantifiers and their uses

A good We had a good few letters this morning (i.e. quite a lot)
Dozen 100 The film director employed a few hundred people as extras (i.e. several hundred)
The, my etc. The few people who saw the film enjoyed it
Her few possessions were sold after her death (i.e. the small number of)

5.15.2 Little' and a little'
Little and a little are used with (singular) uncountables.
Little (like few) is negative, suggesting 'hardly any at all' and is often used after very:
He has very little hope of winning this race
In everyday speech we prefer not much or hardly any:
He hasn't much hope of winning this race
He has hardly any hope of winning this race
Little can also convey the idea of 'not as much as was expected':
There's little point in trying to mend it
A little and, in very informal contexts, a bit (of) are positive, suggesting 'some, a (small) quantity':
I'd like a little (or a bit of) time to think about it please
The size of the amount depends on the viewpoint of the speaker:
Mrs Lacey left a little money in her will - about $1 000,000'
A little can also mean 'more than none, more than expected':
Have we got any flour? - Yes there's a little in the packet
A little can combine with other words: e.g.
just How much do you want? - Just a little please
(i.e. a limited quantity; not much)
only There's only a little soup left (i.e. very little, hardly any)
Few and little can be modified by e.g. extremely relatively
There are relatively few jobs for astronauts
A few and a little can modify other quantifiers, as in a few more, and a little less [compare > 6.27.5, 7.45-46],

5.16 'Fewer/the fewest' and 'less/the least'
These are the comparative and superlative forms of few and little. In theory, fewer/the fewest should be used only with plural countables (fewer/the fewest videos) and less/the least only with uncountables (less/the least oil):
Fewer videos were sold this year than last
Less oil was produced this year than last
In practice, however, the informal use by native speakers of less and the least with plural countables or collective words like people is commonly heard (less people, less newspapers, etc.) but is not generally approved:
Less and less people can afford to go abroad for their holidays
Political programmes on TV attract the least viewers
5 Quantity

Less (not fewer) is used before than for prices and periods of time:
It costs less than £5 I’ll see you in less than three weeks

5.16.1 The modification of ‘fewer’ and ‘less’
Fewer is modified by even far many a good deal many and a lot:
There are far fewer/a lot fewer accidents in modern factories
Less is commonly modified by even far a good deal a little a lot
many (many less — see 5.16) and much:
I’ve got much/a lot/far less free time than I used to have

5.17 ‘Enough’

Enough, meaning ‘adequate in quantity or number’, can be used in
front of plural countable nouns and (singular) uncountable nouns in all
kinds of utterances: statements, questions or negatives:
Have we got enough books to read while we are on holiday?
Have we got enough food in the house to last the next few days?
Compare the use of enough, meaning ‘of an adequate degree’, after
adjectives and adverbs [> 7.47-48]:
Is there enough hot water for me to take a bath? (quantity)
Is the water hot enough for me to take a bath? (degree)

Enough of will combine with a singular countable:
Your education is enough of a problem for me

Enough can be modified by about almost hardly less than more
than nearly not nearly quite not quite and scarcely:
There is hardly enough cake There are hardly enough biscuits
In special contexts little and few can modify enough:
I can’t lend you any money I have little enough
I can’t give you any stamps I have few enough
(i.e. less than enough money/fewer than enough stamps)

Enough (= sufficient) is associated with plenty (= more than enough),
especially in questions and answers:
Have you got enough cream on your strawberries?
- Yes I’ve got plenty thank you

Distributives

5.18 ’Both’, ‘all’ and ‘half + nouns [> 5.4]
5.18.1 ’Both’, ‘all’ and ‘half + plural countable nouns
- examples and notes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Both books are expensive</th>
<th>All books are expensive</th>
<th>Half the my these eggs are bad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both the my these books</td>
<td>All the my these books</td>
<td>Half of the my these books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are expensive</td>
<td>are expensive</td>
<td>eggs are bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both of the/my these</td>
<td>All of the/my these</td>
<td>Half of the/my these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>books are expensive</td>
<td>books are expensive</td>
<td>books are expensive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Both all and half can be used equally with:
- people: both (the) women all (the) women half the women
- things: both (the) forks all (the) forks half the forks
Distributives

2 Both refers to two people, things, etc. only:
e.g. both books/both the books/both of the books (interchangeable).
The reference is to specific items (e.g. the books on this subject).
Both means 'not only one, but also the other' and refers to two things together. By comparison, the two (the two things are different) refers to the two considered separately.

3 Half + plural countable refers to 'more than two':
e.g. half the eggs/half of the eggs (interchangeable).
Half (of) cannot be used without a determiner [the this my, etc.] before plural countables [compare > 5.18.3n1].

4 All refers to 'the whole number of people, things, etc.:
e.g. all the books all of the books (interchangeable).
With the, the reference is to specific items: (e.g. the books on this subject). However, all books is general, referring to e.g. all (the) books in the world. It is not interchangeable with all the books all of the books.

5 All with or without the, however, refers to specific items when it is followed by a number before a plural countable:
All (the) thirty passengers on the boat were saved

5.18.2 'All' and 'half + uncountable nouns
- examples and note

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All bread gets stale quickly</th>
<th>Half the bread was stale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All of the bread was stale</td>
<td>Half of the bread was stale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first statement with all is general; the second and third are interchangeable and refer to a specific amount of bread. The two statements with half are interchangeable and refer to a specific amount of bread. The word both cannot be used with uncountable nouns because it refers to two units.

5.18.3 'All' and 'half + singular countable nouns
- examples and notes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All the country was against it</th>
<th>Half the country was against it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All of the country was against it</td>
<td>Half of the country was against it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 When we are referring to a specific thing, we must use the or of the after all and half [compare the whole, > 5.22]. However, all and half can be used directly in front of many proper nouns:
All London/Half New York was buzzing with gossip

2 Half a can be followed by singular countables as in half a loaf half a minute half an orange, etc. to refer to one thing divided into halves.

5.19 'Both' and 'all': word order with verbs

5.19.1 'Both' and 'all' after auxiliary verbs
Both and all as pronouns are normally used after auxiliary verbs (be have [> 10.1] and modal auxiliaries like can could [> 11.1]):
The girls are both ready
(= Both girls/Both the girls/Both of the girls are ready.)
5 Quantity

The girls are both waiting
(= Both girls/Both the girls/Both of the girls are waiting.)
The girls have all left
(= All the girls/All of the girls have left.)
The girls can/must, etc. all go home now
(= All the girls/All of the girls can/must go home now.)

Both/all come before auxiliary and modal verbs in short answers:
Are you ready? - Yes we both are Yes we all are
Have you finished? - Yes we both have Yes, we all have
Do you like it? - Yes we both do Yes we all do
Can you see it? Yes we both can Yes, we all can

5.19.2 'Both' and all' before full verbs
Both and all as pronouns must be used before full verbs:
The girls both left early
(= Both girls/Both the girls/Both of the girls left early.)
The girls all left early
(= All the girls/All of the girls left early.)

And note both/all before have as a full verb [> 10.27, 10.32]:
We all have our books We both had a haircut

5.20 'Both', 'all' and 'half: word order with pronouns

5.20.1 'Both' and 'all': pronoun subject
Both and all must be followed by of before pronouns like us, them:
Both of us/them left early (= We/They both left early.)
All of us/them left early (= We/They all left early.)
All of it went bad (= It all went bad.)

5.20.2 'Both' and 'all': pronoun object with verbs and prepositions
I love both/all of you or I love you both/all
He gave some to both/all of us or He gave some to us both/all
You've eaten all of it or You've eaten it all

5.20.3 'Half as a distributive and as an adverb
Half (of) the bottles are empty
(i.e. half of them are not empty)
However, there is a different meaning when half is an adverb:
The bottles are half empty
(i.e. no bottle is completely empty)

5.21 The negative' of 'all' and 'both'
We can use not all to mean 'some but not all':
Not all the girls left early (= Only some of them left early.)
Compare the above with the following negative:
All the girls didn't leave early
This negative statement is ambiguous because it can mean 'some of them left early' or 'none of them left early'.
To avoid ambiguity we should use none of to make the negative of all and neither of to make the negative of both
All the girls left early None of the girls left early
Both the girls left early Neither of the girls left early
**Distributives**

5.22 'All (the)' compared with '(the) whole'

5.22.1 'All the' and 'the whole' with nouns

We usually prefer the whole to all the with singular concrete nouns

\[\text{The whole} \text{ is not normally used with plurals and uncountables}^{1}\]

He ate the whole loaf (= all the loaf) by himself

All and the whole combine with a number of (often abstract) nouns

For example, we can use all or the whole in: all my business my whole business all my life/my whole life all the time/the whole time etc., but normally only all in: e.g. all my hair all the money, and normally only the whole in: e.g. the whole situation the whole story the whole truth

Whole can follow a, as in a whole collection a whole loaf a whole week/hour

5.22.2 Time references with 'all' and 'the whole'

All combines with words like (the) day, (the) night, (the) week (the) year (the) summer (but not with hour or century) in time references

(all of the is possible, but less common):

\[\text{I waited all (the) week for him to answer}\]

The whole is stronger than all in time references and can also be used with hour and century:

\[\text{I waited the whole week for him to answer}\]

Of the is possible after the whole, but is usually absent. The whole followed by of the functions as a noun and is more common in references not concerned with time: e.g. the whole (of the) book the whole (of the) building

5.22.3 'All' and 'whole' + plural countable nouns

All and whole + plural countable have different meanings in e.g.

\[\text{All forests in North Africa were destroyed during Roman times} \quad (= \text{every single one of them})\]

\[\text{Whole forests in North Africa were destroyed during Roman times} \quad (= \text{entire areas of forest})\]

5.23 All' compared with 'every'

All refers to a collection of things seen as one, or to an amount:

\[\text{I've read all these books.} (= \text{this whole collection})\]

\[\text{She's used all the butter} \quad (= \text{the whole amount})\]

Every emphasizes single units within a group and is used only with singular countables:

\[\text{I've read every book in the library} \quad (= \text{every single one})\]

All can be used before a noun or on its own (> 5.18, 5.24); every can never stand on its own (every day, every man, etc.).

Every is often found in time references: every day every week etc and can be followed by ordinal and cardinal numbers and other: every third day every six weeks every other day, etc.:

\[\text{I work every other day Monday Wednesday and Friday}\]

All and every are not normally interchangeable in time references

\[\text{Monica spent all day with us} \quad (= \text{one whole day})\]

\[\text{Monica spent every day with us while she was here on holiday} \quad (= \text{all the days of her holiday, thought of separately})\]

\[\text{www.IELTS4U.blogfa.com}\]
5 Quantity

5.24 'All' compared with 'everyone/everybody/anyone/anybody'

All, meaning 'everybody', is uncommon in modern English:

Everyone/Everybody wanted Marilyn's autograph (Not "All")

In older English, all (= everybody) can occur:

All but Emily had guessed the truth

All can occur in formal contexts to mean 'all the people', but it generally needs to be qualified by e.g. a relative clause (> 1.40):

All (those) who wish to apply must do so in writing

All could be replaced by anyone/anybody:

Anyone/Anybody who wishes to apply must do so in writing

Anyone/anybody is the equivalent of whoever here and is preferable to everyone/everybody. All, used on its own to mean 'all the people', occurs in a few fixed expressions:

A good time was had by all The law applies equally to all

5.25 'All' compared with 'everything'

All and everything + singular verb can be used interchangeably, though all is more formal and usually requires qualification:

All/Everything I have belongs to you

All, used to mean 'everything', occurs in a few fixed phrases:

Winner takes all

All, but not everything, can be used to mean 'the only thing':

All he wants is more pay for less work

5.26 'Every' compared with 'each'

5.26.1 'Every' and 'each' with reference to 'more than two'

Every and each refer to particular people or things. They can point to more than two Each is more individual and suggests 'one by one' or 'separately'. We use it to refer to a definite and usually limited number:

Each child in the school was questioned

Every child is less individual and is used in much the same way as all children (> 5 18 1) to refer to a large indefinite number:

Every child enjoys Christmas (All children enjoy Christmas.)

This difference is not always important and the two words are often used interchangeably, as in:

Every/Each time I wash the car it rains

Each cannot be modified; every can be modified by almost nearly, and practically and can be followed by single:

Almost every building was damaged in the earthquake

I answer every single letter I receive

We can use not in front of every, but not in front of each:

Not every house on the island has electricity

Every, but not each, can be used in front of a few uncountables such as assistance, encouragement, etc. though this is unusual:

My parents gave me every encouragement when I was a child

5.26.2 'Each' referring to both members of a pair

Each, but not every, can refer to both the members of a pair:

As they had both worked so hard they each received a bonus
Both usually means 'two items considered together'; each considers two things separately:
I spoke to both of the twins this morning (i.e. together)
I spoke to each of the twins this morning (i.e. separately)

6.26.3 'Each': word order
Each, but not every, has word order variations similar to all both [5.19-20]. Each, combining with a plural subject, takes a plural verb:
They have each taken their own share (after an auxiliary)
They each have their own share (before a full verb)
Each takes a singular verb when it begins a subject-phrase:
Each of us is responsible for his our actions [4.40]
Each can also occur at the end of a statement:
Give the delivery-men $5 each

5.27 'Another' compared with '(the) other(s)'
Another can have two meanings:
- 'additional'/'similar':
  Do you need another cup? No I have enough
- 'different':
  Give me another cup This one's cracked
Another and others are indefinite; the (or my your, etc.) other and the others are definite. Another, as a determiner, always goes with a singular noun unless it is followed by a cardinal number or by few-
I need another three driving lessons before my test
I need another few days before I can make up my mind
The other can be followed by a singular or plural noun:
This seat is free, the other seat is taken
These seats are free the other seats are taken
Another is followed by a singular noun; other by a plural noun:
There must be another way of solving the problem that can't be the only way There must be other ways of solving the problem
Another + one or a noun refers to a specific alternative:
I don't like this shirt Can I try the other one please?
Compare: Can I try another (one)? (= any other one, non-specific)
The others the other and others (like another) can stand on their own as pronouns to refer to specific alternatives:
I'll take these shirts but leave the others
The other(s) is often used in contrast to one:
One has buttons and the other hasn't
Others is often used in contrast to some:
Some people enjoy exercise others don't
Other can also mean 'additional' in: e.g.
Jane and some other girls went shopping
The other (day) can mean 'a few (days) ago' in time references:
Karen phoned the other day to apologize for her behaviour
This is not to be confused with the next, meaning 'the following':
Karen phoned the next day to apologize for her behaviour
or with another to mean 'a different':
We aren't free tomorrow Can we arrange another day?
Distributives

5.28 'Each other' and 'one another' [compare > 4.28]

Sometimes a distinction is drawn between each other (used to refer to two people) and one another (used to refer to more than two). In everyday speech, both phrases are normally interchangeable. Karen and Dave are deeply in love with each other/one another.

Both phrases can be used with an 's:
Those two are always copying each other's/one another's homework.

5.29 'Either' compared with 'neither'

Either and neither refer to two people, things, etc (singular nouns) only. Either means 'one or the other' and neither means 'not one and not the other'. Constructions with neither are generally more emphatic than those with not either.

- Do you want an appointment at 9 or at 10?
  - Either time is difficult. Neither time is convenient.

5.29.1 Either' and 'neither' + 'of'

When followed by of, either and neither refer to each of two items.

Which pot shall I use? - Either (of them) It doesn't matter which
Which pot shall I use? - Neither (of them) Use this frying pan.

5.29.2 'Either + or'; 'neither + nor' [> 1.15, 5.31]

You can have either this one or that one.
Neither this house nor the house next door has central heating.

5.29.3 Either' and 'both' compared

Either refers to two things considered separately. Compare:
You can't have either of them (= you can't have one or the other).
You can't have both of them (= you can have only one of them).

5.30 The use of 'one (of)' after distributives [compare > 4.10]

We may use one of another every each either every and neither before nouns or pronouns. One is optional except in the case of every:

- Each guidebook in the series has been carefully written.
- Every guidebook in the series has been carefully written.
- Each of these guidebooks has been carefully written.
- Every one of these guidebooks has been carefully written.

We can use single after every for special emphasis:

- Every single apple in the bag was bad.
- Every single one of the apples in the bag was bad.

If we wish to use another each and either as pronouns, we can use them with or without one:

- I didn't like the red skirt so I asked to see another (one).
- Look at these names Each (one) should have a tick beside it.

Neither is generally used without one:

- I've tested both those TVs. Neither works very well.
Every and the only cannot stand on their own as pronouns they must always be followed by a noun or one (also ones after the only)
We need some more eggs. You ate every one last night
You can't borrow my pen It's the only one I've got
These keys are the only ones I've got

5.31 Singular and plural verbs with quantifiers [compare > 4.40]
Sometimes the reference is clearly singular or plural and a singular or plural verb is needed

Most of us have experienced sorrow in our lives
Most of our steel is imported

But after neither (= not either) and none (= not one) when the reference is plural we can use a plural verb in everyday speech or a singular verb when we wish to sound correct or formal

Neither of us is/are happy about the situation
None of my friends has/have been invited to the party

In the above examples us and friends attract plural verbs

With either or and neither nor the verb generally agrees with the nearest noun [1.15, 5.29.2]
Neither my brother nor my sister is red haired
Neither my brother nor my sisters are red haired
Neither my brothers nor my sister is/are red haired
Neither James nor I am interested
Neither my brother nor my sister is/are interested
6 Adjectives

Formation of adjectives

6.1 What an adjective is and what it does

An adjective describes the person, thing, etc which a noun refers to. We use adjectives to say what a person, etc is like or seems like. For example, adjectives can give us information about:

- **Quality**: a *beautiful* dress a *nice* day
- **Size**: a *big* car a *small* coin a *tall* man
- **Age**: a *new* handbag a *young* man
- **Temperature**: a *cool* evening a *hot* day
- **Shape**: a *round* table a *square* box
- **Colour**: *blue* eyes *grey* hair a *white* horse
- **Origin**: a *Japanese* camera a *Swiss* watch

An adjective can also describe the idea(s) contained in a whole group of words, as in:

- Professor Roberts' lecture on magnetism was *fascinating*
- To maintain that we can survive a nuclear war is *absurd*

Many adjectives can answer the question *What like?* and, depending on context, can give general or precise information:

- What's Tom like (to look at)? - He's *dark/short/tall*
- What's Pam like (as a person)? - She's *clever/kind/witty*
- What's the car like? - It's *new/old/red/rusty*
- What's the car like to drive? - It's *difficult/fast/slow*

6.2 The suffixes and prefixes of one-word adjectives

Some words function only as adjectives (*tall*) Others function as adjectives or nouns (*cold*) Many adjectives which are related to verbs or nouns have a characteristic ending (or *suffix*) For example, *able* added to a verb like *enjoy* gives us the adjective *enjoyable*, *ful* added to a noun like *truth* gives us the adjective *truthful* For further examples (> App 8.1)

- Present participle *ing* forms often function as adjectives (*running water*) (> 2.7, 16.38, 16.39.3) Many of these *ing* forms have *ed* adjectival past participle equivalents (*interesting interested*) (> 6.15)

- Some irregular past participles function as adjectives (*broken*) (> 6.14)

**Prefixes** added to adjectives generally have a negative effect For example, *dis-* added to *agreeable* gives us *disagreeable*, *un* added to *interesting* gives us *uninteresting* For further examples (> App 8.2)

Not every 'positive' adjective can be turned into a negative one by the addition of a prefix Sometimes we have to use *not* (*not taxable*)

Similarly, not every 'negative' adjective (especially those formed with past participles) has a positive equivalent (*discontinued mistaken*)
Types of adjectives and their uses

6.3 The formation of compound adjectives

Compound adjectives are often written with hyphens [2.11] Some of the commonest types are

6.3.1 Compound adjectives formed with participles, etc.
- compounds formed with past participles e.g. a candle-lit table a horse-drawn cart a self-employed author a tree-lined avenue
- compounds formed with present participles e.g. a long-suffering parent a time-consuming job
- ed words that look like participles although they are formed from nouns e.g. cross-eyed flat-chested hard-hearted open-minded quick-witted slow-footed

6.3.2 Compound adjectives of measurement, etc.
Cardinal numbers combine with nouns (usually singular) to form compound adjectives relating to time measurement etc e.g.
- Age a three-year-old building a twenty-year-old man
- Area/volume a three-acre plot a two-litre car
- Duration a four-hour meeting a two-day conference
- Length/depth a twelve-inch ruler a six-foot hole
- Price a $50 dress a £90,000 house
- Time/distance a ten-minute walk a three-hour journey
- Weight a ten-stone man a five-kilo bag of flour

Ordinal numbers can be used in compounds e.g. a first-rate film a second-hand car a third-floor flat a nineteenth-century novel

6.3.3 Compound adjectives formed with prefixes and suffixes
Compounds can be formed from a variety of prefixes and suffixes e.g. class-conscious tax-free loose-fitting waterproof fire-resistant car-sick tight fitted vacuum-sealed airtight
Many compounds can be formed with well and badly -behaved built-done -paid etc. Similarly ill and poorly combine with some past participles -advised -educated -informed -paid etc.

Types of adjectives and their uses

6.4 Form and use of adjectives

An adjective never varies in form no matter whether it refers to people or things etc. in the singular or plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular:</th>
<th>Bob is tall</th>
<th>He is tall</th>
<th>He is a tall man</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a tall man</td>
<td>Maggie is tall</td>
<td>She is tall</td>
<td>She is a tall woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tall woman</td>
<td>That horse is tall</td>
<td>It is tall</td>
<td>It is a tall horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tall tree</td>
<td>Those trees are tall</td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall trees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| plural:            | Bob and Jim are tall | They are tall | They are tall men |
|--------------------| Mary and Ann are tall | They are tall | They are tall women |
| tall men           | Bob and Ann are tall | They are tall | They are tall people |
| tall women         | Those horses are tall | They are tall | They are tall horses |
| tall people        | Those trees are tall | They are tall | They are tall trees |
6.5 Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

Adjectives can be divided into two classes: a large class of words which can be graded (gradable adjectives) and a small class that cannot be graded (non-gradable adjectives).

An adjective is **gradable** when:
- we can imagine degrees in the quality referred to and so can use it with words like very, too, and enough—very good too good, less good not good enough, etc. [> 7.50]
- we can form a comparative and superlative from it [> 6.22, 6.24-25]
  
  (big) bigger, biggest, (good) better, best, etc.

An adjective is **non-gradable** when:
- we cannot modify it (i.e. we cannot use it with very too, etc.)
- we cannot make a comparative or superlative from it: e.g.
  daily dead, medical, unique, etc. [> 7.42].

6.6 Some problems for the learner in the use of adjectives

Learners may experience interference from their own language in relation to the following characteristics of adjectives in English:
- they do not vary in form to 'agree' with nouns [> 6.4]:
  a tall man/woman/tree, tall men/women/trees
- they generally precede nouns when used attributively [> 6.7]:
  a cool drink, a long day a pretty dress
- when used attributively, they nearly always combine with a noun or with one/ones [> 4.10]. So we must use a noun in expressions like 'You poor thing' 'You lucky girl' [compare > 4.7.4].
  - a young man a one-eyed man [compare > 6.12.2],
- the verbs be seem, etc. combine with adjectives like afraid, cold hot hungry lucky, right sleepy thirsty, unlucky, wrong, where in some European languages such words are used as nouns after have, or an idea can be expressed by a verb. So, in English, depending on context, she is cold may relate to temperature (i.e. not warm) or attitude (i.e. not friendly). Nor do adjectives like cold hot, etc. combine with make to refer to the weather:
  It (i.e. the weather) is cold/hot/windy
- for adjectives and adverbs often confused (fast, etc.) [> App 14].

6.7 Attributive and predicative adjectives

The terms **attributive** and **predicative** refer to the position of an adjective in a phrase or sentence. We say that an adjective is attributive or is used attributively when it comes before a noun (and is therefore part of the **noun phrase** [> 2.1]):
- an old ticket a young shop-assistant he is an old man

We say that an adjective is predicative or that it is used predicatively when it comes directly after be seem, etc. It can be used on its own as the complement [> 1.9, 1.11.1, 6.17]:

*This ticket is old Your mother seems angry*

For predicative adjectives after verbs other than be seem etc: turn yellow [> 10. 26.1]. Most adjectives can be used either attributively or predicatively. A few can be used in one way and not in the other.
Types of adjectives and their uses

A few adjectives such as old, late and heavy can take on a different meaning when used attributively. Compare:

*Agatha Withers is very old now* (i.e. in years - predicative)
*He s an old friend* (i.e. I've known him a long time - attributive)
*Your suitcase is very heavy* (i.e. in weight - predicative)
*Paterson is a heavy smoker* (i.e. he smokes a lot - attributive)
*You're late again* (i.e. not on time - predicative)
*My late uncle was a miner* (i.e. he's dead now - attributive)

Adjectives used attributively in this way tend to combine with a limited selection of nouns: e.g. a heavy drinker'sleeper, but not e.g. worker.

There are other restrictions as well: e.g. old (an old friend), heavy (a heavy smoker) and late (my late uncle) cannot be used predicatively in these senses. However, old (in years) and heavy (weight) can be used attributively or predicatively. Late (not on time) is used attributively in limited contexts:

*Late arrivals will not be allowed to enter the auditorium*

For problems connected with adjectives which can be confused with adverbs, e.g. fast, hard/hardly late/lately [> Apps 14, 15].

6.8 Adjectives used predicatively

6.8.1 Predicative adjectives describing health

The following are used predicatively [> 6.7] in connexion with health: faint, ill, poorly, unwell and well:

*What's the matter with him?* - *He's ill/unwell*  
*How are you?* - *I'm very well*  
*Thank you* - *I'm fine*  
*Thanks* - *She's a fine woman*.

The adjectives sick and healthy can be used in the attributive position where ill and well normally cannot:

*What's the matter with Mr Court?* - *He's a sick man*  
*Biggies was very ill but he s now a healthy man*  
*(But note that 'He's an ill man' is increasingly heard.)*

Well, to mean 'in good health', is an adjective and should not be confused with well, the adverbial counterpart of good [> 6.17, 7.5n4].

Faint can be used attributively when not referring to health in e.g. *a faint chance, a faint hope a faint sound*, as can ill in fixed phrases such as: *an ill omen an ill wind*

8.2 Predicative adjectives beginning with 'a-

Adjectives like the following are used only predicatively: afloat afraid.  
*afright alike, alive alone, ashamed asleep awake*

The children were asleep at 7 but now they're awake

We can express similar ideas with attributive adjectives:

The vessel is afloat  The floating vessel
The children are afraid  The frightened children
The buildings are alight  The burning buildings
Everything that is alive  All living things
That lobster is alive  It s a live lobster
The children are asleep  The sleeping children
When I am awake  In my waking hours
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Attributive adjectives can only replace predicative ones in suitable contexts. For example, *living* cannot replace *alive* in:

*All the hostages on the plane are alive and well.*

(Not ‘all the living hostages’* in this context)

*Shameful* is not the attributive counterpart of *ashamed*;

*It was a shameful act* (describing the act)

*He ought to be ashamed* (describing the person)

Similarly, *lonely* is not the exact equivalent of *alone*.

*You can be alone without being lonely*

*Alone* (predicative) means ‘without others’; *lonely* (attributive: a *lonely woman*, or predicative: *she is lonely*) generally means ‘feeling sad because you are on your own’.

Some of these adjectives are modified in special ways and not by very, safely afloat, all alight, all alone fast/sound asleep, fully/wide awake [compare > 6.9, 7.51]. However, the following can be modified by very much; afraid, awake alive alone and ashamed; afraid and ashamed can also be modified directly by very[compare > 7.51]:

*Is that lobster alive*? - *Yes be careful* It’s *very much alive*!

I behaved badly yesterday and still feel very *ashamed* of myself

6.8.3 Predicative adjectives describing feelings, reactions, etc.

Some adjectives describing feelings, etc., (content, glad, pleased sorry upset) and a few others, e.g. far and near (except in e.g. the Far East/the Near East) are normally used only predicatively:

*i am very glad to meet you* [> 16.26]

*Your hotel is quite near* here *It isn’t far from here*

We can express the same ideas with attributive adjectives:

*She is a happy (or contented) woman* (= She is glad/content.)

6.8.4 Predicative adjectives followed by prepositions [> App 27]

Many adjectives used predicatively may be followed by prepositions:

*A capable person is one who manages well* (attributive)

*He is capable of managing well* (adjective + preposition: predicative)

6.9 Adjectives used attributively to mean 'complete', etc.

A few adjectives can behave like adverbs of degree or intensifiers [> 7.41, 7.50], more or less in the sense of 'complete', and can be used only in the attributive position, e.g. mere out and out, sheer, utter

*Ken can t be promoted* He s a mere boy/an out and out rogue

*(Very itself is used as an adjective in fixed expressions like the very end the very limit, the very thing I wanfneed)*

Other adjectives which can have the sense of very when used attributively are: close (a close friend); complete perfect total (a complete perfect total fool); pure (pure nonsense); and strong (a strong supporter). Most of these can be attributive or predicative in their normal meanings:

*Pure drinking water is best* This water is pure
Types of adjectives and their uses

Some -ing adjectives can qualify other adjectives. They have an intensifying effect equivalent to very in (often) fixed phrases like boiling hot, freezing cold, hopping mad, soaking wet.

Adjectives which restrict the reference of the noun are always attributive: certain (a woman of a certain age); chief (my chief complaint); main (my main concern); only (the only explanation); particular (my particular aim); principal (the principal reason); sole (my sole interest) and very itself (the very man I wanted to see). These adjectives cannot be used predicatively, except for certain and particular, which then change in meaning:

You should be certain of your facts before you rush into print
Some people aren’t very particular about the food they eat.

6.10 Adjectives after nouns in official titles, etc.

The adjective follows the noun in a number of ‘titles’: e.g. Attorney General Governor General Heir Apparent, Poet Laureate Postmaster General, President Elect (or elect), Sergeant Major
And note: Asia Minor, and a number of fixed phrases, such as body politic, Goodness gracious, hope eternal, penny dreadful, sum total time immemorial

6.11 Adjectives which can come before or after nouns

6.11.1 Adjectives before or after nouns with no change in meaning

A limited number of adjectives, mostly ending in -able and -ible, can come before or after nouns, usually with no change of meaning. Some of these are: available eligible, imaginable, taxable

I doubt whether we can complete our contract in the time available/in the available time

6.11.2 Adjectives before or after nouns with a change in meaning

A few adjectives change in meaning depending on whether they are used before or after a noun. Some of these are: concerned elect involved present, proper responsible

The concerned (= worried) doctor rang for an ambulance
The doctor concerned (= responsible) is on holiday
This elect (= specially chosen) body meets once a year
The president elect (= who has been elected) takes over in May
It was a very involved (= complicated) explanation
The boy involved (= connected with this) has left

Present employees (= those currently employed) number 3 000
Employees present (= those here now) should vote on the issue
It was a proper (= correct) question

The question proper (= itself) has not been answered
Janet is a responsible girl (= She has a sense of duty.)
The girl responsible (= who can be blamed) was expelled

6.12 Adjectives which can be used as if they were nouns

6.12.1 Adjectives used as nouns

A few adjectives can be used as if they were nouns (e.g. after a an)
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and can sometimes have a plural The listener mentally supplies the missing noun

I've got my medical on Thursday (= medical examination)

Don't be such a silly! (= a silly fool)

There's something the matter with the electrics in my car (= the electrical system)

Other words which are both adjectives and nouns are e.g. a black/blacks a red/red a white/whites

6.12.2 'The' + adjective: e.g. 'the young' [> App 9]

Adjectives like the following are used after the never after a/an to represent a group as a whole e.g. the blind the deaf the living/the dead the rich/the poor the young/the old the unemployed. So the deaf means a group of people who are all deaf.

Andrew was sent to a special school for the deaf

These adjectives are followed by a plural verb

You can always judge a society by the way the old are cared for.

We can never use these adjectives on their own to refer to a single individual (Not * he is a young * * they are youngs *) If we wish to refer to single individuals, we must use an adjective + noun [> 6.6]

He is a young man with a lot of ambition They are young men

Some of these adjectives may be modified e.g. the extremely poor the idle rich the super rich the young at heart

Sometimes after e.g. both the can be dropped [> 3.28.6]

Both young and old enjoyed themselves at the party

The reference can be general or abstract in e.g. the supernatural to unexpected the unheard of the unknown So the unknown means that thing or those things which are not known

Scott's March to the South Pole was a journey into the unknown

These are followed by a singular verb

The unknown is always something to be feared

For the former the latter [> 4.11]

For nationality adjectives used without nouns [> 3.19.2 App 49]

6.13 Nouns that behave like adjectives

Names of materials, substances etc (leather nylon plastic) [> 2.10.5 6.20.1] resemble adjectives So do some nouns indicating use or purpose e.g. kitchen chairs Examples of such nouns are

It's a cotton dress (= it's cotton/made of cotton)

It's a summer dress (= a dress to be worn in summer)

Words like cotton or summer behave like adjectives in this one way they do not have comparative or superlative forms they cannot be modified by very etc They remain essentially nouns often modifying a second noun [> 2.10] Most of these noun modifiers can be used without change But note wooden and woollen

It's a wooden spoon / It's made of wood

It's a woollen dress / It's made of wool

Here wooden and woollen are adjectives not nouns Some other names for materials have adjectival forms gold golden lead leaden silk silken silky stone stony but the adjectival form generally has a
Types of adjectives and their uses

metaphorical meaning (‘like’ ) So, for example, a gold watch is a 'watch made of gold', but a golden sunset is a sunset which is 'like gold'. Compare a silvery voice leaden steps silky (or silken) hair (a)

6.14 Present and past participles used as adjectives

Most present participles can be used as adjectives e g breaking glass frightening stories [> 2.7, 6.2, 6.3, 16.38, 16.39.3]
Many past participles of verbs can be used as adjectives e g a broken window (= a window which has been broken), a frozen lake (= a lake which is frozen), a locked door (= a door which is locked), etc Regular past participles follow the normal pronunciation rules [> 9.14.1] However, note that some adjectives ending in -ed are not past participles, and here the ending is normally pronounced /id/, as

in an aged parent a crooked path a learned professor a naked man a ragged urchin a wicked witch

6.15 Adjectival participles ending in ‘-ed’ and ‘-ing’ [> App 10]

Common pairs of -ed/-ing adjectives are amazed/amazing annoyed annoying bored boring excited exciting interested interesting impressed/impressive upset/upsetting
Adjectives ending in -ed often combine with personal subjects and those ending in -ing often combine with impersonal ones [> 16.32.1]

This story excites me -- I am excited by it -- It is exciting

Most -ing adjectives can also be applied to people Compare
Gloria was quite enchanting to be with
(i.e That was the effect she had on other people )
Gloria was quite enchanted
(i.e That was the effect someone or something had on her)

A few -ed adjectives can be applied to things
The old tin mine was quite exhausted (= used up)

18.16 Adjectives used in measurements

Words such as deep long wide, etc can function as adjectives or adverbs after the question word How [> 13.40.2]

How deep is that pool? (adjective)
How deep did you dive? (adverb)
In responses to such questions, the adjective (or adverb) follows the noun It can sometimes be omitted
It’s five metres (deep) /I went five metres deep
And compare

How old are you? - I'm five years old or I ‘m five
How old is your car? - Its five years old (Not 'It’s five "

Measurement nouns are plural when they are followed by adjectives or adverbs (six metres high), they are singular when they precede the noun (a six metre wall) [> 6.3.2] But note this exception

Jim is six foot/feet tall (singular or plural)
He’s a six-foot man (singular only)
6 Adjectives

6.17 Adjectives as complements after e.g. verbs of perception

We use adjectives, not adverbs, after verbs of perception, particularly those relating to the senses, such as look taste [> 9.3, 10.23-25, App 38] e.g. appear strange feel rough, look good, look well seem impossible, smell sweet sound nice, taste bad

That pie looks good but it tastes awful
A day in the country sounds nice but think of the traffic!
Scratch my back there please Ah! That feels better

The words used after these verbs are adjectives because they are describing the subject of the verb, not modifying the verb itself. They function as adjectival complements [> 1.9, 1.11]. Compare:
You look well (Well = 'in good health' is an adjective.)
You play well (Well is an adverb modifying play.)

Adjectives can be used as complements of the subject after other verbs in expressions such as: break loose die/marry young, keep>sit still live close to, remain open, ring true/false

Many famous poets have died young
It's impossible for young children to sit still.
The murder was not solved and the case remains open

Adjectives are often used as complements after verbs such as lie or stand, particularly in descriptive writing [> 7.59.2]:
The crowd stood (or was) silent at the end of the ceremony

6.18 Adverbs that can function as adjectives

A few adverbs and adverb particles [> 7.3.4] can function as attributive adjectives, especially in fixed phrases: e.g. the above statement an away match, the down train the up train, the downstairs lavatory/the upstairs bathroom a home win; the inside cover inside information an outside line, the then chairman

6.19 Adjectives easily confused

Many common adjectives are easily confused. For details [> App 11].

6.20 Adjectives: word order

When we use more than one adjective to describe a noun, we have to take care with the word order. Hard-and-fast rules cannot be given, since much depends on the emphasis a speaker wishes to make. A general guide is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjectives: usual order</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quality size/age/shape colour origin past participle</td>
<td>cupboard kitchen cupbocr teak cupboard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that general qualities go before particular qualities. The more particular the quality, the closer the adjective is to the noun. Let's begin with the noun and work backwards:
8.20.1 The noun
A noun may be [> 2.10, 6.13]:
- one-word: a cupboard
- two-word: a kitchen cupboard a teak cupboard
- three-word: a teak kitchen cupboard
Where there are three words, material (teak) precedes purpose or use (kitchen): a cotton shirt a summer shirt, a cotton summer shirt

Compounds are never separated by adjectives.

8.20.2 Adjectival past participle
This is usually closest to the noun:
- a handmade teak cupboard, a handmade kitchen cupboard, a handmade teak kitchen cupboard

8.20.3 Origin
A nationality word indicating origin [> App 49] or an adjective referring to a historical period (e.g. Victorian) usually precedes an adjectival past participle:
- a Chinese handmade shirt, a Chinese handmade cotton shirt
This is not invariable: handmade Chinese shirt is also possible.
If a present participle adjective is used (i.e. the -ing form), then it precedes origin:
- quick-selling Chinese handmade shirts

8.20.4 Size/age/shape/temperature/flavour, etc.
Size generally precedes age and shape, etc.:
- a large old table, a large round table, a large old round table,
- a huge ice-cold strawberry milkshake

8.20.5 Quality (i.e. subjective assessment)
Adjectives expressing our general opinion of the quality of people or things come first: e.g. beautiful, big, clean, dirty, nice
- a beautiful tall building, a cheap Indian restaurant
If there is more than one ‘general quality’ adjective, then the most general usually comes first.
- a beautiful spacious airy room

8.20.6 Modification with (great) big’ and ‘little’
The adjectives big or great big generally precede quality adjectives, while little generally comes after:
- great big boots, a (great) big tall policeman.
- a nice little restaurant a friendly little waiter

6.21 The use of commas and 'and' to separate adjectives
21.1 Separating adjectives used attributively [> 6.7]
When we have two or more adjectives in front of a noun we only need commas to separate those which are equally important (i.e. where the order of the first two could easily be reversed):
- a beautiful, bright clean room
That is, we put a comma after the quality adjective. We never use a comma after the adjective that comes immediately before the noun:
The hotel porter led me to a beautiful, bright clean room
Joy is engaged to a daring, very attractive young Air Force pilot
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In journalism, writers frequently try to give condensed descriptions by stringing adjectives together, as in: e.g.
Ageing recently-widowed popular dramatist Milton Fairbanks announced recently that 'Athletes was to be his last play
Some fixed pairs of adjectives are often linked by and: old and musty wine- a long and winding road, hard and fast rules. Pairs of colour adjectives are often hyphenated: a blue-and-white flag.

6.21.2 Separating adjectives used predicatively (> 6.7)
If there are two adjectives, we separate them with and:
My shoes are old and worn
If there are more than two adjectives, we may separate them by commas, except for the last two which are separated by and:
My shoes are dirty, wet old and worn
We do not usually put a comma after the adjective in front of and [compare > 1.20].

The comparison of adjectives

6.22 Shorter adjectives: form of regular comparison

Only gr adable (> 6.5) adjectives compare. Most common adjectives are short words (usually of one syllable and not more than two syllables). They form their comparatives and superlatives as shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 clean</td>
<td>cleaner</td>
<td>cleanest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 nice</td>
<td>nicer</td>
<td>nicest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 tidy</td>
<td>tidier</td>
<td>tidest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 narrow</td>
<td>narrower</td>
<td>narrowest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.23 Notes on the comparison of shorter adjectives

6.23.1 Spelling of comparative and superlative forms
1. Most one-syllable adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives like clean: -er and -est are added to their basic forms. Other examples like clean are: cold cool great hard, high low neat new short small thick weak.
2. Many one-syllable adjectives end with a single consonant after a single vowel-letter. This consonant doubles in the comparative and superlative, as in the case of big. Other examples like big are: fa’ fatter fattest sad sadder saddest thin thinner thinnest wet wetter wettest. Compare adjectives like full small tall, etc. which end with a double consonant and form their comparatives and superlatives like clean: tall taller tallest.
3. Many one-syllable adjectives end in -e, like nice. These add -r and -st to the basic form, pronounced e.g./naɪsər/. Other examples like nice are: fine large late safe strange. And note free freer.
4. Some adjectives, like tidy, end in -y with a consonant letter before it. These adjectives are usually two-syllable. In the comparative and...
The comparison of adjectives

superlative -y is replaced by (tidy, tidier, tidiest). Other examples like tidy are: busy, dirty, dry early easy empty, funny, heavy ready, sleepy. (But note shy, shyer, shyest.) A few adjectives have a vowel before a -y ending, like gay, grey, fey, and these simply take the endings -er and -est.

5 Some other two-syllable adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives regularly. Other examples like narrow are: clever, common, gentle, simple. (> 6.26n.1).

6.23.2 Pronunciation of comparative and superlative forms
In comparatives and superlatives containing the letters ng, /ŋ/ is pronounced /ŋ/ after e.g. younger, longer, stronger. In other words containing ng /ŋ/ is not pronounced: e.g. singer /ˈsɪŋə/.

6.24 Some irregular comparative and superlative forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther</td>
<td>farthest [&gt; 7.5n.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>older</td>
<td>oldest [&gt; App 12.3-4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

quantifier [> 5.13] comparative superlative

| much      | more        | most        |
| many      | less        | least       |

6.25 Longer adjectives: form of regular comparison

Most longer adjectives (i.e. of two or more syllables) combine with the quantifiers more less to form their comparatives and most/least to form their superlatives. Less can be used with one-syllable adjectives (less big) but more, most and least are not normally used in this way. More is occasionally used with one-syllable adjectives (e.g. It's more true to say that British English is influenced by American, rather than the other way round). More/less can never be used in front of a comparative (e.g. happier), nor can most/least be used in front of a superlative (e.g. happiest).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pleasant</td>
<td>more pleasant</td>
<td>most pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful</td>
<td>more careful</td>
<td>most careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>more expensive</td>
<td>most expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored/boring</td>
<td>less bored/boring</td>
<td>least bored/boring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.26 Notes on the comparison of longer adjectives

1 Some two-syllable adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives either with -er and -est or with more less and most/least
6 Adjectives

Other examples like pleasant are: clever common, gentle handsome happy, narrow quiet, shallow simple stupid tired [> 6 23 in.5]. The opposites of such words, when formed with the prefix un-, can also form their comparatives and superlatives in two ways—e.g. uncommon unhappy unpleasant unhappiest or more unhappy unhappiest or most unhappy. Where there is uncertainty, it is safest to use more and most with two-syllable adjectives.

2 The comparatives and superlatives of other two-syllable adjectives must always be with more/less and most/least. These include all adjectives ending in -ful or -less (careful careless useful, useless).

Other examples of adjectives which form comparisons in this way are: (un)certam (in)correct (in)famous foolish (in)frequent modern, (ab)normal. Adjectives with more than two syllables compare with more/most and less, least beautiful (un)comfortable dangerous expensive, (un)important (un)natural, (un)necessary

This applies to most compound adjectives as well, such as: quick-witted waterproof. But note compounds with good well and bad good-looking — better-looking, (or more good-looking) well-built — better-built (but more well-built is sometimes heard); bad-tempered — worse-tempered (or more bad-tempered).

3 Adjectives ending in -ed and -ing such as amused/amusing annoyed/annoying [> 6.15] require more,less and most/least to form their comparatives and superlatives.

4 Note the form lesser which, though formed from less, is not a true comparative because it cannot be followed by than. Lesser means not so great in fixed phrases such as: to a lesser degree/extent lesser of two evils.

6.27 The use of the comparative form of adjectives

We use the comparative when we are comparing one person or thing, etc. with another. Comparison may be between:

- single items: Jane is taller than Alice
- a single item and a group: Jane is taller than other girls
- two groups: The girls in class 3 are taller than the girls in class 1

6.27.1 The use of ‘than’ in the comparative

A comparative can stand on its own if the reference is clear:

The grey coat is longer

This implies that the hearer understands that the grey coat is being compared with another coat or something similar. If two things of exactly the same kind are being compared, we can use the before a comparative in formal style:

Which is (the) longer? (of the two coats)

The grey coat is (the) longer (of the two coats)’

However, if we need to mention each item, then we must use the after the comparative. When than is followed by a noun or pronoun it functions as if it were a preposition [> 4.7.3]; when it is followed by a
The comparison of adjectives

clause [> 1.53], it functions as if it were a conjunction, but note the ambiguity of:

I know him better than you
This could mean:

I know him better than you know him (than is a conjunction)
I know him better than (I know) you (than could be a preposition)

We can avoid ambiguity by using e.g. than you do.

Examples with comparative + than.

My room is better/cleaner/worse than the one next door
Driving is certainly less tiring than walking
It's pleasanter/more pleasant today than it was yesterday
I feel less tired today than I felt yesterday

Comparison with than + adjective also occurs in fixed phrases, such as (taller) than average, (more/less expensive) than usual

6.27.2 Comparatives with '-er and -er'

Two comparatives (adjectives or adverbs), joined by and, can convey the idea of general increase or decrease:

Debbie is growing fast. She's getting taller and taller
Computers are becoming more and more complicated
Holiday flights are getting less and less expensive

More and more and less and less do not normally combine with one-syllable adjectives.

6.27.3 'the' + comparative + 'the'

This construction can be used with adjectives or adverbs to show cause and effect: when one change is made, another follows:

The more money you make, the more you spend
The more expensive petrol becomes, the less people drive

6.27.4 'More' and 'most' in comparisons of relative quantity

More is used with countables and uncountables [> 5.2n.3]:

More food is wasted than is eaten in this canteen
More also combines with numbers [> 5.6.1]:

How many more stamps do you want? - Four more please
Most can mean 'the largest number of, 'the greatest amount of:

Most doctors don't smoke Most wine is imported (Not *the most*)

Compare the most in the superlative:

Which country in the world produces the most wine?

6.27-5 Modification of comparatives [> 7.41-46]

We can use intensifiers and adverbs of degree like very, too and quite to modify adjectives: very tall, too cold quite hot, etc. However, we cannot use these intensifiers with the comparative. We must use a bit (informal), (very) much, far, even, hardly any, a lot lots, a little no.

rather, somewhat (formal), etc.:

It's much/فارا lot/a little colder today than it was yesterday
Houses are much/فارا lot more expensive these days

There have been many more/many fewer burglaries this year

Even and all the can often be used interchangeably for emphasis in front of more, especially with -ed/-ing adjectival participles:

This term his behaviour has become even more annoying
When I told her the news, she became all the more depressed
6 Adjectives

6.28 The use of the superlative form of adjectives

We use the superlative when we are comparing one person or thing with more than one other in the same group. The definite article the is used before a superlative in a phrase or sentence:

This is the cleanest/tidiest room in the house
This is the best/worst room in the hotel
Who is the tallest John, Mary or Sue? - Sue is the tallest
First class is the most expensive way to travel

Informally, we sometimes use the superlative instead of a comparative when we are comparing two people or things:

Who's the most reliable, Frank or Alan?
Similarly, the is sometimes dropped, especially after Which?:
Which is best? The red one or the green one?
and when the superlative is in front of a to-infinitive:
I think it's safest to overtake now

6.28.1 The use of a qualifying phrase or a relative

A qualifying phrase is not necessary after a superlative if the reference is clear:

John is the tallest
This implies that the hearer understands that John is being compared with two or more people in the same group. If the comparison is not clear, then we must use a qualifying phrase after the superlative. Phrases of this kind usually begin with in or (less frequently) of.

John is easily the tallest boy in our class
Yesterday was the hottest day of the year

Other fixed prepositional phrases are possible:

It's the oldest trick on earth/under the sun
Alternatively, we can use a relative clause [> 1.40] after a superlative. This is often accompanied by a present perfect with ever heard, met, read, seen, etc. [> 9.25.1]:

"War and Peace" is the longest book (that) I have ever read
Penfold is the most conceited man (that/whom) I have ever met

6.28.2 Modification of superlatives

Superlatives can be modified by adverbs of degree like almost altogether, by far far much, nearly practically quite the very

This is quite(by) far the most expensive bicycle in the shop
This is much the worst stretch of motorway in the country

I want to give my children the very best education I can afford

6.29 Comparatives and superlatives confused and misused

Many common comparatives are easily confused [> App 12].

6.30 Comparison, similarity and contrast

6.30.1 'as...as' to indicate the same degree

As...as can combine with one-syllable and longer adjectives to show that two people, things, etc. are similar:

Jane is as tall as/intelligent as Peter
The comparison of adjectives

A number of everyday expressions with as + adjective + as are commonly in use [> App 13]: e.g. as clear as crystal, as cold as ice as good as gold, as light as a feather, as old as the hills as white as snow The first as is often dropped:

How has Jimmy behaved himself? - He's been (as) good as gold

Some of these expressions can occur as compound adjectives: e.g. grass-green (for 'as green as grass' = colour or 'inexperienced').

Like than [> 6.27.1], as can function as a preposition [> 4.7.3] or as a conjunction [> 1.53]. For differences between like and as [> App 25.25].

6.30.2 'not as...as'; 'not so...as' to indicate lower degree

We can use either as or so after not to compare two people, things, etc.: Soames is not as/not so suitable for the job as me/as I am

But note: He's not so suitable in my view This use of so is informal and can replace very. Not such a/an (+ adjective) + noun is also possible: He's not such a hard worker as his brother

6.30.3 'More than', 'less than' and 'worse than' + adjective

More than, less than and worse than can be used in front of a number of adjectives in the following way:

I was more than pleased with my pay rise I was over the moon'

This foot-pump is worse than useless

(i.e. to a degree which pleased and useless cannot convey)

6.30.4 'The same as'; 'different from'

Note that as follows the same:

He's angry because my marks are the same as his

(Not 'the same like' or 'the same with'

Compare the use of with after the same in: e.g.

Butterflies come from caterpillars It's the same with moths

(i.e. moths do the same thing)

The same (with singular or plural) can also be used without as:

This cup's cracked What's that one like? - It's the same

Those two dresses are the same (plural)

Different is normally followed by from, especially in BrE:

We have the same make of car, but yours is different from mine

I know we look alike, but we're quite different from each other

To and than (especially in AmE) are also heard after different

However, than cannot replace from in uncomplicated comparisons:

Roses are different from/different to violets

Than is commonly used after different to introduce a clause:

We're doing something quite different for our holiday this year than (what) we did last year/from what we did last year

6.30.5 Degrees of similarity

Degrees of similarity can be expressed by means of almost exactly just, nearly + as + adjective [> 7.41]:

Jeffrey is nearly as tall as his father now

or + like + noun: Sandra is just like her mother

Almost exactly just nearly and (not) quite will combine with the same:

Those two boys are exactly the same

Completely, entirely and quite will combine with different:

Those two boys are completely different
7 Adverbs

General information about adverbs

7.1 What an adverb is and what it does

The word adverb (ad-verb) suggests the idea of adding to the meaning of a verb. This is what many adverbs do. They can tell us something about the action in a sentence by modifying a verb, i.e. by telling us how, when, where, etc. something happens or is done: Paganini played the violin beautifully (How did he play?)

However, adverbs can also modify:
- adjectives: very good, awfully hungry
- other adverbs: very soon awfully quickly
- prepositional phrases: You're entirely in the wrong
- complete sentences: Strangely enough I won first prize
- nouns: The man over there is a doctor

Adverbs can be single words (slowly) or phrases {in the garden} and the term adverbial is often used to describe both types.

Adverbs are not always essential to the structure of a sentence, but they often affect the meaning. Compare:

Dons has left Dons has just left
I have finished work I have nearly finished work

Sometimes adverbs are essential to complete a sentence:
1 after some intransitive verbs such as lie, live, sit, etc.: Lie down Sit over there I live in Rome
2 after some transitive verbs (e.g. lay place put) + object: He put his car in the garage

For the general position of adverbs in a sentence [> 1.3].

7.2 Kinds of adverbs

Many adverbs can be thought of as answering questions, such as How? [manner, > 7.7]; Where? [place, > 7.17]; When? [time, > 7.20]; How often? [frequency, > 7.37]; To what extent? [degree, > 7.41].

Others ‘strengthen’ adjectives, other adverbs or verbs [intensifiers, > 7.50]; focus attention [focus, > 7.54]; reveal our attitudes, or help us to present information in a coherent fashion [viewpoint adverbs and connectives, > 7.57-58],

7.3 How to identify an adverb

7.3.1 One-word adverbs ending in ‘-ly’

A great many adverbs, particularly those of manner, are formed from adjectives by the addition of-ly: e.g. patient patiently. Some adverbs of frequency are also formed in this way: e.g. usual usually, as are a
The comparison of adverbs

Few adverbs of degree: e.g. near, nearly. Many viewpoint adverbs end in -ly: e.g. fortunately.

7.3.2 One-word adverbs not ending in -ly
Many adverbs cannot be identified by their endings. These include
adverbs of manner which have the same form as adjectives, e.g. fast
[> App 14]; adverbs of place {there}; of time {then}; of frequency
{often}; viewpoint adverbs {perhaps} and connectives {however}.

7.3.3 Adverbial phrases
Adverbial phrases of manner, place and time are often formed with a
preposition + noun: in a hurry, in the garden, at the station
Other examples of adverbial phrases: again and again {frequency};
hardly at all {degree}; very much indeed {intensifying}; as a matter of
fact {viewpoint}; in that case {connective}.

7.3.4 Adverb particles
Certain words, such as in, off, up, function either as prepositions or as
adverb particles {> 8.4}. When such words are followed by an object,
they function as prepositions; when there is no object, they are adverb
particles:
preposition: The children are in the house
adverb: The children have just gone in

The comparison of adverbs

7.4 Form of comparison of adverbs
Only gradable adverbs {compare > 6.5} can have comparative and superlative
forms Comparison is not possible with adverbs such as daily. extremely only
really, then there, uniquely, because they are not gradable. Gradable adverbs
form comparatives and superlatives as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adverb</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>faster</td>
<td>fastest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>easily</td>
<td>more easily</td>
<td>most easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>more rarely</td>
<td>most rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badly</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther</td>
<td>farthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
<td>last</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>best</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.5 Notes on the comparison of adverbs {compare 6.22-26}
1 Many adverbs like early, fast, etc. {> App 14} form their
comparatives and superlatives in the same way as shorter
adjectives {e.g. earlier earliest}.
2 As most adverbs of manner have two or more syllables, they form
their comparatives and superlatives with more/less and most/least
Other examples: more-less/most/least briefly clearly quickly.
7 Adverbs

3 Some adverbs of frequency form their comparative and superlative with more/less most/least (e.g. more seldom, most seldom); often has two comparative forms: more often and (less common) oftener.

4 Compare latest/last. both words can be adjectives:
   I bought the latest (i.e. most recent) edition of today's paper
   I bought the last (i.e. final) edition of today's paper

   But normally only last is used as an adverb:
   That was a difficult question so I answered it last

   or before the main verb:
   It last rained eight months ago (= The last time it rained was...)

   Both farther and further can be used to refer to distance:
   I drove ten miles farther/further than necessary

   Further, but not farther, can be used to mean 'in addition':
   We learnt further that he wasn't a qualified doctor

   Note the irregular adverb well (related to the adjective good) which means 'in a pleasing or satisfactory way':
   Jane Somers writes well [compare bad/badly and > 6.8.1, 6.17]

7.6 How we make comparisons using adverbs

Adverbial comparisons can be made with the following [compare > 6.27-30]:

as...as: Sylvia sings as sweetly as her sister
not as/so...as: I can't swim as well as you (can)
...than: The rain cleared more quickly than I expected
the...the: The faster I type the more mistakes I make
...and...: It rained more and more heavily
comparative: Dave drives faster than anyone I know
superlative: I work fastest when I'm under pressure
   Tim tries the hardest of all the boys in his class

   We often use the comparative + than ever than anyone, than anything in: e.g.
   Magnus concentrated harder than ever/than anyone
   This is preferable to the superlative in: e.g.
   Magnus concentrated the hardest

Adverbs of manner

7.7 Spelling and form of adverbs ending in '-ly'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 Add -ly to an adjective</th>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>badly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful</td>
<td>carefully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day</td>
<td>daily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noble</td>
<td>nobly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fantastic</td>
<td>fantastically</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adverbs of manner

7.8 Notes on the spelling and form of ‘-ly’ adverbs

1 Most adverbs of manner are formed by adding -ly to adjectives, e.g. mad/madly, plain/plainly, sudden/suddenly. This applies to adjectives ending in -/ so that the / is doubled: beautiful/beautifully, musical/musically. But note: full/fullly

2 -y after a consonant becomes -//y. e.g. busy/busily, funny/funnily. Sometimes two formations are possible, e.g. dry/dryly/dryly, but in e.g. sly/slyly, -ly is the acceptable form

3 Delete -e and add -(l)ly if an adjective ends in -te- e.g. able/ably, nimble/nimbly, possible/possibly, whole/wholly. Other adjectives ending in -e retain the -e when adding -ly: extreme/extremely, tame/tamely. Exceptions: due/duly and true/truly.

4 Adjectives ending in -ic take -ally: e.g. basic/basically, systematic/systematically. Common exception: public/publicly.

Some -ly adverbs (relating to manner/frequency) have the same form as adjectives: e.g. daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly, yearly.
I receive quarterly bills I pay my bills quarterly

Early can be used as an adjective or an adverb, but unlike e.g. week/weekly is not formed from another word.
I hope to catch an early train I want to arrive early

7.9 Suffixes other than ‘-ly’ used to form adverbs of manner

A few other suffixes can be added to adjectives (and to some nouns and adverbs) to form adverbs of manner (or in some cases direction): (Indian)-fashion; (American)-style, backwards, forwards, northwards, upwards; crossways, lengthways, sideways, clockwise, lengthwise.
The suffix -wise is often used to make new adverbs meaning ‘relating to (the noun)’: moneywise, taxwise (How do you manage taxwise?)

7.10 Adverbs of manner with dynamic and stative verbs [> 9.3]

Most adverbs of manner naturally refer to action verbs (laugh loudly, perform badly, drive carefully, etc.). A smaller number of adverbs can also refer to stative verbs (e.g. understand perfectly, know well): I hear very badly.

7.11 Prepositional phrases used adverbially

When there is no -ly adverb for what we want to say, we have to use an adverbial phrase beginning with a preposition to refer to ‘means’ or ‘method’:
I came here by bus She answered me in a loud whisper

Sometimes we can choose between a phrase and an -ly adverb:
He left in a hurry/hurriedly [> App 26]

7.12 ‘-ly’ adjectives and equivalent adverbial forms

Here is a selection of adjectives which end in -ly: brotherly/sisterly, cowardly, elderly, friendly/unfriendly, heavenly, likely/unlikely, lively, lovely, manly/womanly, motherly/fatherly, sickly,
7 Adverbs

**Adjectives**

Silly and ugly. We use most of these adjectives to describe people’s qualities. We cannot use them as adverbs, so we form phrases with way, manner, or fashion.

**Adjectives**

Susan is a friendly girl.

**Adverbs**

She always greets me in a friendly way/manner/fashion.

7.13 Adjectives/adverbs: same form, same meaning [> Apps14,15.1]

Some words can be used as adjectives or as adverbs of manner without adding -ly fast, hard, etc.

* A fast (adjective) tram is one that goes fast (adverb).
  I work hard (adverb) because I enjoy hard (adjective) work.

7.14 Adverbs with two forms [> App 15]

Some adverbs have two forms which may have

- the same meaning: e.g., cheap I bought this car cheap/cheaply
- different meanings: e.g., hard I work hard and play hard/ I did hardly any work today.

7.15 Adverbs differing in meaning from corresponding adjectives

Some adverbs differ in meaning from their corresponding adjectives.

* e.g., express/expressly ready readily
  * If it’s urgent you should send it by express mail (fast).
  * You were told expressly to be here by 7 (clearly/deliberately).

Some adverbs, such as coldly coolly hardly and warmly can refer to feelings and behaviour and can be used with verbs such as act behave react speak. Compare adjective/adverb uses in e.g.,

It’s cold today. The whole queue stared at me coldly.

It’s a warm/cool day. Emily greeted me warmly/coolly.

It’s a hot day. Edward hotly denied the accusation.

7.16 Position of adverbs of manner

7.16.1 Adverbs of manner: after the object or after the verb

The most usual position of adverbs of manner is after the object or after the verb [> 1.3] e.g.

- after the object: Sue watched the monkeys curiously.
  Look at this photo carefully.

- after the verb: It snowed heavily last January.
  He took the picture down carefully.

The important thing is not to put the adverb between the verb and its object (Not *He speaks well English*) But even this is possible if the object is very long.

We could see very clearly a strange light ahead of us.

7.16.2 Adverbs of manner: between subject and verb

One-word adverbs of manner can sometimes go between the subject and the verb. (This rarely applies to adverbial phrases.) If we wish to emphasize the subject of the verb, we can say

* Gillian angrily slammed the door behind her.
  (i.e. Gillian was angry when she slammed the door)
Adverbs of place

However, well and badly, when used to evaluate an action, can only go at the end of a sentence or clause
Mr Gradgnnd pays his staff very well/badly [compare > 7.10]

With some adverbs of manner, such as bravely cleverly cruelly foolishly generously kindly secretly simply, a change of position results in a difference in emphasis Compare the following
He foolishly locked himself out
(= It was foolish (of him) to ) [> 16.27.2]
He behaved foolishly at the party (= in a foolish manner)

With others, such as badly naturally, a change of position results in a change in meaning and function
You typed this letter very badly (adverb of manner)
We badly need a new typewriter (intensifier, > 7.53.1)
You should always speak naturally (adverb of manner)
Naturally I'll accept the invitation (viewpoint adverb, > 7.57)

7.16.3 Adverbs of manner: beginning a sentence
In narrative writing (but not normally in speech) sentences can begin with adverbs of manner, such as gently quietly slowly suddenly We do this for dramatic effect, or to create suspense Such adverbs are followed by a comma
O Connor held his breath and stood quite still Quietly he moved forwards to get a better view

Adverbs of place

7.17 The meaning of 'place'
The idea of place covers
- location Larry is in Jamaica
- direction (to away from) Larry flew to Jamaica

A distinction can be drawn between location and direction
1 Location adverbials answer the question Where? and go with 'position verbs' such as be live stay work They can begin a sentence In Jamaica Larry stayed at the Grand Hotel
2 Direction adverbials answer the questions Where to? and Where from? They often go with 'movement verbs' like go and cannot usually begin a sentence Larry went by plane to Jamaica

7.18 How to identify adverbs of place
Adverbs of place may be
- words like abroad ahead anywhere everywhere nowhere somewhere ashore away back backwards/forwards here/there left right north south upstairs downstairs
- words like the following, which can also function as prepositions [>8.4.1] above behind below beneath underneath
- two words combining to emphasize place, such as down below
don down there far ahead far away over here over there
Prepositional phrases often function as adverbials of place e.g at my mother's from New York in hospital on the left [> 7.3.3, 7.30]
7.19 Position of adverbs of place

Adverbs of place never go between subject and verb

7.19.1 Adverbs of place: after manner but before time

When there is more than one kind of adverb in a sentence, the usual position of adverbs of place is after manner, but before time (following a verb or verb + object [> 1.3])

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>manner</th>
<th>place</th>
<th>time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quietly</td>
<td>in the library</td>
<td>all afternoon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Barbara read        quietly             in the library        all afternoon

However, adverbs of direction can often come after movement verbs (come drive go) and before other adverbials

I went to London (direction) by train (manner) next day (time)

If there is more than one adverb of place then 'smaller places' are mentioned before 'bigger places' in ascending order

She lives |   in a small house l in a village l outside Reading l in Berkshire   |    England

7.19.2 Adverbs of place: beginning a sentence

If we wish to emphasize location (e.g. for contrast), we may begin with an adverb of location especially in descriptive writing

Indoors it was nice and warm Outside it was snowing heavily

To avoid ambiguity, the initial position is usual when there is more than one adverbial of place

On many large farms farm workers live in tied cottages

For inversion after initial place adverbials [> 7.59.1-2]

Adverbs of time

7.20 How to identify adverbs of time

Adverbs and adverbial phrases of time can refer to definite time [> 7.21], answering questions like When (exactly)?

I'll see you tomorrow/on Monday

They refer to duration [> 7.30], answering Since when 'For how long?

I haven't seen her since Monday/for a year

Other adverbials refer to indefinite time [> 7.23], i.e. they do not answer time questions precisely

He doesn't live here now/any more

Some time adverbs can also act as nouns

Tomorrow is Tuesday isn't it?

7.21 Adverbs of definite time

Adverbs of definite time answer the question When? and are generally used with past tenses, or refer to the future

I started my job last Monday I'll ring tomorrow

Two main categories can be defined

1 'Points of time' such as today tomorrow yesterday [> App 48]

These can be modified by the words early earlier late and later e.g. earlier today late later this year
Adverbs of time

2 Prepositional phrases which function as adverbials of time [> 8.11-14] They often begin with at in or on e.g at five o clock [> App 47.5] at Christmas in July on November 20th Some of these can be modified early in July punctually at 5

7.22 Position of adverbs of definite time
The most usual position is at the very end of a sentence [> 1.3] We checked in at the hotel on Monday/yesterday etc
Definite time references can also be made at the beginning [> App 48] This morning I had a telephone call from Sheila
If there is more than one time reference we usually progress from the particular to the general i.e. time + day + date + year Gilbert was born at 11.58 on Monday November 18th 1986

7.23 Adverbs of indefinite time
Some common adverbs of indefinite time are afterwards already [> 7.26, 7.28] another day another time at last at once early eventually formerly immediately just [> 7.29] late lately (= recently) now nowadays once one day presently recently some day soon still [> 7.25] subsequently suddenly then these days ultimately and yet [> 7.27-28]

7.24 Position of adverbs of indefinite time
The following usually come at the end of a sentence although they can also come before the verb and (usually to focus interest or for contrast) at the beginning of a sentence afterwards eventually formerly immediately lately once presently recently soon subsequently suddenly then ultimately
I went to Berlin recently I recently went to Berlin
Recently I went to Berlin It was very interesting
When the verb is be these adverbs usually come after it I was recently in Berlin
Early and late come at the end of a sentence or clause We arrived at the airport too early/late for our flight
Another day/time one day (referring to past or future) some day (referring to future) can come at the beginning or the end Some day Ill tell you Ill tell you some day
Some adverbs of indefinite time can be modified with only (only just only recently) or with very (very early very recently)

7.25 Position and use of ‘still’
Still referring to time emphasizes continuity It is mainly used in questions and affirmatives often with progressive tenses [> 9.20.1] Its position is the same as for adverbs of indefinite frequency [> 7.40] Mrs Mason is still in hospital I’m still waiting for my new passport Tom still works for the British Council
7 Adverbs

For special emphasis, it can come before an auxiliary [> 7.40.6]:

Martha still *is* in hospital, you know

Used after the subject in negative sentences, *still* can express dissatisfaction or surprise:

I *still* haven't heard from her

(Compare *I haven't heard from her*, which is neutral.)

7.26 Position and use of 'already'

*Already* is not normally used in negative sentences. Its position is the same as for adverbs of indefinite frequency [> 7.40], though it can also come at the end:

This machine is *already* out of date It is out of date *already*  
I've *already* seen the report I've seen it *already*  
Tom *already* knows the truth He knows it *already*

For special emphasis it can come before an auxiliary [> 7.40.6]:

You'd better lock up - I *already* *have* (locked up)

In the end position, *already* can emphasize 'sooner than expected':

Don't tell me you've eaten *it already!*

7.27 Position and use of 'yet'

*Yet* generally comes at the end in questions and negatives:

Have the new petrol prices come into force *yet*?  
Haven't the new petrol prices come into force *yet*?  
The new petrol prices haven't *yet* come into force *yet*  

In negatives, *yet* can come before the main verb:

Has the concert finished? - No *yet*

*Yet* is often used after *not* in short negative answers:

The new petrol prices haven't *yet* come into force

We use *yet* in questions when we want information:

Have you received your invitation *yet*? (i.e. I don't know.)

We sometimes use *already* when we want confirmation:

Have you *already* received your invitation? (i.e. Please confirm.)

7.28 'Yet' and 'already' compared

Both these adverbs are commonly used with perfect tenses [> 9.26.2], though in AmE they commonly occur with the past:

Have you seen *Tosca* *yet*? - I've *already* seen it (BrE)  
Did you see *Tosca* *yet*? - I *already* saw it (AmE)

We use *yet* in questions when we want information:

Have you received your invitation *yet*? (i.e. I don't know.)

We sometimes use *already* when we want confirmation:

Have you *already* received your invitation? (i.e. Please confirm.)

7.29 Position and use of 'just'

*Just* (referring to time) has the same position as for adverbs of indefinite frequency [> 7.40] and is used:

- with perfect tenses to mean 'during a very short period before now or before then' [> 9.26.2, 9.29.1]:
  
  I've *just* finished reading the paper Would you like it?  
  I saw Mrs Mason yesterday She had *just* come out of hospital
Adverbs of time

- with the past, especially in AmE, to mean 'a very short time ago':
  
  *I just saw Selina* She was going to the theatre

- to refer to the immediate future, with progressive tenses or will:
  
  *Wait I'm just coming* I'll just put my coat on

Just has other meanings, e.g. 'that and nothing else':

*How do I work this?* - You just turn on that switch

7.30 Adverbials of duration

Duration (periods of time) can be expressed by adverbs (e.g. ago all (day) long, (not) any more (not) any longer, no longer no more), and by prepositional phrases functioning as adverbials (beginning with e.g. by, during, for from to/till, since throughout).

7.31 'Since' and 'ago' [> 9.25.2, 9.29.1, 9.33.1,10.13.5, 9.18]

*Since* combines with points of time to answer the question *Since when?* it is often associated with the present perfect to mark the beginning of a period lasting till now, or with the past perfect to mark the beginning of a period lasting till then:

*I haven't seen Tim since January/since last holidays*

*I met John last week I hadn't seen him since 1984*

*Since* can be used as an adverb on its own:

*/saw your mother last January, but I haven't seen her since*

Period of time + ago (answering *How long ago?* or *When?*) marks the start of a period going back from now:

*I started working at Lawson's seven months ago*

Note that *since* is placed before the point in time it refers to; *ago* is placed after the period it refers to.

7.32 'For' [> App 25.20]

*For* (+ period of time, answering *How long?*) marks the duration of a period of time in the past or in the future, or up to the present:

*The Kenways lived here for five years (They no longer live here.)*

*The Kenways have lived here for five years (They are still here.)*

*For* combines with e.g. ages, hours days, weeks, months, years, etc. to emphasize or exaggerate duration:

*/haven't seen Patricia for months How is she?*

In affirmative sentences with a 'continuity verb' like be live, work [> 9.33.1] *for* is often omitted when the verb is present perfect or past:

*Patricia has been (or has lived, has worked) here for a year*

*Sometimes for can be omitted in future reference:

*I'll be (or stay, work) in New York for six months*

*For* cannot be omitted in negative sentences or when it comes at the beginning of a sentence or clause:

*I haven't seen him for six years. For six years, he lived abroad*

7.33 'From...to/till/until'

*From* to/till/until refer to a defined period:

*The tourist season runs from June to/till October*
7 Adverbs

From can be omitted informally with till but not usually with to
I"m at my office (from) nine till five (from nine to five)
We worked on the project (from) March till June

7.34 By', 'till/until' and not...till/until'

Till (or until) and by mean any time before and not later than When we use continuity verbs [> 9.33.1] which indicate a period of time (e g stay wait) we can only use till/until (Not *by*)
I"ll stay here till/until Monday
I won't stay here till/until Monday
Will you stay here till/until Monday?

When we use verbs which indicate a point of time (e g finish leave) we can only use till/until in the negative
I won't leave till/until Monday (= on Monday not before)
We can only use by with point of time verbs so we can say
I'II have left by Monday (= any time before and not later than)
I won't have left by Monday (= Ill still be here on Monday)

7.35 'During', 'in' and 'throughout'

During always followed by a noun can refer to a whole period
It was very hot during the summer or to points during the course of a period
He s phoned four times during the last half hour
In (= within a period) can replace during in the above examples Vagueness can be emphasized by the use of some time + during
I posted it some time during (Not *in*) the week
During cannot be replaced by in when we refer to an event or activity rather than to a period of time
I didn't learn much during my teacher-training
Throughout can replace in or during if we wish to emphasize 'from the beginning to the end of a whole period
There were thunderstorms throughout July
During or throughout (Not *in*) can combine with e g the whole the entire to emphasize that something happened over a period
During the whole/the entire winter she never saw a soul

7.36 All (day) long', '(not) any more'

All long emphasizes duration and is commonly used with words like day and night Long gives extra emphasis and is optional
It rained all night (long)

Not any more not any longer and no longer are used to show that an action with duration has stopped or must stop They come at the end of a sentence or clause
Hurry up I can't wait any longer/any more
No longer can come before a full verb or at the end of a sentence though the end position is sometimes slightly more formal
I'm sorry Professor Carrington no longer lives here
Adverbs of frequency

7.37 How to identify adverbs of frequency
These adverbs fall into two categories **definite frequency** and **indefinite frequency** Both kinds of adverbs answer *How often?*

7.38 Adverbs of definite frequency and their position
These include words and phrases like the following
- once twice three'several times (a day week month year, etc )
- hourly/daily weekly/fortnightly/monthly/yearly annually
- every + e g day/week/month/year + morning afternoon evening night and in combinations like every other day every 3 years every few days every third (etc ) day
- on + Mondays Fridays weekdays, etc

These adverbials usually come at the end of a sentence
*There s a collection from this letter box twice daily*
Some of them can also begin a sentence, just like adverbs of time
This may be necessary to avoid ambiguity
*Once a month we visit our daughter who s at Leeds University* avoids the ambiguity of
*We visit our daughter who s at Leeds University once a month*
The -ly adverbs (hourly daily etc ) are not normally used to begin sentences

7.39 Adverbs of indefinite frequency
These adverbs give general answers to *How often?* Here are some of the most common, arranged on a *scale of frequency*
- always (i e ‘all of the time’)
- almost always nearly always
- generally normally regularly usually
- frequently often
- sometimes occasionally
- almost never hardly ever rarely scarcely ever seldom
- not ever never (i e ‘none of the time’)

Negative frequency adverbs (almost never, etc above) cannot be used with *not [\(> 13.10\]*)
*I hardly ever see Brian these days (Not ‘I don’t hardly ever’)*

The following can be intensified with *very frequently occasionally often rarely regularly and seldom* But note that *very occasionally means ‘not very often’*
*We only have dinner parties very occasionally these days*
The following can be modified by *fairly and quite frequently often and regularly*

Other adverbials that suggest indefinite frequency are again and again at times every so often (every) now and again from time to time (every) now and then, and ordinary -ly adverbs such as constantly continually continuously repeatedly
7 Adverbs

Not. any more, not any longer, etc. refer both to duration and frequency, indicating activities that used to occur frequently, but have now stopped [> 7.36].

7.40 Position of adverbs of indefinite frequency

7.40.1 Adverbs of frequency: affirmatives/questions: mid-position
The normal position of most adverbs of indefinite frequency is 'after an auxiliary or before a full verb'. This means:
- after be when it is the only verb in a sentence [but > 7.40.6]:
  / I was never very good at maths
- after the first auxiliary verb when there is more than one verb:
  You can always contact me on 032 5642.
- before the main verb when there is only one verb:
  Gerald often made unwise decisions
These adverbs usually come before used to, have to and ought to:
We never used to import so many goods.
They can also come before a to-infinitive, though this is formal:
You ought always to check your facts when you write essays
In questions, these adverbs usually come after the subject:
Do you usually have cream in your coffee?

7.40.2 Adverbs of frequency: negative sentences: mid-position
Not must come before always and it commonly comes before generally, normally, often, regularly and usually:
  / Public transport isn't always very reliable
  We don't usually get up before nine on Sundays
The following is also possible with slightly different emphasis:
  We usually don't get up before 9 on Sundays.
Not must come after sometimes and frequently:
  Debbie is sometimes not responsible for what she does
Some frequency adverbials such as almost always, nearly always and occasionally are not used in the negative.

7.40.3 Adverbs of frequency: end position
'Affirmative adverbs' can be used at the end of a sentence:
  / I get paid on Fridays usually
We can use often at the end in questions and negatives:
  Do you come here often? I don't come here often
Always may occur at the end, but in the sense of 'for ever':
  I'll love you always.
The 'negative adverbs' rarely and seldom can sometimes occur at the end, especially when modified by only or very:
  Nowadays, we drive down to the coast only rarely

7.40.4 Adverbs of frequency: beginning a sentence
Where special emphasis or contrast is required, the following can begin a sentence: frequently, generally normally, occasionally, ordinarily, sometimes and usually:
  Sometimes we get a lot of rain in August
Often is generally preceded by quite or very when it is used for emphasis at the beginning of a sentence:
  Quite/Very often the phone rings when I'm in the bath
Adverbs of degree

Always and never can be used at the beginning in imperatives:

Always pay your debts  Never borrow money [> 9.52n.6]

When negative adverbs (never, seldom, etc.) are used to begin sentences, they affect the word order that follows [> 7.59.3].

7.40.5 Adverbs of frequency: 'ever' and 'never'

Ever, meaning 'at any time', is used in questions:

Have you ever thought of applying for a job abroad?

We can use ever after any- and no- indefinite pronouns [> 4.37]:

Does anyone ever visit them?  Nothing ever bothers Howard

Ever can occur in affirmative If-sentences:

// you ever need any help, you know where to find me

and  after hardly scarcely and barely [> 7.39].

Never is used in negative sentences and frequently replaces not when we wish to strengthen a negative [> 13.8], Compare:

I don't smoke  I never smoke

The negative not  ever may be used in preference to never for extra emphasis in e.g. promises, warnings, etc.:

I promise you, he won't ever trouble you again

7.40.6 Adverbs of frequency before auxiliaries

Adverbs of indefinite frequency can be used before auxiliaries (be, have, do, can, must, etc.) when we want to place special emphasis on the verb, which is usually heavily stressed in speech:

It's just like Philip  He always 'is late when we have an important meeting

You never can rely on him

We often use this word order in short responses, especially to agree with or contradict something that has just been said:

Philip is late again - Yes, he always 'is

Note this use when do, does and did replace a full verb:

Your son never helps you - No, he never 'does

or: But he always 'does

A response of this kind can be part of a single statement:

Joan promised to keep her room tidy but she never did

The same kind of emphasis can be made with more than one verb:

George never should have joined the army

Adverbs of degree

7.41 How to identify adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree broadly answer the question 'To what extent?'

Some of the most common are: almost altogether, barely, a bit, enough fairly nearly quite, rather somewhat, too Most of these go before the words they modify: e.g.

- adjectives:  quite good
- adverbs:  quite quickly
- verbs:  I quite like it
- nouns (in a few instances):  quite an experience

However, not all adverbs of degree can form all these combinations. Adverbs of degree change the meaning of a sentence, often by
7 Adverbs

Weakening the effect of the word they modify. In speech, the information they provide can vary according to stress:
The film was quite good (rising tone: = I enjoyed it on the whole)
The film was quite good (falling tone: = I didn't particularly enjoy it)

For adverbs of degree which will combine with the comparative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs (> 6.27.5, 6.28.2).

Some quantifiers, such as a little, a lot, much, etc. can be used as adverbs of degree (> 7.45-46). Compare:
I don't like coffee very much (degree)
I don't drink much coffee (quantity)

Fractions and percentages also function as adverbs to show degree:
Business is so bad that the department stores are half empty
We have a 60% chance of winning the next election

Some adverbs of degree (almost, nearly, etc.) do not pose problems in usage; others (fairly, rather, etc.) are more complicated. Details follow.

7.42 'Quite'
The meaning of quite depends on the kind of word it modifies. With adjectives and adverbs which are gradable (> 6.5) quite means 'less than the highest degree', or it can mean 'better than expected'. This use of quite (- less than, etc.) is not very common in AmE.

The lecture was quite good He lectured quite well (= less than)
However, with ungradable words (dead, perfectly unique) and 'strong' gradable words (amazingly, astounding), quite means 'absolutely' or 'completely':
The news is quite amazing. She plays quite amazingly

Not quite, roughly meaning 'not completely', is normally used with ungradable words only (not quite dead, not quite perfect, etc.).

Your answer is not quite right.

Quite is not used with the comparative but can modify a few verbs:
I quite enjoy mountain holidays (i.e. to a certain extent)
I quite forgot to post your letter (i.e. completely)

And note: He's quite better (= He has completely recovered.)

Quite is often used in BrE in understatements. Thus, if a speaker says, He's quite clever, he might mean, 'He's very intelligent'. Where a slightly different emphasis is required, quite can be replaced by no! all + a negative word: He's not at all stupid [compare > 5.8]

7.42.1 'Quite an/a', 'quite some' and 'quite the'

Quite an/a + countable noun suggests 'noteworthy':
Madeleine is quite an expert on Roman coins

Quite some + uncountable noun suggests 'considerable':
It's quite some time since we wrote to each other

Quite an (or a quite) + adjective + noun is positive in its effect:
It is quite an interesting film/a quite interesting film

Quite the (= e.g. 'certainly') can combine with:
- superlatives: It's quite the worst play I have ever seen
- nouns: Wide lapels are quite the fashion this spring
Adverbs of degree

7.43 'Fairly'

'Fairly' suggests 'less than the highest degree' and often combines with adjectives/adverbs that suggest a good state of affairs (e.g. good, nice, well). It is less 'complimentary' than quite:

The lecture was fairly good. He lectured fairly well.

Fairly does not combine with comparatives. Compared with quite and rather, it combines with verbs in restricted contexts:

You fairly drive me mad with your nagging (= very nearly)

A fairly combines with adjective + noun:

He's a fairly good speaker (less complimentary than quite a/an)

7.44 'Rather'

'Rather' can be stronger than quite and fairly and suggests 'inclined to be'. It can combine with adjectives which suggest a good state of affairs or a bad one:

- inclined to be good: good, nice, clever, well
- inclined to be bad: bad, nasty, stupid, ill

Rather combines with:

- adjectives: This jackets getting rather old
- adverbs: I did rather badly in the competition
- some verbs: I rather like raw fish
- comparatives: Clive earns rather more than his father

Rather tends to combine with 'negative' adjectives:

Frank is clever but rather lazy

With 'positive' adjectives, rather often suggests 'surprisingly':

Your results are rather good - better than I expected

In BrE rather, like quite [> 7.42], is used in understatements:

Professor Boffin was rather pleased when he won the Nobel Prize.

7.44.1 'Rather a/an' and 'a rather'

Rather a/an combines with a noun:

Old Fortescue's rather a bore (= he's inclined to be a bore)

Rather a/an or a rather can precede adjective + noun:

It's rather a sad story = It's a rather sad story

7.45 'Much', far' and 'a lot'

Normally, much and far combine with comparative/superlative forms [> 6.27.5, 6.28.2]: much bigger far better, far the best; and a lot combines with comparatives: a lot more expensive-

Much can be used like very [> 7.51] and any [> 5.12.3] with a few positive (i.e. not comparative or superlative) forms such as good and different. It is normally used with a negative:

I don't think this battery is much good/much different

A lot and far combine with different, but not with good:

This edition is a lot/far different from the earlier one

Not much and a lot combine with verbs like like and enjoy'.

I don't much like fish I don't like fish (very) much/a lot

Far combines with verbs like prefer and would rather [>11.44]:

I far prefer swimming to cycling
7 Adverbs

7.46 'A (little) bit', 'a little', 'somewhat'

A bit (or a little bit), a little and somewhat combine with
- adjectives It's a bit/a little/somewhat expensive
- adverbs He arrived a bit/a little/somewhat late
- comparatives You're a bit/a little/somewhat taller than Alice
- verbs I've turned up the oven a bit/a little/somewhat

Not a bit (like not in the least not in the slightest) is often used for
extra emphasis as a negative intensifier [compare > 5.8]
She wasn't even a bit upset when she heard the news

7.47 'Enough' and 'fairly'

Enough and fairly should not be confused

- Enough, as an adverb, follows an adjective or adverb and suggests 'for some purpose'
  The water in the pool is fairly warm
  The water in the pool is warm enough (to swim in) [> 16.32.2]

7.48 'Too', 'very' and 'enough'

Too goes before adjectives and adverbs It conveys the idea of 'excess', 'more than is necessary', and should not be confused with
the intensifier very, which does not suggest excess [> 7.51]

- Too and enough point to a result
  I arrived at the station too late (I missed the train)
  I didn't arrive at the station early enough (I missed the train)
  I didn't arrive at the station too late (I caught the train)
  I arrived at the station early enough (I caught the train)

Too can be modified by a bit far a little a lot much and rather (far too much work a bit too difficult, etc)
For too and enough with adjective + infinitive [> 16.32]

7.49 'Hardly', barely' and scarcely'

These adverbs are similar in meaning They can be used in front of
- adjectives This soup is hardly/barely/scarcely warm (enough)
- adverbs She plays hardly/barely/scarcely well enough

Hardly and scarcely can be used with verbs

- It might stop raining but I hardly/scarcely think it likely
- Barely combines with a smaller range of verbs
  Jimmy barely knows his multiplication tables yet

Hardly barely scarcely are negative words and do not combine with not or never They combine with ever [> 7.39] and any [> 5.10]

- I've got so little time I hardly ever read newspapers
- There's hardly any cheerful news in the papers

Hardly barely scarcely ever can be replaced by almost never
I almost never visit London these days (= I hardly ever)
Nearly will not combine with never, we must use almost never

We can say not nearly, but we cannot say *not almost*
There are not nearly enough members present to hold a meet
Intensifiers

7.50 How to identify intensifiers
Intensifiers are adverbs which are used with gradable [> 6.5] adjectives and adverbs (very slow slowly) and in some cases verbs (I entirely agree) While an adverb of degree normally weakens or limits the meaning of the word it modifies an intensifier normally strengthens (or ‘intensifies’) the meaning
Your work is good
Your work is very good (intensifier meaning strengthened)
your work is quite good (adverb of degree meaning weakened)

7.51 ‘Very’, etc. [compare > 6.9]
Very is the most common intensifier We use it before
adjectives
Martha has been very ill
adjective + noun
Boris is not a very nice person
adverbs
The wheels of bureaucracy turn very slowly
very on its own cannot go before comparatives but very + much

Since her husbands death Mrs Kay has been very much alone
Combinations with not (not very good not very well) are often used in
preference to positive forms because they are sometimes more polite
Your work is not very good

Very can be used before gradable adjectival present participles (very interesting) and adjectival past participles (mostly ending in -ed e q
very interested [> App 10] and a few others e.g very mistaken)
when past participles are used to form verb tenses they can
sometimes be preceded by much or very much

These developments have very much interested us (Not ‘very’)
7.51.1 Very, very much, so, such a/an
very much and so much (but never much on its own) can also go in
me end position
I enjoyed your party very much so much
best) but we must use very much and so much before a superlative
(the very

BEST) we must use very much or so much before a comparative
(so much better) [> 6 27 5] The very can also combine with a few
nouns (the very beginning) [> 6 9] Very can be replaced by most
before some adjectives describing personal feelings attitudes (most
obliged most concerned, etc )

Such a/an + adective + noun can be used in place of so +
adjective
It was such a nice party! /The party was so nice
Compare so a/an in
It was so important an occasion we couldn’t miss it
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So + adjective can replace very, informally, e.g. in exclamations:

This new cheese is so good [* App 7.18]

For extra emphasis, very may be repeated:

This new cheese is very very good (also: so very very good)

7.51.2 'Jolly', 'pretty' and 'dead' in place of 'very'

Jolly and the weaker pretty can be used in (informal) BrE in place of very before adjectives or adverbs:

She's a jolly good player
The traffic is moving pretty slowly

Pretty can also combine with well to mean 'nearly':

The film was pretty well over by the time we got to the cinema

Dead is used, usually informally, with a limited selection of adjectives (not adverbs):

dead certain dead drunk dead level dead quiet dead right, dead straight, dead tired, dead wrong

You're dead right! The war in Europe did end on May 7th 1945

7.51.3 'Indeed' and 'not (....) at all'

Very (but not so) can be intensified by indeed in affirmative sentences:

That's very good indeed I enjoyed it very much indeed

At all (with or without very much) can be used in negatives:

Mike doesn't enjoy classical music (very much) at all

7.52 -ly intensifiers used in place of 'very'

A few -ly adverbs such as extremely particularly, really and (informally) awfully frightfully, and terribly are commonly used for extra emphasis in place of very with:

- adjectives: Miss Hargreaves is extremely helpful
- adverbs: Dawson works really slowly
- past participles: I'm terribly confused by all this information
- ing-form adjectives: The information is terribly confusing
- adjective + noun Dawson is a particularly good worker

Some -ly adverbs will combine with verbs:

I really appreciate all you've done for me

7.53 -ly intensifiers that retain their basic meaning

Many -ly adverbs which can act as intensifiers retain their basic meaning: e.g. absolutely completely definitely entirely, greatly perfectly seriously [* App 16]. Each of these will combine with some words and not with others. For example, greatly will combine with verbs, but not with adjectives (except a few ending in -ed) or adverbs:

Many people greatly admire English gardens

Many -ly adverbs commonly combine with past participles (completed horribly injured perfectly planned, etc.).

In the passive -/adverbs can come before or after past participles:

He was unexpectedly delayed/delayed unexpectedly

7.53.1 Limited combinations with -ly adverbs

Some -ly adverbs, such as badly deeply, lightly sharply strikingly utterly combine with relatively small sets of words: e.g. badly neededo deeply suspicious highly respected. More combinations are possible with adverbs like deeply and utterly than with e.g. sharply.
Focus adverbs

Focus adverbs

7.54 The use of adverbs when 'focusing'

Adverbs such as even just merely only, really and simply can precede the word they qualify to focus attention on it. Others, like too and as well, focus our attention by adding information.

7.55 The position of 'even' and 'only'

The position of some adverbs such as even and only is particularly flexible, conveying slightly different meanings according to where they are placed. A few examples are:

**Even** Tom knows that 2 and 2 make 4 (i.e. although he's stupid)

**Tom even knows** that 2 and 2 make 4 (i.e. of the many things he knows)

**Only** Tom knows the answer (i.e. nobody else does)

**Tom knows only** half of it (i.e. nothing else)

**Tom only met** Helen (i.e. no one else)

The pre-verb position of even and only often leads to ambiguity. In the written language we can avoid ambiguity by putting these words before the words they qualify. In the spoken language, this is not necessary (and rarely happens). We rely on stress and intonation:

*I only asked Jim to lend me his ladder (i.e not anything else)*

7.55.1 Other uses of 'only' [compare > 16.12.2]

**Only** + too, in the sense of 'extremely':

*I'm only too glad to be of help*

**Only** before a verb in explanations and excuses:

*I don't know why you're so angry I only left the door open*

7.56 'Too', as well', 'not...either' and 'also'

Too and as well usually go in the end position in the affirmative:

*I like John and I like his wife, too/as well*

In negative sentences these words are replaced by either.

*I don't like John and I don't like his wife either*

Also, used as a replacement for too and as well, is more common in writing than in speech. It comes:

- after auxiliaries:
  
  Sue is an engineer She is also a mother

- after the first verb when there is more than one:

  I've written the letters I should also have posted them

- before the main verb:

  I play squash and I also play tennis

Note in the above example that also generally refers to the verb that follows it (i.e tennis is not the only game I play). Compare I too play tennis which refers to the subject (= My friend plays tennis and I play tennis, too/as well). The use of too, directly after the subject, is formal and the end position is generally preferred, especially in informal speech. Like too and as well, also is not used in negative sentences and must be replaced by not either [compare > 13.28-29].
7 Adverbs

**Viewpoint adverbs and connectives**

7.57 **Expressing a viewpoint** [> App 17]

Many adverbs and adverbial phrases tell us something about a speaker's (or writer's) attitude to what he is saying or to the person he is talking to (or writing to or for). We call these 'viewpoint' or 'sentence' adverbs because they qualify what is being said (or written), but do not affect its grammatical structure. For example, a speaker or writer may use adverbs such as clearly or evidently to tell us he is drawing conclusions; frankly or honestly to impress us with his sincerity; generally or normally to make generalizations; briefly or in short to suggest he will not be tedious or go into details. Viewpoint adverbs may come at the very beginning of a sentence, and are followed by a brief pause in speech or a comma in writing. They then modify the sentence or sentences that follow:

_Frankly_ I am not satisfied with your work

Some viewpoint adverbs may also come in mid-position:

_He smiled nastily_ He _evidently_ knew something I didn’t

_Hopefully_ is an adverb of manner in:

_To travel hopefully is better than to arrive_

Nowadays, _hopefully_ is often used as a viewpoint adverb, though not all native speakers approve of this use:

_Hopefully (= I hope) I’ll see you sometime tomorrow_

_Hopefully, (= it is hoped) they’ll arrive at an agreement_

7.58 **Connecting words and phrases** [> App 18]

Numerous adverbs introduce additions to, modifications or summaries of what has already been said. They are essential when we wish to present information in a coherent fashion in speech or writing. For example, a speaker or writer may use adverbs such as however or on the contrary to draw a contrast; at the same time or meanwhile to tell us about something else that was happening at the same time; as a result or consequently to draw our attention to results; furthermore or moreover to add information.

Connectives may come at the beginning, followed by a pause in speech or a comma in writing:

_The police were sure Griffiths was lying. They had found his fingerprints everywhere._ Furthermore _they knew for a fact that he hadn’t been at his mother’s at the time of the crime_

Some connectives may also come in mid-position and are then separated from the rest of the sentence by commas:

_Penrose gambled heavily and as a result lost a lot of money_

**Inversion after adverbs**

7.59 **Inversion after adverbs**

Sometimes the normal subject-verb order in a sentence is reversed if a sentence begins with an adverb. This can happen as follows:
7.59.1 Inversion after adverbs of place like 'here', 'there'

After here and there and after adverb particles such as back, down, off, up, etc. the noun subject comes after the verb. This is common with verbs of motion, such as come and go:

*Here comes a taxi!* *There goes the last train!* (Note the progressive is not used here.)

Down *came the rain* and *up went the umbrellas*

This kind of inversion is common after be when we are offering things or identifying location (often with a plural subject) [* > 10.18]*:

*Here's a cup of tea for you* (offer)
*Here's your letters* (offering or indicating)

'There's (stressed) Johnny Smith' (identifying location)

Inversion does not occur if the subject is a pronoun:

*Here it comes*  *There she goes*  *Up it went*
*Here you are*  *There she is* (identifying location)

7.59.2 Inversion after adverbials of place [compare > 6.17]

After adverbials of place with verbs of position (e.g. lie, live, sit stand) or motion (e.g. come, go rise), the noun subject can follow the verb. This happens mainly in descriptive writing:

*At the top of the hill stood the tiny chapel*

*In the fields of poppies lay the dying soldiers*

This inversion also occurs in the passive with other verbs:

*In the distance could be seen the purple mountains*

Inversion does not occur if the subject is a pronoun:

*At the top of the hill it stood out against the sky*

7.59.3 Inversion after negative adverbs, etc.

Certain adverbs, when used at the beginning of a sentence, must be followed by auxiliary verbs (be, do, have, can must, etc.) + subject + the rest of the sentence. This kind of inversion, which may be used for particular emphasis, is typical of formal rhetoric and formal writing.

It occurs after the following:

- negative or near-negative adverbs (often of time or frequency, such as never, rarely, seldom); or adverbs having a negative effect, e.g. little, on no account [* > App 19]*:

  *Never/Seldom has there been so much protest against the Bomb*  
  *Little does he realize how important this meeting is*  
  *On no account must you accept any money if he offers it* 

The word order is, of course, normal when these adverbs do not begin a sentence:

*There has never seldom been so much protest against the Bomb*  
*He little realizes how important this meeting is*

- combinations with only (e.g. only after, only then):

  *The pilot reassured the passengers Only then did I realize how dangerous the situation had been*

- so + adjective (+ that) and such (+ that):

  *So sudden was the attack (that) we had no time to escape*  
  *Such was his strength that he could bend iron bars*

For normal word order with so and such [* > 1.52.1]*.
8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

General information about prepositions and adverb particles

8.1 What a preposition is and what it does

We normally use prepositions in front of nouns or noun phrases, pronouns or gerunds to express a relationship between one person, thing, event, etc. and another:

- **preposition + noun**:  I gave the book to Charlie
- **preposition + pronoun**:  I gave it to him
- **preposition + gerund**:  Charlie devotes his time to reading

Some relationships expressed by prepositions are:

- **Space**:  We ran across the field
- **Time**:  The plane landed at 4:25 precisely
- **Cause**:  Travel is cheap for us because of the strength of the dollar
- **Means**:  You unlock the door by turning the key to the right

Prepositions always have an object. Even when a preposition is separated from its object, for example in questions (> 8.22, 13.31n4, 13.33) or relatives (> 1.35-38), the relationship is always there:

- **Who(m) were you talking to just now on the phone?** (= To whom )
- **The chair I was sitting on was very shaky** (= The chair on which...)

8.2 Form and stress of prepositions

Prepositions may take the form of:

- single words:  at from in to into, etc.
- two or more words:  according to apart from because of, etc.

One-syllable prepositions are normally unstressed in speech:

- **There’s someone at the door** (No stress on at.)

Prepositions of two or more syllables are normally stressed on one of the syllables:  ‘opposite the bank behind the wall’, etc.

For examples of common prepositions (> App 20).

8.3 Pronouns after prepositions

English nouns do not have ‘case’ (> 1.1), so they do not change in form when they are e.g. the object of a verb or a preposition:

- **There’s a chair behind/but front of/near the door**

But the object form of pronouns must be used after prepositions:

- **The car stopped behind/in front of/near me/him/her/us/them**

*Between you and me, there’s no truth in the report*

Some native speakers mistakenly use / instead of me after prepositions, especially when there are two pronouns separated by and (Not ‘between you and I’).
8.4 When is a word a preposition, adverb or conjunction?

A preposition ‘governs’ an object, so it is always related to a noun, a noun phrase, pronoun or gerund; an adverb particle does not ‘govern’ an object, so it is more closely related to a verb [> 7.3.4 ].

8.4.1 Words that can be used as prepositions or adverb particles

Some words function both as prepositions and as adverb particles. When they are followed by an object, they function as prepositions:

We drove round the city (round + object = preposition)

When no object is stated, these words function as adverb particles (even if an object is implied):

We drove round (no object = adverb particle)

Unlike prepositions, adverb particles are stressed in speech.

The most common of the words that can be used as prepositions or as adverb particles are: about, above, across, after along around before, behind below beneath beyond by down in inside near off on opposite, outside, over past round through under underneath up without

8.4.2 Words that are used as prepositions, but not as particles

The following words are used only as prepositions (that is, they take an object): against at beside despite during except for from into of onto per since till/until to toward(s) upon via with and prepositions ending in -ing such as excepting regarding [> App 20.2].

A few phrasal verbs [> 8.23] are formed with verb + to as an adverb particle: e.g. come to pull to.

8.4.3 Words that are used as adverb particles, but not as prepositions

The following words are used only as particles (that is, they do not take an object): away back backward(s) downward(s) forward(s) out [except informally > App 25.31] and upward(s).

The children rang the bell and ran away

BAA Words that can be used as prepositions or conjunctions

Some words can be used as prepositions (when followed by an object) or as conjunctions (when followed by a clause): e.g. after as before since, till until [> 1.44-53]:

I haven't seen him since this morning (preposition)
I haven't seen him since he left this morning (conjunction)

When used as conjunctions, as well as but, except and than can be followed by a bare infinitive [> 16.1]:

I've done everything you wanted except (or but) make the beds

8.5 Some problems for the learner in the use of prepositions

English uses more prepositions than most other European languages, partly because ‘case’ [> 1.1] is no longer expressed by noun endings. This may cause problems of choice because:

- many English prepositions have nearly the same meaning:
  e.g. beside by near next to, or: above on top of over

- a single preposition in the student’s mother tongue may do the work of several English prepositions. So, for example, there may be one
8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

preposition to cover the meanings of by, from, and of, or at, in, on and to, particularly after 'movement verbs' [8.7].
- some prepositions (e.g. at) perform different functions. For example, they express relationships in time (at six o'clock), space (at the bank) and other relationships as well.

Movement and position

8.6 Position in space seen from different viewpoints

When referring to space (i.e. a very wide area), we have a choice of preposition, depending on the meaning we wish to express. For example, we can say:

- **in/at/to/from/under/over/across** London

A speaker's personal viewpoint of a place may affect his choice of preposition. If a speaker says:

- I live in London

  he feels 'enclosed' by London.

But if a speaker says:

- We stopped at London on the way to New York

  he sees London as a point on a route.

We use **at** to imply that the location has a special purpose: it may be a stopping place, a meeting place, an eating place, a work place, etc seen externally.

We can consider position in space in relation to:

- a point (i.e. a place or e.g. event):
  - at the cinema, at a party, to/from London
  - We stood at the door and waited (i.e. at that point)

- a line (i.e. a place we think of in terms of length):
  - across/along/on a border/over/road
  - There's a letter box across the road (i.e. across that line)

- a surface (i.e. a place we think of as a flat area):
  - across/off/on a table/door/wall/ceiling
  - I stared at a fly on the wall (i.e. on that surface)

- area or volume: (i.e. a place which can 'enclose'):
  - in/into/out of outside/within a room/ship/car/factory/forest
  - We all sat in the car (i.e. in that area)

A single place (e.g. river) can be viewed from different angles:

- **We went to the river** (a point)
- Greenwich is **down the river** (a line)
- The paper boat floated **on the river** (a surface)
- We swam in the river (an area or volume)

8.7 Prepositions reflecting movement or lack of movement

A preposition takes on the idea of movement (fly under) or lack of movement (stop under) from the verb in the sentence. Some prepositions combine either with 'movement verbs' (e.g. bring drive fly get go move pull run take walk) or with 'position verbs' (e.g. be live keep meet stay stop work).
Movement and position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movement</th>
<th>Position (lack of movement)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>above</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>across</td>
<td>across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>along</td>
<td>along</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>driven</td>
<td>driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ran</td>
<td>ran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ object</td>
<td>+ object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near, etc.</td>
<td>near, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near, etc.</td>
<td>near, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some prepositions, such as into, onto, out of, to, etc., normally combine only with 'movement verbs':

- A bird flew into my bedroom this morning
- I drove out of the car park

Other prepositions, such as at, in, on, etc. normally combine only with 'position verbs':

- The bird perched on the curtain rail
- I waited in the hotel lobby

Verbs which describe 'movement with an end': e.g. lay, place, sit, stand do not combine with prepositions like into, onto, or to:

- She laid the letter on the table
- She sat the baby on the table

We can often use the verb be with prepositions that normally combine with 'movement verbs' to convey the idea of 'having reached a destination' (real or metaphorical):

- At last we were into/out of the forest/over the river
- At last we were out of/over our difficulties

8.8 Adverb particles reflecting movement or lack of movement

The same contrast between movement and lack of movement can also be expressed by verb + adverb particle:

- Movement: We went away/back/inside-outside/up down
- Position: We stayed away/back/inside/outside/up down

Compare:

- Where's Jim? I don't know He went out (movement)
- Where's Jim? - I don't know He's out (position)

8.9 Prepositions reflecting direction and destination

The difference between direction and destination can often be expressed by contrasting prepositions. The choice depends on whether we are referring to a point, a surface or an area [> 8.6].

8-9.1 'To/from a point' compared with 'at a point' [> 8.6]

To and from a point (indicating direction) may contrast with at a point (indicating destination or position after movement):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direction to or from</th>
<th>Destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>The Grand Hotel school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(has come from)</td>
<td>and now he's at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London Airport</td>
<td>London Airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my brother's</td>
<td>my brother's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To and at combine with a variety of nouns [> App 21].
8.9.2 ‘To/from a point’ compared with ‘in an area’ [> 8.6]
To and from a point (indicating direction) may contrast with in an area (indicating destination or position after movement):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction to or from</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and now he’s in</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and now he’s in</td>
<td>bed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To and in combine with a variety of nouns [> App 22].

8.9.3 ‘To/from a point’ compared with ‘at a point/in an area’ [> App 23]
With certain nouns, the destination after movement may be at or in depending on whether the location is seen as a point or an area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction to or from</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>the restaurant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the hotel</td>
<td>and now he’s at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>the hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>the bank</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At cannot replace in for words that represent very wide areas: e.g. in the sky, in the universe, in the world. Note that the use of at or in after the verb arrive depends on which preposition the noun is normally used with (arrive at a party, arrive in the country). Sometimes either preposition is possible depending on whether we regard the location as a point or an area [> 8.6]: arrive at Brighton or arrive in Brighton.

8.9.4 ‘On(to) a line or surface’, ‘off a line or surface’
On(to) (direction) and on (destination or location) can be used to indicate ‘being supported by’ a line or surface:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction on(to)</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I put the pen on(to) the table</td>
<td>and now it is on the table</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Onto is spelt as one word or two: on to. On (without to) can sometimes indicate direction, often with a change of level:

| I put the pen on the table |

However, onto is sometimes preferable to on with movement verbs like climb lift jump [> 8.7] to avoid ambiguity:

- Mr Temple jumped onto the stage (i.e. from somewhere else)
- Mr Temple jumped on the stage (which could mean ‘jumped up and down on it’, or ‘jumped once to test its strength’)

On (indicating destination or location) can also contrast with to (indicating direction) with reference to levels:

- He’s gone to the fourth floor and now he’s on the fourth floor
- Off (= ‘not on’, indicating separation from a line or surface) combines with movement verbs or position verbs:
  - I took the plate off the table and now it is off the table

8.9.5 ‘In(to) and in an area or volume’
Into always reflects movement and is never used for destination or position. In usually reflects position, but with some movement verbs like drop fall and put it can also reflect movement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction in(to)</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have put the com in(to) my pocket</td>
<td>and now it is in my pocket</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, with other movement verbs, such as run and walk, in does not reflect movement from one place to another:
- We walked into the park (= we were outside it and entered it)
- We walked in the park (= we were already inside it and walked within the area)

Inside can replace in when we refer to e.g. rooms, buildings:
- I'll meet you inside/in the restaurant.

8.9.6 'Out of an area or volume'
Out of can reflect direction and destination:
- We ran out of the building and then we were out of the building

Outside can replace out of when we refer to e.g. rooms, buildings:
- We were outside the building

But outside and out of are not always interchangeable [> App 25.31]

Within, to mean 'inside', can occur in a few limited and formal contexts:
- Everyone within the London area was affected by the bus strike

Without, to mean 'outside', is now archaic.

8.9.7 'Get' + preposition/particle reflecting movement
Get, followed by a preposition or particle, often suggests 'movement with difficulty' [compare > 12.13.1]:
- We got into the house through the window (i.e. with difficulty)
- How did the cat get out (of the box)? (i.e. it must have been difficult)

Time

8.10 General remarks about prepositions of time
The prepositions at, on and in refer not only to place, but also to time.
We can refer to approximate time with approximately, about, round or round about:
- The accident happened at approximately 5:30
- The accident happened at about / around 5:30

For other prepositions of time such as during, for, from since till functioning in adverbial phrases [> 7.30-35], and also [> App 25].

8.11 Time phrases with 'at'

Exact time: at 10 o'clock; at 14 hundred hours [> App 47.5]
Meal times: at lunch time, at tea time, at dinner time
Other points of time: at dawn; at noon, at midnight, at night
Festivals: at Christmas; at Easter, at Christmas-time
Age: at the age of 27, at 14
+ time: at this time, at that time

At is often omitted in questions with What time? and in short answers to such questions:
- **What time do you arrive?** - **Nine o'clock in the morning**

The full question and answer is formal:
- **At what time do you arrive?** - **At nine o'clock in the morning**
8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

8.12 Time phrases with 'on'

Days of the week: on Monday on Fridays
Parts of the day: on Monday morning, on Friday evening
Dates: on June 1st on 21st March
Day + date on Monday June 1st
Particular occasions: on that day on that evening
Anniversaries, etc.: on your birthday on your wedding day
Festivals: on Christmas Day, on New Year's Day

In everyday speech on is often omitted:
I'll see you Friday See you June 21st
Prepositions (and the definite article) must be omitted when we use last, next and this that [compare > App 48]:
I saw him last/this April I'll see you next/this Friday

8.13 Time phrases with 'in'

Parts of the day: in the evening in the morning
Months: in March, in September
Years: in 1900 in 1984 in 1998
Seasons: in (the) spring, in (the) winter
Centuries: in the 19th century, in the 20th century
Festivals: in Ramadan, in Easter week
Periods of time: in that time, in that age in the holidays

8.14 'In' and 'within' to refer to stated periods of time

In and, more formally, within, sometimes mean 'before the end of a stated period of time, which may be present, past or future:
I always eat my breakfast in ten minutes
I finished the examination in (within) an hour and a half
When we refer to the future in phrases like in ten days (or in ten days time), we mean 'at the end of a period starting from now'; -s apostrophe or apostrophe -s + time is optional [compare > 2.49]:
The material will be ready in ten days/in ten days' time
However, when we mean 'within a period of time, not starting from now', we cannot use -s apostrophe + time. Compare:
Sanderson will run a mile in four minutes
(That's how long it will take him to do it.)
Sanderson will run a mile in four minutes' time
(That's when he'll start running.)

Particular uses of prepositions and particles

8.15 Particular prepositions, particles and contrasts

Many prepositions/particles have special uses. For details [> App 25].

8.16 Pairs of prepositions and particles

Prepositions and particles can be repeated for extra emphasis:
We went round and round (the town) looking for the hotel
Particular uses of prepositions/particles

Some prepositions function as contrasting pairs:

*Please don’t keep running up and down (the stairs)*

Or the second word adds something to the meaning of the first:

*Martha was ill for a long time, but she’s up and about now*

8.17 Prepositional phrases

A large number of fixed prepositional phrases are in common use:

*e.g. by right in debt, on time, out of breath, etc.* Some of these phrases have metaphorical or idiomatic uses which extend their time/place associations: *e.g. above average beneath contempt beyond belief.* Many phrases follow the pattern *preposition + noun + preposition: e.g. in danger of, on account of* [› Apps 20.3, 26].

8.18 Combinations of particles and prepositions

Prepositions often follow particles, e.g. across/along/back/down/off ‘on + to, for, etc. [also > 8.30.2]:

*I’m just off for a swim I’m going down to the beach*

Prepositions sometimes combine directly with each other, as in:

*That’s the boy from over the road*

*Come out from under there will you?*

8.19 Adjectives + prepositions

Many adjectives used predicatively [› 6.7, 6.8.4] are followed by particular prepositions: *absent from, certain of, etc.*

*Simon’s often absent from school because of illness*

Sometimes a single adjective can be followed by different prepositions: e.g. *embarrassed about embarrassed at, embarrassed by* [› App 27].

8.20 Nouns + prepositions

Nouns usually take the same prepositions as the adjectives or verbs they relate to [› Apps 27-29].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>embarrassed at/ by</td>
<td>embarrassment about/at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keen on</td>
<td>keenness on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>successful in</td>
<td>success in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>emerge from</td>
<td>emergence from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object to</td>
<td>objection to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This correlation does not always apply: e.g. *be proud of/take pride in*

Or a noun takes a preposition and the verb does not:

*I fear something My fear of something*

*I influence somebody My influence on somebody*

8.21 Modification of prepositions and adverb particles

Prepositions and adverb particles can be modified by adverbs:

*directly above our heads, quite out of his mind right off the main road, well over $200, in particular, all, to mean ‘entirely’, can combine*
with numerous prepositions and particles, such as **about** along down during round through

*Our baby went on crying all through the night*

**Straight** (= immediately) is frequently used with movement and **right** (= in the exact location) is commonly associated with destination

*He went straight to bed/into my office/up to his room*

*He lives right at the end of the street/across the street*

### 8.22 Word order in relation to prepositions

Single-word prepositions except e.g. **but during except and since** [> App 20] can be separated from the words they refer to in

- **Wh-questions**: Where did you buy that jacket from? [> 13.31 n 4]
- **Relative clauses**: The painting you’re looking at has been sold [> 1.35-38]
- **Wh-clauses**: What he asked me about is something I can’t discuss (Separation is obligatory here)
- **Indirect speech**: Tell me where you bought that (from) (optional)
- **Exclamations**: What a lot of trouble he put me to’
- **Passives**: Our house was broken into last night (The end-position is obligatory in the passive)
- **Infinitives**: I need someone to talk to [> 16.36]

Nowadays not many native speakers believe that it is ’bad style’ to end a sentence with a preposition, though the choice of position does depend to some extent on style and balance

### Verb + preposition/particle: non-phrasal and phrasal

#### 8.23 General information about phrasal verbs

One of the most common characteristics of the English verb is that it can combine with prepositions and adverb particles [> 7.3.4] Broadly speaking, we call these combinations **phrasal verbs**. Though grammarians differ about the exact definition of a phrasal verb, we may use the term to describe any commonly-used combination of verb + preposition or verb + adverb particle

**Essential combinations**

Sometimes this combination is essential to the use of the verb. For example, the verb **listen** (which can occur on its own in e.g. *Listen’*) must be followed by **to** when it has an object

*We spent the afternoon listening to records*

**Non-essential combinations**

Sometimes the combination is not essential but reinforces the meaning of a verb. For example, the verb **drink**, in *Drink your milk*’ can be reinforced by **up** to suggest ’finish drinking it’ or ’drink it all’

*Drink up your milk* Or *Drink your milk up’ [> 8.28]

**Idiomatic combinations**

Sometimes the primary meaning of a verb is completely changed
Verb + preposition/particle

when it combines with a preposition or particle a new verb is formed, which may have a totally different idiomatic meaning, or even several meanings. For example, there are numerous combinations with make: make for (a place) (= go towards), make off (= run away), make up (= invent), etc. See examples in 8.23.2

8.23.1 The use of phrasal verbs in English
There is a strong tendency (especially in informal, idiomatic English) to use phrasal verbs instead of their one-word equivalents. It would be very unusual, for instance, to say Enter instead of Come in in response to a knock at the door. Similarly, blow up might be preferred to explode, give in to surrender, etc. Moreover, new combinations (or new meanings for existing ones) are constantly evolving. Share prices bottomed out (= reached their lowest level) in 1974. The book took off (= became successful) as soon as it appeared.

8.23.2 How common phrasal verbs are formed
The most common phrasal verbs are formed from the shortest and simplest verbs in the language e.g. be, break, bring, come, do, fall, find, get, give, help, let, make, put, send, stand, take, tear, throw, turn, which combine with words that often indicate position or direction, such as along, down, in, off, on, out, over, under, up. Not only can a single verb like put combine with a large number of prepositions or particles to form new verbs (put off, put out, put up with, etc.), but even a single combination can have different meanings. Put out your cigarettes (= extinguish). I felt quite put out (= annoyed). We put out a request for volunteers (= issued). They're putting the programme out tomorrow (= broadcasting). This stuff will put you out in no time (= make you unconscious). Martha's put out her hip again (= dislocated).

8.24 Some problems in the use of verb + preposition/particle
Apart from the obvious problem that the use of phrasal verbs is extremely common and a standard feature of good idiomatic English, interference with the learner’s own language may arise from:

1. Verbs which may be followed by an infinitive in the learner’s language, but which in English can be followed by a preposition or particle + object, but never by an infinitive e.g. dream of, insist on, succeed in, think of. (> 8.27)
   Your father insists on coming with us. (> 16.51, 16.54)

2. Verbs which are followed by to as a preposition, not as an infinitive
   There are relatively few of these (> 16.56)
   I look forward to seeing you soon.

3. Verbs which are followed by different prepositions from the ones used in the learner’s language e.g. believe in, consist of, depend on, laugh at, live on, rely on, smell of, taste of
   Everybody laughed at my proposal to ban smoking on trains.

4. Verbs which take a preposition in English, but may not need one in the learner’s language e.g. ask for, listen to, look at, look for, wait for
   You should ask for the bill.
5 Verbs which may be followed by a preposition in the learner's language, but not normally in English e.g. approach discuss enter lack marry obey remember resemble

We all turned and looked at Mildred when she entered the room

8.25 Non-phrasal verbs compared with phrasal verbs

What is a phrasal verb? Very often a verb is followed by a prepositional or adverbial phrase [> 7.3.3, 7.18, 7.30]

Let's eat in the garden/on the terrace/under that tree

In the above examples, in and on do not have a 'special relationship' with eat they are in 'free association' so that eat in and eat on are not phrasal verbs here. Most verbs (especially verbs of movement) can occur in free association with prepositions and particles, but these combinations are not always phrasal verbs. For example climb come go walk, etc will combine freely with down from in up, etc.

/go to the bank on Fridays (verb + preposition, non-phrasal)

You can come out now (verb + particle, non-phrasal)

In examples of this kind, the verbs before the prepositions or particles are replaceable

We hurried/ran/walked/went up (the hill)

Furthermore, in such examples, a verb + preposition or particle is used in its literal sense. The meaning of the verb is a combination of the two words used e.g. come + out (i.e. it is the same as the meaning of its separate parts). However, a verb may have an obvious literal meaning in one context and a highly idiomatic one in another.

We'd better step on it (i.e. hurry up idiomatic phrasal verb)

The combination of verb + preposition or particle can be described as phrasal when the two (or three) parts are in common association (not 'free association') and yield a particular meaning which may either be obvious (e.g. I took off my jacket) or idiomatic (the plane took off = rose into the air). However, the dividing-line between non-phrasal and phrasal verbs is not always easy to draw.

8.26 Four types of verb + preposition/particle

We can distinguish four types of combinations with different characteristics.

Type 1 verb + preposition (transitive) e.g. get over (an illness)
Type 2 verb + particle (transitive) e.g. bring up (the children)
Type 3 verb + particle (intransitive) e.g. come about (= happen)
Type 4 verb + particle + preposition (transitive) e.g. run out of (matches)

8.27 Type 1: Verb + preposition (transitive)

8.27.1 General characteristics of Type 1 verbs [compare > 12.3n7]

a Verbs of this type are followed by a preposition [> 8.4] which takes an object (they are transitive [> 1.9])

I'm looking for my glasses (noun object)

I'm looking for them (pronoun object)
b We cannot put the preposition after the object

*Look at this picture*  (Never 'Look this picture at')

However, separation of the preposition from the verb is sometimes possible in relative clauses and questions (and see note e below)

*The picture at which you are looking was bought at an auction*

*At which picture are you looking?*

c Verb + preposition can come at the end of a sentence or clause

*She s got more work than she can cope with*

*There s so much to look at when you visit the National Gallery*

d Some combinations can go into the passive [> Apps 28-30]

*Every problem that came up was dealt with efficiently*

e An adverb may come after the object

*Look at this drawing carefully*

or, for emphasis, immediately before or after the verb [> 7.16]

*Look carefully at this drawing*

f Monosyllabic prepositions are not usually stressed

*This cake consists of a few common ingredients*

Three sub-groups can be identified

8.27.2 Verb + preposition: non-idiomatic meanings

e.g. approve of associate with believe in emerge from fight against hope for listen to, etc [> App 28]

The verbs are used in their normal sense The problem is to remember which preposition(s) are associated with them Sometimes different prepositions are possible e.g. consist of consist in where the meaning of the verb remains broadly unchanged

*Cement consists of sand and lime (ie what the subject (cement) is made of)*

*Happiness consists in having a cheerful outlook (ie consists defines the subject, happiness)*

8.27.3 Verb + object + preposition: non-idiomatic meanings

e.g. remind someone of tell someone about thank someone for

Tell us about your travels in China grandpa

Most of these verbs can be used in the passive [> App 29]

8.27.4 Verb + preposition: idiomatic meanings

The parts of such verbs cannot be so easily related to their literal meanings Relatively few of these verbs can go into the passive, and the preposition can hardly ever be separated from the verb (See 8.27.1 note b above )

e.g. come over (= affect), get over (= recover), go for (= attack), run into (= meet by accident) [> App 30]

*I can t explain why I did it I don t know what came over me*

*Has Martha got over her illness yet?*

*Our dog went for the postman this morning*

8.28 Type 2: Verb + particle (transitive)

8-28.1 General characteristics of Type 2 verbs [compare > 12.3n7]

a These verbs are followed by particles or words that can be used as prepositions or particles [> 8.4] A word following a verb may in
some cases function as a preposition in one context and as a
particle in another

*Come up the stairs* (preposition)

*Come up* (particle)

b These verbs are transitive *Drink up your milk*¹ though some of them can be used intransitively *Drink up’*

c The particle can be separated from its verb and can go immediately after the noun or noun-phrase object [> 8.28.2]

*Please turn every light in the house off*

With long objects, we avoid separating the particle from the verb

*She turned off all the lights which had been left on*

d All transitive verbs can be used in the passive

*All the lights in the house have been turned off*

e When the particle comes at the end of the sentence, it is stressed

*He took off his ’coat He took his coat off*

f Often a verb + particle can be transitive with one meaning

*We have to turn our essays in/turn in our essays by Friday*

and intransitive, therefore Type 3 [> 8.29] with another meaning

*I feel sleepy so I think Ill turn in (= go to bed)*

g Nouns can be formed from many verbs of this type e g

*a breakdown a knockout a follow up a setback [> App 31]*

8.28.2 Type 2 verbs: word order

When there is a noun object, the particle can go
- before the object: *she gave away all her possessions*
- or after the object: *She gave all her possessions away*

Even though we may put an object after e.g. *away* as in the first example above, *away* is a particle, not a preposition. A particle is more closely related to the verb and does not ‘govern’ the object as a preposition does [> 8.4] It is mobile to the extent that it can be used before or after the object

If the object is a pronoun, it always comes before the particle

*She gave them away* *She let me/him/her/it/us/them out*

In some cases, the particle comes only after the object [> App 32]

*We can allow the children out till 9*

Three sub-groups can be identified

8.28.3 Non-phrasal verbs with obvious meanings (‘free association’)

Verbs in this group can be used with their literal meanings [> 8.25]

*You d better pull in that fishing line*

*You d better pull that fishing line in*

8.28.4 Particles that strengthen or extend the effect of the verb

e g *call out eat up stick on write down* The verbs in this group retain their literal meanings [> App 32] In some cases, the particle can be omitted altogether

*Write their names*

or it can have a strengthening effect on the verb

*Write down their names /Write their names down*

In other cases, the particle can extend the meaning of a verb

*Give out these leaflets (i.e. distribute)*
The difference between 'literal (non-idiomatic) meanings' and 'extended meanings' is often hard to draw.

8.28.5 Type 2 verbs with idiomatic meanings

This is a very large category [→ App 33] in which the verb + particle have little or no relation to their literal meanings for example, make up can mean 'invent', as in make up a story, take off can mean 'imitate', as in take off the Prime Minister. Verb combinations, therefore, can have many different meanings, depending on the particles used. Here are just a few examples of the combinations possible with bring:

- bring up the children (= train/educate)
- bring off a deal (= complete successfully)
- bring on an attack of asthma (= cause)
- bring somebody round to our point of view (= persuade)
- bring someone round (= revive)
- bring down the house (= receive enthusiastic applause)

There is also a large category of fixed expressions with nouns. These remain invariable at all times e.g. make up your mind (where mind cannot be replaced by another word), push the boat out (= take risks), etc. Such expressions are too numerous to list and can only be found in good dictionaries [but > App 34].

8.29 Type 3: Verb + particle (intransitive)

8.29.1 General characteristics of Type 3 verbs

a. The verbs in this category are intransitive, that is they cannot be followed by an object.

- Hazel is out
- We set off early etc.

b. Passive constructions are not possible.

c. The same combination of verb + particle can sometimes belong to Type 2 (with an object We broke down the fence) and Type 3 (without an object The car broke down) [compare > 8.28.1f].

d. Nouns can be formed from verbs of this type e.g. a climb down a dropout an outbreak an onlooker [→ App 35].

Two sub-groups can be identified:

8.29.2 Non-phrasal verbs with obvious meanings ('free association')

Verbs in this group can be used with their literal meanings [→ 8.25]. Combinations with be are common, but occur with many other verbs, often in the imperative e.g. hurry along go away sit down keep on drive over [→ App 32] for particle meanings. The 'strengthening effect' noted in 8.28.4 can apply to some of these verbs too, as in hurry up move out, etc.

8.29.3 Type 3 verbs with idiomatic meanings

The verbs in this category [→ App 36] often have little or no relation to their literal meanings e.g. break down (collapse), die away (become quiet), pull up (stop when driving a car), turn up (appear unexpectedly). Mrs Sims broke down completely when she heard the news. The echoes died away in the distance. The bus pulled up sharply at the traffic lights. Harry turned up after the party when everyone had left.
8.30 Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition (transitive)

8.30.1 General characteristics of Type 4 verbs [compare > 12.3n7]

a. These are three-part verbs (e.g. put up with)- They are transitive because they end with prepositions and must therefore be followed by an object:

I don't know how you put up with these conditions

Some of these verbs take a personal object: take someone up on something (pursue a suggestion someone has made):

May I take you up on your offer to put me up for the night?

b. Some verbs can go into the passive and others cannot:

All the old regulations were done away with (passive)

I find it difficult to keep up with you (no passive)

c. Two-part nouns can be formed from some three-part verbs: e.g.

Two sub-groups can be identified:

8.30.2 Non-phrasal verbs with obvious meanings ('free association')

Three-part combinations, which can be used with their literal meanings, are common [> 8.18]: e.g. come down from, drive on to hurry over to, run along to, stay away from, walk up to, etc.: After stopping briefly in Reading we drove on to Oxford

8.30.3 Type 4 verbs with idiomatic meanings

The verbs in this category [> App 37] often have little or no relation to their literal meanings: e.g. put up with (tolerate), run out of (use up).

Unlike the 'free association verbs' noted above, there is no choice in the preposition that can be used after the particle: each verb conveys a single, indivisible meaning:

I'm not prepared to put up with these conditions any longer

We're always running out of matches in our house
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

General information about verbs and tenses

9.1 What a verb is and what it does

A verb is a word (run) or a phrase (run out of) which expresses the existence of a state (love, seem) or the doing of an action (take, play). Two facts are basic:

1. Verbs are used to express distinctions in time (past, present, future) through tense (often with adverbials of time or frequency).
2. Auxiliary verbs (> 10.1) are used with full verbs to give other information about actions and states. For example be may be used with the present participle of a full verb to say that an action was going on (‘in progress’) at a particular time (‘I was swimming’); have may be used with the past participle of a full verb to say that an action is completed (‘I have finished’).

9.2 Verb tenses: simple and progressive

Some grammarians believe that tense must always be shown by the actual form of the verb, and in many languages present, past and future are indicated by changes in the verb forms. On this reckoning, English really has just two tenses, the present and the past, since these are the only two cases where the form of the basic verb varies: love, write (present); loved, wrote (past).

However, it is usual (and convenient) to refer to all combinations of be + present participle and have + past participle as tenses. The same goes for will + bare infinitive (> 16.3) to refer to the future (‘It will be fine tomorrow’). But we must remember that tense in English is often only loosely related to time.

Tenses have two forms, simple and progressive (sometimes called ‘continuous’). The progressive contains be + present participle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>simple</th>
<th>progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present:</td>
<td>'work'</td>
<td>I am working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past:</td>
<td>'worked'</td>
<td>I was working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect:</td>
<td>I have worked</td>
<td>I have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect:</td>
<td>I had worked</td>
<td>I had been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future:</td>
<td>I will work</td>
<td>I will be working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect:</td>
<td>I will have worked</td>
<td>I will have been working</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple forms and progressive combinations can also occur with:

**conditionals** (> Chapter 14): / I would work / I would be working

**modals** (> Chapter 11): / I may work / I may be working

Both simple and progressive forms usually give a general idea of when an action takes place. But the progressive forms also tell us that
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

an activity is (or was, or will be, etc.) in progress, or thought of as being in progress. This activity may be in progress at the moment of speaking:

What are you doing? I'm making a cake
or not in progress at the moment of speaking:

I'm learning to type (i.e. but not at the moment of speaking)
Or the activity may be temporary or changeable:

Fred was wearing a blue shirt yesterday
Or the activity may be uncompleted:

Vera has been trying to learn Chinese for years

Our decision about which tense to use depends on the context and the impression we wish to convey.

9.3 Stative and dynamic verbs

Some verbs are not generally used in progressive forms. They are called stative because they refer to states (e.g. experiences, conditions) rather than to actions. In a sentence like:

She loves/loved her baby more than anything in the world loves (or loved) describes a state over which the mother has no control: it is an involuntary feeling. We could not use the progressive forms (is/was loving) here.

Dynamic verbs, on the other hand, usually refer to actions which are deliberate or voluntary (I'm making a cake) or they refer to changing situations (He's growing old), that is, to activities, etc., which have a beginning and an end. Dynamic verbs can be used in progressive as well as simple forms. Compare the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>progressive forms</th>
<th>simple forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm looking at you I often look at you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm listening to music I often listen to music</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Verbs which are nearly always stative (simple forms only):

I see you
I hear music [> 11.13]

3 Verbs that have dynamic or stative uses:

deliberate actions states

I'm weighing myself I weigh 65 kilos
I'm tasting the soup It tastes salty
I'm feeling the radiator It feels hot

Stative verbs usually occur in the simple form in all tenses. We can think of 'states' in categories like [> App 38]:

1 Feelings: like love, etc.
2 Thinking/believing: think, understand, etc.
3 Wants and preferences: prefer, want, etc.
4 Perception and the senses: hear, see, etc.
5 Being/seeming/having/owning: appear seem belong, own, etc.

Sometimes verbs describing physical sensations can be used in simple or progressive forms with hardly any change of meaning:

Ooh! It hurts! = Ooh! It's hurting
The sequence of tenses

Can/can’t and could/couldn’t often combine with verbs of perception to refer to a particular moment in the present or the past where a progressive form would be impossible [> 11.13]:
I can smell gas = I smell gas

9.4 Time references with adverbs [> App 48]

Some adverbs like yesterday and tomorrow refer to past or future:
I saw Jim yesterday I'll be seeing Isabel tomorrow

Other adverbs, such as already, always, ever, often, never, now, still, can be used with a variety of tenses, though they may often be associated with particular ones. For example, always is often associated with the simple present or past for habits:
We always have breakfast at 7.30
Roland always took me out to dinner on my birthday
But it can be used with other tenses as well:
I shall always remember this holiday (future)
Natasha has always been generous. (present perfect)
Mr Biggs said he had always travelled first class (past perfect)

The sequence of tenses

9.5 The sequence of tenses

In extended speech or writing we usually select a governing tense which affects all other tense forms. The problem of the 'sequence of tenses' is not confined to indirect speech [> 15.5]. Our choice of tense may be influenced by the following factors:

9.5.1 Consistency in the use of tenses

If we start a narrative or description from the point of view of now, we usually maintain 'now' as our viewpoint. This results in the following combinations:
- present (simple/progressive) accords with present perfect/future:
  Our postman usually delivers our mail at 7 every morning
  It's nearly lunch-time and the mail still hasn't arrived I suppose
  the mail will come soon. Perhaps our postman is ill
If we start a narrative or description from the point of view of then, we usually maintain 'then' as our viewpoint. This results in the following combinations:
- past (simple/progressive) accords with past perfect:
  When I lived in London the postman usually delivered our mail at 7
every morning Usually no one in our household had got up when
the mail arrived

9.5.2 The proximity rule

A present tense in the main clause (for example, in a reporting verb) normally attracts a present tense in the subordinate clause:
He tells me he's a good tennis-player
A past tense normally attracts another past:
He told me he was a good tennis-player
In the second example only a more complete context would tell us whether *he was a good tennis player* refers to the past (i.e., when he was a young man) or to present time. A speaker or writer can ignore the proximity rule and use a present tense after a past or a past after a present in order to be more precise.

*He told me he is a good tennis player* (i.e., he still is)

*He tells me he used to be a good tennis player*

However combinations such as *you say you are* or *you told me you were* tend to form themselves automatically. That is why we can refer to the idea of sequence of tenses in which present usually combines with present and past usually combines with past.

**9.5.3 Particular tense sequences**

Refer to the following for particular tense sequences:

- Indirect speech [> Chapter 15]
- Conditional sentences [> Chapter 14]
- Temporal clauses [> 1.45.2]
- After wish etc [> 11.41-43]
- I’d rather [> 11.45]
- Clauses of purpose [> 1.51]

### The simple present tense

**9.6 Form of the simple present tense**

We add *s* or *es* to the base form of the verb in the third person singular:

- I work
- You work
- He works
- She works **in an office**
- It works
- We work
- You work
- They work

**9.7 The third person singular: pronunciation and spelling**

**9.7.1 Pronunciation of the 3rd person singular**

*ls/ after /fl/, /pl/, /kl/, /l/ - laughs puffs drops kicks lets*

Verbs ending in *lz/, /dz/, /zl/, /lj/, /lj/ and /ks/ take an extra syllable in the third person which is pronounced /lz/ loses manages passes pushes stitches mixes

Other verbs are pronounced with a /lz/ in the third person after /b/ robs after/dl/ adds after /gl/ digs after /fl/ fills after/ml/ dreams after/n/ runs after/r/ rings after vowel + w or r draws st rs after /lv/ loves after vowels sees pays Says is normally pronounced /sez/ and *does* is pronounced /dzlz/

**9.7.2 Spelling of the 3rd person singular**

Most verbs add *s* work/works drive/drives play/plays run/runs

Verbs normally add *es* when they end in *o do/does* s miss/misses x mix/mixes -ch catch/catches -sh push/pushes
The simple present tense

When there is a consonant before -y, change to les cry/cries but compare buy/buys say/says obey/obeys

9.8 Uses of the simple present tense

9.8.1 Permanent truths
We use the simple present for statements that are always true
Summer follows spring Gases expand when heated

9.8.2 'The present period'
We use the simple present to refer to events actions or situations which are true in the present period of time and which for all we know may continue indefinitely What we are saying in effect, is 'this is the situation as it stands at present' My father works in a bank My sister wears glasses

9.8.3 Habitual actions
The simple present can be used with or without an adverb of time to describe habitual actions, things that happen repeatedly
I get up at 7 John smokes a lot
We can be more precise about habitual actions by using the simple present with adverbs of indefinite frequency (always never, etc [> 7.39]) or with adverbial phrases such as every day [> 7.38]
I sometimes stay up till midnight
She visits her parents every day
We commonly use the simple present to ask and answer questions which begin with How often'
How often do you go to the dentist? - I go every six months
Questions relating to habit can be asked with ever and answered with e.g. never and sometimes not ever [> 7.40.5]
Do you ever eat meat? - No I never eat meat

9.8.4 Future reference
This use is often related to timetables and programmes or to events in the calendar
The exhibition opens on January 1st and closes on January 31st
The concert begins at 7.30 and ends at 9.30
We leave tomorrow at 11.15 and arrive at 17.50
Wednesday, May 24th marks our 25th wedding anniversary
For the use of the simple present after when etc [> 1.45.2]

9.8.5 Observations and declarations
We commonly use the simple present with stative and other verbs to make observations and declarations in the course of conversation e.g.
I hope/assume/suppose/promise everything will be all right
I bet you were nervous just before your driving test
It says here that the police expect more trouble in the city
I declare this exhibition open
I see/hear there are roadworks in the street again
I love you I hate him
We live in difficult times - I agree
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

The present progressive tense

9.9 Form of the present progressive tense

The progressive is formed with the present of be + the -ing form. See under be for details about form. See under be 10.6]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am</th>
<th>waiting</th>
<th>I’m</th>
<th>waiting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>You’re</td>
<td>writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is</td>
<td>running</td>
<td>He’s</td>
<td>running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is</td>
<td>beginning</td>
<td>She’s</td>
<td>beginning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is</td>
<td>lying</td>
<td>It’s</td>
<td>lying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are</td>
<td></td>
<td>We’re</td>
<td></td>
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<td>You are</td>
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<td>They are</td>
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<td>They’re</td>
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</table>

9.10 Spelling: how to add ‘-ing’ to a verb

wait/waiting

We can add -ing to most verbs without changing the spelling of their base forms. Other examples: beat/beating, carry/carrying, catch/catching, drink/drinking, enjoy/enjoying, hurry/hurrying

write/writing

If a verb ends in -e, omit the -e and add -ing. Other examples: come/coming, have/having, make/making, ride/riding, use/using This rule does not apply to verbs ending in double e: agree/agreeing, see/seeing; or to age/ageing and singe/singeing run/running

A verb that is spelt with a single vowel followed by a single consonant doubles its final consonant. Other examples: hit/hitting, let/letting put/putting, run/running, sit/sitting

Compare: e.g. beat/beating which is not spelt with a single vowel and which therefore does not double its final consonant.

begin/beginning

With two-syllable verbs, the final consonant is normally doubled when the last syllable is stressed. Other examples: forget/forgetting, pre’er/prefering, up’er/upsetting Compare: ‘benefit/benefiting, ‘differ/differing and ‘profit/profiling which are stressed on their first syllables and do not double their final consonants. Note ‘label/labeling ‘quarrel/quarrelling, ‘signal/signalling and ‘travel/travelling (BrE) which are exceptions to this rule. Compare: labeling, quarrelling, signaling, traveling (AmE) [compare > 9.14.2].

-ie at the end of a verb changes to -ick when we add -ing: panic/panicking picnic/picnicking traffic/trafficking

lie/lying

Other examples: die/dying, tie/tying

9.11 Uses of the present progressive tense

9.11.1 Actions in progress at the moment of speaking

We use the present progressive to describe actions or events which
The present progressive tense

are in progress at the moment of speaking. To emphasize this, we often use adverbials like now, at the moment, just, etc.: Someone’s knocking at the door Can you answer it? What are you doing? - I’m just tying up my shoe-laces He’s working at the moment, so he can’t come to the telephone

Actions in progress are seen as uncompleted* He’s talking to his girlfriend on the phone We can emphasize the idea of duration with still [> 7.25]: He’s still talking to his girlfriend on the phone

9.11.2 Temporary situations

The present progressive can be used to describe actions and situations which may not have been happening long, or which are thought of as being in progress for a limited period: What’s your daughter doing these days? - She’s studying English at Durham University

Such situations may not be happening at the moment of speaking: Don’t take that ladder away Your father’s using it (i.e. but perhaps not at the moment) She’s at her best when she’s making big decisions

Temporary events may be in progress at the moment of speaking: The river is flowing very fast after last night’s rain

We also use the present progressive to describe current trends: People are becoming less tolerant of smoking these days

9.11.3 Planned actions: future reference

We use the present progressive [and be going to > 9.46.3] to refer to activities and events planned for the future. We generally need an adverbial unless the meaning is clear from the context: We’re spending next winter in Australia

This use of the present progressive is also commonly associated with future arrival and departure and occurs with verbs like arrive, come, go, leave, etc. to describe travel arrangements: He’s arriving tomorrow morning on the 13 27 train

The adverbial and the context prevent confusion with the present progressive to describe an action which is in progress at the time of speaking: Look The train’s leaving (i.e. it’s actually moving)

9.11.4 Repeated actions

The adverbs always (in the sense of ‘frequently’), constantly, continually, forever, perpetually and repeatedly can be used with progressive forms to describe continually-repeated actions: She’s always helping people

Some stative verbs can have progressive forms with always, etc.: I’m always hearing strange stories about him [> 9.3]

Sometimes there can be implied complaint in this use of the progressive when it refers to something that happens too often: Our burglar alarm is forever going off for no reason
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.12 The present tenses in typical contexts

9.12.1 The simple present and present progressive in commentary

The simple present and the present progressive are often used in commentaries on events taking place at the moment, particularly on radio and television. In such cases, the simple present is used to describe rapid actions completed at the moment of speaking and the progressive is used to describe longer-lasting actions:

MacFee passes to Franklyn Franklyn makes a quick pass to Booth Booth is away with the ball, but he’s losing his advantage

9.12.2 The simple present and present progressive in narration

When we are telling a story or describing things that have happened to us, we often use present tenses (even though the events are in the past) in order to sound more interesting and dramatic. The progressive is used for ‘background’ and the simple tense for the main events:

I’m driving along this country road and I’m completely lost Then I see this old fellow He’s leaning against a gate I stop the car and ask him the way He thinks a bit then says, ‘Well, if I were you, I wouldn’t start from here’

9.12.3 The simple present in demonstrations and instructions

This use of the simple present is an alternative to the imperative [> 9.51]. It illustrates step-by-step instructions:

First (you) boil some water Then (you) warm the teapot Then (you) add three teaspoons of tea Next, (you) pour on boiling water

9.12.4 The simple present in synopses (e.g. reviews of books, films, etc.)

Kate Fox’s novel is an historical romance set in London in the 1880’s The action takes place over a period of 30 years

9.12.5 The simple present and present progressive in newspaper headlines and e.g. photographic captions

The simple present is generally used to refer to past events:

FREAK SNOW STOPS TRAFFIC
DISARMAMENT TALKS BEGIN IN VIENNA

The abbreviated progressive refers to the future. The infinitive can also be used for this purpose [> 9.48.1]:

CABINET MINISTER RESIGNING SOON (or: TO RESIGN SOON)

The simple past tense

9.13 Form of the simple past tense with regular verbs

The form is the same for all persons [> App 39].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Spelling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>played</td>
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<tr>
<td>He</td>
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<td>She</td>
<td>worked</td>
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<td>dreamed/dreamt</td>
<td>/dri:md/or/dremt/</td>
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<tr>
<td>posted</td>
<td>/Id/</td>
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<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>They</td>
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</table>
9.14 The regular past: pronunciation and spelling [> App 39]

9.14.1 Pronunciation of the regular past
Verbs in the regular past always end with a -d in their spelling, but the pronunciation of the past ending is not always the same:

- **play/played** /pl/:
The most common spelling characteristic of the regular past is that -ed is added to the base form of the verb: opened, knocked, stayed, etc. Except in the cases noted below, this -ed is not pronounced as if it were an extra syllable, so opened is pronounced: /əʊpənd/, knocked: /nɒkt/, stayed: /steid/, etc.

- **arrive/arrived** /ərˈvaɪv/:
Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /ɪd/:
- /bl/ rubbed; /ʤl/ tugged; /æml/ managed; /fl/ filled;
- /ɪml/ dimmed; /ɪnl/ listened; vowel + /l/! stirred; /l/! loved; /l!l/ seized.
The -ed ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

- **work/worked** /wɜːk/:
Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /t/:
- /k/! packed; /s/! passed; /fl/! watched; /fl/! washed;
- /l/! laughed; /pl/! tipped. The -ed ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

- **dream/dreamed** /drɪm/ or **dreamt** /drɪmt/:
A few verbs function as both regular and irregular and may have their past forms spelt -ed or -t pronounced /ɪd/ or /ɪt/: e.g. burn, dream, lean, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil [> App 40].

- **post/posted** /pəst/:
Verbs which end in the sounds /l/! or /ld/! have their past endings pronounced /id/!: posted, added. The -ed ending is pronounced as an extra syllable added to the base form of the verb.

9.14.2 Spelling of the regular past
The regular past always ends in -d:

- **arrive/arrived**
Verbs ending in -e add -d: e.g. phone/phoned, smile/smiled- This rule applies equally to agree, die, lie, etc.

- **wait/waited**
Verbs not ending in -e add -ed: e.g. ask/asked, clean/cleaned, follow/followed, video/videoed

- **stop/stopped**
Verbs spelt with a single vowel letter followed by a single consonant letter double the consonant: beg/begged, rub/rubbed

- **occur/occurred**
In two-syllable verbs the final consonant is doubled when the last syllable contains a single vowel letter followed by a single consonant letter and is stressed: prefer/preferred, refer/referred- Compare: benefit/benefited, differ/differed and profit/profited which are stressed on their first syllables and which therefore do not double their
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

final consonants In AmE labeled, quarreled signaled and traveled follow the rule In BrE labelled quarrelled, signalled and travelled are exceptions to the rule [compare > 9.10]

cry/cried [compare > 2.20]
When there is a consonant before -y, the y changes to / before we add ed eg carry earned deny denied fry fried try tried Compare delay delayed obey obeyed play played, etc which have a vowel before -y and therefore simply add -ed in the past

9.15 Form of the simple past tense with irregular verbs

The form is the same for all persons [> App 40]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>You</th>
<th>He</th>
<th>She</th>
<th>the suitcase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shut</td>
<td>shut</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>sat on</td>
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</table>

9.16 Notes on the past form of irregular verbs

Unlike regular verbs, irregular verbs (about 150 in all) do not have past forms which can be predicted

shut/shut
A small number of verbs have the same form in the present as in the past e g cut/cut hit hit put put It is important to remember, particularly with such verbs, that the third person singular does not change in the past eg he shut (past), he shuts (present)

sit/sat
The past form of most irregular verbs is different from the present bring brought catch caught keep/kept leave/leave lose/lost

9.17 Uses of the simple past tense

9.17.1 Completed actions
We normally use the simple past tense to talk about events, actions or situations which occurred in the past and are now finished They may have happened recently

Sam phoned a moment ago
or in the distant past

The Goths invaded Rome in A.D. 410
A time reference must be given

I had a word with Julian this morning
or must be understood from the context

I saw Fred in town (i e when I was there this morning)
I never met my grandfather (i e he is dead)

When we use the simple past, we are usually concerned with when an action occurred, not with its duration (how long it lasted)
The simple past tense

9.17.2 Past habit
Like used to (> 11.60), the simple past can be used to describe past habits [compare present habit > 9.8.3]:
I smoked forty cigarettes a day till I gave up

9.17.3 The immediate past
We can sometimes use the simple past without a time reference to describe something that happened a very short time ago-
Jimmy punched me in the stomach
Did the telephone ring?
Who left the door open? (Who’s left the door open? > 9.26.1)

9.17.4 Polite inquiries, etc.
The simple past does not always refer to past time. It can also be used for polite inquiries (particularly asking for favours), often with verbs like hope, think or wonder. Compare:
I wonder if you could give me a lift
I wondered if you could give me a lift (more tentative/polite)
For the use of 'the unreal past' in conditional sentences (> 14.12)

9.18 Adverbials with the simple past tense
The association of the past tense with adverbials that tell us when something happened is very important. Adverbials used with the past tense must refer to past (not present) time. This means that adverbials which link with the present (before now, so far, till now, yet) are not used with past tenses.

Some adverbials like yesterday, last summer (> App 48) and combinations with ago are used only with past tenses
I saw Jane yesterday/last summer
Ago (> 7.31), meaning 'back from now', can combine with a variety of expressions to refer to the past: e.g., two years ago, six months ago, ten minutes ago, a long time ago.
I met Robert Parr many years ago in Czechoslovakia

The past is often used with when to ask and answer questions:
When did you learn about it? - When I saw it in the papers
When often points to a definite contrast with the present:
I played football every day when I was a boy

Other adverbials can be used with past tenses when they refer to past time, but can be used with other tenses as well (> 9.4):

adverbs: I always liked Gloria
I often saw her in Rome
Did you ever meet Sonia?
I never met Sonia

adverbial/prepositional phrases. We left at 4 o'clock/on Tuesday
We had our holiday in July
I waited till he arrived

adverbial clauses:
I met him when I was at college
as + adverb + as:
I saw him as recently as last week
The past progressive tense

9.19 Form of the past progressive tense

The past progressive is formed with the past of be + the -ing form. See under be [> 10.8] for details about form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was waiting</td>
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<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>were</td>
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<td>He</td>
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<td>You</td>
<td>were</td>
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<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>were</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

9.20 Uses of the past progressive tense

9.20.1 Actions in progress in the past

We use the past progressive to describe past situations or actions that were in progress at some time in the past:

- I was living abroad in 1987, so I missed the general election.
- Philippa was working on her essay last night.

Often we don't know whether the action was completed or not:

- It was raining all night/all yesterday/all the afternoon.
- Jim was talking to his girlfriend on the phone when I came in and was still talking to her when I went out an hour later.

9.20.2 Actions which began before something else happened

The past progressive and the simple past are often used together in a sentence. The past progressive describes a situation or action in progress in the past, and the simple past describes a shorter action or event. The action or situation in progress is often introduced by conjunctions like when and as just as, while:

- Just as I was leaving the house the phone rang.
- Jane met Frank Sinatra when she was living in Hollywood.

Or the shorter action can be introduced by when:

- We were having supper when the phone rang.

We can often use the simple past to describe the action in progress, but the progressive puts more emphasis on the duration of the action, as in the second of these two examples:

- While I fumbled for some money, my friend paid the fares.
- While I was fumbling for some money, my friend paid the fares.

9.20.3 Parallel actions

We can emphasize the fact that two or more actions were in progress at the same time by using e.g. while or at the time (that):

- While I was working in the garden, my wife was cooking dinner.

9.20.4 Repeated actions [compare > 9.11.4]

This use is similar to that of the present progressive:

- When he worked here, Roger was always making mistakes.
The simple present perfect tense

9.20.5 Polite inquiries [compare > 9.17.4]
This use is even more polite and tentative than the simple past:

/ was wondering if you could give me a lift. 

9.21 Past tenses in typical contexts
The simple past combines with other past tenses, such as the past progressive and the past perfect, when we are talking or writing about the past. Note that the past progressive is used for scene-setting. Past tenses of various kinds are common in story-telling, biography, autobiography, reports, eye-witness accounts, etc.:

On March 14th at 10 15 a.m I was waiting for a bus at the bus stop on the corner of Dover Road and West Street when a black Mercedes parked at the stop Before the driver (had) managed to get out of his car, a number 14 bus appeared.

It was evening The sun was setting A gentle wind was blowing through the trees In the distance I noticed a Land Rover moving across the dusty plain. It stopped and two men jumped out of it

It was just before the Second World War. Tom was only 20 at the time and was living with his mother He was working in a bank and travelling to London every day One morning, he received a mysterious letter It was addressed to 'Mr Thomas Parker'

The simple present perfect tense

9.22 Form of the simple present perfect tense
The present perfect is formed with the present of have [> 10.27] + the past participle (the third part of a verb). For regular verbs [> App 39] the past participle has the same form as the simple past tense: e.g. arrive, arrived, have arrived. For irregular verbs [> App 40] the simple past and the past participle can be formed in a variety of ways: e.g. drink, drank, have drunk.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb form</th>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
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<td>They</td>
<td>have (They've)</td>
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9.23 Present time and past time
Students speaking other European languages sometimes misuse the present perfect tense in English because of interference from their mother tongue. The present perfect is often wrongly seen as an alternative to the past, so that a student might think that I’ve had lunch and I had lunch are interchangeable. It is also confused with the present, so that an idea like I’ve been here since February is wrongly expressed in the present with I am.
The present perfect always suggests a relationship between present time and past time. So I've had lunch (probably) implies that I did so very recently. However, if I say I had lunch, I also have to say or imply when: e.g. I had lunch an hour ago. Similarly, I've been here since February shows a connexion between past and present, whereas I am here can only relate to the present and cannot be followed by a phrase like since February.

In the present perfect tense, the time reference is sometimes undefined; often we are interested in present results, or in the way something that happened in the past affects the present situation. The present perfect can therefore be seen as a present tense which looks backwards into the past (just as the past perfect [> 9.29] is a past tense which looks backwards into an earlier past). Compare the simple past tense, where the time reference is defined because we are interested in past time or past results. The following pairs of sentences illustrate this difference between present time and past time:

I haven't seen him this morning (i.e. up to the present time: it is still morning)
I didn't see him this morning (i.e. the morning has now passed)

Have you ever flown in Concorde? (i.e up to the present time)
When did you fly in Concorde? (i.e. when, precisely, in the past)

9.24 Uses of the simple present perfect tense [compare > 10.13]

The present perfect is used in two ways in English:
1 To describe actions beginning in the past and continuing up to the present moment (and possibly into the future).
2 To refer to actions occurring or not occurring at an unspecified time in the past with some kind of connexion to the present.

These two uses are discussed in detail in the sections below.

9.25 Actions, etc. continuing into the present

9.25.1 The present perfect + adverbials that suggest 'up to the present'

We do not use the present perfect with adverbs relating to past time (ago, yesterday, etc.) [> 9 18, App 48]. Adverbial phrases like the following are used with the present perfect because they clearly connect the past with the present moment: before (now), It's the first time, so far, so far this morning, up till now, up to the present. Adverbs like ever (in questions), and not ever or never (in statements) are commonly (but not exclusively) used with the present perfect:

I've planted fourteen rose-bushes so far this morning
She's never eaten a mango before Have you ever eaten a mango?
It's the most interesting book I've ever read [compare > 6.28.1]
Olga hasn't appeared on TV before now

9.25.2 The present perfect with 'since' and 'for' [> 7.31-32, 10.13.5]

We often use since and for with the present perfect to refer to periods of time up to the present. Since (+ point of time) can be:
- a conjunction: Tom hasn't been home since he was a boy
The simple present perfect tense

- an adverb: I saw Fiona in May and I haven't seen her since
- a preposition: I've lived here since 1980
Since, as a conjunction, can be followed by the simple past or present perfect:
I retired in 1980 and came to live here I've lived here since I retired (i.e. the point when I retired: 1980)
i have lived here for several years now and I've made many new friends since I have lived here (i.e. up to now)

For + period of time often occurs with the present perfect but can be used with any tense. Compare:
I've lived here for five years (and I still live here)
i lived here for five years (I don’t live here now)
i am here for six weeks (that’s how long I’m going to stay)

9.26 Actions, etc. occurring at an unspecified time

9.26.1 The present perfect without a time adverbial
We often use the present perfect without a time adverbial, especially in conversation. We do not always need one, for often we are concerned with the consequences now of something which took place then, whether 'then' was very recently or a long time ago. If further details are required (e.g. precise answers to questions like When?, Where?) we must generally use the simple past:

Have you passed your driving test? (Depending on context, this can mean 'at any time up to now' or 'after the test you've just taken'.)
- yes, I passed when I was 17 (simple past: exact time reference)

Jason Vilhers has been arrested (Depending on context, this can imply 'today' or 'recently' or 'at last'.) He was seen by a Customs Officer who alerted the police (simple past with details)
However, adverbs like just, used with the present perfect, can provide more information about actions in 'unspecified time'. Details follow.

9.26.2 The present perfect for recent actions
The following adverbs can refer to actions, etc. in recent time:
- just (> 7.29; I've just tidied up the kitchen
- recently, etc: He's recently arrived from New York
- already in questions and affirmative statements (> 7.26, 7.28):

Have you typed my letter already? - Yes, I've already typed it
- yet, in questions, for events we are expecting to hear about:

Have you passed your driving test yet? (> 7.27-28)
or in negatives, for things we haven’t done, but expect to do:
I haven't passed my driving test yet
- still (> 7.25), at last, finally

I still haven't passed my driving test (despite my efforts)
I have passed my driving test at last (after all my efforts)

9.26.3 The present perfect for repeated and habitual actions
This use is associated with frequency adverbs (often, frequently) and expressions like three/four/several times (> 7.38-39):

I've watched him on TV several times (i.e. and I expect to again)
I've often wondered why I get such a poor reception on my radio
She’s attended classes regularly She’s always worked hard
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.27 The simple present perfect tense in typical contexts

The present perfect is never used in past narrative (e.g. stories told in the past, history books). Apart from its common use in conversation, it is most often used in broadcast news, newspapers, letters and any kind of language-use which has connexion with the present.

Examples:

9.27.1 Broadcast reports, newspaper reports
Interest rates rose again today and the price of gold has fallen by $10 an ounce. Industrial leaders have complained that high interest rates will make borrowing expensive for industry.

9.27.2 Implied in newspaper headlines
VILLAGES DESTROYED IN EARTHQUAKE (= have been destroyed)

9.27.3 Letters, postcards, etc.
We've just arrived in Hong Kong, and though we haven't had time to see much yet, we're sure we're going to enjoy ourselves.

The simple past perfect tense

9.28 Form of the simple past perfect tense

The past perfect is formed with had + the past participle. See under have [> 10.28] for details about form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>(I'd)</td>
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<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>(You'd)</td>
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<td>He</td>
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<td>You</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>(They'd)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.29 Uses of the past perfect tense

It is sometimes supposed that we use the past perfect simply to describe 'events that happened a long time ago'. This is not the case. We use the simple past for this purpose [> 9.17.1]:
Anthony and Cleopatra died in 30 B.C.

9.29.1 The past perfect referring to an earlier past

The main use of the past perfect is to show which of two events happened first. Here are two past events:
The patient died The doctor arrived

We can combine these two sentences in different ways to show their relationship in the past:
The patient died when the doctor arrived (i.e. the patient died at the time or just after the doctor arrived)
The patient had died when the doctor arrived (i.e. the patient was already dead when the doctor arrived)

The event that happened first need not be mentioned first:
The doctor arrived quickly, but the patient had already died
The simple past perfect tense

Some typical conjunctions used before a past perfect to refer to ‘an earlier past’ are: when and after, as soon as, by the time that. They often imply a cause-and-effect relationship:

*We cleared up as soon as our guests had left*

Adverbs often associated with the present perfect (> 9.25-26): already ever for (+ period of time), just, never never before since (+ point of time) are often used with the past perfect to emphasize the sequence of events:

*When I rang, Jim had already left*
*The boys loved the zoo They had never seen wild animals before*

9.29.2 The past perfect as the past equivalent of the present perfect
The past perfect sometimes functions simply as the past form of the present perfect:

*Juliet is excited because she has never been to a dance before*

*Juliet was excited because she had never been to a dance before*

This is particularly the case in indirect speech (> 15.13n.3)

Used in this way, the past perfect can emphasize completion:

*I began collecting stamps in February and by November I had collected more than 2000*

Yet can be used with the past perfect, but we often prefer expressions like *until then* or *by that time*. Compare:

*He hasn’t finished yet*
*He hadn’t finished by yesterday evening*

9.29.3 The past perfect for unfulfilled hopes and wishes
We can use the past perfect (or the past simple or progressive) with verbs like expect hope, mean, suppose, think want, to describe things we hoped or wished to do but didn’t (> 11.42.3):

*I had hoped to send him a telegram to congratulate him on his marriage, but I didn’t manage it*

9.30 Obligatory and non-obligatory uses of the past perfect

We do not always need to use the past perfect to describe which event came first. Sometimes this is perfectly clear, as in:

*After I finished, I went home*

The sequence is often clear in relative clauses (> 1.27) as well:

*I wore the necklace (which) my grandmother (had) left me*

We normally use the simple past for events that occur in sequence:

*I got out of the taxi, paid the fare, tipped the driver and dashed into the station*

*7 came, I saw, I conquered,’ Julius Caesar declared*

But there are instances when we need to be very precise in our use of past or past perfect, particularly with when:

*When I arrived, Anne left* (i.e. at that moment)
*When I arrived, Anne had left* (i.e. before I got there)

In the first sentence, I saw Anne, however briefly. In the second, I didn’t see her at all. See also indirect speech (> 15.12).
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

We normally use the past perfect with conjunctions like no sooner than or hardly/scarcely/barely when

Mrs Winthrop had no sooner left the room than they began to gossip about her
Mr Jenkins had hardly/scarcely/barely begun his speech when he was interrupted

9.31 Simple past and simple past perfect in typical contexts

The past perfect combines with other past tenses (simple past, past progressive, past perfect progressive) when we are talking or writing about the past. It is used in story-telling, biography, autobiography, reports, eye-witness accounts, etc and is especially useful for establishing the sequence of events:

When we returned from our holidays, we found our house in a mess. What had happened while we had been away? A burglar had broken into the house and had stolen a lot of our things (Now that the time of the burglary has been established relative to our return, the story can continue in the simple past). The burglar got in through the kitchen window He had no difficulty in forcing it open Then he went into the living-room

Note the reference to an earlier past in the following narrative:

Silas Badley inherited several old cottages in our village He wanted to pull them down and build new houses which he could sell for high prices He wrote to Mr Harrison, now blind and nearly eighty, asking him to leave his cottage within a month Old Mr Harrison was very distressed (The situation has been established through the use of the simple past. What follows now is a reference to an earlier past through the use of the simple past perfect.) He had been born in the cottage and stayed there all his life His children had grown up there, his wife had died there and now he lived there all alone

The present perfect progressive and past perfect progressive tenses

9.32 Form of the present/past perfect progressive tenses

The present perfect progressive is formed with have been + the -ing form The past perfect progressive is formed with had been + the -ing form. See under be (>10.12) for details about form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present perfect progressive</th>
<th>past perfect progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ have (I've)</td>
<td>/ had (I'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have (You've)</td>
<td>You had (You'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has (He's)</td>
<td>He had (He'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She has (She's) been waiting</td>
<td>She had (She'd) been waiting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has (Its)</td>
<td>It had (It's)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have (We've)</td>
<td>We had (We'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have (You've)</td>
<td>You had (You'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have (They've)</td>
<td>They had (They'd)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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9.33 Uses of the present/past perfect progressive tenses

9.33.1 Actions in progress throughout a period
We use the present perfect progressive when we wish to emphasize that an activity has been in progress throughout a period, often with consequences now. Depending on context, this activity may or may not still be in progress at the present time. This use often occurs with all + time references: e.g. all day [compare > 9.20.1]:

*She is very tired She's been typing letters all day* (Depending on context, she is still typing or has recently stopped.)
The past perfect progressive, in the same way, is used for activities in progress during an earlier past, often with consequences then:

*She was very tired She had been typing letters all day* (Depending on context, she was still typing or had recently stopped.)

Some verbs like learn, lie, live, rain, sit, sleep stand, study wait, work naturally suggest continuity and often occur with perfect progressives with since or for [> 7.31-32, 9.25.2] and also in questions beginning with How long [> 10.13.5]:

*I've been working for Exxon for 15 years* (Depending on context, I am still now, or I may have recently changed jobs or retired.)

*When I first met Ann, she had been working for Exxon for 15 years* (Depending on context, Ann was still working for Exxon then or she had recently changed jobs or retired.)

With 'continuity verbs', simple and progressive forms are often interchangeable, so in the above examples 'I've worked' and 'she had worked' could be used. The only difference is that the progressive puts more emphasis on continuity.

9.33.2 The present/past perfect progressive for repeated actions
The perfect progressive forms are often used to show that an action is (or was) frequently repeated:

*Jim has been phoning Jenny every night for the past week*

*Jenny was annoyed Jim had been phoning her every night for a whole week*

9.33.3 The present/past perfect progressive for drawing conclusions
We use the progressive (seldom the simple) forms to show that we have come to a conclusion based on direct or indirect evidence:

*Your eyes are red You've been crying*

*Her eyes were red It was obvious she had been crying*

The present perfect progressive often occurs in complaints:

*This room stinks Someone's been smoking in here*

9.34 The present/past perfect simple and progressive compared
The difference between an activity still in progress and one that has definitely been completed is marked by context and by the verbs we use. The simple and progressive forms are not interchangeable here:

*a I've been painting this room I've painted this room*

In the first example, the activity is uncompleted. In the second example, the job is definitely finished.
When I got home, I found that Jill had been painting her room
When I got home, I found that Jill had painted her room
In the first example, the activity was uncompleted then. In the second example, the job was definitely finished then.

The simple future tense

9.35 Form of the simple future tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I'll</td>
<td>I'll not</td>
<td>I won't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you'll</td>
<td>you'll not</td>
<td>you'll not</td>
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<tr>
<td>he</td>
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<td>he'll not</td>
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<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>she'll</td>
<td>she'll not</td>
<td>she won't</td>
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<td>it</td>
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<td>it'll not</td>
<td>it won't</td>
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<td>we</td>
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<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>they'll</td>
<td>they'll not</td>
<td>they won't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.36 Notes on the form of the simple future tense

1 Shall and will

Will is used with all persons, but shall can be used as an alternative with I and we in pure future reference [> 9.37.1]
Shall is usually avoided with you and I:
You and I will work in the same office

2 Contractions

Shall weakens to / Jal/ in speech, but does not contract to 'll in writing Will contracts to 'll in writing and in fluent, rapid speech after vowels (l'll, we'll, you'll, etc.) but 'll can also occur after consonants. So we might find 'll used: e.g.
- after names: Tom'll be here soon
- after common nouns: The concert'!! start in a minute
- after question-words: When'll they arrive?

3 Negatives

Will not contracts to / or not or won t, shall not contracts to shan t: I/We won't or shan't go (I/We will not or shall not go)
In AmE shan't is rare and shall with a future reference is unusual.

4 Future tense

When we use will/shall for simple prediction, they combine with verbs to form tenses in the ordinary way [> 9.2, 11.7]:
- simple future: I will see
- future progressive: I will be seeing
- future perfect: I will have seen
- future perfect progressive: I will have been seeing

9.37 Uses of the 'will/shall' future

9.37.1 'Will/shall' for prediction briefly compared with other uses
Will and shall can be used to predict events, for example, to say what
The simple future tense

we think will happen, or to invite prediction:

Tottenham will win on Saturday
It will rain tomorrow Will house prices rise again next year?
I don't know if I shall see you next week
This is sometimes called 'the pure future', and it should be
distinguished from many other uses of will and shall: e.g.
I'll buy you a bicycle for your birthday [promise, > 11.73]
(Note that will is not used to mean 'want to')
Will you hold the door open for me please? [request, > 11.38]
Shall I get your coat for you? [offer, > 11.39]
Shall we go for a swim tomorrow? [suggestion, > 11.40]
Just wait - you'll regret this’ [threat, > 11.23, 11.73]
Though all the above examples point to future time, they are not
'predicting'; they are 'coloured' by notions of willingness, etc. Will/shall
have so many uses as modal verbs [> Chapter 11] that some grammar-
ians insist that English does not have a pure future tense [also > 9.2].

9.37.2 'Will' in formal style for scheduled events
Will is used in preference to be going to [> 9.44] when a formal style
is required, particularly in the written language:
The wedding will take place at St Andrew's on June 27th The
reception will be at the Anchor Hotel

9.37.3 'Will/shall' to express hopes, expectations, etc.
The future is often used after verbs and verb phrases like assume, be
afraid, be sure, believe, doubt, expect, hope, suppose, think
I hope she'll get the job she's applied for
The present with a future reference is possible after hope:
I hope she gets the job she's applied for [compare > 11.42.1]
Lack of certainty, etc. can be conveyed by using will with adverbs
like perhaps, possibly, probably, surely
Ask him again Perhaps he'll change his mind

9.38 Time adverbials with the 'will/shall' future tense
Some adverbials like tomorrow [> App 48] are used exclusively with
future reference; others like at 4 o'clock, before Friday, etc. are used
with other tenses as well as the future:
I'll meet you at 4 o'clock
Now and just can also have a future reference [> 7.29]:
This shop will now be open on June 23rd (a change of date)
I'm nearly ready I'll just put my coat on
For in + period of time [> 8.14] and by, not until [> 7.34],

9.39 Other ways of expressing the future
We can express the future in other ways, apart from will/shall:
be going to: I'm going to see him tomorrow [> 9.44]
be to: I'm to see him tomorrow [> 9.47]
present progressive: I'm seeing him tomorrow [> 9.11.3]
simple present: I see him tomorrow [> 9.8.4]
These ways of expressing the future are concerned less with simple
prediction and more with intentions, plans, arrangements, etc.
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

The future progressive tense

9.40 Form of the future progressive tense

The future progressive is formed with will/shall + be + the -ing form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Will/shall</th>
<th>Be</th>
<th>-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>(I'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>(You'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>(He'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
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<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>(She'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
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<tr>
<td>It</td>
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<td>be</td>
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<td>We</td>
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<td>-ing</td>
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<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>(You'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>(They'll)</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>-ing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[For spelling, > 9.10]

9.41 Uses of the future progressive tense

9.41.1 Actions in progress in the future

The most common use of the progressive form is to describe actions which will be in progress in the immediate or distant future:

- Hurry up! The guests will be arriving at any minute!
- A space vehicle will be circling Jupiter in five years’ time

It is often used for visualizing a future activity already planned:

- By this time tomorrow, I’ll be lying on the beach.

9.41.2 The ‘softening effect’ of the future progressive

Sometimes the future progressive is used to describe simple futurity, but with a ‘softening effect’ that takes away the element of deliberate intention often implied by will:

- I’ll work on this tomorrow, (intention, possibly a promise)
- I’ll be working on this tomorrow, (futurity)

In some contexts, the future progressive sounds more polite than will, especially in questions when we do not wish to appear to be pressing for a definite answer:

- When will you finish these letters? (e.g. boss to assistant)
- When will you be seeing Mr White? (e.g. assistant to boss)

Sometimes there really is a difference in meaning:

- Mary won’t pay this bill (she refuses to)
- Mary won’t be paying this bill, (futurity)
- Will you join us for dinner? (invitation)
- Will you be joining us for dinner? (futurity)
- Won’t you come with us? (invitation)
- Won’t you be coming with us? (futurity)

9.41.3 Arrangements and plans [compare > 9.11.3]

The future progressive can be used like the present progressive to refer to planned events, particularly in connexion with travel:

- We’ll be spending the winter in Australia (= we are spending)
- Professor Craig will be giving a lecture on Etruscan pottery tomorrow evening (= is giving)
The future perfect simple and future perfect progressive tenses

9.42 Form of the future perfect simple and progressive tenses
The future perfect simple is formed with will have + the past participle The future perfect progressive is formed with will have been + the -ing form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>future perfect simple</th>
<th>future perfect progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ I will/shall have</td>
<td>will/shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will have</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/She will have</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It will have received</td>
<td>will have been living here for 20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We will/shall have</td>
<td>will/shall have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will have</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will have</td>
<td>will have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.43 Uses of the future perfect simple and progressive tenses

9.43.1 'The past as seen from the future'
We often use the future perfect to show that an action will already be completed by a certain time in the future:
/ will have retired by the year 2020
(That is before or in the year 2020, my retirement will already be in progress)

This tense is often used with by and not till/until + time [> 7.34] and with verbs which point to completion: build, complete finish etc We also often use the future perfect after verbs like believe expect hope suppose.
/ expect you will have changed your mind by tomorrow

9.43.2 The continuation of a state up to the time mentioned
What is in progress now can be considered from a point in the future-
By this time next week I will have been working for this company for 24 years
We will have been married a year on June 25th

The 'going to'-future

9.44 Form of the 'going to'-future
The going to-future is formed with am/is/are going to + the base form of the verb
I am going to arrive tomorrow
You are
He is
She is
It is
We are
You are
They are
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.45 The pronunciation of 'going to'
There can be a difference in pronunciation between *be going to* (which has no connexion with the ordinary verb *go*) and the progressive form of the verb *go*.
In: *I'm going to have a wonderful time* 'going to' is often pronounced in everyday speech. [gənə]
In: *I'm going to Chicago* 'going to' can only be pronounced or [ɡəuɪntə]

9.46 Uses of the 'going to'-future

9.46.1 The 'going to'-future for prediction
The *going* to-future is often used, like *will*, to predict the future. It is common in speech, especially when we are referring to the immediate future. The speaker sees signs of something that is about to happen:

- *Oh, look! It's going to rain! Look out! She's going to faint!* This use *ongoing to* includes the present, whereas *It will rain* is purely about the future. Alternatively, the speaker may have prior knowledge of something which will happen in the near future:
  - *They're going to be married soon* (Her brother told me.)
A future time reference may be added with such predictions:

  - *It's going to rain tonight!* *They're going to be married next May*

We usually prefer *will* to the *going* to-future in formal writing and when there is a need for constant reference to the future as in, for example, weather forecasts.

9.46.2 The 'going to'-future for intentions, plans, etc.
When there is any suggestion of intentions and plans, we tend to use the *going* to-future rather than *will* in informal style:

  - *I'm going to practise the piano for two hours this evening* (i.e.
  That's my intention: what I have planned/arranged to do.)

However, we generally prefer *will* to *going to* when we decide to do something at the moment of speaking:

  - *We're really lost I'll stop and ask someone the way*.

Intention can be emphasized with adverbs like *now* and *just* which are generally associated with present time [compare > 7.29]:

  - *I'm now going to show you how to make spaghetti sauce*
  - *I'm just going to change*
  - *I'll be back in five minutes*

The use of *be going to* to refer to the remote future is less common and generally requires a time reference:

  - *She says she's going to be a jockey when she grows up*

If we want to be precise about intentions and plans, we use verbs like *intend* to plan to propose to, rather than *going to-*

  - *They're going to build a new motorway to the west* (vague)
  - *They propose to build a new motorway to the west* (more precise)

9.46.3 The 'going to'-future in place of the present progressive
The *going* to-future may be used where we would equally expect to have the present progressive [> 9.11.3] with a future reference:

  - *I'm having dinner* with Janet tomorrow evening
  - *I'm going to have dinner* with Janet tomorrow evening

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Other ways of expressing the future

However, we cannot use the present progressive to make predictions, so it would not be possible in a sentence like this:

*It's going to snow tonight*

Though *be going to* can combine with *go* and *come*, the present progressive is preferred with these verbs for reasons of style. We tend to avoid *going next to go* or *come* (e.g. *going to go*/going to come). *I'm going/coming home* early this evening

**9.46.4 The 'going to'-future after "if"

We do not normally use *will* after *if* to make predictions [> 14.24.2], but we can use *be going to* to express an intention:

*If you're going to join us, we'll wait for you*

*Be going to* can often be used in the main clause as well:

*If you invite Jack, there's going to be trouble*

---

**Older ways of expressing the future**

9.47 Forms of future substitutes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>I am/You are, etc.</strong></th>
<th><strong>to</strong></th>
<th><strong>see Mr Jones tomorrow</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I am/You are, etc</strong></td>
<td><strong>due to</strong></td>
<td><strong>leave at 7 30</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I am/You are, etc</strong></td>
<td><strong>about to</strong></td>
<td><strong>get a big surprise</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I am/You are, etc</strong></td>
<td><strong>on the point of</strong></td>
<td><strong>leaving</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I am/You, etc</strong></td>
<td><strong>-</strong></td>
<td><strong>leaving immediately [&gt; 9.11.3]</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I/You, etc</strong></td>
<td><strong>-</strong></td>
<td><strong>leave at 7 tomorrow [&gt; 9.8.4]</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.48 Uses of future substitutes

**9.48.1 The use of 'am/is/are to'

*Be to* is used to refer to the future when the actions are subject to human control. Thus statements such as *I'm going to faint* or *It's going to rain* cannot be expressed with *be to*, which has restricted uses: e.g.

Formal arrangements/public duties:

OPEC representatives are to meet in Geneva next Tuesday Compare:

OPEC REPRESENTATIVES TO MEET IN GENEVA [> 9.12.5]

Formal appointments/instructions:

active: You're to deliver these flowers before 10
passive: Three tablets to be taken twice a day

Prohibitions/public notices:

You're not to tell him anything about our plans (= you mustn't)
POISON NOT TO BE TAKEN'  

9.48.2 The use of 'be about to', 'be on the point of'

These constructions are used to refer to the immediate future:

*Look*! The race is about to start

On the point of conveys even greater immediacy:

*Look*! They're on the point of starting'
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

The use of just with about to and be on the point of increases the sense of immediacy, as it does with the present progressive: They're just starting

9.48.3 The use of 'be due to'
This is often used in connexion with timetables and itineraries:
The BA 561 is due to arrive from Athens at 13 15
The BA 561 is not due till 13 15

The future-in-the-past

9.49 The future-in-the-past [compare be supposed to > 12.8 n 3]
The future-in-the-past can be expressed by was going to, was about to, was to, was to have + past participle, was on the point of, was due to and (in more limited contexts) would. These forms can refer to events which were planned to take place and which did take place: I couldn't go to Tom's party as I was about to go into hospital or refer to an outcome that could not be foreseen:

Little did they know they were to be reunited ten years later

However, the future-in-the-past can also be used to describe events which were interrupted (just when) [compare > 9.20.2]: We were just going to leave when Jean fell and hurt her ankle or to describe events which were hindered or prevented (but):
I was to see/was going to see/was to have seen Mr Kay tomorrow, but the appointment has been cancelled

Note the possible ambiguity of:
I was going to see Mr Kay (the meeting did or did not take place) compared with:
I was to have seen Mr Kay (I did not see him)

9.50 Future-in-the-past: typical contexts
The future-in-the-past is often used in narrative to describe 'events that were destined to happen':
Einstein was still a young man His discoveries had not yet been published but they were to change our whole view of the universe
Would can also express future-in-the-past in such contexts:
We had already reached 9 000 feet Soon we would reach the top

The imperative

9.51 Form of the imperative
The imperative form is the same as the bare infinitive [> 16.1]:
Affirmative form (base form of the verb): Wait!
Negative short form (Don't + base form): Don't wait!
Emphatic form (Do + base form): Do wait a moment!
Addressing someone (e.g. pronoun + base form): You wait here!
Imperative + question tag: Wait here will you?
Imperatives joined by and: Go and play outside
The imperative

9.52 Some common uses of the imperative [compare > 10.5]

We use the imperative for direct orders and suggestions and also for a variety of other purposes. Stress and intonation, gesture, facial expression, and, above all, situation and context, indicate whether the use of this form is friendly, abrupt, angry, impatient, persuasive, etc. The negative form is usually expressed by Don't. The full form (Do not) is used mainly in public notices. Here are some common uses:
1 Direct commands, requests, suggestions:
   - Follow me. Shut the door (please) Don't worry!
2 Warnings:
   - Look out! There's a bus! Don't panic!
3 Directions:
   - Take the 2nd turning on the left and then turn right
4 Instructions:
   - Use a moderate oven and bake for 20 minutes
5 Prohibitions (in e.g. public notices):
   - Keep off the grass! Do not feed the animals!
6 Advice (especially after always and never [> 7.40.4]):
   - Always answer when you're spoken to! Never speak to strangers!
7 Invitations:
   - Come and have dinner with us soon
8 Offers:
   - Help yourself. Have a biscuit.
9 Expressing rudeness:
   - Shut up! Push off!

For uses of let as an imperative [> 16.4.1].

9.53 Uses of the imperative with 'do'

We use do (always stressed) before the imperative when we particularly wish to emphasize what we are saying: e.g.
- when we wish to be polite:
  - Do have another cup of coffee
- or when we wish to express impatience:
  - Do stop talking!
- or when we wish to persuade:
  - Do help me with this maths problem

In response to requests for permission, offers, etc. do and don't can be used in place of a full imperative:
- May/Shall I switch the light off? - Yes, do. No, don't.

9.54 The use of the imperative to address particular people

The imperative, e.g. Wait here!, might be addressed to one person or several people: you is implied. However, we can get the attention of the person or people spoken to in the following ways. (For 1st person plural imperative with let's [> 16.4.1]):

1 You + imperative:
   - You wait here for a moment.

Intonation and stress are important. If, in the above example, you is unstressed, the sentence means 'this is where you wait'. If it is
stressed, it means 'this is what I want you to do'. When you is stressed, it might also convey anger, hostility or rudeness:

'You mind your own business!'

You try teaching 40 noisy children five days a week'

Don't (not you) is stressed in the negative:

'Don't you speak to me like that!'  

You + name(s) or name(s) + you:

You wait here, Jim, and Mary, you wait there

3 Imperative + name or name + imperative:

Drink up your milk, Sally! Sally, drink up your milk!

4 Imperative + reflexive [> 4.25]:

Enjoy yourself. Behave yourself.

We can use words like everybody someone with the imperative when we are talking to groups of people [> 4.37]:

Everyone keep quiet! Keep still everybody'

Nobody say a word! Somebody answer the phone please

Any compounds are used after negative commands:

Don't say a word anybody! Don't anybody say a word!

9.55 The imperative with question tags [> 13.17-22]

Tags like will you?, won't you?, can you?, can't you?, could you? and would you? can often be used after an imperative for a variety of purposes: e.g.

- to express annoyance/impatience with will/won't/can't you? (rising tone):
  Stop fiddling with that TV, will you/won't you/can't you?
- to make a request (can you? for neutral requests; could/would you? for more polite ones); or to sound less abrupt:
  Post this letter for me can you?/could you?/would you?
- to offer polite encouragement or to make friendly offers and suggestions (will you? and won't you?):
  Come in, will you/won't you? Take a seat, will you/won't you?
  Don't tell anyone I told you, will you?
- to obtain the co-operation of others with Don't will you?
  And note why don't you? as a tag in: e.g.
  Go off for the weekend, why don't you?

9.56 Double imperatives joined by 'and' [compare > 16.12.2]

Some imperatives can be followed by and and another imperative where we might expect a to-infinitive:

- Go and buy yourself a new pair of shoes (Not "Go to buy")
  Come and see this goldfish (Not "Come to see")
- Go and play a game of bridge with us (Not "Come to play")
  Wait and see. (Not 'Wait to see')
  Try and see my point of view  (Note Try to is also possible.)

In AmE go is sometimes followed directly by a bare infinitive:

Go fetch some water (= Go and fetch)

A to-infinitive can follow an imperative to express purpose:

Eat to live, do not live to eat [> 16.12.1]
10 Be, Have, Do

'Be', 'have' and 'do' as auxiliary verbs

10.1 'Be', 'have', 'do': full verbs and auxiliary verbs

Be is a full verb when it combines with adjectives and nouns [> 10.9]; have is a full verb when it is used to mean 'possess', etc. [> 10.27, 10.32]; do is a full verb when it is used to mean 'perform an activity', etc. [> 10.40]. The three verbs are auxiliary (or 'helping') verbs when they combine with other verbs to 'help' them complete their grammatical functions (see below).

10.2 Uses of 'be' as an auxiliary verb

1 Be, on its own or in combination with have, is used for progressive tense forms [> 9.1-2]; e.g.
   i am/He is/We are working (present progressive)
   i have been working (present perfect progressive)
2 Be combines with the past participle to form passives: e.g.
   It was taken [> 12.2ns.1-2]; It can't be done [> 12.2n.2]

10.3 Uses of 'have' as an auxiliary verb

1 Have + past participle forms simple perfect tenses: e.g.
   / have He has eaten I had eaten [> 9.1-2]
2 Have + been + present participle forms perfect progressive: e.g.
   I have been eating [> 9.2]
3 Have + been + past participle forms passives: e.g.
   It has been eaten [> 12.2n1]
   She must have been delayed [> 12.2n.2]

Questions/negatives with be and have as auxiliary verbs follow the same pattern as those for be as a full verb [> Chapter 13]. Have can function as an auxiliary and full verb in the same sentence [> 10.34-36].

10.4 Uses of 'do' as an auxiliary verb

1 The most important use of do as an auxiliary verb is that it combines with the base form of verbs to make questions and negatives in the simple present and simple past tenses, and is used in place of a verb in short answers and question tags [> Chapter 13]. Note that do can function both as a auxiliary verb and as a full verb in the same sentence [> 10.41-42].
   Do (auxiliary verb) you do (full verb) your shopping once a week?
2 Do is also used for emphasis [compare > 9.53]:
   Do sit down I did turn the gas off
   Drive carefully - I do drive carefully
3 Do is used in place of a verb in: e.g.
   I like ice-cream and Ann does too [> 4.18, 10.44.2, 11.31, 13.28]
'Be' as a full verb

10.5 Uses of 'be' in the imperative [compare > 9.51]

The imperative of be is restricted to the following combinations:

10.5.1 'Be' + noun

Many combinations of be (affirmative) + noun are idiomatic:

- **Be a man!**
- **Be an angel** and fetch me my slippers please
- **Go on! Have another slice! Be a devil!**

Don't be + noun is much more common and very often refers to (foolish) behaviour. The negative response is I'm not:

- **Don't be an ass/a clown/a fool/an idiot/an imbecile!** etc

And note combinations of be + adjective + noun:

- **Be a good girl at school. Don't be a silly idiot!**

Be can have the sense of 'become' especially in advertisements:

- **Be a better cook! Be the envy of your friends!**

Agreement is expressed with / won't (be):.

- **Don't be a racing driver! It's so dangerous.**

Be is also used to mean 'pretend to be', especially after you:

- **(You) be the fairy godmother and I'll be Cinderella**
- **Be a monster, granddad!**

And note:

- **Now be yourself again!**

10.5.2 'Be' + adjective

Only adjectives referring to passing behaviour can be used after be/don't be. e.g. careful/careless, patient/impatient, quiet, silly (> App 41)

(Be/Don't be will not usually combine with adjectives describing states, e.g. hungry/thirsty, pretty):

- **Be quiet!** (negative response: I'm not!)
- **Don't be so impatient!** (negative response: I'm not!)

10.5.3 'Be' + past participle

Be combines with a few past participles: e.g. Be prepared!, (Please) be seated!, Be warned! Compare: Get washed! (> 12.6).

10.5.4 'Do' + 'be' in place of the imperative and the present tense

The imperative:

- **Be careful, or you'll break that vase!**

can be re-phrased with if in the following way:

- **If you don't be careful, you'll break that vase.**

This is less common than (> 14.4):

- **If you're not careful, you'll break that vase**

We can use be like any other imperative where the sense allows:

- **after do** (> 9.53): **Do be careful with that vase!**
- **after you** (> 9.54): **You be quiet!**
- **with tags** (> 9.55): **Be quiet for a moment, will you?**
'Be' as a full verb

10.6 The simple present form of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmation</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I'm</td>
<td>I'm not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td>You're</td>
<td>You're not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom is</td>
<td>He is</td>
<td>He's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann is</td>
<td>She is</td>
<td>She's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My ticket is</td>
<td>It is</td>
<td>It's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I are</td>
<td>We are</td>
<td>We're not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann and you are</td>
<td>You are</td>
<td>You're not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Ann are</td>
<td>They are</td>
<td>They're not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.7 Notes on the present form of 'be'

1. Short forms never occur at the end of a sentence:
   I don't know where they are

2. There are two negative short forms (e.g. You aren't and You're not)
   and there is no difference in their use. The short negative forms can
   stand on their own (I'm not/They aren't). The affirmative short forms
   (I'm, etc.) cannot stand on their own. Only the full affirmative forms
   can do this:
   Are you ready? - Yes, I am No, I'm not

3. Note the formation of negative questions and negative question tags
   [= 13.14, 13.18] with I. The (rare) full form is Am I not ?, but this
   contracts to Aren't I ? (Not *Am'n't I...?):
   - negative question: Am I not late? Aren't I late?
   - negative Wh?-question: Why am I not invited? Why aren't I invited?
   - negative question tag: I'm late, am I not? I'm late, aren't I?
   Aren't I is only possible in negative questions/negative question
   tags and is never used in negative statements in standard English:
   I am not late I'm not late; (the only possible contraction)
   There are no variations with other persons: e.g.
   He isn't late. Isn't he late? He's late, isn't he?

4. The non-standard form ain't, in place of am not, is not and are not
   [also > 10.30n8], is frequently heard in all persons and is avoided
   by educated speakers (except perhaps in joking):
   Ain't you late? He ain't late.
   I ain't late. They ain't late.

10.8 The simple past form of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmation</th>
<th>negative negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was</td>
<td>I was not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were</td>
<td>You were not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was</td>
<td>He was not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She was</td>
<td>She was not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was late</td>
<td>It was not late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We were</td>
<td>We were not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were</td>
<td>You were not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They were</td>
<td>They were not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 Be, Have, Do

10.9 Uses of 'be' in the simple present and simple past

We use the present and past of be when we are identifying people and things or giving information about them, and when we are talking about existence with There. [> 10.17]. For verbs related in meaning to be, such as seem, look, appear [> 10.23].

10.9.1 'Be' + names/nouns/pronouns: identification/information

*Her name is/was Helen*
*This is Tom*
*That was Harry*
*Who's that? - It's me*  
*Who was that? - It was Jane*
*Which one is Mary? - That's her on the left*
*The capital of England is London*
*In the past it was Winchester*
*She is/was a doctor*
*They are/were doctors*
*He is/was an American*  
*They are/were Americans*

10.9.2 'Be' + adjective

*He is hungry*
*They are hungry*  
*(state)*

*He was angry*
*They were naughty*  
*(mood, behaviour)*

*She was tall*
*Her eyes are green*  
*(description, colour)*

*She is French*
*They are French*  
*(nationality)*

*It was fine/wet/cold/windy*  
*(weather)*

10.9.3 'Be' + adjective(s) + noun

*He is an interesting man*
*They are interesting men*

*It is a blue jacket*
*They are blue jackets*

10.9.4 'Be': time references, price, age, etc.

*It is Monday/July 23/1992*
*It is £5.50*
*Tom is 14*

10.9.5 'Be' + possessives

*It's mine/Tom's*
*They are mine/Tom's*

10.9.6 'Be' + adverbs and prepositional phrases [> 7.3.3]

*She is here/there*
*They are upstairs*

*The play is next Wednesday*  
*(future reference)*

*He is in the kitchen*
*They are at the door*

10.9.7 'Be' + adverb particle and 'home' [compare > 8.29.2, 10.13.4]

*Be combines with adverb particles (away in, out, etc. [> 8.4]);*

*Is Tim in? No, he's out*
*He's back in an hour*

*Be combines with home [at is optional]:*

*Where was Tim? Was he home?/Was he at home?*

*Compare:*

*Tim's at home now*  
*(= he has arrived at his home)*

*Tim's at home now*  
*(= he may not have left home at all)*

10.9.8 'Be' in the present and past replacing 'have/had'

In informal English, the present and past of be can replace have/had [present and past perfect, > 9.22, 9.28] with verbs like do, finish, go.

*I'm done with all that nonsense (= I have done, i.e. finished)*
*I left my keys just there and next moment they were (had) gone*

*Have you finished with the paper? - I'm (have) nearly finished*

10.9.9 'Empty subject' + 'be' [> 4.12]

*It's foggy*
*It's 20 miles to London*

10.9.10 'Be' + infinitive [> 9.47-48, 16.16]

*My aim is to start up my own company*
'Be' as a full verb

10.10 Form of the present and past progressive of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present progressive</th>
<th>past progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am (I'm) being</td>
<td>I was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are (You're) being</td>
<td>You were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is (He's) being</td>
<td>He was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is (She's) being silly</td>
<td>She was being silly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(It is (It's) being)</td>
<td>(It was being)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are (We're) being</td>
<td>We were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are (You're) being</td>
<td>You were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are (They're) being</td>
<td>They were being</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms He's being silly and He's been silly [> 10.12] should not be confused.

10.11 The use of 'be' + 'being' to describe temporary behaviour

The progressive forms normally occur only with the present and the past forms of be. They are used with a few adjectives and nouns [> App 41] (or adjective and noun combinations). The progressive is possible with adjectives such as naughty, silly, referring to passing behaviour, but is not possible with adjectives describing states (hungry, thirsty, etc.) With some combinations there is a strong implication that the behaviour is deliberate. Compare temporary and usual behaviour in the following:

Your brother is being very annoying this evening
He isn't usually so annoying
Your brother was being a (silly) fool yesterday
He isn't usually such a (silly) fool

10.12 Form of the present perfect and past perfect of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present perfect</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>past perfect</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been</td>
<td>I've been</td>
<td>I had been</td>
<td>I'd been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have been</td>
<td>You've been</td>
<td>You had been</td>
<td>You'd been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has been</td>
<td>He's been</td>
<td>He had been</td>
<td>He'd been</td>
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<tr>
<td>She has been</td>
<td>She's been</td>
<td>She had been</td>
<td>She'd been</td>
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<tr>
<td>(It has been)</td>
<td>(It's been)</td>
<td>(It had been)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have been</td>
<td>We've been</td>
<td>We had been</td>
<td>We'd been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have been</td>
<td>You've been</td>
<td>You had been</td>
<td>You'd been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have been</td>
<td>They've been</td>
<td>They had been</td>
<td>They'd been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms He's been silly and He's being silly [> 10.10] should not be confused.

10.13 Uses of 'have been' and 'had been' [compare > 9.24]

In many of the uses described below, other languages require the present or past of be where English requires has been or had been.

10.13.1 'Have been/had been' + adjective: behaviour and states

Have been and had been will combine not only with adjectives describing temporary behaviour (annoying, etc., [> 10.11]), but also with those describing states and moods continuing up till now or till
then. *Have been* is common in conversation and *had been* in reported speech and written narrative:

**Behaviour:** *She's been very quiet* I said she had been very quiet

**States:** *I've never been so tired* I said I'd never been so tired

**Moods:** *He's been very gloomy* I said he'd been very gloomy

Some participles used as adjectives combine with *have/had been*:

*My uncle has been retired* for more than two years

*Their dog has been missing* for three days

And notice especially:

*She's been gone (= away) for half an hour

10.13.2 'Have been/had been' + adjective: weather, etc.

*Have been* and *had been* also combine with adjectives describing the weather (i.e. states):

*It's been very cold* lately I said it *had been very cold*

In certain contexts other adjectives (e.g. numbers) are possible:

*You're speaking as if you'd never been 15 years old in your life*

10.13.3 'Have been/had been' + noun: professions, behaviour

*Have been* and *had been* will combine with noun (or with adjective + noun) to ask about or describe professions:

*I've been a teacher, but now I'm a computer salesman*

*How long have you been a computer salesman?*

Nouns referring to behaviour will also combine with *have been*:

*What a good girl you are' You've been an angel!

All the above examples can be transferred to the past perfect:

*He told me he had been a waiter before he became a taxi-driver*

10.13.4 'Have been/had been' and 'have gone/had gone'

*Have been* (generally + to or in [* Apps 21-23]*) has the sense of 'visit a place and come back'. *Have gone* (followed by to and never by in) has the sense of 'be at a place or on the way to a place':

*Where have you been?*

*I've been to a party/in the canteen (= and come back)*

*Where's Pam? - She's gone to a party/to Paris/to the canteen (= She's on her way there, or she's there now.)*

*Have been* and *have gone* will combine with adverb particles like out, away, and with home (not preceded by to [*10.9.7*]):

*Where have you been? - I've been out/away/home.*

*(i.e. I'm here now)*

*Where has Tim gone? - He's gone out/away/home.*

*(i.e. he's not here now)*

We can use from before *home* in: e.g.

*He's come from home* (i.e. 'home' is where he started out from.)

*Compare: He's come home (= He has arrived at his home.)*

*Have been had been* combine with other adverbials as well:

*He's been a long time* (i.e. He hasn't come back yet.)
'Be' as a full verb

*Have been* and *have gone* are interchangeable only when they have the sense of 'experience'. This can occur when they are used with *ever* or *never* and followed by:
- a gerund:  *Have you ever been/gone skiing* in the Alps?
- for + noun: *I've never been/gone for a swim* at night
- on + noun. *Have you ever been/gone on holiday* in winter?

10.13.5 'Have been/had been' with 'since' and 'for'

With *How long*. ?, *since* for, *have been* can be used in the sense have lived/worked/waited or have been living/working/waiting

*How long have you been* in London? (i.e. lived/been living)
- I've been here *since* January/for six months

*How long have you been* with IBM? (i.e. worked/been working)
- *I've been with them since* November/for three months

*How long have you been* in this waiting-room? (waited/been waiting)
- I've been here *since* 3 o'clock/for half an hour

The past perfect replaces the present perfect in reported speech:
She told me she *had been* with IBM for three months

10.14 Form of the future and future perfect of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>future</th>
<th>future perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>full form</td>
<td>short form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will/shall be</td>
<td>I'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be</td>
<td>You'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will be</td>
<td>He'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She will be</td>
<td>She'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It will be</td>
<td>It'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We will/shall be</td>
<td>We'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be</td>
<td>You'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will be</td>
<td>They'll be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.15 The future of 'be' as a full verb

*Will be* combines with many of the nouns and adjectives possible after the simple present/past of *be* for normal will-future uses:
- *It will be sunny* tomorrow I'll be here by 7 [> 9.35-37]
- *Will be* can be used for deduction: *That will be Helen* [> 11.33]

10.16 The future perfect of 'be' as a full verb

*Will have been* combines with the same nouns and adjectives possible after *have been* for normal uses in the future perfect [> 9.43]:

*How long will you have been a teacher?*
- By the end of next week, *I will have been a teacher* for 25 years
*Will have been* can be used to mean 'lived, worked, waited':

*How long will you have been with IBM?*
- By the end of January *I will have been with IBM for six months*

*Will have been* can also be used for deduction [> 11.33]:
- *That will have been Roland* He said he'd be back at 7
10 Be, Have, Do

'There' + 'be'

10.17 Some forms of 'there' + 'be' [For there + modals > 11.76]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Present</th>
<th>Simple Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is a man at the door</td>
<td>There was someone to see you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are two men at the door</td>
<td>There were some people to see you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect</th>
<th>Past Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There has been an accident</td>
<td>He said there had been an accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There have been a lot of enquiries</td>
<td>a lot of enquiries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Future</th>
<th>Future Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There will be a letter for you tomorrow</td>
<td>There will have been a definite result before Friday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tag questions [> 13.17-22]
There is a big match on TV tonight isn’t there?
There has been some awful weather lately hasn’t there?

Common contractions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Present</th>
<th>Simple Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There’s is</td>
<td>There’s are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There’s a man at the door</td>
<td>There’s an accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There’s been a lot of accidents round here</td>
<td>There’s been an accident near here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There’s will</td>
<td>There’s would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There’s a good harvest this year</td>
<td>There’s fewer accidents if drivers took care</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes on the form and pronunciation of ‘there’ + ‘be’

1 The singular form There’s is often used informally in place of There are to refer to the plural:
   There’s lots of cars on the roads these days
   There’s a man and a dog in our garden

2 When we are talking about existence, There is/There’s and There are are unstressed and pronounced [ðeəriz] [ðez] and [ðeərəz].
   Compare the stressed form to show we have just seen something:
   Look! There’s [ðeəz] the new Fiat [also > 7.59.1]

10.19 When we use ‘there’ + ‘be’ combinations

We use there + be combinations when we are talking or asking about the existence of people, things, etc. It is more idiomatic and ‘natural’ to say There’s a man at the door than to say ‘A man is at the door’. The construction with there allows important new information to come at the end of the sentence for emphasis. We use there:

- when it is a ‘natural choice’:
  There’s been an accident (= An accident has occurred.)
  Is there a hotel near here? - There’s one on the corner

- to announce or report events, arrangements, facts, etc.:
  There’ll be a reception for the President at the Grand Hotel
  There’s been a wedding at the local church

- for scene-setting in story-telling:
  There hadn’t been any rain for months The earth was bare and dry There wasn’t a blade of grass growing anywhere
'There' + 'be'

10.20 'There is', etc. compared with e.g. 'it is'

Once existence has been established with *there*, we must use personal pronouns + *be* (or other verbs) to give more details:

*There's a bus coming, but it's full*

*There's a man at the door It's the postman* [*> 3.20.4]*

*There's a man at the door He wants to speak to you* [*> 4.5.5]*

*There are some children at the door They want to see Jimmy*

*There's a van stopping outside It's someone delivering something*

[compare *> 1.60, 11.76.3-4, 16.52]*

*There’s to be a concert at the Albert Hall tonight It's to be broadcast live* (There/It is to be = There/It is going to *be*)

10.21 'There is', etc. + determiner

*There is*, etc. can combine with: e.g.

- *a* and *an* [*> 3.10]*:

  *There's a letter* for you from Gerald  (Not "It has")

  *There'll be an exhibition* of Hockney paintings in December

- *the* zero article [*> 3.28.8]*:

  *There are wasps in the jam*

- *some*, *any* and *no* [*> 5.10-11]*:

  *There are some changes in the printed programme*

  *Are there any lemons in the fridge?* (Not "It has")

  *There are no volunteers* for a job like this!

- *some*, *any* and *no* compounds [*> 4.37]*:

  *Is there anyone here who can read Arabic? I'm starving and there's nothing in the fridge*

- *numbers* and *quantity words* [*> 5.3]*:

  *There are seventeen people coming to dinner!*

  *There aren't many Sanskrit scholars in the world*

  *There'll be thousands of football fans in London this weekend*

- *definite determiners* (*the, this, that, my, etc.* [*>3.1]*)

  The use of *the*, etc. after *there is* is relatively rare: What can we carry this shopping in? - *There's the/this/my briefcase. Will that be all right?*

10.22 'There' + verbs other than 'be'

*There* can be used with a few verbs besides *be* (usually in the affirmative and in formal style). These verbs must be regarded as variations of *be* in that they describe a state: e.g *exist, live (there lived) is common in fairy stories* *lie remain:*

*There remains* one matter still to be* discussed*

*It is highly probable that there exist* any number of systems resembling our own solar system

*There combines with verbs related to* *be*, such as *appear* [*> 10.25]*:

*There appears/seems* to be little enthusiasm for your idea

*There combines with a few other verbs, such as* *arrive, come enter, follow, rise* - Such combinations have restricted uses:

*There will follow* an interval of five minutes
10 Be, Have, Do

Verbs related in meaning to 'be'

10.23 Verbs related in meaning to 'be': selected forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs related to 'be'</th>
<th>present of 'be':</th>
<th>past of 'be':</th>
<th>present progressive:</th>
<th>past progressive:</th>
<th>present perfect:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He is quite rich</td>
<td>He appears/seems (to be) quite rich</td>
<td>He was quite rich</td>
<td>He appeared/seemed (to be) quite rich</td>
<td>It appeared/seemed (to be) quite dark</td>
<td>He has been hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is quite dark</td>
<td>It appears/seems (to be) quite dark</td>
<td>It was quite dark</td>
<td>It appeared/seemed (to be) quite dark</td>
<td>It was working</td>
<td>It appears/seems to be working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is working hard</td>
<td>He appears/seems to be working</td>
<td>It s working</td>
<td>It appears/seems to be working</td>
<td>He was working hard</td>
<td>He appeared/seemed to be working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is working</td>
<td>It appears/seems to be working</td>
<td>It was working</td>
<td>It appeared/seemed to be working</td>
<td>It was working</td>
<td>It appears/seems to be working</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.24 Expressing uncertainty with verbs related to 'be'

We can express certainty about states with be:
- He is ill

We can express less certainty about states with modals [> 11.27-28]:
- He may/might/could be ill

or through the use of verbs related to be:
- He seems (to be) ill

Some common verbs related in meaning and function to be are:
appear feel look seem smell sound and taste [> 9.3, App 38.5];
chance happen and prove can also be used in certain patterns.

10.25 Some possible constructions with verbs related to 'be'

We cannot normally omit to be after appear and seem except in the simple present and simple past:
- He appears/seems (to be) ill He seems (to be) a fool
- It seems/seemed (to be) a real bargain

To be is usually included before predicative adjectives beginning with a   [>6.8.2]:
- The children appear/seem to be asleep
  The children seemed to be awake when I went into their room

We can use other infinitives after appear happen prove and seem:
- You seem to know a lot about steam engines
- Juan happens to own a castle in Toledo

We cannot use to be after feel look smell sound or taste:
- He feels/looks hot You smell nice
- Gillian sounded very confident when she spoke to me
- I like your new jacket It looks comfortable
- It feels cold in here It smells funny in here

Feel look seem smell sound and taste can be followed by like + noun or adjective + noun:
- This looks/tastes/smells/feels like an orange (obligatory like)
- Jennifer seems/sounds/looks (like) the right person for the job
Verbs related in meaning to ‘be’

To + object pronoun is commonly used after an adjective:

He seems/appears/looks tired to me (Not ‘seems to me’)
This material feels quite rough to me (Not ‘feels to me’)

Or to + object pronoun can come immediately before an infinitive:

He seems to me to be rather impatient

We can use that after it + appear, chance happen and seem;

It seemed (that) no one knew where the village was

For the use of as if after verbs [> 1.47.2],

There will combine with appear, chance happen prove and seem + to be and to have been;

There seems to be a mistake in these figures
There appears to have been an accident

10.26 Process verbs related to ‘be’ and ‘become’

10.26-1 Process verb + adjective complement [> 1 9, 1 11]

Process verbs (e.g. become, come, fall, go, get grow, run, turn, wear)
+ adjective complement describe a change of state. Unlike appear, seem, etc. they can be used in the progressive to emphasize the idea that change is actively in progress:

It was gradually growing dark
As she waited to be served, she became very impatient
Old Mr Parsons gets tired very easily since his operation
The milk in this jug has gone bad
The leaves are turning yellow early this year
My shoelaces have come undone
The River Wey ran dry during the recent drought
My pyjamas are wearing rather thin

The most common process verbs are get, become and grow.
Get is used informally with a variety of adjectives: get annoyed get bored, get depressed, get ill, get tired, get wet [compare > 12.6]

Used to is common after get (and to a lesser extent after become) to describe the acquisition of a habit. In such cases, used to functions as an adjective and can be replaced by accustomed to [> 16.56]:

I hated jogging at first, but I eventually got used to it

Process verbs are often used in fixed phrases: e.g. come right come true, fall ill go mad, run wild, turn nasty, wear thin

10.26.2 Process verb + noun complement

Nouns are not so common after process verbs, but note that:
- become + noun can describe a change of state or occupation:
  The ugly frog became a handsome prince
  Jim became a pilot/a Buddhist/a CND supporter
- make + noun can be used to suggest a change of state:
  I'm sure Cynthia will make a good nurse one day
  This piece of wood will make a very good shelf

10.26.3 Process verb + infinitive

Come get and grow can be followed directly by a to-infinitive:

We didn't trust Max at first but we soon grew to like him
10 Be, Have, Do

'Have' as a full verb = 'possess'; 'have got' = 'possess'

10.27 The present form of 'have' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short form [&gt; 10.30n2]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have</td>
<td>I've</td>
<td>I haven't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have</td>
<td>You've</td>
<td>You haven't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom has</td>
<td>He has</td>
<td>He hasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary has</td>
<td>She has</td>
<td>She hasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car has</td>
<td>It has</td>
<td>It hasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I have</td>
<td>We have</td>
<td>We haven't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you have</td>
<td>You have</td>
<td>You haven't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary have</td>
<td>They have</td>
<td>They haven't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.28 The past form of 'have' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short form [&gt; 10.30n5]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had&quot;</td>
<td>I'd</td>
<td>I hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You had</td>
<td>You'd</td>
<td>You hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom had</td>
<td>He had</td>
<td>He hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary had</td>
<td>She had</td>
<td>She hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car had</td>
<td>It had</td>
<td>It hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I had</td>
<td>We had</td>
<td>We hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you had</td>
<td>You had</td>
<td>You hadn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary had</td>
<td>They had</td>
<td>They hadn't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.29 The present form of 'have got'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have got</td>
<td>I've got</td>
<td>I haven't (I've not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have got</td>
<td>You've got</td>
<td>You haven't (You've not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom has got</td>
<td>Tom's got</td>
<td>He has got (He's got) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary has got</td>
<td>Mary's got</td>
<td>She has got (She's got) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car has got</td>
<td>My car's got</td>
<td>It has got (It's got) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I have got</td>
<td>We've got</td>
<td>We haven't (We've not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you have got</td>
<td>You've got</td>
<td>You haven't (You've not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary have got</td>
<td>They've got</td>
<td>They haven't (They've not) got</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.30 Notes on the forms of 'have' and 'have got' = 'possess'

Have and have got (= possess) are often interchangeable, but there are differences between British and American usage.

1 Have got is basically a perfect form. Compare the following:

a) get (= obtain)
   A Go and get the tickets
   B I've got the tickets (= I have obtained them.)

b) have got (= possess)
   A Have you got the tickets?
   B Yes, I've got the tickets (= I possess them.)

In BrE, have got can be used as the perfect form of get to mean 'have obtained', as in a) above. This meaning is emphasized in the
'Have'/'have got' = 'possess'

AmE form have gotten, which always means 'have obtained'. However, in BrE (more rarely in AmE) have got can also mean 'possess' - as in b) above, so that e.g. I have the tickets and I've got the tickets are equivalents. Indeed, in spoken, idiomatic BrE, I've got, etc. is more common than I have, etc.

2 In BrE, questions and negatives with have = 'possess' can be formed in the same way as for be:
   
   **Are you ready**? **Have you a pen**? (= Have you got...?)
   **Aren't you ready?** **Haven't you a pen**? (= Haven't you got...?)
   **You aren't ready** **You haven't a pen** (= You haven't got...)

   There is an alternative negative form for have got- I've not got, etc., but this is less common than haven't got. Have on its own (without got) can also form questions and negatives with do does and did. This is usual in AmE and is becoming more common in BrE to the extent that You hadn't a/an and Had/Hadn't you a/an? are becoming rare:

   **You don't have** a pen   **You didn't have** a pen
   **Do you have** a pen?   **Did you have** a pen?

3 Have (= possess) is a stative verb [> 9.3]. It cannot be used in the progressive, though it can be used in all simple tenses:

   **present**: I have a Ford
   **past**: He had a Ford last year
   **present perfect**: I have had this car for three years
   **past perfect**: He told me he had had a Ford for several years
   **future**: I will have a new car soon
   **future perfect**: By May I will have had (= possessed) this car five years

   with modals: e.g. I can have a Ford as a company car

   Have (= possess) is not normally used in the passive. The imperative (never with got) is rare: Have patience!

4 Have got (= possess) is normally used only for present reference:

   I've got a Ford

   The affirmative had got is sometimes possible in the past, but had on its own is generally preferred:

   The bride looked lovely Her dress had (got) a fine lace train

   We can never use had got for certain states:

   He had (Not 'had got') long hair when he was a teenager

   Had got is generally used in its original sense of 'had obtained':

   When I saw him he had just got a new car

   Will have got is only used in the sense of 'will have obtained':

   By May I will have got (= will have obtained) a new car

   Have got in the passive is impossible.

5 Hadn't got is usually possible as an alternative to didn't have:

   I didn't have (hadin't got) an appointment, so I made one for 4 p.m. I felt cold I didn't have (hadin't got) a coat

   Hadn't on its own (always contracted) is possible (I hadn't an appointment, I hadn't a coat) but not very usual.

   In past questions, the usual form is Did you have?:

   **Did you have** an appointment? When **did you have** one?
10 Be, Have, Do

Had you? sounds old-fashioned and formal. Had you got? can be used in Yes/No questions, but sounds awkward in Wh-questions, so is usually avoided:

**Had you got an appointment?** (but not usually *When had you got?*)
*Have got* is preferable to *have* in *Which* subject-questions:

*Which (pen) have you got?* (or do you have?), but not usually

*Which (pen) have you?*

6 Some forms of *have* (= possess) are rare or not encountered at all:
- the short form of the affirmative, especially in the third person
  *(he’s/she’s).* The full form is used: *He/She has a pen*
- the uncontracted negative. The contracted form is normal:
  *I haven’t (or hadn’t) a pen*
- some question-forms, except when formed with *do*, etc. (note 5).

7 Compare:

*My bag’s old* It’s old  (*= My bag is old/It is old)*
*My bag’s got a hole in it* It’s got a hole in it
(*= My bag has got a hole in it/It has got a hole in it)*

8 The non-standard form *ain’t got* is commonly heard in place of
  *haven’t got* and *hasn’t got* [compare > 10.7n.4]:

*I ain’t got my bag. She ain’t got her bag.*
Similarly, *have* and *has* are often omitted before *got;*

*I got my car outside, (for I have got)*

10.31 When we use ‘*have*’ and ‘*have got*’ = ‘possess’

In all the examples below, *have* can be replaced by *have got* in the
present and sometimes in the past. Short forms with *got* (*I’ve got*) are
much more common than full forms (*I have got*), especially in speech.

1 In the sense of ‘own’ or ‘possess’ [> App 38.5]:

*I have (got) a new briefcase*

2 In the sense of ‘be able to provide’:

*Do you have/Have you (got) any ink?* (= Can you let me have some?)

*Do you have/Have you (got) any fresh eggs?* (= Can you let me have some?)

3 *Have (got)* + number (of things)/quantity of a substance:

*I have (got) fourteen pencils I have (got) a lot of milk*

4 Possession of physical characteristics [> App 25.37]:

*Have and have got* combine with nouns like: a beard blue eyes
long hair a scar a slim figure, to describe appearance:

You should see our baby *He has (got) big brown eyes*

Our dog *has (got) long ears*

This plant *has (got) lovely russet leaves*

Our house *has (got) five rooms*

5 Possession of mental and emotional qualities [> App 42.1.10]:

*Have and have got* combine with nouns like: faith a good minc
patience a quick temper, to describe character:

*She has (got) nice manners but she has (got) a quick temper*
'Have' (= something other than 'possess')

6 Family relationships:
I have (got) two sisters

7 Contacts with other people:
I have (got) a good dentist (i.e. whom I can recommend to you)

8 In the sense of 'wear' [App 25.37]:
That's a nice dress you have/you've got
In this sense, have often combines with on: have something on
have got something on
That's a nice dress you have on/you've got on
I can't answer the door I have (got) nothing on

9 Illnesses [App 42.1.7]:
Have and have got combine with nouns describing pains and
illnesses. For the use of a/an with such nouns [3.15]:
I have (got) a cold/a bad headache
The baby has (got) measles

10 Arrangements [App 42.1.4]:
Have and have got combine with nouns like:
an appointment a conference, a date, an interview a meeting, time, etc.: 
I have (got) an appointment with my dentist tomorrow morning
Sally has (got) an interview for a job today

11 Opinions [App 42.1.10]:
Have and have got combine with nouns like:
an idea, influence, an objection, an opinion a point of view, a proposal, a suggestion
I have (got) an idea
Have you (got) any objection to this proposal?

12 In the sense of 'there is':
You have (got) a stain on your tie (= There is a stain on your tie.)
You have (got) sand in your hair (= There is sand in your hair.)

'Have' as a full verb meaning something other than 'possess'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Forms of 'have' meaning something other than 'possess'</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>imperative:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a cup of coffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ always have milk in my tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>simple present.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We're having a nice time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>present progressive:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We had a lovely holiday last summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>simple past</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was having a holiday last summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>past progressive:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor Jim has just had an accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>present perfect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The children have been having a lot of fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>present perfect progressive:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I woke up because I had had a bad dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>past perfect progressive.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I woke up I had been having a bad dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>simple future.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'll have a haircut tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>future progressive:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If anyone phones, I'll be having a bath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>future perfect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You'll have had an answer by tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>future perfect progressive.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She will have been having treatment all her life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with modal verbs:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. You could have a cup of tea if you like</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 Be, Have, Do

10.33 The forms 'have' (= possess) and 'have' (other meanings)

1. Have, in the sense of 'eat, enjoy, experience, drink, take', etc., is a
dynamic verb [> 9.3] so it is concerned with actions (e.g. have a
walk), not states like have in the sense of 'possess' (e.g. I have (got)
a car) Because of this, it can be used in the progressive form of all
the tenses. Compare:
I have (= I've got) a drink, thanks
(i.e. it's in my hand: stative)
I'm having a drink
(= I'm drinking: dynamic)
I have a drink every evening before dinner.
(= I drink: dynamic)
Have got can never replace have used as a dynamic verb.

2. Have in the sense of 'take', etc. is used like any other English verb.
This means that:
- questions and negatives in the simple present and simple past
must be formed with do, does and did:
  Do you have milk in your tea? I don't have milk in my tea
  Did you have a nice holiday? I didn't have a nice holiday

- it occurs freely in all active tenses as the context permits, but
  passive forms are rare: e.g. a good time was had by all

- the passive infinitive sometimes occurs in: e.g.
  tried to buy some extra copies of this morning's newspaper, but
  there were none to be had (i.e. they were not available)

3. There are no contracted forms of have (= 'take', etc.) as a full verb in
the simple present and simple past:
I have a cold shower every morning (Not I've...)

4. The present and past perfect tenses of have involve the use of have
as both auxiliary verb and main verb. For this reason, the present
perfect and past perfect forms are given in full below.

10.34 Form of the simple present perfect of 'have' = 'take'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have had</td>
<td>I've had</td>
<td>I've not had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have had</td>
<td>You've had</td>
<td>You've not had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has had</td>
<td>He's had</td>
<td>He's not had</td>
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<tr>
<td>She has had</td>
<td>She's had</td>
<td>She's not had</td>
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<tr>
<td>It has had</td>
<td>It's had</td>
<td>It's not had</td>
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<tr>
<td>You have had</td>
<td>You've had</td>
<td>You've not had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have had</td>
<td>They've had</td>
<td>They've not had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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'Have' (= something other than 'possess')

10.35 Form of the simple past perfect of 'have' = 'take'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>You had had</td>
<td>You'd had You hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He had had</td>
<td>He'd had He hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She had had</td>
<td>She'd had She hadn't had lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It had had</td>
<td>It'd had It hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We had had</td>
<td>We'd had We hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They had had</td>
<td>They'd had They hadn't had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.36 Notes on the forms 'have had' and 'had had'

1 These forms are, of course, quite regular: I have had my lunch and I had had my lunch work in the same way as I have eaten my lunch and I had eaten my lunch.

Here are a few more examples of have as a full verb in the present perfect and past perfect:

- Have you ever had lunch at Maxim’s?
- That boy looks as if he’s never had a haircut
- I had never had a ride on an elephant before I went to India.

2 In general, the negative forms I haven’t had, I hadn’t had, etc. are more common than I’ve not had and I’d not had.

3 The following forms should not be confused:

- He’s ill (= He is ill.) and He’s had lunch (= He has had lunch.)
- He’d had lunch (= He had had lunch.) and He said he’d have lunch now (= he would have lunch now)

10.37 Common 'have' + noun combinations

Have combines with a great many nouns. In this respect, it is similar to other phrases with such verbs as give (e.g. in give a thought) and take (in e.g. take an exam). For verb phrases of this kind and for examples with have [> App 42]:

Let’s have lunch I’d like to have a sandwich please

10.38 'Have' + noun in place of other verbs

The verbs to sleep, to swim, etc. can be expressed with have + noun in the sense of 'perform that activity': e.g.

to dance - to have a dance I had two dances with Molly
to fight - to have a fight Those twins are always having fights
to look - to have a look Just have a look at this
to rest - to have a rest. I want to have a rest this afternoon
to ride - to have a ride Can I have a ride in your car?
to talk - to have a talk Jim and I have just had a long talk
to swim - to have a swim Come and have a swim with us
to wash - to have a wash I must have a wash before lunch

Have commonly replaces verbs like the following:

receive I had a letter from Jim this morning
permit I won’t have that kind of behaviour in my house
10.39 The use of 'have' in the imperative

One of the most common uses of have (= 'take', etc.) is in the imperative. It is often used after do [> 9.53] for emphasis and/or encouragement (Do have ). Common instances are:

Offers: Do have some oysters! Don’t have tomato soup
Suggestions: Have a bath and a rest and you’ll feel better
Encouragement: Have a go! Have a try! Have a shot at it!
Good wishes: Have fun! Have a good time! Have a good day!

( fixed expressions)

There are no direct references to appetite, digestion, etc. (like Bon appetit! in French or Guten Appetit! in German), but expressions with have can be coined to suit particular occasions:

Have a really good meal! Have a lovely party!
Have a really restful holiday!
Have a really interesting debate! etc.

'Do' as a full verb

10.40 Forms of 'do' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>form</th>
<th>example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>imperative</td>
<td>Do your homework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple present</td>
<td>I do the shopping every morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past progressive</td>
<td>I’m doing this crossword puzzle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect</td>
<td>He did a lot of work this morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect progressive</td>
<td>We were doing sums all yesterday evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect</td>
<td>We’ve just done the washing-up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect progressive</td>
<td>I’ve been doing this exercise all day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect</td>
<td>We went home after we had done our work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect progressive</td>
<td>We had been doing business with each other for years before we quarrelled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future progressive</td>
<td>I’ll be doing jobs about the house tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect</td>
<td>If you finish this job as well, you will have done far more than I expected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect progressive</td>
<td>By this time next year, we will have been doing business with each other for 20 years e.g. Would you do me a favour please?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.41 The present form of 'do' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative full form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>I do not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>You don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>does</td>
<td>He doesn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>does the work</td>
<td>She doesn’t do the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>does</td>
<td>It doesn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>We don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>You don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>They don’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.42 The past form of 'do' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative full form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>I didn't</td>
<td>I didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>You didn't</td>
<td>You didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>He didn't</td>
<td>He didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>She didn't</td>
<td>She didn't do the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>It didn't</td>
<td>It didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>We didn't</td>
<td>We didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>You didn't</td>
<td>You didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>They didn't</td>
<td>They didn't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.43 The present perfect form of 'do' as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative full form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>I haven't (I've not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>You haven't (You've not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>He hasn't (He's not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>She hasn't (She's not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>It hasn't (It's not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>We haven't (We've not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>You haven't (You've not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>They haven't (They've not) done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.44 Uses of 'do' as a full verb

10.44.1 'Do' = 'perform an activity or task'

'Do' often has the sense of 'work at' or 'be engaged in something'. 'Doing something' can be deliberate or accidental. We can use verbs other than do to answer questions like What are you doing?:

- What are you doing?  
  - I'm reading (i.e. that's what I'm doing)

- What did you do this morning?  
  - I wrote some letters (i.e. that's what I did)

- What have you done?  
  - I've broken this vase (i.e. that's what I've done)

We often use do in this sense with some/any/no compounds:

- Haven't you got anything to do? I've got nothing to do

We can use do to refer to an unnamed task and then we can refer to named tasks by means of other verbs:

- I did a lot of work around the house today I took down the curtains and washed them and I cleaned the windows

10.44.2 The use of 'do' to avoid repeating a previous verb

We can use do to avoid repeating a previous verb [4.18]:

Antonia works 16 hours a day I don't know how she does it

Take the dog for a walk - I've already done it/done so

We can avoid repeating the verb in short answers, such as:

- Shall I take the dog for a walk? - Yes, do./No, don't. [9.53]
  (i.e. take/don't take the dog for a walk)
10 Be, Have, Do

10.44.3 'Do' = 'be in the wrong place'
Used in this sense, *do* often conveys disapproval, e.g.
- of present results of past actions:
  What are those clothes *doing* on the floor?
  (i.e. they shouldn't be there)
- of people:
  What are those boys *doing* in our garden?
  (i.e. we disapprove of their presence, not their actions)

10.44.4 'Do' before gerunds
We can use *do* + gerund to refer to named tasks:
I've *done* the shopping/the ironing/the washing up
We did our shopping yesterday
I *do* a lot of swimming (in preference to 'I swim a lot."
I stayed at home last night and *did some reading*

10.45 'Do' and 'make' compared
*Make* conveys the sense of 'create'; *do* (often suggesting 'be engaged in an activity') is a more general term:
What are you *doing*? - I'm *making* a cake
What are you *making*? - A cake
Both *do* and *make* can be used in a variety of fixed combinations [→ App 43]. Here is a brief selection:
do + one's best business with someone, damage to something
one's duty, an experiment; someone a favour, good, etc.
make + an accusation against (someone), an agreement with
(someone), an appointment: an arrangement; a bed, etc.
Sometimes both *make* and *do* are possible:
I'll *make/I'll do the beds* this morning, if you like

10.46 'Do' in fixed expressions
*Do* occurs in numerous fixed expressions, such as:
What *does* he do? (i.e. What work does he do for a living?)
How do you *do*? (i.e. 13.40.6]
That'll do! (e.g. That will be enough.)
How many miles *does it do* to the gallon? (doin the sense of 'go')
This simply won't do (i.e. It's unacceptable.)
How did you *do*? (i.e. How did you manage?)
I could *do with a drink* (i.e. I would like a drink.)
It's got *nothing to do with* me (i.e. It doesn't concern me.)
I can *do without* a car (i.e. manage without a car)
I *was done*! (i.e. I was cheated.)
Shall I *do your room out*? (i.e. clean it)
You *did* me out of my share (i.e. cheated me)
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

General characteristics of modal verbs

11.1 Which verbs are modal auxiliaries and what do they do?

Verbs like *can* and *may* are called **modal auxiliaries**, though we often refer to them simply as **modal verbs** or **modals**. We frequently use modals when we are concerned with our relationship with someone else. We may, for example, ask for permission to do something; grant permission to someone; give or receive advice; make or respond to requests and offers, etc. We can express different levels of politeness both by the forms we choose and the way we say things. The bluntest command *(You must see a doctor)*, with a certain kind of stress, might be more kindly and persuasive than the most complicated utterance *(I think it might possibly be advisable for you to see a doctor)*.

Modals sharing the same grammatical characteristics [> 11.5-6] are:

- *can* - *could*
- *may* - *might*
- *will* - *would*
- *shall* - *should*
- *must* -
- *ought to* -

Verbs which share some of the grammatical characteristics of modals are: *need* [> 11.49], *dare* [> 11.65], *used to* [> 11.58].

By comparison, *need to* and *dare to* are full verbs.

Modals have two major functions which can be defined as **primary** and **secondary**.

11.2 Primary function of modal verbs

In their primary function, modal verbs closely reflect the meanings often given first in most dictionaries, so that:

- *can/could* relate mainly to **ability**: *I can lift 25 kg* / *I can type*
- *may/might* relate mainly to **permission**: *You may leave early*
- *will/would* relate mainly to **prediction** [> 9.35]: *it will rain soon*
- *shall* after *I/We* [> 9.36n1] relates mainly to **prediction**: *Can we find our way home? - I'm sure we shall*
- *should/ought to* relate mainly to **escapable obligation or duty**: *You should do (or ought to do) as you're told*
- *must* relates mainly to **inescapable obligation**: *You must be quiet*
- *needn't* relates to **absence** of **obligation**: *You needn't wait*
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.3 Secondary function of modal verbs

In their secondary function, nine of the modal auxiliaries (not shall) can be used to express the degree of certainty/uncertainty a speaker feels about a possibility. They can be arranged on a scale from the greatest uncertainty (might) to the greatest certainty (must). The order of modals between might and must is not fixed absolutely. It varies according to situation. For example, one arrangement might be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>might</th>
<th>very uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>have been right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>almost certain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You  are             right  certain

Can requires qualification to be used in this way [> 11.29(ns2.4):

He can hardly be right
Do you think he can be right?
I don't think he can be right

11.4 Primary and secondary functions of 'must' compared

This example of must shows that it is 'defective' [> 11.6.1]:
1 In its primary function it requires another full verb (have to) to make up its 'missing parts'. (In the same way can, for example, in its primary function requires the full verb be able to to make up its missing parts.)
2 In its secondary function must (like the other modals listed in 11.1) has only two basic forms: a form which relates to the present and a form which relates to the perfect or past [> 11.8.4],

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>primary (inescapable obligation) secondary (certainty)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>infinitive: to have to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing form: having to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present: They must leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future: They must leave tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect: They have had to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past: They had to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect: They had had to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect: They will have had to leave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘conditional’: They would have had to leave

11.5 Some ways in which modals resemble 'be', 'have', 'do'

Structurally, modal auxiliaries resemble the auxiliaries be, have and do in some ways and differ completely from them in others. Some of the most important similarities are noted in this section and some differences are explained in 11.6.
General characteristics of modal verbs

11.5.1 The negative [> 13.1-2]
The negative is formed (as it is for be, have and do) by the addition of not after the modal. In informal spoken English not is often reduced to the unemphatic n't:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
<th>Short Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>(is) not</td>
<td>(is)n't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>(have) not</td>
<td>(have)n't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>(do) not</td>
<td>(do)n't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>cannot</td>
<td>can't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>could not</td>
<td>couldn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>may not</td>
<td>mayn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>might not</td>
<td>mightn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td>will not</td>
<td>won't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>would not</td>
<td>wouldn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>shall not</td>
<td>shan't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>should not</td>
<td>shouldn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>must not</td>
<td>mustn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>ought not to</td>
<td>oughtn't to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>need not</td>
<td>needn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dare</td>
<td>dare not</td>
<td>daren't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The full form cannot is written as one word.

Mayn't is rare, but does occur. For used not and usedn't [> 11.59n2],

11.5.2 Questions [> 13.1-3, 13.30, 13.41]
Yes/No questions are formed as for be, have and do. We begin with the modal, followed by the subject and then the predicate.

May we leave early?

In question-word questions, the question-word precedes the modal:

When may we leave?

With Yes/No questions, the modal used in the answer is normally the same as the one used in the question [> 11.31, 13.6n.1]:

Can you come and see me tomorrow? - Yes I can - No, I can't

Modals also behave like be have and do in tag questions [> 13.17]:

You can do it, can't you?

11.5.3 Negative questions [> 13.14]
As with be, have and do, the full form of negative questions with modals requires not after the subject (Can you not help me?). This is formal and rare. Contracted forms are normally used:

Can't you help me? [compare > 13.16]

Shouldn't you? [compare > 13.16]

Oughtn't (you) to? perhaps because the latter is more difficult to pronounce.

Negative questions with Used? on the above patterns are rare [> 11.59].

11.6 Some ways in which modals differ from 'be', 'have', 'do'

11.6.1 'Defective verbs'

Modals are sometimes called defective verbs because they lack forms ordinary full verbs have [> 11.4]. For example:

1 Modals cannot be used as infinitives (compare to be, to have to do). If ever we need an infinitive, we have to use another verb:

If you want to apply for this job, you have to be able to type at least 60 words a minute (Not "to" before can or can alone)
2. We do not use a to-infinitive after modals (compare be to, have to).
   Only the bare infinitive (> 16.3) can be used after modals (except ought, which is always followed by to):
   You must/mustn’t phone him this evening (Not “to phone”)
3. Modals have no -ing form (compare being, having, doing). Instead of -ing, we have to use another verb or verb-phrase:
   I couldn’t go/I wasn’t able to go home by bus, so I took a taxi
   (= Not being able to go...)
4. Modals have no -(e)s in the 3rd person singular (compare is has does):
   The boss can see you now (No -s on the end of can)
5. Each modal has a basic meaning of its own. By comparison, as auxiliaries, be/have/do have only a grammatical function (> 10.1).

11.6.2 Contracted forms
   Unlike be and have (but not do), modals in the affirmative do not have contracted forms, except for will and would [I'll, I’d > 9.35, 14.17n3]. In speech, can, could and shall are ‘contracted’ by means of unemphatic pronunciation:
   I, (etc.) can /kan/, I, (etc.) could /kad/, I/We shall /ʃəl/

11.6.3 One modal at a time
   Only one modal can be used in a single verb phrase:
   We may call the doctor but not may and must together.
   We must call the doctor
   If we wish to combine the two ideas in the above sentences, we have to find a suitable paraphrase:
   It may be necessary (for us) to call a doctor
   By comparison, we can use e.g. be and have together:
   It has been necessary to call a doctor

11.7 Form of modal auxiliaries compared with future tenses
   Each of the modals fits into the four patterns for future tense forms:
   / I will see           simple future (> 9.35)
   / I will be seeing    future progressive (> 9.40)
   / I will have seen    future perfect simple (> 9.42)
   / I will have been seeing    future perfect progressive (> 9.42)
   active        passive
   modal + (bare infinitive): I may see     I may be seen
   modal + be + present participle: I may be seeing - [but > 12.3n.6]
   modal + have + past participle: I may have seen     I may have been seen
   modal + have been + present participle: I may have been seeing -

11.8 Forms and uses of modals compared with verb tenses
   The labels we use to describe the verb tenses (e.g. present, progressive, past, perfect) cannot easily be applied to modals.

11.8.1 ‘Present’
   All modals can refer to the immediate present or the future, therefore ‘present’ is not always a reliable label:
   / I can/may (etc.) phone now / I can/may (etc.) phone tomorrow
General characteristics of modal verbs

11.8.2 'Progressive'
There is no progressive form for modals. But we can put the verb that follows a modal into the progressive form:

Meg is phoning her fiancé (present progressive)
Meg may be phoning her fiancé (modal + be + verb-ing)
Meg may have been phoning her fiancé (modal + have been + verb-ing)

It is the phoning that is or was in progress, not 'may'.

11.8.3 'Past'
Would, could, might and should can be said to be past in form but this usually has little to do with their use and meaning. They can be called 'past' when used in indirect speech [> 15.13n6]:

He says you can/will/may leave early (present)
He said you could/would/might leave early (past)

Might can have a past reference in historical narrative:

In the 14th century a peasant might have the right to graze pigs on common land
However, might usually expresses more uncertainty than may.
I might see you tomorrow

Could sometimes expresses ability in the past [> 11.2.1]:
He could (or was able to) swim five miles when he was a boy
but could is not possible in:
I managed to/was able to finish the job yesterday. [> 11.12.3]
However, couldn't and wasn't able to are usually interchangeable
I couldn't/wasn't able to finish the job yesterday

The other main use of could, as a more polite alternative to can in requests, has nothing to do with time:
Could you help me please?

Would expresses the past in [> 11.61]:
When we were young we would spend our holidays in Brighton
Otherwise, would and should have special uses [e.g. > 11.74-75]
Must can express past time only in indirect speech [> 15.13n6]. otherwise it has to be replaced by have to, etc. [> 11.4]:
He told us we must wait (or we had to wait) until we were called
She asked her boss if she must work (or had to work) overtime

11.8.4 'Perfect' and 'past'
Forms with modal + have + past participle or with modal + have been + progressive are not necessarily the equivalent of the Present perfect. The modal refers to the present, while have + past participle refers to the past. So, depending on context,

You must have seen him can mean:
I assume (now) you have seen him (i.e. before now; equivalent to the present perfect)
I assume (now) you saw him (i.e. then; equivalent to the past)
I assume (now) you had seen him (i.e. before then; equivalent to the past perfect)
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.9 Modal + verb and modal + 'be/have been' + progressive

Two observations need to be made here:
1 Modal + be/have been + progressive is not always possible in the primary function. For example:
   *He can't leave yet (= it's not possible for him to leave yet)*
   is quite different from the secondary function:
   **He can't be leaving yet** (= I don't think he is)
   But compare the primary and secondary functions of must in:
   **primary:** You must be working when the inspector comes in
   (i.e. it is necessary (for you) to be working.)
   **secondary:** You must be joking*
   (i.e. I'm almost certain you are joking.)
2 Occasionally, in the primary function, a modal + be + progressive has a 'softening effect' similar to the use of the future progressive [> 9.41.2]. So:
   *We must/may/should (etc.) be leaving soon*
   is more polite and tentative than:
   *We must/may/should (etc.) leave soon*

Uses of modals, etc. to express ability

11.10 Form of modals and related verbs expressing ability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>can/could</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can/could express ability, which may be natural or learned:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present reference:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You/He (etc.) can/can't hear music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past or perfect reference:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You/He (etc.) could/couldn't play chess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future reference:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None. We use will be able to [but compare &gt; 11.19, 11.26]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs and verb phrases related in meaning to can (ability):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be (un)able to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am (not) able/I am unable to attend the meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be (in)capable of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is (not) capable/He is incapable of doing the pb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manage to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We managed/didn't manage to persuade him to accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succeed in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They'll succeed/won't succeed in getting what they want</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.11 'Can' = ability: the present

11.11.1 'Can' + verb (natural ability)

Natural ability can be expressed as follows:

*Can you run 1500 metres in 5 minutes?*

(= Are you able to run? Are you capable of running?)

*I can/cannot/can't run 1500 metres in 5 minutes*

Can and am/is/are able to are generally interchangeable to describe natural ability, though able to is less common:

*Billy is only 9 months old and he can already stand up*

*Billy is only 9 months old and he is already able to stand up*

However, am/is/are able to would be unusual when we are commenting on something that is happening at the time of speaking:

*Look' I can stand on my hands*
Modals etc to express ability

11.11.2 'Can' + verb (learned ability or 'know-how')
Learned ability can be expressed as follows:

Can you drive a car?
(= Do you know how to? Have you learnt how to?)
/ can/cannot/can’t drive a car

Verbs such as drive, play, speak, understand indicate skills or learned ab.h.t.es. Can, and to a lesser extent, am/is/are able often combine with such verbs and may generally be used in the same way as the simple present tense:

/ can/can’t play chess (= I play/don’t play chess)

11.12 'Could/couldn’t' = ability: the past

11.12.1 Past ability (natural and learned) expressed with could'
Could, couldn’t or was/were (not) able to can describe natural and learned ability in the past, not related to any specific event:

Jim could/couldn’t run very fast when he was a boy
Barbara could/couldn’t sing very well when she was younger
Jim was able to/was unable to run fast when he was a boy.

We also often use used to be able to to descr.be past abilities

I used to be able to hold my breath for one minute under water
Could and was (or would be) able to occur after reporting verbs
He said he could see me next week.

For 'unreal past' could (= was/were able to) after if [> 14.10-12, 14.14

11.12.2 The past: could' + verb: achievement after effort
Could and was/were able to can be interchangeable when we refer to the acquisition of a skill after effort:

/ tried again and found I could swim/was able to swim

11.12.3 Specific achievement in the past
Could cannot normally be used when we are describing the successful completion of a specific action; was/were able to, succeeded in + ing must be used instead

were able to rescue
In the end they managed to rescue the cat on the roof
succeeded in rescuing

If an action was not successfully completed, we may use couldn’t.
They tried for hours but they couldn’t rescue the cat
(or weren’t able to, didn’t manage to etc)

Could can be used when we are asking about a specific action (as opposed to describing it):

Could they rescue the cat on the roof? (= did they manage to?)
- No, they couldn’t. It was too difficult

However, an affirmative response requires an alternative to could
- Yes, they managed to (Not 'could')

11.13 Can/could' + verbs of perception [> APP 38.4]
:\Verbs of perception [> 9.3], like see hear, smell rarely occur progressive Can, and to a lesser extent, am/is/are able to combine
with such verbs to indicate that we can see, hear, etc. something happening at the moment of speaking. In such cases *can* has a grammatical function equivalent to the simple present in statements and to *do/does* in questions and negatives:

/ *can smell something burning* (= | smell something burning.)
/ *can’t see anyone* (= I don’t see anyone.)

*Could* can be used in place of the simple past in the same way:

/ *listened carefully, but couldn’t hear anything* (= I listened carefully, but didn’t hear anything.)

*Can/could* can be used with verbs suggesting ‘understanding’:

/ *can/can’t understand* why he decided to retire at 50

*I could/couldn’t understand* why he had decided to retire at 50.

*Can’t/couldn’t* cannot be replaced by the simple present or simple past when conveying the idea ‘beyond (my) control’ (impossible):

/ *can’t (couldn’t) imagine* what it would be like to live in a hot climate. (Not */ I don’t/I didn’t imagine*)

### 11.14 ‘Could’ and ‘would be able to’

We can use *could* as an ‘unreal past’ [> 14.10, 14.14] in the sense of ‘would be able to’. When we do this, an /f-clause is sometimes implied:

*I’m sure you could get into university (if you applied)*

*Could + never* has the sense of ‘would never be able to’:

/ *could never put up with* such inefficiency if I were running an office (i.e. I would never be able to)

*Could* is often used to express surprise, anger, etc. in the present:

/ *I could eat my hat* / *I could slap your face!*

### 11.15 ‘Could have’ and ‘would have been able to’

We do not use *can/can’t have +* past participle to express ability or capacity. We use them for possibility or conjecture (He *can’t have told you anything I don’t already know* [> 11.32].

However, in conditional sentences and implied conditionals we may use *could have + past participle* (in place of *would have been able to*) to refer to ability or capacity that was not used owing to personal failure or lack of opportunity [> 14.19]:

*If it hadn’t been for the freezing wind and blinding snow, the rescue party could have reached the injured man before nightfall*

*For could have (= had been able to) in conditions [> 14.16-17].*

### 11.16 Ability in tenses other than present and past

If we need to express ability in other tense combinations (e.g. the future or the present perfect), then the appropriate forms of *be able to, manage to* or *succeed in* must be used:

*I’ll be able to pass my driving test after I’ve had a few lessons*

*I’ve been trying to contact him, but I haven’t managed to*

*Can, referring to ability, skill, or perception, is usable in clauses after and when [> 14.4] to refer to the future;*

*If you can pass (or are able to pass) your driving test at the first attempt, I’ll be very surprised*
Modals, etc. to express permission/prohibition

11.17 Expressing ability with 'can' and 'could' in the passive

Passive constructions with can and could, indicating ability, are possible where the sense allows:
- This car can only be driven by a midget
- The lecture couldn't be understood by anyone present
- The injured men could have been reached if heavy equipment had been available during the rescue operation

11.18 'Can/could' = capability/possibility

Can + be + adjective or noun has the effect of 'is sometimes' or 'is often' and refers to capability or possibility. It can be replaced by be capable of + -ing, but not by am/is/are able to:
- It can be quite cold in Cairo in January
  (= It is sometimes - or often - quite cold.)
- He can be very naughty, (or 'a very naughty boy') [> 10.11]
  (When used for people, the effect is generally negative, even when the adjective is favourable: She can look quite attractive when she wants to — which implies she doesn't usually look attractive.)

Could has the same effect in the past:
- It could be quite cold in Cairo in January when I lived there
  (= It was sometimes - or often - quite cold.)
- He could be very naughty when he was a little boy

Could can also have a future reference in this kind of context:
- It could be quite cold when you get to Cairo

Uses of modals, etc. to express permission and prohibition

11.19 Form of modals and related verbs: permission/prohibition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>can/could/may/might (compare &gt; 11.34, 11.36-38)</th>
<th>present or future reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can I stay out late?</td>
<td>you (etc.) can/can't/mustn't stay out late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could I stay out late?</td>
<td>I can see him now/tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May I stay out late?</td>
<td>I could see him now/tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might I stay out late?</td>
<td>you (etc.) may/may not/mayn't/mustn't stay out late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs and verb phrases related in meaning to can/could/may/might/mustn't

- (not) be allowed to: You're (not) allowed to stay out late
- (not) be permitted to: You're (not) permitted to stay out late
- be forbidden to: You're forbidden to stay out late
- be prohibited: Smoking is (strictly) prohibited
- be not to: You're not to smoke
- negative imperative: Don't smoke

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11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.20 Asking for permission/responding: 'can/could/may/might'

Requests for permission can be graded on a 'hesitancy scale', ranging from a blunt request to an extremely hesitant one. Requests for permission can refer to the present or future. The basic forms are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modals</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Can I borrow your umbrella (please)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Could I borrow your umbrella (please)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>May I borrow your umbrella (please)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Might I borrow your umbrella (please)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Can is the commonest and most informal:

Can I borrow your umbrella (please)?

A few (old-fashioned) native speakers still hold that can is the equivalent of am/is/are able to and therefore may must be used instead. The idea of e.g. asking for a favour is less strong in can than in could/may/might.

2 Could is more 'hesitant' and polite than can. We often use it when we are not sure permission will be granted:

Could I borrow your umbrella (please)?

3 May is more formal, polite and 'respectful' than can and could:

May I borrow your umbrella (please)?

4 Might is the most hesitant, polite and 'respectful' and is rather less common than the other three:

Might I borrow your umbrella (please)?

In practice, can, could and may are often interchangeable in 'neutral' requests.

Common responses with modals are: e.g.

- affirmative: Of course you can/may. (Not "could"/*/might")
- negative: No, you can't/may not. (Not "could not"/*/might not")

Numerous non-modal responses are possible ranging from the polite Of course (affirmative), I'm afraid not, I'd rather you didn't (negative), to blunt refusal like Certainly not. A polite refusal is usually accompanied by some kind of explanation (I'm afraid you can't because). The formulas if I may ask and (more tentative) if I might ask:

How much did you pay for this house if I may/might ask?

11.21 Asking for permission with 'can't' and 'couldn't'

Can't and couldn't are often used in place of can and could when we are pressing for an affirmative answer (> 13.6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modals</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can't</td>
<td>I stay out till midnight (please)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couldn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

May I not? is old-fashioned.
Mayn't I? is unlikely.
Might I not? is rare, but all these forms occur in formal style.
11.22 Very polite requests: ‘can/could/may/might’

There are numerous variations on straightforward request forms to express degrees of politeness. *Possibly* is commonly added to make requests more polite. Requests may be hesitant:

**Can/Could I (possibly)**

**Do you think I could/might**

**I wonder if I could/might**

Or they may be over-cautious or obsequious:

**Might I (possibly) be allowed to...?**

11.23 Granting and refusing permission

Permission can be granted or refused as follows:

**You can(not)** watch TV for as long as you like  
(Not *could*)

**may (not)**  
(Not *might*)

You may/may not carries the authority of the speaker and is the equivalent of ‘I (personally) give you permission’. You can/cannot is more general and does not necessarily imply personal permission. Permission issuing from some other authority can be granted or withheld more emphatically with *be allowed to*, *be permitted to* and *be forbidden to*, as follows:

You can/cannot or You're allowed to/not allowed to

You can/cannot or You're permitted to/not permitted

You mustn't or You're forbidden to smoke here.

Granting/refusing permission is not confined to 1st and 2nd persons

Johnny/Frankie can't may/may not/mustn't stay up late.

This can be extended to:

- rule-making e.g. for games: *Each player may choose five cards.*
- other contexts: Candidates *may not attempt more than three questions.*

Permission may also be given by a speaker with *shall* in the 2nd and 3rd persons (formal and literary):

**You shall do as you please,** (i.e. You have my permission to)

**He shall do as he pleases,** (i.e. He has my permission to)

Permission may also be denied with *shan’t* in BrE only [*>9.36n3]*

If you don’t behave yourself, *you shan’t* go out/be allowed out.

If he doesn’t behave himself, *he shan’t* go out/be allowed out.

Numerous alternative forms are available to express anything mild refusal (*I’d rather you didn’t* if you don’t mind) to strong prohibition (*I forbid you to*.) Formal and strong statements with non-modal forms are often found in public notices [compare > 12.9.1]

Thank you for *not smoking* (i.e. please don’t)

**Passengers are requested to remain seated** till the aircraft stops

Trespassing is *strictly forbidden*
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.24 Permission/prohibition in other tenses
The gaps in the 'defective' verbs may and must [> 11.4, 11.6.1] can be filled with the verb phrases be allowed to and the more formal be permitted to. Examples of other tenses:

- **present perfect:** Mrs James is in hospital and hasn't been allowed to have any visitors.
- **past:** We were allowed to stay up till 11 last night.

Could can only express past 'permission in general'[compare > 11.12.1]:

- When we were children we could watch TV whenever we wanted to.

11.25 Conditional sentences with 'could' and 'could have'

**Could** may imply 'would be allowed to'

- I could have an extra week's holiday if I asked for it.

**Could have** + past participle can be used in place of would have been allowed to show that permission was given but not used:

- You could have had an extra week's holiday. You asked for it, but you didn't take it [compare > 11.15].

11.26 'Can/could' = 'am/is/are free to': present or future

'Being free to' is often linked to the idea of 'having permission'. Can, in the sense of 'am/is/are free to', can be used to refer to the present or the future:

- I can see him now (= I am free to).
- I can see him tomorrow (= I am/will be free to).

Could expresses exactly the same idea, but is less definite:

- I could see him now (= I am free to).
- I could see him tomorrow (= I am/will be free to).

Compare can/could (= ability) which cannot be used to refer to the future [> 11.10, 11.16].

Uses of modals, etc. to express certainty and possibility

11.27 Certainty, possibility and deduction

If we are certain of our facts, we can make statements with be or any full verb [compare > 10.24]:

- Jane is (or works) at home (a certain fact).

If we are referring to possibility, we can use combinations of may might or could + verb:

- Jane may/might/could be (or work) at home (a possibility).

We may draw a distinction between the expression of possibility in this way (which allows for speculation and guessing) and deduction based on evidence. Deduction [> 11.32], often expressed with must be and can't be, suggests near-certainty:

- Jane's light is on. She must be at home. She can't be out.
Modals, etc to express certainty/possibility

|1.28 Forms of tenses (certainty) versus modals (possibility) |
|---|---|
|certain (expressed by verb tenses) | possible/less than certain (expressed by may, might and could) |
|He is at home | He may/might/could be at home (now) |
|He will be at home tomorrow | He may/might/could be at home tomorrow |
|He was at home yesterday | He may/might/could have been at home yesterday |
|He leaves at 9 | He may/might/could leave at 9 |
|He will leave tomorrow | He may/might/could leave tomorrow |
|He has left | He may/might/could have left |
|He left last night | He may/might/could have left last night |
|He will have left by 9 | He may/might/could have left by 9 |
|He is working today | He may/might/could be working today |
|He will be working today | He may/might/could be working today |
|He was working today | He may/might/could have been working today |
|He has been working all day | He may/might/could have been working all day |
|He will have been working all day | He may/might/could have been working all day |

11.29 Notes on modal forms expressing possibility

1 Should be and ought to be to express possibility

In addition to the above examples, we can also express possibility with should be and ought to be:

John should be/ought to be at home.

John should be working/ought to be working

John should have left/ought to have left by tomorrow etc.

However, because should and ought to also express obligation [> 11.46] they can be ambiguous, so are not used as much as may/might/could to express possibility. For example, He should have arrived (ought to have arrived) yesterday could mean 'I think he probably has arrived' or 'He failed in his duty to arrive yesterday'.

2 Questions about possibility

When we are asking about possibility, we may use Might ?, Could ? and sometimes Can ? and (rarely) May ?. (We do not normally use should and ought to in affirmative questions about possibility because of the risk of confusion with obligation):

Might/Could/Can this be true?
Might/Could he know the answer?
Might/Could he still be working? (or be still working)
Might/Could he be leaving soon?
Might/Could/Can he have been waiting long?
Might/Could he have left by tomorrow?

Can is not always possible in questions like these, probably because of the risk of confusion with can = ability [> 11.10].

However, in questions like Can this be true?, can often indicates disbelief. Can is possible in some indirect questions:

I wonder where he can have left the key?
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

3 Negative questions about possibility
Negative questions about possibility can be asked with Mightn't and Couldn't. May not (Not 'Mayn't) can sometimes be used, as can Shouldn't and Oughtn't to:

Mightn't he be at home now? etc
Couldn't he know the answer? etc

4 Negative possibility
Negative possibility is expressed with may not mightn't, can't and couldn't, but not usually with shouldn't and oughtn't to:

He may not be (or have been) here etc.
He may not be working late etc.
Can't + be often suggests disbelief:

What you're saying can't be true
I can hardly believe it

Can may be used in negative indirect questions:

I don't think he can have left home yet
or in semi-negatives He can hardly be at home yet It's only 6

11.30 Modals on a scale of certainty

Degrees of certainty can be expressed on a scale:

He is at home (= it's a certain fact, non-modal be)
He could be at home (= doubtful possibility)
He should be at home (= doubtful possibility)
He ought to be at home (= doubtful possibility)
He may be at home (= it's possible, but uncertain)
He might be at home (= less certain than may)

He isn't at home (= it's a certain fact)
He can't be at home (= it's nearly certain)
He couldn't be at home (= more 'tentative' than can't)
He may not be at home (= possible, but uncertain)
He mightn't be at home (= less certain than may not)
(See 11.29ns1.3 for shouldn't and oughtn't to)
(See under deduction [> 11.32], for must be, can't be, etc.)

In speech, the element of doubt is increased with heavy stress:

He could be at home (i.e. but I very much doubt it).

Particular stress is also used in exclamations:

It 'can't be true' You 'can't' mean it You 'must be mistaken'

11.31 Certain and uncertain responses to questions

Yes/No answers to questions can reflect varying degrees of certainty felt by the speaker For example, a 'certain' question may elicit an 'uncertain' answer:

Does he like ice-cream? (direct question)
- Yes he does No, he doesn't ('certain' response)
- He might (do) He may (do) He could (do) (possibility)
- He mightn't He may not (uncertainty)

Similarly, an 'uncertain' question may elicit a 'certain' answer:

Can he still be working? (disbelief)
Mightn't he be working? (possibility)
- Yes, he is No, he isn't ('certain' response)
Modals to express deduction

- He might (be) He may (be) (possibility)
- He may not be I don't think he can be (possibility)
- He can't be He couldn't be (disbelief)

Of course, any other answer, not necessarily involving the use of a modal verb, may be available, depending on circumstances.

- I don't know I'm not sure I don't think so etc.

Be and have been are normally used in answers to questions with be
Is he ill? - He may be
Was he ill? - He may have been

Do often replaces other verbs:
Will you catch an early train? - I may do
Has he received my message? - He could have/could have done

Uses of modals to express deduction

11.32 Examples of modal forms for deduction

must and can't
present reference
Certainty expressed by verb tenses:
He is here He lives here He is leaving
He isn't here He doesn't live here He isn't leaving
Deduction expressed by must be and can't be.
He must be here He must live here He must be leaving
He can't be here He can't live here He can't be leaving
perfect and past reference.
Certainty expressed by verb tenses
He was here He has left/He left early He has been/was working late
Deduction expressed by must have been and can't/couldn't have been.
He must have been here He must have left early He must have been working late
He can't have been here He can't have left early He can't have been working late
He couldn't have been here He couldn't have left early He couldn't have been working late

11.33 Expressing deduction with 'must be' and 'can't be', etc.

The distinction between possibility (often based on speculation) and deduction (based on evidence) has already been drawn [> 11.27]. The strongest and commonest forms to express deduction are must and can't. For teaching and learning purposes, it is necessary to establish the following clearly:

1 can't be (Not "mustn't be") is the negative of must be.
2 can't have been (Not "mustn't have been") is the negative of must have been.

Have to/have got to be (affirmative) can express, deduction in AmE:
This has to be/has got to be the most stupid film I have ever seen
Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

Compare deduction [secondary use of modals > 11.3-4, 11.9] in:

He can't be thirsty  He must be hungry
He can't have been thirsty  He must have been hungry

with inescapable obligation [primary use of modals > 11.2, 11.4, 11.9] in:

He mustn't be careless  He must be careful
He didn't have to be at the dentist's  He had to be at the doctor's

We also use may/might, could and should/ought to for making deductions (as well as for expressing possibility); and, when we are almost certain of our evidence, we may use will and won't:

That will have been Roland  He said he'd be back at 7
That won't be Roland. I'm not expecting him yet
That won't have been Roland  I'm not expecting him till 7

Again [> 11.31], it is possible to give varying responses to a question:

- Is Roland in his room?
  - Yes, he is  No, he isn't (certainty)
  - Yes he must be. I heard him come in (deduction)
  - No, he won't be He had to go out. (near-certainty)
  - No, he can't be There's no light in his room (deduction)

Uses of modals for offers, requests, suggestions

11.34 General information about offers, requests and suggestions

Modal verbs are used extensively for 'language acts' or functions such as offering, asking for things, expressing preferences. Fine shades of meaning are conveyed not only by the words themselves, but particularly by stress, intonation, and gesture. (Note that we can also make suggestions, etc. with non-modal forms, e.g. Have a drink Let's go to the zoo). In this section, offers, requests, etc. are considered from six points of view under two headings:

11.34.1 Things and substances
1. Offering things and substances + appropriate responses.
2. Requests for things and substances + appropriate responses.

11.34.2 Actions
3. Making suggestions, inviting actions + appropriate responses.
4. Requesting others to do things for you + appropriate responses.
5. Offering to do things for others + appropriate responses.
6. Suggestions that include the speaker.

11.35 Things and substances: offers with modals

11.35.1 Typical offers inviting Yes/No responses
Can/Could I offer you
Will/Won't you have a sandwich/some coffee?
Would Wouldnt you like
Modals for offers, requests, suggestions

11.35.2 Typical responses
There are many non-modal forms (Yes please No thank you etc) and a few modal ones:

Yes, I'd like one/some please Yes, I'd love one/some please
However, we don't usually repeat the modal when we refuse an offer.
A reply like Wo. / won 'fin answer to Will you have ? could sound rude [> 11.74.1].

11.35.3 Typical offers with 'What'

What will you have? What would you like to have?
What would you prefer? What would you rather have?

11.36 Things and substances: requests with modals

11.36.1 Typical requests inviting Yes/No responses [> 11.19-20 13.6]
Can/Could/May/Might I have a sandwich/some coffee (please)?

11.36.2 Typical responses
Of course you can/may (Not *could/might* [compare > 11.23])
No, you can't/may not (I'm afraid)
(These answers with modals would be likely where e.g. a parent is addressing a child. Adult responses would be e.g. Certainly or I'm afraid there isn't any, etc.)

11.37 Actions: suggestions/invitations with modals

11.37.1 Typical suggestions inviting Yes/No responses

Will you/Won't you /Would you/Wouldn't you like to come for a walk (with me)?

11.37.2 Typical responses
(Yes.) I'd like to I'd love to
(No.) I'd prefer not to, thank you
Note that to must follow like, love, etc. [> 16.17]. Negative responses like No, I won't are not appropriate [> 11.74.1].

11.37.3 Typical inquiry with 'What' to invite suggestions
What would you like to do?

11.38 Actions: using modals to ask someone to do something

11.38.1 Typical requests inviting Yes/No responses [> 11.19-20]

Will you ? Would you ? in these requests refer to willingness Can you ? Could you ? refer to ability.
Will you (please)

Can/Could you (please) open the window for me)?
Would you (please)
Would you like to
Would you mind opening the window (for me)?

Will/Would you sounds even more polite with the addition of kindly and can/could with the addition of possibly [compare > 11.22]
Will/Would you kindly ? Can/Could you possibly ?
We cannot use May you...? in requests for help.
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.38.2 Typical responses
Yes of course (I will) No I'm afraid I can't (at the moment)

11.39 Actions: using modals to offer to do things for others

11.39.1 Typical offers to do things [> 11 19-20]
Offers beginning Shall I? Shall we? are very common
Can I/Could I/Shall I open the window (for you)?
Would you like me to open the window (for you)?
That's the phone I'll get it for you (shall I)?
What shall/can I do for you?

And note very polite offers with may in e.g.
May I take your coat?

11.39.2 Typical responses
The usual responses are Yes please No thank you, or tag responses
like Can/Could/Would you? - that's very kind, but not Yes, you
can/No, you can't, which could sound rude

11.40 Actions: suggestions that include the speaker

11.40.1 Typical suggestions inviting Yes/No responses
Shall we go for a swim? We can/could/might go for a swim

11.40.2 Typical responses
Yes let's (shall we)? [compare > 16.4.1]
No I'd rather we didn't/No I'd rather not

11.40.3 Typical inquiries with 'What'
What shall/can/could we do this afternoon?

Expressing wishes with 'wish', 'if only', etc.

11.41 The expression of wishes
The verb wish can be followed by to and can be used like want to in
formal style to express an immediate desire
I wish to (or want to) apply for a visa
In addition, we can express hypothetical wishes and desires with
- the verb wish often for something that might happen
- the phrase if only often to express longing or regret
- the phrases it's (high) time and it's about time to express future
  wishes and impatience that a course of action is overdue
After wish if only it's (high) time it's about time, we use
- the past tense to refer to present time
- the past perfect tense to refer to past time
- would and could to make general wishes or refer to the future
In other words, we 'go one tense back' [compare > 15.13n3]

Though wish and if only are often used interchangeably, if only
expresses more strongly the idea that the situation wished for does
not exist, whereas wish is used for something that might happen
Details follow
Expressing wishes with 'wish', 'if only' etc

11.42 The verb 'wish' and the phrase 'if only'

1.42.1 Present reference: 'wish/if only' with 'be' + complement
After wish and if only we may use
- the simple past of be
  I wish/if only Tessa was here now
- the subjunctive [> 11.75.1] of be, i.e. were after all persons
This is formal and has the effect of making a wish more doubtful
  / wish/if only Tessa were here now
Wish and if only can also be followed by the past progressive
  / wish/if only the sun was (or were) shining at this moment
Compare hope + simple present or future for an immediate 'wish'
  / hope he is on time I hope he won't be late (Not 'I wish') [> 9.37.3]

11.42.2 Present reference: 'wish/if only' + verbs other than 'be'
  / wish/if only I knew the answer to your question
  I wish/if only I didn't have to work for a living
If only (but not wish) will also combine with the simple present
  If only he gets this job it will make a great deal of difference
Here, if only functions like if in Type 1 conditionals [> 14.4] and that is why the present (which has a future reference) can be used

11.42.3 Past reference with 'wish' and 'if only'
- be + complement
  I wish/if only I had been here yesterday
- verbs other than be
  I wish/if only you had let me know earlier
  I wish/if only we had been travelling yesterday when the weather was fine
In sentences like the above if only particularly expresses regret
  If only I had been here yesterday The accident would never have happened
Compare
  I wish I had been here yesterday You all seem to have had such a good time (a simple wish, not the expression of regret)

11.42.4 'Would' and 'could' after 'wish' and 'if only'
  / wish you would/wouldn't often functions like a polite imperative
Because the wish can easily be fulfilled, if only is less likely
  / wish you would be quiet
  I wish you wouldn't make so much noise
We must use could and not would after I and We
  I wish I could be you
  If only we could be together
  I wish I could swim I wish I could have been with you
Would expresses willingness, could expresses ability
  I wish he would come tomorrow (i.e. I don't know if he wants to)
  I wish he could come tomorrow (i.e. I'm sure he can't)
  I wish Tessa could have come to my party (i.e. she wasn't able to)
Wishes expressed with would at the beginning of a sentence have either become obsolete ('Would that it were true') or have become fossilized idioms ('Would to God I knew' 'Would to God I had known')
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.42.5 The position of 'only' after 'if'

Only can be separated from if and can be placed
- after be, if he was/were only here now!
- before the past participle, if I had only known!
- after the modal, if you would only try harder!

Though the separation of only from if is common in exclamations (as above), it is also possible in longer sentences

If more people were only prepared to be as generous as you are, many children's lives would be saved (If only more people)

11.42.6 The use of 'wish' and 'if only' in short responses

Short responses can be made with wish and if only

- I wish/if only she was/were/could be!
- You should have come with us - I wish/if only I had!
- I can help you with that box - I wish/if only you would!

11.43 'It's (high) time' and 'It's about time'

These expressions are used with the past tense or the subjunctive [> 11.42.1, 11.75.1] to refer to the present and future

It's (high) time he was (or were) taught a lesson
It's about time he learnt to look after himself
(= the time has come)

Could (but not would) is sometimes possible

isn't it about time our baby could walk?

Negatives are not used after if s (high) time and if s about time

Short responses are possible with these expressions

I still haven't thanked Aunt Lucy for her present
It's time you did. (you're taking too long over it)

Compare the use of if s time in
We've enjoyed the evening but it's time (for us) to go
(= the time has now arrived for us to go)
We've enjoyed the evening but it's time we went
(= we should probably have left before this)

Expressing preferences with 'would rather' and 'would sooner'

11.44 'Would rather/sooner' to express preference

Would + rather/sooner + bare infinitive [> 16.5] expresses our personal preference, or enables us to talk about someone else's. This can refer to present time

I'd rather/sooner be a miner than a bank clerk
He'd rather (not) go by car

or to past time

If I'd lived in 1400 I'd rather have been a knight than a monk
If she'd had the chance she'd rather have lived 100 years ago
Advisability, duty/obligation and necessity

In negative responses, we can omit the infinitive
Are you coming with us? - I'd rather not
Would you rather have been a knight? - I'd rather not (have been)

Would rather/sooner can be modified by far and (very) much
I'd far (or much) rather be happy than rich
I'd far (or much) sooner be young than old

11.45 'Would rather/sooner' + clause

Would rather and would sooner can introduce a clause with its own subject (different from the subject of would rather/sooner) We use this construction when we want to say what we would prefer someone or something else to do or to be
I'd rather/sooner he/Jack (etc.) left on an earlier train

Note the use of past tenses after /d rather + clause
- the past with present or future reference
  I'd rather you were happy (or weren't unhappy)
  I'd rather she sat (or didn't sit) next to me
- the past perfect with past reference
  I'd rather you had been/hadn't been present
  I'd rather he had told/hadn't told me about it

When expressing negative preferences (to refer to the present or future), we can use didn't to avoid repeating the main verb
You always go without me and I'd rather you didn't
We can use hadn't in the same way to refer to the past
  Katie went by car and I'd rather she hadn't

Short responses to express preferences are possible as follows
present and future Frank wants to buy a motorbike - I'd rather he didn't
past I've told everyone about it - I'd rather you hadn't

Advisability, duty/obligation and necessity

11.46 Examples of forms expressing advisability, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present advisability</th>
<th>Past advisability not acted upon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I ought to stop smoking</td>
<td>I should have stopped smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I should stop smoking</td>
<td>(I was advised to stop but ignored the advice)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present inescapable obligation</th>
<th>Past inescapable obligation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I must stop smoking</td>
<td>I had to stop smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I am obliged to stop smoking and I shall it is my duty)</td>
<td>(I was obliged to stop smoking and I did it was my duty)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For should and ought to in indirect speech [> 15.13n 6]
For the ambiguity of should have and ought to have [> 11.29n1]
For the uses of must and had to in indirect speech [15.13n6]
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.47 Advisability —> necessity: 'a scale of choice'

We can use modals and other verbs to express advisability on a scale which reflects a degree of choice. This scale may vary according to the subjective point of view of the speaker.

advisability

should: generally means 'in my opinion, it is advisable to' or 'it is (your) duty'.
ought to: can be slightly stronger than should in that it is sometimes used to refer to regulations or duties imposed from the outside: You ought to vote (= it is your public duty). Should is more likely than ought to in questions and negatives.

had better: is stronger than should and ought to. It is used to recommend future action on a particular occasion, not in general. It carries a hint of threat, warning or urgency: You'd better see a doctor.

am/is/are to: can be used for instructions [compare > 9.48.1]: You're to report for duty at 7

need (to): (= it is necessary to).

have to: is an alternative to must and fills the gaps in that defective verb [> 11.4],

have got to: like have to, but more informal.

necessity

must: like have to and have got to, suggests inescapable obligation. In the speaker's opinion there is no choice at all.

11.48 'Must', 'have to' and 'have got to'

As far as meaning is concerned, these three forms are largely interchangeable. However, there are differences between them. When used in the first person, have to and have got to (often pronounced / haevta/ and /hav'gDta/ in everyday speech) can refer to an external authority and might be preferable to must in: e.g.

We have to/We've got to send these VAT forms back before the end of the month (i.e. we are required to do so by law)

On the other hand, must can express a speaker's authority over himself and might be preferable to have to/have got to in:

I/We really must do something about the weeds in this garden (i.e. but I don't have to account to anybody if I don't)

In other persons (you, etc.) must conveys more strongly than have to the idea of inescapable obligation or urgency in: e.g.

You must phone home at once It's urgent

Have to and have got to are interchangeable for single actions:

I have to/have got to check the oil level in the car.

However they are not always interchangeable when we refer to habitual actions. The following are possible:

I have to/l have got to leave home every morning at 7 30
But when one-word adverbs of frequency (always, sometimes, etc.) are used have to is always preferable to have got to:

I often have to get up at 5 Do you ever have to get up at 5?

Must (not have to or have got to) is used in public notices or documents expressing commands:

Cyclists must dismount Candidates must choose five questions

We generally prefer Must you... to Do you have to...? Have you got to...? to mean 'Can't you stop yourself...?'

Must you always interrupt me when I'm speaking?

Must is also used in pressing invitations, such as:

You really must come and see us some time

and in emphatic advice, such as:

You really must take a holiday this year

Even when heavily stressed, these uses of must do not mean or imply 'inescapable obligation'.

11.49 Need' as a modal

Need has only some of the characteristics of modal verbs [> 11.1] in that it occurs in questions, Weed you go?, and negatives, You needn't go [> 11.52-53]. In Yes/No questions, a negative answer is often expected:

Need you leave so soon? (= surely not/I hope not)

Yes/No questions with Need? can be answered with must or needn't

Need I type this letter again? ~ Yes, you must/No, you needn't

Need + have + past participle behaves in the same way:

Weed you have told him about my plans?

You needn't have told him about my plans

Yes/No questions with Need? have ? can be answered:

Yes, I had to (no choice) No, I needn't have (I had a choice)

Need as a modal verb also occurs in combination with negative-type adverbs like hardly, never, seldom, rarely and scarcely to make what are effectively negative statements:

She need never know what you have just told me

I need hardly tell you how badly I feel about her departure

All you need do is to take a taxi from the airport (i.e. you need to do nothing except take a taxi)

Need can also occur in clauses with a negative main clause:

I don't think you need leave yet.

Need as a modal is mostly used in the negative (I needn't go [> 11.53]) to express lack of necessity. Otherwise we generally use the full verb need to (used like any regular verb):

I need to/needed to go to the dentist this morning.

I don't need to/didn't need to go to the dentist

When will you next need to go to the dentist?

Why did you need to go to the dentist? etc.
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.50 Advisability/necessity: the present and future

*Should* ought to, etc refer to present time (except in indirect speech [*> 15.13n6*]) With the addition of adverbials such as *this afternoon tomorrow*, etc, they refer to future time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should</th>
<th>ought to</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>must</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had better</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td>at the office before 9 tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have got to</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td>(before 9 tomorrow)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Will shall* will combine with have to and need to (full verb) for explicit future reference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>need to</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>at the office before 9 (tomorrow)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’ll</td>
<td>leave</td>
<td>be leaving</td>
<td>London before 9 (tomorrow)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.51 Advisability/necessity: the perfect and past

Reference to the past can be made in the following ways

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should have</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>been</th>
<th>at the office before 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I ought to have</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I had to</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>at the office before 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>leave</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be leaving</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Should have and ought to have* could be followed (here) by *but I wasn’t didn’t* to suggest that whatever was advisable or necessary did not happen

*I should have left* London before 9 *but I didn’t*

*Had to* suggests that the action was performed in the past because this was necessary It could be followed by *and I was did*

*I had to leave* London before 9 *and I did*

The form *had got to* also exists, but it is not always suitable, *had to* is generally preferred

When other tenses are required, appropriate forms of *have to* must be used to fill the gaps of the defective modal *must [> 11.4]*

*I have had to remind* him several times to return my book

*Because of the bus strike I’ve been having to walk* to work every day

The reason for our late arrival was that we *had had to wait* for hours while they checked the plane before take off

*If he had asked me I would have had to tell him* the truth
Lack of necessity, inadvisability, prohibition

1.52 Examples of modal forms to express inadvisability, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present lack of necessity</th>
<th>Past lack of necessity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You needn't go there</td>
<td>You needn't have gone there (= you went there unnecessarily)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or You don't need to go there</td>
<td>You didn't have to go there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You haven't got to go there</td>
<td>Or You didn't need to go there (= there was no necessity to go there, whether you did go or not)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present inadvisability</th>
<th>Past inadvisability, not acted upon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You shouldn't start smoking</td>
<td>You shouldn't have started smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You ought not to start smoking</td>
<td>You oughtn't to have started smoking (but e.g. you ignored this advice)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present prohibition</th>
<th>Failure to observe a prohibition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You can't park here</td>
<td>You shouldn't have parked there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You mustn't park here</td>
<td>You ought not to have parked there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For shouldn’t and ought(n’t) to in indirect speech [> 15.13n6]
Shouldn’t have and oughtn’t to have are not ambiguous in the way that should have and ought to have can sometimes be ambiguous [compare > 11.29n1] For the use of must(n’t) in indirect speech [> 15.13n6]
Have to can replace must in the present [> 11.48, 11.50] but don’t/didn’t have to cannot replace mustn’t in the present and past [> 11.55, 11.57.1]

1.53 Lack of necessity: ‘needn’t/don't have to/haven’t got to’

Lack of necessity can be expressed by needn't don't have to and the more informal haven't got to (where got is often stressed)

- You needn’t
- You don't have to work such long hours
- You haven't got to (i.e. you can work fewer hours, if you choose to)

The above forms can be used to express the subjective point of view of the speaker that the listener has a choice or has permission not to do something Note that (You) haven't to is a regional BrE variation of (You) don't have to

11.54 Inadvisability —> prohibition: 'a scale of choice'

We can use modals and other verbs to express inadvisability —> prohibition on a scale which reflects a degree of choice This scale may vary according to the subjective view of the speaker This is particularly the case when we are addressing others directly with you, or when we are referring to others with he she, and they At one end of the scale (see next page) the advice (however strong) can be ignored At the other end of the scale, the prohibition is total and, in the speaker's opinion, there is no choice at all
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

**Inadvisability**  
*shouldn't*  
Generally means 'in my opinion, it is inadvisable to/it is (your) duty not to'

*oughtn't*  
Can be slightly stronger than *shouldn't*. It is sometimes used to refer to regulations and duties imposed from the outside. *You oughtn't to park so near the crossing* suggests 'it's your public duty not to do this'.

*had better not*  
Is stronger than *shouldn't* and *oughtn't*. It is used to recommend future action on a particular occasion not in general. It carries a hint of threat, warning, or urgency. *You'd better not overtake here*.

*am/is/are not to* can be used for instructions. *You can't park here* conveys absolute prohibition. In the opinion of the speaker, there is no choice at all. This opinion may be subjective or may be supported by some outside authority as in *You mustn't turn left* (e.g. there's a road sign forbidding it).

**'Mustn't', 'needn't', 'don't have to', 'haven't got to'**

Though *must have to* and *have got to* are generally interchangeable in the affirmative (> 11.48), *don't have to* and *haven't got to* can never replace *mustn't* to convey prohibition. Like *needn't* they convey lack of necessity (> 11.56.1).

*Mustn't* conveys the strongest possible opinion of the speaker. 

*You really mustn't say things like that in front of your mother*.  
*Julian mustn't hitchhike to Turkey on his own*.  

Prohibition reflecting external authority (in e.g., public notices, documents) is often expressed as *must not* (in full).  

*Life belts must not be removed*.  
*Candidates must not attempt more than four questions*.  

*Haven't got to* should be avoided with adverbs of frequency (always, sometimes, etc.) for reasons of style. So *I needn't always be at the office by 9*.

*don't always have to* is usually preferred to *I haven't always got to be*.

**11.56 Lack of necessity, etc.: present/future**

**11.56.1 Lack of necessity: 'needn't', 'don't have to', 'haven't got to'**

Reference to present or future time can be made as follows. These forms are normally interchangeable [compare > 11.57.1]
Lack of necessity/advisability/prohibition

I needn’t be at the office (until 9 tomorrow)

I don’t have to be leaving until 9 (tomorrow)

(Haven't got to is not generally used with progressive forms)

Won’t (and shan’t in BrE [> 9.36n3]) will combine with have to and need to (full verb) for explicit reference to the future

I won’t need to/have to be at the office before 9 tomorrow

11.56.2 Inadvisability/prohibition: ‘shouldn’t/oughtn’t to/mustn’t’, etc.

You shouldn’t/oughtn’t to/mustn’t be late for meetings

You shouldn’t/oughtn’t to/had better not/can’t/mustn’t be late tomorrow (future)

Shouldn’t/oughtn’t to/had better not/can’t/mustn’t are used to refer to the future, although they do not have future forms Possible alternatives are

It won’t be advisable (for her) to play games for the next month

Can’t and mustn’t can be replaced by

We won’t be allowed to park here for long

You will be forbidden to enter the courtroom before 9:30

Traffic in this street will be prohibited by law

11.57 Lack of necessity/advisability/prohibition: perfect/past

11.57.1 Lack of necessity: ‘needn’t have’, ‘didn’t have to’, ‘didn’t need to’

These forms mean roughly the same thing e.g.

I needn’t have gone to the office yesterday

I didn’t have to (or didn’t need to) go to the office yesterday

(= I went there, but it was unnecessary)

When have and need are unstressed, they mean something different from needn’t have

I didn’t have to. I didn’t need to go to the office yesterday

(= I knew it was unnecessary and I didn’t go)

Because modals are defective [> 11.4 11.6.1] appropriate alternatives must be used in some tenses

It wouldn’t have been necessary to change at Leeds if we had caught the earlier train

I haven’t had to cancel my appointment after all

If he had asked me I would have had to tell him the truth

11.57.2 Inadvisability: ‘shouldn’t have’ and ‘oughtn’t to have’

Both these forms suggest criticism of an action

You shouldn’t have paid the plumber in advance

oughtn’t to have

or failure to observe a prohibition

You shouldn’t have stopped on the motorway

oughtn’t to have

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11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

Uses of modals to express habit

11.58 Modal forms expressing habit

**will:** He will always complain if he gets the opportunity

**would:** When we were students we would often stay up all night

**used to:** Jackie used to make all her own dresses

Fred never used to be so bad-tempered

11.59 Notes on the form of 'used to'

1 *Used to* occurs only in the simple past form.

2 Questions and negatives with *used to* may be formed without the auxiliary *do*:

*Used he to*, live in Manchester? *You usedn't (used not) to* smoke

These forms are relatively rare. *Usedn't* is probably avoided because it is difficult to say and spell. *Did* and *didn't* are more commonly used to form questions and negatives. In such instances, *used* is often treated as an infinitive in writing:

*Did he use to* live in Manchester? *You didn't use to smoke*

In spoken English, we cannot tell whether a speaker is saying *Did he use to* or *Did he used to*, since what we hear is /ju: st/ not /ju:zd/ as in *used (= made use of)*. The forms *did* (he) *use to* and (he) *didn't use to* are logical on grounds of grammatical form (compare *didn't do*, Not *'didn't did'/*'didn't done*). We can avoid the problem of the negative by using *never* [compare > 7.40.1]:

*Fred never used to be so difficult.*

3 Question tags [> 13.17-18] and short responses are formed with *didn't*, rather than *usedn't*:

*He used to live in Manchester, didn't he?*

Note these short answers, etc. [compare > 13.5]:

*Did you use to smoke?* - Yes, I **did**

or Yes, I **used to**

*No, I didn't** or No, I **didn't use to**

(No, I used not to is rare.)

*He used to live in Manchester and so did I* (Not *"used"*)

11.60 Past habit: 'used to' and the simple past

*Used to* refers only to the past. If we wish to refer to present habit, we must use the simple present tense (Not *"I use to"*) [> 9.6-8]. We rely on *used to* to refer to habits that we no longer have, so there is a contrast between past and present. This contrast is often emphasized with expressions like *but now*, *but not any more/any longer* which combine with the simple present:

*I used to smoke, but I don't any more/any longer*

*I never used to eat a large breakfast, but I do now*

However, *used to* can refer simply to discontinued habit without implying a contrast with the present. For be *used to* [> 10.26.1, 16.56]. If we wish to use the simple past to refer to past habit, we always need a time reference. Compare:
Modals to express habit

I collected stamps when I was a child (simple past + time reference)
I used to collect stamps (when I was a child) (time reference not necessary with used to, but may be included)
Used to is not possible with since [> 7.31] and for [> 7.32]:
I lived in the country for three years (Not 'used to live')

For the past progressive referring to repeated actions [> 9.20.4],

11.61 Past habit: 'used to', 'would' and the simple past

We can refer to past habit in the following ways:
When I worked on a farm I always used to get up at 5 a.m
When I worked on a farm, I would always get up at 5 a.m
When I worked on a farm, I always got up at 5 a.m
Would can be used in place of used to, but, like the simple past, it always requires a time reference. We often use it to talk about regular activities, particularly in narrative, or when we are reminiscing. Would is never used at the beginning of a story: the scene must first be set with the simple past or used to- In familiar narrative, would can be reduced to y:
When I was a boy we always spent (or used to spend) our holidays on a farm We'd get up at 5 and we'd help milk the cows Then we'd return to the farm kitchen, where we would eat a huge breakfast

11.62 'Used to' to describe past states, etc.

Used to (not would) combines with be, have (possession) and other stative verbs [> 9.3] to describe past states:
I used to be a waiter, but now I'm a taxi-driver (past state)
I used to have a beard, but I've shaved it off (past possession)
If we use past tenses instead of used to, we need a time reference:
I was a waiter years ago, but now I'm a taxi-driver

11.63 'Will/would' to describe characteristic habit/behaviour

Will can sometimes be used in place of the simple present and would in place of the simple past to refer to a person's characteristic habits or behaviour. Will and would are unstressed when used in this way:
In fine weather, he will often sit in the sun for hours
As he grew older, he would often talk about his war experiences
And note common fixed phrases with will-
Boys will be boys Accidents will happen

Will and would (usually with heavy stress) are often used accusingly to criticize a person's characteristic behaviour:
Harriet will keep leaving her things all over the floor
That's just typical of Harry He would say a thing like that

Sometimes will used in this way implies insistence, or wilful refusal to follow advice. Note that although will is not normally used after if [> 14.4-6, 14.24.2], it can be in this sense:
If you will (stressed) go to bed so late no wonder you're tired
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.64 'Will' and 'would' to describe natural tendency
Like the simple present tense (> 9.6-8) will (with a 3rd person subject) can refer to general truths or to the qualities of things; would can sometimes refer to the past.

*Water will boil at 100°C*  
*I won't boil at under 100°C*

*I planted a vine last year but it wouldn't grow because it didn't get enough sun*

In the same way will and would can suggest 'has the capacity to'.

*Would* is more tentative than *will*.

*That container will/won't hold a gallon (definite statement)*

*That container would/wouldn't hold a gallon*  (*'tentative'*)

11.65 'Dare' as a modal verb and as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present reference</th>
<th>past reference</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>modal verb</td>
<td>modal verb.</td>
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<tr>
<td>dare</td>
<td>daren't/don't dare + go</td>
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<tr>
<td>full regular verb</td>
<td>dared/dared not/didn't dare + go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dare don't dare + to go</td>
<td>dared'didn't dare + to go</td>
</tr>
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</table>

11.66 Notes on the forms of 'dare'

*Dare* as a modal is not nearly as common as *need* and *used to* as modals. Its function is generally filled by verb phrases like *not be afraid to* or *(not) have the courage to*[> 11.67],

Like modal *need* (> 11.49), modal *dare* occurs in questions and negatives and is rare in the affirmative, unless a negative is expressed or implied:

*Dare you do it?* - *I daren't do it*

*I hardly dare tell him what happened*  *(implied negative)*

Questions/negatives are more commonly formed with *do*/*does*/*did*  

*Do you dare tell him?*  *I don't dare tell him*

*Did you dare tell him?*  *I didn't dare tell him*

Such forms are anomalous because *dare* is like a full verb in taking *do*, but like an auxiliary in taking a bare infinitive.

To can be used after *dare* in the examples with *do*/*don't* and *d'd/don't*, making it a full verb, but not changing its meaning:

*Do you dare to tell him?*  *I don't dare to tell him*  *etc.*

Both *dare* not and *dared* not can be used to refer to the past, though this is more formal:

*Mother dare(d) not tell father she'd given away his old jacket*

*Dare* cannot combine with *be* + progressive, but it can combine with *Have* + past participle, though this is not very common:

*I didn’t like their new house though I daren’t have said so*
Other uses of modal auxiliaries

11.67 The use of 'dare' to express courage or lack of courage

Daren't is used in the present (to refer to present or future time) and can be replaced by am/is/are afraid to:
I'd like to ask for the day off, but I daren't (= I'm afraid to)

Don't dare to (regular verb) is acceptable in the present:
I'd like to ask for the day off, but I don't dare (to)

Didn't dare to is used in the past:
I wanted to ask for the day off, but I didn't dare (to)

Dare can also be used in the affirmative, but this is less common:
Sally is the only person in our class who dares (to) answer Miss Thompson back

11.68 'Dare' for 'challenging'

Dare as a full transitive verb is used especially by children when challenging each other to do something dangerous:
I dare you to jump off that wall
I didn't want to do it, but he dared me (to)

11.69 'Dare' for expressing outrage

Dare, as a modal, is often used to reprimand and express outrage or strong disapproval. It is especially common after How:
How dare you! How dare she suggest such a thing?
Don't you dare speak to me like that again'
You dare raise your voice! [imperative, > 9.54]
^ I'm going to smash this vase! - Just you dare!

Dared can be used after How in: e.g.
How dared he tell everybody I was looking for a new job?

11.70 The use of 'daresay'

The verbs dare and say can combine into a single verb, daresay, (sometimes spelt as two separate words, dare say) which can be used in the first person singular and plural (present tense only) to mean / suppose or it's possible:
I daresay you'll phone me if you're going to be late tonight

Or in the sense of 'accept what you say':
This is supposed to be a cheap restaurant It says so in this guidebook - I daresay it does, but look at these prices

Other uses of modal auxiliaries

11.71 'May' in formulas for expressing wishes

May occurs in fixed phrases like:
May God be with you! May you live to be a hundred!

May can also be used in the sense of 'We hope very much that...':
May there never be a nuclear war
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.72 'May/might'

11.72.1 'May/might (just) as well'

May as well and might as well can be used interchangeably to express the idea 'it makes no difference':

It's not very far, so we may/might as well go on foot

May as well and might as well can differ as follows:

- **We may/might as well walk** (i.e. it makes no difference)
  
  What a slow bus this is!
  
  - Yes, we **might** (Not *may*) just as well walk (i.e. we'd get there more quickly)

11.72.2 'May/might/could well' = 'it is extremely likely'

May well might well and could well can be used interchangeably:

He may/might/could well find that the course is too difficult

11.72.3 'May/might' in the sense of I grant you...

This construction is often used in discussion and argument.

Your typewriter may/might be a wonderful machine, but it's still old-fashioned compared with a word-processor

11.72.4 'Might/could (at least)' in nagging complaints/reproach

You might (at least) clean the bathtub after you've used it

(I) might have + past participle of verbs like guess, know and suspect can reinforce complaint:

I **might have guessed** he'd fail to read the instructions

11.72.5 'Might' in requests

Might can replace the imperative [> 9.52] in:

While you're out you **might** (no stress) post this letter for me

11.73 'Shall'

Apart from its main uses with I/we to refer to the future [> 9.36], and to make offers/suggestions [> 11.39-40], **shall** can be used with other persons (you, he, they, etc.) in e.g. the following ways [compare > 11.23]:

- **You shall pay for this** (threat)
- **You shall** (stressed) have a car for your birthday (promise)
- **They shall not pass!** (determination)

When he comes in nobody shall say a word [> 9.54n5] (order)

11.74 'Won't/wouldn't' and 'would/wouldn't'

11.74.1 'Won't' and 'wouldn't' for 'refusal'

Won't and wouldn't are commonly used to express refusal in the present and the past:

- Drink your milk, Jimmy! *- I won't* (Also, BrE: I *shan't!*)

I offered Jimmy some milk, but he wouldn't drink it

'Refusal' (or resistance to effort) can be extended to things:

- The car won't start

11.74.2 'Would' and 'wouldn't' in place of the simple present tense

We often use would and wouldn't in place of the simple present tense
Other uses of modal auxiliaries

and sometimes in place of will/won’t, when we want to sound less

definite (I would think that, etc):

That seems the best solution to me (definite)
That would seem the best solution to me (less definite)
Friday evening is not (or won’t be) very convenient (definite)
Friday evening wouldn’t be very convenient (less definite)

11.75 ‘Should’

11.75.1 Noun clauses with ‘should’

There are two classes here:

1. Many verbs, particularly reporting verbs: say, etc. [> App 45] can
be followed by (that) should or (that) ought to referring to
obligation, advice, etc.:

He said (that) I should (or ought to) see a doctor

2. After verbs referring to proposals, suggestions, requests and orders
(e.g. propose, suggest), we may follow with (that) should (not
ought to), the simple present, or the subjunctive [> App 45.3]. The
subjunctive (rare in English) refers to what could or should happen
in hypothetical situations.

In the present, the base form of the verb remains the same in all
persons: If I/you/he (etc.) be; It is important that you/he (etc.) go

The past subjunctive of be is were: If I/you/he (etc.) were; I wish
he (etc.) were.

11.75.2 That... should’ after ‘suggest’, etc.

- future reference: affirmative/negative after (that):

That should can be used after such verbs as ask, propose,
recommend and suggest; alternatively, the present or subjunctive can
be used in BrE or the subjunctive in AmE. That is generally dropped
in informal style:

I suggest (that) he should/shouldn’t apply for the job (should)
I suggest (that) he applies/doesn’t apply for the job (present)
I suggest (that) he apply/not apply for the job (subjunctive)

- past reference: affirmative/negative after (that):

In past reported suggestions, the (that) should construction and the
subjunctive can be replaced by a past tense:

I suggested (that) they should/shouldn’t drive along the coast
I suggested (that) they drive/not drive along the coast
I suggested (that) they drove/didn’t drive along the coast

75.3 That...should’ after certain adjectives

Adjectives referring to desirability or urgency, such as essential and
urgent, can be used in the same way [> App 44]:

It is vital (that) we should be present (should)
It is vital (that) we are present (present)
It is vital (that) we be present (subjunctive)

The reference may also be to the past:

It was important (that) he should apply/apply/applied for the job
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.75.4 That...should' after 'I'm surprised', etc.
That should can be used after phrases with adjectives and nouns expressing feelings and emotions: e.g. I'm annoyed, I'm surprised, It's funny, It's a pity.
I'm surprised that he should feel like that.
If we wish to be more emphatic, we may use the simple present:
I'm surprised that he feels like that
Shouldn't is possible but often avoided (because of its ambiguity) in such cases and the negative present or past are preferred:
present reference: I'm surprised that he doesn't feel any remorse
past reference: I'm surprised that he didn't feel any remorse
The past or should have can be used in: e.g.
I was surprised that he made/should have made the same mistake

11.76 'There' + modal auxiliaries
Parallel structures to there is/there are, etc. (> 10.17) can be formed with modal auxiliaries in various combinations. Here are some examples:

11.76.1 'There' + modal + 'be'
There could be no doubt about it
There won't be an election in June
There must be a mistake

11.76.2 'There' + modal + 'have been' + complement
There can't have been any doubt about it.
There might have been a strike
There oughtn't to have been any difficulty about it.

11.76.3 'There' + modal + 'be' + complement + verb'-ing'
There can't be anyone waiting outside
There never used to be anyone living next door
There could be something blocking the pipe.

11.76.4 'There' + modal + 'have been' + complement + verb'-ing'
There might have been someone waiting outside
There must have been someone blocking the pipe
There could have been someone crossing the road

11.76.5 'There' + modal: question forms
All the usual question forms are possible: e.g.
Yes/No questions: Could there have been any doubt?
Might there have been someone waiting
Wouldn't there have been a strike?
Could there have been an accident
question-word questions: When might there be an answer?
Why couldn't there have been a mistake?
12 The passive and the causative

The passive: general information about form

12.1 Active voice and passive voice

Active voice and passive voice refer to the form of a verb. In the active, the subject of the verb is the person or thing doing the action:

*John cooked the food last night*

Other typical active verb forms: *eats, made will take*

In the passive, the action is done to the subject:

*The food was cooked last night*

Other typical passive verb forms: *is eaten, was made, will be taken*

The passive occurs very commonly in English: it is not merely an alternative to the active, but has its own distinctive uses.

12.2 Form of the passive

Passives can be formed in the following ways:

1. A tense of *be* → 10.6-14] + past participle:
   - active: *He cooks/has cooked/will cook the food*
   - passive: *The food is/has been/will be + cooked*

2. Modal [> 11.1] + *be/have been* + past participle:
   - active: *He may cook/may have cooked the food*
   - passive: *The food may be/have been + cooked*

3. Infinitive [> 16.2]: *to be/ta have been* + past participle:
   - active: *He is/was to cook the food*
   - passive: *The food is to be/was to have been + cooked*

4. -ing form [> 16.41]: *being/having been* + past participle:
   - active: *Cooking/Having cooked*
   - passive: *Being/Having been + cooked*

12.3 Notes on the form of the passive

1. Formation: regular and irregular past participles

   We form the passive with a form of *be* and a past participle. The past participle does not necessarily refer to past time. For regular and irregular past participles [> Apps 39, 40]. (The past participle is used to form perfect active tenses, e.g. *He has left* [> 9.22], as well as all passives). Rules applying to the use of tenses in the active [> 9.2] apply in the passive. For example, an action in progress now requires the present progressive in: e.g.

   *Your steak is being grilled and will be ready in a minute*

2. Transitive and intransitive verbs

   The passive occurs only with verbs used transitively, that is, verbs
12 The passive and the causative

that can be followed by an object (> 1.9):
active: Someone found this wallet in the street
passive: This wallet was found in the street
Many verbs can be used transitively or intransitively.
The door opened (perhaps by itself)
The door was opened (perhaps by someone)

3 Personal and impersonal subjects
The passive can refer to things (a letter was written, etc.) or people:
active: The company has sent Smithers to California for a year
passive: Smithers has been sent to California for a year.

4 Direct and indirect objects (> 1.9, 1.13)
Verbs like bring and give, which can have two objects, e.g. Tom gave me (indirect) a pen (direct), can have two passive forms:
I was given a pen by Tom (indirect object becomes subject)
A pen was given (to) me by Tom (direct object becomes subject)
Because we are often more interested in people (or animals) than things, personal subjects tend to be more common than impersonal ones. Thus, I was given this pen is more likely to occur than This pen was given to me. In sentences like the second example, to (or for) can be omitted before a personal pronoun (This pen was given me) but not usually otherwise: This pen was given to my father

5 Stative verbs (> 9.3, App 38)
Many stative verbs cannot be used in the passive, even when they are transitive: I love beans on toast (active.voice only)
Verbs like measure, which can be stative or dynamic, can only be passive in their dynamic sense:
static: This desk measures 125 x 60 cms
dynamic: This desk has been measured

6 Progressive forms
Only present and past progressive forms are common:
He is being interviewed now He was being interviewed at 10
However, modals with progressive passive sometimes occur:
I know Mark was going to have an interview some time this afternoon He may be being interviewed at this very moment

7 Phrasal verbs (> 8.23-30)
Transitive constructions with the pattern verb + adverb particle (A gust of wind blew the tent down) can be used in the passive:
Our tent was blown down (by a gust of wind)
For possible passives with verb + preposition (> Apps 28-30): The newsagent's has been broken into
Only a few verbs of the type verb + particle + preposition (We have done away with the old rules) can be used in the passive:
The old rules have been done away with

8 The -ing form and the to-infinitive (> 16.13, 16.42, 16.58-59)
Passive constructions are common after verbs followed by the -ing form, such as enjoy, like and remember;
Most people don't like being criticized
and after verbs followed by a to-infinitive:
He hates to be criticized
Uses of the passive

We can use the passive (-ing form only) after conjunctions such as on and after [>] 1.62.2, 8.4.4:

On/After being informed that her mother was seriously ill she hurried back to England (i.e. When she was informed...)

9 Active verbs with a passive meaning

A few active verbs sometimes have a passive meaning: This surface cleans easily really means 'It can be/It is cleaned easily':

These clothes wash well This wine is selling quickly

What's showing at the cinema this week?

Her novel is reprinting already

10 Verbs generally used in the passive

A small number of verbs are used more frequently in the passive than in the active: e.g. be born, be married, be obliged

I'm not obliged to work overtime if I don't want to

11 Adverbs of manner in passive sentences [>] 7.53

Adverbs of manner can occur before or after the participle:

This room has been badly painted/painted badly

12 The passive and reflexive verbs

English often uses the passive where other European languages use reflexive verbs: burn myself, hurt myself, etc. [>] 4.25, 4.27:

Jim was in a fight and his shirt was torn in the struggle

We do not normally use the passive when responding spontaneously:

What's the matter? - I've burnt/cut/hurt, etc. myself.

13 We often use abbreviated passive constructions when expressing:

- wishes: I'd like it (to be) fried/cleaned/repaired, etc.
- preferences: I like it (when it is) fried/boiled etc.

Uses of the passive

12.4 Uses of the passive

12.4.1 Spontaneous and deliberate use of the passive

In fluent English, passives occur naturally and spontaneously, without a conscious change from 'active' to 'passive'. In fact, active equivalents would be hard to produce for sentences like:

The origin of the universe will probably never be explained

Rome was not built in a day

The passive is sometimes deliberately chosen in preference to the active, especially when speakers do not wish to commit themselves to actions, opinions, or statements of fact of which they are not completely certain:

This matter will be dealt with as soon as possible

Thousands of books are published every year and very few of them are noticed Even those that are reviewed in the papers rarely reach large audiences

12.4.2 The passive for focus

We use the passive when we wish to focus on a happening which is more important to us than who or what causes the happening - or
12 The passive and the causative

when there is simply no need to mention the doer. If we say: 

*Our roof was damaged in last night’s storm*

we are mainly concerned with the roof and what happened to it. Similarly:

*My cars been scratched* Thousand of *beaches are polluted*

The happening may concern people:

*Charles I was beheaded in 1649*

12.4.3 Avoiding vague words as subjects

We always prefer the passive when we wish to avoid using a vague word as subject (e.g. someone, a person, etc.): 

*After my talk, I was asked to explain a point I had made*

Conversely, the passive may be avoided (where we might expect it) when we wish to make what is described personal:

*They operated on father last night*

The passive is used in English where other European languages might prefer an indefinite pronoun subject like *one* ([4.9-11]). In a formal context we would avoid *one*- e.g.

*The form has to be signed in the presence of a witness* (Not “One has to sign...”)

The passive is obligatory in notices such as *English Spoken, Loans Arranged, Shoes Repaired*, etc. (Not “One...”). Such notices are normally abbreviated: *English (is) spoken*

12.5 The use of ‘by’, etc. + agent after a passive

An agent is a ‘doer’, i.e. the person or thing that performs the action indicated by the verb. By + agent in passive constructions tells us who or what did something:

*The window was broken by the boy who lives opposite*

*The window was broken by a stone*

By + agent is only necessary when the speaker wishes to say (or the hearer has to know) who or what is responsible for the event in question. The position of by + agent at the end of a clause or sentence gives it particular emphasis:

*The window was broken by a slate that fell off the roof*

Information can be given by means of phrases other than by + agent.

*This bridge was built in 1816 of stone before the war etc.*

By + agent is often used with the passive of verbs like *build, compose, damage, design, destroy, discover, invent, make, wreck* and *write* Note now a subject-question in the active is often answered by a passive, so that the important information (i.e. what the questioner wants to know) is emphasized by being at the end.

*Who composed that piece? ~ It was composed by Mozart*

*What destroyed the village? ~ It was destroyed by a bomb*

Note the inclusion of by in questions with *Who(m)*

*Who(m) was ‘Bleak House’ written by? ~ Dickens*

With is often used with an agent, especially after past participles such as crammed, crowded, filled, packed

*During the World Cup our streets were filled with football fans*
12.6 ‘Get’ + past participle
Get is often used instead of be before certain past participles in colloquial English. Be can sometimes be replaced by become:

I tried to find my way round London without a map and got lost

I became concerned when he hadn’t come home by midnight

(Compare get/become + adjective in e.g. get fat/old [> 10.26]).

Get combines with past participles like: arrested, caught, confused, delayed, divorced, dressed, drowned, drunk, elected, engaged, hit, killed, lost, married and stuck. We use get when:
- we do something to ourselves [compare > 4.26-27]:
  / I got dressed as quickly as I could.
- we manage to arrange something in our own favour. Reflexive pronouns can often be used in such cases:
  / I wasn’t surprised she got elected after all the efforts she made
  / I see old Morton has got himself promoted at last
- something (often unfavourable) happens beyond our control:
  We got delayed because of the holiday traffic

A few combinations with get + past participle are used as commands (Get dressed! Get washed!) or insults (Oh, get lost, will you!).

12.7 The passive compared with adjectival past participles
Many words such as broken, interested, shut, worried [> 6.14-15, 7.51] can be used either as adjectives or as past participles in passive constructions. A difference can be noted between:

/ I was worried about you all night (adjective: a state)

/ I was worried by mosquitoes all night (passive: dynamic verb)

If the word is an adjective, it cannot be used with by + agent and cannot be transposed into a sentence in the active.

12.8 The passive with verbs of ‘saying’ and ‘believing’

We need to be sure of our facts in a statement like Muriel pays less income tax than she should. It is often ‘safer’ to say e.g. Muriel is said to pay less income tax than she should. If it seems necessary to be cautious, we can use passive constructions like the following:

1 If (+ passive + that-clause) with verbs like agree, allege, arrange, assume, believe, consider, decide, declare, discover, expect, fear, feel, find, hope, imagine, know, observe, presume, prove, report, say, show, suggest, suppose, think, understand

It is said that there is plenty of oil off our coast

It is feared that many lives have been lost in the train crash

2 There (+ passive + to be + complement) with a limited selection of verbs: e.g. acknowledge, allege, believe, consider, fear, feel, know, presume, report, say, suppose, think, understand:

There is said to be plenty of oil off our coast

There are known to be thousands of different species of beetles

But compare by + agent and with [*means/method*, > 7.11] in: e.g. 
He was killed by a falling stone (accidental)
He was killed with a knife (deliberate) [compare > App 25.17]
12 The passive and the causative

3 Subject other than it (+ passive + to-infinitive) with a few verbs:
e.g. acknowledge, allege believe, consider declare, know,
recognize, report, say, suppose, think, understand

Mandy is said to be some kind of secret agent
Turner was considered to be a genius even in his lifetime
Homeopathic remedies are believed to be very effective

Other verbs beside be are possible in the infinitive:
Jane is said to know all there is to know about chimpanzees

Note how suppose has two different meanings in:
He is supposed to be at work at the moment
This can mean 'People think he is at work' or 'It is his duty to be at work'. There + be also combines with suppose

There is supposed to be a train at 12 37

12.9 Some typical contexts for the passive

12.9.1 Formal notices and announcements
Candidates are required to present themselves fifteen minutes before the examination begins. They are asked to be punctual.
Passengers are requested to remain seated until the aircraft comes to a complete stop [compare > 11.23].

12.9.2 Press reports
Often the agent is not known or does not need to be mentioned:
The search for the bank robbers continues Meanwhile many people have been questioned and the owner of the stolen getaway car has been traced.

12.9.3 Headlines, advertisements, notices, etc.
KENNEDY ASSASSINATED TRADE AGREEMENTS BROKEN
PRICES SLASHED ALL GOODS GREATLY REDUCED
PETROL COUPONS ACCEPTED

12.9.4 Scientific writing (to describe 'process')
The mixture is placed in a crucible and is heated to a temperature of 300°C. It is then allowed to cool before it can be analysed.

The causative

12.10 Form of the causative

The causative is formed with have + object + past participle: e.g.

Tenses:
present: We have our house decorated every year
We are having our house decorated soon
past: We had our house decorated last year
present perfect: We have just had our house decorated
future: We will have our house decorated next year
We'll be having our house decorated next year

Modals:
'present': We may have our house decorated next year
We may be having our house decorated soon
The causative

12.11 Notes on the form of the causative

1 Formation: regular and irregular past participles
We form the causative with have + noun or pronoun object + the past participle of a verb, regular or irregular [> Apps 39, 40]:
I've just had my car repaired
I'm going to have my hair cut
What about the children? - I'm having them collected at 6
Get can be used in place of have, but it has a more limited use and often conveys a slightly different meaning [> 12.13].
Care must be taken with the word order to avoid confusion:
I had built a house (past perfect)
I had a house built (causative: simple past)
2 Phrasal verbs
A sentence can end in a preposition or adverb particle [> 8.22]:
The fridge isn't working properly I'm having it looked at
There are instances where the past participle can be omitted:
I had a tooth out this morning (for pulled out)

12.12 The causative used for focus

12.12.1 The use of the causative for things
The causative is similar to the passive. We focus on what is done to something or someone, not on what someone does:
active: I'm servicing my car
(i.e. I'm doing the job myself; or I know who is doing it)
passive: My car is being serviced
(i.e. someone is doing the job for me)
causative: I'm having my car serviced
(i.e. I'm responsible for causing someone to do the job)
When we use the passive or the causative, we may not know or may not need to name who performs a service for us. However, in contrast to the passive, we use the causative to stress the fact that we are 'causing' someone else to perform a service for us. We therefore often use it with such verbs as build, clean, decorate, deliver, develop (a film), mend, photocopy, press print, repair, and service. We do not normally use the active (I am servicing my car) to mean that someone else is doing something for us. Nor can we say I want to cut my hair when we mean I want to have my hair cut. Note that by + agent is added only when it is necessary to mention who or what did the action: We're having/getting the job done by some local builders They are much cheaper and more reliable than anyone else

12.12.2 The use of the causative for people
The causative with verbs like coach, instruct, prepare, teach and train can refer to things we cause to be done to other people:
active: I'm teaching her English
(i.e. I'm teaching her myself)
passive: She's being taught English
(i.e. I may not know or wish to name the teacher)
causative: I'm having her taught English
(i.e. I'm responsible for causing someone to do the job)
Compare the construction 'have someone do something' [> 16.10.1].
12.12.3 Other related uses of 'have' + object + past participle

In the sense of 'experience'

You should understand by now You've had it explained often enough’ (= it has been explained to you)
When he got up to speak the minister had eggs thrown at him

In the sense of allow [compare > 10.38]

I refuse to have my house used as a hotel

To describe the present result of past action

We now have the problem solved

12.13 'Get' + object + past participle or infinitive

12.13.1 Causative 'have' and 'get' compared

Though have and get are often used interchangeably in the causative [> 12.11n1], get is more limited They are not interchangeable in e.g.

I had a tooth out this afternoon

Get is stronger than have (and contains a stronger idea of action by the subject) in e.g.

I must get this car serviced soon

In e.g.

I finally got my roof repaired

there is a suggestion of difficulty, which would not be conveyed by had

Get sounds more natural than have in the imperative

Get your hair cut’ Get your eyes tested

In suggestions with Why don’t you? get is much stronger than have

Why don’t you have your hair cut? (neutral suggestion)
Why don’t you get your hair cut? (almost an order)

12.13.2 ‘Get’ + to-infinitive to mean ‘persuade’, ‘manage to’, etc.

Get with an object before a to-infinitive conveys the idea of ‘persuade’ or ‘manage to’

I finally got the car to start by asking everyone to push it

Sometimes we use get + object + past participle to say that we managed to do something ourselves The stress is different from the stress in causative sentences Compare

I got the job done (stress on object = I did it myself)
I got (or had) the job done, (stress on participle someone else did it)

In the first of these examples, got could not be replaced by had and is not causative

12.13.3 Non-causative ‘get’ and 'have' + object + past participle

Get + object + past participle can be used in a non-causative way for accidents, disasters, etc that happen beyond our control

Don’t join in their argument or you might get your nose punched (i.e. that’s what might happen to you)

Non-causative have can be used in the same way [> 16.10]

She had her house destroyed in an earthquake
Yes/No questions and negative statements

13.1 Questions/negatives with 'be', 'have' and modals [> 11.5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>questions</td>
<td>negatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am late</td>
<td>I am not ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am I late?</td>
<td>Am I not ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was going</td>
<td>He is not late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was he going?</td>
<td>He isn't He's not late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has won</td>
<td>We are not going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has he won?</td>
<td>We aren't We're not going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She can swim</td>
<td>I cannot see you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can she swim?</td>
<td>I can't see you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It will rain</td>
<td>It will not rain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will it rain?</td>
<td>It won't rain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.2 Questions/negatives with 'do', 'does' and 'did' [> 10. 4 10.41-43]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>questions</td>
<td>negatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I You We/They</td>
<td>I don't work (full form) / (etc) don't work (short form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I dance</td>
<td>I don't dance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I You/He/She/It/We/They</td>
<td>I don't work (full form) / (etc) don't work (short form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He She It</td>
<td>He doesn't work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works well</td>
<td>He didn't work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I You/He/She/It/We/They</td>
<td>I didn't work (full form) / (etc) didn't work (short form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He She It</td>
<td>He didn't work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works well</td>
<td>He didn't work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I You/He/She/It/We/They</td>
<td>I didn't work (full form) / (etc) didn't work (short form)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.3 Yes/No questions: what they are and how they are formed

A Yes/No question is one which asks for Yes or No in the answer

Have you ever been to Egypt?       Haven't you ever been there?
Yes I have No I haven't
Does he like fish?                  Doesn't he like fish?
Yes he does No he doesn't

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13 Questions answers negatives

13.3.1 The formation of Yes/No questions with ‘be’, ‘have’ and modals
Statements with be [auxiliary or full verb > 10.6-7], have (auxiliary or sometimes full verb when have = ‘have got [> 10.27-30]) and modal verbs like can [> 11.5.2] can be turned into Yes/No questions by inversion. That is, the appropriate form of be have or the modal verb goes in front of the subject.

statement: He is leaving
inversion: Is he leaving?

13.3.2 The formation of Yes/No questions with ‘Do’, ‘Does’, and ‘Did’
With all other verbs we form Yes/No questions with Do ? Does ? (simple present) and Did ? (simple past) The form of the verb that follows Do Does or Did (+ subject) is always the bare infinitive (e.g. go play think [> 16.1])

Do goes before I/you/we/they for questions in the simple present
statement: I/You/We/They turn left here
Yes/No question: Do I/you/we/they turn left here?

Does goes before he/she/it for questions in the simple present
statement: He/She/It works well
Yes/No question: Does he/she/it work well?

Did is used in all persons to form questions in the simple past
statement: I/You/He/She/It/We/They arrived late
Yes/No question: Did I/you/he/she/it/We/They arrive late?

13.3.3 General points about Yes/No questions
1 A noun subject is not normally used in front of the auxiliary (Not *James is he leaving?*) unless we are addressing someone

statement: James are you going into the town? Susan do you like fish?

2 If there are a number of auxiliaries in the same sentence it is always the first one that goes in front of the subject

statement: He could have been delayed
question: Could he have been delayed?

3 The whole subject comes after the auxiliary however long it is

statement: Can everyone in the room hear me?

question: Does everyone in the room agree?

4 Questions like the following are possible in conversation when we wish to make it quite clear who or what we are referring to

statement: Has she caught a cold your mother? Is it all right that coffee?

question: Does he play football your brother?

5 In everyday speech some Yes/No questions can be abbreviated

statement: Leaving already? (For Are you ?)

question: Like another cup of tea? (For Would you ?)

statement: Enjoy the party? (For Did you ?)

6 We generally ask Yes/No questions with a rising intonation

statement: Have you finished your supper? Did you phone your mother?

7 Yes/No questions (exaggerated intonation) can be exclamations

statement: *Is he mad? Can she type? Did he annoy me* (no answers expected)
Yes/No questions and negative statements

13.4 Negative statements: what they are/how they are formed

A negative statement is the opposite of an affirmative statement. It says or means 'no' and contains a negative word such as not or never. Full negative forms (do not etc.) occur in formal style (written and spoken) and in emphatic speech. Contracted forms (e.g., don’t) are normal in conversational style. In written contracted forms, the apostrophe is used where a vowel has been omitted, so for example in the negative it will go between the n and the f, the two words of the full form did not, combine into one word didn’t.

13.4.1 The formation of negative statements with ‘be’, ‘have’ and modals

1. When a sentence contains be (auxiliary or full verb), have (auxiliary or sometimes full verb when have = ‘have got’), or a modal auxiliary (can, etc.), we form the negative by putting not after the auxiliary.

   **affirmative**  He is leaving
   **negative**  He is **not** leaving / He’s **not** leaving / He isn’t leaving

2. If there are a number of auxiliaries in the same sentence, not always goes after the first one.

   affirmative  He could have been delayed
   negative  He **could not**/couldn’t have been delayed

13.4.2 The formation of negative statements with ‘do’, ‘does’ and ‘did’

Do not (don’t) does not (doesn’t) (simple present) and did not (didn’t) (simple past) go after the subject to form negative statements with other verbs. The verb that follows do/does/did + not is always in the form of a bare infinitive (>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Present</th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>I/You/We/They turn left here</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>I/You/We/They <strong>don’t turn</strong> left here</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Past</th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>He/She/It works well</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>He/She/It <strong>doesn’t work</strong> well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.4.3 ‘Be’, ‘have’ and modals compared with ‘do/does’ and ‘did’

Note that do is not normally required in affirmative sentences and is not used to form tenses in the same way as be and have.

1. Affirmative statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Auxiliary</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>re</td>
<td>working too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>ve</td>
<td>eaten too much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>may</td>
<td>stop now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ate too much yesterday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auxiliary</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>working too hard?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>eaten too much?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>stop now?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>work too hard?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>eat too much yesterday?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13 Questions answers negatives

3 Negative statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>not</th>
<th>predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>working too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>eaten too much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>may</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>go out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>work too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>eat too much yesterday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers

13.5 Form of Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be[&gt;10 6]</th>
<th>Yes/No questions</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you ready?</td>
<td>Yes I am</td>
<td>No I'm not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is he leaving?</td>
<td>Yes he is</td>
<td>No he isn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were you ill?</td>
<td>Yes we were</td>
<td>No we weren't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>have[&gt;10 27]</th>
<th>Have you finished?</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Has she left?</td>
<td>Yes she has</td>
<td>No she hasn't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>do[&gt;10 41]</th>
<th>Do you like it?</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does it work?</td>
<td>Yes it does</td>
<td>No it doesn't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>did[&gt;10 41]</th>
<th>Did you paint it?</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>modals[&gt;11 5]</th>
<th>Can I see him?</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

13.6 Notes on the form of Yes/No questions and answers

1 The first verb in the question (i.e., the auxiliary or modal) is usually repeated in the answer.
   - *Was James late?*: Yes he was No he wasn’t
   - *Can James play chess?*: Yes he can No he can’t
   - But note *Are you?*: Yes I am No I’m not and *Were you?*
     - *Yes I was No I wasn’t* where the verb is repeated, but in a different form [compare > 11.35.2]
   - Variations with modals are common when we are not sure of our answers [> 11.31] Auxiliary verbs are often stressed in answers.
     - *Is that Vicki?*/Might that be Vicki?
     - *Yes it is* Yes it *might be It could be It must be* - No it isn’t No it might not be It couldn’t be It can’t be

2 Full negative short answers (e.g., *No I do not*) only occur in emphatic or formal speech in ordinary conversation, contracted forms (e.g., *No I don’t*) are normal.

3 Of course, many other answers are possible in response to Yes/No questions, and sometimes *Yes* and *No* can be omitted.
   - *Did you watch the news on TV last night?*
     - *Yes but not all of it No I never watch TV*
     - *I watched some of it I watched a cartoon instead*
     - *Of course I can’t remember I think so Not really*
   - Other examples of expressions used in place of *Yes* *No* are
certainly naturally I think so I expect so perhaps maybe I don’t think so of course not at all
13.7 When we use Yes/No questions and answers

It is very unusual to answer a Yes/No question in full

- Did James go to the theatre last night?
  - Yes he went to the theatre last night
  - No he didn't go to the theatre last night

It is also unusual to answer very briefly with Yes or No, as this can easily be interpreted as unfriendly or rude

- Do you like dancing? - Yes /No

Short answers save us from repeating the question and give scope for expression, compared with plain Yes or No

- Did you lock the back door? - Yes I did /No I didn't
- for requesting and supplying information
  - Did you lock the back door? - Yes I did /No I didn't
- for expressing agreement or disagreement with statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>agreement</th>
<th>disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's raining</td>
<td>- Yes it is</td>
<td>- No it isn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It isn't raining</td>
<td>- No it isn't</td>
<td>- Yes it is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- for expressing confirmation in response to statements
  - It was a very good performance - Yes it was
  - It wasn't a very good performance - No it wasn't
- in response to the imperative
  - Drive carefully - (Yes) I will
  - Don't take any risks - (No) I won't [compare > 10.5.1]
  - We answer with will/won't because the imperative points to the future

13.8 Negative statements with 'negative adverbs' [> 7.59.3 App 19]

We can make negative and near-negative sentences with adverbs like never seldom rarely hardly ever scarcely ever (frequency), and barely hardly scarcely (= only just) Sentences which include one of these words or phrases are sometimes called 'implied negatives

- We never see them nowadays (more emphatic than We don't see)
- We hardly (ever)/scarcely (ever)/rarely see them nowadays

For the effect of negative adverbs on word order [> 7.59.3]

13.9 Negatives with 'no' and 'not any' [> 4.37.5.11]

No any and their compounds form negatives as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'No' and 'no'-compounds</th>
<th>'Any' and 'any'-compounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>affirmative verb</td>
<td>negative verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I've got no time</td>
<td>I haven't got any time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I've seen no one/nobody</td>
<td>I haven't seen any one/anybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I've bought none of them</td>
<td>I haven't bought any of them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I've done nothing today</td>
<td>I haven't done anything today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I've been nowhere today</td>
<td>I haven't been anywhere today</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two kinds of negatives have the same meaning though no is generally more emphatic than not any
13.10 Only one negative in any one clause
We cannot normally use a negative adverb or a word like nobody in combination with a negative verb Compare

I can’t get any eggs / I can get no eggs
I can never (or hardly) get any information etc

Two negative words in a sentence make a ‘double negative’ A double negative can be used to express an affirmative, but this is rare or sometimes heard in joking

Nobody did nothing (= Everybody did something)

More than one negative is acceptable when there is co-ordination

I’ve never had and never wanted a television set

Negatives are also possible in different clauses

I can never get in touch with Thomas as he has no telephone

And note We can’t not go (= We can’t avoid going) [> 16.14]

13.11 Nouns, verbs and adjectives with negative meanings
Other parts of speech besides adverbs have a negative effect
- nouns such as denial failure refusal
  His failure to react quickly enough caused the crash (= He did not react quickly enough and this caused the crash)
- verbs such as deny fail forget refuse, which can be used in the affirmative and the negative and often attract words like any [> 5.10]
  She refused any help (= She did not accept any help)
- adjectives like improbable unlikely
  It’s now unlikely that he’ll be here in time for lunch (= He probably won’t be here in time for lunch)

Compare the negative effect of the preposition without [> 16.51]

13.12 Cancellation of what has just been said
The word not can be used without an auxiliary immediately before a word to cancel what has just been said

See you Wednesday - (No), not Wednesday Thursday
Ask Diana (No), not Diana Ask her sister
I’ll see you at 5 - (No), not at 5 Maybe at 5:30

We can also use nor to replace a negative imperative

Invite the Smiths but not the Robinsons (= but don’t invite)

13.13 Beginning a sentence with a negative
Statements can begin with negative words like nothing or negative phrases with nofollowed by affirmative verbs [compare > 5.8 5.13]

Not many people enjoy washing up
He’s written a lot of books but not all of them are novels
Nobody loves a bad loser
Nothing has happened here since you’ve been away

When a sentence begins with a negative adverb such as never the word order is affected [> 7.59.3]

Never has there been such an effort to save whales from extinction
Negative questions and Yes/No short answers

13.14 Form of negative questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am I not late?</td>
<td>Aren’t I late?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aren’t I they not waiting?</td>
<td>Isn’t I they waiting?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was I not ill?</td>
<td>Wasn’t I ill?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have I not finished?</td>
<td>Haven’t I finished?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hasn’t she left?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you not like it?</td>
<td>Don’t you like it?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t it work?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you not paint it?</td>
<td>Didn’t you paint it?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.15 Notes on the form of negative questions

In negative Yes/No questions there is a difference in word order between the full form and the short form

full form  Did he not invite you out? {not comes after the subject}
short form Didn’t he invite you out? (auxiliary + n’t before verb)

Sometimes the subject may be repeated at the end especially in everyday conversation, when we want to make it quite clear who or what we are referring to [compare > 13.3.3n4]

Aren’t they a nuisance these roadworks?

13.16 When we ask negative questions

We generally ask negative questions
- when we are expecting, inviting or hoping for the answer Yes

Don’t you remember that holiday we had in Spain? ~ Yes I do
- Yes I do  (No I don’t would be possible but unexpected)
- when we wish to express surprise, disbelief or exasperation

Can’t you (really) ride a bicycle? ~ No I can’t
- when we wish to persuade someone

Won’t you help me? (= Please help me) [compare > 11.21]
- Oh all right then /No I’m afraid I can’t/won’t etc
- when we want to criticize or to express annoyance or sarcasm

Can’t you shut the door behind you? (no answer expected)
- in exclamations (with falling intonation)

Didn’t he do well? Isn’t it hot in here?

An exclamation can also be used as a reply to a statement
He has been very successful - Yes hasn’t he?

We use the full form in formal questions or when we require special emphasis to express anger, surprise, etc

Have I not asked you again and again to be here on time?
and in rhetorical questions not requiring an answer

Are there not more than enough weapons of destruction on earth?
13 Questions, answers, negatives

Where the subject is a noun not can come after the auxiliary:

*Are not more people* dying of cancer these days?*

Full form and short form questions can be answered with Yes/No short answers. The auxiliary does not echo the form of the question (i.e. *Did* you? - *Yes, I did* / *No, I didn’t*), but indicates what the facts are:

*Didn’t you* (or *Did you not*) go to a party last night?  
- *Yes, I did* (i.e. I did go to a party last night.)  
- *No, I didn’t* (i.e. I didn’t go to a party last night.)  
- *No, I did not* (emphatic denial)

Tag questions and Yes/No short answers

13.17 Form of tag questions: affirmative - negative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>be [&gt; 10.6]</em>:</td>
<td>I’m late,</td>
<td>aren’t I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They’re late,</td>
<td>aren’t they?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We were waiting</td>
<td>weren’t we?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>have [&gt; 10.27]</em>:</td>
<td>I’ve finished,</td>
<td>haven’t I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He’s left,</td>
<td>hasn’t he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>do [&gt; 10.41]</em>:</td>
<td>You like it,</td>
<td>don’t you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It works,</td>
<td>doesn’t it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>did</em></td>
<td>You painted it,</td>
<td>didn’t you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>modals [&gt; 11.5]</em>:</td>
<td>I can see him,</td>
<td>can’t I?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.18 Form of tag questions: negative - affirmative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>be [&gt; 10.6]</em>:</td>
<td>I’m not late,</td>
<td>am I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He isn’t leaving</td>
<td>is he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I wasn’t</td>
<td>was I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>have [&gt; 10.27]</em>:</td>
<td>I haven’t finished,</td>
<td>have I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He hasn’t left</td>
<td>has he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>do [&gt; 10.41]</em>:</td>
<td>You don’t like it,</td>
<td>do you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It doesn’t work,</td>
<td>does it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You didn’t paint it,</td>
<td>did you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>modals [&gt; 11.5]</em>:</td>
<td>I can’t see him,</td>
<td>can’t I?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.19 Notes on the form of tag questions

1 A tag question is a short question (e.g. have you?/haven’t you?) that follows a statement. Auxiliaries (*be have, can, may,* etc.) used in the statement are repeated at the end followed by the subject (always a pronoun):

*John was annoyed, wasn’t he?*  
(affirmative - negative)  
*He wasn’t annoyed, was he?*  
(negative - affirmative)
Tag questions and Yes/No short answers

2 With all other verbs, tag questions are formed with do/don’t and does/doesn’t (simple present) and did/didn’t (simple past): (affirmative - negative) (negative - affirmative)

You like fish, don’t you? You don’t like fish, do you?
He likes fish, doesn’t he? He doesn’t like fish, does he?
She ate it all, didn’t she? She didn’t eat it all, did she?
This also applies to have and do as full verbs:
You have tea at 4, don’t you? You don’t have tea at 4, do you?
He does his job, doesn’t he? He doesn’t do his job, does he?

3 The negative tag at the end can be unabbreviated in formal style or for special emphasis, though this form is not very usual:
Julia runs five miles a day to keep fit, does she not?

4 Tag questions are also possible with there.
There’ll be a rail strike tomorrow, won’t there?

5 Affirmative tags can follow other statements that are negative in meaning [> 13.8]:
You never/seldom work on Sundays, do you?

6 Tags can be used after indefinite pronouns [> 4.40]:
Nobody’s been told, have they?
Everyone’s ready to leave now, aren’t they?

7 Note that this and that are replaced by it [> 4.36]:
This/That (suit) is expensive, isn’t it?

13.20 Form of tag questions: affirmative - affirmative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>toe [&gt; 10 6]</td>
<td>I’m rude. He’s leaving. I was impatient.</td>
<td>am I? is he? was I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have [&gt; 10.27]</td>
<td>I’ve finished. She’s left.</td>
<td>have I? has she?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do [&gt; 10.41]</td>
<td>You like it. It works. You painted it.</td>
<td>do you? does it? did you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>did</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modals [&gt; 11 5]</td>
<td>I can see him.</td>
<td>can I?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.21 Note on the form of affirmative - affirmative tags
This form is less common than the two other kinds of tag questions. A negative - negative form is also grammatically possible, but is very rare and is used to convey aggression:
So he won’t pay his bills, won’t he? We’ll see about that
For Let’s [> 11.40.2, 16.4.1] and imperative + tag [> 9.55].

13.22 Uses of tag questions + Yes/No short answers
Many languages have a single fixed expression to convey the general idea of ‘isn’t that so?’ to ask people whether they agree with you. By comparison, English has a complex system of tags which can be
used, with varying forms and intonation, to express a subtle range of meanings. Tags are the essence of conversational style and are very important in spoken English. Certain fixed phrases can be used in place of tags: e.g. *isn’t that true?, don’t you think/agree?* in formal style and *right? OK? and even eh?* in informal style.

13.22.1 **Affirmative - negative/negative - affirmative: factual information**
When we ask tag questions with a rising tone, we are asking real questions which expect Yes/No answers. However, tag questions often convey more than simple Yes/No questions: as well as asking for information, they can express surprise, anger, interest, etc.: *You left the gas on, didn’t you? (= Did you leave the gas on?) You didn’t leave the gas on, did you? (= I hope you didn’t.) You couldn’t do me a favour, could you? (= I hope you can.)*

13.22.2 **Affirmative - negative/negative - affirmative: confirmation**
When tag questions are asked with a falling tone, they are more like statements: the falling tone suggests greater certainty. They ask for confirmation of what the questioner assumes to be true.

Affirmative - negative expects a positive confirmation:  
*You locked the door didn’t you? - (Yes, I did)*

Negative - affirmative expects a negative confirmation:  
*You didn’t lock the door, did you? - (No, I didn’t)*

13.22.3 **Affirmative - affirmative tag questions: confirmation, etc.**
Affirmative - affirmative tag questions with a rising tone sometimes ask for confirmation of something the speaker already knows, expressing friendly interest, etc. (i.e. Tell me more’):
*So she’s getting married, is she? (= Tell me more!)  
- Yes, she’s got engaged to a doctor The wedding s in June etc.*

However, with a falling tone, affirmative - affirmative tags are often used to express one’s disappointment:  
*You sold that lovely bracelet, did you? (= I’m sorry you did.)  
You call this a day’s work, do you?= I certainly don’t!)
*I’ll get my money back, will I? (= I don’t believe it!)  
So you thought you’d fooled me, did you?*

**Statement-questions and Yes/No answers**

13.23 **Statement-questions**
Statement-questions are questions which have the same basic grammatical structure as statements but which are expressed by using a rising tone:  
*You’re coming with us? You aren’t hungry? It isn’t 4 o’clock?*
Echo tags

Surely can be added for emphasis:

He's finished, surely? Surely he hasn't gone home already?
This is the standard way of asking Yes/No questions in many languages, but it is not common in English.

Statement-questions are used to seek confirmation, expecting the answer Yes if they are affirmative and No if they are negative. They ask for confirmation of what the speaker assumes to be true, or thinks he has misheard or imperfectly recalled:

You're out of work? You aren't hungry?
- Yes, I am, I'm afraid - No, I had a big breakfast
The assumption made by the questioner may also be contradicted:

You turned the lights off? ~ No, I didn't.

We also use statement-questions to echo statements. In doing so, we may express surprise, pleasure, etc. or confirm what we have just heard, or we may be asking for a statement to be explained:

I forgot the milk - You forgot the milk? (= Please explain!)

Echo tags

13.24 Form of echo tags

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be/have:</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[- 10.6, 10.27]</td>
<td>He's resigning</td>
<td>He isn't resigning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Is he? He is?</td>
<td>- Isn't he? He isn't?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- He is isn't he?</td>
<td>- He isn't, is he?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>do/does/did</th>
<th>I work all night</th>
<th>I don't work all night</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[- 10.41]</td>
<td>- Do you? You do?</td>
<td>- Don't you? You don't?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- You do, don't you?</td>
<td>- You don't do you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- You do, do you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>modals:</th>
<th>can wait till tomorrow</th>
<th>I can't wait till tomorrow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[- 11.5]</td>
<td>- Can you? You can?</td>
<td>- Can you? You can't?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- You can, can you?</td>
<td>- You can't, can you?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.25 Notes on the form of echo tags

1 An echo tag is a response, in tag form, to an affirmative or negative statement by which we may or may not request further information depending on the intonation we use.

He has resigned
Has he? etc.
- He hasn't resigned
- Hasn't he? etc.

2 Where there is no auxiliary (i.e. in the affirmative), do does or did must be used:

She works all night
Does she?
- She doesn't work all night
- Doesn't she?
13 Questions, answers, negatives

3 Echo tags can be formed with there:
   - There'll be a strike soon.
   - There won't be a strike tomorrow
   - Will there?
   - Won't there?

4 Negative - negative combinations (He won't, won't he?) may be
   used to express anger or menace, but are very unusual.

13.26 When we use echo tags

Echo tags are used constantly in everyday conversation to request
further information, seek confirmation, to express interest, concern,
anger, surprise, disbelief, suspicion, etc., or to show that we are listening.

1 To request more information, express interest, etc., rising tone:
   I've just won £500! - Have you?/You have?
   - You haven't, have you? (= How interesting! Tell me more!)

2 To confirm what might already be known/guessed, falling tone:
   I'm afraid he's made a bad mistake - He has, hasn't he?

3 To express anger, disbelief, suspicion, etc.:
   I've got the sack - You haven't!
   (falling tone)
   Falling tone on the statement, rising on the tag:
   You haven't, have you? (= disbelief)
   You have, have you? (= anger)

13.27 Reinforcement tags for emphasis

Reinforcement tags are similar to echo tags: they emphasize the
speaker's point of view. They are usually affirmative - affirmative
and are typical of colloquial English:
   You're in trouble, you are
   Gilbert annoyed me, he did
   Jim's lied to me, he has
   You're making a fool of yourself, you are

Tags can also be added to abbreviated statements:
   Likes her comfort, she does
   And note:
   He likes his beer, does Fred/Fred does

A noun or noun phrase can serve as a tag in: e.g.
   They re all the same men
   Very nice, these cakes

Additions and responses

13.28 Form of additions and responses

These additions, etc. work with be, have, do and some modals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel addition</th>
<th>contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>and I can, too</td>
<td>but I can't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can't speak French</td>
<td>and I can't, either</td>
<td>but I can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>and I do, too</td>
<td>but I don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn't speak French</td>
<td>and I don't either</td>
<td>but I do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additions and responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel addition</th>
<th>contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>and so can I</td>
<td>but I can't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can't speak French</td>
<td>and neither/nor can I</td>
<td>but I can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>and so do I</td>
<td>but I don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn't speak French</td>
<td>and neither/nor do I</td>
<td>but I do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel response</th>
<th>confirmation, surprised agreement, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>I can, too or So can I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can't speak French</td>
<td>I can't, either or Neither/Nor can I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>I do, too or So do I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn't speak French</td>
<td>I don't, either or Neither/Nor do I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.29 When and how we use additions and responses

13.29.1 Contracted forms with 'so', 'nor', etc.
Additions and responses with so, neither and nor are contracted where possible. These contractions do not normally occur in writing, even in written dialogue, but they are often used in speech: So'm I, Neither'm I, Nor'm I. So's he (So is he/So has he); Nor's he (Nor is he/Nor has he), So've I, Neither've I, Nor've I So'll I, Neither'll I, Nor'll I. So'd you (So had/would you); Neither'd you (Neither had/would you); Nor'd you (Nor had/would you).

13.29.2 The use of auxiliaries with 'so', 'nor', etc.
The auxiliary is repeated in the parallel addition or response. If there is no auxiliary, do, does or did must be used. This makes it unnecessary to repeat a clause:

You should work less and so should I  
You shouldn't work so hard and nor should I

I went to a meeting last night - So did I.

13.29.3 'Too' and 'either' in affirmative and negative statements
Either must replace too in negative statements [> 7.56]:
I went to the meeting too I didn't go to the meeting either
Very informally Me too, Nor me, Me neither are often used in responses [> 4.7.2]. Other nouns and object pronouns are possible:
I'm glad it's Friday - Me too! (I am too) Us too! (We are too)
I don't want to go to a political meeting - Nor me/Me neither!

13.29.4 'So', 'neither' and 'nor' in additions and responses
In parallel additions and responses, so is followed by auxiliary + subject: so did I, etc. In confirmations so is followed by subject + auxiliary: So you have, etc. Compare:
I've got a rash on my arm and so have you
I've got a rash on my arm - So you have!
I've got a new car - So has John.
John's got a new car - So he has!

Neither and nor are completely interchangeable in additions and responses [> 13.28].
Question-word questions: form and use

13.30 Form of question-word questions

For subject-questions, eg *Who came? What happened?* [> 13.41]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>question-word</th>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who(m)</td>
<td>are/aren’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>have/haven’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>has/hasn’t</td>
<td>she ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why</td>
<td>do/don’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>does/doesn’t</td>
<td>she ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose</td>
<td>did/didn’t</td>
<td>we ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How</td>
<td>can/can’t</td>
<td>I ?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.31 Notes on the form of question-word questions

1 In questions of this kind inversion with the auxiliary must occur after the question-word. The sequence is question word first, auxiliary next, then the subject.

   - *statement:* He is isn’t working
   - *inversion:* He (is; isn’t) working

   - *Yes/No question:* Is he isn’t he working?
   - *question-word:* Why is isn’t he working?

2 In the simple present of verbs other than *be*, question-word questions are formed with *do* or *does*, and in the simple past with *did*.

   - *statement:* We arrive at 8
   - *Yes/No question:* Do we arrive at 8? Don’t we arrive at 8?

   - *question-word:* When do we arrive? Why don’t we arrive at 8?

3 Question words + auxiliaries are frequently contracted in everyday speech and written dialogue. This is more common when the question-word ends with a vowel sound (*Who’s?* *Whom?*) than when it ends with a consonant (*Which?* *Whose?*). Those marked * commonly occur in informal writing.

   - *Who*  
     - *Who’s ?* = *Who is ?* or *Who has ?*
     - *Who d ?* = *Who had ?* or *Who would ?*
     - *Who ll ?* = *Who will ?*

   - *What*  
     - *What’s ?* = *What is ?* or *What has ?*
     - *Whatve ?* = *What have ?*
     - *What ll ?* = *What will ?*
Question-word questions form and use

*When’s? = When is? or When has?
When’ve? = When have?
Which
Which’ll? = When will?
Which’ve? = Which have?
Why
Which’ll? = Which will?
Whys? = Why is? or Why has?
Why’d? = Why had? or Why would?
Why’ll? = Why will?
*Where’s? = Where is? or Where has?
Where’ve? = Where have?
Where’d? = Where had? or Where
Where’ll? = Where will?
*How’s? = How is? or How has?
How’ve? = How have?
How’d? = How had? or How would?
How’ll? = How will?

4 When we ask a Wh question using a verb + preposition/particle we normally put the preposition/particle at the end (> 8.22 13.33)
Who(m) are you going with? What are you looking at?
Where did you get that suit from?
How on earth can I get these shoes on?
In very formal English, prepositions can precede question-words
To whom should I apply for more information?
In which hall will the recital be given?

5 Question-words are followed by prepositions in short questions
We're off on holiday tomorrow - Where to?
Will you beat these eggs for me? - What with?
I want to leave this parcel - Who for?
More formally, prepositions can precede question words
I'm going out this evening - With whom?

6 Short questions consisting of single question-words or limited combinations are common in everyday speech when we are asking for repetition (e.g. What?), brief information or clarification
We're off to Chicago - When?
This old lady came up to me and said - Which (old) lady?
This old lady came up to me and said - She said what?

7 Question-word questions can echo statements to express surprise, anger, concern, etc
I'm afraid I used your comb on the dog - You did what with it?

8 All question-words except Which and Whose can combine with else to refer to people, things, places, etc
What else have you bought? Where else did you go?

How we use question-words

We ask question-word + inversion-type questions to elicit any element in a sentence other than the identity of the subject statement
Elaine went to her mothers by bus yesterday because the trains weren't running
13 Questions, answers, negatives

Note the 'target' of each of the following questions None of them produces the answer 'Elaine' The answer may be a single word, a phrase, a clause, or even a whole sentence [but > 13.41-42]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>questions</th>
<th>answers</th>
<th>'target'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When did Elaine go to her mothers?</td>
<td>Yesterday</td>
<td>adverb of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did Elaine go yesterday?</td>
<td>To her mother's</td>
<td>adverb of place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did she get there?</td>
<td>By bus</td>
<td>adverb of manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose house did Elaine go to?</td>
<td>Her mother's</td>
<td>adverb of place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why did she go by bus?</td>
<td>Because the trains weren't running</td>
<td>clause of reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did Elaine do yesterday?</td>
<td>She went to her mother's by bus</td>
<td>whole sentence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes two or more question-words are used in a question

Where and when shall I pick you up?

How and why did Louis XIV justify the invasion of the Spanish Netherlands? (This kind of question is common in exam papers)

Particular question-words and their uses

13.33 'Who(m)...?' as a question-word

Who(m) ? asks for the object of a sentence, usually a person's name

subject verb object

statement Frank met Alice

Who(m)-question Who(m) did Frank meet? - Alice

Who(m) ? refers only to people and can be used to inquire about masculine, feminine, singular or plural, so the answer to the above question could be Alice, John or Alice and John

Though Whom ? is still used in formal English, spoken or written, Who ? is generally accepted in everyday style Who(m) ? often occurs in questions with verbs followed by to or for

Who(m) did you give it to/did you buy it for? [compare > 8.22]

13.34 'What...?' as a question-word

What ? can be answered by a whole sentence

What are you doing? - I'm reading 'Kim'

What can also ask about the object of a sentence which might, for example, be a thing, a substance, a date, a measurement, etc

subject verb object

statement I am reading 'Kim'

What-question What are you reading? 'Kim'

What? can also be used in a variety of combinations, such as

13.34.1 'What book/books...?' 'What boy/boys...?' [compare > 13.36.1 ]

What + noun asks about things (singular or plural) or substances

What book/books did you buy? What soap do you use?

What + noun can sometimes ask about the identity of people, male or female, singular or plural

What book/books/girls/people did you meet at the party?

but this is less common, since we generally ask about people with

Who(m) ? What ? on its own refers only to things and to an
unlimited and unspecified choice. So, for example, the question *What would you like?* with reference to a menu is not limited - except, of course, by the extent of the menu itself. Where the choice is limited and specified, we often prefer *Which?* as in eg *Which would you prefer beef or lamb?*

13.34.2 'What (be, look, etc.) like?' [compare > 6.1]
We use *What like?* to obtain descriptions of e g
- people or things, appearance or characteristics
  *What's your brother like?* (= 'to look at' or 'as a person')
  *What's your car like?* (= 'to look at' or 'as a vehicle/to drive')
- the weather, climate, etc
  *What's the weather like today? What's it like today?*

13.34.3 'What...?': names, etc.
- people *What's he called?* (= 'What's his name?') *He's called John*
- technical terms, etc *What's this called? It's called microchip*
- foreign words *What's this called in English? It's called chalk*
- *What + make What make is your car? - It's a Volvo*

13.34.4 'What...?': nationality, jobs, etc.
*What nationality are you?* - / I'm Spanish (= I'm from Spain )
*What does she do (for a living)?* - She's an optician
And *what's her husband?* (= What does her husband do?)

13.34.5 'What time/date/year?'
These combinations are broadly the equivalent of *When?* except that they ask for more specific information
*What time/date will he arrive? - At 4 /On June 14th*

13.34.6 'What...for?'
This combination asks for a description of the use or purpose of things or substances
*What's this (thing) for?* - (It's for) peeling potatoes
*What + clause + for can act as the equivalent of why?* The answer often begins with *Because* or has a to-infinitive
*What did you do that for?* (= Why did you do that?)
  *Because I was signalling that I'm turning left*
- To signal that I'm turning left

13.34.7 'What kind(s)/sort(s) of...??' [compare > App 7.16-17]
This combination asks for precise information and we expect a description in the answer
*What kind/sort of picture do you like best?*
*What kinds/sorts of pictures do you like best?*
What kind of pictures ? is often heard in speech

13.34.8 'What colour...?', 'What size...?'
*What colour?* and *What colours?* are used to inquire about colour
*What colour is your new tie?* - It's red
What combines with nouns such as *size height age length breadth width depth*, to inquire about dimension, etc. The structure is parallel to *How big/high/old/long?* etc [*13.40.2, 6.16]*
*What size shoes do you take?* - (Size) 41
*What's the height of Everest? What height is Everest?*
13 Questions answers negatives

13.35 'When...?' as a question-word
We use *When* to inquire about time (either precise references or general periods of time) in the present, past or future. The answers are usually adverbs of time or prepositional phrases.

*adverb of time*  
*When* is your flight? - *Tomorrow morning*

*prepositional phrase*  
*When* will he arrive? - *At 4*

13.36 'Which...?' as a question-word
Questions with *Which* can ask about the object of a sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am reading</td>
<td><em>Kim</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Which-question*  
*Which novel are you reading?* - *'Kim'*

*Which + noun can be used in a variety of combinations*

13.36.1 'Which book/books...?' [compare > 13.34.1]
We use *Which + noun* to inquire about things (singular or plural) or substances.

*Which book/books do you prefer?*  
*Which soap do you like best?*

*Which + noun can be used just as easily to ask about the identity of people, male or female, singular or plural*

*Which boy/boys/girl/girls did you meet at the party?*

*Which always refers to a limited specified choice [> 13.34.1] It can be used on its own in this sense, especially for things*

*Which books did you buy?* (i.e. of the ones you were looking at a limited selection of items)

*Which is the longest river in the world the Amazon or the Nile?*

*Which?* often combines with the comparative and superlative

*Which is the cheaper/the cheapest?* (e.g. of the ones on the shelf)

13.36.2 'Which of them/of the two...?' [compare > Which one(s)? 4.10]
We often use *Which of...?* (the *of phrase is optional) when we refer to preference and choice between two or more items.

*I like both these bags Which (of the two) do you prefer?*

*I like all these bags Which (of them) do you prefer?*

13.36.3 Which day/month/year...?'
These combinations are more specific than *When*?

*Don't forget Sam's birthday?* - *I won't Which/What day is it?*

13.36.4 'Which way...?'
*Which way?* asks for more precise information than *Where?*

*Which way did they go?* (i.e. two or more ways to choose from)

13.37 'Why...?' as a question-word

13.37.1 'Why...?: reason and purpose [> 1.48, 1.51]
*Why* questions may ask for a reason or reasons which can be supplied with *Because* (Not "*Why *")

*Why didn't you tell me* John had left you?

*Because I didn't want to burden you with my troubles*

*Because is often omitted (and therefore implied) in responses*

*A to-infinitive or because can answer Why? [purpose > 16.12.1]*

*Why did you do this way?* - *To save time* ('because I wanted to')
Particular question words and their uses

37.2 Why don’t/doesn’t...?’ and Why not?’
Why + don’t can be used to make suggestions

I don’t like this wallpaper - Then why don’t you change it?

Why not followed by a bare infinitive can be used in the same way

Why not wait till the winter sales to buy a new coat

Why not? (in place of a ‘Why’ question) can ask for a reason

I’m not going to work today - Why not?
or can be used in response to suggestions

Let’s eat out tonight - Yes why not?

It can be used defensively in

Are you really going to sue them? - Yes why not?

37.3 Some functional uses of ‘Why...?’

Why + verb often conveys the meaning of ‘It’s not worth the trouble to’ or ‘I don’t think you should’

I think I ought to tidy this place up

- Why bother? (i.e. it’s not worth bothering to)

You’re fully insured so why worry?

Why combines with modals to convey a variety of emotions, etc

- anger Why can’t you shut up?
- irritation/complaint Why should I do it?
- failure to understand Why should the boiling point of water be lower at the top of a mountain?

38 ‘Where...?’ as a question-word

Where is used to inquire about place (either precise references or general ones) The answers to Where questions can be whole sentences, phrases or single words

Where is he? - He’s over there. Over there! There!

Where did you get that ladder from? - From the garage.

In everyday speech Where’s can combine with a plural subject

Where’s your keys? - They’re here [compare Here’s > 7.9.1]

Where from? asks for the origin of people or things

Where are you from? Where do you come from? - Spain

That’s a lovely vase Where’s it from? - China

39 ‘Whose...?’ as a question-word

Whose asks about possession The possessor is always a person and we expect the answer to be somebody’s name + s (Kate’s) or a possessive pronoun (e.g. mine) When the possession is a thing, things, or a substance, the noun can be omitted after Whose

Whose (umbrella) is this? - (It’s) mine

Whose (umbrellas) are these? - (They’re) mine

Whose (coffee) is this? - (It’s) mine

When the ‘possession’ is a person, Whose is followed by a noun

Whose son/daughter is (s)he? - Kate’s (Kate’s son/daughter)

Whose children are they? - The Lakers (the Lakers’ children)

Note that questions with Whose can also be phrased as

Whose is this (umbrella)? Whose are those children?
13 Questions, answers, negatives

13.40 'How...?' as a question-word

13.40.1 'How much...?/How many...?'
How can combine with much to inquire about the quantity of a substance or the volume of a liquid [uncountable nouns > 2.14].

How much sugar/milk do you want in your tea?

How much can combine with abstract uncountable nouns as well:

How much time have we? How much space is there on that shelf?

How much can also refer to cost:

How much does this cost? (i.e. How much money?)

How can combine with many to inquire about number (people and things: i.e. plural countable nouns) [> 5.13]:

How many people are invited? How many windows are broken?

13.40.2 'How...?' + adjective or adverb
How will combine with a variety of adjectives, some of which can also function as adverbs, such as: big, deep, far, hard, long, old, sharp wide [> 7.13-14 and compare > 6.16]:

How far is it to Banbury? How far did you drive today?

How combines more readily with adjectives expressing a higher, rather than a lower, degree: How long/old, etc. rather than How little/short/young. We only use How + lower degree adjectives when we are particularly concerned about smallness, etc.: I think he’s too young for the job - How young is he then?

We need a short article to fill the paper - How short must it be?

How + adjectives referring to dimension (e.g. How long?) are similar in meaning to What + nouns (dimension) e.g. What length? [> 13.34.8]:

How long is this pool? (= What length is this pool?)

13.40.3 'How...?' + adverb
How combines with adverbs to ask about:
- frequency: How often do you visit your mother? - Once a week
- degree: How well do you know him? - Nor very well
- time: How quickly can you do it for me? - In two days

13.40.4 'How...?': manner and process
How questions can ask about manner or process. Some questions need a whole sentence in reply:

How did you spend your time while you were on holiday?

Some questions like this can be answered with by + -ing:

How did you finish the job so soon? - By climbing on to the roof

How combines with modals in:
- rude responses: Why ask me? How should I know?
- argument/reproof: How can you say a thing like that?
- exclamations: How could she do such a thing!

Adverbs of manner can sometimes answer How? questions:

How did he speak? - (Rather) well/inaudibly

It isn't always clear what kind of answer a How? question requires:

How did she cut Sue's hair? - Beautifully /Very short /With a fringe /With the kitchen scissors

13.40.5 'How long...?' time
How long? (with optional for) asks about duration:
question-word questions: subject-questions

13.40.6 Some social uses of 'How...?'

'introductions': How do you do? is a formula in formal introductions and is never used to inquire about health:
A: Mrs Simms, this is Mr McGregor
B: How do you do?
C: How do you do? (in reply to B)

'health': Common formulas for asking about health or general well-being are: How are you?, How have you been? How are you keeping?, How have you been keeping?

'present circumstances': How is often used to inquire about 'present circumstances' in questions like: How's life?, How are (or How's) things?, How's the garden?, How's work?, etc.

'How...?' and 'What.Mke?' [> 13.34 2]: These can sometimes be interchangeable in questions which ask for personal reactions:
How was the film?(= What was it like? Did you enjoy it or not?)
How can be followed by like or enjoy in such questions:
How did you like/enjoy the film?

'Howabout...?' and 'What about...?': These are interchangeable in offers and suggestions:
How about/What about a drink?
and in general reference:
I'll post your letters. - How about/What about this parcel?
John's coming with us. - How about/What about Susan?

'invitations':
How would you like to have tea at the Ritz?
This is an elaborate form of the more usual:
Would you like to have tea at the Ritz? [> 11.37]

question-word questions: subject-questions

13.41 Form of subject-questions

subject-questions with 'Who?' subject-answer + auxiliary
Who's ready? I am / John is etc. be
Who's got my keys? I have / John has etc. have
Who makes the decisions? I do / John does etc. do / does
Who paid the waiter? I did / John did etc. did
Who can explain this? I can / John can etc. modals

subject-questions with 'What?', 'Which?' and 'Whose?'
What made you jump? The cat did
Which one suits me best? The red one does
Whose telephone rang? Mine did
13.42 Notes on the form of subject-questions

1. A subject-question normally asks for the identity of the subject. There is no inversion and the question has the same word order as the statement [compare > 13.31ns1.2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>subject-answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>statement:</td>
<td>Someone</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject-question.</td>
<td>Who</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare a Who question which asks for the object of a statement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>object-answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>statement:</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes/No question:</td>
<td>Did John</td>
<td>pay</td>
<td>the waiter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who(m) question:</td>
<td>Who(m) did John</td>
<td>pay</td>
<td>The waiter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Answers to subject-questions often echo the auxiliary used in the question, either in the affirmative or the negative:

- **Who can play the piano?** ~ **I can / I can’t**
  When the subject question-word is followed by a verb in the simple present or past, then do, does or did may be used in the answer:

- **Who wants a lift?** / do Who won? - **We did**
  When the answer is a name or a noun, we often omit the auxiliary:

- **Who was at the door?** - **The postman (was)**
  Informally, *me* is often used in place of *I* in the answer [> 4.7.2]:

- **Who wants some more tea?** - **Me (in place of / do)**

3. **What, Which and Whose** can combine with other subject-words:

- **What number is?** ? **Which boy likes?** ? **Whose car is?** ?

4. Subject question-words can be followed by singular or plural verbs. In everyday speech we commonly use a singular verb after, e.g. *Who?* even when we are asking for a plural answer:

- **Who is coming tonight?** John is / John and Sally are

13.43 When we ask subject-questions

We ask subject-questions:

- with **Who** to identify a person or persons:
- with **What** to identify a thing or things:
  - What caused the damage? - Rain (did) Falling stones (did)
- with **What + noun** to identify people or things:
  - What careless boy left the tap on? - John (did)
  - What paper has the largest circulation? - Today (has)
- with **Which** to identify people or things:
  - Which girl spoke first? - Jane (did)
  - Which comes first, A or B? - A (does)
- with **Whose** to identify a ‘possessor’:
  - Whose children rang our doorbell? - Our neighbour’s (did)
- with e.g. **How + many** to elicit a number:
  - How many students understand this? - They all do
Questions about alternatives

### Questions about alternatives

#### 13.44 Form of questions about alternatives

- What/Which would you prefer, tea or coffee?
- Would you like tea or coffee? Tea or coffee? Milk?
- How shall we go, by bus or by train?
- Did you go there, or didn’t you?
- Did you or didn’t you go there?
- Did you go there or not? Did you or didn’t you?

#### 13.45 When we ask questions about alternatives

##### 13.45.1 Limited choices

Questions about alternatives narrow a choice to a limited number of items, courses of action, etc.:

- **open-ended choice:** What would you like to drinks
- **three items:** What would you like tea, coffee, or milk?
- **two items:** Which would you prefer, tea or coffee?

Limited choices can also be presented with two or more verbs:

- Did you laugh or cry? Is he sleeping, reading, or watching TV?

Questions about alternatives are often abbreviated: e.g.

- **three or more items:** Tea, coffee, or mineral water?
- **two items:** Tea or coffee? True or false? Yes or no?
- **one item:** Milk? Right? Ready? Now?

Another way of abbreviating a question is not to repeat the verb:

- Did you want a black and white film or colour?

##### 13.45.2 Questions ending in negative tags

A clear choice can be presented by repeating the auxiliary at the end, particularly when we are pressing someone to provide an answer:

- Did you take it or didn’t you? - Yes, (I did) /No, (I didn’t)

These questions can be differently phrased as follows:

- Did you or didn’t you take it?
- Did you take it or not?

The negative auxiliary can be replaced by or not?

- Did you or didn’t you, can mean 'Did you (take it) or didn’t you?'
- Can you or can’t you, can mean 'Can you (help me) or can’t you?'

### Emphatic questions with 'ever', etc.

#### 13.46 Form of emphatic questions with 'ever', etc.

- Who ever told you a thing like that? What ever made you do it?
- What ever did lie tell you? How ever do you manage?
- Why ever not? Why on earth not?
- What ever for? What on earth for?
- Why did you ever mention it?
- How on earth did you find out about it?
13 Questions, answers, negatives

13.47 When we ask emphatic questions

We ask emphatic questions to express admiration, anger, concern, etc. Ever is written as a separate word from question-words. It can be used after all question-words except Which? and Whose?. It is often heavily stressed in questions:

*Where ever did you pick that up?*

(But note that ever also combines with words like who, what, when how (not why) to form adverbs (However, ), or pronouns (Bring whoever you like), or to form conjunctions (Come whenever you like).)

Ever questions can ask for the subject or object of a sentence:

**subject:** *What ever made you so late?* - The traffic (made me late)

**object:** *What ever did he tell you?* - (He told me) a secret

Ever can sometimes be transposed:

*Why ever did you go there? Why did you ever go there?*

Short responses express surprised reactions:

*i didn't vote on polling day - Why ever not?*

*i sent them a donation - What ever for?*

In everyday speech stronger emphasis in questions can be conveyed by using the expression *on earth* in place of *ever* after the question-word:

*How on earth did you find out my telephone number?*

Even stronger expression is possible if *on earth* is replaced by, e.g. the blazes, the devil, the dickens, the hell and by taboo words:

*Who the hell do you think you are anyway?*

*Why and Where* can be made more emphatic by simple repetition, often with oh:

*Why, (oh) why did you do it? Where, (oh) where has he gone?*
14 Conditional sentences

General information about conditionals

14.1 Conditions: 'if... (then...)'

A condition is something that has to be fulfilled before something else can happen. *If*, normally meaning 'provided that', is sometimes followed by *then*. *If* *then* is not stated, it is implied: *If X happens* (then) *Y follows:

*If the rain stops, we'll be able to go for a walk.*

Conditional clauses after *if* are not about events, etc. that have occurred, but about events that can or might occur or might have occurred. Sometimes these events are highly probable:

*If the price of oil comes down, more people will buy it.*

Sometimes they are impossible (they did not or cannot happen):

*If my horse had won, I would have made a lot of money.*

Conditions are often introduced by *if*, but can be introduced by other words [> 14.21]. They can also be implied [> 14.22]:

* I wouldn't (or shouldn't) go that way (i.e. if I were you)

14.2 Types of conditional sentences

Conditional sentences are usually divided into three basic types referred to as Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3. Each has its own variations, but the elements are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: What will you do if you lose your job?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking/talking about something that is quite possible:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>'if + present + 'will'</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>If I lose my job, I will go abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 2: What would you do if you lost your job?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences now:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>'if + past + 'would'</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>If I lost my job, I would go abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 3: What would you have done if you had lost your job?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences then:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>'if + past perfect + 'would have'</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>If I had lost my job, I would have gone abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The abbreviation // can be used instead of will in all persons, and shall can be used instead of will after / and we [> 9.36]. The abbreviation d can be used instead of would in all persons, and should can be used instead of would after / and we.

The conditional can be expressed with other modal verbs [e.g. > 14.19], as well as with shall will should and would:

*We could have had a good time* (e.g. if we had had the money)
14 Conditional sentences

14.3 Mixed tense sequences in conditional sentences

Sense and context permitting, any tense sequence is possible:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1</th>
<th>Type 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If I am as clever as you think,</td>
<td>I should have been rich by now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you knew me better,</td>
<td>you wouldn't have said that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had had your advantages,</td>
<td>I'd be better off now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he missed the bus,</td>
<td>he won't be here on time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Type 1 conditionals

14.4 Basic form of Type 1 conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if-clause:'</th>
<th>main clause:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present tenses</td>
<td>'shall/will' future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be:</td>
<td>If I am better tomorrow,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have,</td>
<td>If I have a headache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple present:</td>
<td>If she finishes early</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present progressive:</td>
<td>If he is standing in the rain,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect:</td>
<td>If she has arrived at the station,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect progressive</td>
<td>If he has been travelling all night,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can, must.</td>
<td>If I can afford it,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| be: | If I get up |
| have, | I will take an aspirin |
| simple present: | she will go home |
| present progressive: | he will catch cold |
| present perfect: | she will be here soon |
| present perfect progressive | he will need a rest |
| can, must. | I will buy it |

14.5 Notes on the form of Type 1 conditionals

1. The most commonly used form is:

   'if + simple present 'IP future
   'If it rains, we'll stay at home
   However, in Type 1 conditionals, all present tenses can be used after if, not just the simple present (see 14.4 above).

2. In Type 1, if is followed by present tenses, and only exceptionally by shall or will [> 11.63, 14.24.2]. If can also be followed by should [> 14.8] and by other modals like can (ability), must and needn't.

3. Other future tenses [> 9.40-43] can be used in the main clause:

   If he gets the job he'll be going abroad
   If I don't run the train will have left
   If I stay till May, I'll have been working here for 20 years

4. Fixed phrases like if necessary, if possible, if so, are really abbreviated /-clauses. In formal English (commonly in AmE) the full form is if + be (i.e. the subjunctive [> 11.75.1n.2]): if it be necessary, etc. Note other phrases with be: if need be be that as it may, etc:

   Inflation may be rising if (this be) so, prices will go up
   We often use should before be in such cases, especially when we wish to suggest that the situation referred to is improbable:
   Sterling may fall if this should be so, interest rates will rise
4.6 When we use Type 1 conditionals

We use Type 1 conditionals to describe what will or won't happen if we think a future event is probable:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If the weather clears,</td>
<td>we'll go for a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the weather doesn't clear,</td>
<td>we won't go for a walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The condition to be satisfied is real: the weather may really clear up, and if it does, it will have a real effect. That is why such statements are often called 'open' or 'real' conditionals.

14.7 Type 1, Variation 1: 'If + present + modal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: present tenses</th>
<th>main clause: modal</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple present.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she finishes early,</td>
<td>can/could</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she is arriving today,</td>
<td>may/might</td>
<td>phone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she has arrived</td>
<td>she should/ought to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect progressive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she has been waiting,</td>
<td>must</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modal must.</td>
<td>If she can't understand it,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Will in the main clause expresses certainty or near-certainty [> 11.28]. If we do not feel 'certain' enough to use will, or if we want to express the idea of e.g. necessity, we can use another modal instead:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>(we are free to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>(we would be able to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>(it's possible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>(it's possible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>(it's advisable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>(it's advisable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>(it's necessary)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Progressive and perfect combinations with modals are possible:

- If I hear from Tim, I may be leaving tonight
- If he is in New York he may not have got my letter yet

14.8 Type 1, Variation 2: 'If + should' + e.g. imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause or variation</th>
<th>main clause: e.g. imperative</th>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>request, suggestion, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Should you see him,</td>
<td></td>
<td>If you (should) see him,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he calls,</td>
<td>tell him I'll ring back</td>
<td>(normal Type 1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he should call,</td>
<td>tell him I'll ring back</td>
<td>(if + should)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main clause is not necessarily always an imperative:

- If I should see him, I'll ask him to ring you
Conditional sentences

If + should + imperative in the main clause is used especially when we want to make polite requests or suggestions, or to tell people (tactfully) what to do:

- If you should write to her, send her my love
- If you should go to Nairobi, go and see the Snake Park

Imperatives can also be used in ordinary Type 1 conditions:

**Cancel the match if it rains**

The only kind of negative we can form with *should* is e.g. *should you not* (see example next paragraph); otherwise we must use the negative form of the simple present:

- If you don’t see him (Not “If you shouldn’t”)

A condition can be expressed without *if* by beginning a sentence with *should*. This is rather formal and is often found, for example, in business letters, not in everyday conversation:

**Should you be interested in our offer, please contact us**

**Should you not wish our agent to call, please let us know**

The more elaborate the construction with *should* and/or *happen to*, the more tactful a speaker is trying to be. Compare the sequence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If you see him</td>
<td></td>
<td>fairly likely: neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you should see him</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you see him</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you happen to see him</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you should happen to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you happen to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you by any chance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happen to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**14.9 Type 1, Variation 3: Imperative + conjunction + clause**

**Imperative**

- Provide the materials
- Stop shouting
- Put that down
- Be there on time

**Condition to be satisfied**

- you
- you should
- you
- you happen to
- you should happen to
- you
- you may happen to

**Conjunction**

- or
- otherwise

**Main clause: ‘shall/will’**

- you'll cut off the electricity
- you'll get on with it
- you'll wake up the neighbours
- you'll smack you
- you'll create a bad impression

Imperatives can be used in place of *if*-clauses to comment, make requests, make a bargain, offer advice, threaten and so on. The use of the imperative conveys more urgency than the *if*-clause:

**Comment:**

- Fail to pay and they'll cut off the electricity

**Request:**

- Tell us what to do and we'll get on with it

**Threat:**

- Stop eating sweets, or you won't get any dinner

**Advice:**

- Take a taxi, otherwise you'll miss your train

Note the difference between imperative + *or* and imperative + *and* in threats:

- Drop that gun or I'll shoot you (i.e. if you don't drop it)
- Drop that parcel and I'll kill you (i.e. if you do drop it)
4.10 Basic form of Type 2 conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: past tense</th>
<th>main clause: 'would/should'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I was taller,</td>
<td>I would become a policeman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he had any money,</td>
<td>he'd leave home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you took a taxi,</td>
<td>you'd get there quicker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you could see me now,</td>
<td>you'd laugh your head off</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.11 Notes on the form of Type 2 conditionals

1. The most commonly used form is:
   - 'if + simple past + 'd' conditional
   - If it rained tomorrow, we'd stay at home

   In Type 2, if is followed by a past tense or could (= was/were able to). The main clause is normally formed with would, though should (weakened in speech but not contracted to 'd in writing) can be used instead of would after / and we. Would is generally contracted to 'd in all persons in the main clause. Compare shall and will (> 9.36). If is followed only exceptionally by would (> 14.24.1).

2. An unnecessary extra negative can occur in Type 2 conditionals:
   - I wouldn't be surprised if he didn't try to blackmail you
     (i.e. if he tried to blackmail you)
   - The not in the if-clause does not make a true negative.

14.12 When we use Type 2 conditionals

Type 2 conditionals talk about imaginary situations in the If-clause and speculate about their imaginary consequences in the main clause. Though past tenses are used, the reference is not to past time. (That is why this use of the past tense after if is often called 'the unreal past'.) By comparison, Type 1 conditionals (> 14.4) talk about things which will possibly happen and consider their real consequences for the future.

Depending on the attitude of the speaker, a Type 2 conditional can be used in place of a Type 1 to describe something that is reasonably possible. So:

- If you went by train, you would get there earlier
- If you didn't stay up so late every evening, you wouldn't feel so sleepy in the morning

mean the same, but are more 'tentative' than:

- If you go by train, you will get there earlier
- If you don't stay up so late every evening, you won't feel so sleepy in the morning

However, Type 2 conditionals more often describe what is totally impossible:

- If I had longer legs, I'd be able to run faster
## 14.13 Type 2, Variation 1: 'If + were/was + 'would/should'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: 'were/was'</th>
<th>main clause: 'would/should'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if l/he/she/it were/was ready</td>
<td>I would (or should) go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you/we/they were</td>
<td>we would (or should)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 14.13.1 'If I were/If I was'

*Were* can be used in place of *was* after *l/he/she/it*. There is no difference in meaning, but *were* is more formal, particularly when we are making doubtful statements:

*If I was/were better qualified, I'd apply for the job*

However, *were* is preferable in purely imaginary statements:

*If I were the Queen of Sheba, you'd be King Solomon*

### 14.13.2 'If I were you/If I were in your position'

(Not *"was"*)

We often use these expressions to give advice:

*If I were you/in your position, I'd accept their offer*  
(This means: *You should accept their offer.*)

We can also use these expressions to refer to somebody else:

*If I were Jane/in Jane's position, I'd walk out on him*

### 14.13.3 'If it were not for/Were it not for'

(Not *"was"*)

This expression explains why something has or hasn't happened:

*If it weren't for your help, I would still be homeless*

In formal contexts, *if it were not for* can be expressed as *Were it not for*, with the negative in full (Not *"Weren't it"*):

*Were it not for your help, I would still be homeless*

If *it were not for* and *Were it not for* are often followed by *the fact that*.

*Were it not for the fact that you helped me, I would be homeless*

## 14.14 Type 2, Variation 2: 'If + past + modal'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: past tense</th>
<th>main clause: modal [&gt; 11.1]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he knew the facts, he could tell us what to do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he could get the facts, he might tell us what to do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another modal can replace *would* in Type 2 conditionals, e.g. when we feel the imaginary consequences are less likely, or when we are referring to ability [> 11.14], possibility [> 11.28], etc.:

### condition to be satisfied  likely outcome
| if he were here | he could help us (ability) |
| if he were here | he might help us (possibility) |
| if he failed, | he ought to/should try again (duty) |

Progressive and perfect combinations with modals are possible:

*If she were here now she could be helping us*

*If he was in New York, he could have met my sister*

*If they were in the army they would have been fighting in the jungle most of the time*
Type 3 conditionals

14.15 Type 2, Variation 3: ‘If + were to/was to’ + ‘would’, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>if-clause: ‘were to/was to’</th>
<th>main clause: ‘would/should’, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he/she/it were to/was to ask,</td>
<td>I/we would/should, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you/we/they were to ask,</td>
<td>he/she/it/you/they would, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instead of an ordinary verb in the simple past, we can use were or was + to-infinitive in Type 2 conditional clauses:

*If I were to (or was to) ask, would you help me?*

*Were to* is more common than *was to* after *he/she/it* and makes a suggestion sound more tentative and polite. Compare:

- If I asked him, I'm sure he'd help us
- If I were to ask him nicely

Modals other than *would* and *should* are possible in the main clause:

- If you were to ask him, *he might help you*
- If Sue were to make an effort, *she could do better*

The same kind of conditional can be expressed without *if*, if we begin a sentence with *were* (Not *was*). This kind of inversion is common only in very formal contexts:

*Were the government to cut Value Added Tax, prices would fall*

There is no negative construction (Not *if he were not to*) but negative inversion is possible with the full form:

*There d'be a clear case for legal action over this matter were it not likely to make life difficult for all of us (Not 'weren't if)*

Type 3 conditionals

14.16 Basic form of Type 3 conditionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘if’-clause:</th>
<th>main clause:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>past perfect</td>
<td>'would have/should have'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imagined condition</td>
<td>imagined outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>If I had been taller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have:</td>
<td>If I had had any sense,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect.</td>
<td>If we had gone by car,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect progressive.</td>
<td>If I had been trying harder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could have</td>
<td>If I could have stopped</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14.17 Notes on the form of Type 3 conditionals

1. The most commonly used form is:
   *'if + past perfect + 'would have'* [for *should (have)*, > 14.11n1]

   *If it had rained, we would have stayed at home*

   Progressive forms are possible in the *if-*clause and/or main clause:

   *If it had been raining* this morning we would have stayed at home
   *If I had not got married, I would still have been living* abroad
Conditional sentences

2. If is followed by the past perfect or could have (= had been able to)
   Would have and should have are not used in the If-clause
   However in everyday speech (never in writing) the following
   non-standard form (a kind of 'double past perfect) often occurs and
   should be avoided
   If I'd have known she was ill I'd have sent her some flowers

3. The abbreviation can stand for had or would and is common in
   both speech and informal writing
   If I'd (= I had) left sooner I'd (= I would) have been on time
   The abbreviations 'would ve and 'd ve for would have are common
   in speech Only would ve and d have occur in informal writing
   If I'd got up earlier I would've/I'd have been on time

14.18 When we use Type 3 conditionals

Type 3 conditionals assume something purely imaginary in the
if-clause and consider the imagined consequences in the main
clause In this respect they are like Type 2 (> 14.12) However Type
3 conditionals refer to consequences which did not and could not
(now) ever happen because they refer to something that didn't
happen in the past They are 'hypothetical conditions
If I had worked harder at school, I'd have got a better job
If I hadn't been wearing a raincoat, I would have got wet
   (referring to something possible often expressing regret)
   If I had won the pools, life would have been much easier
   (referring to an imaginary hoped for situation in the past)
   If I had lived in the Stone Age, I would have been a hunter
   (referring to a completely impossible situation)

We use Type 3 conditionals to speculate about a range of
possibilities from what might have been reasonably expected to what
would have been completely impossible

14.18.1 'If I had been you/in your position'
We often use these expressions to describe a course of action we
would have followed in someone else's position
   If I had been you/in your position, I'd have accepted their offer
   (This means You should have accepted their offer)

We can also use these expressions to refer to somebody else
   If I had been Jane, I'd have walked out on him years ago

14.18.2 'If it hadn't been for'
We often use this expression to explain why something didn't happen
in the past
   If it hadn't been for the rain, we would have had a good harvest

14.18.3 Inversion with 'had' in Type 3 conditionals
The form Had (he) is a formal variation of If (he) had
   Had the management acted sooner, the strike wouldn't have
   happened

A negative inversion is possible with the full form
   Had it not been for the unusually bad weather the rescue party
   would have been able to save the stranded climber (Not *Hadn't*
Other uses of if and similar conjunctions

14.19 Type 3, Variation 1: 'If + past perfect + modal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: past perfect tense</th>
<th>main clause: modal [&gt; 11.1]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>imagined condition</td>
<td>imagined outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he had known the facts</td>
<td>he could have told us what to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he could have got the facts</td>
<td>might</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another modal can replace would in Type 3 conditionals e.g. when we feel that the imagined consequences were less likely or when we are referring to ability [> 11.15] possibility [> 11.28] etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>imagined condition</th>
<th>imagined outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If he had been here yesterday he could have told us</td>
<td>ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he had been here yesterday he might have told us</td>
<td>possibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he had received a present he should have thanked her</td>
<td>duty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Progressive and perfect combinations with modals are possible.
If he had been here he could have been helping us in the shop.
If she had been here she could have met my sister.

Other uses of 'if and similar conjunctions

14.20 Negatives with 'if...not' and 'unless'

If not and unless are sometimes interchangeable but there are occasions when it is impossible to use one in place of the other.

14.20.1 When 'if...not' and 'unless' are interchangeable

Both if not and unless can be used in negative Type 1 conditionals without a noticeable change of meaning.

If you don’t change your mind I won’t be able to help you. Unless you change your mind I won’t be able to help you.

However unless is stronger than if not and is sometimes preferable e.g. in an ultimatum: Unless the management improve their offer there’ll be a strike.

14.20.2 When we cannot use 'unless' in place of if...not

Unless cannot replace if not in a Type 1 sentence like:
I’ll be surprised if he doesn’t win.

This is because unless always means except on the condition that so we cannot normally use it to refer to unreal situations.

She’d be better company if she didn’t complain so much.

14.20.3 When we cannot use if...not' in place of 'unless'

We often use unless in past references to introduce an afterthought. The unless clause follows the main clause and is usually separated by a dash rather than a comma.

I couldn’t have got to the meeting on time — unless of course I had caught an earlier train.

This means the speaker didn’t get to the meeting. He could only have done so by catching an earlier train. If we use if not in place of unless in the above sentence we get:
I couldn’t have got there if I hadn’t caught an earlier train.

The sentence now conveys the exact opposite meaning the speaker did get to the meeting because he did catch an earlier train.
14 Conditional sentences

14.20.4 ‘If and ‘unless’ clauses in short answers
Note how if-clauses and un/ess-clauses can occur in short answers:
- Will you help us with all this re-decorating?
  - Yes, if I can
  - No, not unless you pay me

14.21 Conjunctions that can sometimes be used in place of ‘if
Conditionals can also be introduced by the following conjunctions, which do not always have precisely the same meaning as if. as long as, assuming (that), even if, if only (> 11.41-42), on (the) condition (that) provided/providing (that), so long as and unless (> 14.20); also suppose (that) and supposing (that), which normally introduce questions:
  - He'll definitely win, even if he falls over
  - They'll lend us their flat on (the) condition (that) we look after it
  - Providing/Provided (that) or So/As long as you clear your desk by this evening, you can have tomorrow off
  - Suppose/Supposing (that) we miss the train what shall we do?

What if and Say can be used in the sense of ‘Let us suppose’:
- What if/Say he gets home before us and can’t get in? What will he do then?
- What if/Say you were to run out of money? What would you do?

We can abbreviate a condition if we begin a new sentence with If so In that case, or If not; or if we continue with in which case:
- He may be busy, in which case I’ll call later
- He may be busy If so, (In that case,) I’ll call later If not, can I see him now?

Whether or not (Not ‘if or not’) introduces ‘alternative’ conditionals [compare > 1.24.1, 15.18n7]:
- Whether I feel well or not on Monday, I’m going back to work
- Whether or not I feel well on Monday, I’m going back to work
- You’ll have to put up with it, whether you like it or not

14.22 Implied conditionals
Conditionals can be implied (i.e. not directly introduced by if) in a variety of ways: e.g.
- type 1:
  - With luck, we’ll be there by tomorrow (= if we’re lucky)
- Given time, they’ll probably agree (= if we give them time)

- type 2:
  - To hear him talk, you’d think he was Prime Minister (= if you could hear him talk)
  - I would write to her but I don’t know her address (= if I knew her address)
  - But for his pension, he would starve (= if he didn’t have)

- type 3:
  - Without your help, I couldn’t have done it (= if you hadn’t helped)
  - In different circumstances, I would have said yes (= if circumstances had been different)
'Will' and 'would' after 'if'

14.23 'If with meanings other than 'provided that''

14.23.1 'If meaning 'when''

*If it rains heavily, our river floods (= on those occasions when)*

If meaning 'when' often refers to permanent truths. The verb in the main clause may be either will or the simple present [*> 11.64*]:

*If you boil water, it turns (or will turn) into steam*

People commonly use the phrase *if and when* for emphasis in place of 'only when':

*The dispute will end if and when both sides agree*

44L23.2 'If meaning 'although' or 'even if''

*I'll finish this report if it kills me* (i.e. even if)

Subject and verb can be omitted in clauses of this sort:

*He's a pleasant, if awkward lad* (i.e. even if he is awkward)

H.23.3 'As if in exclamations' [compare > 1.47.2]

As if in this sense is common in exclamations:

*As if I care whether she's offended* (= I don't care)

*As if it matters/mattered!* (= it doesn't matter)

14.23.4 'If in place of 'whether'' [*> 1.24.1, 15.18n5*]

As well as introducing conditionals if also introduces indirect questions. In certain circumstances, if is more natural than whether in indirect questions:

*He wants to know if he can stay to dinner*

'Will' and 'would' after if

14.24 'If + 'will' and 'would''

14.24.1 'Will' and 'would' to emphasize willingness and unwillingness

- when asking others to do things/responding to offers of help:

  *Shall I hold the door open for you? - Yes if you will/would*

  *If you will/would/could wait a moment I'll fetch the money*

  with reference to someone else:

  *He will/would/could only try harder, I'm sure he'd do well*

- in polite formulas, particularly in formal contexts:

  *I'd be grateful if you will/would let me know soon*

  *If you will/would follow me, I'll show you the way*

  *Give me a moment if you would* (or, sometimes, will)

- in direct references to willingness/unwillingness:

  *If you will/would agree to pay us compensation we will/would agree not to take the matter any further* (i.e. if you're willing)

  *If you won't stop smoking, you can only expect to have a bad cough i.e. if you are unwilling to stop smoking - Not "wouldn't")

14.24.2 'If + will' in Type 1 conditionals

We do not normally use a pure future will after if. However, though rare, it is just possible when we wish to emphasize the idea of 'not now, but later'. Compare:

*If it suits you, I'll change the date of our meeting* (Type 1)

*If it will suit you, (i.e. not now, but later) I'll change the date of our meeting*
15 Direct and indirect speech

Direct speech

15.1 When do we use direct speech?
We use direct speech whenever we speak. We use the term **direct speech** to describe the way we represent the spoken word in writing.

15.2 Form of direct speech in writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken statement</th>
<th>Direct statement in writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm waiting</td>
<td>'I'm waiting,' John said</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken question</th>
<th>Direct question in writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>When did you arrive, John?</em></td>
<td><em>When did you arrive, John?</em> Mary asked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.3 Notes on the use of punctuation marks

1. Quotation marks (or 'inverted commas') go round what is actually spoken and enclose other punctuation marks such as commas (,) full stops (.), question marks (?) and exclamation marks (!). They may be single ("..."), or double ("...") and are placed high above the base-line at the beginning and end of each quotation:

   *Is that you, Jane?* Bob asked
   *"Is that you, Jane?" Bob asked*

2. What is said, plus reporting verb and its subject, is considered as a whole unit. When the subject + reporting verb [App 45] comes at the beginning of a sentence, the reporting verb is always followed by a comma (sometimes by a colon (: in AmE) and the quotation begins with a capital letter:

   *John said 'It's good to see you'*
   *'It's good to see you,' John said*

   But if the quotation ends with an exclamation mark or a question mark, a comma is not used as well:

   *'Where can I get a taxi?' John asked*
   *'Where can I get a taxi?' John asked*

3. If there is a 'quote within a quote' (e.g. if we are quoting someone's exact words), we use a second set of quotation marks. If double quotation marks have been used on the 'outside', single ones are used on the 'inside' and vice versa. The inside quotation has its own punctuation, distinct from the rest of the sentence:

   *Ann said 'Just as I was leaving, a voice shouted "Stop!"
   *'Just as I was leaving, a voice shouted "Stop!"
   *"What do you mean? "Are you all right?" Ann asked*
We can also use a second set of quotation marks when we mention the title of e.g. a book, film or play:

*How long did it take you to read "War and Peace"?* I asked

However, this is often a matter of personal taste. In print, titles often appear in italics without quotation marks.

4 Noun + reporting verb may be in subject + verb order or may be inverted (verbs + subject) [> App 45.1]:

‘This is a serious offence,’ the judge said/said the judge

If the subject is a long one, then inversion is usual:

‘Where’s this train going?’ asked the lady sitting beside me

With a pronoun subject, inversion is rare in modern English:

‘This is a serious offence,’ he said

Some reporting verbs, particularly those requiring an object, such as assure, inform and tell cannot be inverted [> App 45.2].

Adverbs of manner usually come at the end [compare > 7.16.1):

‘Go away!’ said Mr Tomkins/Mr Tomkins said angrily

5 Quotation marks are generally not required with reporting verbs such as ask oneself, think and wonder they are used to describe ‘direct thoughts’ in ‘free indirect speech’ [> 15.27.3]:

So that was their little game he thought

Where are they now, he wondered

15.4 Direct speech in context

15.4.1 Printed dialogue

Printed dialogue is particularly common in works of fiction and can occur without connecting narrative:

*A tissue of lies!* Boyle cried

‘You think so?’ the inspector asked

‘Think so? I know it’

‘And no doubt you can prove it First there are a few important points that need answering’

In this kind of dialogue, each new speech begins on a new line in a new paragraph. Once the characters have been established, it is not necessary to go on repeating names (or pronouns) and reporting verbs - except to remind the reader from time to time who is speaking. If a speech goes on for more than a paragraph, we put opening quotation marks at the beginning of each paragraph, but closing ones only at the end of the final paragraph.

Dialogue can also occur within connecting narrative:

Boyle was agitated He paced the room as the inspector reconstructed the crime Finally, he could bear it no longer. A tissue of lies ‘he cried

The inspector paused and asked with heavy irony, ‘You think so?’

‘Think so? I know it,’ Boyle snapped

The inspector was unconvinced ‘And no doubt you can prove it’ he said First there are a few important points that need answering,’ he added, glancing quickly at his notebook

In this kind of dialogue, the words spoken by the characters are quoted within each new paragraph as part of the narration.
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.4.2 Quotations
We use the conventions of direct speech when we are quoting exact words, e.g. in letters, reports and statements by witnesses:

"I reconstructed the crime and before I had finished speaking, Boyle said, A tissue of lies! I asked the accused if he really thought so and he answered 'Think so! I know it!'"

15.4.3 Scripts
Quotation marks are not used in scripts for plays, etc.:

BOYLE (agitated): A tissue of lies!
INSPECTOR WILEY: You think so?
BOYLE (sharply): Think so! I know it!
INSPECTOR WILEY: And no doubt you can prove it

'Say, 'tell' and 'ask'

15.5 Indirect speech and the sequence of tenses [compare > 9.5.2]
We use indirect speech (sometimes called 'reported speech') when we are telling someone what another person says or said. The reporting verb (e.g. say, tell) may be in the present or past (most often in the past) and the tenses of the reported statement are often (but not always) affected by this. Compare:

- actual spoken statement: I can see him now
- direct statement in writing: I can see him now, 'the boss says/said
- indirect statement (present): The boss says (that) he can see you now
- indirect statement (past): The boss said (that) he could see you now

Quotation marks are not used in indirect speech. For verbs that can introduce reported statements and questions [> App 45].

15.6 Reporting verbs and adjectives in direct/indirect speech
The commonest reporting verbs in both direct and indirect speech are say, tell and ask. Many other verbs can be followed by that or ii, whether and can serve as reporting verbs [> App 45]. A number of these do not strictly 'report speech' (actual spoken words), but thoughts, feelings, etc. That is why 'indirect speech', as a term, is preferable to 'reported speech'. Similarly, a number of adjectives, such as certain, sure [> App 44] can be followed by that if, whether (whether) to and question-words.

15.7 The verbs 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'

15.7.1 Basic uses of 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'
These three verbs do not follow the same pattern. The most important thing to remember is that be/must be followed by a personal indirect object (tell somebody). Say can be followed by an optional to+ the person who is addressed:

You haven't got much time, he told me/he said (to me)
'Say', 'tell' and 'ask'

Ask can be followed by an indirect object [> 15.17, 16.20]:

'Are you comfortable?' he asked (me)

He asked (me) if I was comfortable

In reported requests [> 15.24, 16.20] the inclusion or not of an object affects the meaning:

She asked to go (actual spoken words: 'May I go?')
She asked me to go (actual spoken words: 'Will you go?')

The following references give further details about say tell and ask:

- say in direct speech in writing [> 15.2-3, 15.8].
- say + that-clause, indirect statement [ > 15.9-16].
- say if / whether + indirect Yes/No question [ > 15.18n3,8].
- say + indirect Wh-question [ > 15.20n3],
- say + to-infinitive [ > 15.24.1].
- tell somebody in direct speech in writing [ > 15.2-3, 15.8].
- tell somebody + that-clause, indirect statement [ > 15.9-16].
- tell somebody + if / whether + indirect Yes/No question [ > 15.18n8].
- tell somebody + indirect Wh-question [ > 15.20n3],
- tell somebody + to-infinitive [ > 15.23-24, 16.21, 16.25].
- ask (somebody) in direct speech in writing [ > 15.2-3, 15.8].
- ask (somebody) + if / whether + indirect Yes/No question [ > 15.9, 15.17-18].
- ask (somebody) + Wh-question [ > 15.19-22].
- ask (somebody) + to-infinitive [ > 15.23-24, 16.20].
- ask that something (should) be done [ > 11.75.2].

15.7.2 Secondary uses of 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'

- say so: 'The meeting's off,' Jill said
  Who says so?
  'The boss says so / said so,' Jill answered
  - the passive 'He is said to be' [ > 12.8n3] does not have an active equivalent: Not 'They say him to', but: They say (that) he is
  - say + object in fixed expressions: e.g. say a few words, say no more, say nothing, say (your) prayers, say something
  - tell somebody so: 'You were right about the meeting,' I said
  I told you so, Jill answered
  - tell + object in fixed expressions: e.g. (can) tell the difference
tell a lie tell a story, tell the time tell the truth
  - ask for something: ask somebody for something:
  I asked for a loan I asked Jim for a loan
  I — ask in fixed expressions: e.g. ask after someone, ask (for) a favour
  ask the price, ask a question, ask the time

15.8 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask' in direct speech

Say is commonly associated with direct speech in writing:

'It's raining, I said

We can also use say with short, ordinary questions in direct speech (not long and complicated ones):

'Are you all right?' he said/asked (Not 'told me')
15 Direct and indirect speech

Say (Not *told him/asked*) can introduce a statement or question

I said It's raining. I said Is it ready?

Say or tell can be used in direct speech [> 15.2-3] and can also introduce direct commands

Don't touch that! he said (to them)/told them

Ask is used in direct questions

How are you? she asked (me)/said (Not *told me*)

15.9 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask' in indirect speech

Say and tell someone + optional that can introduce indirect statements We never use a comma after say or tell someone

He said (that)/told me (that) his life was in danger

If we need to mention the listener, tell + indirect object is generally preferable to say + to someone [/> 15.7.1]

When the reporting verb comes at the end of the sentence, we cannot use that

His life was in danger he told me/he said

Ask (with or without a personal indirect object) can report a question

Ask (someone) is followed by if/whether or a question-word

She asked (me) if/whether I wanted anything

She asked (me) what I wanted

We use say/tell to introduce noun clauses [> 1.23.2], not to report questions For the use of ask/tell to report commands [> 15.23-24]

Indirect statements: reporting verb in the present

15.10 Form with reporting verb in the present

actual spoken statements

I've read Tony's book and I don't understand it
I've read Tony's book and I didn't understand it

indirect statements: reporting verb in the present

If the reporting verb in indirect speech is in the present the tenses that follow are usually the same as those used in the original spoken statement This is often the case when we report words that have just been spoken [compare > 952 15 14-16]

Jim says tells me (that) he's read Tony's book and doesn't understand it
Jim says tells me (that) he's read Tony's book and didn't understand it

15.11 Indirect speech in context (reporting verb in the present)

The reporting verb is often in the present when the reference is general or to 'present time' in contexts like the following

- reporting, e.g. a rumour
  A A little birdie tells me you're applying for a new job
  B Who tells you?
  A Never you mind!
Indirect statements with tense changes

- passing on messages
  A Come in now Jim Dinner's ready
  B What does your mother say?
  C She says you must come in now dad (She says) dinner's ready

- reading a newspaper, etc and reporting
  A What does the article say?
  B It's about the kitchen of the future The writer says we'll have robots which can understand instructions and carry them out

- general (no special time)
  A So how are we supposed to wire this plug?
  B The instructions say that the brown wire means live and it goes into the hole marked L. It says here that the blue means neutral and it goes into the hole marked N

- reporting something someone says very often
  Mary's always talking about money She's always complaining that things are expensive and she's always asking how much I've paid for one thing and another

Indirect statements with tense changes

15.12 Form with reporting verb in the past

actual spoken statements in the present (simple and progressive)
TOM I need to go to the bank PAM I'm waiting for Harriet

indirect statements: present past
Tom said (that) he needed to go to the bank Pam said (that) she was waiting for Harriet

actual spoken statement in the present perfect
I've moved to another flat

indirect statement: present perfect past perfect (past perfect obligatory)
Sylvia said (that) she had moved to another flat

actual spoken statements in the past (simple and progressive)
I moved to another flat I was waiting for Harriet
I had been waiting for hours before you arrived

indirect statements: past -> past or past perfect (past perfect optional)
She said (that) she moved/had moved to another flat
He said (that) he was waiting had been waiting for Harriet
He said (that) he had been waiting for hours (past perfect does not change)

actual spoken statements with the 'present' form of modals
I can see you tomorrow I'll help you

indirect statements: modal 'present' -> 'conditional' or 'past' [> 11.8.3]
She said (that) she could see me the next day
She said (that) she would help me

actual spoken statements with the 'past' or 'conditional' form of modals
I could see you tomorrow I would complain if I were you

indirect statements: the 'past' or 'conditional' modal does not change
He said (that) he could see me the next day
She said (that) she would complain if she were me
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.13 Notes on the form of indirect speech with tense changes

1 'Rules' in indirect speech
Tense changes often occur in indirect speech because there is an interval between the original spoken words and the time when they are reported, but these changes are not always obligatory [> 15.10, 15.14-16]. It is the changing viewpoint of the reporting speaker or writer that decides the choice of appropriate forms, not complicated rules. The notes that follow are not 'rules', but are based on observation of what often happens in practice.

2 Linking phrases
Indirect speech rarely occurs in sets of unrelated sentences, but is found in continuous paragraphs of reported language. Continuity is achieved by the use of linking phrases, such as: she went on to say, he continued, he added that, and by varying the reporting verbs: he observed, noted, remarked, etc. Such forms remind the reader that the language is reported. Many features present in direct speech, such as Yes/No short answers and speech 'fillers', such as Well, etc., disappear in indirect speech.

3 Tense changes [> 9.5]
In indirect speech we do not usually repeat the speaker’s exact words. Reporting usually takes place in the past, so the reporting verb is often in the past. As a result, the tenses of the reported clause are usually 'moved back'. This 'moving back' of tenses is called backshift. A useful general rule is 'present becomes past and past becomes past perfect'. 'Past' modals and the past perfect are unchanged when reported, since no further backshift is possible [> 15.12]. We must normally use the past perfect to report a statement whose verb was in the present perfect:
7. have lived in the south for years. Mrs Duncan said
Mrs Duncan told me (that) she had lived in the south for years
If the verb in the original statement was in the simple past, we do not usually need to change it to the past perfect (unless we wish to emphasize that one event happened before another):
I lived in Scotland in the 1970’s Mrs Duncan said
Mrs Duncan said that she (had) lived in Scotland in the 1970’s

4 Pronoun changes
Pronouns change (or not) depending on the view of the reporter:
‘I’ll send you a card Sue ’ (actual words spoken by Ann)
Ann told Sue she d send her a card (reported by someone else)
Ann said/told me she would send me a card (reported by Sue)
I told Sue (that) Id send her a card (reported by Ann)
Some typical pronoun changes are:
I / he/she me/you him/her my his/her
we they us them our their
mine his/hers ours theirs myself himself/herself

5 Time and place changes
It is often necessary to make time and place changes in relation to
Indirect statements with tense changes

tense changes. For example, on Tuesday, A says:
‘A card came yesterday saying Sue will arrive tomorrow ’
B, reporting this on Wednesday, might say:
A told me a card had come the day before yesterday/on Monday
saying Sue would arrive today/on Wednesday

But time and place changes are not always necessary. If, for
example, it was still Tuesday when the statement above was
reported, B might say:
A told me a card came (or had come) yesterday saying Sue will (or
would) arrive tomorrow

Examples of possible time and place changes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>come/bring</td>
<td>here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediately/then</td>
<td>go/take</td>
<td>there when what is referred to is clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two days ago</td>
<td></td>
<td>this place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two days before/earlier</td>
<td></td>
<td>that place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
<td></td>
<td>these places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that day</td>
<td></td>
<td>those places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that night</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tomorrow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the next/the following day</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the previous day/the day before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last night</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the night before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

verbs: come/bring go/take

6 Modal verbs

‘Modal present’ becomes ‘modal past’ [> 11.8.3]:
e.g. can becomes could; will becomes would; may becomes might:
7 can/will/may see you later,’ he said
He said he could/would/might see me later
shall

When shall is used with future reference for prediction, speculation,
etc. it becomes would in indirect speech:
I shall tell him exactly what I think, she said
She said she would tell him exactly what she thought

When shall is used in offers, suggestions or requests for advice it
becomes should (even after the second and third persons):
Shall I speak to him in person?’ she asked
She asked whether she should speak to him in person

should/shouldn’t

When should or shouldn’t refer to desirability, obligation or
likelihood, they remain unchanged in indirect speech:
‘You should see a specialist,’ he told me
He told me I should see a specialist.
Should used in place of would, e.g. in conditional sentences [> 14.2. 14.11n1], becomes would [compare shall above]:
‘If I were you, I should get another lawyer’
She said (that) if she were me, she would get another lawyer

would, could, might, ought to, needn’t have, used to

These (including negative forms where applicable) remain
unchanged in indirect speech in all combinations:
15 Direct and indirect speech

I would like an appointment tomorrow, I said to my dentist
I told my dentist (that) I would like an appointment the next day
You ought to slow down a bit, the doctor told him
The doctor told him (that) he ought to slow down a bit

'perfect' and 'past' modal forms

Forms such as must have and could have remain unchanged:
7 must have slept through the alarm ' she said
She said she must have slept through the alarm

must

When referring to the past, must can remain unchanged in indirect speech when it is used to indicate inescapable obligation. Or we can use had to (the past of have to) in its place:
I must warn you of the consequences,' he said
He told me he must/had to warn me of the consequences

Must, indicating future necessity, can remain unchanged, or can be replaced by would have to or sometimes had to:
'Ve must go early tomorrow ’ she said
She said they must go early the next day (or She said they would have to go/they had to go )

When must is used to indicate deduction or possibility, it remains unchanged in indirect speech. It cannot be replaced by had to:
'George must be a fool to behave like that' he said
He said George must be a fool to behave like that

Mustn't (prohibition) remains unchanged or changes to couldn't:
'You mustn't/can't cross the border,' the guard said
The guard said we mustn't/couldn't cross the border

needn't

Needn't (absence of necessity) can remain unchanged or can be replaced by didn't have to in indirect speech:
'You needn't/don't have to come in tomorrow ' the boss said
The boss said I needn't/didn't have to come in the next day

7 Conditional statements

Type 1 conditional statements are reported as follows:
'If you pass your test, I'll buy you a car' he said
He said that if I passed my test he would buy me a car

Type 2 conditional statements are reported as follows:
'If you passed your test I would buy you a car' he said
He said that if I passed my test he would buy me a car

Type 3 conditional statements are reported as follows:
'If you'd passed your test I'd have bought you a car' he said
He said that if I'd passed my test he'd have bought me a car

8 Exclamations

Note the word order in reported exclamations:
'What a silly boy you are' she exclaimed
She told him what a silly boy he was
She told him that he was a silly boy
Indirect statements with mixed tense sequences

15.14 Form of indirect statements with mixed tense sequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>actual spoken statement</th>
<th>indirect statements with mixed tense sequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I've read Tony's book and I don't understand it</td>
<td>Jim says he's read Tony's book and didn't understand it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jim said he's read Tony's book and doesn't understand it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jim said he'd read Tony's book and didn't understand it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jim said he'd read Tony's book and doesn't understand it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.15 Indirect speech: the speaker's viewpoint [compare > 15.10-11]

A speaker can choose to report a statement or a question using the tenses that match his viewpoint, based on the facts of the situation as he sees them at the time of speaking. Note the different viewpoints expressed in the following examples:

Jim says (now) he's read Tony's book and didn't understand it (then, when he finished reading, or then, while he was reading).

Jim said (then) he's read Tony's book (now) and didn't understand it (then).

Jim said (then) he'd read Tony's book (then) and doesn't understand it (now).

Jim said (then) he'd read Tony's book (then) and didn't understand it (then).

15.16 Reporting permanent states, facts, habits

Permanent states and conditions are often reported in the simple present after a reporting verb in the past to show that they are matters of fact now [> App 45 for reporting verbs]:

Copernicus concluded that the earth goes round the sun

However, the 'proximity rule' [> 9.5.2] would also allow us to say:

Copernicus concluded that the earth went round the sun

A change in tense can lead to ambiguity. Compare:

He told me he works as a builder (at present)

He told me he worked as a builder (at present or in the past?)

Indirect Yes/No questions

15.17 Form of indirect Yes/No questions

The rules about tense sequences [> 9.5, 15.10, 15.12-16] also apply to questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>actual spoken questions</th>
<th>Indirect questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be: &quot;Are you ready?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) if/whether I am/was ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have: &quot;Have you finished?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) if/whether I have/had finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do: &quot;Do you play chess?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) if/whether I play/played chess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modals: &quot;Can I have it?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) if/whether he can/could have it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.18 **Notes on the form of indirect Yes/No questions**

1 Quotation marks and question marks
Quotation marks and question marks are not used in indirect questions and there is a change in word order (notes 2 and 3 below).

2 Word order: *be, have* and modal auxiliaries
The inversion in the direct question changes back to statement word order (subject + verb) in the reported question and, if necessary, the tense is changed at the same time. Modals may change from their 'present' form to their 'past' form [> 11.8.3]:

- **direct statement:** *He is ready*’ (subject + verb)
- **direct Yes/No question:** *Is he ready?’ (inversion)*

**indirect question:** She asked me if he *was* ready (if + subject + verb)

3 Word order: *do, does and did*
*Do/does/did in Yes/No questions disappear in reported questions:*

- **direct statement:** *He went home*
- **direct Yes/No question:** *Did he go home?*

**indirect question:** She asked me if he *went* home or: She asked me if he *had gone* home

This reflects normal usage, but in everyday speech it is not uncommon to hear direct questions embedded in indirect speech:

- She said she was going to the shops and (asked me) did I want anything while she was out

4 Reporting Yes/No questions
All kinds of Yes/No questions [> 13.5, 13.14, 13.17-23] are reported in the same way. If necessary, phrases like in *surprise* can be added to interpret intonation, etc. [> 15.25]:

- ‘Do you play chess?’
  - ‘Don’t you play chess?’ He asked me if/whether
  - ‘You don’t play chess, do you?’ I played chess
  - ‘You play chess, don’t you?’

5 *If and whether* [compare > 1.24.1, 14.23.4, 16.24]
If and whether are interchangeable after ask, want to know, wonder etc., but whether conveys slightly greater doubt. Some verbs, like *discuss* [> App 45], can only be followed by *whether.*

*If or whether* must always be used when reporting Yes/No questions and cannot be omitted (unlike *that* in reported statements):

- Tom asked if/whether it was raining
- Whether is usually preferred when there are alternatives [> 13.44-45]:
  - She asked me whether I wanted tea or coffee

6 *That and whether* in short answers
Short answers can be given with *that* and *whether/if;*

- **What did she tell you?**
  - **That** she would be late
- **What did she ask you?**
  - **Whether/If** I would be late

7 Reporting Yes/No questions with *or not* [> 1.24.1, 13.44-45, 14.21]

- **Do you want any dinner or not?**
  - He wants to know if/whether we want any dinner or not
  - He wants to know whether or not we want dinner (Not ‘if or not’)

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Indirect question-word questions

8 Indirect Yes/No questions with reporting verbs other than ask
Many reporting verbs can be used other than ask, want to know, etc. in combinations with whether and (sometimes) if [> App 45]:
He didn't tell me if/whether he would be arriving early or late
She didn't say if/whether she was coming to lunch
I don't know if/whether I've passed my exam yet
I wonder if/whether they've heard the news yet

Indirect question-word questions

15.19 Form of indirect question-word questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken questions</th>
<th>Indirect questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>He asked (me) where I was going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have.</td>
<td>He wanted to know why I (haven't)/hadn't finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do.</td>
<td>He wanted to know what I (think/thought of it)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modals ‘When must I be there’</td>
<td>He asked (me) when he must be/had to be there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes on the form of indirect question-word questions

1 Word order: be, have and modal auxiliaries [compare > 15.18n2]
The inversion after a question-word in a direct question changes back to statement word order (subject + verb) in the reported question and, if necessary, the tense is changed at the same time. Modals may change from ‘present’ form to ‘past’ form [> 11.8.3]:
direct statement: We are going home
direct Wh-question: Where are you going?
(indirect question: He asked (us) where we were going)

2 Word order: do, does and did [compare > 15.18n3]
Do/does/did in direct questions disappear in reported questions:
direct statement: I gave it to John
direct Wh-question: When did you give it to John?
(indirect question: He asked me when I gave it to John)

3 Indirect question-word questions with verbs other than ask
Many different reporting verbs can be used other than ask, want to know, etc. [> App 45]:
I know where he lives
She didn’t say why she was coming home late
He didn’t tell me how he did it

4 Question-words in short answers
Short answers can be given with Why, When, etc.:
What did she want to know? - Why/When we were leaving
(= She wanted to know why/when we were leaving.)
Indirect subject-questions

15.21 Form of indirect subject-questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken questions</th>
<th>Indirect questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>be:</strong> &quot;Who is in charge here?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) who was in charge there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>present:</strong> &quot;Which firm makes these parts?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) which firm (makes) made those parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>past:</strong> &quot;What caused the accident?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) what caused/had caused the accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>modals:</strong> &quot;Whose novel will win the prize?&quot;</td>
<td>He asked (me) whose novel would win the prize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.22 Note on the form of indirect subject-questions

Tense changes and changes in modals occur in the usual way, but the word order of the direct question is retained in the indirect question. Reporting verbs other than *ask* can be used to introduce indirect subject questions (> App 45):

- Please tell me who delivered this package
- I want to know which piece fits in this puzzle

Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech

15.23 Form of the to-infinitive in indirect speech

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken words</th>
<th>Reported version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'Keep a record of your expenses.'</td>
<td>I told him to keep a record of his expenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Don't make a mess in the kitchen.'</td>
<td>I told him not to make a mess in the kitchen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'How do I prepare the sauce?'</td>
<td>He wanted to know how to prepare the sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to speak to the manager.</td>
<td>She asked to speak to the manager</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.24 Form and use of the infinitive in indirect speech

15.24.1 The imperative: affirmative and negative

Imperatives (usually orders, requests, advice, etc.) are reported with appropriate verbs followed by a to-infinitive. Commonly-used verbs (always followed by a personal object in indirect speech) are: advise, instruct, remind, tell, warn, etc. (> App 45.3). In each case the reporting verb must match the function of the imperative (asking, telling, advising, etc.) [compare > 16.20-21]:

- Keep a record of your expenses. *I said*
- I told him to keep a record of his expenses
- Remember to switch off all the lights. *She said*
- She reminded me to switch off all the lights

When a negative imperative (e.g. Don't make a mess!) is reported, no 'always goes before the to-infinitive [but compare > 16.14]:

- She told 'asked' warned him not to make a mess in the kitchen

Direct orders can also be reported with be to:

- 'Wait for me. He says I am to wait for him. He said I was to
When we use indirect speech

Or we can use the passive with verbs other than say:

I have been told/was told to wait for him
Note the informal use of say in: He said (not) to wait for him

Ask, when a speaker is asking permission or making a request, may be followed by the infinitive:

I asked to speak to the manager
and by the passive infinitive (> 12.2):

He asked to be kept informed about developments
I asked for two items to be added to the list

15.24.2 The infinitive after question-words [compare > 16.24]

Direct suggestions and requests for advice and information with Shall I? Should I?, Do you want me to? etc. (expecting Yes/No answers) can be reported in two ways:

direct request: Shall/Should I phone her?
direct request: He wanted to know if/whether he should phone her
whether + infinitive: He wanted to know whether to phone her

Requests, etc. with question-words can also be reported in two ways:

question-word + infinitive: He wanted to know how to prepare it

Other examples:
when she should be/to be at the station
where she should park/to park

She wanted to know which she should choose/to choose
who(m) she should ask/to ask
what she should do/to do

Note that why or if cannot be followed by a to-infinitive.

When we use indirect speech

15.25 Interpreting direct speech

Indirect speech requires a great deal more than the mechanical application of 'rules', for we must interpret what we hear or read before reporting it. We need to convey the manner in which the words were spoken or written. So, for example, stress and intonation in direct speech can be 'reported' by means of adverbs or emphatic reporting verbs, such as insist and suggest:

"You really must let me pay the bill," Andrew said
Andrew insisted on paying the bill.

"Why don't we go sailing?" Diana said
Diana suggested they should go sailing.

"You've just won a lottery!" Tom said
'Really!' Jennifer exclaimed

Jennifer was amazed when Tom told her that she had won a lottery.
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.26 Oral reporting

Oral reporting may be concerned with other people's conversations, gossip, instructions, conveying the gist of lectures and so on. In oral reporting, direct speech is often quoted and there may be sudden changes in the sequence of tenses. A few examples are:

15.26.1 Reporting everyday conversation

'Mrs Come asked me how we all are and I told her all our news Her eldest son has just got his exam results and has done very well, apparently "What do you expect?" I said to her, "he's always been a bright lad " "Oh, he is that," she says, "but he's really lazy " I told her I didn't think he was lazy '

15.26.2 Passing on instructions

'The boss wants you to go to the airport to pick up the company's guests She says you're to take the company car. Oh - and she asked me to tell you to phone if there are any flight delays '

15.26.3 Giving the gist of e.g. a lecture

'Or Barnaby gave us a very interesting talk on boat-building in ancient times. He explained how boat-building methods changed over a period of about 1500 years He also had some slides showing us how the ancient world lost most of its forests because so much wood was needed for boats. He began his talk by telling us about Ancient Greece at around 300 BC '

15.27 Written reporting

Written reporting includes newspaper reports, records of conferences, minutes of meetings, reports of debates and so on. Consistency in such matters as the sequence of tenses is carefully maintained, particularly in formal reporting. A few examples are:

15.27.1 Company reports

'The Chairman opened his address to the shareholders by pointing out that pre-tax profits had fallen for the second year running, which was disappointing Market conditions were difficult for almost every company and the combination of high interest rates and the strong dollar had affected profit margins

15.27.2 Parliamentary reports

'Mr Harry Greene said that airlines were losing money because of their cheap air fares policies We could only expect airlines to fail unless they were supported by massive government grants

15.27.3 'Free indirect speech'

The following is an example of fiction in which indirect speech is freely woven into the narrative to reveal a person's thoughts, motives, etc.: Opening his case he found a handkerchief inside it It was certainly not his for the initials M D B were stitched into the corner So that was their little game, he thought Someone had opened his case to plant this evidence But how did they open the case? How did they even know the case was his, he wondered, as he slowly unfolded the dead man's handkerchief
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

The bare infinitive

16.1 The infinitive and the '-ing' form
The base form of a verb (go) often functions as an infinitive. It is called the bare infinitive because it is used without to. We must distinguish it from the to-infinitive, where to is always used in front of the base form of the verb (to go). The -ing form of a verb (going) sometimes functions as a gerund (i.e. a kind of noun) and sometimes as a present participle [> 16.38]. Many verbs and adjectives, and some nouns, can be followed by one or other of these forms, and in some cases by more than one form. From the student's point of view, the problem is knowing which form is appropriate. This may be because only one form is grammatically correct, e.g. enjoy doing [> 16.42], fail to do [> 16.19]. Or it may be because only one form suits what we want to say, e.g. remember doing or remember to do [> 16.59].

16.2 Forms of the infinitive [compare -ing > 1.56, 16.41]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>active</th>
<th>passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) ask</td>
<td>(to) be asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present progressive infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) be asking</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>perfect or past infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) have asked</td>
<td>(to) have been asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect/past progressive infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) have been asking</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

16.3 The bare infinitive after modal verbs
The main use of the bare infinitive is after modal verbs. All the modal verbs [except ought, > 11.6 in.2] must be followed by a bare infinitive (except in short responses like Yes, I can):
I can/could/may/might/will/shall/should/must leave soon.
Dare/need, when they are modal, are similar (Dare/Need we ask?).
The negative is formed by adding not before the infinitive:
I cannot/can't go, etc. [> 11.5.1].

16.4 The bare infinitive after 'let' and 'make'
16.4.1 'Let' as an auxiliary verb
We commonly use the imperative form Let's (the contraction of Let us) as an auxiliary verb followed by a bare infinitive when making suggestions for actions that include the speaker. Let's is often associated with shall we? [> 11.40]:
Let's take a taxi! Let's take a taxi, shall we? Do let's

The negative of Let's in suggestions is:
Let's not! Don't let's argue about it.
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

Informally, Let's can relate to / in e.g. offers and requests:

- Let's give you a hand (= I'll)
- Let's have a look (= Can I?)

Let as an auxiliary need not always followed by us:

- Let XYZ be a triangle
- Let them eat cake
- Let there be light

Don't let me (or, very formal, Let me not) interrupt you

16.4.2 Let as a full verb

The basic meaning of let is allow, and in this sense it is a full verb, always followed by a noun or pronoun object before a bare infinitive. If the object is us, it cannot be reduced to let's:

- Please let us have more time, will you? (= allow us to)
- Don't let the children annoy you
- I won't let you ride my bicycle

Let. can be followed by a passive infinitive:

- He let it be known he was about to resign

but is not normally used in the passive to mean 'be allowed'.

Compare:

- They didn't let us speak. We were not allowed to speak

16.4.3 'Make' (= compel) + bare infinitive

Make (active) + noun/pronoun object can be followed by a bare infinitive. It means 'compel' or 'cause to':

- Miss Prouty made the boys stay in after school
- That beard makes you look much older than you are

However, in the passive, make in these senses is followed by to:

- He was made to work twenty hours a day

Unlike let, make (= compel) can never be followed by a passive infinitive. But compare make in a different sense:

- Rules were made (= created) to be broken

16.4.4 Fixed phrases with 'let' and make' + bare infinitive

The bare infinitive occurs in a number of fixed verb phrases with let and make:- e.g. let fall, let go, let me see, let slip, live and let live, make believe, make do:

- The dog's got a stick between his teeth and he won't let go
- You'll have to make your pocket money do I can't give you more

16.5 The bare infinitive after 'would rather', etc.

We use the bare infinitive after expressions in which y can be replaced by would or had [> 11 44-17]:

1 d = would d rather d sooner

But note that had rather and had sooner sometimes occur

2 d = had: 'd better 'd best (less common than y better).

I'd rather work on the land than work in a factory

We'd better/best be going - Yes, we'd better/we'd best be

These forms can often be followed by the passive infinitive:

I'd rather be told the truth than be lied to

Not can be used after y rather/sooner/better/best:

- You'd better not go near the edge

Informally, better or subject + better often occur without had:

- Mr Murphy will be here any minute - Better get his file then
- You better stop arguing and do as you're told
16.6 The bare infinitive after 'Why?' and 'Why not?'
For bare infinitive uses after Why/Why not? [13.37.2-3]

The infinitive with or without 'to'

16.7 'Help' and 'know' + bare infinitive or to-infinitive
We may use a bare infinitive or a to-infinitive after a few verbs like help and know. The use of a to-infinitive is more formal:

- Mother helped me (to) do my homework
- We do not usually omit to after not:
  - How can I help my children not to worry about their exams?

Help can be used without a noun or pronoun object:
- Everyone in the village helped (to) build the new Youth Centre
  or with a noun or pronoun object:
    - Can anyone help me (to) fill in this tax form?
In the passive, to is obligatory after help:
- Millie was helped to overcome her fear of flying
- I'm sure this treatment will help him (to) be cured

Know + infinitive normally requires a noun or pronoun object. The omission of to is only possible with the perfect form of know:
- I've never known her (to) be late before
- I've never known her not (to) be late'
In the passive, to is obligatory:
- He was known to have/to have had a quick temper as a boy

16.8 Infinitives joined by 'and', etc.
Infinitives can be joined by and, but, except, or and than [8.4.4]. To is usually dropped before the second infinitive:
- Which would you prefer to win a million pounds or (to) have a brain like Einstein's?
Other infinitive forms can combine in this way:
- I'd like to be flying over the Alps and (to be) looking down and be looking down at the mountains
- I'd like to have been offered the job and (to have been) given and been given the opportunity to prove myself
Where the second infinitive follows on closely from the first, it is normal to omit to before the second infinitive:
- I'd like to lie down and go to sleep (Not *to go*)

The bare infinitive or the '-ing' form?

16.9 The bare infinitive or '-ing' after verbs of perception
16.9.1 Verbs without a noun or pronoun object + '-ing'
The verbs hear, smell and watch can be followed by the -ing form without a noun/pronoun object when an action is perceived in a
The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.9.2 Verb + noun or pronoun object + bare infinitive or '-ing'
These verbs can be followed by a noun or pronoun object + bare infinitive or the -ing form: feel, hear, listen to, look at, notice observe perceive see, smell, watch [compare > 16.45.1, App 38.4].

The bare infinitive generally refers to the complete action:

/ watched a pavement-artist draw a portrait in crayons (i.e. probably from start to finish)

The -ing form generally refers to an action in progress:

/ watching a pavement-artist drawing a portrait in crayons (i.e. the action was probably in progress when I arrived)

Either the bare infinitive or -ing can describe a short action:

/ heard someone unlock the door/unlocking the door.

But we do not use the -ing form for very short actions. Compare:

/ heard him cough, (once) / can hear him coughing (repeatedly)

For a series of actions, we prefer the bare infinitive:

The crowd watched the fireman climb the ladder, break a window on the first floor, and enter the building

The passive -ing form [> 16.41] (but not the passive infinitive) can follow a verb of perception:

/ saw him being taken away by the police

The past participle can sometimes follow the object directly:

/ saw him taken away by the police

16.9.3 The passive of verbs of perception + '-ing' or to-infinitive

The verbs hear observe, perceive and see are often used in the passive followed by -ing or by a to-infinitive:

/ They were seen waiting on the corner (action in progress)

/ They were seen to climb through the window (action completed)

16.10 Have' + bare infinitive or the '-ing' form

16.10.1 'Have' + personal object + bare infinitive

We use this construction to show that one person is causing another to do something [compare the causative, > 12.10]:

/ Have the next patient come in now please, nurse

He wanted a job to do, so I had him paint the kitchen

And note have + verbs like believe and know in: e.g.

/ can’t imagine what he’ll have you believe next

I’ll have you know that I’m a qualified engineer

16.10.2 Have' + object + '-ing' form

We use this construction to refer to the results we are aiming at:

/ I’ll have you speaking English in six months

Within five minutes, Archie had us all playing hide-and-seek

We can also refer to consequences which may not be intended:

Don’t shout’ You’ll have the neighbours complaining

When we use this construction with won’t or can’t, we refer to circumstances we are not prepared to tolerate:

/ I won’t/can’t have you speaking like that about your father
The to-infinitive

Sometimes this construction refers to happenings beyond the speaker's control. Compare a similar construction with *There* [> 10.20]:

We have salesmen calling/There are salesmen calling every day

Sometimes, but not very often, the bare infinitive is possible:

I've never had such a thing happen(ing) to me before

16.11 'Rather/Sooner than' + bare infinitive or '-ing'

Rather than and sooner than can be followed by a bare infinitive or -ing. Rather than is more common:

Rather than waste/wasting your time doing it yourself, why don't you call in a builder?

The to-infinitive

16.12 Some common uses of the to-infinitive

16.12.1 'To/in order to/as to' to express purpose [compare > 1.51.1]

We can use to, in order to or so as to to refer to purpose:

I went to live in France to/in order to/as to learn French

She was sent to England to/in order to/as to be educated

Not to can be used to refer to alternatives:

I went to France not to study French, but to study architecture

We express 'negative purpose' with so as not to/in order not to:

I shut the door quietly, so as not to wake the baby

When there is a change of subject we may use for + infinitive:

I bought a second car (in order) for my son to learn to drive

For + noun/pronoun + infinitive is more economical than [> 1.51.2]:

I bought a new car in order that my wife might learn to drive

Other verbs, e.g. bring, buy, need, take, use, want, often introduce an object + to-infinitive (but not an object + in order to/as to).

The infinitive tells us about the purpose of the object, which is often an indefinite pronoun like something [> 4.37]:

I want something to cheer me up

I need a spoon to eat this ice-cream with

Bring me a chair to sit on I brought a chair for you to sit on

Other verbs can be followed by for + object + to-infinitive, e.g. apply arrange ask, call, plan plead, phone, pray, ring, send, vote, wait wish. For marks the subject of the infinitive:

How long have you been waiting for the train to arrive?

16.12.2 '(Only) to': sequences [compare > 7.55.1]

Sometimes a to-infinitive in the second part of a sentence is used for the 'later' event in a sequence. The to-infinitive (which can be replaced by and + verb) describes an event which is unexpected, sometimes unwelcome - especially when only is used in front of to:

We came home after our holiday to find our garden neat and tidy.

(= and found)

He returned after the war, (only) to be told that his wife had left him

(= and was told)

A similar construction occurs with never:

She left home never to return/never to be seen again
16.12.3 The to-infinitive referring to the future or to an imaginary past
We can refer to the future with verbs like hope, intend, mean and (would) like to. A perfect infinitive is often used after a past verb, but it is not usually necessary. Compare:

/ would like to see that film (now, or in the future)
/ would like to have seen it (before now, so I did not see it)
/ would have liked to see it (but didn't have a chance then)
/ would have liked to have seen it (interchangeable with 'would have liked to see it; to have seen is unnecessary)

16.13 The to-infinitive as the object of a verb (> 16.19)
A great many verbs are strongly linked with the to-infinitive, e.g. decide, need wish (> App 46):

/ want to leave I want to be left alone.

In such cases the infinitive serves as the object of the verb. However, some verbs like think require it + adjective + infinitive: 'think it best to go (Not 'I think to go is best') [compare > 1.14, 4.15, 16.22]. A few verbs like appear, seem[> 1023] can also be followed by more complex infinitive forms: He seems to be leaving/to have left/to have been leaving, etc.

16.14 Contrasting negatives [compare > 1.23.5,13.10,16.12.1]
We form the negative of a to-infinitive by putting not before to.

I soon learnt not to/never to swim near coral reefs.

Compare ordinary negatives:

/ didn't learn/never learnt to swim when I was a child.

With many verbs (e.g. advise, ask, instruct remind, tell, warn) the placing of the negative seriously affects the meaning [> 15.24.1]:

He told me not to feed the animals. (He said, 'Don't feed...')

He didn't tell me to feed the animals (He didn't say anything.)

Don't ask Rex to phone I'll ring him myself.

Ask Rex not to phone.

I don't want to be disturbed

The placing of the negative has a similar effect on meaning with adjectives and nouns + infinitive:

/ wasn't sorry to go (= I went)
/ wasn't sorry not to go (= I didn't go)

It wasn't a surprise to hear from him (I heard from him)

It was a surprise not to hear from him. (I didn't hear from him)

Negatives are sometimes possible in both parts of a sentence:

/ can't promise not to be late. My car is very unreliable

but this would generally be expressed more simply: e.g.

/ can't promise to be on time

16.15 The split infinitive

'Splitting an infinitive' (i.e. putting an adverb or please between to and the verb) is usually considered unacceptable and should generally be avoided. For instance clearly could not come between to and read in the following:

/ want you to read that last sentence clearly
Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive

However, we often do separate to from the infinitive in spoken English, depending on where the emphasis falls:

I want you to clearly understand what I'm telling you
This is often the case with adverbs like completely fully really and truly; sometimes there is no other suitable place to put them:

It's difficult to really understand the theory of relativity

16.16 The uses of 'be' + to-infinitive

The to-infinitive can be used as the complement of be [> 10.9.10]:

Your mistake was to write that letter
The verb do can be followed by be + (optional) to:
What you do is (to) mix the eggs with flour
All I did was (to) press this button

The to-infinitive can be active in form but passive in meaning:
This house is to let/to be let Who is to blame/to be blamed?

Some constructions can only be in the passive:
He's (only) to be admired/envied/pitied All this is to be sold
For be to: future duties, instructions, etc. [> 9.47-48].

16.17 Leaving out the verb after 'to'

To avoid repetition, we can often leave the verb out after to:

You don't have to eat it if you don't want to
Would you like to come to a party? - I'd love to
Don't spill any of that paint, will you? - I'll try not to

Sometimes even to can be dropped:

Try to be back by 12, won't you? - OK. I'll try

With verbs that are followed by -ing but never followed by a to-infinitive, e.g. enjoy [> 16.42], we must use an object:

Would you like to come sailing? - Oh yes I'd enjoy it/that

16.18 The to-infinitive in fixed phrases

Some fixed phrases are introduced by a to-infinitive: e.g. to be honest, to begin with to cut a long story short, to get (back) to the point, not to make too much of it, to put it another way, to tell you the truth

To tell you the truth, I've never heard of Maxwell Montague

Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive

16.19 Verb + to-infinitive (not + '-ing' or 'that...') [compare > 16.42]

We can say:

I can't afford to buy a car She hesitated for a moment
But if we want to use a verb after can('t) afford or hesitate, this verb can only be in the form of a to-infinitive:

I can't afford to buy a car I hesitate to disagree with you

Other verbs like can('t) afford and hesitate are: aim, apply, decline fail, hasten hurry long, manage offer, prepare, refuse, seek, shudder, strive, struggle. For more examples [> App 46]. The perfect/past form of the infinitive (e.g. to have run) is rare after such verbs.
16.20 Verb + optional noun/pronoun + fo-infinitive

Some verbs can be used with or without a noun or pronoun before a to-infinitive: ask, beg, choose, expect, hate, help, intend, like, love, need, prefer, prepare, promise, want, wish. (Trouble can also be used in this way, normally in questions and negatives.) Note how the meaning changes:

I want to speak to the manager (= I will speak)
I want you to speak to the manager (= you will speak)

Promise is an exception: there is a difference in emphasis but not in meaning between I promise to and I promise you to

Like love, hate and prefer are often used in the simple present to refer to habitual personal choice and preference [compare > 16.58]:

I like to keep everything tidy (refers to my actions)
I like you to keep everything tidy (refers to your actions)

These verbs can also be used after would to make specific offers, requests etc. [> 11.35, 11.37-39 and compare > 16.12.3]:

I'd like to find you a job (refers to my possible future action)
I'd like you to find him a job (your possible future action)

16.21 Verb + compulsory noun/pronoun + fo-infinitive

Some verbs must normally always be followed by a noun or pronoun when used with a to-infinitive: advise, allow, assist, bribe, cause, caution, challenge, charge, command, compel, condemn, dare (= challenge), defy, direct, drive (= compel), enable, encourage, entitle, forbid, force, impel, incite, induce, instruct, invite, oblige, order, permit, persuade, press (= urge), recommend, remind, request, teach, tell, tempt, urge, and warn. All these verbs can be used in the passive as well as the active:

I advise you to leave. You were advised to leave

It takes/took + object + to-infinitive often refers to time in relation to activity. An indirect object is optional:

It takes/took (me) ten minutes to walk to the station

The same idea can be expressed with a personal subject:

I take/took ten minutes to walk to the station

16.22 Verb + object + 'to be' and other infinitive forms

Some verbs can be followed by an object + to be (and by a few stative verbs [> 9.3] like to have): acknowledge, assume, believe, calculate, consider, declare, discover, estimate, fancy, feel, find, guess, imagine, judge, know, maintain, proclaim, prove, reckon, see, show, suppose, take (= presume), think, understand.

I consider him to be one of the best authorities in the country

She is known to have the best collection of stamps in the world

Other infinitive forms are sometimes possible:

She is believed to be going/to have gone to the USA

These verbs are very frequently used in the passive and can often be followed by passive infinitives:

He is thought to have been killed in an air crash
Verb + to-infinitive or (that-) clause

All these verbs (except take - I take it (that)... can also be followed directly by that-clauses (I assume that...). [> App 45]

A few verbs like believe expect, intend, like, love, mean, prefer, understand, want and wish can be followed by there to be:
I expect there to be a big response to our advertisement

Verb + fo-infinitive or (that-)clause

6.23 Verbs followed by a to-infinitive or a that-clause

Many verbs can be followed directly by a to-infinitive or a that-clause: agree, arrange, beg (not) care, choose claim contrive, decide demand, determine, expect, hope, intend, learn, plan, prefer pretend, promise, resolve swear, threaten and wish;
I decided to ask for my money back
I decided that I would ask for my money back

Most of these verbs point to the future, so they are not normally followed by the perfect form of the infinitive. However, verbs referring to intentions, hopes, etc. can be followed by a perfect infinitive, parallel to the use of the future perfect [> 16.12.3];
I hope(d) (etc.) to have finished by 12

Some of these verbs (most commonly agree, arrange, decide) are used in the passive after It to introduce a that-clause [> 12.8n.1]:
It was agreed/arranged/decided that we should meet again later

6.24 Verb + question-word + to-infinitive or a clause

All question-words except why can come before the to-infinitive with 'verbs of asking' [> 15.24.2] and the following: consider, decide, discover, explain, find out, forget, hear, (not) know learn, observe perceive remember, see, understand and wonder
I don't know what/which/who(m) to choose
I wondered how/when/where to get in touch with them

The above verbs can also be followed by a clause introduced by any question word (including why) or that;
I don't know why the accident happened
I didn't know that there had been an accident

When we are discussing alternatives or expressing doubt, we can use whether should or whether to after most of the above verbs:
I haven't decided whether I should go/whether to go to Spain
We can sometimes use if as an alternative to whether before a clause, but not before an infinitive [compare > 15.18n.5, 15.24.2].
Remember and forget can be followed directly by a to-infinitive:
I remembered to/forgot to switch off the lights [>16.59]

Learn can be followed by to or how to without any change in meaning when it refers to acquiring a skill:
I learnt to/how to ride a bicycle when I was four
However, learn must be followed only by to (Not “how to”) when it conveys the idea of learning from experience:
We soon learnt to do as we were told in Mr Spinks' class'
16.25 **Verb + object + question-word + to-infinitive or a clause**

*Advertise, instruct, remind, teach, and tell* can have an object +
- a to-infinitive [*15.24.1]*:
  - *He told us to run*  *My sister taught me to swim*
- any question word (except *why*) + to-infinitive:
  - *The receptionist told me where to wait*
- a clause [*15.24.2]*:
  - *The union leader told the men that they should go back* to work
  - *The union leader told the men when they should go back* to work

Persuade and warn can have *to* or not a question-word:
*He warned me to stay away He warned me (that) I was in danger*

The verb *show* can be used like the verbs above, except that it always requires a question-word before the to-infinitive:
*Please show me how to start the engine*

Object + *whether* + to-infinitive can be used after: advise/not advise ask/not ask show/not show not teach, not tell and in questions with these verbs:
*Can you advise me whether to register this letter?*  
*You haven’t told me whether to sign this form*

### Adjective + to-infinitive

16.26 **Form of the to-infinitive after adjectives**

Many adjectives can be followed by to-infinitives:

- *I'm pleased to meet you*
- *Can you do me a favour? I'd be glad to* [compare > 16.17]

Other infinitive forms [*16.2*] are possible, e.g. *sorry to have missed you pleased to have been given this opportunity, nice to be sitting by the fire* For contrasting negatives with adjectives [*16.14*].

16.27 **Pattern 1: *He was kind to help us.***

We use this pattern and its variations (see below) when we are praising or criticizing people. (Not all adjectives in this pattern combine with *we* or *we*) The subject of the main verb *(be)* and the subject of the infinitive are the same person, and sometimes we can express the same idea with an adverb [*16.16.2*]:

- *He was very kind to help us He very kindly helped us*

Here are some adjectives which are used in this pattern: brave careless, but not careful [*16.28*], clever foolish generous good (un)kind polite right/wrong, rude, (un)selfish silly, wicked [*App 44*].

16.27.1 **Subject + *be* + adjective + to-infinitive**

*The government would be brave to call an election now*  
*Joan was foolish not to accept their offer*

Variations on this pattern with some of the adjectives listed above are possible with so as to (which is formal) and, less formally, with enough:
*Would you be so good as to let me know as soon as possible?*  
*Would you be good enough to let me know as soon as possible?*
Adjective + to-infinitive

16.27.2 'It' + 'be' + adjective + 'of noun/pronoun + to-infinitive
This use of It as 'preparatory subject' [> 4.13] is much more common than a personal subject. It occurs with all the adjectives listed in 16.27 above and with some -ing adjectives like annoying, boring, trying. If it is obvious who is referred to, the of-phrase can be omitted:

It was kind of her to help us
It was silly (of us) to believe him
It was most selfish of him not to contribute anything
It was annoying of John to lose my keys

Verbs like seem/look [> 10.23-25] can be used in this pattern:

It would look rude to refuse their invitation

16.27.3 Adjective + to-infinitive in exclamations
Exclamations in this pattern are very common:

How kind of him to help us!
Wasn't he kind to help us!
Wasn't it kind (of him) to help us!

16.28 Pattern 2: He is eager to please.
As in Pattern 1, the subject of the main verb (be or sometimes feel, look, etc.) and the subject of the infinitive are the same person. When using this pattern, we are often concerned with people's feelings about an action or situation, and I/we fit naturally. There is no alternative structure with It. Here are some adjectives which are used in this pattern: afraid, anxious, ashamed, careful, but not careless [> 16.27], curious, determined, due, eager, fit, free, frightened, glad, keen, prepared, quick, ready, reluctant, slow, sorry, willing [> App 44]:

He is always prepared to take a lot of trouble
She is determined not to offend her mother-in-law

For + noun/pronoun can be used after a very limited number of adjectives, such as anxious, determined eager and keen, referring to situations that have not yet occurred:

She's anxious for her daughter to win the competition
Very occasionally, this pattern has an inanimate subject:

My car is reluctant to start in cold weather
Our boiler is slow to get going in the mornings

A few adjectives referring to possibility and probability can be included here: bound/certain to, (un)likely to and sure to:

He is bound/certain/likely/sure to sign the contract

It can be used as a preparatory or empty subject [> 1.23.1, 4.12-13]:

It's certain/likely/unlikely that he'll sign the contract.

It's bound/sure to rain on our wedding day

16.29 Pattern 3: He is easy to please.
The infinitive in this pattern usually refers to things done to someone or something. The subject of the sentence is also the object of the infinitive; the It structure is very common here:

He is easy to please /It is easy to please him

Adjectives like the following fit into this pattern: agreeable, amusing, boring, difficult, easy, hard, impossible, nice

She is amusing to be with Polyester is easy to iron
A negative infinitive (not to) is rare after he/she, but possible after it:  
*It is impossible not to offend Mrs Rumbold*

16.30 **Pattern 4: It is good to be here.**  
A very large number of adjectives fit into this pattern. The infinitive subject is normally replaced by *it* [compare > 16.47]:  
*To accept their offer would be foolish It would be foolish to accept their offer*  
*Not to accept their offer would be foolish It would be foolish not to accept their offer*  
Compare the uses of *it* in these two sentences:  
*Have a drive in my new car It (= the car) is easy to start*  
*It ['preparatory subject'; > 4.13] is easy to start it (the car)*  
*For + noun/pronoun can occur after many of these adjectives:*  
*It won't be easy for Tom to find a new job*  
The *-ing* form can occur after some of these adjectives [> 16.47]:  
*It is hard speaking in public*  
*A number of adjectives used in this pattern (e.g. advisable important necessary, vital) refer to advice, necessity, duties, and can also be followed by that, should [> 11.75.3]:*  
*It's important to reply to her letter*  
*It's important that we (should) reply to her letter*  

16.31 **Pattern 5: He is the first to arrive.**  
The following can be used in this pattern: the first, the second, etc.; the next/the last, and superlatives like the best, the most suitable. These can be followed optionally by a noun or one(s):  
*She's always the first (guest) to arrive and the last to leave*  
*Is a solicitor the best person to advise me about buying a house?*  
The only must always be followed by a noun or one(s):  
*You're the only person (the only one) to complain*  

16.32 **Adjective patterns with 'too' and 'enough'**

16.32.1 **'Too' + adjective + to-infinitive**  
*Too* comes before the adjective and has the sense of 'excessive'; compare very, which merely strengthens the adjective [> 7.48]. In patterns with to-in infinitives, *too* often combines negative ideas:  
*He isn't strong He can't lift it.  \(\rightarrow\) He is too weak to lift it*  
*In the above example, the subject of the main verb is also the subject of the infinitive. In the following example, the subject of the main verb is the object of the infinitive:*  
*He's too heavy I can't lift him  \(\rightarrow\) He is too heavy (for me) to lift.*  
*Note the optional for-phrase, and note that we never put an object after the infinitive in sentences like this (Not 'This bread is too stale for me to eat it').*  
*Generally, -ed adjectives [> 6.15] have a personal subject + too:*  
*I'm too tired to stay up longer*  
*and -ing adjectives have an impersonal subject + too:*  
*The race was almost too exciting to watch*
5.32.2 **Adjective + ‘enough’ + to-infinitive**

*Enough* comes after the adjective and means, e.g. ‘to the necessary degree’. In to-infinitive patterns it combines two ideas:

- He’s strong. *He can lift it.* He’s **strong enough to lift it**
- He’s weak. *He can’t lift it* He’s **isn’t strong enough to lift it**

In the above examples, the subjects of the main verb and of the infinitive are the same. In the following example, the subject of the main verb is the object of the infinitive:

*The pear is ripe I can eat it.* - *It is ripe enough (for me) to eat*

The for-phrase is optional and we do not repeat the object in this type of sentence. (Not ‘for me to eat it’).

*For* noun/pronoun can combine with *too much/little, not enough* etc.:

*The baby’s too much for her to cope with*  
*There’s too little work/not enough work for me to do*

### Noun + to-infinitive

16.33 **The to-infinitive after nouns related to verbs**

1 Some nouns are often associated with the infinitive:

*Our decision to wait was wise*

Such nouns may correspond to verbs [compare > 16.13, 16.19]:

*We decided to wait*

A noun may have the same form as a verb or a different form:

*They wish to succeed It’s their wish to succeed*

*She refused to help Her refusal to help surprised us*

2 Not all such nouns can be followed by an infinitive. Some are followed by a preposition + the -ing form [> 16.53]:

*We cannot hope to find him There’s no hope of finding him*

Some nouns can be followed by an infinitive or by a preposition:  
*It’s a pleasure to be with you.*  
*There’s nothing to compare with the pleasure of being with you*

3 Some nouns combine with other infinitive forms [> 16.2], e.g.  
*a surprise to be/to have been invited, a change to be sitting in the sun For contrasting negatives with nouns [> 16.14],*

16.34 **The to-infinitive after nouns related to adjectives**

Many of the adjectives which can be followed by to-infinitives have equivalent nouns (usually different in form, e.g. *brave/bravery*). However, not all such nouns can be followed by to-infinitives. We can use noun + to-infinitive here:

*She’s determined/eager/willing to help*  
*Thank you for your determination/eagerness/willingness to help*

But we must use noun + preposition + -ing form here:

*It was generous/kind (of you) to contribute so much*  
*Thank you for your generosity/kindness in contributing so much*

Noun/adjective equivalents do not always have the same meaning:

*It’s fun to be here It was funny (= odd) of Sam to do that*  
*It’s a pity to leave so early Her sobs were pitiful to hear*
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.35 Noun + to-infinitive to express advisability, etc.
The to-infinitive is often used after a noun to convey advice, purpose, etc. This construction is like a relative clause [> 1.33-34]:

The person to ask is Jan (= the person whom you should ask)
I've got an essay to write (= an essay which I must write)

Sometimes active and passive infinitives are interchangeable:

After the fire, there was some re-decorating to do/to be done
When the subject of the sentence is the person who is to do the action described by the infinitive, we do not normally use the passive:

I have a meal to prepare (Not "to be prepared")

16.36 The to-infinitive after nouns, 'something', 'a lot', etc.
The to-infinitive can be used after nouns and words used in place of nouns, such as something, someone, a lot [compare > 16.12.1]:

I want a machine/something to answer the phone
Active and passive infinitives are sometimes interchangeable:

There was a lot to do/a lot to be done
or they can have different meanings:

There was nothing to do so we played computer games (i.e. we were bored)
He's dead There's nothing to be done (i.e. we can't change that)

Sometimes a to-phrase is included:

He talks as if there's nothing left in life for him to do

16.37 Adjective + noun + to-infinitive
Here are some examples of structures with adjective + noun + to-infinitive:

- with too and enough [compare > 16.32]:
  Note the position of a/an
  He's too clever a politician to say a thing like that in public
  He isn't a clever enough politician to have any original ideas
  In sentences beginning There the quantifier enough can go before or after the noun:
  There is enough time to take care of everything
  There is time enough to take care of everything (more formal)

- with so as to and such a/an as to [compare > 16.27.1]:
  I'm not so stupid (a fool) as to put it in writing
  I'm not such a (stupid) fool as to put it in writing

- in exclamations [> 3.13]:
  What an unkind thing to say!
  Sometimes the adjective is omitted if we are criticizing:
  What a thing to say! What a way to behave!

The '-ing' form

16.38 The two functions of the '-ing' form
Gerunds and present participles are formed from verbs and always end in -ing. Therefore words like playing, writing etc. can function as
The ‘-ing’ form

gerunds or as participles. The -ing form is usually called a gerund when it behaves like a noun and a participle when it behaves like an adjective. However, there is some overlap between these two main functions and it is often difficult (and unnecessary!) to make formal distinctions. The term the -ing form is used here to cover gerund and participle constructions and the term ‘participle’ is used in The sentence’ [> 1 56] to refer to part of a verb. In broad terms, the gerund can take the place of a noun, though it can, like a verb, have an object:

planes
I like coffee John likes flying
swimming flying planes
The participle can take the place of an adjective [> 6.2, 6.14]:
This is a wide stream running

16.39 The ‘-ing’ form: gerund or present participle?

16.39.1 The ‘-ing’ form as gerund

As a gerund, the -ing form often functions in general statements as an uncountable noun with no article. It can also be replaced by it:

Dancing is fun I love it [> 3.26.2]

Sometimes the -ing form functions as a countable noun which can be replaced by it (singular) or they (plural) [> 2.16.5]:

Dickens often gave readings of his work They were very popular

We can use a gerund after determiners like a, the this, a lot of and some, or after possessives and adjectives:

Brendel has made a new recording The recording was made live
The sinking of the Titanic has never been forgotten
I enjoy a little light reading when I go away on holiday
What’s all this arguing?
I did some/a lot of/a little shopping this morning
I appreciate your helping me Your quick thinking saved us all

The gerund also has some of the characteristics of a verb: e.g.
- it can be followed by an adverb or adverbial phrase:
  Walking quickly/Walking in step is difficult
- and it can take an object:
  Washing the car seems to be your main hobby
- it can have a perfect form and even a passive [compare > 1.56]:
  I’m sorry for having wasted your time
  I can’t forgive myself for having been taken by surprise

16.39.2 The ‘-ing’ form as present participle

Participles are associated with verbs when they refer to actions in progress, e.g. in progressive tenses [> 9.2]. Participle phrases also commonly stand for clauses [> 1.58]:

Walking in the park the other day, I saw a bird building a nest
(= I was walking, the bird was building)

16.39.3 The gerund in nouns; the present participle as adjective [> 2.7]

Here are your running-shoes (shoes for running: gerund)
l I love the sight of running water (water which is running: adjective)
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.40 Some common uses of the '-ing' form (gerund)
The -ing form can be used in the active or passive in a large number of different ways. Here are some examples (note the formation of the negative with not + -ing):

16.40.1 As a noun complement to the verb 'be'
My favourite pastime is bird-watching
As far as he's concerned, it's not doing something wrong that matters, but not being caught doing something wrong

16.40.2 As the subject of a verb
Before be:
Jogging isn't much fun. Being lost can be a terrifying experience
Not being tall is not a serious disadvantage in life.
Before verbs other than be:
Rowing keeps you fit Not being punctual makes him unreliable

16.40.3 As the object of a verb
/ enjoy dancing He doesn't like not being taken seriously
/ hear shouting [> 16.9.1] She taught us dress-making

16.40.4 After 'do' + the referring to jobs [> 10.44.4]
Who does the cooking/the shopping/the washing-up here?

16.40.5 'The' + '-ing' form + 'of'
Without an article, the -ing form can have a direct object:
Lighting the fire used to be a daily chore in Victorian times
After an article (or other determiner), the -ing form cannot be directly followed by an object. We must use of.
The lighting of fires is forbidden
A ringing of bells marked the end of the old year

16.40.6 The art of writing', etc.
Many combinations are possible, e.g. the act of listening, the art of writing, the skill of speaking, etc.: The skill of speaking a foreign language takes time to acquire

16.40.7 After No' in prohibitions
This is common in public signs: e.g. No smoking No parking

16.40.8 After 'like' (= for example) [> App 25.25]
Why don't you find something to do like cleaning the car for me?
If you want to get on, there's nothing like being hard-working

16.40.9 After 'for' (the purpose of) [> App 25.20]
What's that? - It's a tool for making holes in metal
This is a tool that is used for cutting hedges
Compare a parallel use of the to-infinitive in: e.g. What's that for? - It's to make holes in metal (with)

16.40.10 The '-ing' form after adjectives and possessives
Slow cooking makes tough meat tender
Your denying everything will get you nowhere
Jenny's not having been trained as a dancer is her one regret

16.40.11 The '-ing' form after 'What about...?', 'How about...?' [> 13.40.6]
What about/How about sending them a postcard?
Verb + '-ing' form

16.41 Form of '-ing' after verbs [compare > 1.56]
Verbs like enjoy, deny can be followed directly by the -ing form:
active: I deny/denied taking it
passive: He resents/resented being accused.
And note the perfect or past form: having + past participle:
active: I deny/denied having taken it
passive: He resents/resented having been accused
Contrasting negatives [> 16.14] are possible with these forms: e.g.
I don't enjoy having to . . I enjoy not having to .

16.42 Verb + '-ing' form (not + to-infinitive) [compare > 16.19, App 45]
When we want to use another verb immediately after the following verbs, the second verb can only be an -ing form, never a to-infinitive:
admit, appreciate, avoid, celebrate, consider contemplate defer, delay, deny, detest, discontinue, dislike, dispute, endure, enjoy it entail(s), escape excuse, explain, fancy, feel like, finish, forgive, can't help, hinder, imagine, it invoke(s), keep, loathe, it mean(s), mention, mmd(= object to), miss, it necessitate(s), pardon, postpone, practise, prevent recall, report, resent, resist, risk, suggest, understand-
I don't fancy going for a walk in the rain
Imagine not knowing the answer to such an easy question!
Deny and regret are often followed by having + a past participle:
Susan denies/regrets having said anything

16.43 The '-ing' form after 'come' and 'go'
The -ing form relating to outdoor activities (e.g. climbing, driving, fishing, riding, sailing, shopping skiing, walking, water-skiing, wind-surfing) is often used after go and come, e.g. when we are:
- making suggestions: Why don't we go swimming?
- inviting: Come dancing this evening
- narrating: Yesterday we went sight-seeing
Compare go/come for a walk, etc. and have been + -ing [> 10.13.4],

16.44 The '-ing' form after 'need' and 'want'
The -ing form can follow need, want (and less commonly) require:
He needs (a lot of) encouraging
The front gate needs/wants/requires mending
The -ing form has a passive meaning here and can be compared to the passive infinitive (He needs to be encouraged).

16.45 Verb (+ accusative or possessive) + '-ing' form
With some of the verbs which can be followed by an -ing form, we can put another word between the verb and -ing. Sometimes this word must be an accusative (e.g. an object pronoun like me, a name like John); sometimes it must be a possessive (i.e. a possessive adjective like my; or 's, e.g. John's); sometimes it can be either.
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.45.1 Verb (+ accusative) + '-ing'
After the following verbs, the -ing form functions as a participle. We can include an accusative (e.g. me, John) between the verb and the -ing form: hear, keep, smell, start, stop and watch. Compare:

When are you going to start working?
When are you going to start him working?

The following must always have an accusative before -ing: catch, find leave notice, observe perceive and see [>] App 38.4:

I'd better not catch you doing that again'

Verbs of perception like hear and see can also be followed by an object + bare infinitive [>] 16.9.2:/ saw him climb the tree

16.45.2 Verb (+ possessive) + '-ing'
The following verbs can be followed by the -ing form on its own or by a possessive (e.g. my, John's) + -ing. Here the -ing form functions as a gerund (i.e. a noun), so we can use a possessive form (referring to people, but not things) in front of it: appreciate, avoid, consider (usually in questions and negatives), defer, delay, deny, enjoy postpone, risk and suggest:

I don't think the children enjoy your/his/John's teasing

16.45.3 Verb (+ accusative or possessive) + '-ing'
Here is a selection of verbs that can be followed by -ing on its own or by an accusative or a possessive before -ing: anticipate, contemplate detest, dislike dispute, endure, escape, excuse, (can't) face, fancy, forgive hate, hinder, imagine, it involve(s), like, love mention, mind (= object to), miss, it necessitate(s), pardon, prevent, resent, resist, understand, can't bear can't help, can't stand

In everyday speech, the accusative is generally preferred to the possessive, though not all native speakers approve of its use:

informal (accusative) formal (possessive)

I can't imagine my mother approving' my mother's approving'
Please excuse him not writing to you his not writing to you
Fancy you having noticed' your having noticed'

The 's can be included or omitted with people's names:

I can't understand John/John's making such a fuss
However, with more than one name 's is unlikely:

I can't imagine Frank and Mabel paying so much for a piano

Adjectives and nouns + '-ing' form

16.46 Form of '-ing' after adjectives and nouns
Many adjectives, nouns and expressions can be followed by -ing forms active and passive [>] 16.41. e.g. It's nice seeing him again, It's fun being taken to the zoo. Contrasting negatives, e.g. not fun having to, fun not having to [>] 16.14 are possible.

16.47 The -ing' form with adjectives
Like the to-infinitive, the -ing form (gerund) can be used as the subject of a sentence and can be replaced by a construction with
'preparatory if [> 4.13]. There is not much difference in meaning between -ing and the to infinitive: -ing may refer to an action in progress, whereas the to infinitive may imply 'in general':

**It's difficult finding** your way around in a strange city
**It's difficult to find** your way around in a strange city

We rarely begin statements with the to infinitive but often begin with

-ing, particularly when we are making general statements:

- Finding work is difficult these days
- Windsurfing is popular

Compare the -ing form (participle) [> 1.58] after adjectives such as
bored, busy, fed-up, frantic, happy, occupied and tired with a
personal subject (Not "If"):

- Sylvia is frantic getting everything ready for the wedding
  (= Sylvia is frantic. She is getting everything ready...)

Adjectives can be followed by the accusative (me, you, him, etc.) or
the possessive (my, his, John's, etc.):

- It's strange him/his behaving like that

Normally only a possessive is possible when -ing begins a sentence:

- His knowing I had returned home unexpectedly is strange

Either -ing or a to infinitive can follow it's/it was + adjective + of (him)
without much difference in meaning [> 16.27.2]:

- It was rude of her interrupting (to interrupt) you all the time

16.48 The '-ing' form after nouns

Many nouns, both countable and uncountable, can be followed by the
-ing form after 'preparatory if [> 4.13]. Examples are:
catastrophe, a disaster, fun, hell, luck, a mistake, a pain, a pleasure, a relief, a tragedy.

It's a nightmare worrying where the children might be
It's a tedious business attending so many meetings

If we want to use another word before the -ing form, a possessive is
preferable to an accusative (though both are possible):

- It's a catastrophe their/them shutting all those factories.

16.49 Common expressions with '-ing'

Typical expressions that can be followed by the -ing form are: it's no
good, it’s no use, it’s little use; it's hardly any use; it's not worth, it's
hardly/scarcely worth, it's worthwhile; spend money/time, there's no,
there's no point in; there's nothing worse than; what's the use/point

It's no good complaining This clock is hardly worth repairing

There's no telling what will happen Don't waste time talking

Some expressions can be followed by a possessive or accusative:

It's no good his/him apologizing now the damage has been done

Prepositions + '-ing' form

16.50 Form of '-ing' after prepositions

Prepositions can be followed by all -ing forms, active and passive [> 16.41], e.g. without eating breakfast, without being told, without having
been told. Contrasting negatives e.g. not sorry for telling him sorry for not telling him [⇒ 16.14] are possible.

### 16.51 The 'ing' form after prepositions [compare > 1.60 1.62.2]

We may use the ing form (not a to infinitive) after prepositions such as about after by for instead of to [⇒ 16.56] without

I have learnt a lot about gardening from my father

After changing some money I went sight-seeing [⇒ 1.58.2 8.4.4]

You open this door by turning the key twice in the lock

The teacher punished Jimmy for talking in class

Instead of making a fuss you should have complained quietly

You shouldn't try to leave the restaurant without paying [⇒ App 25.36]

Prepositions can sometimes be followed by an accusative pronoun by a name or a noun or by a possessive adjective or noun + s

You should offer to help without me/my having to ask

### 16.52 'There being' and 'it being' after prepositions

There is/There will be and 'is/it will be can be replaced by there being and it being after prepositions [compare > 10.20]

There being can often be omitted

Is there any chance of (there being) a vacancy in this hotel tomorrow? (= will there be a vacancy)

If I bring in my suit for dry cleaning is there any chance of it being ready by tomorrow? (= will it be ready)

### 16.53 The 'ing' form after adjective or noun + preposition

Many adjectives can be followed by prepositions [⇒ App 27] e.g.

afraid of bored with fond of good at happy about interested in keen on sorry for (be) used to etc.

The ing form (not a to infinitive) may be used after them

I'm interested in acting He's good at ski-ing

Possessive and/or accusative forms can be used before ing

You can't be too sure of his/him agreeing

I'm surprised at your/you not having noticed

The ing form may be used after noun + preposition e.g.

I'm interested in acting He's good at ski-ing

Concern about fear of interest in [⇒ Apps 27-29]

Erica could never overcome her fear of flying

His interest in hang-gliding proved to be fatal

Accusative (informal) and possessive forms can be used

My main interest at present is in him/his doing well at school

### 16.54 The 'ing' form after verb + preposition [⇒ Apps 28-30]

Many verbs are followed by prepositions, e.g. apologize for approve of insist on prevent somebody/something from thank somebody for The ing form may be used after a verb + preposition and may be preceded by an object (informal) or a possessive

I must insist on paying I must insist on him/his paying
The to-infinitive or the \textit{ing} form?

16.55 The \textit{-ing} form after \textit{verb + particle} \([>\text{Apps 32-33}]\)

An adverb particle may be followed by the \textit{-ing} form

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{Everyone \textit{burst out laughing I ve given up smoking}}
  \item We can use a possessive before a gerund
  \item \textit{We \textit{ll have to put off their coming by another week}}
  \item We cannot use a possessive before a participle
  \item \textit{We \textit{ll have to put them off coming}}
  \quad (= They are conning We \textit{ll have to put them off})
\end{itemize}

16.56 The \textit{-ing} form after \textit{to} as a preposition

To is either a preposition or a part of the infinitive It is part of the infinitive in \textit{I want to go home} but a preposition governing a noun/gerund in \textit{object to noise I object to smoking} In the following expressions to is a preposition so we may use the \textit{-ing} form after it accustom (oneself) to be accustomed to face up to in addition \textit{to look forward to object to be reduced to resign oneself to be resigned to resort to sink to be used to}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{object to being kept waiting I\textit{\sout{m}}} \textit{\it{e\sout{d\sout{u\sout{t\sout{i\sout{d}}} doing the shopping}}}
  \item Accusative and possessive forms are possible
  \item \textit{object to people/him/his smoking in restaurants}
  \item Some nouns and adjectives can also be followed by \textit{to + -ing e g alternative to close/closeness to dedication/dedicated to opposition/opposed to similarity/similar to}
\end{itemize}

16.57 Verb + to-infinitive or \textit{-ing}: no change in meaning

Some verbs can be followed by a to-infinitive or by \textit{-ing} Sometimes there is little or no change in meaning, sometimes there is.

These verbs can be followed by a to-infinitive or \textit{-ing} without any change in meaning attempt begin can t bear cease commence continue intend omit and start

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{I can t bear to see/seeing people suffering}
  \item After \textit{can t bear} the accusative can be used before the infinitive the accusative or possessive can be used before the \textit{-ing} form
  \item \textit{I can t bear you to shout in that way}
  \item \textit{I can t bear you/your shouting in that way}
\end{itemize}

We do not normally use the \textit{ing} form after the progressive forms of begin cease continue or start This is because the repetition of the two \textit{-ing} forms sounds awkward

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{He was beginning to recover when he had another attack}
  \item However we can use \textit{-ing} after the progressive forms of verbs which cannot be followed by a to-infinitive \([>16.42]\
  \item \textit{We were considering catching an earlier train}
  \item Stative verbs like \textit{know and understand} cannot normally be used with an \textit{-ing} form after begin cease and continue
  \item \textit{I soon began to understand what was happening}
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

Some verbs such as allow, advise, permit and forbid, which can be followed by a to-infinitive after an object [† 16.21], can also be followed directly by -ing:

Would you advise phoning, or shall I wait a bit longer?
Would you advise me to phone, or shall I wait a bit longer?

16.58 Verb + to- or '-ing': some changes in meaning

These verbs can be followed by a to-infinitive or -ing: dread, hate, like, love, prefer. We often use a to-infinitive after these verbs to refer to a specified future event and the -ing form to refer to an activity currently in progress or existing in general. Some examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acceptable examples</th>
<th>comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a / love/like to watch TV.</td>
<td>Same (general) meaning,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / love/like watching TV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a / hate to disturb you</td>
<td>(but I am just about to do so),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / hate disturbing you</td>
<td>(= I'm disturbing you and I'm sorry) or general use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a / dread to think what has happened to him</td>
<td>(so I dare not try to). &quot;I dread thinking&quot; is unacceptable,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / dread going to the dentist</td>
<td>(= whenever I go, I'm terrified).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a / prefer to wait here</td>
<td>(so I'll wait here if you don't mind),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / prefer waiting here</td>
<td>(= I'm waiting here and I prefer doing that).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c / prefer swimming to cycling</td>
<td>Not the infinitive here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a Would you like to eat out?</td>
<td>Not the gerund here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / I'd like to. I'd love to.</td>
<td>Or. I'd like it. I'd love it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c / I'd love sailing if I could afford it</td>
<td>I'd love to sail if I could afford it. Also acceptable,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d / I'd hate to disturb him if he's busy</td>
<td>I'd hate disturbing him if... is doubtful,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e / You'd hate to live on a desert island</td>
<td>You'd hate living on a desert island is also acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a / wouldn't like you to think</td>
<td>I wouldn't like you thinking...' is doubtful,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / I'd forgotten you</td>
<td>I like him to play the guitar is also acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b / like him/his playing the guitar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16.59 Verb + to- or '-ing': different meanings

The to-infinitive and -ing never mean the same when used after these verbs: remember, forget, regret, try, stop and go on:

Remember + fo-infinitive refers to an action in the future (or to a 'future' action as seen from the past):

Remember to post the letters (= don't forget to) |
/ remembered to post the letters (= I didn't forget to) |
Remember + -ing refers to the past:

I remember posting/having posted the letters |
(= I posted them and I remember the action)
The to-infinitive or the ‘-ing’ form

Forget + to-infinitive refers to future actions (or to a ‘future’ action as seen from the past):

Don’t forget to ask Tom I forgot to ask Tom

Forget + -ing refers to the past:

Have you forgotten meeting/having met her? (i.e. you met her)

Regret + to-infinitive refers to future or present:

We regret to inform you that your account is overdrawn

Regret + -ing refers to present or past:

I regret(ted) leaving the firm after twenty years
(I regret(ted) having left would refer to the past only.)

Try + to-infinitive means ‘make an effort’:

You really must try to overcome your shyness

Try + -ing means ‘experiment’:

Try holding your breath to stop sneezing

Stop + to-infinitive refers to purpose [> 16.12.1]:

On the way to the station I stopped to buy a paper

Stop + -ing: -ing is the object of the verb, [compare > 16.42, 16.45.1].

When he told us the story, we just couldn’t stop laughing

Go on + to-infinitive refers to doing something different:

After approving the agenda we went on to discuss finance

Go on + -ing means ‘continue without interruption’ [> App 32.9.1]:

We went on talking till after midnight

16.60 Adjective/noun + to-or + preposition [compare > 8.20]

Some adjectives and nouns can be followed by a to-infinitive or by a preposition [> App 27].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective + ‘to-‘</th>
<th>adjective + preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interested to (do/be)</td>
<td>interested in (doing/being)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sorry to (disturb)</td>
<td>sorry for (disturbing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>noun + ‘to-‘</th>
<th>noun + preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chance to (meet)</td>
<td>chance of (meeting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunity to (buy)</td>
<td>opportunity of (buying)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Often there is little difference in meaning between the to- and -ing structures:

I’m sorry (not) to mention it (more likely)
I’m sorry for (not) mentioning it (less likely)

I couldn’t resist the opportunity to greet such a great actor
I couldn’t resist the opportunity of greeting such a great actor.

Sometimes there are differences in meaning between the to- and -ing structures:

I’m interested to hear your opinion (it interests me)
I’m interested in emigrating to Canada (I might do this)
I’m sorry to interrupt (= I’m sorry, but I’m going to interrupt)
I’m sorry for interrupting (= I’m sorry for what has happened)
Appendix

Appendix 1 [> 1.9.1.10.1.12.4.16.2]
Transitive and intransitive verbs

1.1 Verbs which are always transitive: 
afford, allow, blame, bring, contain, deny, enjoy, examine, excuse, fetch, fix, get, greet, have, hit, inform, interest, let, like, love, make, mean, name, need, omit, owe, prefer, prove, put, question, remind, rent, rob, select, wrap

1.2 Verbs which are always intransitive: 
faint, hesitate, lie (led), lie (lay/laid), occur, pause, rain (fell), remain, sleep, sneeze

1.3 Verbs which are transitive/intransitive: 
answer, ask, begin, borrow, choose, climb, dance, eat, enter, fail, fill, grow, help, hurry, jump, know, leave, marry, meet, obey, pull, read, see, sell, touch, wash, watch, win, write

Appendix 2 [> 2.2]
Some common noun endings

2.1 People who do things: e.g. ant: assistant, -an: beggar, -eer: engineer, -ent: president, -er: driver, -ian: historian, -ist: pianist, -or: actor

2.2 People who come from, etc: e.g. -an: Roman, -er: Londoner, -ese: Milanese, -ian: Athenian, -ite: Muscovite, socialite

2.3 Nouns derived from verbs: e.g. age: posture, -al: arrival, -ance: acceptance, -ence: existence, -ery: discovery, -ion: possession, -ment: agreement, -sion: decision, extension, -tion: attention

And note the following forms running, etc [> 16.1]

2.4 Nouns related to adjectives: e.g. 
ance/ence: abundance, absence, constancy, consistency, -ety: anxiety, -ity: activity, -ness: happiness

2.5 Nouns derived from other nouns: e.g. cy: lunacy, -dom: kingdom, -ful: mouthful, -hood: boyhood, -ian: Athenian, -ish: sexism

2.6 Nouns used to mean "small": e.g. ant: kitten, -ette: maisonette, -et: laddie, -et: booklet, -ling: duckling, -y: dolly

Appendix 3 [> 2.3]

3.1 Nouns/verbs distinguished by stress: 
abstract (əbstrakt) / abstract (əbˈstrækt) 
conduct (kənˈdukt) / conduct (kənˈdʌkt) 
permit (pərˈmit) / permit (pərˈmit) 
product (ˈprɒdʌkt) / produce (ˈprədjuːs) 
rebel (rɪˈbel) / rebel (rɪˈbel) 
spotted (ˈspɒtɪd) / spot (spɒt) 
pole (pəʊl) / pool (pʊl)

3.2 Nouns/verbs: same spelling and pronunciation: e.g. 
act, attempt, blame, book, call, climb, copy, cost, dance, drink, drive, fall, fear, help, joke, kiss, laugh, try, vote, wait, walk, wash, wish

Noises bang, bark, buzz, grunt, hiccup, moan

Jobs/Actions butcher, judge, model, nurse

Appendix 4 [> 2.17]
Nouns not normally countable in English: accommodation, advice, anger, applause, assistance, baggage, behaviour, bread, business (= trade), capital (= money), cardboard, cash, chaos, chess, China, cloth, coal, conduct, cookery, countryside, courage, crockery, cutlery, damage, dining, dirt, education, evidence, flu, food, fruit, fun, furniture, garbage, gossip (= talk about other people), grass, hair (hairs = separate strands of hair, hair (= all the hairs on the head)), happiness, harm, help, homework, hospitality, housework, information, jealousy, jewellery, knowledge, laughter, leisure, lighting, linen, luck, luggage, macaroni, machinery, meat, money, moonlight, mud, music, news, nonsense, parking, patience, peel, permission, poetry, the post (= letters), produce, progress, rubbish, safety, scaffolding, scenery, seaside, sewing, shopping, smoking, soap, spaghetti, spelling, steam, strength, stuff, stupidity, sunshine, thunder, timber, toast (= bread), traffic, transport, travel, underwear, violence, vocabulary, wealth, weather, work, writing

Appendix 5 [> 2.18.2.2.32]

5.1 Partitives: specific items or amounts: a bar of chocolate, a block of cement, a book of matches, a cake of soap, a cloud of dust, a flash of lightning, a head of hair, an item of news, a jet of water, a loaf of bread, a peal of thunder, a pile of earth, a portion of food, a roll of paper, a slice of meat

5.2 Partitives: "containers": e.g. a barrel of beer, a basket of fruit, a bottle of milk, a can of beer, a carton of cigarettes, a flask of tea, a glass of water, a jug of water, a mug of cocoa, a tin of soup, a vase of flowers

5.3 Partitives: small quantities: e.g. a blade of grass, a breath of air, a crust of bread, a dash of soda, a grain of rice, a lock of hair, a pat of butter, a scrap of paper

5.4 Partitives: measures: e.g. a gallon of petrol, a length of cloth, a litre of oil, an ounce of gold, a pint of milk, a pound of sugar, a spoonful of medicine, a yard of cloth

5.5 Partitives: ‘a game of’: e.g. billiards, bridge, cards, chess, cricket, darts, squash, table-tennis, tennis, volleyball

5.6 Partitives: abstract: e.g. a bit of advice, a branch of knowledge, a fit of anger, a piece of research, a spot of trouble

5.7 Partitives: types/species: e.g. a brand of soap, a kind of biscuit, a variety of pasta

5.8 Partitives: ‘a pair of’: e.g. boots, bracelets, glasses, knickers, pants, piers, pyjamas/pajamas, scissors, shears, shoes, shorts, skates, skis, slippers, socks, stockings, tights, tongs, trousers
Appendix 6 [> 2.19]
Collective nouns followed by 'of': e.g. a band of soldiers, a bouquet of flowers, a bunch of grapes, a circle of friends, a clump of trees, a collection of coins, a colony of ants, a crew of sailors, a crowd of people, a deck of cards, a drove of cattle, a fleet of ships, a gang of thieves, a group of people, a herd of cattle, a hive of bees, a horde of children, a mass of people, a mob of hooligans, a pack of cards, a panel of experts, a party of visitors, a plague of locusts, a school of fish, a set of teeth, a shelf of books, a string of pearls

Appendix 7 [> 4.35]
Uses of 'this/that' and 'these/those'

7.1 Identification
Things
- This is my room
- There he is (That's him (Not "he")

7.2 Introductions
This is Mrs Amsworth
This is Tom Smith, and this is Jane Mills
This is Mr and Mrs Amsworth (i.e. one unit)

7.3 Telephoning
This is Tom here. Is that you, Elizabeth?

7.4 'This' = 'here'
In this school/firm/house we like punctuality

7.5 'Pointing' to people, etc.: contrast
This boy wants tea and that one wants milk
These boys are in class 1 and those are in 2
Take this home and give these to Caroline

7.6 Demonstrating (with gestures)
He went that way. Do it like this/that.

7.7 Forward and backward reference
Only this can be used for forward reference
- This is how you do it (Press this button)
- Compare backward reference
- He was very late. This/That delayed us.
- These and those are never used, even if more than one event is referred to
- I broke my leg and my sister's house burnt down. When did this/that happen?

7.8 Story-telling, narration (informal)
This sometimes replaces a/an to make a story sound more amusing or interesting and to show that the narrator will explain more
There was this Frenchman who went to a cricket match

7.9 Time references [> App 48]
I'll see you this afternoon.
These days life is hard for old people.
I was born in 1935. In those days there was no TV.
At that time my father was a miner

7.10 Comparisons
$500? It cost a lot more than that.
In formal use, that of and those of sometimes replace a noun with of
- The area of the USA is larger than that of Brazil.
- Tom's essays are better than those of the other boys

7.11 Contrast
This is my car and that is John's.

7.12 Clarification
Is this the man you saw, the one here?
I didn't mean that Tom, but the one next door.
That is often used to clarify
I'll arrive on the 2nd, that is, on Friday.

7.13 'This' + 'wh-'how' clauses
You're late. That's why we're waiting
Sue lent me 50p. This/That is how I got home

7.14 'Derogatory' reference with 'that'
It's that man again. (Let's avoid him)

7.15 'That' in advertisements, etc.
That is sometimes used colloquially to point to common 'shared' knowledge
Bovril prevents that sinking feeling.

7.16 'This' and 'that' with kind' and 'sort'
I like this/that kind (or sort) of person/bicycle.

7.17 'These' and 'those' with kinds'/sorts'
- I enjoy these/those kind (or sorts) of films
- We cannot use these and (those) other of in e.g. I enjoy films of this/that kind (or sort)

7.18 'This' and 'that' to indicate 'degree'
Very informally this and that can be used like so as to intensify
(> 6 30 2, 7 51 1)
- It's about this/that big (+ gesture)
- Does it really cost this/that much?
- I can't walk this/that far.

7.19 Some expressions with 'this' and 'that'
We discussed this, that, and the other.
What's all this? (= What's going on?)
I know you're tired and all that, but that's that. We've finished

Appendix 8 [> 6.2]
8.1 Adjectives formed with suffixes: e.g.
- -able (capable of being, able to be)
- -ible (like / able) possible, -ful (full of, having) beautiful, -full/less: careful - careless, -ful (historical period, etc.)
- Victorian, -ish (have the - sometimes bad quality) foolish, (colour) reddish, (age) thirnish, -ive (capable of being or doing this) attractive, -ess (without) lifeless, -like (resembling) businesslike, -ly (have this quality) friendly, (how often) hourly Others:

8.2 Adjectives formed with prefixes: e.g.
- dis-: dishonest, il-: illegal, im-: impossible, in-: indifferent, ir-: irresponsible, -non-: non-stick, on-: unthinkable Others:
- amoral, anti-: antiseptic, hyper-: hyperactive, mal-: maladjusted, over-: overdue, pre-: prewar, pro-: pro-American, sub-: subnormal, super-: superhuman, under-: undercooked
Appendix 9 [> 6.12.2]
The ' + adjective, e.g. 'the young'
9.1 The group as a whole: e.g. the aged, the blind, the deaf, the dumb, the elderly, the guilty, the handicapped, the healthy, the homeless, the innocent, the living, the middle-aged, the old, the poor, the rich, the sick, the unemployed, the young.

9.2 Abstract combinations: e.g. from the sublime to the ridiculous, take the rough with the smooth.

Appendix 10 [> 6.15.7.51]

Appendix 11 [>6.19]
Common adjectives easily confused
11.1 'Fat/thin': people/animals
11.2 'Thick/thin': usually apply to things a thick/thin book, thick/thin material
11.3 'Fat' for a few names of things a fat book, a fat dictionary
11.4 'Thick' (= stupid - people)
Some of my students are really thick
11.5 'Tall/short': people/height
a tall/short man, a tall/short woman, etc.
11.6 'Tall': buildings, mountains, trees, etc.
The opposite is small
11.7 'High/low': buildings and things a high/low building, a high/low stool
High for mountains, but low for hills
a high mountain a low hill
High and low can also refer to sound a high/low voice, a high/low note
11.8 'Long/short': length, time, distance a long/short skirt, a long/short time, wait, etc.
11.9 'Loud/soft'; 'hard/soft'
a loud/soft knock, a loud/soft thud
Soft (opposite hard) also applies to texture a hard/soft apple, a hard/soft mattress
11.10 Old/young: people
an old/young man, an old/young woman
11.11 'Old/new': things
an old/new handbag, an old/new house
New is used for a person who is a newcomer a new boss, a new secretary

Appendix 12 [> 6.24.6.29]
Comparatives/superlatives confused and misused e.g.
12.1 'Better/worse'
Better is the comparative of well, worse is the comparative of ill when referring to health
How's Liz? She's (much) better
12.2 'Little'
We use the comparative/superlative of small a small/little boy, a smaller/the smallest boy
The forms littler, the littlest are typical of children's speech and refer to size and age
Don't hit him He's littler than you are I'm 7 Susie's 6, and Jimmy's the littlest He's 4.
12.3 'Elder/oldest'; 'older/oldest'
Elder and eldest are used (attributive only) with reference to people and things

The forms
The elder my elder brother/son, the eldest child
The noun is often deleted after the eldest/youngest
I'm the eldest and Pam's the youngest
I'm the eldest in our family, my elder brother/son, the eldest child
My brother is older than I am Tim is the eldest in our family

12.4 'Older/oldest'
These are used attributively and predicatively with reference to people and things
my older brother, my oldest son/oldest child
My brother is older than I am Tim is the oldest in our family
an older tree/book the oldest tree/book
This oak tree is older than that yew tree
This book is older than that one It's the oldest book I have in my library.

Appendix 13 [>6.30.1]
Expressions with 'as' + adjective + 'as':
as blind as a bat, as bold as brass, as bright as a button (= intelligent) as cheap as dirt, as clear as a bell, as cool as a cucumber, as deaf as a post, as dry as dust (= boring) as easy as pie as fat as a pig, as free as a bird, as hard as nails, as keen as mustard as large as life, as mad as a hatter as pleased as Punch, as pretty as a picture, as quick as lightning, as right as rain, as soft as sugar, as sweet as honey, as talkative as a parrot, as thick as two or three boots, as thick as two or three walls, as thick as the Nile, as thick as two or three planks, as thick as two or three walnuts, as thick as two or three yards, as thin as a hair, as thin as a knife blade, as thin as a window frame, as thin as a wisp of smoke, as thin as a yardstick, as thin as a yardstick.
Appendix 14  [> 6.6,7.3,7.5,7.7.13]

Adjectives and adverbs with the same form

The adjectival use is given first

airmail: airmail letter, send it airmail
all day: an all day match, play all day
all right: I'm all right, you've done all right
best: best clothes, do your best
better: a better book speak better
big: a big house, talk big
cheap: a cheap suit buy it cheap
clean: clean air cut it clean
clear: a clear sky, stand clear
close: the shops are close, stay close
cold: a cold person, run cold
daily: a daily paper, they deliver daily
dead: a dead stop, stop dead
dear: a dear bouquet, sell it dear
deep: a deep hole, drink deep
direct: a direct train go direct
dirty: dirty weather, play dirty
downtown: a downtown restaurant

duty free: a duty-free shop, buy it duty-free
easy: an easy book, go easy
every day: my everyday suit, work every day
extra: an extra blanket, charge extra
fair: a fair decision, play fair
far: a far country, go far
farther: an extra blanket, charge extra
faster: a fast driver, drive fast
fine: a fine pencil cut it fine
firm: a firm belief hold firm
first: the first guest, first I'll wash
free: a free ticket, travel free
further: further questions, walk further
hard: a hard worker, work hard
high: a high note, aim high
home: home cooking, go home
hourly: hourly bulletin phone hourly
inside: the inside story, stay inside
kindly: a kindly man act kindly
last: the last guest, come last
late: a late train, arrive late
long: long hair don't stay long
loud: a loud noise talk loud
low: a low bridge, aim low
monthly: a monthly bill, pays monthly
outside: an outside lavatory wall outside
overseas: overseas travel, travel overseas
past: the past week, walk past
quick: a quick worker, come quick
quiet: a quiet evening sit quiet
right: the right answer right
sharp: sharp eyes, look sharp
slow: a slow train, go slow
straight: a straight line think straight
sure: I'm sure Sure, I'll do it (AmE)
thin/thick: a thin/thick slice, cut it thin thick
through: a through train, go through
tight: a tight fit sit tight
weekly: weekly pay, pay weekly
well: I am well, do well
wide: a wide room, open wide
wrong: a wrong guess, answer wrong
yearly: a yearly visit go there yearly

Appendix 15  [> 7.13,7.14]

Adverbs with two forms

15.1 Two forms used in the same way:

All forms without -ly can also be used as adjectives [compare > App 14]

cheap/cheaply, clean/cleanly
close/closely, dearly/dearly
fair/fairly, fine/finely
firm/firmly, first/firstly
quickly, quite/quently

15.2 Two forms used in different ways:

depth/deeply: drink deep, deeply regret
direct/directly: go direct, I'll come directly
easy/easily: go easy, win easily
fast/fluently: fall flat, fluently refuse
full/fully: full in the face, fully realize
hard/hardly: work hard, hardly any food
high/highly: aim high, think highly of you
just/justly: just finished, deal justly with
last/lastly: arrive late, lately, I've seen
near/nearly: go near, nearly finished
pretty/prettily: sit pretty, smile prettily
real/really: real glad (AmE) I really like
rough/roughly: sleep rough, roughly twenty
short/shortly: stop short, see you shortly
strong/strongly: going strong, strongly feel
sure/surely: I sure am late (AmE), surely
wide/widely: open wide widely believed

Appendix 16  [ 7.53]

Some ‘-ly’ intensifiers: typical combinations

absolutely delicious, I absolutely love peaches
amazing good at, amazingly good
awfully nice, do something awfully well
badly mistaken, I badly want
beautifully simple, beautifully organized
bravely cold, bitterly disappointed
brilliantly clever, brilliantly designed
completely successful, completely finished
cruelly disappointed, cruelly afflicted
dangerously ill, dangerously wounded
definitely mistaken I'm definitely leaving
dreadfully late dreadfully annoyed
terribly cold bitterly disappointed
everyday suit, work every day
everyone else I (e) specially enjoyed
everything I (e) specially enjoyed
exceedingly good, do it exceedingly badly
extremely interesting, extremely surprised
fearfully boring, fearfully confused
greatly impressed, I greatly appreciate
highly intelligence, I highly disapprove
horribly bad, horribly disappointed
incredibly bad, incredibly surprised
insanely cold, intensely concerned
keenly competitive, keenly interested
 Appendix 17 [>7.57]  
Some viewpoint adverbs  

17.1 = "I'm sure of the facts": e.g. actually, as a matter of fact, certainly, clearly, definitely, honestly, in actual fact, naturally, obviously, really, strictly speaking  

17.2 = "I'm less sure of myself/fact": apparently, arguably, as far as I know, at a guess, by all accounts, evidently, maybe, perhaps, possibly, probably, quite likely  

17.3 = "I'm making a generalization": e.g. as a (general) rule, basically, by and large, for the most part, in general, in principle, in a way, normally, on the whole, to a great extent  

17.4 = "I'm going to be brief": e.g. anyhow, briefly, in brief, in effect, in a few words, in short, to put it simply  

17.5 = "I'm expressing my opinion": e.g. as far as I'm concerned, frankly (speaking), in my opinion, in my view, personally I think, in all frankness, in all honesty, to put it bluntly  

17.6 = "I don't want you to repeat this": e.g. between ourselves, between you and me, confidentially, in strict confidence  

17.7 = "You won't believe this": e.g. amazingly, astonishingly, curiously, funny enough, incredibly, oddly enough, strangely, surprisingly, to my amazement, to my surprise  

17.8 = "It's just as I expected": e.g. characteristically, inevitably, logically, naturally, needless to say, not surprisingly, of course, plainly, predictably, typically  

17.9 = "I'm pleased/I'm not pleased": e.g. agreeably, annoyingly foolishly, fortunately, happily, ideally, interestingly, luckily, mercifully, preferably, regrettably, sadly, unfortunately, unhappily, unwise, wisely  

 Appendix 18 [> 1.17.7.58]  
Connecting words and phrases  

18.1 Enumerating/stressing facts: e.g. above all, chiefly, especially, finally, first, firstly/secondly, in the first place, last, lastly, mainly, primarily, principally, to begin with, then  

18.2 Making an addition; reinforcing: e.g. additionally/in addition, again, also, another thing is that, apart from this, besides, apart from that, as well as that, besides, for that matter, furthermore, indeed, moreover, what is more  

18.3 Stating an alternative: e.g. alternatively, apart from this, conversely, except for, excepting, instead, so far as  

18.4 Giving an example: e.g. according to, as far as is concerned, for example, in other words, in other words, put another way, to put it differently, that is to say, in principle, in a way, normally, on the whole, to a great extent  

18.5 Making a comparison or a contrast: as compared to, by line comparison with, conversely, equally, however, in contrast, in reality, in the same way, likewise  

18.6 Making a concession: e.g. admitted, after all, all the same, anyhow, anyway, at all events, at any rate, at least, at the same time, despite this, however, I grant you, in so far as, nevertheless, none the less  

18.7 Making something clear: e.g. I mean, in other words, put another way, to put it differently, that is to say, in other words, put another way, to put it simply  

18.8 Time references: e.g. afterwards, at the same time, concurrently, in the meantime, meanwhile, subsequently  

18.9 Showing results/causes: e.g. accordingly, as a result, because of this, by this means, consequently, for this reason, hence, in the event, in this way, in account of this, in fact, of course, of course, none the less  

18.10 Summarizing: e.g. all in all, all told, and so forth, and so on, essentially, in brief, in conclusion, in effect, in short, to all intents and purposes, to conclude, to sum up, to summarize, ultimately  

18.11 Moving to a different topic: e.g. in the meantime, meanwhile, subsequently  

18.12 Summarizing: e.g. all in all, all told, and so forth, and so on, essentially, in brief, in conclusion, in effect, in short, to all intents and purposes, to conclude, to sum up, to summarize, ultimately  

18.13 Showing results/causes: e.g. accordingly, as a result, because of this, by this means, consequently, for this reason, hence, in the event, in this way, in account of this, in fact, of course, of course, none the less  

18.14 Making a concession: e.g. admitted, after all, all the same, anyhow, anyway, at all events, at any rate, at least, at the same time, despite this, however, I grant you, in so far as, nevertheless, none the less  

Appendix 19 [> 7.59.3]  
Some negative adverbs/adv verb phrases  

barely, hardly, when, hardly ever, least of all, little, never, never again, never before, at no time, by no means, in/lunder no circumstances, in no way, on no account, on no condition, on no account, neither nor, not a, not only but, not until, nowhere, only after, only at that moment, only by, only if, only in some respects, only later, only on rare occasions, only then, only when, only with, rarely, scarcely ever, seldom
Appendix 20 [> 1.23.3.8.2.8.4.8.22]
Some common prepositions

20.1 Single-word prepositions: e.g.
- cannot be separated from the words they refer to [> 8.22] about, above, across, after, against, along, alongside, amid(st), among(st), around, as, at, 'bar, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond (but (= except), by, "despite", during, "except", for, from, in, inside, into, like, "minus", near of, off, on, onto, opposite, out (AmE, informal BrE), outside, over, past, "per", "plus round, "since, than, through, throughout, till, to, towards, under, underneath, unlike, unto, up, upon, "via, with, within, without, "worth

20.2 Single-word prepositions with '-ing':
- to, towards, under, underneath, "unlike, until, "round, "since, than, through, "throughout, till, to, towards, under, underneath, unlike, until, up, upon, "via, with, within, without, "worth

20.3 Prepositions of two or more words:
- according to, ahead of, along with, apart from, as for, as from, as regards, as a result of as to as well as, away from, because of, but for, by comparison with, by means of, due to, except for, for the sake of, from among, from under, in addition to, in between, in case of, in charge of, in common with, in comparison to/with, in connexion with, in favour of, in front of, in line with in place of, in spite of, instead of, in view of, near to, next to, on account of, on behalf of, on the left/right of, out of, owing to, regardless of, together with, up to, with the exception of, with reference to, with regard to

Appendix 21 [> 3.20.3.28.3.8.9.1, 10.13.4]
'to' + noun; 'at' + noun (He's gone to/been to He's in He's been in)

21.1 Social/business activities:
- a concert, a conference, a dance, a dinner (formal), a visitor), in

21.2 Public places/buildings:
- the airport the London Airport, the station, Waterloo Station, the bus station, the/an art gallery, the Tate Gallery, the/a museum, the British Museum, the zoo, London Zoo, the car park, the/a filling station, the/a garage, the shops, Harrods, the butcher's, the chemist's, the shoe shop, the supermarket, the bank, the library, the police station, the town hall the consulate, the embassy, the/a hotel, the Grand Hotel, the/a restaurant, the dentist(’s), the doctor(’s), the hospital

21.3 Zero article + noun:
- go home/be at home, church, college school university Highfield School, Bristol University

21.4 Addresses:
- his sisters, 24 Cedar Avenue, Rose Cottage

21.5 Points inside a building or area:
- the booking office, Reception, the Customs a lift/an elevator may be at the first/second floor, a person is on the first/second floor

Appendix 22 [> 3.20.3.28.3, 8.9.2, 10.13.4]
'to' + noun, 'in' + noun (He's gone to/been to He's in He's been in)

22.1 Large areas, countries, states:
- Europe/Asia, Texas/Kent, the Andes, the Antarctic, the Sahara Desert, the Mediterranean, the Pacific

22.2 Towns/parts of towns, except when we think of them as points on a route [> 8.6]
- Canterbury, Chelsea, Dallas, Manhattan, New York, Paris, the East End

22.3 Outside areas (go into is preferable with e.g. garden, street)
- the garden, the park, Hyde Park, the square, the street, Bond Street, the old town, the desert, the forest, the jungle, the mountains

22.4 Rooms (go into or go to)
- the bathroom, his bedroom, the garage, the kitchen, Mr Jones's office, the waiting room, the bar, the cloakroom, the lounge, the Gents'

22.5 Zero article + noun:
- bed, chapel, church hospital, prison

Appendix 23 [> 3.20,3.28.3, 8.9.3, 10.13.4]
'to' + noun; 'at' or 'in' + noun

We use at when we think of a place as e.g. a meeting point, in when we think of it as 'enclosing' the airport the cinema, the theatre, the zoo, the car park, the garage, the office, the chemist's, the flower shop, the bank, the post office, the hotel the Grand (Hotel), the restaurant at/in church (e.g to pray), at/in the church (for some other reason), at school (as a pupil), at/in the school (as e.g. a teacher), in prison (as a prisoner), at/in the prison (as e.g. a visitor), in hospital (as a patient) at/in the hospital (as e.g. an outpatient)

Appendix 24 [> 2.13.1.3.21.8.12-13]

24.1 Days of the week
- Sunday Sun Thursday Thur(s)
- Monday Mon Friday Fri
- Tuesday Tue(s) Saturday Sat
- Wednesday Wed

24.2 Months and seasons [> App 47 4 2]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>months</th>
<th>seasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>Jan (the) Spring or spring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>Feb (the) Summer or summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>Mar (the) Autumn or autumn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>Apr (or AmE (the) fall)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>- (the) Winter or winter</td>
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<td>June</td>
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<td>November</td>
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<td>December</td>
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</tbody>
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Appendix 25

Appendix 25 [> 8.10, 8.15]
Particular prepositions, particles and contrasts [see also > App 32]

25.1 'about', 'on' and 'over'
About and on can be used to mean 'concerning' or 'relating to' a subject. On tends to be used in more formal, academic contexts than about. Have you seen this article on the Antarctic? I've read lots of books about animals. About (Not 'on') is used after verbs such as know, read, tell, think and adjectives such as anxious, concerned, worried About or on are used after nouns such as idea(s), opinion(s).
Over is often used in the sense of 'about' particularly in news reports on radio/TV after e.g. argue, argument, concern, dispute, often where some sort of confrontation is involved.

25.2 'according to' and 'by'
According to can mean 'as shown by'. According to the forecast, it'll be wet and 'as stated by'.
According to Dr Pim, the sea is rising. According to is used to refer to information coming from other people or sources (according to him, according to the timetable, etc.), but not to information coming from oneself. (Not 'according to me') According to cannot be used with opinion, in must be used.
In my opinion, none of this is true. By can only replace according to when the reference is highly specific e.g. to a clock or timetable, etc., but never to people. It's now ten past by according to my watch.

According to can also mean 'depending on'. I get to work on time or just after according to the amount of traffic on the road.

25.3 'across' and 'over'
Both these prepositions can be used to mean 'from one side to the other' if we are referring to movement from a surface. When combining with verbs like run walk (run across/over, walk across/over) they can express the same idea as the verb cross.

Children are taught not to run across the road without looking (i.e. not to cross). There is a newsagent's over across the road. However over cannot be used when we are referring to the surface of a wide area. They're laying a pipeline across Siberia. With verbs which can suggest 'aimless movement' (stroll wander, etc.) over can be used to describe movement inside an area (not necessarily from one side to another) suggesting 'here and there'.

We wandered across the field. We skated across the frozen lake. Across must also be used when we are referring to movement through water. Erna Hart swam across the Channel.

25.4 'across' and 'through'
Across, meaning 'from one side to the other' can refer to a surface. We skated across the frozen lake. Through, meaning 'from one side to the other' or 'from one end to the other' can suggest more effort than across. Through refers to:
- a hollow
- something three-dimensional which 'encloses' (e.g. a country, a crowd, a forest, long grass, mud)
- it was difficult to cut through the forest
- a barrier (e.g. the Customs, a door, a net, a roadblock, a window).

Look through the window. The use of across and through depends on the sort of thing you are talking about. In Let's walk across/through the park they are interchangeable because in the speaker's mind across refers to a surface and through to a three-dimensional area.

25.5 'after' and 'afterwards'
Both these words mean 'later, but after can be a preposition (followed by an object) and a conjunction (followed by a clause) When this is the case afterwards cannot replace after. Come and see me after work. Come and see me after you've finished.

Afterwards can only be used as an adverb (that is, with no noun or pronoun object). We made the house tidy and our guests arrived soon afterwards. We can also use after as an adverb in the above sentence (our guests arrived soon after). Or we may use then and or and soon after that (and then/and soon after that our guests arrived) After as an adverb is often modified by soon or shortly and occurs in expressions like happily ever after. It cannot be used in an initial position to refer to the second of two distinct events. We had a swim in the sea after.

Afterwards we lay on the beach.

25.6 '(a)round' and 'about'
(A)round/about are interchangeable when they:
- refer to lack of purpose or lack of definite movement or position.

We stood about (a)round waiting.
- refer to mindless activity.
I wish you'd stop fooling about (a)round. are used to mean 'approximately'. The telegram was received (at) around/about 8.
- are used to mean 'somewhere near'. I lost my purse about (a)round here.

About cannot replace around to refer to:
- circular movement.
- Millie's having a cruise (a)round the world
- distribution.
- Would you hand these papers (a)round?
- 'every part'.

Let me show you (a)round the house.
- 'in the area of'.

He lives somewhere (a)round Manchester.
Appendix 25

25.7 ‘at’ [for time phrases > App 47 5]
At commonly follows
- adjectives associated with skill
good/bad/never/better/worse at
- a few nouns associated with skill
dunce at, a genius at
- verbs used to suggest action directed towards a target or destination (often suggesting aggression), such as aim, laugh, shout, stare, strike, talk, throw
At often suggests taking aim. Compare
Throw the ball to me (for me to catch)
That boy is always throwing stones at birds (aiming at them to harm them)
She shouted to us across the valley (to communicate with us)
The children got very dirty and she shouted at them (to scold them)
Against (but not at) can be used after verbs like fight throw, where there is no idea of aiming
He threw the ball against the wall
We fought against the enemy
- adjectives which indicate a reaction to circumstances, events, etc amazèd, annoyed, astonished, surprised etc + at [> App 10]
I’m surprised at all the calls we’ve had
At can often be replaced by by (surprised by) after words like surprised when these are used as past participles in the passive [> 12 7]
At is also used with reference to price/speed
We have some combs at $2 each
(This use of at is sometimes symbolically represented by ‘<@>’ in price lists, etc.)
Ron is driving at 100 miles an hour

25.8 ‘away’ [> 8.4.3]
Away is an adverb particle and is never followed by an object. It commonly combines with the adverb far (far away) and the preposition from (away from) and verbs which convey the idea of distance.
I see storm clouds far away in the distance
I live twenty miles away from here
Note uses with verbs (e.g. fire away = begin and don’t stop, put away = put something in its place work away, i.e. without interruption)

25.9 ‘because’ and ‘because of’
Because (conjunction) introduces a clause.
I couldn’t do the work because I was ill
Because of (preposition) takes an object
I can’t do the work because of my illness
On account of + object can be used in place of because of in formal contexts.
Farms are going bankrupt on account of the crisis in agriculture

25.10 ‘before’ and ‘in front of’
Before is normally used to refer to time
Make sure you’re there before 7.
Before can refer to space when used with verbs like come go lie, stand, and in fixed expressions such as appear before the magistrate before (or in front of) your very eyes come before the court (before = ‘in the presence of’ in some of these expressions)
In front of (and its opposite, behind) refers to position or place. Before is not possible in most ordinary contexts to refer to position
I’ll wait in front of the shop (Not ‘before’)
Before (like after) combines with e.g. come/go and is interchangeable with in front of
You come before (after) me in the queue
Why don’t you go before (after) me?
Before and in front of are interchangeable when we refer to big geographical areas.
There, before/in front of us, lay the desert or when they are used metaphorically to refer to big stretches of time etc.
Your whole life lies before/in front of you

25.11 ‘behind’, ‘at the back (of)’, ‘back’
Behind can be used as a preposition
There’s a big garden behind this house
or as an adverb
There’s a garden in front and one behind
Behind can be replaced by at the back (of)
There’s a garden at the back of the house
There’s a garden at the back
Back is an adverb and often combines with verbs like keep put, stand and stay
I wish you’d put things back in their places
Keep this book I don’t want it back
Back must not be confused with again in, e.g.
Our neighbours invited us to dinner a month ago and we must invite them back (return their hospitality)
We enjoyed having our neighbours to dinner and we must invite them again (on another occasion)
When the idea of back is contained in the verb, the adverb back must not be used
We had to go back early
We had to return back early (Not ‘return back’)
Back can also be used in the sense of ‘ago’
I saw him four years back
25.12 ‘beside’ and ‘besides’.
Beside is a preposition meaning ‘next to’
Come and sit beside me
Besides is a preposition or an adverb meaning ‘in addition to’ or ‘as well as’
There were many people there besides us
This vehicle is very fast. Besides, it’s got four-wheel drive.
Besides should not be confused with except
All of us went besides Bill (= Bill went and we went too)
All of us went except Bill (= Bill didn’t go but we did)

25.13 ‘between’ and ‘among’
Between is most commonly used to show a division or connexion between two people, things or times.
Divide it equally between the two of you
There’s a good service between here and the island
We’ll be there between 6 and 6.30
It can also occasionally be used to refer to more than two things, etc when they are viewed separately and there are not many Please don’t smoke between courses
Switzerland is *between* France, Germany, Austria and Italy *Between* is often used in comparisons and differences when there are two things, etc. *What is the difference between these two watches?* It can also be used to refer to ‘shared activity’ when there are two or more than two. The scouts collected money for the blind *Among* (or *Amongst*) them they got £300. *Among* (and the less common *amongst*) + plural noun refers to a mass of things, etc. which cannot be viewed separately *Were you among the members present?* It is often used to refer to three or more *Professor Webster is among the world’s best authorities on Etruscan civilization.*

25.14 ‘*but*’ and ‘*except*’ ‘*but*’ and ‘*except*’ are used without a conjunction to mean ‘without the exception of, especially after every/any/no compounds However, we cannot use *but* and *except* as prepositions without for to begin a sentence. *Everyone but/except you has helped* *ExcepBut* or *except* you everyone has helped We can only use *except* (not except for) in front of a prepositional phrase *We go to bed before 10, except in the summer.*

We use *but* (not except) in questions like *Who but John would do a thing like that?* *But* and *except* as conjunctions [*> 8 4 4*]

25.15 ‘*by*, ‘*near*’ and ‘*on*’ These words can be used to mean ‘not far from’. *We live in the city, not far from...* By can mean ‘right next to’ or ‘beside’ a person, object or place and is interchangeable with *beside* and next to. *I sat by the phone all morning.* Near usually suggests ‘a short way from’ rather than ‘right next to.’ *We live near London - just 20 miles south.* *Near* (not by) is associated with *not far from* *We live near* (not by) the sea. *The opposite of near is a long way from or (quite) far from.* *We live a long way from [(quite) far from]* the sea. *Near* (but not by) can be modified by very. *The play is very near the end.* *By* can be modified by *right* and *close* for emphasis [*> 8 21*]. *The hotel is right by/ close by the station.* On can mean ‘right next to’ or ‘beside’ when we refer to a line. *Our house is right on the road/on the river.* *On my right I have Frank Mulligan and on my left I have Frank Mulligan.*

On is often found in place-names for towns, etc. by the sea or on rivers. *Southend-on-sea, Stratford-upon-Avon.*

25.16 ‘*by*’ and ‘*past*’ Both words are often interchangeable with verbs of motion (go, run, walk, etc.) to mean ‘beyond a point in space or time’. *He went right by/past me without speaking.* *Several days went by/past before I had news.*

25.17 ‘*by*, ‘*with*’ and ‘*without*’ *By* and *with* can be used to mean ‘by means of’ but they are not generally interchangeable. *By* occurs in fixed phrases [*> App 26 2*] like *by bus*, and in passive constructions [*> 12 5*]. Verbs which can be replaced by *by* without the preposition. *Our dog was hit by a bus.*

*By* (often + -ing) can refer to ‘method’ or ‘manner’. *You can look this window by moving this catch to the left (that is how you must do it).*

*By* can refer to time, measure or rate. *I’m paid by the hour.*

We also use it when referring to any kind of measurement against a scale. *He’s shorter than I am by six inches.*

Interest rates have gone up *by* 3 per cent *We use *by* to mean ‘via’ when referring to routes.*

We drove to the coast *by the main road.*

With and without refer to things (especially tools/instruments) which we use or need to use. *You might get it open with a bottle-opener* (i.e that is what you need to use) *It won’t open without a bottle-opener.*

*With* can also refer to ‘manner’. *Paul returned my greeting with a nod.*

25.18 ‘*down*, ‘*up*’, ‘*under*’ and ‘*over*’ *Down* is the opposite of up and indicates direction towards a lower level.*

Let’s climb up the hill, then climb down. Tho *ugh down* is most commonly used with verbs of movement, it can (like across, along and up) be used with position verbs to indicate a place away from the speaker. *The train moved down the track.*

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With and without refer to things (especially tools/instruments) which we use or need to use. *You might get it open with a bottle-opener* (i.e that is what you need to use) *It won’t open without a bottle-opener.*

*With* can also refer to ‘manner’. *Paul returned my greeting with a nod.*

25.19 ‘*due to*’ and *‘owing to*’ *Both words are often interchangeable with verbs of motion (go, run, walk, etc.) to mean ‘beyond a point in space or time’. *He went right by/past me without speaking.* *Several days went by/past before I had news.*

Interest rates have gone up *by* 3 per cent *We use *by* to mean ‘via’ when referring to routes.*

We drove to the coast *by the main road.*

With and without refer to things (especially tools/instruments) which we use or need to use. *You might get it open with a bottle-opener* (i.e that is what you need to use) *It won’t open without a bottle-opener.*

*With* can also refer to ‘manner’. *Paul returned my greeting with a nod.*
Appendix 25

25.20 'for' (> 7.32 16.40.9)

Common uses:
- purpose     The best man for the job
- to -ing     I need this for sewing
- destination This is the train for York
- recipient   Here's a gift for you
- reason      I've got news for you
- exchange    I bought it for £5
- meaning     What's French for 'cat'?
- (= instead of) I did it for a joke
- (= in favour of) I'll do it for you (> 1.13)
- (= in favour of) Are you in favour of this?
- res, I'm all for it
- (= against the idea) The opposite is against him
- (= against the idea) I'm against the idea
- specific time reference (not 'period of time')
  - (= in favour of) I used this tool to drill a hole
  - (= in favour of) This tool is used for drilling holes
He was praised for being punctual

25.21 'from' (> 8.9)

From is often used to indicate origin. The reference can be to:
- a place     Gerda is from Berlin
- a person    Who's that letter from?
- a group     We're from the council
- a quotation This line is from Hamlet
- distance    She's away from work
- abstract    He died from a stroke
  - (= from self-interest) I acted from self-interest

25.22 'in' and 'out'

Used as particles, in and out often refer to 'entrance and exit' as in Way in and Way Out or simply In and Out. The meaning can be extended to cover incoming and outgoing mail, as in the nouns in-tray and out-tray.

25.23 in spite of, etc.

(Although) is a conjunction and introduces a clause. By comparison, in spite of (always three words), despite and notwithstanding do not, and are very formal. Here is a scale:

- The temperature has dropped, but it is still warm
- It is still warm (although the temperature has dropped)
- It is still warm, in spite of the drop in temperature
- It is still warm, despite the drop in temperature
- It is still warm, notwithstanding the drop in temperature

Notwithstanding can be used at the end of a sentence to convey even greater formality.

It is still warm the drop in temperature notwithstanding

In spite of, despite and notwithstanding are often followed by the fact that

In spite of the fact that he has failed so often he has entered for the exam again

In spite of/ despite can be followed by -ing

In spite of losing a fortune, he's still rich

For all her money, Mrs Hooper isn't happy

Compare with all (= taking into account)

With all this rain, there'll be a good crop

25.24 'instead' and 'instead of'

Instead is an adverb, instead of is a complex preposition. When instead is used as an adverb, it is usually placed at the end as if you don't want a holiday in Wales why don't you go to Scotland instead?

We use instead of a noun (a pronoun or) ing

We eat margarine instead of butter

Why can't Marion drive you into town instead of me?

Instead of moaning why don't you act?

25.25 'like' and 'as' (> 1.47 6.30 1.16.40.8)

Like as a preposition is followed by a noun, pronoun or ing

There's no business like show business

(= to compare with)

There's no one like you (= to compare with)

Why don't you try something like doing a bit of work for a change? (= such as)

There were lots of people we knew at the party like the Smiths and the Fry's

(= such as for example)

Like can sometimes be replaced by such as (not by as)

Like can convey the idea of 'resemblance'

It was like a dream (= similar to)

The opposite is unlike

The holiday was unlike any other

Like can suggest in the manner of

He acts like a king (= in the same way as)

As (= in the capacity of) can be used as a preposition and should not be confused with like (= resemblance). It can refer to people and things

As a lawyer, I wouldn't recommend it

Who's used this knife as a screw-driver?

As can be a conjunction introducing a clause

As the last bus had left, we returned on foot

Used as a conjunction, as can convey similarity

She's musical as was her mother/ as her mother was

Like (= as if) is often used as a conjunction, especially in informal AmE which is influencing BrE in this respect. This use has not gained full acceptance in BrE

Like I told you, it's an offer I can't refuse

(= I as I told you)

She's spending money like there was no tomorrow (= I as if)

Like and unlike can behave like adjectives when we use them after very, more or most

He's more like his mother than his father

- I don't agree They're very unlike

25.26 'of, out of, from, with'

All these prepositions can combine with made (of out of from with) to indicate the materials or ingredients out of which something is
created *made of* and *made out of* are used when we can actually recognize the material (*s*) made of wood, iron, etc. You rarely find toys *made out of* solid wood.

*Made from* is used when the ingredient or ingredients are not immediately obvious. Beer is *made from* hops.

Bronze is *made from* copper and tin.

*Made with,* to suggest *contains,* is often used to identify one or more of the ingredients used in this sauce is *made with* fresh cream.

These prepositions can follow the past participles of other verbs, e.g., *built/constructed out of/from/* with participles of other verbs, e.g., *grown out of* and *planted with.*

These prepositions can follow the past participles of other verbs, e.g., *built/constructed out of/* from */with* and occur in expressions such as paved with tiles, loaded with hay etc.

### 25.27 "of and off"

*Of* and *off* are not interchangeable, but their similar spellings cause confusion. *Of* never occurs as a particle. *Off* is both preposition and particle.

**For possessive uses [> 2.47] Other uses are**

- **origin** Mrs. Ray of Worthing
- **direction** north/south/west/east of
- **institutions** The University of London
- **age** A woman of 50
- **off**
  - **separation** It's just off the motorway. Take the top off this jar.
  - **departure** We set off at dawn.
  - **disappearance** Has her headache worn off?

### 25.28 "on" and "in"

*On* and *in* are often used with reference to the body. *On* refers to position on a surface.

**There's a black mark on your nose.**

The X-ray shows a spot on the lung.

In is used in relation to space or area to suggest "embedded".

-I've got a speck of dust in my eye and to refer to
  - pains I've got a pain in my back/ear/stomach
  - deep wounds I've got a cut in my foot
Superficial wounds can take on
  - I've got a scratch on my arm

### 25.29 on and off

*On* and *off* are generally used as prepositions or particles to refer to the supply of power, especially electricity and water.

**Turn the light tap on/off.**

They are also used in connexion with feelings.

Ray turns his affections on and off.

Both prepositions are often found on switches, appliances etc. ON/Off.

### 25.30 'opposite (to)'

*Opposite* can be used as an adverb.

- Where's the bank? - It's *opposite.*
- Or it can be used as a preposition, with or without to (though to is often unnecessary): There's a bank *opposite* to my office.

*Opposite* can be used as a predicative adjective.

The house *opposite* is up for sale and as an attributive adjective.

They both have *opposite points of view*
Appendix 25

Over and above have different figurative uses
Over means ‘in charge of’
We don't want anyone like that over us
Above can mean ‘a higher rank’
Major is above the rank of Captain
Over (and less commonly above) can mean ‘more than’
He isn't over (above/more than) ten
Above (not over) is used to measure on a scale
His work is above average
Both over and above combine with see see over (= look at the next page), see above (= look further up the same page/refer to the previous page)
Over can combine with turn, in turn over (a page) and its opposite is turn back
25.33 ‘to’ [> 6.9]
When to is associated with the infinitive it is not a preposition I want to go She began to cry, etc However, after verbs such as object or adjectives such as accustomed, to is a preposition This means it can be followed by a noun or a gerund [> 16.56]
I'm accustomed to hard work
I'm accustomed to working hard
25.34 ‘towards’
To in / go from X to V covers the whole movement, starting at X and arriving at Y
Towards indicates general direction and does not cover the whole movement It can convey the following
- direction/movement Walk slowly towards me
- ‘in the direction of’ The church looks towards the river
- near I feel tired towards the end of the day
- ‘in relation to’ His attitude towards
- ‘for the purpose of’ Pay towards a pension
Toward is more common in AmE than towards
25.35 ‘under’, underneath, beneath, ‘below’
Under means ‘covered by’ (and sometimes ‘touching’) and ‘at a lower place than (not ‘touching!’)
There’s nothing new under the sun
It can also be used with verbs of movement We walked under the bridge
Under can have the meaning of ‘less than’ I think she’s under seventeen
Below is also possible in certain contexts Millie can’t be below 40
Underneath means ‘completely covered by’ (touching or not touching)
Put a mat underneath that hot dish
Beneath is less common and more literary but it can replace under and underneath
Our possessions lie beneath the rubble
Below is the opposite of above It is interchangeable with under and underneath when it means ‘at a lower level
He swam just below the surface
We camped below/underneath the summit
But it is not generally interchangeable when referring to place or position
The stone hit me just below the knee.

Under can be used to mean ‘commanded by’
Our foreman has ten people under him
Below can be used figuratively to refer to rank
What’s the rank below Captain?
25.36 ‘with’ and ‘without’ [> 1.60, 16.51]
With and without can be used to mean ‘accompanied by’ or ‘not accompanied by’ I want to go with my sister
What was your life like without any sisters?
I can’t manage without you
With can be a replacement for ‘having’ in e g He stood with his hands in his pockets
With his background, he should go far
Without can suggest and not do something We must get inside without waking her
With can suggest ‘taking into consideration’
With the cost of living so high, we are cutting down on luxuries
With so many accidents on the road, the use of seat-belts was made compulsory
With (but not without) follows common adjectives to express feelings angry, annoyed, furious, etc (with someone, but at something)
And note blue with cold, green with envy etc
With also follows verbs e g cope, fight, quarrel
With and without can be used to mean ‘carrying or ‘not carrying’ [> 10.31.4]
Who’s the woman with the green umbrella?
I’m without any money
or it can mean ‘(un)accompanied by’
The camera comes with/without a case
With and without can be used to mean ‘having or ‘not having physical characteristics
He’s a man with a big nose and red hair
This can be extended to external characteristics such as hairstyles and make-up, in e g the woman with pink lipstick
In can be used to mean ‘wearing
Who’s the woman in the green blouse?
and can refer to voice-quality
He spoke in a low/loud voice/in a whisper
Of can be used to describe
- personal qualities He’s a man of courage
- age He’s a man of about 40
- wealth He’s a man of means
25.38 ‘with regard to’, etc.
A number of prepositions can be used when we wish to make formal references or focus attention e g as far as is concerned, as for, as regards, as to regarding, with reference to with regard to
As regards your recent application for a job, we haven’t made up our minds yet
We haven’t had a reply from our neighbours regarding their proposal to build a garage
I am writing to you with reference to your inquiry of November 27th
However, informal uses can occur
I didn’t ask too many questions as to his whereabouts
As for your interest in this business, I have no comment to make
As far as I’m concerned, you can do as you please
Appendix 26

Some prepositional phrases

26.1 Some phrases with ‘at’

at + meals (lunch, etc)
at + points of time (> 7.11)
at + place (> Apps 21.23)
at all events at most of
at all times at once
to any rate at pains/at war
at fault at play/at work
at first at present
at first sight at a profit
at hand at sea
at km per hour at sight
at last at table
at least at the time
at leisure at times

26.2 Some phrases with ‘by’

by + bus etc (> 3.28.4)
by + time (> 7.34)
by + weight by luck
by air by marriage
by all means by means of
by accident by mistake
by birth by name
by chance by post
by cheque/credit card by sight(s)
by day/night by stages
by degrees by surprise
by design by virtue of
by far by the way
by force by way of

26.3 Some phrases with ‘for’ and ‘from’

for + period of time (> 7.32) from A to Z
for the better/best from bad to worse
for a change from the first
for ever from good to bad
for once from the heart
for a walk, etc (> 10 13.4)

26.4 Some phrases with ‘in’

in + place (> App 22-23)
in + time (> 8.13-14)
in action in full
in addition in general in all
in any case, in any event in half/half
in brief in ink/ink pencil
in business in love
in case of in a minute
in cash in no time
in the circumstances in order
in comfort in pain
in comparison in person
in conclusion in practice
in control in public
in danger in return
in debt in short
in demand in tears
in depth in time
in detail in turn
in doubt in view of

26.5 Some phrases with ‘off’

off duty off the record
off one’s head off the road
off the point off school, off work

26.6 Some phrases with ‘on’

on + day/date (> 8.12)
on account of on the hour
on approval on the job
on average on a journey
on behalf of on loan
on business on no account
on condition on offer
on the contrary on one’s own
on credit on purpose
on demand on the radio/TV
on display on sale
on duty on strike
on fire on the (tele)phone
on foot on time
on guard on a visit
on hand on the way

26.7 Some phrases with ‘out of’

Those marked * form their opposite with in
out of breath out of the ordinary
out of character out of pain
out of control out of place
out of danger *out of pocket
out of date *out of practice
out of debt *out of reach
out of doors *out of season
out of fashion *out of sight
out of favour *out of step
out of focus *out of stock
out of hand *out of style
out of hearing *out of touch
out of humour *out of tune
out of love *out of turn
out of luck *out of use
out of order *out of work

26.8 Some phrases with ‘past’ and ‘to’
past belief past control to a great extent
to advantage to hand
to the point

26.9 Some phrases with ‘under’

under age under orders
under control under pressure
under cover under repair
under one’s feet under the rules
under the impression under suspicion
under (no) obligation under the weather

26.10 Some phrases with ‘up to’, ‘with’,

‘within’, ‘without’

up to date within the law
up to mischief within range
up to no good within reach
up to one’s ears without bothering
up to (you) without ceremony
with regard to without delay
with respect to without a doubt
with the exception of without fail
within one’s income without prejudice

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Appendix 27 [> 4.29,6.8.4,8.1.9,]
8.20, 16.53, 16.60]
Some adjectives and related nouns + prepositions
Key: sby = somebody, stg = something
adjective noun
absent from a place absence from
afraid of sbystg fear of sbystg
angered at/about stg anger at/about stg
annoyed at/about annoyance at/about
anxious at/about sbystg anxiety at/about
ashamed of sbystg shame at stg
aware of sbystg awareness of
awful at (doing) stg bad at (doing) stg
bored by/wit sbystg bored at or with stg
capable of (doing) stg capable of (doing) stg
careful of/with sbystg careful of/with stg
certain of/about facts certainty of/about
clever at (doing) stg clever at (doing) stg
content with stg contentment with
curious about sbystg curiousity about stg
different from/to sbystg difference from/to
eager for stg eagerness for stg
easy(-not worried) about excitement about/at
faithful to sbystg faithfulness to
famous for (doing) stg fame as
full of stg freedom from
free of danger freedom of speech
glad about stg gladness about
good/no good at (doing) stg good with one’s hands
grateful to sbystg gratitude to/stg
happy about/at/over with happiness at/over
interested in sbystg interest in sbystg
keen on (doing) stg keenness on
kind to sbystg kindness to sbystg
late for work lateness for work
married to sbystg marriage to sbystg
nervous of sbystg nervousness about
obliged to sbystg obligation to
pleased about/wit sbystg pleasure about
ready for sbystg readiness for stg
right about sbystg sadness about
safe from stg/sbystg safety from stg/sbystg
satisfied with sbystg satisfaction with
separate from stg slowness at
sorry about/(doing) stg sorrow for (doing)
surprised about/at sbystg surprise about/at
terrible at (doing) stg worry about stg
thankful to sbystg thankfulness to/stg
worried about stg worry about/off

Appendix 28 [> 1.9,4.29,8.20,8.27,]
12.3n.7, 16.53-54]
Type 1 [8.27.2]: Verb + preposition
transitive (non-idiomatic)
Related nouns + most common prepositions
Nouns can be formed with -ing [> 2.16.5 16.39.1]
Verbs marked “are often passive
Key sbystg = somebody, stystg = something
verb noun
advise against doing stg advice against
agree about stg agreement about
agree with sbystg agreement with
aim at/for a target aim at/for
apologize to sbystg apology to sbystg
apply to sbystg application to
approve of sbystg approval of
arrive at/in [> 5.9.3]
become of sbystg begin with stg/by doing
belong to sbystg belief in sbystg
borrow from sbystg choice between
confess to sbystg to stg
deal with sbystg to stg
depend on sbystg dependence on
differ from sbystg difference from/to
dream about/of (doing) dream of
dream emerge from a place failure in
emerge from a place failure in
eminent about the truth guess at
emerge from a place guess at
emerge from a place
identify with sbystg identification with
insist on (doing) stg insistence on
knock at the door knock at
know about/about stg knowledge of
laugh about/about sbystg laughter at stg
listen to sbystg listen to sbystg
look after sbystg look after sbystg
look at sbystg listen to sbystg
look for sbystg look for sbystg
meet with sbystg objection to
object to sbystg objection to
pay for sbystg payment for
quarrel with sbystg quarrel with sbystg
quarrel with sbystg with/about
reason with sbystg reason with sbystg
refer to sbystg reference to
report on sbystg report on
reply to sbystg report on
resign from a job resignation from
retire from one’s job retirement from
search for sbystg search for
search for sbystg search for
smell of stg smell of stg
succeed in (doing) stg success in (doing)
suffer from an illness success in (doing)
talk to sbystg talk to sbystg
thank sbystg thank sbystg
trade with sbystg trade with sbystg
trust in sbystg trust in sbystg
vote for/about sbystg vote for/about
vote for/about sbystg vote for/about
wait for sbystg wait for sbystg
wish for warn sbystg wish for
write to sbystg write to sbystg
Appendix 29: 8.1.9.8.29.8.20.8.27.16.53-54

Type 1 [8.27.3]: Verb + object + preposition

transitive (non-idiomatic)

Nouns can be formed with -ing [2 16 5 16 39 1]

A prepositional phrase is not always obligatory after the object nouns can be followed by of (= belonging to). All these verbs (not absent oneself) can be used in the passive

Key sby = somebody, stg = something

verb

transitive (idiomatic)

Accuse sby of stg
Admit sby to stg
Advise sby about stg
Assess stg at a price
Charge stg to my account
Charge sby with a crime
Claim stg from sby
Combine stg with stg
Compensate sby for stg
Congratulate sby on stg
Correct sby's error
Convert sby to stg
Defend sby from stg
Discuss stg with sby
Divide a number
Excuse sby for stg
Explain stg to sby
Forgive sby for stg
Find stg for sby
Get stg from sby
Help stg to sby
Impress stg on sby
Include stg in stg else
Inform sby of/about stg
Interest sby in stg
Invest money in stg
Lend stg to sby
Neglect stg/sgt for sby/sgt
Refer stg/sgt to sby
Remind sby of/sgt/sgt
Repeat stg to sby
Reserve stg for sby
Return stg to sby
Roub sby of stg
Search stg for sby
Share stg with sby
Steal stg from sby
Stop stg from doing stg
Tell sby about stg
Translate stg from/to turn stg into stg else
Use stg for stg else

noun

Abuse stg by sby
Abuse stg by the stg
Abuse stg by me
Abuse stg to stg
Admission for/about stg
Attachment to stg
Arrangement for sby
Association with stg
Association with stg
Appointment as/to
Appointment as/to
Appointment as/to
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Appendix 30: 8.1.9.8.27.16.54

Type 1 [8.27.4]: Verb + preposition

transitive (idiomatic)

Verbs marked * can go into the passive

you answer to him (= explain yourself)
you appear to me in court (= represent)
you're asking for trouble (= seeking; inviting it)
you can't bank on his help (= rely on)
you didn't bargain for this (= not prepared for)

Please bear with me (= listen patiently)

She's broken with him (= parted from)

She burst into the room/burst into tears

'please call me at 6 (= come and collect)
can I call on you tomorrow' (= visit you)
came across this old book (= found it)
he came at me with a knife (=attacked)
where did you come by this (= obtained)
he came into a lot of money (= inherited)
what came over you' (= affected)
can I count on you for help? (= rely)
my aunt descended on me (= visited)
you can't dictate to me (= give me orders)
he's dying for a drink (= wants one badly)
stop digging at me (= finding fault with me)

this dress will do for Jane (= be all right for)
shall I do for you now (= clean your room)
I could do with a drink (= want one badly)
can't do without you (= manage without)
bills are eating into my savings (= using up)
he's entered for an exam (= into a discussion)
he's fallen for her (= fallen in love with)
won't fall for that trick (= be deceived by it)
he fell on his face (= ate it greedily)
he's finished with him (= parted from)

she flew into a rage (= became very angry)

gather from John (= understand)
please gather round me now (= support)

stop getting at me (= constantly criticizing)
he got into trouble/debt/difficulties
she's got over her illness (= recovered from)

you can't get round me (= persuade)
how do we get round this problem? (= solve)

I'm going about my business/work
let's go after him (= try and catch)
the dog went for the postman (= attacked)
the picture went for £1,000 (= was sold for)

I'll go into the matter (= consider, investigate)
the house grew on me (= became attractive)
I must hand it to you (= praise you for it)
If hangs on this agreement (= depends)
stop harping on it (= always referring to)
he headed for home (= went)
I won't hear of it (= refuse to consider it)
help him to some potatoes (= serve him with)

I hit on this idea (= had it in mind)
you must hold to our agreement (= keep to it)
he jumped at the idea/suggestion/opportunity

don't jump on me for this (= blame me for this)

keep at it (= work persistently)
you can't keep a secret from me (= not tell)
'who keeps him in money' (= supplies him)
I'm keeping off tobacco (= not indulging in)

*please keep to the point/plan, etc
he kicked up a fuss/noise
Appendix 31 - 32

Type 2 [8.28.4] Verb + particle (transitive)

Particles strengthen or extend the effect of the verb. Asterisks indicate that the object (usually personal) does not normally follow the particle.

Key
sby = somebody, stg = something

32.1 'about'/around (here and there)
- 'blow stg about/around
- 'carry stg about/around
- 'follow sby about/around
- 'kick stg about/around

32.2 'across' (from one side to the other)
- 'allow sby across
- 'bring sby/stg across
- 'help sby across
- 'head sby across
- 'lead sby across
- 'pulld sby/stg across

32.3 along

32.3.1 (= in a forward direction)
- 'carry stg along
- 'help sby along
- 'hurry sby along
- 'lead sby along
- 'pass stg along

32.3.2 (reinforcing 'inviting', 'sending' etc.)
- 'ask sby away
- 'bring sby/stg along
- 'call sby away
- 'clear stg away
- 'cut stg away
- 'draw stg away
- 'drop stg away
- 'eat stg away
- 'file stg away
- 'hit stg away
- 'hold stg away
- 'keep stg away
- 'kill stg away
- 'lead stg away
- 'look stg away
- 'move stg away
- 'pass stg away
- 'pay stg away
- 'pull stg away
- 'push stg away
- 'repel stg away
- 'sell stg away
- 'send stg away
- 'set stg away
- 'shift stg away
- 'throw stg away
- 'trade stg away
- 'trick stg away
- 'use stg away
- 'waste stg away
- 'write stg away

32.3.3 (= returning)
- 'ask sby back
- 'claim stg back
- 'get sby/stg back
- 'give stby/stg back
- 'make stg back
- 'pay sby/stg back
- 'phone sby back
- 'put stg back
- 'ring sby back

32.5 (= back)
- 'back
- 'back
- 'beat stg back
- 'bewildere stg back
- 'beat sby/stg back
- 'beat sby/stg back
- 'beat sby/stg back
- 'beat sby/stg back
- 'beat sby/stg back
Appendix 32

32.5.3 (= retaliation)
'shit sb back, "kick sb back
32.5.4 (= prevent from coming forwards)
hold sb/stg back, keep sb/stg back
32.5.5 (= repetition)
play sb/stg back, read sb/stg back
32.6 'down'
32.6.1 (= in a downwards (or southerly) direction)
bring sb/stg down, drop sb/stg down, "get sb/stg down, "help sb down, "invite sb down, press sb/stg down, put sb/stg down, "send sb/stg down, throw sb/stg down
32.6.2 (= to the ground - often intending destruction)
break sb/stg down, burn sb/stg down, cut sb/stg down, "knock sb/stg down, "pull sb/stg down, "push sb/stg down
32.6.3 (= securing firmly - often 'downwards')
fix sb/stg down, glue sb/stg down, nail sb/stg down, pin sb/stg down, screw sb/stg down, strap sb/stg down
32.6.4 (= reduction)
bolt (a liquid) down, let (tyres) down, turn (the heating) down, wear (one's heels) down
32.6.5 (= completeness)
close (a shop) down, drink sb/stg down, hunt sb/stg down, wash sb/stg down, wipe sb/stg down
32.6.6 (= writing)
copy sb/stg down, note sb/stg down, write sb/stg down
32.6.7 (= preventing from rising)
hold sb/stg down, keep sb/stg down
32.7 'in'
32.7.1 (= movement from outside to inside)
bring sb/stg in, collect sb/stg in, drive (a car) in, give (homework) in, "let sb/stg in, an animal in
32.7.2 (= arrival/location)
"book sb in, "find sb in (at home)
32.7.3 (= confine to an area)
fence sb/stg in, keep sb/stg in, "lock sb/stg in
32.7.4 (= inclusion/addition/attachment)
fit sb/stg in, "lay sb/stg in, "leave sb/stg in, paint sb/stg in, plug sb/stg in, type sb/stg in, write sb/stg in
32.7.5 (= inwards - often intending destruction)
beat (a door) in, drive (a nail) in, smash sb/stg in
32.8 'Off'
32.8.1 (= detachment/removal from a surface)
blow (a hat) off, brush sb/stg off, cut sb/stg off, knock sb/stg off, "let sb/stg off, put sb/stg off, "pull sb/stg off, "screw sb/stg off, "take sb/stg off (to a place)
32.8.2 (= distance)
beat (an animal/insects) off, frighten sb/stg off, keep sb/stg off, "take sb/stg off (to a place)
32.8.3 (= division/disconnection)
divide sb/stg off, fence sb/stg off, shut (a street) off, "switch (the lights) off, "turn (the lights) off
32.8.4 (= completion)
finish sb/stg off, read sb/stg off (a list), round sb/stg off (= complete sb/stg)
32.9 'on'
32.9.1 (= attachment/connection/continuity)
fit sb/stg on, "get (a lid) on, have sb/stg on (wear), "keep (a light) on, put (a coat) on, "screw (a lid) on, stick sb/stg on, switch (a light) on
32.9.2 (= in a forward direction)
pass sb/stg on, "send sb/stg on, wind sb/stg on
32.10 'out'
32.10.1 (= movement inside to outside)
drive (a car) out, "help sb out (of a car), put (a cat) out, spit sb/stg out, throw sb/stg out (of a )
32.10.2 (= general idea of movement out)
call (a doctor) out, "find sb out (not at home), pay (money) out, pick sb/stg out (choose)
32.10.3 (= exclusion/prevention)
fence (animals) out, "leave sb/stg out (not include)
32.10.4 (= removal/disappearance/disconnection)
clean (a stain) out, cross (a line) out, cut (a picture) out, shake (dust) out, turn (lights) out
32.10.5 (= extension)
hold (a hand) out, open (a newspaper) out, put (your hand) out, reach (your arm) out, roll (a map) out
32.10.6 (= making something audible or clear)
beat (a rhythm) out, call sb/stg out, copy sb/stg out, read sb/stg out, shout sb/stg out, write sb/stg out
32.10.7 (= thoroughly)
check sb/stg out, clean sb/stg out, empty sb/stg out, "hear sb/stg out, sort sb/stg out, wash (a basin) out
32.10.8 (= distribution)
divide things out, give things out, pass (exercise books) out, serve (food) out, share things out
32.10.9 (= to a conclusion)
"argue sb/stg out, "talk sb/stg out, "think sb/stg out
32.11 'over'
32.11.1 (= from one side to the other)
carry sb/stg over, "help sb over
32.11.2 (= with verbs of 'inviting', etc )
"ask sb over, "bring sb/stg over, "fetch sb/stg over, "run (= drive) sb over
32.11.3 (= thoroughly verbs of 'checking')
check sb/stg over, "do sb/stg over (= again), "read sb/stg over (= again), "think (a problem) over
32.11.4 (= to the ground)
"knock sb/stg over, "push sb/stg over
32.12 'round'
32.12.1 (= circular movement/direction)
drive (a car) round, "wave sb/stg round
32.12.2 (= enclosing)
fence (a garden) round, "put (things) round
32.12.3 (= with verbs of 'inviting', etc )
"ask sb round, fetch sb/stg round, "have sb round, invite sb round, "show sb round
32.12.4 (= distribution)
pass sb/stg round, share things round
32.12.5 (= changing position)
"change things round, "move things round
32.13 'through'
32.13.1 (= from one side/place to another)
drive (a car) through, knock sb/stg through, "let sb through, "send sb/stg through, "show sb through
32.13.2 (= to a conclusion/thoroughly)
"argue sb/stg through, "heat sb/stg through, "plan sb/stg through, sort sb/stg through, "think sb/stg through
32.13.3 (= in two pieces)
cut sb/stg through, saw sb/stg through, slice sb/stg through
Appendix 33

32.14 ‘up’
32.14.1 (= in an upwards/northward direction) bring sb/sth up, get sb/sth up, keep (your hand) up, pull ‘sb/sth up, turn (the sound) up
32.14.2 (= from off a surface, floor, etc.) clean stg up, collect stg up, pick stg up
32.14.3 (= completely) add (numbers) up, cover sb/sth up, drink stg up, eat stg up, fill stg up, hurry sb/sth up, load stg up, mix (two things) up, open stg up
32.14.4 (= for a purpose) learn stg up (for a test), measure sb/sth up (for a dress), phone sb up, start (a car) up
32.14.5 (= into smaller pieces - destruction) break stg up, burn stg up, chop stg up, cut stg up, rip stg up, saw stg up, smash stg up
32.14.6 (= out of bed) 'find sby up, 'get sby up, 'let sby up
32.14.7 (= confining/fastening/mending, etc.) bank (a river) up, board (a window) up, button (a coat) up, close stg up, lock stg up, pack stg up, sew stg up, stick stg up, wrap stg up

Appendix 33 [> 1.9,8.28.5,16.55]

Type 2 [8.28.5]: Verb + particle transitive (idiomatic)
Verbs marked * take the object before the particle

he 'answered me back (= contradicted)
blow the balloon up (= inflate)
they blew it up (= destroyed by explosion)
she broke the engagement off (= ended)
who brought it about (= caused to happen)
they brought down the ruler (= defeated)
we'll bring the job off (= succeed in doing so)
they'll bring your article out (= publish)
'bring him round (= to consciousness)
I brought up her son well (= rear, educate)
don't bring that up again (= mention)
he tried to buy me off (= bribe me)
call the meeting off (= cancel)
call up your mother (= phone her)
he's been called up (i e for military service)
he carried it off (= managed it successfully)
we'll carry out a test (= conduct)
he 'cleaned me out (= won all my money)
she's cooked up an excuse (= invented)
they're covering the facts up (= concealing)
I've been cut off (= interrupted on the phone)
please 'cut it out (= stop being annoying)
I'll dash off a letter (= write one quickly)
dish out these leaflets (= distribute)
he 'did everybody down (= cheated them)
shall I do your room out (= clean it)
we've done the house up (= decorated)
help me draw up this document (= draft it)
she 'dressed them down (= rebuked them)
I dressed myself up (= put on fancy clothes)
drop her off here (= let her get out of the car)
don't explain away the facts (= find excuses)
fill this form in/out (= supply details)
they'll 'find him out (= that he's dishonest)
fit me in (= give me an appointment)
let's fix a date up (= make arrangements)
the police followed it up (= investigated it)

he "got his message across (= conveyed)
the news "gets me down (= depresses me)
get a builder in (= e g to do the job)
"get him round here (= persuade him to visit)
you gave away the secret (= revealed it)
I "gave myself away (= showed I'd been lying)
who'll give the bride away? (= at the wedding)
I've given up smoking (= stopped the habit)
mil they 'give themselves up? (= surrender)
he's 'having us on (= deceiving as a joke)
'have it out with him (= discuss grievance)
they've "hit it off (= they get on well together)
we were held up in the fog (= delayed)
his 'keeping us on (= continuing to employ)
he knocked back two pints (= drank quickly)
"knock him down (= make him cut the price)
I've laid off 100 men (= stopped employing)
I can't lay out more (= spend more money)
he's been "laid up a year (= e g by illness)
he's let us down (= not fulfilled expectations)
please let the children off (= don't punish)
someone's let the secret out (= revealed it)
please look over this essay (= scrutinize)
look the word up (= i e in the dictionary)
look me up when you're back (= contact me)
I can't make him out (= understand him)
I can just make him out (= see him)
you've made that story up (= invented it)
you've made yourself up (= used cosmetics)
you've missed out my name (= not included)
im packing in smoking (= stopping)
she was 'passed over (= not chosen)
I'll pay back for this (= get my revenge)
point it out to me (= show or explain)
we've pulled off a deal (= been successful)
his can't 'put the ideas across (= communicate)
his had to 'put him away (= e g in prison)
can we put off the meeting? (= postpone it)
I cuts me off (= discourages, repels)
I've put out my hip (= dislocated)
I've put out of my way (= undertook)
put me up (= give me accommodation)
I've been ripped off (= overcharged)
he always runs her down (= criticizes unfairly)
he was run over by a car (= knocked down)
come and "see me off (= say goodbye to me)
he's sending me up (= ridiculing by imitating)
the strike set us back (= delayed/cost us money)
he set up the whole scheme (= organized it)
I can't shake this cold off (= get rid of it)
'shut him up (= make him stop talking)
sort this company out (= organize it)
I'll spill it out (= make it absolutely clear)
we must step up production (= increase)
I'm not taken in by this (= deceived)
how many are they taking on? (= employing)
he's going to take me out (= e g for a meal)
I can't 'tell them apart (= distinguish between)
you're always telling me off (= reprimanding)
top up the battery (= fill)
they're turning us out (= making us leave)
win him over (= persuade him to agree)
I (wiped out the village (= destroyed)
we must work this problem out (= solve it)
his car was written off (= unrepairable)
Appendix 34 [> 8 28 5]

Some fixed expressions with verbs: e.g. ‘make up your mind’

Typical verb + particle combinations are
bite one’s tongue off, cancel each other out, cry one’s eyes out, eat one’s head off, eat one’s heart out, get a move on, get one’s own back, get a word in (edgeways), give the game away, have one’s head screwed on, keep one step ahead, keep your hair on laugh one’s head off, live it up, pull one’s socks up, put the boot in, put one’s feet up, put one’s weight about

Appendix 35 [> 2.9, 2.11, 8.29.1d]

Some nouns formed from Type 3 verbs: e.g. ‘break-up’

Only nouns actually derived from verb + particle are given in this list, not nouns (like prices have intransitive (idiomatic)

Typical verb + particle combinations are
‘make up your mind’

Some fixed expressions with verbs: e.g. ‘break-up’

‘break-up’

Appendix 36 [> 1.9, 8.29.3]

Type 3: Verb + particle

Intransitive (idiomatic)

that boy’s acting up (= behaving badly) all this doesn’t add up (= make sense)

she’s just blown in (= arrived unexpectedly) prices bottomed out (= reached bottom)

my car’s broken down (= it won’t go)

the prisoners broke out of jail! (= escaped)

I’ll call by/in/round tomorrow (= visit briefly)

please calm down (= don’t panic)

sorry, I don’t catch on (= understand)

cheer up (= change your mood, be cheerful)

when do you clock in/out? (= start/finish)

how did that come about? (= happen)

prices have come down (= been reduced)

my plan came off (= succeeded)

the subject came up again (= was mentioned)

you’d better cough up (= pay)

please don’t cut in (= interrupt)

my engine’s cut out (= stopped working)

the sound died away (= became fainter)

that custom has died out (= become extinct)

let’s dress up (= put on best/fancy clothes)

I’ll drop by/in on the way home (= visit you)

dad’s just dropped off (= fallen asleep)

you should ease off (= work less hard)

where will we end up? (= finish our journey)

we fell about (= collapsed with laughter)

his argument fell down (= failed to convince)

the roof fell in (= collapsed)

Jim and his wife have fallen out (= quarreled)

my plan fell through (= was unsuccessful)

you really get about/around (= travel)

don’t you want to get ahead (= succeed)

got off (= wasn’t punished)

we really get on (= have a good relationship)

its time you got up (= rase from bed)

I’ll never give in (= surrender the bomb went off (= exploded)

what’s going on? (= happening)

will this food go round (= be enough)

he hung up on me (= put the phone down)

don’t hold back now (= hesitate

it’s hard to keep on (= continue)

I can’t keep up (= stay at your level)

I’m going to knock off (= stop work)

I wish you’d lay off (= stop being annoying)

please don’t let on (= reveal the secret)

I love to lie in (= stay in bed late)

I’d like to look on (= be a spectator)

look out (= take care) (= danger)

things are looking up (= improving)

he took it and made off (= e.g. ran away)

he messes about (= acts in a lazy fashion)

mind out! (= be careful) (= danger)

later, he opened up (= talked more freely)

come on, own up (= confess)

he passed away/over last year (= died)

when I heard it, I passed out (= fainted)

your scheme didn’t pay off (= succeed)

trade’s picking up (= improving)

the car’s playing up (= not working properly)

pull in here (= stop the car at the roadside)

you pulled up (= used the brakes)

we’d better push on (= continue our journey)

I’ve got to ring off (= end the phone call)

our supplies have run out (= been used up)

we’re selling up (= selling all we have)

winter has set in (= begun and will continue)

when do you set out? (= start your journey)

we all set to (= began working energetically)

I’ve settled down (= got used to a situation)

when will he settle up (= pay his bills)

don’t show off (= act boastfully)

I showed up at it (= arrived (probably) late)

shut up! (= be quiet)

the news has sunk in (= been understood)

slow down (= live less energetically)

speak out (= make your views public)

his work stands out (= is of high quality)

they are staying out (= remaining on strike)

did you stay up all night? (= not go to bed)

who heard them steal away? (= leave quietly)
you’d better step in and help (= intervene)

I’ve switched off (= I’m not listening)

did the plane take off (= leave the ground)

when did the plane touch down? (= land)

I’m going to turn in (= go to bed)

how did things turn out? (= finish)

look who’s turned up (= suddenly appeared)

don’t wait up for me (= not go to bed)

don’t walk out (= stop work because of dispute)

who’s going to wash up? (= wash the dishes)

watch out! (= be careful) (= danger)

the pain’s worn off (= disappeared)

the evening wore on (= passed slowly)

he can’t wind down (= relax after effort)

how did your plan work out? (= develop)
Appendix 37 [> 8 30 3]
Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition
(idiomatic)

it backs on to the railway (= overlooks)
it boils down to this (= can be summarized as)
he’s broken out in a rash (= e on his skin)
I must brush up on my English (= improve)
I’m bursting out of my clothes (= am too fat)
cash in on the price-rise (= take advantage of)
come across with the money (= provide it)
it comes down to this (= means this)
his work has come in for criticism (= received)
can I come in on your plan? (= be included)
the bill comes out at $100 (= as a total)
he came up with a good idea (= produced)
we cried out against the idea (= protested)
he’s crying out for help (= in great need)
they did away with the bad law (= abolished)
facing up to it (= accept it with courage)
we fell back on our savings (= had to use)
I don’t feel up to it (= feel capable of it)
can you fill me in on this? (= inform me)
get away with it (= manage to deceive)
he got back at me in the end (= retaliated)
I got down to work (= began to tackle)
I’d get on to him (= contact him)
he’s getting up to something (= g mischief)
our house gives on to the river (= overl ooks)
I won’t go back on my word (= fail to honour it)
he’s gone in for painting (= started as hobby)
can’t go through with it (= finish difficult thing)
he’s grown into his coat (= got too big for)
he has it in for me (= is very hard on me)
don’t hold out on me (= keep secret from me)
keep in with him (= stay on good terms)
let me in on it (= let me share, e g the secret)
can’t live up to it (= maintain high standard)
he looks down on us (= considers us inferior)
I look forward to it (= expect to enjoy)
look out for my book (= keep constant watch)
she looks up to you (= admires, respects)
this won’t make up for it (= compensate for)
what do you put it down to? (= how explain)
put in for a rise (= make a formal request)
who put you up to this (= gave you the idea)
I won’t put up with it (= tolerate)
read up on its history (= improve knowledge)
his luck rubbed off on me (= benefited)
we’ve run out of rice (= used up all we had)
she’s run out on him (= abandoned him)
I’m running up against problems (= meeting)
I’ve set up in business (= started a business)
he’s shown me up as a liar (= revealed truth)
speak up for him (= state your support)
I’ll stand in for you (= act in your place)
stand up for your principles (= defend)
don’t start in on him (= criticize him)
stick out for more (= insist on receiving)
we’ll stick up for you (= support you)
don’t take it out on me (= treat me unfairly)
I’ll take the matter up with Jim (= discuss it)
she set upon with Jim (= become friendly)
talk him out of it (= persuade him not to do it)
don’t throw that back at me (= remind me of)
that ties in nicely with my plan (= fits)

Appendix 38 [> 6.17,9.3]
10.24,10.31, 12.3n5, 16.92, 16.45.1]
Some stative verbs
* = these have non-stative meanings/uses
38.1 Feelings, emotions (‘I like’, etc.): e g
admire, adore. (I) appeal to, ‘appreciate, (I) astonish, ‘attract, believe in, care about “defect
dislike, doubt, envy, esteem, fear, hate, ‘hope, ‘(I) impress, (I) interest, ‘like, ‘love,
mean, ‘mind, (I) please, prize, ‘regret, ‘respect, (can’t) stand, ‘swear by, trust, ‘value
38.2 Thinking, believing (‘I know’, etc.): e g
agree, ‘appreciate, ‘assume, believe, ‘bel
(informal), (can’t) comprehend, (can’t) conceive of
‘consider, (can’t) credit, disagree, dislike
‘gather, get it (= understand, informal), ‘guess
(AnE), ‘hear(= to be told), hear about (= get to
know), hear of (= know about), hope, ‘imagine
(= think) know, ‘presume (= suppose), ‘realize,
‘recognize, ‘recollect, ‘regard, ‘see (= understand)
‘seek through, ‘suppose, ‘suspect, (can’t) tell ‘think (= believe), understand, ‘wonder
38.3 Wants and preferences (‘I want’, etc.):
crediting, ‘admire, adore. (I) appeal to, ‘appreciate, (I)
38.4 Perception and the senses: e g
catch, (= understand), (can) ‘distinguish, (can)
hear, (can) make out, notice, ‘observe, perceive,
(can) ‘see, (can) ‘smell, (can) ‘taste
38.5 Being, seeming, having, owning, etc.: add up (= make sense), (can) afford, ‘appear (= seem), belong, belong to,
chance, come about, come from (your place of origin),
comprise, (I) concern, consist of, constitute,
contain, ‘correspond for/with, ‘cost, ‘count,
deserve, differ from, equal, (= exceed, excel in,
‘feel, ‘fit, happen to, have/have got [p. 10 27],
hold(= contain), (I) include, (I) involve,
keep -ing, know sb, ‘lack, ‘look (= appear), (I) matter, (I) mean, ‘measure merit
number (= reach total), own, possess, ‘prove
(‘I) read, ‘represent, resemble, (I) result from,
(I) say, seem, signify, (I) smell of, (I) sound
(= seem) (‘I) stand for, (I) suit (= be suitable)
(‘I) taste of, (‘I) weigh

Appendix 39 [> 9.13-14, 9.22, 12.3n1]
Some common regular verbs
Key bold = spelling change from base form
39.1 Pronounced / d l / in the past: e g
‘b’ bribed, described, robbed, rubbed
‘g’ begged, dragged, plugged, tugged
‘ng’ banged, belonged, longed
‘ge’ arranged, changed, exchanged
damaged, emerged, judged, managed
called, filled, pulled, small, travelled
‘m’ assumed, claimed, combed
‘n’ cleaned, explained, listened, opened
towel (= I answered, appeared, dared
‘v’ arrived, lived, loved, moved, proved
‘z’ accused, closed, excused, refused
### Appendix 40

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'th'</th>
<th>bathed, lathed</th>
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<tr>
<td>'ay'</td>
<td>delayed, obeyed, played, weighed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'ee'</td>
<td>agreed, freed, guaranteed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'oy'</td>
<td>annoyed, destroyed, employed, enjoyed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'cry'</td>
<td>cried, denied, dried, tried, qualified, replied, satisfied, terrified, tried</td>
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<tr>
<td>'bury'</td>
<td>buried, carried, hurried, married, worried</td>
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<tr>
<td>'low'</td>
<td>borrowed, followed, showed, videoed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'ie'</td>
<td>argued, continued, rescued, reviewed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'oo'</td>
<td>addressed, crossed, danced, discussed, faced, guessed, missed</td>
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<tr>
<td>'oo'</td>
<td>coughed, laughed, stuffed</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### 39.2 Pronounced /k/ in the past: e.g.
- asked, joked, liked, locked, looked, picked, talked, thanked, walked, worked
- answered, continued, rescued, reviewed
- addressed, crossed, danced, discussed, faced, guessed, missed
- coughed, laughed, stuffed

#### 39.3 Pronounced /ɪd/ in the past: e.g.
- added, afforded, attended, avoided, decided, ended, handed, included, mended, minded, needed, provided, reminded, skidded
- admitted, attempted, collected, completed, counted, dated, educated, excited, expected, greeted, hated, insisted, invited, lifted, painted, posted, printed, rested, shouted, started, tasted, visited, waited, wanted, wasted

### Some common irregular verbs

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<th>verb</th>
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Appendix 41 (>10.11)
Some words which combine with 'be' to describe temporary behaviour

41.1 Adjectives (He's being naughty) amusing, awful, babyish, bad (= naughty), boring, brave, careful, careless, cautious, childish, critical, daring, difficult, extravagant, foolish, frank, friendly, funny, greedy, helpful, idiotic, impatient, impossible, ironic, just (= fair), kind, lazy, mean, naive, nasty, naughty, nice, obedient, obliging, odd, patient, peculiar, pedantic, polite, practical, rough, rude, sensible, silly, sincere, snobbish, stupid, tactful, tedious, tiresome, tiring, ungrateful, ungrateful, unpleasant, vain, wasteful

41.2 Nouns (He's being a baby) a baby, a bore, a brute, a bully, a coward, a darling, a devil, a fool, a (good) friend, hell, an idiot, a liar, a nuisance, a problem, a show-off, a snob, a threat, a worry.

Appendix 42 (> 3.28.2,10.37)
'Have', 'give', 'take': some common combinations

42.1 'Have' + noun
42.1.1 Eating/drinking (Have breakfast/a drink) breakfast/lunch/tea/supper/dinner, a meal, a snack, a drink, a/some coffee, a sandwich
42.1.2 Rest/sleep (Have a rest) a rest/a sleep/a lie-down/a nap, a day off, a holiday, a dream, a nightmare
42.1.3 Washing, etc (Have a bath) a bath/a wash/a shower, a shave, a haircut/a perm/a tint, a massage.
42.1.4 Appointments, etc (Have a date) an appointment, a date, an interview, a meeting, a lesson, a game, a break, a good time, fun, a nice day, a ride, a walk (>10.38)
42.1.5 Travel (Have a trip) a trip, a drive, a lift, a good journey/flight
42.1.6 The weather (We had some/a lot of rain) good/bad weather, rain, fog, a lovely day
42.1.7 Illnesses/medical (Have a cold) a cold, a cough, a headache, a temperature, flu, measles, a pain, a baby, a breakdown.
42.1.8 Personal qualities (Have a bad temper) a bad temper, (no) brains, a cheek, an eye for, green fingers, guts, no conscience, sense, a sense of humour, a sweet tooth
42.1.9 Relationships, opportunities, etc an advantage, an affair, an argument, a chat, a choice, difficulty, a discussion, an effect, a guess, a hand in, influence, luck, a nerve, no business, the/an opportunity, a problem, a reason, a row, sex, a talk, the time

42.1.10 Emotional/mental states, reactions a brainwave, a clue, cold feet, have had enough, a feeling, a fit, an idea that, the fliest idea, a good laugh (about something), a lot to be grateful for, a lot to put up with, a mind to, an opinion, a plan, a point of view, second thoughts, a shock, a suggestion

42.2 'Give' + noun (Give advice)
42.2.1 'Give' (somebody) + noun advice/information/news, an answer, one's attention, a bath, a call/a ring, a chance, a description, an explanation, a guess, help, a kiss, a lead, lessons, a lift, an opportunity, permission, the sack, a shock, a surprise, the time, trouble, a warning, a welcome.
42.2.2 A few verb phrases with 'give' give birth to, give evidence (in court), give the game away, give the lie to, give one's life for, give a party/a dance, give place to, give a shout, give thanks for, give thought to, give way (= collapse), give way to (= allow to go first).

42.3 'Take' + noun (Take action)
action, advice, aim (at), a bath/a shower, to one's bed, something to bits, a break, care, the chair (at a meeting), charge of, a class, courage, somebody to court, a decision, effect, an exam, exception to (= disapprove), fright, heart (from something), a/the hint, a holiday, a pike, liberties, a look, one's medicine, note of, offence, the opportunity to, pains to, part in, a photograph, pity, place (= happen), possession of, pride in, a rest, risks, root, a seat, shape, the strain, a turn, a walk.

Appendix 43 (> 10.45)
'Do' and 'make': some common combinations

43.1 Some combinations with 'do': e.g.
43.1.1 As in Do (somebody) a favour, damage, good, no good, harm, no harm, an injury, justice, a kindness, a service
43.1.2 (= be engaged in an activity) business, a deal (with), one's duty, a job, something for a living, one's job/work, household tasks: the cooking, the gardening, the ironing, the shopping, the washing, the washing-up places the sights, Rome (in a day) speed, distance This car does 100 miles an hour, thirty miles to the gallon subjects, etc.: Art, French, an experiment, one's homework, a lesson, research, arrange, clean, etc. the beds, the flowers, the kitchen, one's hair, one's nails, one's teeth

43.2 Some combinations with 'make': e.g.
an accusation, an agreement, an apology, an application, an attempt, a bargain, a bed, a (phone) call, a change, a choice, a claim, a comment, a contribution, a criticism, a decision, a deduction, a demand, a discovery, an effort (to), an escape, an excuse, a fortune, a guess, a habit of something, history, an impression, an inquiry, a journey, a law, a loss, love, a mess, a mistake, money, a move (= start to go), a name for oneself, a noise, an offer, a profit, progress, a promise, a proposal, a record, a reference, a remark, a report, a request, room (for), rules, sense (of), a start, a success of, a trip, trouble, use of, war, one's way to place (= go there), a will
Some adjectival combinations

Key:
- I'm = personal subject
- It's = preparatory 'it':
  - It's advisable to book in advance
  - It's likely (that) he'll arrive tomorrow.
  - It's advisable that he should phone or keep in touch.
- IS. that-clause with should + verb:
  - It's advisable that he keep in touch.
- (sh). that-clause often with 'should', but not with subjunctive:
  - It's odd (that) you should say that.

adjective to-infinitive (that) '-ing'

- friendly
- funny
- glad
- good
- no good
- grateful
- great
- happy
- hard (+ difficult)
- helpful (dis)honest
- hopeful
- hopeless
- horrible
- important
- just
- keen
- kept
- likely
- lovely
- nice
- obliged
- obvious
- odd
- pleasant
- pointless
- possible
- prepared
- quick
- ready
- right
- safe
- slow
- sorry
- stupid
- strange
- sure
- useful
- vital
- wise

- friendly
- funny
- glad
- good
- grateful
- great
- happy
- hard (+ difficult)
- helpful (dis)honest
- hopeful
- horrible
- important
- just
- keen
- kept
- likely
- lovely
- nice
- obliged
- obvious
- odd
- pleasant
- pointless
- possible
- prepared
- quick
- ready
- right
- safe
- slow
- sorry
- stupid
- strange
- sure
- useful
- vital
- wise
Appendix 45 - 46

Some reporting verbs

45.1 Some reporting verbs (1)

Key:

- that = that is not usually omitted
- (sb) = optional personal object before clause
- Q = verb may be followed by question clauses
- He asked when I would be ready
- if = verb can be followed by for whatever
- He asked if/whether Jim had arrived
- * = verb can report direct speech in writing with inversion usually possible
- I’m ready, John said/said John
- accept that
- acknowledge that
- 'admit
- advertise that
- affirm that
- 'agree Q (if/whether)
- allege that
- allow (= admit) that
- announce
- 'answer that
- appear it appears appreciate that
- *argue that, about Q
- ask (sb) if/whether, Q
- assert that
- assume believe
- I bet (= I’m sure)
- 'boast, about Q (not) care if/whether, Q
- 'caution (sb)
- chance it chanced that
- charge that, if/whether, Q
- check that, if/whether, Q
- claim, Q, whether
- complain
- *conclude
- 'confess, Q whether
- confirm that, Q whether
- consider, Q (l)do (sby) (present only)
- decide, Q, whether
- 'declare
deny
- depend on whether/Q
- describe Q only
disagree that
discuss Q, whether only
- doubt, if/whether
- dream that
- emphasize that, Q
- ensure that
- estimate that, Q
- 'exclaim that
- expect
- explain, Q, whether

think, Q, whether
understand, Q if/whether wish
vote that
wonder if/whether/Q
want to know that if/Q
write (sb) (by)

45.2 Some reporting verbs (2)

These have a personal object before a clause
He told me (that) he would be late
assure convince, inform, instruct sb that notify sb that, remind sb that, tell sb that

45.3 Some reporting verbs (3)

Most of the following can be used to report commands with a to-infinitive.

Those marked * can also be followed by that should, those marked that should cannot be followed by to advise sb to, *ask sb to, *beg sb to, cause sb to, command sb to, compel sb to, demand to, direct sb to, forbid sb to, get sb to, insist that should, *instruct sb to, oblige sb to, *order sb to, *persuade sb to, propose that should, *recommend sb to, request sb to, suggest e.g. where to that should, *telex sb to, *tell sb to, urge sb to, want sb to, wish sb to

Appendix 46 [> 16.13/19/20]

46.1 Some verbs followed by a for-infinitive

(sby/stg) = object required before (sby/stg) = optional object
allow sb, appoint sb assist sb, attempt, begin, bribe sb, bring in sb, bring up sb, can’t bear, care (= want), cease, commence, compete, condemn sb, consent, continue dare (= be brave enough), dare sb, deserve, dislike (sb/stg), elect sb, employ sb, enable sb, encourage sb, fail, get (sby/stg), grow, hasten, hate have (got) (= 11 47), help (sby), hurry, lead sb, like (sb/stg), long, love (sby/stg), manage, need (sby/stg) = 11 1, negotiate, offer, pay, prefer (sby/stg), refuse, rely on sb/stg, scheme, seek, select sb/stg, send (for) sb/stg, start, stop, struggle, try (sb) (try can’t) wait, want (sby/stg), wish (sby/stg)

46.2 Verb + for-infinitive or Q-word + to-infinitive

All these verbs are also commonly followed by (hat-clauses or question-word clauses agree to Q to, ask to Q to, chance to, consider Q to, decide to/Q, discover Q to, forget to/Q to, happen to, hear (= learn) Q to, hope to, know Q to learn to/Q to, mean to, notice Q to, observe Q to occur if occurs to sb to, plan to/Q to, pretend to profess to promise to, probe to, realize Q to reckon (= expect) to regret to, remember to/Q to show sb Q to, teach sb to/Q to, wonder Q to

46.3 Verb + clause or object + to be

I declare him to be the winner accept arrange for (arr), believe, calculate certify consider declare deny, discover estimate, fancy, feel (= consider), find (= consider), guess hold, imagine, infer, intend judge, know, mean, perceive, prefer, presume recognize, remember, report request require, sense, suppose suspect take understand
Appendix 47

47.1 Numerals

Words in bold italics cause spelling problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cardinal numbers</th>
<th>ordinal numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1st first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1st first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2nd second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3rd third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4th fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5th fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6th sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7th seventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8th eighth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9th ninth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10th tenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11th eleventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>12th twelfth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>13th thirteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>14th fourteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>15th fifteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>16th sixteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>17th seventeenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>18th eighteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>19th nineteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>20th twentieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>21st twenty-first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>22nd twenty-second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>23rd twenty-third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>24th twenty-fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>25th twenty-fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>26th twenty-sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>27th twenty-seventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>28th twenty-eighth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>29th twenty-ninth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>30th thirtieth, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>31st thirtieth, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>40th fortieth, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>50th fiftieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>60th sixtieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>70th seventieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>80th eightieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>90th nintieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>100th one hundred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>101st one/the hundred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and one</td>
<td>and first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>200th the (wo hundred)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000th one/thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,001</td>
<td>1,001st one/one thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and one, etc</td>
<td>and first, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001</td>
<td>10,001st one/the thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and one, etc</td>
<td>and first, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000 one</td>
<td>100,000th one/the thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1,000,000th one/the million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTES**

1. The spoken form of 0 is a) nought (AmE zero) or oh On is used especially when giving telephone numbers (> App 47.2), and often when saying the year e.g. 1906 can be said nineteen oh six, in the 24 hour clock, e.g. 0903 can be spoken as nine oh three hours

b) When talking scientifically, e.g. when giving temperatures, 0 is pronounced zero, e.g. -20°C = twenty degrees below zero
c) When giving the scores of most games, e.g. football, 0 is pronounced nil Hull 6, Leeds 0 is said Hull six, Leeds nil (or nothing)

When giving the scores of a few other games, e.g. tennis we use love for 0 Becker leads by two sets to love (2-0)

2. -teen and -ty endings pronunciation

Even native speakers sometimes find it hard to hear the difference. Did you say thirteen or thirty? Note the stress. I said thirteen/thirty 3 one hundred, one thousand, one million, etc

In ordinary speech, a is often used instead of one However, one is preferable in calculations, etc. because it sounds more accurate. For numbers between 1,000 and 1,900 it is common to say eleven hundred, etc. instead of one thousand one hundred

4. Writing numbers of more than four figures

We separate large numbers with commas, not stops. Commas may be omitted from four-figure numbers, but they are important in numbers with five or more figures, since they make the structure of large numbers clear. 5 and in numbers over 100

In AmE this can be omitted, e.g. six hundred sixty-eight instead of six hundred and 6. Numbers after people’s names

When writing the names of kings, we use Roman numerals. We write George the Fourth, Some rich American families do the same. Henry Ford II 7. A dozen (i.e. twelve)

Certain things, e.g. eggs, bread rolls, oranges, are often bought in dozens. A/one/two dozen eggs please (No -s)

8. Uncertain numbers

The word odd may be used with round numbers over twenty to give an approximate figure. It’s a hundred odd pounds (i.e. about)

She’s sixty odd (i.e. about 60 years old)

-ish or so and thereabouts can also be used when giving approximate numbers. He’s sixtyish. I’ll meet you nineish

It cost a hundred pounds or so

He’s arriving on the seventh or thereabouts

47.2 Telephone numbers

Telephone numbers are written with gaps between each group of numbers, not usually with dashes or full stops. e.g. 01 339 4867

The first group is usually the dialling code for a particular place and is often in brackets. (01) 339 4867. 0 in phone numbers is pronounced oh Numbers are pronounced separately and double figures are usually given as e.g. double three oh one, double three (or three three) nine, four eight six seven

Treble figures are normally spoken as follows: 6222 six two double two A number like 2222 would be spoken double two double two

Other long numbers, like bank account numbers, national insurance numbers and so on are usually spoken in the same way.
47.3 Mathematical symbols, fractions, decimals

47.3.1 Mathematical symbols

- (the equals sign)
This is spoken as equal or equals, is equal to
or (less formally) is/are or make/makes so
2 + 2 = 4 could be spoken as
2 and 2 (or 2 plus 2) is equal to 4 and 2 equals 4
2 and 2 is four and 2 are 4
2 and 2 make 4 and 2 makes 4

- (the plus sign)
This is spoken as plus or and
2 plus 2 makes 4 and 2 make(s) 4

- (the minus sign)
This is spoken as minus or (less formally) take away or from
9 - 3 = 6 could be spoken as
9 minus 3 equals 6
9 take away 3 equals 6
3 from 9 equals/makes 6

- (the multiplication sign)
This is spoken as multiplied by or times
9 x 3 = 27 could be spoken as
9 multiplied by (or) 3 equals 27
9 times 3 is 27
Three nines (or nine threes) are 27

- (the division sign)
This is spoken as divided by or over
9 - 3 = 3 could be spoken as
9 divided by (or) 3 equals 3
3 into nine (goes) 3

- (the percentage sign)
This is usually said per cent
3 % = three per cent
3 1/2 % = three and a half per cent
3 5/6 = three point five per cent

47.3.2 Fractions (> 5 9 3)
Fractions are usually printed and written with a horizontal line, not a diagonal line.
1/4 = a (or one) quarter, 2/4 = two and a quarter
1/2 = a (or) half, 2 1/2 = two and a half
3/4 = three quarters, 3 3/4 = three and three quarters

47.3.3 Decimals (> 5 9 4)
The decimal point is usually raised i.e., it is not written as if it was a full stop. A comma is never used. We say each number after the decimal point separately. 45.987 = forty-five point nine eight seven.

47.4 Dates (> 7.21, 8.11)

47.4.1 Centuries, years
35 BC (‘Before Christ’), A D 100 = AD one hundred (i.e. ‘Anno Domini’, in the year of our Lord’ in Latin). A D is not usually necessary except with the early centuries to avoid possible confusion. BC is usually necessary.

Pompey died in 48 BC
Tiberius died in A D 37

The 11th to the 20th century will always be taken to mean A D. The name of the century is ‘one ahead’ of the way the years in it are written, e.g. 1500-1599 is the sixteenth century.

We refer to the fifteen twenties, etc. and in this century to the fifties, the sixties. We refer to 1900-1910 as the nineteen hundreds.

Years are said in two parts
1066 ten sixty-six, 1917 nineteen seventeen

The early years of a century, e.g., from (19)01 to (19)12 have two forms: nineteen hundred and one, or nineteen (oh)-one. Years ending in ‘00 are said with “hundred.” 1900 nineteen hundred, but note 2000 the year two thousand.

47.4.2 The date
We can write the date in different ways e.g., Day/month/year, 6th January 1990 (or 90) or Month/day/year.

January 6th, 1990 (or 90)
January 6, 1990 (or 90)

This means January 6, 1990 in BrE; it means June 1, 1990 since the number of the month is written before the day. When we say the date we add the January the sixth, or the sixth of January (BrE), or January sixth (AmE).

47.5 The time (> 7.21, 8.11)

47.5.1 Telling the time in everyday speech

If a clock shows (say) 10:00, the fullest answer to the question ‘What’s the time?’ is “It’s ten o’clock.” But we can also say “Ten” (very informal) or “It’s ten.” The word O clock is used only with exact hours, never with other times. It’s five past ten, etc.

Where the hour is known, we can just say “(It’s) five past/two to/midnight.”

For past the hour we say e.g., (It’s) five past ten, etc. Where the hour is known, we can just say “(It’s) five past/two to/midnight.”

For the hour we say e.g., (It’s) five past ten, etc. Where the hour is known, we can just say “(It’s) five past/two to/midnight.”

Past the hour, we say, e.g., (It’s) five past ten (ten), five to (eleven), etc., using the concept of minutes from the hour.

With all other combinations before the hour and past the hour, we say, e.g., three minutes to ten.

ten-two minutes to ten (eleven), ten thirty to (eleven), ten forty to (eleven), etc.

10:00 is used instead of ten o’clock.

We can also say “ten-thirty” instead of “ten-thirty.”

10:06 is used instead of ten-thirty-six.

10:00 is used instead of ten o’clock.

We can also say “ten-thirty” instead of “ten-thirty.”

10:06 is used instead of ten-thirty-six.

47.5.2 The time in schedules and timetables

The twenty-four hour clock is generally used for, e.g., railway timetables. These are written and spoken as follows:

00 09 hundred twenty-one
09 09 nine
09 03 nine oh three
09 10 nine ten
09 15 nine fifteen
09 30 nine thirty
09 36 nine thirty-six
09 45 nine forty-five

Which tram do you want to catch?”

“– I think I’ll try to get the ten eighteen.”
Appendix 48

Some adverbs of definite time: "points of time"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yesterday</th>
<th>Today</th>
<th>Tomorrow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>Morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At noon</td>
<td>At noon</td>
<td>At noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afternoon</td>
<td>Afternoon</td>
<td>Afternoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night</td>
<td>Night</td>
<td>Night</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The day before yesterday</th>
<th>The day after tomorrow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The night before last</td>
<td>The night after next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The day before yesterday in the morning/afternoon/evening</td>
<td>The day after tomorrow in the morning/afternoon/evening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Last Monday</th>
<th>This Monday</th>
<th>Next Monday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Monday before last</td>
<td>The Monday after next</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The January before last</td>
<td>The January after next</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Christmas before last</td>
<td>The Christmas after next</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last week</td>
<td>This week</td>
<td>Next week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The week before last</td>
<td>This month</td>
<td>Next month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The month before last</td>
<td>This year</td>
<td>Next year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The year before last</td>
<td>This century</td>
<td>Next century</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTES

1. Last night is usually preferable to yesterday night.
2. In everyday speech days of the week are often referred to without this last next or on.
   *I'm seeing him Monday* (i.e. this next on) / *saw him Monday* (i.e. last on)
3. When we wish to draw attention to approaching time we may use the expression this coming
   *This coming week* there are three good films on TV
4. This morning this afternoon this evening and tonight can refer to
   a) now / feel terrible *this morning/today etc*
   b) the morning which is passing or has just passed / spoke to him *this morning* (= earlier)
   c) later on today / I'll speak to him *this morning*
5. This Monday etc refers to the nearest Monday from now and can be replaced by next Monday
   *I'm seeing him this Monday/next Monday*
6. This week this month this year etc refer to
   a) the part of the week etc which has passed / saw him *this week/this earlier week*
   b) the part of the week etc which is still to come / I'm going to Majorca *this week*
7. This January etc refers to the one that is nearest to us and can be replaced by next
   *We're spending this/next January, Christmas* etc in Switzerland
8. The other + day Monday morning etc refers to one that has recently passed every
   other + day Monday morning etc refers to alternating ones
   *I got a letter from Jill the other morning* [compare > 5.27]
9. Today week can be replaced by the more formal this week
10. One + day Monday morning etc is often used in narrative [compare > 3.11]
11. For time references in indirect speech [> 15.13n5]
Appendix 49

Appendix 49 [> 2.27,3.9 3.3.19.2,6.12.2,6.20.3]

Some nationality words

49.1 Group 1: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and noun have the same form
   adjective: the Japanese language noun: Nakamura-san is a Japanese
2. There is no difference between singular and plural adjectives/nouns
   singular: Nakamura-san is Japanese plural: Nakamura-san and Sanseido-san are Japanese
3. When referring to 'all the people', the is always required
   The Japanese are very clever people

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable noun</th>
<th>Plural or collective noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>a Japanese (man/woman), one Japanese (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Japanese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly e.g.
- Burmese/Burma, Chinese/China, Lebanese/Lebanese, Malta/Maltese, Portugal/Portuguese, Sudan/Sudanese, Surinam/Surinamese, Taiwan/Taiwanese, Switzerland/Swiss

49.2 Group 2: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and singular noun have exactly the same form
   adjective: an Italian car noun: Mario is an Italian.
2. The plural noun adds -s to form the plural, the is optional in the plural
   The Italians are very creative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable noun</th>
<th>Plural or collective noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>a Italian (man/woman), one Italian (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Italians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly e.g.
- a) -ian endings add -n to countries ending in -ia Agana(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austia(n), Colombia(n), Indonesia(n), Algeria(n), Russia(n), Scandinavian(n), Spain(n), Tansam(n), Tumsia(n)
- b) generally add -n or -ian
  - Afica(n), Africa(n), Chile(an), Costa Rica(n), Cuba(n), Korea(n), Latin America(n), Libya(n), Mexico/Mexican, Paraguay(n), Uganda(n), Venezuela(n)
  - other -ian endings
    - Argentina/Argentinian, Brazil/Brazilian, Canada/Canadian, Egypt/Egyptian, Hungary/Hungarian, Iran/Iranian, Jordan/Jordanian, Norway/Norwegian
  - c) other endings
    - Alge(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austria(n), Brazil/Brazilian, Canada/Canadian, Egypt/Egyptian, Greece/Greek, Iraq/Iraqi, Kuwait/Kuwaiti, Oman/Omani, Pakistan/Pakistani, Qatar/Qatari, Saudi Arabia/Saudi Arabian, Thailand/Thai

49.3 Group 3: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and singular noun are different
   adjective: Finnish timber noun: He is a Finn
2. The singular noun adds -s to form the plural, the is optional in the plural
   The Finns often visit Sweden

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable noun</th>
<th>Plural or collective noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>an Arab</td>
<td>a Finn (man/woman), two Arabs (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabian</td>
<td>an Arabian (man/woman), two Arabs (men)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>a Dane (man/woman), two Danes (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Danes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Finish</td>
<td>a Finn (man/woman), two Finns (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Finns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Philippine</td>
<td>a Filipino (man/woman), two Filipinos (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Filipinos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>a Pole (man/woman), two Poles (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Poles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>a Spaniard, two Spaniards (men), a Spanish woman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Spaniards or the Spanish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>a Swede (man/woman), two Swedes (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Swedes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>a Turk (man/woman), two Turks (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Turks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>a Turk (man/woman), two Turks (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Turks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

49.4 Group 4: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and plural noun (meaning 'all the people') are the same, the is always required
   adjective: English customs noun: The English are very inventive
2. The singular noun is composed of the adjective + -man or -woman
   England English an Englishman, two Englishmen (men)
   France French a Frenchman, two Frenchmen (men)
   Holland (or Dutch) Dutch a Dutchman, two Dutchmen (men)
   Ireland Irish an Irishman, two Irishmen (men)
   Wales Welsh a Welshman, two Welshmen (men)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable noun</th>
<th>Plural or collective noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>an Englishman, two Englishmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the English (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>a Frenchman, two Frenchmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the French (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>a Dutchman, two Dutchmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Dutch (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>an Irishman, two Irishmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Irish (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>a Welshman, two Welshmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Welsh (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

49.5 Group 5: Two exceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable noun</th>
<th>Plural or collective noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>a Briton (man/woman), two Britons (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the British (also)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>Scottish</td>
<td>a Scot (man/woman), a Scotsman (man), two Scotsmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(the) Scots and (note Scotch whisky)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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