


Longman

English

Grammar

L. G. Alexander

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L G.Alexander

Consultant- R A. Close, CBE

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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 Prototypon 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.

Louis Alexander is best known as the author of innovative works like *First Things First* (1967), which set new standards in course-design. He has written

Courses, such as *New Concept English* (1967), *Look, Listen and Learn* (1968-71), *Target* (1972-74), *Mainline* (1973-81), *Follow Me* (1979-80) and *Plain English* (1987-88).

Language Practice Books such as *A First Book in Comprehension* (1964), *Question and Answer* (1967) and *For and Against* (1968).

Readers, such as *Operation Mastermind* (1971), *K's First Case* (1975), *Dangerous Game* (1977) and *Foul Play* (1983).

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.

Contents

Introduction		Adverbs of frequency	133
1 The sentence		Adverbs of degree	135
Sentence word order	1	Intensifiers	139
The simple sentence	4	Focus adverbs	141
The compound sentence	10	Viewpoint adverbs and connectives	142
The complex sentence	12	Inversion after adverbs	142
Introduction	12		
Noun clauses	13	8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs	
Relative pronouns and clauses	16	General information	144
Adverbial clauses	24	Movement and position	146
Participle constructions	30	Time	149
		Particular uses	150
2 Nouns		Verb + preposition/particle	152
One-word nouns	34	9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives	
Compound nouns	35	General information	159
Countable/uncountable nouns	38	The sequence of tenses	161
Number (singular and plural)	43	Simple present	162
Gender	49	Present progressive	164
The genitive	51	Simple past	166
		Past progressive	170
3 Articles		Simple present perfect	171
General information	55	Simple past perfect	174
The indefinite article <i>a/an</i>	57	Present/past perfect progressive	176
The definite article <i>the</i>	61	Simple future	178
The zero article	65	Future progressive	180
		Future perfect simple/progressive	181
4 Pronouns		The 'going to'-future	181
General information	72	Other ways of expressing the future	183
Personal pronouns	73	Future-in-the-past	184
<i>One</i>	76	The imperative	184
<i>It</i>	78		
Possessive adjectives/pronouns	80	10 Be, Have, Do	
Reflexive pronouns	82	<i>Be, Have, Do</i> as auxiliary verbs	187
Demonstrative adjectives/pronouns	85	<i>Be</i> as a full verb	188
Indefinite pronouns	86	<i>There + be</i>	194
		Verbs related in meaning to <i>be</i>	196
5 Quantity		<i>Have</i> ('possess') and <i>have got</i>	198
General introduction	88	<i>Have</i> (something other than 'possess')	201
Particular quantifiers	91	<i>Do</i> as a full verb	204
Distributives	98		
		11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs	
6 Adjectives		General characteristics	207
Formation of adjectives	106	Ability	212
Types of adjectives and their uses	107	Permission and prohibition	215
The comparison of adjectives	116	Certainty and possibility	218
		Deduction	221
7 Adverbs			
General information	122		
The comparison of adverbs	123		
Adverbs of manner	124		
Adverbs of place	127		
Adverbs of time	128		

Offers, requests, suggestions	222	16 The infinitive and the -ing form	
Wishes <i>wish</i> and <i>if only</i>	224	The bare infinitive	299
Preference <i>would rather/would sooner</i>	226	The infinitive with or without <i>to</i>	301
Advisability, duty, necessity	227	Bare infinitive or <i>-ing</i> form?	301
Lack of necessity, prohibition	231	The to-infinitive	303
Habit	234	Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive	305
<i>Dare</i>	236	Verb + to-infinitive or (<i>that-</i>) clause	307
Other uses of modal auxiliaries	237	Adjective + to-infinitive	308
12 The passive and the causative		Noun + to-infinitive	311
General information about form	241	The <i>-ing</i> form	312
Uses of the passive	243	Verb + <i>-ing</i> form	315
The causative	246	Adjectives and nouns + <i>-ing</i> form	316
13 Questions, answers, negatives		Prepositions + <i>-ing</i> form	317
Yes/No questions negative statements	249	To-infinitive or <i>-ing</i> form?	319
Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers	252	Appendix	322
Alternative negative forms	253	1 Transitive/intransitive verbs 322	
Negative questions and Yes/No short answers	255	2 Noun endings 322	
Tag questions and Yes/No short answers	256	3 Nouns/verbs distinguished by stress 322	
Statement questions and Yes/No answers	258	4 Nouns not normally countable 322	
Echo tags	259	5 Partitives 322	
Additions and responses	260	6 Collective nouns + <i>of</i> 323	
Question-word questions form and use	262	7 Uses of <i>this/that</i> 323	
Particular question-words and their uses	264	8 Adjectives formed with suffixes 323	
Question-word questions subject-questions	269	9 <i>The</i> + adjective 324	
Questions about alternatives	271	10 <i>ed/ing</i> adjectival participles 324	
Emphatic questions with <i>ever</i>	271	11 Adjectives easily confused 324	
14 Conditional sentences		12 Comparatives/superlatives confused and misused 324	
General information	273	13 Expressions with <i>as</i> + adjective + <i>as</i> 324	
Type 1 conditionals	274	14 Adjectives/adverbs with same form 325	
Type 2 conditionals	277	15 Adverbs with two forms 325	
Type 3 conditionals	279	16 <i>-ly</i> intensifies 325	
Other uses of <i>if</i> and similar conjunctions	281	17 Viewpoint adverbs 326	
<i>Will</i> and <i>would</i> after <i>if</i>	283	18 Connecting words and phrases 326	
15 Direct and indirect speech		19 Negative adverbs 326	
Direct speech	284	20 Common prepositions 327	
<i>Say, tell</i> and <i>ask</i>	286	21 <i>to</i> + noun and <i>at</i> + noun 327	
Indirect statements reporting verb in the present	288	22 <i>to</i> + noun and <i>in</i> + noun 327	
Indirect statements with tense changes	289	23 <i>to</i> + noun and <i>at</i> or <i>in</i> + noun 327	
Indirect statements with mixed tense sequences	293	24 Days, months, seasons 327	
Indirect Yes/No questions	293	25 Particular prepositions, particles and contrasts 328	
Indirect question-word questions	295	26 Prepositional phrases 334	
Indirect subject-questions	296	27 Adjectives and related nouns + prepositions 335	
Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech	296	28 Verb + preposition (transitive) non-idiomatic 335	
When we use indirect speech	297	29 Verb + object + preposition 336	
		30 Verb + preposition (transitive) idiomatic 336	
		31 Nouns formed from verb + particle 337	
		32 Verb + particle (transitive) non-idiomatic 337	
		33 Verb + particle (transitive) idiomatic 339	
		34 Fixed expressions with verbs 340	
		35 Nouns formed from verb + particle 340	
		36 Verb + particle (intransitive) idiomatic 340	
		37 Verb + particle + preposition (idiomatic) 341	
		38 Stative verbs 341	
		39 Regular verbs 341	
		40 Irregular verbs 342	
		41 Adjectives/nouns combining with <i>be</i> (temporary behaviour) 344	
		42 <i>Have, give take</i> combinations 344	
		43 <i>Do</i> and <i>make</i> combinations 344	
		44 Adjectival combinations 345	
		45 Reporting verbs 346	
		46 Verbs + <i>to, that</i> or <i>O</i> clause 346	
		47 Numbers 347	
		48 Points of time 349	
		49 Nationality words 350	
		Index	351

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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 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.

Pronunciation and spelling table

consonants		vowels	
key word	other common spellings	key word	other common spellings
p	pen happy	i:	sheep field team key scene
b	back rubber		amoeba
t	tea butter walked doubt	i	ship savage guilt system
d	day ladder called could		women
k	key cool soccer lock	e	bed any said bread bury friend
	school cheque	æ	bad plaid laugh (AmE)
g	get bigger ghost		calf (AmE)
tʃ	cheer match nature	a:	father calm heart
	question cello		laugh (BrE) bother (AmE)
dʒ	jump age edge soldier gradual	o	pot watch cough (BrE)
f	fat coffee cough physics		laurel (BrE)
	half	ɔ:	caught ball board draw four
v	view of navy		floor cough (AmE)
θ	thing	ʊ	put wood wolf could
ð	then	u:	boot move shoe group
s	soon city psychology mess		flew blue rude
	scene listen	ʌ	cut some blood does
z	zero was dazzle	ə:	bird burn fern worm earn
	example (/gz/)		journal
ʃ	fishing sure station tension	ə	cupboard the colour actor
	VICIOUS chevron		nation danger asleep
ʒ	pleasure vision rouge	ei	make pray prey steak vein
h	hot whole		gauge
m	sum hammer calm bomb	əʊ	note soap soul grow sew toe
n	sun funny know gnaw	ai	bite pie buy try guide sigh
ŋ	sung sink	aʊ	now spout plough
l	led balloon battle	oi	boy poison lawyer
r	red marry wriggle rhubarb	iə	here beer weir appear fierce
j	yet onion use new Europe	ɛə	there hair bear bare their prayer
w	wet one when queen (/kw/)	ʊə	poor tour sure
x	loch	eiə	player
		əʊə	lower
		aiə	tire
		aʊə	tower
		oiə	employer

from *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*

Symbols and conventions

AmE	American English
BrE	British English
Not **	likely student error
0	zero article
()	optional element
/ /	phonetic transcription
[>]	cross-reference
[> App]	Appendix reference
D	definition of technical terms (used only in the index)
' (as in 'progress)	stress mark

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

subject group	verb group (predicate)
<i>The dog</i>	<i>bit the man</i>
<i>The man</i>	<i>bit the dog</i>

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

1.2 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. *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

subject group		verb group (predicate)		adverbials [usually optional > 7.1]	
subject	verb	object	manner	place	time[>7.19.1 7.22]
<i>I</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>a hat</i>			<i>yesterday</i>
<i>The children</i>	<i>ran</i>			<i>home</i>	
<i>The taxi driver</i>	<i>shouted at</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>angrily</i>		
<i>We</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>our meal</i>	<i>in silence</i>		
<i>The car</i>	<i>stopped</i>		<i>suddenly</i>		
<i>A young girl</i>	<i>walked</i>		<i>confidently</i>	<i>across</i>	
<i>with long</i>				<i>the room</i>	
<i>black hair</i>					

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. *I 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]

	subject	predicate
active	<i>They</i>	<i>drove him away in a police car</i>
passive	<i>He</i>	<i>was driven away in a police car</i>

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

1.6 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**
- -ly adverbs of manner/indefinite time [> 7.16.3, 7.24]
 - The whole building suddenly began to shake**
 - 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**
- 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

subject group	verb group (predicate)
<i>I</i>	<i>ve eaten</i>
<i>One of our aircraft</i>	<i>is missing</i>
<i>The old building opposite our school</i>	<i>is being pulled down</i>

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 **object** [> 1.4] (**direct** or **indirect**), **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* [> 10.23-26], which 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 [> App 1]

	Wh-	question-form	object
<i>I met Jim this morning</i>	<i>Who(m)</i>	<i>did you meet?</i>	Jim
<i>I'm reading a book</i>	<i>What</i>	<i>are you reading?</i>	A book

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

1 The sentence

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 Quick¹ The train's **arrived** It's **arrived** early*

Some intransitive verbs are often followed by an adverb particle (*come in get up run away sit down* etc) or adverbial phrase

- 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 burn 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*

subject	verb	object	(to + noun or pronoun)
<i>Martin</i>	<i>introduced</i>	<i>his guests</i>	<i>to Jane</i>

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 *to* 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***

1 The sentence

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'

subject + verb	+ indirect object	+ direct object
<i>He</i>	<i>showed</i>	<i>me</i>
		<i>the photo</i>
subject + verb	+ direct object	+ to + noun or pronoun
<i>He</i>	<i>showed</i>	<i>the photo</i>
		<i>to me</i>

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

I was shown the photo

The photo was shown to me

Here is a selection of verbs that can be used in this way *bring give grant hand leave* (= bequeath), *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'

subject + verb	+ indirect object	+ direct object
<i>He</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>Jane</i>
		<i>a present</i>
subject + verb	+ direct object	+ for + noun or pronoun
<i>He</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>a present</i>
		<i>for Jane</i>

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

/// 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	
<i>I // tell you the truth soon</i>	
subject + verb + indirect object only	
<i>I // tell you soon</i>	

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

They + appointed + him + chairman

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

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 The sentence

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 I met her husband
*I met Jane **and** 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:

subject	verb	object	conjunction	subject	verb	complement
Jimmy	fell off	his bike,	but	(he)	was	unhurt

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.):

subject <i>Frank</i>	verb <i>worked hard</i>	manner (P1)		+	(subject) <i>and (he)</i>	verb <i>became</i>	complement (P2) <i>an architect</i>
subject <i>I</i>	verb <i>have got</i>	object (P3) <i>a cold</i>		+	subject <i>so I</i>	verb <i>m going</i>	place (P1) <i>to bed</i>
subject <i>They</i>	verb <i>made</i>	object <i>him</i>	complement (P5) <i>chairman</i>	+	(subject) <i>but (they)</i>	verb <i>didn't increase</i>	object (P3) <i>his salary</i>
subject <i>Her birthday</i>	verb <i>is</i>	complement (P2) <i>next Monday</i>		+	subject <i>so I</i>	verb <i>must buy</i>	object object (P4) <i>her a present</i>

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 He 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

1 The sentence

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*
Forgives 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 sink **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** *Holiday resorts **which are very crowded***
- adjectival) clauses** *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*

1 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 *that*-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*
- 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 e.g. 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

singular *This is **the photo which/that** shows my house*

*This is **the cat which/that** caught the mouse*

plural *These are **the photos which/that** show my house*

*These are **the cats which/that** caught the mice*

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

masculine

*He is **the man whose** car was stolen*

feminine

*She is **the woman whose** car was stolen*

plural masculine

*They are **the men whose** cars were stolen*

plural feminine

*They are **the women whose** cars were stolen*

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 I took

*This is **the cat that/which I photographed***

This is the cat I photographed

plural: **These are the photos that/which I took**

These are the photos I took

*These are **the cats that/which I photographed***

These are the cats 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*

The complex sentence relative pronouns and clauses

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

The agency 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

1 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

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 during the time (that) 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 *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*

Adverbial clauses of place normally come *after* the main clause

*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 The sentence

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 order 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

1 The sentence

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 *not 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***

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 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]

	present	perfect	past
active	<i>finding</i>	<i>having found</i>	-
passive	<i>being found</i>	<i>having been found</i>	<i>found</i>

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 [> 1.58, 16.12.1]. Participle constructions are generally more typical of formal style than of informal, though they can easily occur in both.

simple sentences	<i>He walked out of the room. He slammed the door behind him.</i>
compound sentence	<i>He walked out of the room and slammed the door behind him.</i>
participle construction	<i>He walked out of the room slamming the door behind him.</i>
simple sentences	<i>You want to order a vehicle. You have to pay a deposit.</i>
complex sentence	<i>if you want to order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit.</i>
infinitive construction	<i>To order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit.</i>
participle construction	<i>When ordering a vehicle you have to pay a deposit.</i>

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* and *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
(i.e. When/At the moment when I found)
In/While trying to open the can I cut my hand
(i.e. During the time when I was trying)

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
(=/ 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 [$>$ 1.26] deleting *which* + *be*

The system which is used in this school is very successful

The system used in this school is very successful

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. *a 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/, /z/, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/

When the ending is pronounced with no voice, it is a noun, when it is pronounced 'hard', it is a verb. Sometimes this difference is reflected in the spelling

/s/ and /z/ abuse/abuse advice/advice house/house use/use

/f/ and /v/ belief/believe proof/prove shelf/shelve

/θ/, /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* where the pronunciation of the noun is different from that of the verb

I m not a university graduate /grædʒət/ yet

I hope to graduate /grædʒəɪt/ next summer

2.3.3 Nouns and verbs with the same spelling and pronunciation

e.g. *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.

e.g. *a 'cupboard a 'raincoat a 'saucepan the 'seaside a 'typewriter*

2.6 Nouns formed with adjective + noun

e.g. *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' a 'frying pan' a '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' [> 2.11.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 com'puter 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'

Compound nouns

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

Note the many combinations with shop a 'flower shop a 'shoe shop, etc For combinations like 'butchers (shop) [> 2.51.3,20.4]

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 '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)

eg self-'consciousness self-con'trol self den'lal self res'pect

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/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

eg a 'Ford 'car an 'IBM com'puter 'Longman 'Books 'Shell 'Oil a 'North Sea 'oil rig a/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

Countable and uncountable nouns

2.12 Types of nouns

	proper	<i>India</i>	
countable noun			concrete <i>a book</i>
			abstract <i>an idea</i>
	common		concrete <i>clothing</i>
		uncountable	abstract <i>courage</i>

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 [> Apps 24 48] *e g April Monday Easter Christmas*
 Seasons are usually spelt with a small letter but sometimes with a capital *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	<i>a girl a horse a geranium</i>
Objects	<i>a bottle a desk a typewriter</i>
Groups	<i>an army a crowd a herd</i>
Units of measurement	<i>a franc a kilo a litre a metre</i>
Parts of a mass	<i>a bit a packet a piece a slice</i>

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

Materials, liquids, gases	<i>cotton milk air</i>
'Grains' and 'powder'	<i>barley rice dust flour</i>
Activities	<i>camping drinking eating sailing</i>
Languages	<i>Arabic Italian Japanese Turkish</i>

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**.

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

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.

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

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 oi> 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*).

countable ('specific')	uncountable ('general')
<i>A good education</i> is expensive	<i>Education</i> should be free
Try not to make <i>a noise</i>	<i>Noise</i> is a kind of pollution

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.

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

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:

uncountable	equivalent countable
<i>bread</i>	<i>a loaf</i>
<i>clothing</i>	<i>a garment</i>
<i>laughter</i>	<i>a laugh</i>
<i>luggage</i>	<i>a case, a bag</i>
<i>poetry</i>	<i>a poem</i>
<i>money</i>	<i>a coin, a note</i>
<i>work</i> [but > 2.31, 2.33]	<i>a job</i>

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

regular spelling		singular	plural	
-s after most nouns:		<i>cat</i>	<i>cats</i>	
		<i>tub</i>	<i>tubs</i>	
-es after nouns ending in	-o	<i>potato</i>	<i>potatoes</i>	[> 2.25]
	-s:	<i>class</i>	<i>classes</i>	
	-x:	<i>box</i>	<i>boxes</i>	
	-ch:	<i>watch</i>	<i>watches</i>	
	-sh:	<i>bush</i>	<i>bushes</i>	
consonant + -y becomes	-ies:	<i>country</i>	<i>countries</i>	
Note that vowel + , -y adds -s:	-ay:	<i>day</i>	<i>days</i>	
	-ey:	<i>key</i>	<i>keys</i>	
	-oy:	<i>boy</i>	<i>boys</i>	
	-uy:	<i>guy</i>	<i>guys</i>	
Proper nouns ending in -y add -s in the plural:		<i>Fry</i>	<i>the Frys</i>	[> 2.36]
		<i>Kennedy</i>	<i>the Kennedys</i>	
irregular spelling				
Some endings in -f/-fe take	-ves:	<i>wife</i>	<i>wives</i>	[> 2.23]
Internal vowel change		<i>man</i>	<i>men</i>	[> 2.26]
Nouns with plurals in	-en:	<i>ox</i>	<i>oxen</i>	[> 2.26]
No change:		<i>sheep</i>	<i>sheep</i>	[> 2.27]
Foreign plurals, e.g.		<i>analysis</i>	<i>analyses</i>	[> 2.34]

2.21 Pronunciation of nouns with regular plurals

The rules for pronunciation are the same as those for the 3rd person

/s/ after simple present of regular verbs [> 9.7].

/f/ *chiefs, coughs, proofs* [> 2.23]

/k/ *cakes, forks, knocks*

/p/ *drops, taps, tapes*

/t/ *pets, pockets, skirts*

/z/ after /θ/ *depths, months, myths* [> 2.22]

/b/ *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/:

/z/ *mazes, noises,* /ʃ/ *bushes, crashes, dishes*

noses

/tʃ/ *matches, patches, speeches*

/dʒ/ *bridges, oranges,* /ks/ *axes, boxes, taxes*

pages

/s/ *buses, 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 /haʊzɪz/

2.23 Nouns with irregular pronunciation and spelling

The following thirteen nouns with spellings ending in -for -fe (pronounced /f/) 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*

After the following, the plural is normally formed with the addition of but s also occurs

- **years** *the 1890s or 1890s the 1980s or 1980s*
- **abbreviations** *VIPs or VIP s (Very Important Persons) MPs or MPs (Members of Parliament) Note the final s 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 os

- nouns ending in vowel + -o or *double o* *bamboos folios kangaroos 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/lice 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 /man/

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 (*tenpence*)

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*

*This **sheep is** from Australia These **sheep are** from Australia*

- *craft* and *aircraft/hovercraft/spacecraft*

*The **craft was** sunk All the **craft were** sunk*

(But compare **Arts and crafts are** part of the curriculum)

- certain nouns describing nationalities e g a *Chinese a Swiss a Vietnamese* [> App 49]

*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*

2.28.2 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:

barracks, bellows, crossroads, gallows gasworks headquarters kennels, series, species and works (= factory).

- 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, looks* (= 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 **Sometimes 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/indices/indexes appendix/appendices/appendixes*
-um: *medium/media/mediums, -on: automaton/automata/automa'*
-eu/-eau: *adieu/adieux/adieus, plateau/plateaus/plateaux (lzl)*.
 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. and in gerund + noun combinations: *frying pans*
- 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 Januarys** 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:	<i>man, actor.</i>	<i>he</i>
	<i>woman, actress-</i>	<i>she</i>
	<i>guest, student, teacher-</i>	<i>he or she</i>
animals:	<i>bull, cow</i>	<i>it</i>
things:	<i>chair, table.</i>	<i>it</i>

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

2 Nouns

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/ewe 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/heirress 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:

bndegroom/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:

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]:

Students who want more information should apply in writing

The genitive

2.42 Form of the genitive

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

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:

2.44.1 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

2.44.2 '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 /i:z/. 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), ors' when the reference

is plural: *MPs salaries* [> 2.24].

2.45 The pronunciation of s and s'

The pronunciation of s ands depends on the sound that precedes

them and follows the same rules as for plural nouns [> 2.21]: e.g.

/s/: *Geoff's hat* *Jacks'ob* *a month's salary*. *Pats' handbag*

/z/. *Ben's opinion* *Bill's place* *Bob's house* *the workers' club*

/i:z/: *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

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's 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 ant's nest, a bee's 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/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 salary, today's TV, a year's absence, a week or two's time, two days' journey*
'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 dentist's, 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 fathers, 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:** *I 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]: *I 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]: *I 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).

3 Articles

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 [> 2.14] 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:

<i>a/an</i> is used only in front of a singular countable:	a singular countable:	<i>a hat</i>
<i>the</i> can be used in front of	a plural countable:	<i>the hats</i>
	an uncountable:	<i>the water</i>
<i>zero</i> : we often use no article in front of	a plural countable:	<i>hats</i>
	an uncountable:	<i>water</i>

Putting it in another way, we can use:

<i>a/an</i> or <i>the</i> +	singular countable:	<i>a hat - the hat</i>
<i>the</i> or <i>zero</i> +	plural countable:	<i>the hats - hats</i>
<i>the</i> or <i>zero</i> +	uncountable:	<i>the water - water</i>

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'

a/an and *zero* for classification/identification [> 3.9]

singular	plural	singular	plural
<i>a book</i>	<i>books</i>	<i>It's a book</i>	<i>They're books</i>
<i>an egg</i>	<i>eggs</i>	<i>It's an egg</i>	<i>They're eggs</i>

a/an and *some* referring to quantity [> 3.10]

<i>a book</i>	<i>some books</i>	<i>I've got a book</i>	<i>I've got some books</i>
<i>an egg</i>	<i>some eggs</i>	<i>I've got an egg</i>	<i>I've got some eggs</i>

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)

The plural of this is:

They're books (*zero* + plural noun)

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

I've got a book (*a/an* + singular 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* /ən/ 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*

Some common abbreviations (depending on their first letter) are preceded by *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 *I 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 // 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 **an/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
 singular:

<i>(he) man</i>	<i>He's</i>	<i>the man</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>
<i>the woman</i>	<i>She's</i>	<i>the woman</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>
<i>the book</i>	<i>That's</i>	<i>the book</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>

plural:

<i>the men</i>	<i>They're</i>	<i>the men</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>
<i>the women</i>	<i>They're</i>	<i>the women</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>
<i>the books</i>	<i>They're</i>	<i>the books</i>	<i>I was telling you about</i>

3.17 The pronunciation of 'the'

The is pronounced /ðə/ 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.*

Some common abbreviations are preceded by *the*, pronounced : /ðə/ *the BBC* (the British Broadcasting Corporation) or /ði/ *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* are 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

The definite article, 'the'

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 *Wke 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*

Compare items with zero: *Congress, Parliament*

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, Muhammed, etc.* (proper nouns)
[> 2.13, 3.27],

Climate, etc.: *the climate, the temperature, the weather*

Species: *the dinosaurs, the human race, the reptiles*

(Compare: *Man developed earlier than people think*)

3.23 Other references with 'the'

Examples of items with *the*:

- with superlatives [> 6.28]: *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* [> 6.27.3]: *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

plural countables.	0Girls do better than 0 boys at school Some people want 0 chips with everything
uncountables (always singular):	0Butter makes you fat 0 Honesty is the best policy
proper nouns:	0 John lives in 0 London

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:

Organizations: *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization).

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 [> 2.13]: e.g. *John*.

The can occur in front of plural countables and (singular) uncountables in normal use to refer to specific items [> 3.20]:

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 [> 3.20.3]:

The Chicago of the 1920s was a terrifying place.

Compare: **Chicago** is a well-run city today

For *a/an* + uncountable [> 2.16.3].

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.

3.26 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.
Surnames: *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 /mɒz/,* 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**.*

- 3.27.3 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 *tor 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 Bntt 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 definitions: *filling material used to fill cavity in tooth* (= filling: a 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.

	zero	the
Continents:	<i>Africa, Asia, Europe</i>	-
Geographical areas:	<i>Central Asia Inner London, Lower Egypt, Outer Mongolia Upper Austria</i>	<i>the Arctic, the Balkans, the Equator, the Middle East the North Pole, the West</i>
Historical references.	<i>Ancient Greece, Medieval Europe, pre- war/post-war Germany, Roman Britain</i>	<i>the Dark Ages, the Renaissance, the Stone Age</i>
Lakes	<i>Lake Constance, Lake Erie, Lake Geneva</i>	
Oceans/seas/ivers.	-	<i>the Pacific (Ocean), the Caspian (Sea), the Nile (or the River Nile), the Mississippi (or the Mississippi River), the Suez Canal</i>
Mountains:	<i>Everest Mont Blanc</i>	<i>the Jungfrau, the Matterhorn</i>
Mountain ranges:	-	<i>the Alps, the Himalayas</i>
Islands	<i>Christmas Island, Delos, Easter Island</i>	<i>the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</i>
Groups of islands.	-	<i>the Azores, the Bahamas</i>
Deserts.	-	<i>the Gobi (Desert) the Kalahari (Desert), the Sahara (Desert)</i>

The zero article

Countries:	zero Most countries. <i>Finland, Germany Turkey, etc.</i>	the Unions and associations. <i>the ARE (the Arab Republic of Egypt), the UK (the United Kingdom), the USA (the United States of America) the USSR (the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)</i> A few countries: <i>the Argentine (or Argentina), the Netherlands, the Philippines, (the) Sudan, (the) Yemen</i>
States/counties.	Most states/counties: <i>Bavaria, Ohio, Surrey</i>	<i>the Vatican</i>
Cities:	Most cities:	<i>the City (of London), The</i>
<i>Denver, London, Lyons</i>	<i>Hague</i>	
Universities.	<i>Cambridge University</i>	<i>the University of Cambridge</i>
Streets, etc :	Most streets: <i>London Road, Madison Avenue, Oxford Street, Piccadilly Circus</i>	<i>the High Street, the Strand, The Drive</i> Note: <i>the London road (= the road that leads to London)</i>
Parks:	<i>Central Park, Hyde Park</i>	-
Addresses.	<i>49 Albert Place, 3 West Street, 2 Gordon Square</i>	<i>25 The Drive, 74 The Crescent</i>
Buildings.	<i>Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey</i>	<i>the British Museum, the Library of Congress</i>
Other locations'	<i>The is sometimes part of the title, sometimes not:</i>	
Bridges	<i>London Bridge</i>	<i>The Golden Gate Bridge</i>
Cinemas	-	<i>The Gaumont The Odeon</i>
Hospitals	<i>Guy's (Hospital)</i>	<i>The London Hospital</i>
Hotels	<i>Brown's Hotel</i>	<i>The Hilton (Hotel)</i>
'Places'	<i>Death Valley Heaven, Hades</i>	<i>The Everglades The Underworld</i>
Pubs	-	<i>The White Horse</i>
Restaurants	<i>Leoni's (Restaurant)</i>	<i>The Cafe Royal</i>
Shops	<i>Selfdges Marks and Spencers</i>	<i>The Scotch House</i>
Stations	<i>Victoria (Station) Waterloo (Station)</i>	
Theatres	<i>Her Majesty's (Theatre) Sadler's Wells (Theatre)</i>	<i>The Phoenix (Theatre) The Coliseum (Theatre)</i>

4 Pronouns

General information about pronouns, possessives and determiners

4.1 Form of personal/reflexive pronouns and possessives

	personal pronouns:		possessives:		reflexive
	subject	object	adjectives	pronouns	pronouns
singular:	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>	<i>myself</i>
	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>yourself</i>
	<i>he</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>himself</i>
	<i>she</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>hers</i>	<i>herself</i>
	<i>it</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>its</i>	-	<i>itself</i>
	<i>one</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>(one's)</i>	-	<i>oneself</i>
plural:	<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>ourselves</i>
	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>yourselves</i>
	<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>themselves</i>

- 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 some* (*some* on its own, functioning as **pronoun**)
- I want this book* (*this* + noun, functioning as **determiner**)
- I want this* (*this* on its own, functioning as **pronoun**)

Personal pronouns

4.3 Form of personal pronouns

subject	[> 1.4]:	<i>I</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>they</i>
object	[> 1.9]:	<i>me</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>them</i>

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 *I* when referring to himself or herself. This is the only personal pronoun which is always spelt with a capital letter.

4 Pronouns

Note that *I* 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

In polite usage it is usual to avoid mentioning yourself first

Jane and I have already eaten (in preference to *I and Jane*)

4.5.2 The second person singular and plural: 'you'

We use this when we address another person, or two or more people

Are **you** ready **Jill**? Or Are **you** (both/all) ready?

Fox you in the sense of 'anyone in general' [> 4.9]

4.5.3 The third person singular masculine: 'he' [compare > 4.8]

He stands for a male person who has already been mentioned

Don't expect David to accept your invitation He's far too busy

He is used in certain proverbial expressions to mean 'anyone'

He who hesitates is lost

4.5.4 The third person singular feminine: 'she' [compare > 4.8]

She stands for a female person who has already been mentioned

Ask **Jennifer** if **she**'ll be home in time for dinner

4.5.5 The third person singular neuter: 'it' [compare > 4.8]

It can refer to a thing, a quality, an event, a place, etc

That vase is valuable It's more than 200 years old

Loyalty must be earned *It can't be bought*

I love swimming It keeps me fit

Last night I ran out of petrol It really taught me a lesson

You should visit Bath It's not far from Bristol

We can use *it* to identify people

There's a knock at the door Who is it? -It's the postman

Who's that? -It's our new next-door neighbour Mrs Smith

Compare this request for information (not identification)

Who's Mrs Smith? - She's our new next-door neighbour

We also use *it* when we don't know the sex of a baby or child

It's a lovely baby Is it a boy or a girl?

We refer to an animal as *it* when the sex is not known or not worth identifying

I'm fed up with that dog of yours It never stops barking

4.5.6 The first person plural: 'we' (two or more people)

We can include the listener or not

Let's go shall we? (including the listener)

We're staying here What about you? (not including the listener)

We is often used to mean 'anyone/everyone', e.g. in newspapers

We should applaud the government's efforts to create more jobs

We is used in the same way in general statements

We all fear the unknown

4.5.7 The third person plural: 'they' (two or more people, things, etc.)

They can stand for persons, animals or things already mentioned

John and Susan phoned **They** are coming round this evening

Look at those **cows!** **They** never stop eating

Our curtains look dirty **They** need a good wash

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 (*I 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*)

4.7.3 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].

'One'

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 and **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*

'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.*
It's time... [> 11.43]: **It's time** (for us) to leave
 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 awful¹ Isn't it a shame¹*
 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 pleasant 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.

It as a preparatory subject often combines with:

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:

'It'

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*

+ f/iaf-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?*⁹

- 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?*⁹

Sorry, I haven't got any (to spare).

*Have you got any drawing-pins? Can I borrow some please?*⁹

- *I'm afraid I haven't got any (to spare)*

4.17 'So', not 'it' with certain verbs [compare > 1.23.5]

After verbs such as *believe, expect, fear, guess* (especially AmE- / *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]

- 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 milky*) *the jacket of this book* (= *its jacket*).

My, *your* and *their* refer to possession by males or females:

My house is there, ' ***Sally/John***, ' ***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 Pnngle 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

singular: *myself yourself himself, herself, itself, oneself*

plural: *ourselves yourselves themselves*

Reflexive pronouns are really compounds formed from possessive adjectives + *-self*; e.g. *myself yourse*"; 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:

*I **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 home¹, 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:
I think this new magazine is aimed at people like us/ourselves
Who's prepared to work overtime besides me/myself⁹

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

'Near' references matching *here*:

singular *this* *boy* *girl* *tree* *book* *money*

plural: *these* *boys* *girls* *trees* *books*

'Distant' references matching *there*:

singular: *that* *boy* *girl* *tree* *book* *money*

plural: *those* *boys* *girls* *trees* *books*

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*

<i>some-</i>	<i>any-</i>	<i>no-</i>	<i>every-</i>
<i>someone</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>everyone</i>
<i>somebody</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>everybody</i>
<i>something</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>everything</i>

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:
te 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...)

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 rain 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's **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 no none of the the other part of the plenty of the rest of the
There aren't any cars on the road at the moment
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 any [> 5.10] and *zero* [> 3.24, 3.28.8] 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

plural countable nouns	uncountable nouns
Approximately how many	Approximately how much
<i>There are too many eggs</i>	<i>There is too much milk</i>
plenty of eggs	plenty of milk
a lot of/lots of eggs	a lot of/lots of milk
(not) enough eggs	(not) enough milk
a few eggs	a little milk
very few eggs	very little milk
not many eggs	not much milk
hardly any eggs	hardly any milk
no eggs	no milk

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 *people/books* (plural countable)

the majority a minority of

a number of

5 Quantity

a large small amount of *cheese* (uncountable)
a bit of

a lot of
lots 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 and
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
We 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!***

Particular quantifiers and their uses

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 e.g. (a *one half*) (*a/one quarter* or *one fourth* AmE) and (a *one third*) Otherwise we make use of cardinal and

5 Quantity

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's **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

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 *not*

*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's 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

It can also combine with *dozen hundred, thousand, million* etc

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* [> 5.13] or other quantifiers, such as:

- *a great deal of* or *a great amount of* + **uncountable noun**:
A great deal of/A great amount of money is spent on research
- *a large number of* or *a great number of* + **plural countable noun**:
A large number of/A great 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 had 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.

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| <i>just</i> | <i>How many do you want? Just a few please</i>
(i.e. a limited number, not many) |
| <i>only</i> | <i>There are only a few seats left</i>
(i.e. very few, hardly any) |
| <i>quite</i> | <i>How many do you want? Quite a few please</i>
(i.e. quite a lot) |

a good dozen 100 1000 *We had a **good few** letters this morning (i.e. quite a lot)*
*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 tittle'

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':

*We climbed all day but made **little progress***

Little occurs in idiomatic 'negative' phrases such as *little point little sense, little use*, etc.:

*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, 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** as it is*

*I can't give you any stamps I have **few enough** as it is*

(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

<i>Both books are expensive</i>	<i>All books are expensive</i>	
<i>Both the my these books are expensive</i>	<i>All the my these books are expensive</i>	<i>Half the my, these eggs are bad</i>
<i>Both of the/my these books are expensive</i>	<i>All of the/my these books are expensive</i>	<i>Half of the/my these eggs are bad</i>

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*

- 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

<i>All bread gets stale quickly</i>	-
<i>All the bread was stale</i>	<i>Half the bread was stale</i>
<i>All of the bread was stale</i>	<i>Half of the bread was stale</i>

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

<i>All the country was against it</i>	<i>Half the country was against it</i>
<i>All of the country was against it</i>	<i>Half of the country was against it</i>

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*

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
The whole is not normally used with plurals and uncountables¹

*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):

*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*:

*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

***All forests** in North Africa were destroyed during Roman times*
(= every single one of them)

***Whole forests** in North Africa were destroyed during Roman times*
(= entire areas of forest)

5.23 'All' compared with 'every'

All refers to a collection of things seen as one, or to an amount-

*I've read **all these books**. (= this whole collection)*

*She's used **all the butter** (= the whole amount)*

Every emphasizes single units within a group and is used only with singular countables:

*I've read **every book** in the library (= 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.:

*I work **every other day** Monday Wednesday and Friday*

All and *every* are not normally interchangeable in time references¹

*Monica spent **all day** with us (= one whole day)*

*Monica spent **every day** with us while she was here on holiday*
(all the days of her holiday, thought of separately)

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 or her 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 is 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*

The other + *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:

*/// take these shirts but leave **the other(s)***

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**?*

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* after *another any 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*

***Each one 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*)

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-playing record** 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 lipped vacuum sealed airtight**

Many compounds can be formed with **well** and **badly** - **behaved built -done -paid** etc Similarly **///** 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

singular:

a tall man	Bob is tall	He is tall	He is a tall man
a tall woman	Maggie is tall	She is tall	She is a tall woman
a tall horse	That horse is tall	It is tall	It is a tall horse
a tall tree	That tree is tall	It is tall	It is a tall tree

plural:

tall men	Bob and Jim are tall	They are tall	They are tall men
tall women	Mary and Ann are tall	They are tall	They are tall women
tall people	Bob and Ann are tall	They are tall	They are tall people
tall horses	Those horses are tall	They are tall	They are tall horses
tall trees	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/wmdy*
- 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 He feels faint

How are you? - I'm very well thank you I'm fine thanks

Fine relating to health is predicative; used attributively it means 'excellent' (e.g. *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*. *alight* *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

6 Adjectives

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*

*What you say **is** **sheer/utter nonsense***

(*Very* itself is used as an adjective in fixed expressions like *the very end*, *the very limit*, *the very thing I want/need*)

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 gracious¹, 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* or *an*)

6 Adjectives

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/reds* 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's 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 *stony silence*

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, 6.3.1, 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* *pleased/pleasing* *tired/tiring* Similar pairs *delighted/delightful* *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? - It's 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:

adjectives: usual order					noun
quality	size/age/shape	colour	origin	past participle	
<i>beautiful</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>brown</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>handmade</i>	<i>cupboard</i>
					<i>kitchen cupboard</i>
					<i>teak cupboard</i>

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:

Types of adjectives and their uses

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*
Compound nouns 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*

6 Adjectives

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 **gradable** [> 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.

	adjective	comparative	superlative
1	<i>clean</i>	<i>cleaner</i>	<i>cleanest</i>
2	<i>big</i>	<i>bigger</i>	<i>biggest</i>
3	<i>nice</i>	<i>nicer</i>	<i>nicest</i>
4	<i>tidy</i>	<i>tidier</i>	<i>tidiest</i>
5	<i>narrow</i> [> 6.26n 1]	<i>narrower</i>	<i>narrowest</i>

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. /nais^əst/. 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, /g/* is pronounced /ŋ/ after e.g. *younger longer strongest*. In other words containing *ng /g/* is not pronounced: e.g. *singer* /sɪŋə/

6.24 Some irregular comparative and superlative forms

adjective	comparative	superlative
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i> <i>further</i>	<i>farthest</i> [> 7.5n.4] <i>furthest</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>older</i> <i>elder</i>	<i>oldest</i> [> App 12.3-4] <i>eldest</i>
quantifier [> 5.13]	comparative	superlative
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>many</i>		
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>

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*).

adjective	comparative	superlative
1 <i>pleasant</i>	<i>pleasanter</i> <i>more pleasant</i> <i>less pleasant</i>	<i>pleasantest</i> <i>most pleasant</i> <i>least pleasant</i>
2 <i>careful</i>	<i>more careful</i> <i>less careful</i>	<i>most careful</i> <i>least careful</i>
<i>expensive</i>	<i>more expensive</i> <i>less expensive</i>	<i>most expensive</i> <i>least expensive</i>
3 <i>bored/bonng</i>	<i>more bored/boring</i> <i>less bored/bonng</i>	<i>most bored/boring</i> <i>least bored, bonng</i>

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 unhappier 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)certain (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

A scheduled flight is more expensive than a charter flight

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/far/a lot/a little colder today than it was yesterday

Houses are much/far/a 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

6.28 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(f) far the most expensive** bicycle in the shop*

*This is **much the worst** stretch of motorway in the country*

Note the position of *very* after *the* [> 7.51.1]:

*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/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** [> 8.29] 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:

	adverb	comparative	superlative
1 Same form as adjective:	<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>fastest</i>
2 <i>-ly</i> adverbs of manner:	<i>easily</i>	<i>more easily</i>	<i>most easily</i>
3 Some adverbs of frequency,	<i>rarely</i>	<i>more rarely</i>	<i>most rarely</i>
4 Exceptions:	<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
	<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>
		<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i>
	<i>late</i>	<i>later</i>	<i>last</i>
	<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
	<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
	<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>

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)*

*She can't jump (quite) **so high as** Billy (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'

	adjective	adverb
1 Add <i>-ly</i> to an adjective	<i>bad</i>	<i>badly</i>
	<i>careful</i>	<i>carefully</i>
2 <i>-y</i> becomes <i>-ily</i> : consonant + <i>y</i>	<i>happy</i>	<i>happily</i>
Compare: vowel + <i>y</i> :	{ <i>day</i> - noun}	<i>daily</i>
3 Delete <i>-e</i> and add <i>-ly</i> for endings in <i>-le</i> :	<i>noble</i>	<i>nobly</i>
4 Adjectives ending in <i>-ic</i> take <i>-ally</i> .	<i>fantastic</i>	<i>fantastically</i>

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 *-l* so that the *l* is doubled: *beautiful/beautifully, musical/musically*. But note: *full/fully*
- 2 *-y* after a consonant becomes *-ily*. e.g. *busy/busily, funny/funnily*. Sometimes two formations are possible, e.g. *dry/driely/dryly*, but in e.g. *sly/slyly*, *-yly* is the acceptable form
- 3 Delete *-e* and add *-(l)y* 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)¹ (*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

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*

adjective *Susan is a **friendly** girl*

adverb *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*

- after an adverb particle *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 down up 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])

	manner	place	time
<i>Barbara read</i>	<i>quietly</i>	<i>in the library</i>	<i>all afternoon</i>

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 | in a village | outside Reading | 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*

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** I'll tell you I'll 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 **yet***, 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 come into force **yet***

In negatives, *yet* can come before the main verb:

*The new petrol prices haven't **yet** come into force*

Yet is often used after *not* in short negative answers:

*Has the concert finished? - No **not yet***

Before an infinitive, *yet* has almost the same meaning as *still*:

*Who'll be appointed? - It's **yet/still** to be decided*

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 this⁹ - 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 when⁹* 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:

*I 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:

*I 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'll have left by Monday (= any time before and not later than)
I won't have left by Monday (= I'll 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:

If 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*, *hardly*, *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, perfect(ly) unique(ly)*) and '**strong**' gradable words (*amazing(ly), astounding(ly)*), *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!* + a negative word: *He's not at all stupid* [compare > 5.8]

7.42.1 'Quite a/an', 'quite some' and 'quite the'

Quite a/an + 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 a 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*

7.46 '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' [compare > 5.17]

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 and 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 11

Intensifiers

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

can very much better/faster. Nor can it go before many predicative adjectives like *alone* [$>$ 6.8.2] except with *much*

Since her husband's 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.g. *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

Much, with or without *very* or *so* can be used in mid-position

Byron is very much/so much/much admired in Greece

very much and *so much* (but never *much* on its own) can also go in the 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 + adjective + 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

7 Adverbs

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 7 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 mistaken horribly injured perfectly planned*, etc.).

In the passive *-ly* 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 needed deeply suspicious highly respected*. **More combinations are possible** with adverbs like *deeply* and *utterly* than with e.g. *sharply*.

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].

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:

Inversion after adverbs

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 (offer) *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 be'hind 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/by/in 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 *I* 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

- 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/floor/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

movement		position (lack of movement)	
	<i>above</i>		<i>above</i>
	<i>across</i>		<i>across</i>
	<i>along</i>		<i>along</i>
We drove	<i>behind</i>	+ object.	We were
	<i>beside</i>		live
	<i>between</i>		work
	<i>near, etc.</i>		<i>behind</i>
			<i>beside</i>
			<i>between</i>
			<i>near, etc.</i>

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):

direction to or from	destination after movement
<i>The Grand Hotel</i>	<i>The Grand Hole'</i>
<i>Jim has gone to school</i>	<i>and now he's at school</i>
<i>(has come from) London Airport</i>	<i>London Airport</i>
<i>my brother's</i>	<i>my brother's</i>

To and *at* combine with a variety of nouns [> App 21].

8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

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):

direction to or from		destination after movement	
	<i>the country</i>		<i>the country</i>
<i>Jim has gone to</i>	<i>Paris</i>	<i>and now he's in</i>	<i>Paris</i>
	<i>bed</i>		<i>bed</i>

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.

direction to or from		destination after movement	
	<i>the restaurant</i>		<i>in the restaurant</i>
<i>Jim has gone to</i>	<i>the hotel</i>	<i>and now he's at</i>	<i>the hotel</i>
	<i>the bank</i>		<i>the bank</i>

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:

direction on(to)		destination after movement	
	<i>the table</i>		<i>on the table</i>
<i>I put the pen on(to)</i>	<i>the table</i>	<i>and now it is on</i>	<i>the table</i>

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:

direction in(to)		destination after movement	
	<i>my pocket</i>		<i>in my pocket</i>
<i>I have put the coin in(to)</i>	<i>my pocket</i>	<i>and now it is in</i>	<i>my pocket</i>

Time

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:

direction out of

We ran out of the building

destination after movement

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*, *around*, *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*

8.12 Time phrases with 'on'

Days of the week: *on Monday on Fridays* [> App 24.1]
Parts of the day: *on Monday morning, on Friday evening*
Dates: *on June 1st on 21st March* [> App 47.4.2]
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' (= some time during [compare > 7.35])

Parts of the day: *in the evening in the morning*
Months: *in March, in September* [> App 24.2]
Years: *in 1900 in 1984 in 1998* [> App 47.4.1]
Seasons: *in (the) spring, in (the) winter* [> App 24.2]
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*

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 is 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].

adjective	noun
<i>embarrassed about/at/by</i>	<i>embarrassment about/at</i>
<i>keen on</i>	<i>keenness on</i>
<i>successful in</i>	<i>success in</i>
verb	noun
<i>emerge from</i>	<i>emergence from</i>
<i>object to</i>	<i>objection to</i>

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

8 Prepositions adverb particles and phrasal verbs

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 square*

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**?* [> 13.31n 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. So, 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. So, 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 go 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

8 Prepositions adverb particles and phrasal verbs

- 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
I 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

He 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 not step on that carpet (literal)

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)

Verb + preposition/particle

- 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

8 Prepositions adverb particles and phrasal verbs

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** milk¹*
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 I'll **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)*

Verb + preposition/particle

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 eg *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. someone who *stands in for* someone is a *stand-in-*

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:

	simple	progressive	
present:	<i>' work</i>	<i>I am</i>	<i>working</i>
past:	<i>' worked</i>	<i>I was</i>	<i>working</i>
present perfect:	<i>I have worked</i>	<i>I have been</i>	<i>working</i>
past perfect:	<i>I had worked</i>	<i>I had been</i>	<i>working</i>
future:	<i>I will work</i>	<i>I will be</i>	<i>working</i>
future perfect:	<i>I will have worked</i>	<i>I will have been</i>	<i>working</i>

Simple forms and progressive combinations can also occur with:

conditionals [> Chapter 14]:	<i>I would work</i>	<i>I would be</i>	<i>working</i>
modals [> Chapter 11]:	<i>I may work</i>	<i>I may be</i>	<i>working</i>

Both simple and progressive forms usually give a general idea of when an action takes place. But the progressive forms also tell us that

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:

progressive forms	simple forms
1 Dynamic verbs with progressive and simple forms: <i>I'm looking at you</i> <i>I'm listening to music</i>	<i>I often look at you</i> <i>I often listen to music</i>
2 Verbs which are nearly always stative (simple forms only):	<i>I see you</i> <i>I hear music</i> [> 11.13]
3 Verbs that have dynamic or stative uses: deliberate actions <i>I'm weighing myself</i> <i>I'm tasting the soup</i> <i>I'm feeling the radiator</i>	states <i>I weigh 65 kilos</i> <i>It tastes salty</i> <i>It feels hot</i>

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>I</i>	<i>work</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>work</i>	
<i>He</i>	<i>works</i>	
<i>She</i>	<i>works</i>	<i>in an office</i>
<i>It</i>	<i>works</i>	
<i>We</i>	<i>work</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>work</i>	
<i>They</i>	<i>work</i>	

9.7 The third person singular: pronunciation and spelling

9.7.1 Pronunciation of the 3rd person singular [compare > 2.21]

/s/ after */f/, /p/, /k/, /t/* - *laughs puffs drops kicks lets*

Verbs ending in */z/, /dʒ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/* and */ks/* take an extra syllable in the third person which is pronounced */ɪz/* - *loses manages passes pushes stitches mixes*

Other verbs are pronounced with a */z/* in the third person after */b/* - *robs* after */d/* - *adds* after */g/* - *digs* after */l/* - *fills* after */m/* - *dreams* after */n/* - *runs* after */r/* - *rings* after vowel + *w* or *r* - *draws* *st* *rs* after */v/* - *loves* after vowels - *sees pays* *Says* is normally pronounced */sez/* and *does* is pronounced */dʌz/*

9.7.2 Spelling of the 3rd person singular [compare > 2.20]

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*⁷

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 /ust 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

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 [[> 10.6](#)]

I am		I'm	
You are	waiting	You're	waiting
He is	writing	He's	writing
She is	running	She's	running
It is	beginning	It's	beginning
We are	lying	We're	lying
You are		You're	
They are		They're	

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: *for'get/forgetting, pre'fer/prefering, up'set/upsetting* **Compare:** *'benefit/benefiting, 'differ/differing and 'profit/profitting which are stressed on their first syllables and do not double their final consonants. Note 'label/labelling 'quarrel/quarrelling, 'signal/signalling and 'travel/travelling (BrE) which are exceptions to this rule. Compare: *labeling, quarrelling, signaling, traveling (AmE) [compare > 9.14.2]. -ic 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].

	pronunciation		spelling
I			
He	<i>played</i>	<i>/d l/</i>	<i>arrive/arrived</i>
She	<i>arrived</i>	<i>/d l/</i>	<i>wait/waited</i>
	<i>worked</i>	<i>/t l/</i>	<i>stop/stopped</i>
	<i>dreamed/dreamt</i>	<i>/dri:md/or/dremt/</i>	<i>occur/occurred</i>
	<i>posted</i>	<i>/id/</i>	<i>cry/cried</i>
You			
They			

The simple past tense

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 / d /

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*: / nokt/, *stayed*: /steɪd/, etc.

arrive/arrived / d /

Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /d/: /b/ *rubbed*; /g/ *tugged*; /dʒ/ *managed*; /l/ *filled*; /m/ *dimmed*; /n/ *listened*; vowel + /r/ *stirred*; /v/ *loved*; /z/ *seized*. The *-ed* ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

work/worked / t /

Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /t/: /k/ *packed*; /s/ *passed*; /tʃ/ *watched*; /ʃ/ *washed*; /f/ *laughed*; /p/ *tipped*. The *-ed* ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

dream/dreamed /d/ or **dreamt** /t/

A few verbs function as both regular and irregular and may have their past forms spelt *-ed* or *-t* pronounced /d/ or /t/: e.g. *burn, dream, lean, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil* [> App 40].

post/posted / d /

Verbs which end in the sounds /t/ or /d/ have their past endings pronounced /ɪd/: *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: *pre'fer/preferred, re'fer/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 i 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]

I
You
He
She *shut* *the suitcase*
It *sat on*
We
You
They

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/left 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.

<i>I</i>	<i>was</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>were</i>	
<i>He</i>	<i>was</i>	
<i>She</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>waiting</i> [For spelling, > 9.10]
<i>It</i>	<i>was</i>	
<i>We</i>	<i>were</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>were</i>	
<i>They</i>	<i>were</i>	

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.

Often we don't know whether the action was completed or not:

Philippa was working on her essay last night

Adverbials beginning with *all* [> 5.22.2, 7.36] emphasize continuity:

It was raining all night/all yesterday/all the afternoon

In the same way, *still* can emphasize duration [> 7.25]:

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:

I 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*.

<i>I</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>(I've)</i>			
<i>You</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>(You've)</i>	<i>arrived</i>	<i>/d/</i>	(regular)
<i>He</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>(He's)</i>	<i>finished</i>	<i>/t/</i>	(regular)
<i>She</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>(She's)</i>	<i>started</i>	<i>/ɪd/</i>	(regular)
<i>It</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>(It's)</i>	<i>shut</i>		(irregular)
<i>We</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>(We've)</i>	<i>lost</i>		(irregular)
<i>You</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>(You've)</i>	<i>drunk</i>		(irregular)
<i>They</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>(They've)</i>			

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

<i>I</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(I'd)</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(You'd)</i>	<i>arrived</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(He'd)</i>	<i>finished</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(She'd)</i>	<i>started</i> [> 9.22]
<i>It</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(It'd)</i>	<i>shut</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(We'd)</i>	<i>lost</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(You'd)</i>	<i>drunk</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>(They'd)</i>	

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*

***I 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].

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

present perfect progressive		past perfect progressive	
<i>I</i>	<i>have (I've)</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>had (I'd)</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>have (You've)</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>had (You'd)</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>has (He's)</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>had (He'd)</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>has (She's)</i>	<i>She had</i>	<i>(She'd) been waiting</i>
<i>It</i>	<i>has (It's)</i>	<i>It</i>	<i>had (It'd)</i> [For spelling
<i>We</i>	<i>have (We've)</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>had (We'd)</i> > 9.10
<i>You</i>	<i>have (You've)</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>had (You'd)</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>have (They've)</i>	<i>They</i>	<i>had (They'd) i</i>

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.

9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

b *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

The simple future is formed with <i>will</i> [but > 9.36] and the base form of the verb				
affirmative	short form	negative	short forms	
<i>I will</i>	<i>I'll</i>	<i>I will not</i>	<i>I'll not</i>	<i>I won't</i>
<i>You will</i>	<i>You'll</i>	<i>You will not</i>	<i>You'll not</i>	<i>You won't</i>
<i>He will</i>	<i>He'll</i>	<i>He will not</i>	<i>He'll not</i>	<i>He won't</i>
<i>She will</i>	<i>She'll</i>	<i>She will not</i>	<i>She'll not</i>	<i>She won't</i>
<i>It will</i>	<i>It'll</i>	<i>It will not</i>	<i>It'll not</i>	<i>It won't</i>
<i>We will</i>	<i>We'll</i>	<i>We will not</i>	<i>We'll not</i>	<i>We won't</i>
<i>You will</i>	<i>You'll</i>	<i>You will not</i>	<i>You'll not</i>	<i>You won't</i>
<i>They will</i>	<i>They'll</i>	<i>They will not</i>	<i>They'll not</i>	<i>They won't</i>

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 / *Ja*/ in speech, but does not contract to *'ll* in writing. *Will* contracts to *'ll* in writing and in fluent, rapid speech after vowels (*ll*, *we'll*, *you'll*, etc.) but *7l* 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'll start in a minute*
- after question-words: *When'll they arrive?*

3 Negatives

Will not contracts to *ll 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 year⁷*

*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 grammarians 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.

The future progressive tense

9.40 Form of the future progressive tense

The future progressive is formed with *will/shall + be + the -ing form*:

<i>I</i>	<i>will/shall</i>	<i>(I'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	
<i>You</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(You'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	
<i>He</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(He'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	
<i>She</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(She'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	
<i>It</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(It'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>expecting you/me</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>will/shall</i>	<i>(We'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	[For spelling, > 9.10]
<i>You</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(You'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	
<i>They</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>(They'll)</i>	<i>be</i>	

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 White⁹ (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/progressive

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

future perfect simple		future perfect progressive	
I	will/shall have	will/shall	have been
You	will have	will	have been
He	will have	will	have been
She	will have received it	will	have been living here for 20 years
It	will have by then	will	have been by the end of the year
We	will/shall have	will/shall	have been
You	will have	will	have been
They	will have	will	have been

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:

I will have retired by the year 2020

(That is before or in the year 2020, my retirement will already be in

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.*

I 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	
You	are	
He	is	
She	is	going to arrive tomorrow
it	is	
We	are	
You	are	
They	are	

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 [gəʊɪntə]

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

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

Other ways of expressing the future

9.47 Forms of future substitutes

<i>I am/You are, etc.</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>see Mr Jones tomorrow</i>
<i>I am/You are, etc</i>	<i>due to</i>	<i>leave at 7 30</i>
<i>I am/You are, etc</i>	<i>about to</i>	<i>get a big surprise</i>
<i>I am/You are, etc</i>	<i>on the point of</i>	<i>leaving</i>
<i>I am/You are, etc</i>	-	<i>leaving immediately</i> [> 9.11.3]
<i>I/You, etc</i>	-	<i>leave at 7 tomorrow</i> [> 9.8.4]

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* > 12.8n3]

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):	<i>Wait!</i>
Negative short form { <i>Don't</i> + base form):	<i>Don't wait!</i>
Emphatic form (<i>Do</i> + base form):	<i>Do wait a moment!</i>
Addressing someone (e.g. pronoun + base form):	<i>You wait here!</i>
Imperative + question tag:	<i>Wait here will you?</i>
Imperatives joined by <i>and</i> :	<i>Go and play outside</i>

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'¹

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!

2 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.

5 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?

- to obtain the co-operation of others with *Don't will you?*:

Don't tell anyone I told you, 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")

Come 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.

I have He has eaten I had eaten [> 9.1-2]

2 *Have* + *been* + present participle forms perfect progressive: e.g.

I have/I had 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 carefully¹ - 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!

The negative *don't be* (= don't become) is often used for advice. Agreement is expressed with *I 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 won't!*)

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'

affirmative		short form		negative short forms
	<i>I am</i>		<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm not</i>
	<i>You are</i>		<i>You're</i>	<i>You're not = You aren't</i>
<i>Tom</i>	<i>is = He is</i>	<i>Tom's = He's</i>		<i>He's not = He isn't</i>
<i>Ann</i>	<i>is = She is</i>	<i>Ann's = She's</i>		<i>She's not = She isn't</i>
<i>My ticket</i>	<i>is = It is</i>	<i>My ticket's = It's</i>		<i>It's not = It isn't old</i>
<i>Tom and I</i>	<i>are = We are</i>		<i>We're</i>	<i>We're not = We aren't</i>
<i>Ann and you</i>	<i>are = You are</i>		<i>You're</i>	<i>You're not = You aren't</i>
<i>Tom and Ann</i>	<i>are = They are</i>		<i>They're</i>	<i>They're not = They aren't</i>

10.7 Notes on the present form of 'be'

- Short forms never occur at the end of a sentence:
*I don't know where **they are***
- 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
- 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 **Amn'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?*
- 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'

affirmative		negative		negative short form
<i>I was</i>		<i>I was not</i>		<i>I wasn't ~</i>
<i>You were</i>		<i>You were not</i>		<i>You weren't</i>
<i>He was</i>		<i>He was not</i>		<i>He wasn't</i>
<i>She was</i>		<i>She was not</i>		<i>She wasn't</i>
<i>It was</i>	<i>late</i>	<i>It was not</i>	<i>late</i>	<i>It wasn't late</i>
<i>We were</i>		<i>We were not</i>		<i>We weren't</i>
<i>You were</i>		<i>You were not</i>		<i>You weren't</i>
<i>They were</i>		<i>They were not</i>		<i>They weren't</i>

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 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'

present progressive				past progressive			
I	am	(I'm)	being	I	was	being	
You	are	(You're)	being	You	were	being	
He	is	(He's)	being	He	was	being	
She	is	(She's)	being	She	was	being	silly
(It	is	(It's)	being)	(It	was	being)	
We	are	(We're)	being	We	were	being	
You	are	(You're)	being	You	were	being	
They	are	(They're)	being	They	were	being	

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'

present perfect		past perfect	
full form	short form	full form	short form
I have been	I've been	I had been	I'd been
You have been	You've been	You had been	You'd been
He has been	He's been	He had been	He'd been
She has been	She's been	She had been	She'd been
(It has been)	(It's been)	(It had been)	
We have been	We've been	We had been	We'd been
You have been	You've been	You had been	You'd been
They have been	They've been	They had been	They'd been

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

10 Be, Have, Do

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* will 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:

Have you ever been a teacher?

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':

So there you are! 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' [compare > 9.25.2]

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'

future [compare > 9.35]		future perfect [compare > 9.42]	
full form	short form	full form	short form
I will/shall be	I'll be	I will/shall	I'll have been
You will be	You'll be	You will	You'll have been
He will be	He'll be	He will	He'll have been
She will be	She'll be	She will	She'll have been
late			
It will be	It'll be	It will	It'll have been
We will/shall be	We'll be	We will/shall	We'll have been
You will be	You'll be	You will	You'll have been
They will be	They'll be	They will	They'll have been

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

'There' + 'be'**10.17 Some forms of 'there' + 'be'** [For there + modals > 11.76]**the simple present**

There is a man at the door
There are two men at the door

the present perfect

There has been an accident
There have been a lot of enquiries

the simple future

There will be a letter for you tomorrow

the simple past

There was someone to see you
There were some people to see you

the past perfect

He said there had been an accident a lot of enquiries

the future perfect

There will have been a definite result before Friday

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

<i>There is</i>	= <i>There's</i>	<i>There's a man at the door</i>
<i>There has</i>	= <i>There's</i>	<i>There's been an accident</i>
<i>There have</i>	= <i>There've</i>	<i>There've been a lot of accidents round here</i>
<i>There had</i>	= <i>There'd</i>	<i>He told me there'd been an accident near here</i>
<i>There would</i>	= <i>There'd</i>	<i>There'd be fewer accidents if drivers took care</i>
<i>There will</i>	= <i>There'll</i>	<i>There'll be a good harvest this year</i>

10.18 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] [ðeɪz] and [ðeərə:]

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

Verbs related in meaning to 'be'

10.23 Verbs related in meaning to 'be': selected forms

		verbs related to 'be'
present of 'be':	<i>He is quite rich</i> <i>It is quite dark</i>	<i>He appears/seems (to be) quite rich</i> <i>It appears/seems (to be) quite dark</i>
past of 'be':	<i>He was quite rich</i> <i>It was quite dark</i>	<i>He appeared/seemed (to be) quite rich</i> <i>It appeared/seemed (to be) quite dark</i>
present progressive:	<i>He is working hard</i> <i>It s working</i>	<i>He appears/seems to be working hard,</i> <i>It appears/seems to be working</i>
past progressive:	<i>He was working hard</i> <i>It was working</i>	<i>He appeared/seemed to be working hard</i> <i>It appeared/seemed to be working</i>
present perfect:	<i>He has been hurt</i> <i>It has been broken</i>	<i>He appears/seems to have been hurt</i> <i>It appears/seems to have been broken</i>

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
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

'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 *I 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 (hadn't got) an appointment, so I made one for 4 p.m.

I felt cold I didn't have (hadn'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 mind 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 idea¹*
***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'

32 Forms of 'have' meaning something other than 'possess'

imperative:	<i>Have a cup of coffee¹</i>
simple present.	<i>I always have milk in my tea</i>
present progressive:	<i>We're having a nice time</i>
simple past	<i>We had a lovely holiday last summer</i>
past progressive:	<i>I was having a bath when the phone rang</i>
present perfect	<i>Poor Jim has just had an accident</i>
present perfect progressive:	<i>The children have been having a lot of fun</i>
past perfect:	<i>I woke up because I had had a bad dream</i>
past perfect progressive.	<i>I woke up I had been having a bad dream</i>
simple future.	<i>I'll have a haircut tomorrow</i>
future progressive:	<i>If anyone phones, I'll be having a bath</i>
future perfect:	<i>You'll have had an answer by tomorrow</i>
future perfect progressive:	<i>She will have been having treatment all her life</i>
with modal verbs:	<i>e.g. You could have a cup of tea if you like</i>

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

Compare *have* meaning 'possess':

Have you (got) any milk in your tea? (= Is there any?)

I haven't (got) any milk in my tea (= There isn't any.)

- 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. *I 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...*)

Compare *have*, meaning 'possess':

I have/I've/I've got a new shower in my bathroom

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'

affirmative	short form	negative short forms
<i>I have had</i>	<i>I've had</i>	<i>I've not had</i> = <i>I haven't had</i>
<i>You have had</i>	<i>You've had</i>	<i>You've not had</i> = <i>You haven't had</i>
<i>He has had</i>	<i>He's had</i>	<i>He's not had</i> = <i>He hasn't had</i>
<i>She has had</i>	<i>She's had</i>	<i>She's not had</i> = <i>Shehasn't had lunch</i>
<i>It has had</i>	<i>Its had</i>	<i>It's not had</i> = <i>It hasn't had</i>
<i>We have had</i>	<i>We've had</i>	<i>We've not had</i> = <i>We haven't had</i>
<i>You have had</i>	<i>You've had</i>	<i>You've not had</i> = <i>You haven't had</i>
<i>They have had</i>	<i>They've had</i>	<i>They've not had</i> = <i>They haven't had</i>

'Have' (= something other than 'possess')

10.35 Form of the simple past perfect of 'have' = 'take'

affirmative	short form		negative	short forms	
I	had	had	I'd	not had	= I hadn't had
You	had	had	You'd	not had	= You hadn't had
He	had	had	He'd	not had	= He hadn't had
She	had	had	She'd	not had	= She hadn't had lunch
It	had	had	It'd	not had	= It hadn't had
We	had	had	We'd	not had	= We hadn't had
You	had	had	You'd	not had	= You hadn't had
They	had	had	They'd	not had	= They hadn't had

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

imperative	<i>Do your homework'</i>
simple present	<i>I do the shopping every morning</i>
present progressive:	<i>I'm doing this crossword puzzle</i>
simple past:	<i>He did a lot of work this morning</i>
past progressive:	<i>We were doing sums all yesterday evening</i>
present perfect:	<i>We've just done the washing-up</i>
present perfect progressive.	<i>I've been doing this exercise all day</i>
past perfect	<i>We went home after we had done our work</i>
past perfect progressive:	<i>We had been doing business with each other for years before we quarrelled</i>
simple future.	<i>I'll do the housework tomorrow morning</i>
future progressive.	<i>I'll be doing jobs about the house tomorrow</i>
future perfect:	<i>If you finish this job as well, you will have done far more than I expected</i>
future perfect progressive	<i>By this time next year, we will have been doing business with each other for 20 years</i>
with modal verbs.	<i>e.g. Would you do me a favour please?</i>

10.41 The present form of 'do' as a full verb

affirmative	negative full form	negative short form
<i>I do</i>	<i>I do not</i>	<i>I don't</i>
<i>You do</i>	<i>You do not</i>	<i>You don't</i>
<i>He does</i>	<i>He does not</i>	<i>He doesn't</i>
<i>She does the work</i>	<i>she does not</i>	<i>She doesn't do the work</i>
<i>It does</i>	<i>It does not</i>	<i>It doesn't</i>
<i>We do</i>	<i>We do not</i>	<i>We don't</i>
<i>You do</i>	<i>You do not</i>	<i>You don't</i>
<i>They do</i>	<i>They do not</i>	<i>They don't</i>

'Do' as a full verb

10.42 The past form of 'do' as a full verb

affirmative	negative full form	negative short form
I <i>did</i>	I <i>did not</i>	I <i>didn't</i>
You <i>did</i>	You <i>did not</i>	You <i>didn't</i>
He <i>did</i>	He <i>did not</i>	He <i>didn't</i>
She <i>did</i> the work	she <i>did not</i>	She <i>didn't</i> do the work
It <i>did</i>	It <i>did not</i>	It <i>didn't</i>
We <i>did</i>	We <i>did not</i>	We <i>didn't</i>
You <i>did</i>	You <i>did not</i>	You <i>didn't</i>
They <i>did</i>	They <i>did not</i>	They <i>didn't</i>

10.43 The present perfect form of 'do' as a full verb

affirmative	negative full form	negative short form
I <i>have done</i>	I <i>have not done</i>	I <i>haven't</i> (I've not) <i>done</i>
You <i>have done</i>	You <i>have not done</i>	You <i>haven't</i> (You've not) <i>done</i>
He <i>has done</i>	He <i>has not done</i>	He <i>hasn't</i> (He's not) <i>done</i>
She <i>has done</i>	She <i>has not done</i>	She <i>hasn't</i> (She's not) <i>done</i> it
It <i>has done</i>	It <i>has not done</i>	It <i>hasn't</i> (It's not) <i>done</i>
We <i>have done</i>	We <i>have not done</i>	We <i>haven't</i> (We've not) <i>done</i>
You <i>have done</i>	You <i>have not done</i>	You <i>haven't</i> (You've not) <i>done</i>
They <i>have done</i>	They <i>have not done</i>	They <i>haven't</i> (They've not) <i>done</i>

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)

10.44.3 '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 all 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**? [> 13.40.6]*

*That'll **do**! (e.g. That will be enough.)*

*How many miles **does it do to the gallon**? (do in 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*

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*:

<i>be</i>	<i>(is) not</i>	<i>(is)n't</i>	[> 10.6, 10.8]
<i>have</i>	<i>(have) not</i>	<i>(have)nt</i>	[> 10.27-28]
<i>do</i>	<i>(do) not</i>	<i>(do)n't</i>	[> 10.41-42]
<i>can</i>	<i>cannot</i>	<i>can't</i>	
<i>could</i>	<i>could not</i>	<i>couldn't</i>	
<i>may</i>	<i>may not</i>	<i>mayn't</i>	
<i>might</i>	<i>might not</i>	<i>mightn't</i>	
<i>will</i>	<i>will not</i>	<i>won't</i>	[> 9.35]
<i>would</i>	<i>would not</i>	<i>wouldn't</i>	
<i>shall</i>	<i>shall not</i>	<i>shan't</i>	[> 9.36n.3]
<i>should</i>	<i>should not</i>	<i>shouldn't</i>	
<i>must</i>	<i>must not</i>	<i>mustn't</i>	
<i>ought to</i>	<i>ought not to</i>	<i>oughtn't to</i>	
<i>need</i>	<i>need not</i>	<i>needn't</i>	
<i>dare</i>	<i>dare not</i>	<i>daren't</i>	

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) ? is usually preferred to *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)

11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

- 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* /kən/, *I*, (etc.) *could* /kəd/, *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>I will see</i>	simple future [> 9.35]	
<i>I will be seeing</i>	future progressive [> 9.40]	
<i>I will have seen</i>	future perfect simple [> 9.42]	
<i>I will have been seeing</i>	future perfect progressive [> 9.42]	
	active	passive
modal + (bare infinitive):	<i>I may see</i>	<i>I may be seen</i>
modal + <i>be</i> + present participle:	<i>I may be seeing</i>	- [but > 12.3n.6]
modal + <i>have</i> + past participle:	<i>I may have seen</i>	<i>I may have been seen</i>
modal + <i>have been</i> + present participle:	<i>I may have been seeing</i>	-

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*+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

is less certain than:

I may 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)

11.9 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

can/could

Can/could express ability, which may be natural or learned:

present reference: *I/You/He (etc.) can/can't hear music*

past or perfect reference *I/You/He (etc.) could/couldn't play chess*

I/You/He (etc.) could have/couldn't have danced all night

future reference: None. We use *will be able to* [but compare > 11.19, 11.26]

Verbs and verb phrases related in meaning to *can* (ability):

be (un)able to *I am (not) able/I am unable to attend the meeting*

be (in)capable of *He is (not) capable/He is incapable of doing the job*

manage to: *We managed/didn't manage to persuade him to accept*

succeed in *They'll succeed/won't succeed in getting what they want*

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* 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

abilities. *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 describe past abilities

/ **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'¹ *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*, *managed to* or *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 *were n'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

11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

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:

I can smell something burning (= I smell something burning.)

I can't see anyone (= I don't see anyone.)

Could can be used in place of the simple past in the same way:

*I listened carefully, but **couldn't** hear anything*

(= I listened carefully, but didn't hear anything.)

Can/could can be used with verbs suggesting 'understanding':

*I **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):

*I **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 *if*-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':

*I **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

can/could/may/might [compare > 11.34, 11.36-38]:

Can I stay out late? you (etc.) *can/can't/mustn't stay out late*

Could I stay out late?

May I stay out late? you (etc.) *may/may not/mayn't/mustn't stay out late*

Might I stay out late?

can/could (= be free to)

present or future reference:

I can see him now/tomorrow

I could see him now/tomorrow

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!*

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:

Can

Could *I borrow your umbrella (please)?*

May

Might

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...*).

Permission to ask an indiscreet question may be requested with 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]:

can't *I stay out till midnight (please)?*

Couldn't

May I not ? is old-fashioned.

Mayn't I ? is unlikely.

Might I not. ? is rare, but all these forms occur in formal style.

Modals, etc to express permission/prohibition

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 use your phone?
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/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*

11.24 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** (or **were allowed to 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* to show that permission was given but not used:

*You **could have had an extra week's holiday** You asked for it
I said you **could have 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

11.28 Forms of tenses (certainty) versus modals (possibility)

certain (expressed by verb tenses)	possible/less than certain (expressed by <i>may</i> , <i>might</i> and <i>could</i>)
<i>He is at home</i>	<i>He may/might/could be at home (now)</i>
<i>He will be at home tomorrow</i>	<i>He may/might/could be at home tomorrow</i>
<i>He was at home yesterday</i>	<i>He may/might/could have been at home yesterday</i>
<i>He leaves at 9</i>	<i>He may/might/could leave at 9</i>
<i>He will leave tomorrow</i>	<i>He may/might/could leave tomorrow</i>
<i>He has left</i>	<i>He may/might/could have left</i>
<i>He left last night</i>	<i>He may/might/could have left last night</i>
<i>He will have left by 9</i>	<i>He may/might/could have left by 9</i>
<i>He is working today</i>	<i>He may/might/could be working today</i>
<i>He will be working today</i>	<i>He may/might/could be working today</i>
<i>He was working today</i>	<i>He may/might/could have been working today</i>
<i>He has been working all day</i>	<i>He may/might/could have been working all day</i>
<i>He will have been working all day</i>	<i>He may/might/could have been working all day</i>

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/Can 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 (or ***have been***) *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:

<i>He is here</i>	<i>He lives here</i>	<i>He is leaving</i>
<i>He isn't here</i>	<i>He doesn't live here</i>	<i>He isn't leaving</i>

Deduction expressed by *must be* and *can't be*.

<i>He must be here</i>	<i>He must live here</i>	<i>He must be leaving</i>
<i>He can't be here</i>	<i>He can't live here</i>	<i>He can't be leaving</i>

perfect and past reference.

Certainty expressed by verb tenses

<i>He was here</i>	<i>He has left/He left early</i>	<i>He has been/was working late</i>
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Deduction expressed by *must have been* and *can't/couldn't have been*

<i>He must have been here</i>	<i>He must have left early</i>	<i>He must have been working late</i>
<i>He can't have been here</i>	<i>He can't have left early</i>	<i>He can't have been working late</i>
<i>He couldn't have been here</i>	<i>He couldn't have left early</i>	<i>He couldn't have been working late</i>

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

11 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 be** Roland I can hear him at the door*
*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/Wouldn't 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. I won't* is an 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.

11.38.2 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 lets (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'

11.42.1 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

I wish/if only Tessa were here now

Wish and *if only* can also be followed by the past progressive

I wish/if only the sun was (or were) shining at this moment

Compare *hope* + simple present or future for an immediate 'wish'

I 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'

I 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'

I wish you would/wouldn't often functions like a polite imperative

Because the wish can easily be fulfilled, *if only* is less likely

I 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! knew¹ Would to God I had known¹*)

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*

It would be nice if Tessa was/were/could be here now!

- *I wish/If **only she was/Ushe were/she 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 *it's (high) time* and *it'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 *it's time* in

*We've enjoyed the evening but **it's time (for us) to go***

(i.e. the time has now arrived for us to go)

*We've enjoyed the evening but **it's time we went***

(i.e. 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 *I'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.

present advisability

I should stop smoking

I ought to stop smoking

I'd better stop smoking

(I still smoke)

present inescapable obligation

I must stop smoking

(I am obliged to stop smoking

and I shall it is my duty)

past advisability not acted upon

I should have stopped smoking

I ought to have stopped smoking

(I was advised to stop but

ignored the advice)

past inescapable obligation

I had to stop smoking

(I was obliged to stop smoking

and I did it was my duty)

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]

11.47 **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 to¹ 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/I 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, *Need 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:

Need 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/I needed to go to the dentist this morning.

I don't need to/I 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.

11.50 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

	should		
	ought to	be	<i>at the office (before 9 tomorrow)</i>
I	had better	leave	<i>(before 9 tomorrow)</i>
	have to	be leaving	<i>(before 9 tomorrow)</i>
	have got to		
	must		

Will shall will combine with *have to* and *need to* (full verb) for explicit future reference

	need to	be	<i>at the office before 9 (tomorrow)</i>
I'll	have to	leave	<i>London before 9 (tomorrow)</i>
		be leaving	<i>London before 9 (tomorrow)</i>

11.51 Advisability/necessity: the perfect and past

Reference to the past can be made in the following ways

	should have	been	<i>at the office before 9</i>
I	ought to have	left	<i>London before 9</i>
		been leaving	<i>London before 9</i>

		be	<i>at the office before 9</i>
I	had to	leave	<i>London before 9</i>
		be leaving	<i>London before 9</i>

Should have and *ought to have* could be followed (here) by *but I wasn't / I 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.

present lack of necessity

You needn't go there
Or *You don't need to go there*
You don't have to go there
You haven't got to go there

past lack of necessity

You needn't have gone there
(= you went there unnecessarily)
You didn't have to go there
Or *You didn't need to go there*
(= there was no necessity to go there, whether you did go or not)

present inadvisability

You shouldn't start smoking
You ought not to start smoking

past inadvisability, not acted upon

You shouldn't have started smoking
You oughtn't to have started smoking
(but e.g. you ignored this advice)

present prohibition

You can't park here
You mustn't park here

failure to observe a prohibition

You shouldn't have parked there
You ought not to have parked there

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	<i>shouldn't</i>	generally means 'in my opinion, it is inadvisable to/it is (your) duty not to'
	<i>oughtn't to</i>	can be slightly stronger than <i>shouldn't</i> It is sometimes used to refer to regulations and duties imposed from the outside <i>You oughtn't to park so near the crossing</i> suggests 'it's your public duty not to do this'
	<i>had better not</i>	is stronger than <i>shouldn't</i> and <i>oughtn't to</i> It is used to recommend future action on a particular occasion not in general It carries a hint of threat, warning, or urgency <i>You'd better not overtake here</i>
<i>am/is/are not to</i>	can be used for instructions [> 9.48.1]	
	<i>can't</i>	is nearly as strong as <i>mustn't</i> to suggest something is prohibited
<i>You can't park here</i>		
prohibition	<i>mustn't</i>	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 <i>You mustn't turn left</i> (e.g. there's a road sign forbidding it)

11.55 '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 madvisability prohibition

I **needn't** **be** at the office (until 9 tomorrow)
don't have to **leave** until 9 (tomorrow)
be leaving untill 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/can't/mustn't be** late for meetings
(present/habitual')

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* and *mustn't* are used to refer to the future, although they do not have future forms Possible alternatives are

Shouldn't/oughtn't to/had better not can be replaced by

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/inadvisability/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 in 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
(*have* and *need* are stressed)

(= 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/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

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, use 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 that¹*

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

11.64 '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 It 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')

'Dare' as a modal verb and as a full verb

11.65 Forms of 'dare' as a modal verb and as a full verb

Like *need* *dare* can work as a modal verb or as a full verb with little or no difference in meaning

present reference

modal verb

dare daren't/don't dare + go

full regular verb

dare don't dare + to go

past reference

modal verb.

dared/dared not/didn't dare + go

full regular verb:

dared/didn't dare + to go

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 d'dn'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 prices¹

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'

11.72 '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:

Shall we walk or take a bus?

- **We may/might as well walk** (i.e. it makes no difference)

What a slow bus this is¹

- 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, Jimmy¹ - **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 ***The car wouldn't start this morning***

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

and sometimes in place of *will/won't*, when we want to sound less definite (*I would think that* , etc):

<i>That seems the best solution to me</i>	(definite)
<i>That would seem the best solution to me</i>	(less definite)
<i>Friday evening is not (or won't be) very convenient</i>	(definite)
<i>Friday evening wouldn't be very convenient</i>	(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 I/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>I suggest (that) he should/shouldn't apply for the job</i>	(should)
<i>I suggest (that) he applies/doesn't apply for the job</i>	(present)
<i>I suggest (that) he apply/not apply for the job</i>	(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>I suggested (that) they should/shouldn't drive along the coast</i>
<i>I suggested (that) they drive/not drive along the coast</i>
<i>I suggested (that) they drove/didn't drive along the coast</i>

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]:

<i>It is vital (that) we should be present</i>	(should)
<i>It is vital (that) we are present</i>	(present)
<i>It is vital (that) we be present</i>	(subjunctive)

The reference may also be to the past:

*It was important (that) he **should apply/apply/applied** for the job*

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 something 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

negative questions: ***Wouldn't there have been a strike?***

Couldn't there have been an accident

question-word questions: ***When might there be an answer?***

Why couldn't there have been a mistake⁹

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*

He is/was cooking the food

passive: *The food is/has been/will be + cooked*

The food is/was being + 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/to 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:

stative: *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]:
I was hurt in a car crash last summer
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/repainted, 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' Thousands 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

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]

12.6 '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 *It* (+ 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

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.

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 Jack **is 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]

questions	(I am late) <i>I am late</i>	<i>I am late</i>	<i>Am I late?"</i>
	(He was going) <i>He was going</i>	<i>He was going</i>	<i>Was he going'?</i>
	(He has won) <i>He has won</i>	<i>He has won</i>	<i>Has he won'?</i>
	(She can swim) <i>She can swim</i>	<i>She can swim</i>	<i>Can she swim'?</i>
	(It will rain) <i>It will rain</i>	<i>It will rain</i>	<i>Will it rain'?</i>
		full form	short form
negatives	(I am ready) <i>I am ready</i>	<i>I am not ready</i>	<i>I m not ready</i>
	(He is late) <i>He is late</i>	<i>He is not late</i>	<i>He isn t He s not late</i>
	(We are going) <i>We are going</i>	<i>We are not going</i>	<i>We aren t/We re not going</i>
	(I can see you) <i>I can see you</i>	<i>I cannot see you</i>	<i>I can t see you</i>
	(It will rain) <i>It will rain</i>	<i>It will not rain</i>	<i>It won t rain</i>

13.2 Questions/negatives with 'do', 'does' and 'did' [> 10. 4 10.41-43]

questions	(I You We/They) Do <i>I you we they</i>	dance well) dance well'?
	(He She It) Does <i>he she it</i>	works well) work well'?
	(I You/He/She/It We/They) Did <i>I you he she it/we they</i>	ran fast) run fast'?
negatives	(I You They) do not work (full form)	don't work (short form)
	(He She It) does not work (full form)	doesn't work (short form)
	(I You He She It We They) did not go (full form)	didn't go (short form)

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 Yes I have No I haven't

Does he like fish? Doesn t he like fish?

Yes he does No he doesn't Yes he does No he doesn't

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* [$>$ 13.8-9]. 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 [$>$ 16.1].

simple present affirmative *I/You/We/They turn left here*

negative *I/You/We/They don't turn left here*

affirmative *He/She/It works well*

negative *He/She/It doesn't work well*

simple past affirmative *I/You/He/She/It/We/They stayed in*

negative *I/You/He/She/It/We/They didn't stay in*

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

subject	auxiliary	predicate
---------	-----------	-----------

<i>You</i>	<i>re</i>	<i>working too hard</i>
------------	-----------	-------------------------

<i>You</i>	<i>ve</i>	<i>eaten too much</i>
------------	-----------	-----------------------

<i>You</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>stop now</i>
------------	------------	-----------------

<i>You</i>		<i>work too hard</i>
------------	--	----------------------

<i>You</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>ate too much yesterday</i>
------------	----------	-------------------------------

2 Questions

auxiliary	subject	predicate
-----------	---------	-----------

<i>Are</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>working too hard?</i>
------------	------------	--------------------------

<i>Have</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>eaten too much?</i>
-------------	------------	------------------------

<i>May</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>stop now?</i>
------------	----------	------------------

<i>Do</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>work too hard?</i>
-----------	----------	-----------------------

<i>Did</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>eat too much yesterday?</i>
------------	----------	--------------------------------

13 Questions answers negatives

3 Negative statements

subject	auxiliary	not	predicate
I	am	not	working too hard
You	have	not	eaten too much
You	may	not	go out
I	do	not	work too hard
I	did	not	eat too much yesterday

Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers

13.5 Form of Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers

	Yes/No questions	affirmative and	negative short answers
be[> 10 6]	Are you ready? Is he leaving? Were you ill?	Yes I am Yes he is Yes we were	No I'm not No he's not/he isn't No we weren't
have [> 10 27]	Have you finished? Has she left?	Yes I have Yes she has	No I haven't No she hasn't
do [> 10 41] does did	Do you like it? Does it work? Did you paint it?	Yes I do Yes it does Yes I did	No I don't No it doesn't No I didn't
modals [> 11 5]	Can I see him?	Yes you can	No you can't

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 (eg 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 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*

We use Yes/No questions and answers

- 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

statement	agreement	disagreement
<i>It's raining</i>	- <i>Yes it is</i>	- <i>No it isn't</i>
<i>It isn't raining</i>	- <i>No it isn't</i>	- <i>Yes it is</i>

- 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

Alternative negative forms

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

'No' and 'no'-compounds	'Any' and 'any'-compounds
affirmative verb	negative verb
<i>I've got no time</i>	<i>I haven't got any time</i>
<i>I've seen no one/nobody</i>	<i>I haven't seen any one/anybody</i>
<i>I've bought none of them</i>	<i>I haven't bought any of them</i>
<i>I've done nothing today</i>	<i>I haven't done anything today</i>
<i>I've been nowhere today</i>	<i>I haven't been anywhere today</i>

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 *not* followed 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

	negative full form	negative short form
foe [> 10.6]	Am I not late?	Aren't I late?
	Are they not waiting?	Aren't they waiting?
	Was I not ill?	Wasn't I ill?
have [> 10.27]	Have I not finished?	Haven't I finished?
	Has she not left?	Hasn't she left?
do [> 10.41]	Do you not like it?	Don't you like it?
	Does it not work?	Doesn't it work?
	Did you not paint it?	Didn't you paint it?
modals [> 11.5]	Can I not see him?	Can't I see him?

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 {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?

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

	affirmative		negative
<i>be</i> [> 10.6]:	<i>I'm</i>	<i>late,</i>	<i>aren't I?</i>
	<i>They're</i>	<i>waiting</i>	<i>aren't they?</i>
	<i>We were</i>	<i>late,</i>	<i>weren't we?</i>
<i>have</i> [> 10.27]:	<i>I've</i>	<i>finished,</i>	<i>haven't I?</i>
	<i>He's</i>	<i>left,</i>	<i>hasn't he?</i>
<i>do</i> [> 10.41]:	<i>You</i>	<i>like it,</i>	<i>don't you?</i>
<i>does:</i>	<i>It</i>	<i>works,</i>	<i>doesn't it?</i>
<i>did</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>painting it,</i>	<i>didn't you?</i>
<i>modals</i> [> 11.5]:	<i>I can</i>	<i>see him,</i>	<i>can't I?</i>

13.18 Form of tag questions: negative - affirmative

	negative		affirmative
<i>be</i> [> 10.6]:	<i>I'm not</i>	<i>late,</i>	<i>am I?</i>
	<i>He isn't</i>	<i>leaving</i>	<i>is he?</i>
	<i>I wasn't</i>	<i>ill,</i>	<i>was I?</i>
<i>have</i> [> 10.27]:	<i>I haven't</i>	<i>finished,</i>	<i>have I?</i>
	<i>He hasn't</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>has he?</i>
<i>do</i> [> 10.41]:	<i>You don't</i>	<i>like it,</i>	<i>do you?</i>
<i>does:</i>	<i>It doesn't</i>	<i>work,</i>	<i>does it?</i>
<i>did:</i>	<i>You didn't</i>	<i>paint it,</i>	<i>did you?</i>
<i>modals</i> [> 11.5]:	<i>I can't</i>	<i>see him</i>	<i>can I?</i>

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

	affirmative	affirmative
toe [> 10 6]	<i>I'm rude, He's leaving, I was impatient,</i>	<i>am I? is he? was I?</i>
have [> 10.27].	<i>I've finished, She's left,</i>	<i>have I? has she?</i>
do [> 10 41]. does did.	<i>You like it, It works, You painted it,</i>	<i>do you? does it? did you?</i>
modals [> 11 5].	<i>I can see him,</i>	<i>can I?</i>

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.)

Affirmative - affirmative tags can also express less friendly feelings like suspicion, disapproval and even threat. The tone falls at the end of the statement and rises only on the tag. No answer is required:

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

	affirmative	negative
be/have: [> 10.6, 10.27]	<i>He's resigning</i> - <i>Is he? He is?</i> - <i>He is isn't he?</i> - <i>He is is he?</i>	<i>He isn't resigning</i> - <i>Isn't he? He isn't?</i> - <i>He isn't, is he?</i>
do/does/did [> 10.41]	<i>I work all night</i> - <i>Do you? You do?</i> - <i>You do, don't you?</i> - <i>You do, do you?</i>	<i>I don't work all night</i> - <i>Don't you? You don't?</i> - <i>You don't do you?</i>
modals: [> 11.5]	<i>I can wait till tomorrow</i> - <i>Can you? You can?</i> <i>You can can't you?</i> - <i>You can, can you?</i>	<i>I can't wait till tomorrow</i> - <i>Can't you? You can't?</i> - <i>You can't, can you?</i>

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:

statement	parallel addition	contrast
<i>John can speak French</i>	<i>and I can, too</i>	<i>but I can't</i>
<i>John can't speak French</i>	<i>and I can't, either</i>	<i>but I can</i>
<i>John speaks French</i>	<i>and I do, too</i>	<i>but I don't</i>
<i>John doesn't speak French</i>	<i>and I don't either</i>	<i>but I do</i>

Additions and responses

statement <i>John can speak French</i> <i>John can't speak French</i> <i>John speaks French</i> <i>John doesn't speak French</i>	parallel addition <i>and so can I</i> <i>and neither/nor can I</i> <i>and so do I</i> <i>and neither/nor do I</i>	contrast <i>but I can't</i> <i>but I can</i> <i>but I don't</i> <i>but I do</i>
statement <i>John can speak French</i> <i>John can't speak French</i> <i>John speaks French</i> <i>John doesn't speak French</i>	parallel response <i>I can, too</i> or <i>So can I</i> <i>I can't, either</i> or <i>Neither/Nor can I</i> <i>I do, too</i> or <i>So do I</i> <i>I don't, either</i> or <i>Neither/Nor do I</i>	
statement <i>She's going to help us</i> <i>Jean retires soon</i>	confirmation, surprised agreement, etc. <i>So she is!</i> <i>So she does!</i>	

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.

3.29.3 '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!

3.29.4 '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]

question-word	+ auxiliary	+ subject	
	<i>are/aren I</i>	<i>you ?</i>	<i>be</i> [> 10.6]
<i>Who(m)</i>			
<i>What</i>	<i>have/haven t</i>	<i>you ?</i>	have [>10.27]
<i>When</i>	<i>has/hasnt</i>	<i>she ?</i>	
<i>Which</i>			
<i>Why</i>	<i>do/don t</i>	<i>you ?</i>	do [> 10.41]
<i>Where</i>	<i>does/doesnt</i>	<i>she ?</i>	does
<i>Whose</i>	<i>did/didnt</i>	<i>we ?</i>	did
<i>How</i>			
	<i>can/can t</i>	<i>I ?</i>	modals [> 11.5]

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; isnh workm^*
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* *We don t 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?*

statement *He arrives at 8* *He doesn t arrive at 8*
Yes/No question *Does he arrive at 8?* *Doesn t he arrive at 8?*
question-word *When does he arrive?* *Why doesn t he arrive at 8?*

statement *He arrived at 8* *He didn t arrive at 6*
Yes/No question *Did he arrive at 8?* *Didn t he arrive at 8?*
question-word *When did he arrive?* *Why didn t he 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/ll*) than when it ends with a consonant (*Which ll*) 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 *'Whats ?* = *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 When'll ? = When will ?
Which've ? = Which have ?

Why

Which'll ? = Which will ?
Whys ? = Why is ? or Why has ?

Where Why'd ? = Why had ? or Why would ?
Why'll ? = Why will ?

'Where's ? = Where is ? or Where has ?
Where've ? = Where have ?

How Where'd ? = Where had ? or Where
Where'll ? = Where will ?

'How's ? = How is ? or How has ?

'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 mother's 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]

questions	answers	'target'
When did Elaine go to her mothers?	Yesterday	adverb of time
Where did Elaine go yesterday?	To her mother s	adverb of place
How did she get there?	By bus	adverb of manner
Whose house did Elaine go to?	Her mother s	adverb of place
Why did she go by bus?	Because the trains weren t running	clause of reason
What did Elaine do yesterday?	She went to her mother s by bus	whole sentence

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

statement	subject	verb	object
	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

statement	subject	verb	object
	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 boy/boys/girl/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 a 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?

13.35 '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

	subject	verb	object
statement	I	am reading	'Kim'
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 go this way? - **To save time** ('because I wanted to')

.37.2 Why don't/doesn't...?' and Why not?'

Why + don't for *doesn'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?***

13.37.3 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?

13.38 '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 > 7.59.1]

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

13.39 '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?

13.40 '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

How long have you known her (for)? - (For) 20 years

I've known her a **long time** **How long (for)?**

How can also combine with *long ago* to refer to a point of time:

How long ago did Bach live? - **300 years ago** (ago not optional)

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	
<i>Who's ready?</i>	<i>I am/John is</i> etc.	be
<i>Who's got my keys?</i>	<i>I have /John has</i> etc.	have
<i>Who makes the decisions?</i>	<i>I do/John does</i> etc.	do/does
<i>Who paid the waiter?</i>	<i>I did /John did</i> etc	did
<i>Who can explain this?</i>	<i>I can/John can</i> etc.	modals
subject-questions with 'What?', 'Which?' and 'Whose?'		
<i>What made you jump?</i>	<i>The cat did</i>	
<i>Which one suits me best?</i>	<i>The red one does</i>	
<i>Whose telephone rang?</i>	<i>Mine did</i>	

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]:

	subject	verb	object	subject-answer
statement:	Someone	paid	the waiter	
subject-question.	Who	paid	the waiter?	John did

Compare a *Who* question which asks for the object of a statement:

	subject	verb	object	object-answer
statement	John	paid	the waiter	
Yes/No question	Did John	pay	the waiter?	
Who(m)>question.	Who(m) did John	pay"		The waiter

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? I 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 I 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 is coming tonight? John is / John and Sally are

However, plural verbs can occur quite naturally after subject

questions with *Who*, *Which* and *What*:

Who are playing in the orchestra?

Who have won Nobel Prizes for literature in the past ten years?

13.43 When we ask subject-questions

We ask subject-questions:

- with *Who* to identify a person or persons:
Who takes sugar? - Jane (does) Both of us (do).
- 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

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?*

The negative auxiliary can be replaced by *or not?*:

*Did you take it **or not?***

Provided both speaker and listener know what is referred to, such questions can be reduced even further:

*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?*

13.47 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:

type 1: *What will you do if you lose your job?*

Asking/talking about something that is quite possible:

'if + present + will'

If I lose my job, I will go abroad

type 2: *What would you do if you lost your job?*

Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences now:

'if + past + would'

If I lost my job, I would go abroad

type 3: *What would you have done if you had lost your job?*

Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences then:

'if + past perfect + would have'

If I had lost my job, I would have gone abroad

The abbreviation *'ll* can be used instead of *will* in all persons, and *shall* can be used instead of *will* after *I* 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 *I* 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)

14.3 Mixed tense sequences in conditional sentences

Sense and context permitting, any tense sequence is possible:

type 1 <i>If I am as clever as you think,</i>	type 3 <i>I should have been rich by now</i>
type 2 <i>If you knew me better,</i>	type 3 <i>you wouldn't have said that</i>
type 3 <i>If I had had your advantages,</i>	type 2 <i>I'd be better off now.</i>
type 2 <i>If he missed the bus,</i>	type 1 <i>he won't be here on time</i>

Type 1 conditionals

14.4 Basic form of Type 1 conditionals

	'if-clause:	main clause:
be:	present tenses	'shall/will' future
have.	condition to be satisfied	likely outcome
simple present:	<i>If I am better tomorrow,</i>	<i>I will get up</i>
present progressive:	<i>If I have a headache</i>	<i>I will take an aspirin</i>
present perfect:	<i>If she finishes early</i>	<i>she will go home</i>
present perfect progressive	<i>if he is standing in the rain,</i>	<i>he will catch cold</i>
can, must.	<i>If she has arrived at the station,</i>	<i>she will be here soon</i>
	<i>If he has been travelling all night,</i>	<i>he will need a rest</i>
	<i>If I can afford it,</i>	<i>I will buy it</i>

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 *// + 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

Type 1 conditionals

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:

condition to be satisfied	likely outcome
<i>If the weather clears,</i>	<i>we'll go for a walk</i>
<i>If the weather doesn't clear,</i>	<i>we won't go for a walk</i>

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

	'if'-clause: present tenses condition to be satisfied	main clause: modal [> 11.1] likely outcome
simple present.	<i>If she finishes early,</i>	<i>can/could</i>
Present progressive	<i>If she is arriving today,</i>	<i>may/might</i> <i>phone</i>
Present perfect:	<i>If she has arrived</i>	<i>she. should/ought to</i> <i>me</i>
Present perfect progressive:	<i>If she has been waiting,</i>	<i>must</i>
modal must.	<i>If she can't understand it,</i>	

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:

condition to be satisfied	likely outcome
	<i>can</i> (we are free to)
	<i>could</i> (we would be able to)
	<i>may</i> (it's possible)
<i>If it's fine tomorrow,</i>	<i>might</i> (it's possible) <i>go out</i>
	<i>should</i> (it's advisable)
	<i>ought to</i> (it's advisable)
	<i>must</i> (it's necessary)

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

if'-clause or variation condition to be satisfied	main clause: e.g. imperative request, suggestion, etc.
<i>If you (should) see him,</i>	

Should you see him, please give him my regards
If you (should) happen to see him,
Should you happen to see him,

If + should (+ bare infinitive), instead of *if + present*, makes the condition more doubtful:

If he calls, *tell him I'll ring back* (normal Type 1)
If he should call, *tell him I'll ring back* (*if + should*)

The main clause is not necessarily always an imperative:

*If I should see him, I'll **ask** him to ring you*

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 *If it rains, **cancel the match***

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:

<i>If you</i>	<i>see him</i>	fairly likely: neutral
<i>If you should</i>	<i>see him</i>	
<i>Should you</i>	<i>see him</i>	
<i>If you happen to</i>	<i>see him</i>	
<i>If you should happen to</i>	<i>see him</i>	
<i>Should you happen to</i>	<i>see him</i>	
<i>Should you by any chance happen to</i>	<i>see him</i>	unlikely: very tactful

14.9 Type 1, Variation 3: Imperative + conjunction + clause

imperative condition to be satisfied	conjunction	main clause: 'shall/will' likely outcome
<i>Provide the materials</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>we'll do the job</i>
<i>Stop shouting,</i>	<i>or</i>	<i>you'll wake up the neighbours</i>
<i>Put that down,</i>	<i>or else</i>	<i>I'll smack you</i>
<i>Be there on time</i>	<i>otherwise</i>	<i>you'll create a bad impression</i>

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*
(*If you fail to pay, they'll cut off the electricity*)

request: ***Tell us what to do and** we'll get on with it*
(*If you tell us what to do we'll get on with it*)

threat: ***Stop eating sweets, or** you won't get any dinner*
(*If you don't stop eating sweets, you won't get any dinner*)

advice: ***Take a taxi, otherwise** you'll miss your train*
(*If you don't take a taxi, 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)

Type 2 conditionals

4.10 Basic form of Type 2 conditionals

	'if'-clause: past tense condition to be satisfied	main clause: 'would/should' likely outcome
be:	<i>If I was taller,</i>	<i>I would become a policeman</i>
have.	<i>If he had any money,</i>	<i>he'd leave home</i>
other verbs:	<i>If you took a taxi,</i>	<i>you'd get there quicker</i>
could [> 11.12]:	<i>If you could see me now,</i>	<i>you'd laugh your head off</i>

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 toin speech but not contracted to 'd in writing)

can be used instead of *would* after *I* 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'

'if-clause: 'were/was' condition to be satisfied		main clause: 'would/should' likely outcome	
<i>If I/he/she/it</i>	<i>were/was</i>	<i>I would (or should)</i>	<i>go</i>
<i>ready</i>		<i>we would (or should)</i>	
<i>you/we/they were</i>		<i>you/they (etc.) would</i>	

14.13.1 'If I were/If I was'

Were can be used in place of *was* after *If I/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'

'if-clause: past tense condition to be satisfied		main clause: modal [> 11.1] likely outcome	
<i>If he knew the facts,</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>could</i>	<i>tell us what to do</i>
<i>If he could get the facts,</i>			<i>might</i>

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
<i>If he were here</i>	<i>he could help us</i> (ability)
<i>If he were here</i>	<i>he might help us</i> (possibility)
<i>If he failed,</i>	<i>he ought to/should try again</i> (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.

if-clause: 'were to/was to' condition to be satisfied	main clause: 'would/should', etc. likely outcome
--	---

*If I/he/she/it were to/was to ask,
you/we/they were to ask,*

*I/we would/should, etc
he/she/it/you/they would, etc*

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 *I/he/she/it* and makes a suggestion sound more tentative and polite. Compare:

If I asked him, *I'm sure he'd help us*

- *Do you think he would?*

Well 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

'if-clause: past perfect imagined condition be have: Past perfect. Past perfect progressive. could have an accident	main clause: 'would have/should have' imagined outcome
	<i>If I had been taller</i> <i>I would have joined the police force</i>
	<i>If I had had any sense,</i> <i>I would have kept quiet about it</i>
	<i>If we had gone by car,</i> <i>we would have saved time</i>
	<i>If I had been trying harder I would have succeeded</i>
	<i>If I could have stopped</i> <i>there wouldn't have been</i>

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*

14 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'

'if'-clause: past perfect tense imagined condition	main clause: modal [> 11.1] imagined outcome
<i>If he had known the facts</i>	<i>he could have told us what to do</i>
<i>If he could have got the facts</i>	<i>might</i>

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

imagined condition	imagined outcome
<i>If he had been here yesterday</i>	<i>he could have told us</i> (ability)
<i>If he had been here yesterday</i>	<i>he might have told us</i> (possibility)
<i>If he had received a present</i>	<i>he should have thanked her</i> (duty)

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

14.20.4 '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*

or: *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:

If 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/you 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

actual spoken statement <i>'I'm waiting'</i>	direct statement in writing <i>'I'm waiting,' John said</i>
actual spoken question <i>'When did you arrive, John?'</i>	direct question in writing <i>'When did you arrive, John?' Mary asked</i>

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'

When the subject + reporting verb comes after what is said, the quotation has a comma before the second quotation mark:

'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

Subject + verb can come in the middle of a quotation-sentence:

'Where in this wretched town' John asked 'can I get a taxi?'

The second part of the quotation does not begin with a capital letter because it is not a separate sentence.

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!"

'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 (verb + 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 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 it, 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 *tell/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 [> 15.20n.3],
- *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 [> 15.20n.3],
- *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'* [> 12.8n.3] 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

— *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

15.13 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:

*I **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) I'd send her a card (reported by Ann)

Some typical pronoun changes are:

<i>I</i>	<i>he/she</i>	<i>me/you</i>	<i>him/her</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>his/her</i>
<i>we</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>their</i>
<i>mine</i>	<i>his/hers</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>myself</i>	<i>himself/herself</i>

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:

time:	<i>now</i>	<i>immediately/then</i>
	<i>two days ago</i>	<i>two days before/earlier</i>
	<i>today</i>	<i>that day</i>
	<i>tonight</i>	<i>that night</i>
	<i>tomorrow</i>	<i>the next/the following day</i>
	<i>yesterday</i>	<i>the previous day/the day before</i>
	<i>last night</i>	<i>the night before</i>
place:	<i>here</i>	<i>there</i> when what is referred to is clear
	<i>this place</i>	<i>that place</i>
	<i>these places</i>	<i>those places</i>
verbs:	<i>come/bring</i>	<i>go/take</i>

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:

*'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 [> 11.8.4]

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*:

*'We **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 [> 14.2]

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

actual spoken statement

I've read Tony's book and I don't understand it'

indirect statements with mixed tense sequences

Jim says he's read Tony's book and didn't understand it

Jim said he's read Tony's book and doesn't understand it

Jim said he'd read Tony's book and doesn't understand it

Jim said he d read Tony's book and didn't understand it

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:

actual spoken questions

Indirect questions

be: 'Are you ready?' *He asked (me) if/whether I am/was ready*

have: 'Have you finished?' *He asked (me) if/whether I (have)/had finished*

do 'Do you play chess?' *He asked (me) if/whether I play/played chess*

modals: 'Can I have it?' *He asked (me) if/whether he can/could have it*

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?'

'You don't play chess, do you?'

'You play chess, don't you?' etc.

He asked me if/whether

I played chess

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?

What did she ask you?

- *That she would be late*

- *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')

- 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

ie rules about tense sequences [> 9.5, 15.10, 15.12-16] also apply to questions¹

	actual spoken questions	indirect questions
be	<i>Where are you going?</i>	<i>He asked (me) where I was going</i>
have.	<i>Why haven't you finished?</i>	<i>He wanted to know why I (haven't)/hadn't finished</i>
do.	<i>'What do you think of it?'</i>	<i>He wanted to know what I (think/thought of it</i>
modals	<i>'When must I be there?'</i>	<i>He asked (me) when he must be/had to be there</i>

15.20 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?***
 (*Wh-* + inversion)
indirect question: *He asked (us) **where we were going***
 (*Wh-* + subject + verb)
- 2 Word order: *do*, *does* and *did* [compare > 15.18n.3]
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

	actual spoken questions	indirect questions
be:	'Who is in charge here?'	He asked (me) who was in charge there
present:	'Which firm makes these parts?'	He asked (me) which firm (makes) made those parts
past:	'What caused the accident?'	He asked (me) what caused/had caused the accident
modals:	'Whose novel will win the prize?'	He asked (me) whose novel would win the prize

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

actual spoken words	reported version
'Keep a record of your expenses'	I told him to keep a record of his expenses
'Don't make a mess in the kitchen'	I told him not to make a mess in the kitchen
'How do I prepare the sauce?'	He wanted to know how to prepare the sauce
I want to speak to the manager	She asked to speak to the manager

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 ask 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
tell: I told him to keep a record of his expenses
Remember to switch off all the lights she said
remind: 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?*

indirect 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:

direct request: *How shall I prepare the sauce?*

indirect request: *He wanted to know how he should prepare it*

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

'Really⁹' Jennifer exclaimed

Jennifer was amazed when Tom told her that she had won a lottery.

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]

	active	passive
present infinitive:	(to) ask	(to) be asked
present progressive infinitive:	(to) be asking	
perfect or past infinitive:	(to) have asked	(to) have been asked
perfect/past progressive infinitive:	(to) have been asking	

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.

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 be 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*

Help + the passive infinitive is possible, though rare:

*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's⁹*

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

general way; *-ing* functions as the object of the verb [> 16.40.3]:

*We could **hear shouting** in the distance*

*People can stand on this platform and **watch building** in progress*

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:

*I **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:

*I **watched 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:

*I **heard someone unlock the door/unlocking** the door.*

But we do not use the *-ing* form for very short actions. Compare:

*I **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:

*I **saw him being taken away** by the police*

The past participle can sometimes follow the object directly:

*I **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.

*I 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/so 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/so as to learn French***
*She was sent to England **to/in order to/so 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/so 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** (= | went)

/ **was sorry not to go** (= | didn't go)

*It **wasn't a surprise to hear** from him* (| heard from him)

*It **was a surprise not to hear** from him.* (| 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 phrase 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 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* [> App46.1]. (*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 implore 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

Advise, 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 *too that but* 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 *I* 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 [> 7.16.2]:

***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)hkely 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

16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

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-infinitives, *too* often combines negative ideas:

He isn't strong He can't lift it. → 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 → 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 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

16.35 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

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:

<i>I like</i>	<i>coffee</i>	<i>John likes</i>	<i>planes</i>
	<i>swimming</i>		<i>flying</i>
			<i>flying planes</i>

The **participle** can take the place of an adjective [> 6.2, 6.14]:

<i>This is a</i>	<i>wide</i>	<i>stream</i>
	<i>running</i>	

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

- and 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)

I love the sight of running water (water which is running: adjective)

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 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

I enjoy dancing He doesn't like not being taken seriously
I 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's 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 involve(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.

16.45.1 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]: *I 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

Prepositions + '-ing' form

'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 Wind-surfing 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: *a 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 *'I 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. *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 -ing form?

16.55 The '-ing' form after verb + particle [> Apps 32-33]

An adverb particle may be followed by the *-ing* form
*Everyone **burst out laughing** I've given up **smoking***

We can use a possessive before a gerund
*We'll have to **put off their coming** by another week*

We cannot use a possessive before a participle
*We'll have to **put them off coming***
(= They are coming. We'll have to put them off)

16.56 The '-ing' form after 'to' as a preposition

To is either a preposition or a part of the infinitive. It is part of the infinitive in *I want to go home* but a preposition governing a noun/gerund in *I object to noise* / *I object to smoking*. In the following expressions *to* is a preposition so we may use the *-ing* form after it: *accustom (oneself) to be accustomed to* / *face up to* / *in addition to* / *look forward to* / *object to be reduced to* / *resign oneself to be resigned to* / *resort to* / *sink to be used to*

*I **object to being** kept waiting. I'm used to **doing** the shopping.*

Accusative and possessive forms are possible

*I **object to people/him/his smoking** in restaurants.*

Some nouns and adjectives can also be followed by *to* + *-ing*: e.g. *alternative to* / *close/closeness to* / *dedication/dedicated to* / *opposition/opposed to* / *similarity/similar to*

The to-infinitive or the '-ing' form?

16.57 Verb + to-infinitive or '-ing': no change in meaning

Some verbs can be followed by a to-infinitive or by *-ing*. Sometimes there is little or no change in meaning, sometimes there is

These verbs can be followed by a to-infinitive or *-ing* without any change in meaning: *attempt* / *begin* / *can't bear* / *cease* / *commence* / *continue* / *intend* / *omit* and *start*

*I **can't bear to see/seeing** people suffering.*

After *can't bear* the accusative can be used before the infinitive; the accusative or possessive can be used before the *-ing* form

*I **can't bear you to shout** in that way.*

*I **can't bear you/your shouting** in that way.*

We do not normally use the *ing* form after the progressive forms of *begin* / *cease* / *continue* or *start*. This is because the repetition of the two *-ing* forms sounds awkward

*He **was beginning to recover** when he had another attack.*

However we can use *-ing* after the progressive forms of verbs which cannot be followed by a to-infinitive [> 16.42]

*We **were considering catching** an earlier train.*

Stative verbs like *know* and *understand* cannot normally be used with an *-ing* form after *begin* / *cease* and *continue*

*I soon **began to understand** what was happening.*

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:

acceptable examples

1a / **love/like to watch TV.**

b / **love/like watching TV**

2a / **hate to disturb you**

b / **hate disturbing you**

3a / **dread to think what has happened to him**

b / **dread going to the dentist**

4a / **prefer to wait here**

b / **prefer waiting here**

c / **prefer swimming to cycling.**

5a **Would you like to eat out?**

b **I'd like to. I'd love to.**

c **I'd love sailing if I could afford it**

d **I'd hate to disturb him if he's busy**

e **You'd hate to live on a desert island**

6a / **wouldn't like you to think I'd forgotten you**

b / **like him/his playing the guitar**

comment

Same (general) meaning,

(but I am just about to do so), (= I'm disturbing you and I'm sorry) or general use.

(so I dare not try to). **I dread*

thinking" is unacceptable,

(= whenever I go, I'm terrified).

I dread to go is unacceptable.

(so I'll wait here if you don't mind),

(= I'm waiting here and I prefer doing that).

Not the infinitive here.

Not the gerund here,

Or. I'd like it. I'd love it.

I'd love to sail if I

could afford it Also acceptable,

I'd hate disturbing him if...

is doubtful,

You'd hate living on a desert island is also acceptable.

I wouldn't like you thinking...

is doubtful,

I like him to play the

guitar is also acceptable.

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 + to-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)

I 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 fo-infinitive or the '-ing' form⁷

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].

adjective + 'to-'	adjective + preposition
<i>interested to (do/be)</i>	<i>interested in (doing/being)</i>
<i>sorry to (disturb)</i>	<i>sorry for (disturbing)</i>
noun + 'to-'	noun + preposition
<i>chance to (meet)</i>	<i>chance of (meeting)</i>
<i>opportunity to (buy)</i>	<i>opportunity of (buying)</i>

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 |> 1.9,1.10,112,4.16.2]

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 (lied), lie (lay/lam), occur, pause, rain (it), 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: postage, **-al:** arrival, **-ance:** acceptance, **-ence:** existence, **-ery:** discovery, **-ion** possession, **-ment:** agreement, **-sion,:** decision, extension, **-Won:** attention

And note the **-ing** form *running*, etc |> 16 39 1]

2.4 Nouns related to adjectives: e g

-ance/ence: abundance absence, **-ancy/-ency:** 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, **-ism:** sexism

2.6 Nouns used to mean 'small': e g

-en: kitten, **-ette:** maisonette, **-ie:** laddie, **-let:** booklet, **-ling:** duckling, **-y:** dolly

Appendix 3 |> 2.3]

3.1 Nouns/verbs distinguished by stress:

¹ abstract/ab'stract	¹ impnnt/im'print
'conduct/con'duct	'permit/per' mjt
'contest/con'test	'produce/pro' duce
¹ desert/de'sert	'rebel/re'bel
¹ dispute/dis'pute	'record/re'cord

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, clothing, coal, conduct, cookery, countryside courage, crockery, cutlery, damage, dancing, 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, lightning, 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/soap, a block of cement, a book of matches/stamps, 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 coffee, 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 species of insect, a type of drug, a variety of pasta

5.8 Partitives: 'a pair of': e g

boots, braces, glasses, knickers, pants, pliers, 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*

People *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

That 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 is often used to clarify

I'll arrive on the 2nd, that is, on Friday

7.13 'This'/that + 'wh-l-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 kinds (or *sorts*) of films

However, in everyday speech we often hear

I enjoy these/those kind (or *sort*) of films

We cannot use *these* and (*those* after *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 intensifiers [> 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 Let's get a taxi!

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)

changeable, **-ible** (like **-able**) possible, **-ful** (full of, having) beautiful, **-ful/-less**: careful - careless, **-(a)n** (historical period, etc.)

Victorian, **-ish** (have the - sometimes bad - quality) foolish, (colour) reddish, (age) thirtyish, **-ive** (capable of being or doing this)

attractive, **-less** (without) lifeless, **-like** (resembling) businesslike, **-ly** (have this quality) friendly, (how often) hourly Others

-al: mechanical, **-ant**: hesitant, **-ar**: circular,

-ary: visionary, **-ate**: affectionate, **-ent**:

sufficient, **-eous**: gorgeous, **-esque**:

picturesque, **-ic**: energetic, **-ic/-ical**: economic

- economical, **-ious**: glorious, **-ist**: sexist, **-ory**:

sensory, **-ous**: humorous, **-some**: fearsome

8.2 Adjectives formed with prefixes: e.g.

dis-: dishonest, **il-**: illegal, **im-**: impossible, **in-**:

indifferent, **ir-**: irresponsible, **non-**: non-stick,

on-: unthinkable Others **a-**: 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]

The¹ + adjective, e.g. 'the young'

9.1 The group as a whole': e.g.

the aged, the blind, the dead, 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]

Some more '-ed/-fng' adjectival participles:

alarmed/alariming, amused/amusing, appalled/appalling, astonished/astounding, bewildered/bewildering, confused/confusing, depressed/depressing, disgusted/disgusting, distressed/distressing, embarrassed/embarrassing, exhausted/exhausting, frightened/frightening, horrified/horrifying, irritated/irritating, moved/moving, relaxed/relaxing, satisfied/satisfying, shocked/shocking, surprised/surprising, terrified/terrifying, worried/worrying

Appendix 11 [>6.19]

Common adjectives easily confused

11.1 'Fat/thin': people/animals

a fat/thin man, a fat/thin woman a fat/thin cat

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** *a tall building/mountain/tree, a small building/mountain/tree*

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, walk, 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/young¹: 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

11.12 'Large/big/great': people or things

Large and **big** generally refer to size
a large/big man or woman, a large/big box
Great generally refers to importance
a great man, a great cathedral, a great idea

11.13 'Small/little'

Small is the opposite of **large/big**, **small** is gradable and is attributive/predicative
a small boy, a small house (attributive)
My house is very small (predicative)

Little is usually attributive and can replace **small** in many contexts (*a little boy, a little house*), it is also a quantifier (*a little sugar* = a small amount of) **Little** is used particularly to express love, pity, etc. *your sweet little baby*

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/nearly well

How's Bob?' - He's still ill - much worse

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/eldest'; 'older/oldest'

Elder and **eldest** are used (attributive only) with reference to people in a family, **elder** is therefore never followed by **than**

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

The elder is possible in e.g. *I'm the elder*

12.4 'Old/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 safe as houses

Appendix 14 [> 6.6,7.3.2,7.5,7.13]

Adjectives and adverbs with the same form
The adjectival use is given first

airmail:	<i>airmail letter, send it airmail</i>
all day:	<i>an all day match, play all day</i>
all right:	<i>I'm all right, you've done all right</i>
best:	<i>best clothes, do your best</i>
better:	<i>a better book speak better</i>
big:	<i>a big house, talk big</i>
cheap:	<i>a cheap suit buy it cheap</i>
clean:	<i>clean air cut it clean</i>
clear:	<i>a clear sky, stand clear</i>
close:	<i>the shops are close, stay close</i>
cold:	<i>a cold person, run cold</i>
daily:	<i>a daily paper, they deliver daily</i>
dead:	<i>a dead stop, stop dead</i>
dear:	<i>a dear bouquet, sell it dear</i>
deep:	<i>a deep hole, drink deep</i>
direct:	<i>a direct train go direct</i>
dirty:	<i>dirty weather, play dirty</i>
downtown:	<i>a downtown restaurant (AmE)</i>
duty-free:	<i>a duty-free shop, buy it duty-free</i>
early:	<i>an early train, arrive early</i>
easy:	<i>an easy book, go easy</i>
everyday:	<i>my everyday suit, work every day</i>
extra:	<i>an extra blanket, charge extra</i>
fair:	<i>a fair decision, play fair</i>
far:	<i>a far country, go far</i>
farther:	<i>on the farther side, walk farther</i>
fast:	<i>a fast driver, drive fast</i>
fine:	<i>a fine pencil cut it fine</i>
firm:	<i>a firm belief hold firm</i>
first:	<i>the first guest, first I'll wash</i>
free:	<i>a free ticket, travel free</i>
further:	<i>further questions, walk further</i>
hard:	<i>a hard worker, work hard</i>
high:	<i>a high note, aim high</i>
home:	<i>home cooking, go home</i>
hourly:	<i>hourly bulletin phone hourly</i>
inside:	<i>the inside story, stay inside</i>
kindly:	<i>a kindly man act kindly</i>
last:	<i>the last guest, come last</i>
late:	<i>a late train, arrive late</i>
long:	<i>long hair don't stay long</i>
loud:	<i>a loud noise talk loud</i>
low:	<i>a low bridge, aim low</i>
monthly:	<i>a monthly bill, pay monthly</i>
outside:	<i>an outside lavatory wait outside</i>
overseas:	<i>overseas travel, travel overseas</i>
past:	<i>the past week, walk past</i>
quick:	<i>a quick worker, come quick</i>
quiet:	<i>a quiet evening sit quiet</i>
right:	<i>the right answer answer right</i>
sharp:	<i>sharp eyes, look sharp</i>
slow:	<i>a slow train, go slow</i>
straight:	<i>a straight line think straight</i>
sure:	<i>I'm sure Sure, I'll do it (AmE)</i>
thin/thick:	<i>a thin/thick slice, cut it thin/thick</i>
through:	<i>a through train, go through</i>
tight:	<i>a tight fit sit tight</i>
weekly:	<i>weekly pay, pay weekly</i>
well:	<i>I am well, do well</i>
wide:	<i>a wide room, open wide</i>
worse:	<i>worse marks, do worse than</i>
wrong:	<i>a wrong guess, answer wrong</i>
yearly:	<i>a yearly visit go there yearly</i>

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 clear/clearly close/closely, dear/dearly, fair/fairly fine/finely firm/firmly, first/firstly, loud/loudly quick/quickly, quiet/quietly, slow/slowly thin/thinly

15.2 Two forms used in different ways: e.g

deep/deeply:	<i>drink deep, deeply regret</i>
direct/directly:	<i>go direct, I'll come directly</i>
easy/easily:	<i>go easy, win easily</i>
flat/flatly:	<i>fall flat, flatly refuse</i>
free/freely:	<i>travel free, freely admit</i>
full/fully:	<i>full in the face, fully realize</i>
hard/hardly:	<i>work hard, hardly any food</i>
high/highly:	<i>aim high, think highly of you</i>
just/justly:	<i>just finished, deal justly with</i>
last/lastly:	<i>arrive last, lastly, I think</i>
late/lately:	<i>arrive late, lately I've seen</i>
near/nearly:	<i>go near, nearly finished</i>
pretty/prettily:	<i>sit pretty, smile prettily</i>
real/really:	<i>real glad (AmE) I really like</i>
rough/roughly:	<i>sleep rough, roughly twenty</i>
sharp/sharply:	<i>10 am sharp speak sharply</i>
short/shortly:	<i>stop short, see you shortly</i>
strong/strongly:	<i>going strong, strongly feel</i>
sure/surely:	<i>I sure am late (AmE), surely</i>
wide/widely:	<i>open wide widely believed</i>

Appendix 16 [7.53]**Some '-ly' intensifiers: typical combinations**

*absolutely delicious, I absolutely love peaches
amazingly good at , amazingly well
awfully nice, do something awfully well
badly mistaken, I badly want
beautifully simple, beautifully organized
bitterly cold bitterly disappointed
brilliantly clever, brilliantly designed
completely successful, completely finished
considerably better considerably cheaper
cruelly disappointed, cruelly afflicted
dangerously ill, dangerously wounded
dearly loved, I'd dearly like to
deeply sorry, deeply hurt
definitely mistaken I'm definitely leaving
dreadfully late dreadfully annoyed
entirely irresponsible, I entirely agree
(e)specially nice, I (e)specially enjoyed
exceedingly good, do it exceedingly badly
extremely interesting, extremely surprised
fearfully boring, fearfully confused
fully satisfied, I fully appreciate
gravely ill gravely worried
greatly impressed, I greatly appreciate
hideously ugly, hideously expensive
highly intelligent, I highly disapprove
hopelessly badly, hopelessly confused
horribly painful, horribly wounded
immensely rich, I was immensely pleased
incredibly beautiful, incredibly surprised
intensely cold, intensely concerned
keenly competitive, keenly interested*

Appendix 17-19

*largely compatible, largely altered
lightly salted, lightly cooked
literally amazing, he literally believes
madly exciting, they clapped madly
mortally ill, mortally offended
outstandingly good/well/original
painfully shy, painfully embarrassed
particularly clever, I particularly enjoyed
perfectly sweet, I perfectly understand
pleasantly agreeable, pleasantly surprised
richly deserved, richly rewarded
seriously upset, seriously depressed
severely ill, severely criticized
sharply accurate, sharply critical
simply wonderful, I simply love
strikingly attractive, strikingly obvious
superbly fit, superbly cooked
terribly rude, drive terribly fast
thoroughly ted-up, I thoroughly enjoyed
totally idiotic, I totally agree
utterly stupid, I utterly agree
violently ill, violently opposed to
wonderfully clever, do it wonderfully well*

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/the facts':

*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, funnily
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, unwisely, wisely*

Appendix 18 [> 1.17,7.58]

Connecting words and phrases

18.1 Enumerating/stressing facts: e g

*above all, chiefly, (e)specially, finally, first(ly)/
secondly), in the first place, last(ly), 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, aside 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, for instance, namely, such as*

18.5 Making a comparison or a contrast:

*as compared to, by/in comparison with,
conversely, equally, however, in contrast,
in reality, in the same way, likewise*

18.6 Making a concession: e g

*admittedly, 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*

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, on account of
this, owing to this, so, therefore, thus*

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

*as far as is concerned, as for, as regards, as
to that, by the by, by the way, coincidentally,
funnily enough, incidentally, in passing, to
return to, Well, with reference to*

Appendix 19 [> 7.59.3]

Some negative adverbs/adverb phrases

*barely, hardly when, hardly ever, least of all,
little, never, never again, never before, at no
time, by no means, in/under no circumstances,
in no way, on no account, on no condition, no
sooner than, neither nor, not a, not
only but, not until/till, 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 when, 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 down, '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, until, up, upon, "via, with, within, without, "worth*

20.2 Single-word prepositions with '-ing':

barring, concerning, considering, excepting, excluding including, regarding

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 at He's been at)

21.1 Social/business activities:

a concert, a conference, a dance, a dinner (formal), a funeral, a meeting, a wedding

21.2 Public places/buildings:

the airport London Airport, the station, Waterloo Station, the bus station, the bus stop, 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

22A 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, pnsion

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 it is '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 library, 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 pnsion (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]

months	seasons
January	Jan (the) Spring or spring
February	Feb (the) Summer or summer
March	Mar (the) Autumn or autumn
April	Apr (or AmE (the) fall)
May	- (the) Winter or winter
June	
July	
August	Aug
September	Sept
October	Oct
November	Nov
December	Dec

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 Pirn, 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 at nine 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 a line (e.g. *a road, a river, a frontier* etc.) 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 over/across the road without looking (i.e. not to cross)

There's 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 over the fields

We skated over the frozen lake

Across must also be used when we are referring to movement through water

Erna Hart swam across the Channel

Across cannot be used when we wish to express 'go up and come down again' (from one side of something high to the other)

They escaped by climbing over the wall

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

Water flows through this pipe

- 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 *and then* 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

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/around

- are used to mean 'approximately'

The telex 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

25.7 'at' [for time phrases > App 47 5]

At commonly follows

- adjectives associated with skill
good/bad/clever/better/worse at
I'm not very good at figures
- a few nouns associated with skill
a dunce at, a genius at
I'm a dunce at arithmetic
- 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 taking aim

He threw the ball against the wall

We fought against the enemy

- adjectives which indicate a reaction to circumstances, events, etc *amazed, 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 early (Not "return back")

Back can also be used in the sense of 'ago'

I saw him four years back/ago.

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 **Between** (or **Among**) them they got £800*

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 (for)' and 'except (for)'

But for introduces a condition [> 14. 22]

*We would have been able to get here on time **but for the heavy snow***

Except for means 'with the exception of'

*Everyone has helped **except for you***

But and **except** are used without *for* to mean 'with 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*

***Except/But for 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?*

For **but** and **except** as conjunctions [> 8 4 4]

25.15 'by', 'near' and 'on'

These words can be used to mean '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 far from 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 2 1]

*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 Milligan 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-(up)on-A von

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]

*Our dog was **hit by a bus***

By (often + -ing) can refer to 'method'

*You can lock 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/day/week***

*You can only buy eggs singly, not **by the pound***

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***

Though **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. There is no suggestion of 'at a lower level' in this use

*We live **down the street***

Under conveys the idea of 'being covered'

*Let's sit **under this tree***

*There are a lot of minerals **under the sea***

Over can have the meaning 'covering'

*Keep this blanket **over you***

25.19 'due to' and 'owing to'

Some grammars draw a distinction between these two prepositions on the grounds that **due**

is an adjective and must therefore be associated with a noun + *be*. It can be replaced by **caused by**

*Our **delay** (noun) was **due to/caused by** heavy traffic*

Owing to is associated with a verb. It can be replaced by **because of**

*The broadcast was **cancelled** (verb) **owing to/because of the strike***

In practice, this distinction is ignored by many educated speakers who use **due to** in the same way as **owing to** or **because of**

*He lost his job **due to/owing to/because of a change in management***

25.20 'for' [> 7.32 16.40.9]

Common uses:

- purpose *The best man for the job*
- + -ing *I need this for sewing*
- destination *This is the train for York*
- recipient *Here's a gift for you*
I've got news for you
I did it for the money
- duration *He's been away for days*
- exchange *I bought it for £5*
- meaning *What's French for 'cat'?*
- (= as) *I did it for a joke*
- (= instead of) *Ill do it for you* [> 1 13 3]
- (= in favour of) *Are you in favour of this?*
- res, *I'm all for it*
The opposite is *against*
I'm against the idea
- intention *Let's go for a swim*
(After go and come for is not followed by -ing)
- specific time reference (not 'period of time')
I'll order a taxi for 11
- for and to For is not used in (rant of a to-infinitive, but can be followed by a gerund to express purpose or reason
I used this tool to drill a hole
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*
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 conveys the same idea less formally
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
ll you don't want a holiday in Wales why don't you go to Scotland instead?

We use *instead of* + noun, pronoun or ing
We eat margarine instead of butter
Why can't Marion drive you into town instead of me?

Instead of meaning 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 Frys

(= 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

I work as a hotel receptionist

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/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 e as I told you)

She's spending money like there was no

tomorrow (i e 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

*This sauce is **made with fresh cream***

These prepositions can follow the past participles of other verbs, e.g. *built/constructed of/out of/from/with* and occur in expressions such as *paved with tiles, loaded with hay* etc

25.27 'of and off'

Of/off are not interchangeable, but their similar spellings cause confusion. **Of** never occurs as a particle, **off** is both preposition and particle

Of

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 *I/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***

25.31 'out of', 'outside', 'out' [> 8.4.3, 8.9.6]

Out of is the opposite of **into** when we are describing movement

*We ran **out of** the burning building*

Compare

*We got **into** the car in a hurry*

Out of is the opposite of **in** when there is no movement involved

*Mr Ray is **out of** the office (= He is not in)*

*Mr Ray is **in** his office (= He is not out)*

Out is sometimes used informally as a preposition

*Don't throw your bus ticket **out** the window*
(= out of the window)

Outside can sometimes replace **out of** to describe movement

*We ran **outside** the burning building*

But, without further information, this can also be taken to mean that we were already outside it when we began to run

Inside and **into** stand in the same relationship

*We ran **inside** the burning building.*

can also be taken to mean we were already inside it when we began to run

Without movement **outside** cannot replace **out of**

*He is **outside** his office*

means 'he is (standing) immediately outside it'

*He is **out of** his office*

means 'he is not here, he is somewhere else'

Outside and **inside** can be used as adverbs **into** and **out of** can only be used as prepositions [> 8.9.5-6]

*He is **inside/outside***

*We rushed **inside/outside***

It is always safer to use **into** and **out of** as prepositions rather than **outside** and **inside** to mean 'from one place to another'

In/out can be used as adverbs [> App 25.22]

He's **in/out**

25.32 'over', 'above', 'on top of'

Over can have the sense of 'covering' (and sometimes 'touching'), and its opposite is **under** (= covered by)

Above stresses the idea of 'at a higher level' (i.e. not touching)

*Keep the blankets **over** you*

*I can't sleep with a light **on above** my head*

On top of generally suggests 'touching'

*Don't put anything **on top of** the TV please*

For **across** and **over** [> App 25.3]

Above and **over** can often be used interchangeably with verbs of movement

*I'd like to fly **above/over** the Amazon*

Over and **above** can be used interchangeably in the sense of 'vertically at a higher level'

*The helicopter was **over/above** the lifeboat*

*My bedroom is **over/above** the kitchen*

However, they are *not interchangeable* when all we are concerned with is 'a higher level'

(not *vertically* at a higher level) If for example we were referring to two cats on a tree we would say that A was **above** B, not **over** it. In general terms **over** and **under** indicate vertical relationships, while **above** and **below** refer simply to levels

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' [> 8.9]

When *to* is associated with the infinitive it is not a preposition / *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 Y* 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/under/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 went to the zoo **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*

25.37 'with', 'without', 'in', 'of'

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 (he) 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 [> 7.11,8.17]

Some prepositional phrases

26.1 Some phrases with 'at'

at + meals (<i>lunch</i> , etc)	at length
at + place [> Apps 21.23]	at a loss
at + points of time [> 8.11]	at the moment
at all events	at most
at all times	at once
at any rate	at pains
at best/worst	at peace/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 hand
by + time [> 7.34]	by heart
by + weight	by land/sea/air
by accident	by luck
by air	by marriage
by all means	by means of
by any/no means	by mistake
by birth	by name
by chance	by post
by cheque/credit card	by night(s)
by day/by 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/the best	from bad to worse
for a change	from the first
for ever	from good to bad
for once	from the heart
for sale	from now on
for a walk, etc [> 10 13 4]	from then on

26.4 Some phrases with 'in'

in + place [> App 22-23]	in the end
in + time [> 8.13-14]	in fact
in action	in full
in addition	in general
in all	in half/in halves
in any case, in any event	in a hurry
in brief	in ink/in 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 holiday
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	to advantage
past care	to a great extent
past control	to hand
past hope	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
(not) up to much	within reach
up to no good	without bothering
up to one's ears	without ceremony
up to (you)	without delay
with regard to	without a doubt
with respect to	without exception
with the exception of	without fail
within one's income	without prejudice

**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 sby/stg	fear of sby/stg
amazed at/by sby/stg	amazement at
angry at/about stg	anger at/about stg
angry with sby	anger with sby
annoyed at/about	annoyance at/abt
annoyed with sby	annoyance with
anxious about/over sby/stg	anxiety about/over
ashamed of sby/stg	shame at stg
aware of sby/stg	awareness of
awful at (doing) stg	
bad at (doing) stg	
bored by/with sby/stg	boredom with
busy at or with stg	
capable of (doing) stg	capability for
careful of/with sby/stg	carefulness with
careless of danger	carelessness of
certain of/about facts	certainly of/about
clever at (doing) stg	cleverness at/in
content with stg	contentment with
contrary to advice	
curious about sby/stg	curiosity about stg
different from/to sby/stg	difference from/to
eager for stg	eagerness for stg
easy{- not worried} about -	
excited about/at/by/over	excitement abt/at
faithful to sby/stg	faithfulness to
famous for (doing) stg	fame as
fond of sby/stg	fondness for
free from danger	freedom from
free of charge	freedom of speech
full of stg	
glad about stg	gladness about
good/no good at (doing) stg-	
good with one's hands	
grateful to sby for stg	gratitude to/for
happy about/at/over/with	happiness at/over
interested in/by sby/stg	interest in sby/stg
jealous of sby/stg	jealousy of sby/stg
keen on (doing) stg	keenness on
kind to sby	kindness to sby
late for work	lateness for work
married to sby	marriage to sby
nervous of sby/stg	nervousness about
obliged to sby/stg	obligation to
pleased about/with sby/stg	pleasure about
ready for sby/stg	readiness for stg
right about sby/stg	
sad about sby/stg	sadness about
safe from stg/for sby	safety from stg
satisfied with sby/stg	satisfaction with
separate from stg	separation from
slow at (doing) stg	slowness at
sorry about/for (doing) stg	sorrow for (doing)
sorry for sby	
surprised about/at/by	surprise about/at
terrible at (doing) stg	
thankful to sby for stg	thankfulness to/for
worried about sby/stg	worry about/over
wrong about sby/stg	

**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 *sby* = somebody, *stg* = something

verb	noun
'advise against doing stg	advice against
agree about stg	agreement about
'agree to a proposal	agreement to
agree with sby	agreement with
aim at/for a target	aim at/for
apologize to sby for stg	apology to sby
'apply to sby for stg	application to
"approve of sby/stg	approval of
arrive at/in [> 8.9.3]	arrival at/in
"ask for sby/stg	
become of sby	
begin with stg/by doing	
believe in sby/stg	belief in sby/stg
belong to sby/stg	
"borrow from sby	
choose between	choice between
confess to sby/to stg	confession to
"deal with sby/a problem	
'depend on sby/stg	dependence on
differ from sby/stg	difference from/to
dream about/of (doing)	dream of
emerge from a place	emergence from
fail in an exam	failure in
"guess at the truth	guess at
identify with sby	identification with
insist on (doing) stg	insistence on
knock at the door	knock at
'know of/about	knowledge of
'laugh at/about sby/stg	laughter at stg
'listen to sby/stg	
'look after sby/stg	
"look at sby/stg	
look for sby/stg	
meet with sby (AmE)	meeting with
"object to sby/stg	objection to
"pay for sby/stg	pay(ment) for
quarrel with sby/about stg	quarrel with/about
"read about stg	
reason with sby	
'refer to sby/stg	reference to
'rely on sby/stg	reliance on
"reply to sby	reply to sby
"report on sby/stg to sby	report on
resign from a job	resignation from
retire from one's job	retirement from
'search for sby/stg	search for
(it) smell of stg	smell of stg
succeed in (doing) stg	success in (doing)
suffer from an illness	
"talk to sby about stg	talk to sby about
(it) taste of stg	taste of stg
trade with sby/in stg	trade in stg
trust in sby/stg	trust in sby/stg
'vote for/against sby/stg	vote for/against
wait for sby/stg	(long) wait for
"wish for	wish for
'write to sby/about stg	

Appendix 29 [> 1.9, 4.29,8.20, 8.27, 16.53-54]**Type 1** [8.27.3]. Verb + object + preposition transitive (non-idiomatic)**Related nouns + most common prepositions**

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	noun
absent <i>oneself</i> from work	absence from
accuse <i>sby</i> of stg	accusation of
adapt stg to stg	adaptation to
add stg to	addition to stg
admire <i>sby</i> for stg	admiration for
advise <i>sby</i> about stg	advice to/about
appoint <i>sby</i> as/to a post	appointment as/to
arrange stg for <i>sby</i>	arrangement for
assess stg at a price	assessment of/at
associate <i>sby/stg</i> with	association with
attach stg to stg	attachment to
betray a secret to <i>sby</i>	betrayal of
blame <i>sby</i> for stg	blame for stg
charge stg to my account	charge to
charge <i>sby</i> with a crime	charge against
claim stg from <i>sby</i>	claim to stg
combine stg with stg	combination of/with
compare <i>sby/stg</i> with	comparison with
compensate <i>sby</i> for stg	compensation for
congratulate <i>sby</i> on stg	congratulations on
connect <i>sby</i> with stg	connexion with
convert <i>sby</i> to stg	conversion to
defend <i>sby</i> from stg	defence against
describe stg to <i>sby</i>	description of
discuss stg with <i>sby</i>	discussion with
divide a number	division by
excuse <i>sby</i> for stg	excuse for stg
explain stg to <i>sby</i>	explanation of
forgive <i>sby</i> for stg	forgiveness of/for
hide stg from <i>sby</i>	
identify stg with/as stg	identification with
include stg in stg else	inclusion of stg in
inform <i>sby</i> of/about stg	information about
insure <i>sby</i> against stg	insurance against
interest <i>sby</i> in stg	interest in stg
invest money in stg	investment in
lend stg to <i>sby</i>	loan to <i>sby</i>
neglect <i>sby/stg</i> for <i>sby/stg</i>	neglect of
refer <i>sby/stg</i> to <i>sby</i>	reference to
remind <i>sby</i> of <i>sby/stg</i>	reminder of stg
repeat stg to <i>sby</i>	repetition of stg
reserve stg for <i>sby</i>	reservation for
return stg to <i>sby</i>	return of stg to
rob <i>sby</i> of stg	robbery of
search <i>sby</i> for stg	search for stg
share stg with <i>sby</i>	share of/with
steal stg from <i>sby</i>	(theft) off/from
stop <i>sby</i> from doing stg	
tell <i>sby</i> about stg	
translate stg from/into	translation into
turn stg into stg else	
use stg for stg else	use of stg for

Appendix 30 [> 1.9,8.27,16.54]**Type 1** [8.27.4]: Verb + preposition transitive (idiomatic)

Verbs marked * can go into the passive

eggs *don't agree with me* (= have a bad effect)

you *answer to him* (= explain yourself)

appear for me in court (= represent)

you're *asking for trouble* (= seeking/inviting it)

you can't *bank on his help* (= rely on)

*I *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 for me* at 6 (= come and collect)

can I *call on you tomorrow*? (= visit you)

I *came across this old book* (= found it)

he *came at me with a knife* (= attacked)

'where did you *come by this*? (= obtain)

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)

I 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)

I won't *fall for that trick* (= be deceived by it)

he *fell on his food* (= ate it greedily)

she's *finished with him* (= parted from)

she *flew into a rage* (= became very angry)

I *gather from John that* (= 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)

It *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/got this idea)

"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/a noise*

"someone **landed me into trouble**
 "I **we been landed with this** (= given a bad task)
 please **lay off him** (= stop attacking him)
 'leave it **to me** (= give me the responsibility)
 'leave him **to it** (= let him get on with it)
 he **lives on fruit** (i e that s what he eats)
 he **lives with her** (i e but is not married to her)
 "we'll have to **look into this** (= investigate it)
 you can **look over the house** (= inspect it)
 she **looked right through me** (= ignored me)
 I hope we can **look to you for help/support**
 "I can't **make anything of this** (= understand it)
 you won't **pass for a nun** (= be accepted as)
 "let's **pass over that** (= avoid the subject)
 don't **pick/peck at** (= eat without appetite)
 he **plays at being a teacher** (i e he's not serious)
 don't **play on my feelings** (= try to gain my sympathy)
 *I'll **press for a rise in pay** (= try hard for)
 "how much do you **put it at?** (= value it)
 "put some money **on a horse** (= make a bet)
 "I'll **put money towards it** (= contribute money)
 she's **reading for a degree** (= studying)
 "can you **read much into this?** (= understand)
 he's **rolling in money** (= has a lot of money)
 we'll be **rooting for you** (AmE) (= supporting)
 he suddenly **rounded on me** (e g in anger)
 I **ran across/into her** (= met by chance)
 will he **run for president?** (= try to be elected)
 we'd better **run for it** (= escape quickly)
 "a bus **ran into my car** (= hit it)
 we've **run into difficulties/trouble/problems**
 the cost **runs into millions** (= reaches)
 he **ran through a fortune** (= spent quickly)
 I can't **run to a new car this year** (= afford)
 "don't **rush into it** (without consideration)
 I'll **see about fixing that fence** (= arrange)
 can we **see over the house?** (= examine)
 *I **saw through it** (= understood the truth)
 "will you **see to the supper?** (= attend to it)
 "he **sat on my application** (= did nothing)
 we **sat through a boring film/lecture, etc**
 I'll **sleep on your suggestion** (= decide later)
 I hope you'll **stand by me** (= support me)
 she's **standing for parliament** (to be elected)
 I won't **stand for your rudeness** (= tolerate it)
 don't **stand over me** (= supervise me)
 we must **step on it** (= hurry up)
 I hope you'll **stick by me** (= remain loyal)
 I **swear by this medicine** (= have confidence)
 he **takes after his father** (= resembles)
 he **took to English quickly** (= found it easy)
 work is **telling on him** (having a bad effect)
 "he didn't **touch on the subject** (= mention it)
 *I **m toying with it** (= considering lightly)
 he's **turned against us** (= become hostile)
 "I've been **turned off it** (= lost interest)
 I (turns **on this letter** (= depends on)
 'you can **turn to me for help** (= ask me for)
 I **waded through it** (= finished with difficulty)
 "who's **waiting on you?** (= serving)
 I **walked into a job** (= got a job easily)
 I **walked into a trap** (i e carelessly)
 Arsenal **walked over Chelsea** (= beat easily)

Appendix 31 [> 2.9 2.11, 8.28.1g] Some nouns formed from Type 2 verbs: e.g. 'breakdown'

Only nouns actually derived from verb + particle are given in this list, not nouns (like *hangover*) which appear to derive from verbs but in fact have no verb equivalents
 a *back-up*, a *blow-up*, a *breakdown* a *cleanout*, a *cover-up*, a *fill-up*, a *follow-up* a *foul up*, a *get-up*, a *giveaway*, a *handover*, a *hold-up*, a *knockout*, a *layoff*, a *layout*, a *letdown*, a *let-out*, a *markdown*, a *markup*, a *mix-up*, a *putdown*, a *put-on*, a *rip-off* a *run-through*, a *send-up*, a *setback*, a *shake-up*, a *shutdown*, a *take-off*, a *takeover*, a *tip-off*, a *turn off*, a *turn-out*, a *washout*, a *write-off*

Appendix 32 [> 1.9, 8.28. 2 8.28.4 8.29.2, 16.55]

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*, "lead *sby across*, "let *sby across*, "pull *sby/stg across* "push *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 along*, bring *sby/stg along* 'get *sby/stg along*, send *sby/stg along*

32.4 'away'

32.4.1 (= distance)

'call *sby away*, "carry *sby/stg away*, clear *stg away*, drive *sby/stg away*, frighten *sby away*, hide *stg away*, 'push *sby/stg away*

32.4.2 (= detachment)

break *stg away*, cut *stg away*, knock *stg away*, pull *stg away*, snatch *stg away*, take *stg away*

32.4.3 (= disappearance)

eat *stg away*, file *stg away*, sweep *stg away*, wash *stg away*, wear *stg away*, wipe *stg away*

32.4.4 (= replacement/tidying)

file *stg away*, (= put in a file), fold *stg away* (eg a tent), shut *stg away*, pack *stg away*, put *stg away*, shut *stg away*, store *stg away*

32.5 'back'

32.5.1 (= returning)

'ask *sby back*, claim *stg back*, 'get *sby/stg back*, give *stg back*, pay *sby/stg back*, "phone *sby back*, put *stg back*, "ring *sby back*

32.5.2 (= in a backwards direction)

cut *stg back*, fold *stg back*, "move *sby/stg back*, 'push *sby/stg back*, tie *stg back*

Appendix 32

32.5.3 (= retaliation)

'hit sby back, "kick sby back

32.5.4 (= prevent from coming forwards)

hold sby/stg back, keep sby/stg back

32.5.5 (= repetition)

play stg back, read stg back

32.6 'down'

(= in a downwards (or southerly) direction)

bring sby/stg down, drop stg down, "get sby/stg down, "help sby down, 'invite sby down, press stg down, put stg down, "send sby/stg down, throw stg down

32.6.2 (= to the ground - often intending destruction)

break stg down, burn stg down, cut stg down, knock sby/stg down, "pull sby/stg down, "push sby/stg down

32.6.3 (= securing firmly - often 'downwards')

boil (a liquid) down, let (tyres) down, turn (the heating) down, wear (one's heels) down

32.6.5 (= completeness)

close (a shop) down, drink stg down, hunt sby/ an animal down, wash stg down, wipe stg down

32.6.6 (= writing)

copy stg down, note stg down, write stg down

32.6.7 (= prevent from rising)

hold sby/stg down, "keep sby/stg down

32.7 in'

(= movement from outside to inside)

"bring sby/stg in, collect stg in, drive (a car) in, give (homework) in, "let sby/an animal in

32.7.2 (= arrival/location)

"book sby in, "find sby in (at home)

32.7.3 (= confine to an area)

fence stg in, keep sby/stg in, "lock sby/stg in

32.7.4 (= inclusion/addition/attachment)

add stg in, fit sby/stg in, leave stg in, paint stg in, plug stg in, type stg in, write stg in

32.7.5 (= inwards-often intending destruction)

beat (a door) in, drive (a nail) in, smash stg in

32.8 'Off'

(= detachment/removal from a surface)

blow (a hat) off, brush stg off, cut stg off, knock stg off (a shelf), "let sby off (a bus), pull stg off, take stg off (a surface), wash stg off

32.8.2 (= distance)

beat (an animal/insects) off, frighten sby/an animal off, keep sby/stg off, "take sby off (to a place)

32.8.3 (= division/disconnection)

divide stg off, fence stg off, shut (a street) off, switch (the lights) off, turn (the lights) off

32.8.4 (= completion)

finish stg off, read stg off (a list), round stg off (= complete stg)

32.9 'on'

(= attachment/connection/continuity)

fit stg on, 'get (a lid) on, have stg on (wear), keep (a light) on, put (a coat) on, screw (a lid) on, stick stg on, switch (a light) on

32.9.2 (= in a forward direction)

pass stg on, 'send sby/stg on, wind stg on

32.10 out'

32.10.1 (= movement inside to outside)

drive (a car) out, "help sby out (of a car), put (a cat) out, spit stg out, throw stg out (of a)

32.10.2 (= general idea of movement 'out')

call (a doctor) out, "find sby out (not at home), pay (money) out, pick sby/stg out (choose)

32.10.3 (= exclusion/prevention)

fence (animals) out, leave 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 stg out, copy stg out, read stg out, shout stg out, write stg out

32.10.7 (= thoroughly)

check stg out, clean stg out, empty stg out, 'hear sby out, sort 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 stg out, "talk stg out, "think stg out

32.11 'over'

32.11.1 (= from one side to the other)

'carry sby/stg over, "help sby over

32.11.2 (with verbs of 'inviting', etc.)

'ask sby over, "bring sby/stg over, "fetch sby/stg over, "run (= drive) sby over

32.11.3 (thoroughness verbs of 'checking')

check stg over, 'do stg over (= again), 'read stg over (= again), "think (a problem) over

32.11.4 (= to the ground)

"knock sby/stg over, "push sby/stg over

32.12 'round'

32.12.1 (= circular movement/direction)

'drive (a car) round, "wave stg round

32.12.2 (= enclosing)

fence (a garden) round, 'put (things) round

32.12.3 (with verbs of 'inviting', etc.)

'ask sby round, fetch sby/stg round, 'have sby round, invite sby round, 'show sby round

32.12.4 (= distribution)

pass 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 stg through, "let sby through, 'send sby/stg through, "show sby through

32.13.2 (= to a conclusion/thoroughly)

"argue stg through, "heat stg through, "plan stg through, sort stg through, "think stg through

32.13.3 (= in two pieces)

cut stg through, saw stg through, slice stg through

32.14 'up'

32.14.1 (= in an upwards/northerly direction)
bring 'sby/stg up, "get stg/sby up, keep (your hand) up, pull "sby/stg 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 sby/stg up, drink stg up, eat stg up, fill stg up, hurry sby/stg up, load stg up, mix (two things) up, open stg up

32.14.4 (= for a purpose)
learn stg up (for a test), measure sby/stg up (for a dress), phone soy 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** (= eg 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)
 '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 been 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)
 he's **keeping us on** (= continuing to employ)
 he **knocked back two pints** (= drank quickly)
 "knock him **down** (= make him cut the price)
 "knock him **out** (= make him unconscious)
 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 tn 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)
 I'm **packing in smoking** (= stopping)
 she was **'passed over** (= not chosen)
 'll **pay you back for this** (= get my revenge)
 point it **out to me** (= show or explain)
 we've **pulled off a deal** (= been successful)
 he can't **'put the ideas across** (= communicate)
 they had to **'put him away** (= e g in prison)
 can we **put off the meeting**? (= postpone it)
 she **'puts me off** (= discourages, repels)
 I've **put out my hip** (= dislocated)
 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)
 'll **spell 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** (= unreparable)

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 foot down, put two and two together, stick one's heels in, take the easy way out, talk one's head off, throw 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 *backchat*) which appear to derive from verbs, but in fact have no verb equivalents: *a backdown, a blowout, a carry-on, a climb-down, a cutback, a dropout, a flare up, a get-away, a get-together, goings on, a hangout, a kickoff, a lie-in, a lift-off, make-up, an onlooker, an outbreak, a pile-up, a sellout, a show off, a slip-up, a split up, a summing up, a touchdown, a walkout, a warm-up, washing-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 gaol (= 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 (= quarrelled)
my plan fell through (= was unsuccessful)

you really get about/around (= travel)
don't you want to get ahead? (= succeed)
he got off (= wasn't punished)
we really get on (= have a good relationship)
it's 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! i.e. 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! i.e. danger)
later, he opened up (= talked more freely)
come on, own up (= confess)
he passed away/on/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 suddenly (= 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)
he showed up at 1 (= arrived (probably) late)
shut up! (very informal) (= 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! i.e. 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 (i 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 (i e as a total)
he came up with a good idea (= produced)
we cried out against the idea (= protested)
he's crying out for help (= is in great need)
they did away with the bad law (= abolished)
face 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'll get on to him (= contact him)
he's getting up to something (= e.g. mischief)
our house gives on to the river (= overlooks)
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 out of 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)
I 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 r take it out on me (= treat me unfairly)
I'll take the matter up with Jim (= discuss it)
she's taken up 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, "(it) appeal to, "appreciate, (it) astonish, "(it) attract, believe in, care about "dare detest, dislike, doubt, envy, esteem, fear 'hate, "hope, "(it) impress, "(it) interest, 'like, 'love, 'mean, 'mind, (it) please, prize, 'regret, "respect, (can't) stand, "swear by, trust, "value

38.2 Thinking, believing ('I know', etc.): e g
agree, 'appreciate, 'assume, believe, 'bet (informal), (can't) comprehend, (can't) conceive of, 'consider, (can't) credit, disagree, disbelieve, 'estimate, 'expect, 'feel, figure (AmE), 'find, "gather, get it (= understand, informal), 'guess (AmE), "hear(= be told), hear about (= get to know), hear of (= know about), 'hope, "imagine (= think) know, 'presume (= suppose), "realize, 'recognize, 'recollect, "regard, 'see (= understand), "see through, "suppose, "suspect, "(can't) tell "think (= believe), understand, "wonder

38.3 Wants and preferences ('I want', etc.):
desire, fancy, need, prefer, require, want, wish

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, (it) concern, consist of, constitute, contain, 'correspond to/with, 'cost, "count, "depend, deserve, differ from, equal, "exceed, excel in, "feel, 'fit, happen to, have/have got [> 10 27], "hold(= contain), "(it) include, "(it) involve, keep -ing, know sby, "lack, 'look (= appear), (it) matter, (it) mean, "measure merit 'number (= reach total), own, possess, "prove "(it) read, "represent, resemble, (it) result from, (it) say, seem, signify, "(it) smell (of), "(it) sound (= seem) "(it) stand for, (it) suit (= be suitable) "(it) taste (of), "tend '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 / in the past: e g
 'b' *bribed, described, robbed, rubbed*
 'g' *begged, dragged, plugged, tugged*
 'ng' *banged, belonged, longed*
 'nge' *arranged, changed, exchanged*
 'dge' *damaged, emerged, judged, managed*
 'l' *called, filled, pulled, smiled, travelled*
 'm' *assumed, claimed, combed*
 'n' *cleaned, explained, listened, opened*
 vowel + 'r' *answered, appeared, dared*
 V *arrived, lived, loved, moved, proved*
 'z' *accused, closed, excused, refused*

Appendix 40

'th'	<i>bathed, lathed</i>	<i>creep</i>	<i>crept</i>	<i>crept</i>
'ay'	<i>delayed, obeyed, played, weighed</i>	<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>
'ee'	<i>agreed, freed, guaranteed</i>	<i>deal</i>	<i>dealt</i>	<i>dealt</i>
'oy'	<i>annoyed, destroyed, employed, enjoyed</i>	<i>dig</i>	<i>dug</i>	<i>dug</i>
'cry'	<i>cried, denied, dried, fried, qualified, replied, satisfied, terrified, tried</i>	<i>dive</i>	<i>dived (dove AmE)</i>	<i>dived</i>
'bury	<i>buried, carried, hurried, married, worried</i>	<i>do⁵</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>done</i>
'o/ow'	<i>borrowed, followed, showed, videoed</i>	<i>draw⁶</i>	<i>drew</i>	<i>drawn</i>
'ue'	<i>argued, continued, rescued, reviewed</i>	<i>dream</i>	<i>dreamt/dreamed</i>	<i>dreamt/dreamed</i>
39.2	Pronounced /ɪ/ in the past: e.g.	<i>drink</i>	<i>drank</i>	<i>drunk⁷</i>
/k/	<i>asked, joked, liked, locked, looked, picked, talked, thanked, walked, worked</i>	<i>drive</i>	<i>drove</i>	<i>driven</i>
/s/	<i>addressed, crossed, danced, discussed, faced, guessed, missed</i>	<i>dwelt</i>	<i>dwelt/dwelled</i>	<i>dwelt/dwelled</i>
/tʃ/	<i>matched, reached, switched, touched</i>	<i>eat⁸</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>eaten</i>
/ʃ/	<i>crashed, finished, pushed, washed</i>	<i>fall⁹</i>	<i>fell</i>	<i>fallen</i>
/f/	<i>coughed, laughed, stuffed</i>	<i>feed</i>	<i>fed</i>	<i>fed</i>
lp/	<i>camped, developed, dropped, helped, hoped, jumped, shopped, stopped</i>	<i>feel</i>	<i>felt</i>	<i>felt</i>
l x l	<i>axed, boxed, foxed, relaxed, waxed</i>	<i>fight</i>	<i>fought</i>	<i>fought</i>
39.3	Pronounced /ɪd/ in the past: e.g.	<i>find</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>found</i>
base form ending in / d /	<i>added, afforded, attended, avoided, decided, ended, handed, included, mended, minded, needed, provided, reminded, skidded</i>	<i>flee</i>	<i>fled</i>	<i>fled</i>
base form ending in /l/	<i>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</i>	<i>fling</i>	<i>flung</i>	<i>flung</i>
		<i>fly</i>	<i>flew</i>	<i>flown</i>
		<i>forbid</i>	<i>forbade</i>	<i>forbidden</i>
		<i>forget</i>	<i>forgot</i>	<i>forgotten</i>
		<i>forgive</i>	<i>forgave</i>	<i>forgiven</i>
		<i>forsake</i>	<i>forsook</i>	<i>forsaken</i>
		<i>freeze</i>	<i>froze</i>	<i>frozen</i>
		<i>get</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>got [gotten AmE]</i>
		<i>give</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>given</i>
		<i>go¹⁰</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
		<i>grind</i>	<i>ground</i>	<i>ground</i>
		<i>grow¹¹</i>	<i>grew</i>	<i>grown</i>
		<i>hang¹²</i>	<i>hung/hanged</i>	<i>hung/hanged</i>
		<i>have</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>had</i>
		<i>hear¹³</i>	<i>heard /</i>	<i>heard</i>
		<i>hew</i>	<i>hewed</i>	<i>hewn/hewed</i>
		<i>hide</i>	<i>hid</i>	<i>hidden/hid</i>
		<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>
		<i>hold¹⁴</i>	<i>held</i>	<i>held</i>
		<i>hurt</i>	<i>hurt</i>	<i>hurt</i>
		<i>keep</i>	<i>kept</i>	<i>kept</i>
		<i>kneel</i>	<i>knelt/kneeled</i>	<i>knelt/kneeled</i>
		<i>knit⁵</i>	<i>knit/knitted</i>	<i>knit/knitted</i>
		<i>know</i>	<i>knew</i>	<i>known</i>
		<i>lay⁶</i>	<i>laid</i>	<i>laid</i>
		<i>lead¹⁷</i>	<i>led / led /</i>	<i>led</i>
		<i>lean</i>	<i>leant/leaned</i>	<i>leant/leaned</i>
		<i>leap</i>	<i>leapt/leaped</i>	<i>leapt/leaped</i>
		<i>learn</i>	<i>learnt/learned</i>	<i>learnt/learned¹⁸</i>
		<i>leave</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>left</i>
		<i>lend</i>	<i>lent</i>	<i>lent</i>
		<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>
		<i>lie¹⁹ (lie down)</i>	<i>lay</i>	<i>lam</i>
		<i>light</i>	<i>lit/lighted</i>	<i>lit/lighted</i>
		<i>lose</i>	<i>lost</i>	<i>lost</i>
		<i>make²⁰</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>made</i>
		<i>mean /mi:n /</i>	<i>meant /ment/</i>	<i>meant / ment/</i>
		<i>meet</i>	<i>met</i>	<i>met</i>
		<i>mow</i>	<i>mowed</i>	<i>mown/mowed</i>
		<i>pay²¹</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>paid</i>
		<i>prove</i>	<i>proved</i>	<i>proved, proven</i>
		<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>
		<i>quit</i>	<i>quit/quitted</i>	<i>quit/quitted</i>
		<i>read²²</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>
		<i>rid</i>	<i>rid/riddled</i>	<i>rid/riddled</i>
		<i>ride²³</i>	<i>rode</i>	<i>ridden</i>
		<i>ring</i>	<i>rang</i>	<i>rung</i>
		<i>rise</i>	<i>rose</i>	<i>risen</i>

Appendix 40 [**>** 9.14.1, 9.15, 9.22, 12.3n1, 12.11n1]

Some common irregular verbs

verb	past tense	past participle
<i>arise</i>	<i>arose</i>	<i>arisen</i>
<i>awake</i>	<i>awoke</i>	<i>awoken</i>
<i>be</i>	<i>was/were</i>	<i>been</i>
<i>bear</i>	<i>bore</i>	<i>borne, born¹</i>
<i>beat</i>	<i>beat</i>	<i>beaten</i>
<i>become</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>become</i>
<i>begin</i>	<i>began</i>	<i>begun</i>
<i>bend</i>	<i>bent</i>	<i>bent</i>
<i>bet</i>	<i>bet/betted</i>	<i>bet/betted</i>
<i>bid (money)</i>	<i>bid</i>	<i>bid</i>
<i>bind</i>	<i>bound</i>	<i>bound</i>
<i>bite</i>	<i>bit</i>	<i>bitten/bit</i>
<i>bleed</i>	<i>bled</i>	<i>bled</i>
<i>blow</i>	<i>blew</i>	<i>blown</i>
<i>break</i>	<i>broke</i>	<i>broken</i>
<i>breed</i>	<i>bred</i>	<i>bred</i>
<i>bring</i>	<i>brought</i>	<i>brought</i>
<i>build</i>	<i>built</i>	<i>built</i>
<i>burn</i>	<i>burned/burnt</i>	<i>burned/burnt</i>
<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>
<i>bust</i>	<i>bust/busted</i>	<i>bust/busted</i>
<i>buy</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>bought</i>
<i>cast²</i>	<i>cast</i>	<i>cast</i>
<i>catch</i>	<i>caught</i>	<i>caught</i>
<i>choose</i>	<i>chose</i>	<i>chosen</i>
<i>cling</i>	<i>clung</i>	<i>clung</i>
<i>come³</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>come</i>
<i>cost⁴</i>	<i>cost</i>	<i>cost</i>

run ²⁴	ran	run	wed	wed/wedded	wed/wedded
saw	sawed	sawn/sawed	weep	wept	wept
say/sei/	said /sed/	said/led/	wet	wet/wetted	wet/wetted
see ²⁵	saw	seen	win	won	won
seek	sought	sought	wind ⁴¹	wound	wound
sell ²⁶	sold	sold	wring	wrung	wrung
send	sent	sent	write ⁴²	wrote	written
set ²⁷	set	set			
sew	sewed	sewn/sewed			1 Also <i>forbear overbear She s borne ten sons I was born in 1960</i>
shake	shook	shaken			2 Also <i>broadcast forecast miscast recast</i>
shear	sheared	shorn/sheared			3 Also <i>overcome compare become</i>
shed	shed	shed			4 Note regular verb <i>cost I ve costed the work</i>
shine ²⁸	shone	shone			5 Also <i>outdo overdo redo underdo undo</i>
shoot ²⁹	shot	shot			6 Also <i>overdraw, withdraw</i>
show	showed	shown/showed			7 Note the adjective <i>drunken a drunken man</i>
shrink	shrank/shrunk	shrunk ³⁰			8 Also <i>overeat</i>
shut	shut	shut			9 Also <i>befall</i>
sing	sang	sung			Note regular verb <i>fell We ve felled that tree</i>
sink	sank	sunk ³¹			10 Also <i>forego undergo</i>
sit	sat	sat			11 Also <i>outgrow, overgrow</i>
slay	slew	slain			12 Also <i>overhang, overhung overhung</i>
sleep ³²	slept	slept			Note <i>hanged</i> (= put to death)
slide	slid	slid			13 Also <i>overhear mishear rehear</i>
sling	slung	slung			Note <i>hear /his I and heard / hɑ:d /</i>
slink	slunk	slunk			14 Also <i>behold, uphold withhold</i>
slit	slit	slit			15 Note <i>knit</i> (= make from wool) is regular
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled			16 Also <i>inlay mislay relay waylay</i>
sow	sowed	sown/sowed			Note the present, <i>lay (laid, laid)</i> should not be confused with the past of <i>lie (lay, lam)</i>
speak	spoke	spoken			17 Also <i>mislead</i> Compare pronunciation of <i>lead /lɪv.d/ (verb) and lead /led/ (noun)</i>
speed	sped/speeded	sped/speeded			18 Note the adjective <i>learned /ɜ:nɪd/</i> [> 6 14]
spell ³³	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled			19 Note <i>lie (lied lied)</i> (regular) (= tell a lie)
spend ³⁴	spent	spent			20 Also <i>remake unmake</i>
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled			21 Also <i>overpay repay underpay</i>
spin	spun/span	spun			Note spelling of <i>paid laid, compare played</i>
spit	spat (spit AmE)	spat			22 Also <i>misread, re-read</i>
split	split	split			Note the pronunciation of the present <i>read /ri:d /</i> and the past <i>read /red/</i>
spoil	spoilt/spoiled	spoilt/spoiled			23 Also <i>override</i>
spread	spread	spread			24 Also <i>outrun overrun, re-run</i>
spring	sprang/sprung	sprung			25 Also <i>foresee oversee</i> Compare <i>see, saw, seen and saw sawed sawn/sawed</i>
stand ³⁵	stood	stood			26 Also <i>outsell, resell undersell</i>
steal	stole	stolen			27 Also <i>beset, reset, upset</i>
stick	stuck	stuck			28 Also <i>outshine Shine</i> (= polish), can be regular, especially in AmE
sting	stung	stung			29 Also <i>overshoot</i>
stink	stank/stunk	stunk			30 Compare the adjective <i>shrunk</i>
strew	strewed	strewn/strewed			31 Compare <i>sunken a sunken ship</i>
stride	strode	stridden			32 Also <i>oversleep</i>
strike	struck	struck ³⁶			33 Also <i>misspell</i>
string	strung	strung			34 Also <i>overspend, underspend</i>
strive	strove/stnved	stnven/stnved			35 Also <i>withstand, compare understand</i>
swear	swore	sworn			36 Compare <i>awestruck, poverty-stricken</i>
sweep	swept	swept			37 Also <i>betake, mistake overtake retake undertake</i>
swell	swelled	swollen/swelled			38 Also <i>foretell retell</i>
swim	swam	swum			39 Also <i>overthrow</i>
swing	swung	swung			40 Also <i>misunderstand</i>
take ³⁷	took	taken			41 Also <i>rewind, unwind</i>
teach	taught	taught			Note regular verbs <i>wind [wind] was winded by the blow wound / wʊnd / He was wounded in the war</i>
tear	tore	torn			42 Also <i>rewrite, underwrite</i>
tell ³⁸	told	told			
think	thought	thought			
throw ³⁹	threw	thrown			
thrust	thrust	thrust			
tread	trod	trodden/trod			
understand ⁴⁰	understood	understood			
wake	woke/waked	woken/waked			
wear	wore	worn			
weave	wove	woven			

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, 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 miser, a nuisance, a problem, a show-off, a silly, a snob, a threat, a worry.

Appendix 42 t> 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 shampoo/a set/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 faintest 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 (= reveal a secret), give heed to, 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 pke, 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 a place (= go there), a will

Appendix 44 [>1.23-24,4.13,11.75.3, 15.6, 16.27-28]

Some adjectival combinations

Key:

I'm	personal subject: He's <i>able to drive</i> <i>I'm afraid (that) he's out</i> <i>I'm busy cleaning the house</i>
It's'	preparatory 'it': <i>It's advisable to book in advance</i> <i>It's likely (that) he'll arrive tomorrow</i>
I'm/It's,	personal subject or preparatory 'it' <i>He's kind to help.</i> <i>It's kind (of him) to help</i>
IS),	that-clause with 'should' + verb: <i>It's advisable that he should phone</i>
or	subjunctive [> 11.75.1] <i>It's advisable that he keep in touch</i>
or'	present/past tense: <i>It's advisable that he keeps in touch.</i>
(sh).	that-clause often with 'should', but not with subjunctive: <i>It's odd (that) you should say that.</i> that not usually omitted in that-clause: <i>It's cruel that he should be punished</i>

adjective to-infinitive (that) '-ing'

<i>able/unable</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>absurd</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>*f's(sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>advisable</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>*f's(S)</i>	
<i>afraid</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>alarmed¹</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm (sh)</i>	
<i>alarming¹</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>"It's (sh)</i>	
<i>angry</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (sh)</i>	
<i>anxious</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (S)</i>	
<i>ashamed</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm (sh)</i>	
<i>aware²</i>	-	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>awful</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>better/best</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's (S)</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>brave</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>busy</i>	-	-	<i>I'm</i>
<i>careful</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (sh)</i>	<i>I'm</i>
<i>careless</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>certain³</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	
<i>cheap</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>clear⁴</i>	-	<i>"I'm/It's</i>	
<i>clever</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>content</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (sh)</i>	<i>I'm</i>
<i>cruel</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>"It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>dangerous</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>determined</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm (S)</i>	
<i>difficult</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>due</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>eager</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (S)</i>	
<i>easy</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>enjoyable</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>enough</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>"It's (sh)</i>	
<i>essential</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>"It's (S)</i>	
<i>expensive</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>fair</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>"It's (sh)</i>	-
<i>first, etc</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>fit</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>foolish</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>fortunate</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>free</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>		

adjective	to-infinitive	(that)	'-ing'
<i>friendly</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>funny⁵</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>glad</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>good</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>'It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>no good</i>	-	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>grateful</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm</i>	
<i>great</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>happy</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm</i>
<i>hard (= difficult)</i>	<i>It's/I'm</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>(= unfair)</i>	-	<i>*It's (sh)</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>helpful</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>(dis)honest</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>hopeful</i>	-	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>hopeless</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>horrible</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>*ft's(sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>important⁶</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's (S)</i>	
<i>just</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>'It's (S)</i>	
<i>keen</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>"I'm (S)</i>	
<i>(un)kind</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>last</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>liable</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>(un)likely</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>It's</i>	
<i>lovely</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>"It's</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>(un)lucky</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>(un)natural</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	
<i>(un)necessary</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>"It's (S)</i>	
<i>nice</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>"It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>obliged</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>obvious</i>	-	<i>It's</i>	
<i>odd</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>pleasant</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>'It's (sh)</i>	<i>It's</i>
<i>pointless</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>(im)polite</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>		
<i>(im)possible</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>'It's</i>	
<i>prepared</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>quick</i>	<i>I'm</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>ready</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>right</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>"It's(S)</i>	
<i>rude</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>sad</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>safe</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>silly</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>'It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>slow</i>	<i>I'm</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>sorry</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm (sh)</i>	
<i>strange</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>stupid</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>I'm/It's</i>
<i>sure (= likely)</i>	<i>I'm</i>		
<i>(= certain⁷)</i>	-	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>thankful</i>	<i>I'm</i>	<i>I'm</i>	
<i>(un>true</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>It's</i>	
<i>useful/less</i>	<i>It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>vital</i>	<i>It's</i>	<i>'It's (S)</i>	
<i>(un)wise</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>worth</i>	-	-	<i>It's</i>
<i>wrong</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>	<i>'It's (sh)</i>	<i>I'm/It's</i>

1 Also adjectival participles [> App 10]

2 Also *aware how to, when to, etc*3 Also *(not) certain whether/wh- to; (not) certain whether/wh-+clause*4 Also *(not) clear whether to, (not) clear whether/wh- + clause*5 Also *funny when, where, etc + clause*6 Also *not important whether/wh- + clause*7 Also *(not) sure whether/wh- to, (not) sure whether/wh-+ clause*

Appendix 45 [> 1.23.2, n 75, 15.3/5/6/16/18/20/24, 16 22]

Some reporting verbs

45.1 Some reporting verbs (1)

Key:

<i>that</i> =	<i>that</i> is not usually omitted
(sby) =	optional personal object before clause
	<i>He warned (me) that I'd better go</i>
Q =	verb may be followed by question clauses
	<i>He asked when I would be ready</i>
if =	verb can be followed by <i>if/whether</i>
	<i>He asked if/whether Jim had arrived</i>
* =	verb can report direct speech in writing with inversion usually possible
	<i>'I'm ready,' John said/said John</i>
<i>accept that</i>	<i>fancy (= imagine)</i>
<i>acknowledge that</i>	<i>fear</i>
<i>'add that</i>	<i>feel (= think)</i>
<i>'admit Q</i>	<i>find out, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>advertise that</i>	<i>follow it follows that</i>
<i>affirm that</i>	<i>forecast that/Q</i>
<i>'agree Q (if/whether)</i>	<i>forget Q if/whether</i>
<i>allege that</i>	<i>gather, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>allow (= admit) that</i>	<i>guess, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>'announce</i>	<i>happen it that</i>
<i>'answer that</i>	<i>hope</i>
<i>appear it appears</i>	<i>imagine (= think), Q</i>
<i>appreciate that</i>	<i>imply that</i>
<i>'argue that, about Q</i>	<i>indicate that, Q</i>
<i>'ask (sby) if/whether, Q</i>	<i>'inquire if/whether/Q</i>
<i>assert that</i>	<i>know, Q if/whether</i>
<i>assume</i>	<i>learn, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>look it looks as if</i>
<i>I bet (= I'm sure)</i>	<i>maintain</i>
<i>'boast, about Q</i>	<i>matter that, if/wh/Q</i>
<i>(not) care if/whether, Q</i>	<i>mean</i>
<i>'caution (sby)</i>	<i>mind if/whether</i>
<i>certify that</i>	<i>note that, Q</i>
<i>chance it chanced that</i>	<i>notice, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>charge that</i>	<i>observe that (= say)</i>
<i>check that, if/whether, Q plan Q</i>	
<i>choose Q, whether</i>	<i>'point out, Q</i>
<i>claim</i>	<i>'predict that/Q</i>
<i>'complain</i>	<i>pretend</i>
<i>"conclude</i>	<i>'promise (sby)</i>
<i>"confess, Q whether</i>	<i>prove, Q, whether</i>
<i>confirm that, Q whether</i>	<i>question (sby) Q only</i>
<i>consider, Q</i>	<i>realize Q</i>
<i>(!)daresay (present only)</i>	<i>record that/Q/if</i>
<i>decide, Q, if/whether</i>	<i>regret</i>
<i>'declare</i>	<i>'remark (= say) that</i>
<i>deny</i>	<i>"repeat that</i>
<i>depend on whether/Q</i>	<i>"reply that</i>
<i>describe Q only</i>	<i>'report that, Q</i>
<i>disagree that</i>	<i>'respond that</i>
<i>discuss Q, whether only</i>	<i>'say, Q, if/whether</i>
<i>doubt, if/whether</i>	<i>see, if/Q</i>
<i>dream that</i>	<i>show that Q.if</i>
<i>emphasize that, Q</i>	<i>'state that, Q</i>
<i>ensure that</i>	<i>'suggest, Q</i>
<i>estimate that, Q</i>	<i>suppose</i>
<i>"exclaim that</i>	<i>suspect, Q</i>
<i>expect</i>	<i>teach that, Q/whether</i>
<i>"explain, Q, whether</i>	<i>(not) tell if/whether/Q</i>

'think, Q, whether *"warn (sby)*
understand, Q if/whether wish
vote that *wonder it/whether/Q*
'want to know that if/Q *write (sby) that*

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 sby that
notify sby that, remind sby that, tell sby 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 sby to, "ask sby to, 'beg sby to, cause sby to, command sby to, compel sby to, 'demand to, 'direct sby to, forbid sby to, get sby to, insist that should, "instruct sby to, oblige sby to, 'order sby to, 'persuade sby to, propose that should, 'recommend sby to, 'request sby to, suggest e g where to/that should, 'telex sby to, 'tell sby to, 'urge sby to, want sby to, wish sby to

Appendix 46 [> 16.13/19/20]

46.1 Some verbs followed by a fo-infinitive

sby/stg = object required before to
(sby/stg) = optional object
allow sby, appoint sby assist sby, attempt, begin, bribe sby, bring in sby, bring up sby, can t bear, care (= want), cease, commence, compete, condemn sby, consent, continue dare (= be brave enough), dare sby, deserve, dislike (sby/stg), elect sby, employ sby, enable sby, encourage sby, fail, get (sby/stg), grow, hasten, hate have (got) [> 11 47], help (sby), hurry, lead sby, like (sby/stg), long, love (sby), manage, need (sby/stg) [> 11 1], neglect, offer, pay, prefer (sby/stg), refuse, rely on sby/stg scheme, seek, select sby/stg, send (for) sby/stg, start, stop, struggle, tram (sby) try unite (can't) wait, want (sby/stg), wish (sby/stg)

46.2 Verb + fo-infinitive or Q-word + to-infinitive

All these verbs are also commonly followed by (that-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 it occurs to sby to, plan to/Q to, pretend to profess to promise to, prove to, realize Q to reckon (= expect) to regret to, remember to/Q to show sby Q to, teach sby to/Q to, wonder Q to

46.3 Verb + clause or object + 'to be'

I declare him to be the winner
accept arrange (for), 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 [> 2.37, 3.1, 3.11, 5.91 Numbers

47.1 Numerals

Words in bold italics cause spelling problems

cardinal numbers	ordinal numbers
0	
1 <i>one</i>	1st <i>first</i>
2 <i>two</i>	2nd <i>second</i>
3 <i>three</i>	3rd <i>third</i>
4 <i>four</i>	4th <i>fourth</i>
5 <i>five</i>	5th <i>fifth</i>
6 <i>six</i>	6th <i>sixth</i>
7 <i>seven</i>	7th <i>seventh</i>
8 <i>eight</i>	8th <i>eighth</i>
9 <i>nine</i>	9th <i>ninth</i>
10 <i>ten</i>	10th <i>tenth</i>
11 <i>eleven</i>	11th <i>eleventh</i>
12 <i>five/ve</i>	12th <i>twelfth</i>
13 <i>thirteen</i>	13th <i>thirteenth</i>
14 <i>fourteen</i>	14th <i>fourteenth</i>
15 <i>fifteen</i>	15th <i>fifteenth</i>
16 <i>sixteen</i>	16th <i>sixteenth</i>
17 <i>seventeen</i>	17th <i>seventeenth</i>
18 <i>eighteen</i>	18th <i>eighteenth</i>
19 <i>nineteen</i>	19th <i>nineteenth</i>
20 <i>twenty</i>	20th <i>twentieth</i>
21 <i>twenty-one</i>	21st <i>twenty-first</i>
22 <i>twenty-two</i>	22nd <i>twenty-second</i>
23 <i>twenty-three</i>	23rd <i>twenty-third</i>
24 <i>twenty-four</i>	24th <i>twenty-fourth</i>
25 <i>twenty-five</i>	25th <i>twenty-fifth</i>
26 <i>twenty-six</i>	26th <i>twenty-sixth</i>
27 <i>twenty-seven</i>	27th <i>twenty-seventh</i>
28 <i>twenty-eight</i>	28th <i>twenty-eighth</i>
29 <i>twenty-nine</i>	29th <i>twenty-ninth</i>
30 <i>thirty</i>	30th <i>thirtieth</i> , etc
40 <i>forty</i>	40th <i>fortieth</i> , etc
50 <i>fifty</i>	50th <i>fiftieth</i>
60 <i>sixty</i>	60th <i>sixtieth</i>
70 <i>seventy</i>	70th <i>seventieth</i>
80 <i>eighty</i>	80th <i>eightieth</i>
90 <i>ninety</i>	90th <i>ninetieth</i>
100 <i>one hundred</i>	100th <i>one/the hundredth</i>
101 <i>one hundred and one</i>	101st <i>one/the hundred and first</i>
200 <i>two hundred</i>	200th <i>the (wo hundredth</i>
1,000 <i>one thousand</i>	1,000th <i>one/the thousandth</i>
1,001 <i>one thousand and one</i> , etc	1,001st <i>one/the thousand and first</i> , etc
10,001 <i>ten thousand and one</i> , etc	10,001st <i>one/the ten thousand and first</i> , etc
100,000 <i>one hundred thousand</i> , etc	100,000th <i>one/the one hundred thousandth</i> , etc
1,000,000 <i>one million</i>	1,000,000th <i>one/the millionth</i>

NOTES

1 0 (nought/zero)

The spoken form of 0 is a) *nought* (AmE zero) or *oh*. *Oh* 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 *n/ne oh three hours*

b) When talking scientifically, e.g. when giving temperatures, 0 is pronounced zero, e.g. -20° = *twenty degrees below zero*

c) When giving the scores of most games, e.g. football, 0 is pronounced *nil* or *nothing*. *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 mill/on*, 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 IV* (no -fth), but we say *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 or *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) equal 4 2 and 2 equals 4
2 and 2 is four 2 and 2 are 4
2 and 2 make 4 2 and 2 makes 4

+ ('the plus sign')

This is spoken as *plus* or *and*
2 plus 2 makes 4 2 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/is/makes 6

x ('the multiplication sign')

This is spoken as *multiplied by* or *times*

$9 \times 3 = 27$ could be spoken as

9 multiplied by 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*

$9 \div 3 = 3$ could be spoken as

9 divided by (or over) 3 equals 3

3 into nine is/goes 3

% ('the percentage sign')

This is usually said *per cent*

3% = *three per cent*

$3\frac{1}{2}\%$ = *three and a half per cent*

3.5% = *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

$\frac{1}{4}$ = a (or one) *quarter*, $2\frac{1}{4}$ = *two and a quarter*

$\frac{1}{2}$ = a (or one) *half*, $2\frac{1}{2}$ = *two and a half*

$\frac{3}{4}$ = *three quarters* $3\frac{3}{4}$ = *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 [> 3.21.4, 8.12, 8.13]**47.4.1 Centuries, years**

35 BC ('Before Christ'), AD 100 = AD one hundred (i.e. 'Anno Domini', 'in the year of our Lord' in Latin). AD is not usually necessary except with the early centuries to avoid possible confusion. BC is usually necessary

Pompey died in 48 B C

Tiberius died in A D 37

The 11th the 20th century will always be taken to mean AD. The name of the century is 'one ahead' of the way the years in it are written/said e.g. 1500-1599 is *the sixteenth century*. We can 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 2,000 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) Month/day/year *January 6th 1998* (or 98). The letters that follow the numbers {-st, -nd, -rd -th} may be omitted, as can the comma before the year. Abbreviations can be used for months [App 24]. The date can also be written entirely in figures *6 1 90*, or *06 01 90*. In BrE this means *January 6, 1990*. In AmE 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), but *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 (It's) five to*, etc.

For past the hour we say e.g. *(It's) five past (ten)*, *(a) quarter (Not "fifteen") past (ten)*, *ten/twenty past (ten)*, *twenty-five past (ten)*

For before the hour we say e.g. *(It's) twenty-five to (eleven)*, *twenty to (eleven)*, *(a) quarter to (eleven)*, *ten/five to (eleven)*. With all other combinations before the hour and past the hour, we say *minutes*, e.g. *three minutes to ten*, *twenty-two minutes to eleven*. In AmE *after* is commonly used in place of *past* and of *instead of to a quarter of eleven*. Informally we sometimes say, e.g. *half ten* instead of *half past ten* and *ten fifteen*, *ten thirty* instead of using a *quarter* and *half*. Sometimes we say *am* (= ante meridiem, i.e. before midday) or *pm* (= post meridiem, i.e. after midday) for times before and after 12 noon. *I'll meet you at 5 pm*. We also sometimes say *at noon* or *at midnight* for 12 a.m. or 12 p.m.

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

09 00 *nine hundred* 21 00 *twenty-one hundred hours*

09 03 *nine oh three* 21 03 *twenty-one oh three*

09 10 *nine ten* 21 10 *twenty-one ten*

09 15 *nine fifteen* 21 15 *twenty-one fifteen*

09 30 *nine thirty* 21 30 *twenty-one thirty*

09 36 *nine thirty-six* 21 36 *twenty-one thirty-six*

09 45 *nine forty-five* 21 45 *twenty-one forty-five*

Which tram do you want to catch?

*- I think I'll try to get **the ten eighteen***

Appendix 48 [> 2.13,3.21,3.27.3,3.28,7.21,7.22,8.12,9.4,918,9.25.1,9 38]

Some adverbs of definite time: 'points of time'

<i>yesterday</i>	<i>today</i>	<i>tomorrow</i>
<i>yesterday morning</i>	<i>this morning</i>	<i>tomorrow morning</i>
<i>yesterday at noon</i>	<i>at noon</i>	<i>tomorrow at noon</i>
<i>yesterday afternoon</i>	<i>this afternoon</i>	<i>tomorrow afternoon</i>
<i>yesterday evening</i>	<i>this evening</i>	<i>tomorrow evening</i>
<i>last night</i>	<i>tonight</i>	<i>tomorrow night</i>
<i>the day before yesterday</i>		<i>the day after tomorrow</i>
<i>the night before last</i>		<i>the night after next</i>
<i>the day before yesterday in</i>		<i>the day after tomorrow in</i>
<i>the morning/afternoon/evening</i>		<i>the morning/afternoon/evening</i>
<i>last Monday</i>	<i>this Monday</i>	<i>next Monday</i>
<i>the Monday before last</i>		<i>the Monday after next</i>
<i>last January</i>	<i>this January</i>	<i>next January</i>
<i>the January before last</i>		<i>the January after next</i>
<i>last Christmas</i>	<i>this Christmas</i>	<i>next Christmas</i>
<i>the Christmas before last</i>		<i>the Christmas after next</i>
<i>last week</i>	<i>this week</i>	<i>next week</i>
<i>the week before last</i>		<i>the week after next</i>
<i>last month</i>	<i>this month</i>	<i>next month</i>
<i>the month before last</i>		<i>the month after next</i>
<i>last year</i>	<i>this year</i>	<i>next year</i>
<i>the year before last</i>		<i>the year after next</i>
<i>last century</i>	<i>this century</i>	<i>next century</i>
<i>the century before last</i>		<i>the century after next</i>
<i>this time next week/next year etc</i>		
<i>this time last week/last year etc</i>		
<i>today week - a week from today</i>		
<i>a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) tomorrow = a week etc from tomorrow</i>		
<i>a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) yesterday = a week etc from yesterday</i>		
<i>a week/two weeks/a fortnight from yesterday from today from tomorrow etc</i>		
<i>a month/two months from today from tomorrow from Monday etc</i>		
<i>a month/two months last Tuesday etc</i>		
<i>a month/two months next Tuesday etc</i>		

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/tonight* etc
 - b) the morning which is passing or has just passed / *spoke to him this morning* (= earlier)
 - c) later on today // *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* refer to
 - a) the part of the week etc which has passed / *saw him this week/earlier this week*
 - b) the part of the week etc which is still to come / *m going to Majorca this week*
- 1 *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]
- Mrs Mopp comes in and cleans the house every other day* [compare > 5.23]
- 9 *Today week* can be replaced by the more formal *this day 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 [> 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:** *Nakamurasan is (a) Japanese*

2 There is no difference between singular and plural adjectives/nouns

singular: *Nakamurasan is Japanese* **plural:** *Nakamurasan and Sanseidosan are Japanese*

3 When referring to 'all the people', *the* is always required **The Japanese are very clever people**

country	adjective	countable noun	plural or collective noun
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese (man/woman), two Japanese (men)	the Japanese

Similarly e.g. *Burma/Burmese, China/Chinese, Lebanon/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 *the* is optional in the plural **(The) Italians are very creative** [> 3.19.2]

country	adjective	countable noun	plural or collective noun
Italy	Italian	an Italian (man/woman), two Italians (men)	(the) Italians

Similarly e.g.

- a) **-ian** endings add *-n* to countries ending in **-ia** *Algeria(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austria(n), Colombia(n), Indonesia(n), Nigeria(n), Russia(n), Scandinavian, Syria(n), Tanzania(n), Tunisia(n)*
other **-ian** endings *Argentina/Argentinian, Belgium/Belgian, Brazil/Brazilian, Canada/Canadian, Egypt/Egyptian, Hungary/Hungarian, Iran/Iranian, Jordan/Jordanian, Norway/Norwegian*
b) generally add *-n* or **-an** *Africa(n), America(n), Chile(an), Costa Rica(n), Cuba(n), Korea(n), Latin America(n), Libya(n), Mexico/Mexican, Paraguayan, Uganda(n), Venezuela(n), Zimbabwe(an)*
c) other endings *Cyprus/Cypriot, Germany/German, Greece/Greek, Iraq/Iraqi, Kuwait/Kuwaiti, Oman/Omani, Pakistan/Pakistani, Qatar/Qatari, Saudi Arabia/Saudi/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

country	adjective	countable noun	plural or collective noun
	Arabic (lang.)	an Arab (man/woman), two Arabs (men)	(the) Arabs
	Arabian (desert)		
Denmark	Danish	a Dane (man/woman), two Danes (men)	(the) Danes or the Danish
Finland	Finnish	a Finn (man/woman), two Finns (men)	(the) Finns or the Finnish
Philippines	Philippine	a Filipino (man/woman), two Filipinos (men)	(the) Filipinos
Poland	Polish	a Pole (man/woman), two Poles (men)	(the) Poles
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard/two Spaniards (men), a Spanish woman	(the) Spaniards or the Spanish
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede (man/woman), two Swedes (men)	(the) Swedes/the Swedish
Turkey	Turkish	a Turk (man/woman), two Turks (men)	(the) Turks

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*

country	adjective	countable noun	plural or collective noun
England	English	an EnglishmanZ-woman, two EnglishmenZ-women	the English (also Englishmen)
France	French	a FrenchmanZ-woman, two FrenchmenZ-women	the French (also Frenchmen)
Holland (or the Netherlands)	Dutch	a DutchmanZ-woman, two DutchmenZ-women	the Dutch (also Dutchmen)
Ireland	Irish	an IrishmanZ-woman, two IrishmenZ-women	the Irish (also Irishmen)
Wales	Welsh	a WelshmanZ-woman, two WelshmenZ-women	the Welsh (also Welshmen)

49.5 Group 5: Two exceptions

Britain	British	a Briton (man/woman), Britons (fairly rare)	the British Britishers (AmE)
Scotland	Scottish	a Scot (man/woman), a ScotsmanZ-woman two ScotsmenZ-women (and note Scotch whisky)	(the) Scots

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for intermediate students

SELF-STUDY EDITION
with KEY

L. G. Alexander

Longman 

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Contents

To the student	1
1 The sentence	2
1.1 Sentence word order	2
1.2 The simple sentence: verbs with and without objects	4
1.3 The simple sentence: direct and indirect objects	6
1.4 The compound sentence	8
1.5 The complex sentence: noun clauses	10
1.6 The complex sentence: relative pronouns and clauses	12
1.7 The complex sentence: 'whose'; defining/non-defining clauses	14
1.8 The complex sentence: time, place, manner	16
1.9 The complex sentence: reason and contrast	18
1.10 The complex sentence: purpose, result and comparison	20
1.11 The complex sentence: present participle constructions	22
1.12 The complex sentence: perfect/past participle constructions	24
2 Nouns	26
2.1 One-word nouns	26
2.2 Compound nouns	28
2.3 Countable and uncountable nouns (1)	30
2.4 Countable and uncountable nouns (2)	32
2.5 Number (singular and plural) (1)	34
2.6 Number (singular and plural) (2)	36
2.7 Gender	38
2.8 The genitive	40
3 Articles	42
3.1 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (1)	42
3.2 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (2)	44
3.3 The definite article: 'the' (1)	46
3.4 The definite article: 'the' (2)	48
3.5 The zero article (1)	50
3.6 The zero article (2)	52
4 Pronouns	54
4.1 Personal pronouns	54
4.2 'One'	56
4.3 'It' and 'one/some/any/none'	58
4.4 Possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns ('my/mine')	60
4.5 Reflexive pronouns ('myself')	62
4.6 Demonstrative adjs/prons ('this'); 'some/any/no' compounds ('someone')	64
5 Quantity	66
5.1 Quantifiers + countable and uncountable nouns	66
5.2 General and specific references to quantity	68
5.3 Uses of 'some', 'any', 'no' and 'none'	70
5.4 'Much', 'many', 'a lot of', '(a) few', '(a) little', 'fewer', 'less'	72
5.5 'Both' and 'all'	74
5.6 'All (the)', '(a/the) whole', 'each' and 'every'	76
5.7 'Another', '(the) other(s)', 'either', 'neither', 'each (one of)'	78

6	Adjectives	80
6.1	Formation of adjectives	80
6.2	Position of adjectives	82
6.3	Adjectives that behave like nouns; '-ed/-ing' endings	84
6.4	Adjectives after 'be', 'seem', etc.; word order of adjectives	86
6.5	The comparison of adjectives	88
7	Adverbs	90
7.1	Adverbs of manner	90
7.2	Adverbs of time	92
7.3	Adverbial phrases of duration	94
7.4	Adverbs of frequency	96
7.5	Adverbs of degree	98
7.6	Intensifiers	100
7.7	Focus adverbs	102
7.8	Viewpoint adverbs, connecting adverbs and inversion	104
8	Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs	106
8.1	Prepositions, adverb particles and conjunctions	106
8.2	Prepositions of movement and position; prepositions of time	108
8.3	Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (1)	110
8.4	Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (2)	112
8.5	Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (3)	114
8.6	Phrasal verbs: Type 1, verb + preposition (transitive)	116
8.7	Phrasal verbs: Type 2, verb + particle (transitive)	118
8.8	Phrasal verbs: Type 3, verb + particle (intransitive)	120
	Type 4, verb + particle + preposition (transitive)	
9	Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives	122
9.1	The simple present and present progressive tenses (1)	122
9.2	The simple present and present progressive tenses (2)	124
9.3	The simple past tense	126
9.4	The simple past and past progressive tenses	128
9.5	The simple present perfect and present perfect progressive	130
9.6	The simple past perfect and past perfect progressive tenses	132
9.7	The simple future tense	134
9.8	The simple future, the future progressive, the future perfect	136
9.9	'Going to' and other ways of expressing the future	138
9.10	The imperative	140
10	Be, Have, Do	142
10.1	'Be' as a full verb (1)	142
10.2	'Be' as a full verb (2)	144
10.3	'There' + 'be'	146
10.4	Verbs related in meaning to 'be'	148
10.5	'Have' as a full verb = 'possess'; 'have got' = 'possess'	150
10.6	'Have' as a full verb meaning 'eat', 'enjoy', etc.	152
10.7	'Do' as a full verb	154
11	Modal auxiliaries and related verbs	156
11.1	The two uses of modal verbs	156
11.2	Uses of modals (etc.) to express ability and inability	158
11.3	Uses of modals (etc.) to express permission and prohibition	160

11.4	Uses of modals (etc.) to express certainty and possibility	162
11.5	Uses of modals to express deduction	164
11.6	Uses of modals for offers, requests and suggestions	166
11.7	Expressing wishes, etc.: 'I wish', 'if only', 'it's (high) time'	168
11.8	Expressing preferences: 'would rather' and 'would sooner'	170
11.9	'It's advisable ...'/'It's necessary ...'	172
11.10	'It isn't advisable ...'/'It isn't necessary ...'/'It's forbidden'	174
11.11	Modals to express habit: 'used to', 'will' and 'would'	176
11.12	'Need' and 'dare' as modals and as full verbs	178
11.13	'Would/wouldn't'; 'that ...should'; 'there' + modal	180
12	The passive and the causative	182
12.1	General information about form	182
12.2	Uses of the passive	184
12.3	Form and use of the causative	186
13	Questions, answers, negatives	188
13.1	Yes/No questions, negative statements, Yes/No answers	188
13.2	Alternative negative forms and negative questions	190
13.3	Tag questions and echo tags	192
13.4	Additions and responses	194
13.5	Question-word questions (1): 'Who(m) ...?', 'What ...?'	196
13.6	Question-word questions (2): 'When?', 'Where?', 'Which?', 'Whose?'	198
13.7	Question-word questions (3): 'Why?', 'How?'	200
13.8	Subject-questions: 'Who?', 'What?', 'Which?', 'Whose?'	202
13.9	Questions about alternatives; emphatic questions with 'ever'	204
14	Conditional sentences	206
14.1	Type 1 conditionals	206
14.2	Type 2 conditionals	208
14.3	Type 3 conditionals	210
14.4	Mixed conditionals; 'unless/if ... not', etc.	212
15	Direct and indirect speech	214
15.1	Direct speech	214
15.2	'Say', 'tell' and 'ask'	216
15.3	Indirect statements with tense changes	218
15.4	Indirect questions with tense changes	220
15.5	Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech	222
15.6	When we use indirect speech	224
16	The infinitive and the '-ing' form	226
16.1	The bare infinitive and the to-infinitive	226
16.2	The bare infinitive or the '-ing' form; the to-infinitive	228
16.3	Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive	230
16.4	Adjectives and nouns + to-infinitive	232
16.5	The '-ing' form	234
16.6	Verb + the '-ing' form	236
16.7	Adjectives, nouns and prepositions + '-ing'	238
16.8	The to-infinitive or the '-ing' form?	240
Index		242
Key		253

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To the student

Why do we learn grammar?

There is no point in learning grammar for the sake of learning grammar. Grammar is the support system of communication and we learn it to communicate better. Grammar explains the *why* and *how* of language. We learn it because we just can't do without it.

Who is this book for and what does it cover?

This book deals entirely with English as a foreign language (EFL). It is for intermediate students who are working with a teacher or working on their own. It covers every important area of the English language. If you look at the Contents pages, you will find sixteen major areas which form the basis of English grammar. This book is based on the *Longman English Grammar* and the grammatical information in it is all drawn from this work. *Longman English Grammar Practice* has been designed to stand on its own. Students who require further grammatical information can refer to the *Longman English Grammar*.

How the material is organized

Longman English Grammar Practice is a practice book. It is intended to support (not replace) the material in language courses and is organized for this purpose:

- The material is laid out on facing pages.
- Each set of facing pages deals with a major point of grammar.
- This major point is divided into small, manageable amounts of information. Clear notes explain the points to be practised, followed by an exercise on just those points.
- The last exercise is in context, usually an entertaining story with a cartoon illustration. It sums up all you have learnt in the exercises you have just done and shows you how the language works. It is a 'reward' for the hard work you have just been doing!

Cross references

If you see e.g. [> 7.3A] in the notes, it means that a similar point is discussed in some other part of the book. Follow up the reference for parallel practice or information if you want to. If you see e.g. [> LEG 4.30] at the top of the notes, it means that the point is dealt with in the *Longman English Grammar*. Follow up the reference if you want 'the whole story'.

How to work

YOU DON'T HAVE TO WORK THROUGH THIS BOOK FROM START TO FINISH!

It is not arranged in order of increasing difficulty.

Select a chapter or part of a chapter which you want to study. Do this by referring to the Contents pages or the Index. Usually, this will be a topic you have been dealing with in your language course. Then:

- 1 Read the notes carefully (called **Study**). Notes and exercises are marked like this:
☒ = Elementary ☒☒ = Intermediate (most exercises) ☒☒☒ = Advanced
You will sometimes find that you know some, but not all, of the points in an exercise marked ☒☒.
- 2 Do the exercises (called **Write**). Always leave the story till last (called **Context**).
- 3 Check your answers with your teacher.
- 4 If you have made mistakes, study the notes again until you have understood where you went wrong and why.

1 The sentence

1.1 Sentence word order

1.1A The basic word order of an English sentence [> LEG 1.3]

Study:



The meaning of an English sentence depends on the word order.

- 1 We put the subject before the verb and the object after the verb:
The cook | burnt | the dinner.
- 2 Adverbials (*How?*, *Where?*, *When?*) usually come after the verb or after the object:
*He read the note **quickly**. (*How?*) I waited **at the corner** (*Where?*) **till 11.30**. (*When?*)*
- 3 The basic word order of a sentence that is not a question or a command is usually:

subject	verb	object	adverbials		
			<i>How?</i>	<i>Where?</i>	<i>When?</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>a hat</i>			<i>yesterday.</i>
<i>The children</i>	<i>have gone</i>			<i>home.</i>	
<i>We</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>our meal</i>	<i>in silence.</i>		
- 4 We also put the time reference at the beginning: **Yesterday** *I bought a hat.* [> 7.2A]

Write 1:

- a Rewrite the sentences that don't make sense.
 - b Mark all the sentences in the exercise **S V O** to show Subject, Verb, Object.
- 1 Has set John Bailey a new high-jump record. *(S) John Bailey (V) has set (O) a new high-jump record.*
 - 2 The passport examined the passport officer.
 - 3 These biscuits don't like the dogs.
 - 4 The shop assistant is wrapping the parcel.
 - 5 Have seen the visitors the new buildings.
 - 6 My father didn't wash the dishes.
 - 7 The pipe is going to fix the plumber.
 - 8 Will the goalkeeper catch the ball?
 - 9 Has the meal enjoyed the guest?
 - 10 Can't play John the game.

Write 2:

- a Arrange these words in the right order. Use a capital letter to begin each sentence.
 - b Mark each rewritten sentence **S V O M P T** to show:
Subject, Verb, Object, Manner (*How?*), Place (*Where?*), Time (*When?*).
- 1 till 11 o'clock this morning | slept | the children *(S) The children (V) slept (T) till 11 o'clock this morning.*
 - 2 the papers | into the bin | he threw.
 - 3 I don't speak | well | English.
 - 4 hides | Mrs Jones | her money | under the bed.
 - 5 carefully | this suitcase | you didn't pack.
 - 6 on this shelf | I left | this morning | some money.
 - 7 from the bank | a loan | you'll have to get.
 - 8 the phone | in the middle of the night | woke me up.
 - 9 in the park | you shouldn't walk | at night.
 - 10 your food | you should eat | slow'y.
 - 11 my term | begins | in October.
 - 12 your article | | quickly | last night | in bed | read.

1.1B The forms of a sentence [> LEG 1.2]

Study:

★★

- 1 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./Don't shut the door.*
 - an **exclamation**: *What a slow train this is!*
- 2 When we write a sentence, we must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop (.), a question mark (?), or an exclamation mark (!).
If there are quotation marks ('...') or ("...") around spoken words in a sentence, we put other punctuation marks 'inside' them:
*'I'm tired,' she said. (Not *'I'm tired', she said.*)* [> 15.1A-B]

Write:

- a** Arrange these groups of words in the right order. Add (.), (?), (!).
b Describe each sentence as a statement, question, command or exclamation: S, Q, C or E.

- 1 the coffee | don't spill *Don't spill the coffee.* (C)
 2 today's papers | have you seen ()
 3 to meet you | how nice ()
 4 my umbrella | where did you put ()
 5 arrived | the train | fifteen minutes late ()
 6 on time | the plane | won't arrive ()
 7 this electricity bill | I can't pay ()
 8 for me | please | open the door ()
 9 the nearest hotel | where's | he asked ()
 10 the bill | can't pay | I | he cried ()

1.1C Context

- Write:** Read this story and arrange the words in each sentence in the right order.
Add capital letters and (,), (.), (!) or (?) in the right places.

A QUIET SORT OF PLACE!

- 1 my car | I parked | in the centre of the village *I parked my car in the centre of the village*
 2 near a bus stop | an old man | I saw
 3 'beautiful village | what a' | I exclaimed
 4 'live here | how many people'
 5 'seventeen people | there are' | the old man said
 6 'here | have you lived | how long'
 7 'all my life | I have lived here'
 8 'isn't it | it's a quiet sort of place'
 9 'here | a quiet life | we live'
 10 a cinema | we don't have | or a theatre
 11 our school | five years ago | was closed
 12 only one shop | we have
 13 calls | a bus | once a day
 14 here | in 55 B.C. | came | the Romans
 15 since then | has happened | nothing'

1.2 The simple sentence: verbs with and without objects

1.2A What is a complete sentence? [> LEG 1.2]

Study:

★★

- 1 When we speak, we often say things like *All right! Good! Want any help?* These are 'complete units of meaning', but they are not real sentences.
- 2 A **simple sentence** is a complete unit of meaning which contains a subject and a verb, followed, if necessary, by other words which make up the meaning. So:
Made in Germany is correct English but it is not a sentence because it doesn't have a subject.
My car was made in Germany. is a complete sentence with a subject and verb.
We can't say e.g. **Is tired** because we need a subject [> 4.1A, 4.3A]: *He is tired.*
- 3 The subject may be 'hidden': *Open the door.* really means **You** *open the door.* [> 9.10B]

Write: Put a tick (✓) beside real sentences.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 Made in Germany. ___ | 11 Sit down please. ___ |
| 2 This car was made in Germany. ✓ | 12 You can't park here. ___ |
| 3 To write a letter. ___ | 13 Don't interrupt. ___ |
| 4 Standing in the rain. ___ | 14 I understand. ___ |
| 5 I want to write a letter. ___ | 15 She doesn't like me. ___ |
| 6 Is tall. ___ | 16 Under the water. ___ |
| 7 Do you like? ___ | 17 Ate. ___ |
| 8 The train has arrived. ___ | 18 A bottle of ink. ___ |
| 9 Have finished my work. ___ | 19 He's a doctor. ___ |
| 10 You should listen. ___ | 20 What happened? ___ |

1.2B Verbs with and without objects [> LEG 1.4, 1.9, 1.10, 1.12, App 1]

Study:

★★

- 1 We always have to use an object after some verbs: e.g. *beat, contain, enjoy, hit, need.* We call these **transitive verbs**. We have to say:
Arsenal beat Liverpool. But we can't say **Arsenal beat.**
- 2 Some verbs never take an object: e.g. *ache, arrive, come, faint, go, sit down, sleep, snow.* We call these **intransitive verbs**. We have to say:
We arrived at 11. But we can't say **We arrived the station at 11.**
- 3 Some verbs can be used **transitively** or **intransitively**: e.g. *begin, drop, hurt, open, ring, win.* We can say: *Arsenal won the match.* (**transitive**) or *Arsenal won.* (**intransitive**)

Write: Put an object (a pronoun or a noun) after these verbs only where possible.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 The box contains ... <i>pencils</i> | 10 The door opened |
| 2 The train has arrived | 11 This is a game no one can win |
| 3 The phone rang | 12 The concert began at 7.30. |
| 4 Someone is ringing | 13 I began |
| 5 You need | 14 It's snowing |
| 6 We sat down | 15 Quick! She's fainted |
| 7 Don't hit | 16 Did you enjoy ? |
| 8 Did you beat ? | 17 My head aches |
| 9 Who opened ? | 18 My foot hurts |

1.2C Sentences with linking verbs like 'be' and 'seem' [> LEG 1.9, 1.11, 10.23-26]

Study:

★★

- 1 Verbs like *be* [> 10.1-3] and *seem* [> 10.4] are 'linking verbs'. They cannot have an object. The word we use after *be*, etc. tells us something about the subject. In grammar, we call this a **complement** because it 'completes' the sentence by telling us about the subject. In *He is ill. She seems tired.* etc. the words *ill* and *tired* tell us about *he* and *she*.
- 2 A complement may be:
 - an adjective: *Frank is **clever**.*
 - a noun: *Frank is **an architect**.*
 - an adjective + noun: *Frank is **a clever architect**.*
 - a pronoun: *This book is **mine**.*
 - an adverb of place or time: *The meeting is **here**. The meeting is **at 2.30**.*
 - a prepositional phrase: *Alice is **like her father**.*

Write:

- a Complete these sentences using a different complement for each sentence.
- b Say whether you have used a noun, an adjective, an adjective + noun, etc.

- 1 My neighbour is very *tall. (adjective)*
- 2 My neighbour is
- 3 This apple tastes
- 4 The children are
- 5 The meeting is
- 6 Whose is this? It's
- 7 John looks
- 8 That music sounds
- 9 Your mother seems
- 10 I want to be when I leave school

1.2D Context

Write:

Read this story and arrange the words in each sentence in the right order. Add capital letters and (.), (.), (!) or (?) in the right places [> 1.1B].

SO PLEASE DON'T COMPLAIN!

- 1 the local school | attends | my son Tim *My son Tim attends the local school.*
- 2 to his school | my wife and I went | yesterday
- 3 we | to his teachers | spoke
- 4 Tim's school report | we collected
- 5 very good | wasn't | Tim's report
- 6 in every subject | were | his marks | low
- 7 was waiting anxiously for us | outside | Tim
- 8 'my report | how was' | eagerly | he asked
- 9 'very good | it wasn't' | I said
- 10 'you | harder | must try
- 11 seems | that boy Ogilvy | very clever
- 12 good marks | he got | in all subjects'
- 13 'clever parents | Ogilvy | has' | Tim said

1.3 The simple sentence: direct and indirect objects

1.3A Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object: 'Show me that photo'

[> LEG 1.13]

Study:



- 1 We can use two objects after verbs like *give* and *buy*.
Instead of: **Give the book to me**, we can say: **Give me the book**.
Instead of: **Buy the book for me**, we can say: **Buy me the book**.
- 2 Some verbs combine with TO: *bring, give, lend, pay, post, sell, send, show, tell, write*:
Bring that book to me. → *Bring me that book*.
- 3 Other verbs combine with FOR: *buy, choose, cook, cut, do, fetch, find, get, make, order*:
Please order a meal for me. → *Please order me a meal*.
- 4 We can put *it* and *them* after the verb: *Give it to me*. *Buy them for me*. *Do it for me*.
With e.g. *give* and *buy*, we can say: *Give me it*. *Buy me them*. (But not **Do me it**)
We say: *Give it to John*. *Buy them for John*. (Not **Give John it** **Buy John them**)

Write: You want people to do things for you. Write suitable polite requests using *it, them* or *one* [> 4.3B].

- 1 Where are my shoes? (find) Please *find them for me*. / *Please find me them*.....
- 2 John needs a new coat. (buy) Please
- 3 I can't reach that cup. (pass) Please
- 4 Ann wants to see our flat. (show) Please
- 5 I can't do the shopping. (do) Please
- 6 I'd like a copy of that book. (order) Please

1.3B Verb + object + 'to' + noun or pronoun: 'Explain it to me' [> LEG 1.12.1]

Study:



- 1 There are some verbs like *explain* which do not behave in exactly the same way as *give*.
For example, we can say: **Give the book to me**, or **Explain the situation to me**.
Give me the book. (but not **Explain me the situation*.*)
- 2 We cannot use an indirect object (*me*) immediately after *explain*. We can only have:
verb + object + 'to': *He explained the situation to me*.
He confessed his crime to the court.
- 3 Other verbs like *explain* and *confess* are: *admit, announce, declare, demonstrate, describe, entrust, introduce, mention, propose, prove, repeat, report, say, suggest*.

Write: Complete these sentences giving the right order of the words in brackets.

- 1 You must declare (the Customs/this camera) *this camera to the Customs*.....
- 2 Aren't you going to introduce (me/your friend)?
- 3 You can say (me/what you like)
- 4 Who suggested (this idea/you)?
- 5 He confessed (his crime/the police)
- 6 I have never admitted (anyone/this)
- 7 Can you describe (me/this man)?
- 8 Please don't mention (this/anyone)
- 9 I'm going to report (this/the headmaster)
- 10 I don't want you to repeat (what I told you/anyone)

1.3C The two meanings of 'for' [> LEG 1.13.3]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use *for* after all verbs which have two objects [> 1.3A].
- 2 When we use *for* after verbs normally followed by *to* (*give, post, read, sell, show, tell, etc.*) it can mean 'instead of': *I'll post it for you.* (= to save you the trouble)
- 3 When we use *for* after verbs normally followed by *for* (*buy, choose, do, find, keep, order, etc.*) the meaning depends on the context. It can mean 'for someone's benefit':
Mother cooked a lovely meal for me. (= for my benefit, for me to enjoy)
 It can mean 'on someone's behalf/instead of':
I'll cook the dinner for you. (on your behalf/instead of you – to save you the trouble)

Write: Tick (✓) to show whether *for* means 'instead of you/me' or 'for your/my benefit'.

	'instead of'	'for your/my benefit'
1 I've cooked a meal for you and I hope you enjoy it.	—	✓
2 Let me cook the dinner for you this evening. – Thanks!	—	—
3 I've made this cake for you. Do you like it?	—	—
4 I'll post this letter for you, shall I?	—	—
5 I've bought this especially for you.	—	—
6 I've got some change. Let me pay the bill for you.	—	—
7 As you're busy, let me book a room for you.	—	—
8 I've saved some of this pudding for you.	—	—
9 I can't choose a tie myself. Please choose one for me.	—	—
10 My father has bought a wonderful present for me.	—	—

1.3D Context

Write: Put a tick (✓) where you think you can change the word order.

A CURE FOR HYSTERIA

When I was a girl, my parents sent me to a very strict school. They had to *buy an expensive uniform for me* ¹ ✓ and *pay school fees for me* ² __. Our headmistress, Miss Prim, never smiled. She *explained the school rules to us* ³ __ and expected us to obey them. 'I will never *say anything to you* ⁴ __ twice,' she used to say. We had to *write a letter to our parents* ⁵ __ once a week and *show it to Miss Prim* ⁶ __ before we sent it. I can still remember some of the school rules. We were not allowed to *lend anything to anyone* ⁷ __. We were not allowed to *give each other help* ⁸ __ with homework. We had to *report unusual situations to the headmistress* ⁹ __. One morning, during assembly, a girl fainted. The next morning, two more fainted. This continued to happen for several mornings. Mass hysteria had set in! But Miss Prim put an end to it. She *announced a new rule to us* ¹⁰ __: 'No girl will faint in College!' And after that, no one did!



No girl will faint in College!

1.4 The compound sentence

1.4A The form of a compound sentence [> LEG 1.17-20]

Study:

★★

- 1 When we join two or more simple sentences [> 1.2A], we make a **compound sentence**:
*Tom phoned. He left a message. → Tom phoned **and** left a message.*
- 2 The name we give to 'joining words' is **conjunctions**.
These are the conjunctions we use to make compound sentences:
and, and then, but, for, nor, or, so, yet;
either ... or; neither ... nor ...; not only ... but ... (also/as well/too).
- 3 We can use conjunctions to show, for example:
 - **addition** (*and*): *He washed the car **and** polished it.*
 - **continuation** (*and then*): *He washed the car **and then** polished it.*
 - **contrast** (*but, yet*): *She sold her house, **but/yet** (she) can't help regretting it.*
 - **choice** (*or*): *You can park your car on the drive **or** on the road.*
 - **result** (*so*): *He couldn't find his pen, **so** he wrote in pencil.*
 - **reason** (*for*): *We rarely stay in hotels, **for** we can't afford it.*
- 4 We do not usually put a comma in front of *and*, but we often use one in front of other conjunctions: *He washed the car **and** polished it.* (no comma before *and*)
Compare: *He washed the car, **but** didn't polish it.* (comma before *but*)
- 5 We keep to the basic word order in a compound sentence [> 1.1A, 1.2C]:
subject verb object conjunction subject verb complement
Jimmy fell off his bike, but (he) was unhurt.
- 6 When the subject is the same in all parts of the sentence, we do not usually repeat it:
same subject: *Tom phoned. He left a message. → Tom phoned **and** (he) left a message.*
different subjects: *Tom phoned. Frank answered. → Tom phoned **and** Frank answered.*
- 7 We usually repeat the subject after *so*: *He couldn't find his pen, **so he** wrote in pencil.*
- 8 We always have to repeat the subject after *for*. *For* is more usual in the written language and we cannot use it to begin a sentence [compare > 1.9A]:
*We rarely stay at hotels, **for we** can't afford it.*

Write 1: Compound sentences with the same subject

Join these simple sentences to make compound sentences. Use the words in brackets.

- 1 I took the shoes back to the shop. I complained about them. (and)
I took the shoes back to the shop and complained about them.
- 2 Your mother phoned this morning. She didn't leave a message. (but)
.....
- 3 I can leave now. I can stay for another hour. (I can either ... or)
.....
- 4 Jim built his own house. He designed it himself. (Jim not only ... but ... as well)
.....
- 5 I don't know what happened to him. I don't care. (I neither ... nor)
.....
- 6 My new assistant can type very well. He hasn't much experience with computers. (but)
.....

Write 2: Compound sentences with different subjects and with 'so/for'

Join these simple sentences to make compound sentences. Use the words in brackets.

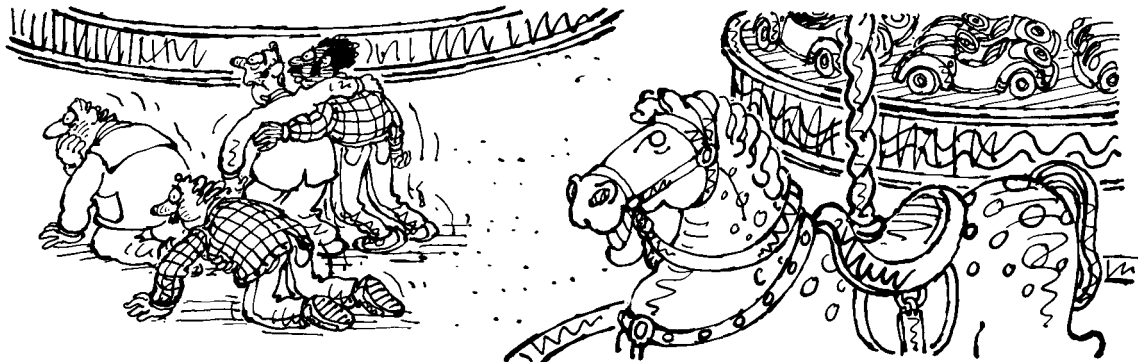
- 1 The taxi stopped at the station. Two men got out of it. (and)
The taxi stopped at the station and two men got out of it.
- 2 You can give me some advice. Your colleague can. (Either you ... or)
- 3 We got ready to get on the train. It didn't stop. (but)
- 4 No one was in when we called. We left a message. (so)
- 5 We didn't want to get home late after the film. We went straight back. (so)
- 6 The old lady was nervous. She wasn't used to strangers calling late at night. (for)
- 7 I've always wanted to live in the country. My parents prefer to live in town. (but)
- 8 The letter has been lost. The postman has delivered it to the wrong address. (or)
- 9 For a moment the top of the mountain was visible. A cloud covered it. (and then)
- 10 Jane was a successful career woman. Her mother wanted her to be a housewife. (yet)

1.4B Context

Write: Put a circle round the correct words in brackets.

(NOT SO) MERRY-GO-ROUND!

The customers at the funfair were leaving (¹and/but) the lights were going out. The last two people on dodgem cars paid (²and/so) left. The big wheel stopped (³for/and) the merry-go-round stopped (⁴as well/not only). The stalls closed down (⁵so/and) the stall-owners went home. At 2 a.m. four nightwatchmen walked round the funfair, (⁶but/so) there was no one to be seen. 'I'm fed up walking round,' one of them said, (⁷yet/and) what can we do?' 'We can (⁸or/either) play cards (⁹either/or) sit and talk.' They were bored, (¹⁰so/for) there was nothing to do on this quiet warm night. 'We can have a ride on the merry-go-round!' one of them cried. 'That'll be fun!' Three of them jumped on merry-go-round horses (¹¹yet/and) the fourth started the motor. Then he jumped on too (¹²and/but) round they went. They were having the time of their lives, (¹³but/so) suddenly realized there was no one to stop the machine. They weren't rescued till morning (¹⁴and/but) by then they felt very sick indeed!



They felt very sick indeed!

1.5 The complex sentence: noun clauses

1.5A Introduction to complex sentences [> LEG 1.21]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can join two or more simple sentences to make **complex sentences**:
The alarm was raised. The fire was discovered.
*The alarm was raised **as soon as** the fire was discovered.*
*The alarm was raised **when** the fire was discovered.*
*The alarm was raised **after** the fire was discovered.*
- 2 We can use many different kinds of 'joining words' (or **conjunctions**) to make complex sentences: *after, as soon as, when, since, that, if, so that, whether*, etc. [> 1.5-10]
- 3 In a complex sentence there is one 'main' idea and one or more 'subordinate' ideas. We can take the main idea (or **clause**) out of the sentence so that it stands on its own:
The alarm was raised is a **main clause**: it can stand on its own. ... *as soon as the fire was discovered* cannot stand on its own. It is **subordinate** to the main clause.

Write: Underline the main clauses in these sentences.

- 1 You can tell me all about the film after I've seen it myself.
- 2 When you've finished cleaning the car, you can help me with the dishes.
- 3 You didn't tell me that you were going to invite so many guests.
- 4 I walk to work every morning so that I can get some exercise.
- 5 Since no one answered my call, I left a message on the answer-phone.

1.5B Noun clauses derived from statements [> LEG 1.22-23, 15.10-16, Apps 45-46]

Study:

★★

- 1 A **noun clause** does the work of a noun. It answers the questions *Who?* or *What?*:
*He told me about **his success**.* (*told me about what?*): *his success* is a 'noun phrase'.
*He told me **that he had succeeded**.* (... *what?*): *that he had succeeded* is a noun clause.
- 2 We introduce noun clause statements with *that* after:
 - some adjectives: *It's obvious **that he's going to be late**.*
 - some nouns: *It's a pity **that he's going to be late**.*
 - some verbs: *I know **that he's going to be late**.*
- 3 We often use noun clauses after 'reporting verbs' like *say, tell (me), think, know* [> 15.2-3]. We can often omit *that*.
 Instead of: *I know **that he's going to be late**,* we can say: *I know **he's going to be late**.*

Write: Complete these sentences with noun clauses.

- 1 He feels angry. It's not surprising *(that) he feels angry*
- 2 She has resigned from her job. It's a shame
- 3 You don't trust me. It's annoying
- 4 You are feeling better. I'm glad
- 5 She's upset. I'm sorry
- 6 He didn't get the contract. He told me
- 7 It's a fair price. He believes
- 8 You're leaving. He has guessed
- 9 She's been a fool. She agrees

1.5C Noun clauses derived from questions [> LEG 1.24]

Study:

★★

Yes/No questions

- 1 *Has he signed the contract?* is a direct Yes/No question. [> 13.1]
- 2 We can introduce a Yes/No question as a **noun clause** after *if* or *whether*. We use 'reporting verbs' like *ask, tell me, want to know* [> 15.4A]:
Tell me if he has signed the contract. (Tell me what?): if he has signed the contract.
Ask him whether he has signed it. (Ask him what?): whether he has signed it.

Question-word questions

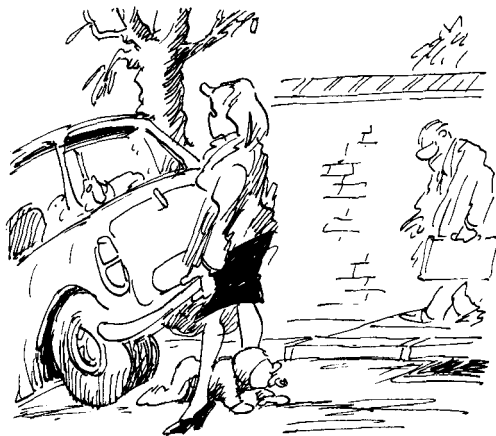
- 1 *When did you sign the contract?* is a question-word question. [> 13.5-8]
- 2 We can introduce this as a **noun clause** after *Tell me, I want to know*, etc. The word order changes back to subject + verb and we don't use a question mark [> 15.4B]:
*Tell me when you signed the contract. (Not *Tell me when did you sign*)*

Write: Complete these sentences with noun clauses.

- 1 Has he passed his exam? I want to know *if/whether he has passed his exam.*
- 2 Can you type? You didn't say
- 3 Will he arrive tomorrow? I wonder
- 4 Does he like ice-cream? Ask him
- 5 Was he at home yesterday? I'd like to know
- 6 Should I phone her? I wonder
- 7 Is she ready? Ask her
- 8 When did you meet her? I want to know
- 9 How will you manage? Tell me
- 10 Why has he left? I wonder
- 11 Where do you live? Tell me
- 12 Which one ~~does~~ she want? Ask her
- 13 Who's at the door? I wonder
- 14 What does he want? I'd like to know

1.5D Context

Write: Underline nine noun clauses in this text.



She lifted the car!

YOU DON'T KNOW YOUR OWN STRENGTH!

I suppose you know you can turn into superwoman or superman in an emergency. Mrs Pam Weldon reported that her baby nearly slipped under the wheels of a car. Mrs Weldon weighs only 50 kilos, but she said she lifted the car to save her baby. Dr Murray Watson, a zoologist, wrote that he jumped nearly three metres into the air to grab the lowest branch of a tree when hyenas chased him in Kenya. Perhaps you wonder if you can perform such feats. The chances are that you can. Doctors say that we can find great reserves of strength when we are afraid. It's well-known that adrenalin can turn us into superwomen or supermen!

1.6 The complex sentence: relative pronouns and clauses

1.6A Relative pronouns and clauses [> LEG 1.25-38]

Study:

★★

Introduction to relative clauses

Suppose you want to write a paragraph like this:

The house we moved into is absolutely beautiful. The people who lived here before us took very great care of it. The garden, which is quite small, is lovely. I'm glad we moved. I don't think we'll ever regret the decision we made.

If we want to speak or write like this, we have to master **relative clauses**. We introduce relative clauses with these relative pronouns: *who, who(m), which, that* and *whose*.

'Who', 'which' and 'that' as subjects of a relative clause [> LEG 1.27-31]

- 1 We use *who* or *that* to refer to people. We use them in place of noun subjects or pronoun subjects (*I, you, he, etc.*) and we cannot omit them.

They do not change when they refer to masculine, feminine, singular or plural:

He is the man/She is the woman who/that lives here. (Not **He is the man who he ...**)

They are the men/the women who/that live here. (Not **They are the men who they ...**)

- 2 We use *which* or *that* (in place of noun subjects and *it*) to refer to animals and things:

That's the cat which/that lives next door. Those are the cats which/that live next door.

Here's a photo which/that shows my car. Here are some photos which/that show my car.

Write: Join these sentences using *who* or *which*. (All of them will also join with *that*.)

- 1 He's the accountant. He does my accounts. *He's the accountant who does my accounts.*
- 2 She's the nurse. She looked after me.
- 3 They're the postcards. They arrived yesterday.
- 4 They're the secretaries. They work in our office.
- 5 That's the magazine. It arrived this morning.
- 6 They're the workmen. They repaired our roof.

1.6B 'Who(m)', 'which' and 'that' as objects of a relative clause [> LEG 1.33-34]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *who(m)* or *that* to refer to people. We use them in place of noun objects or object pronouns (*me, you, him, etc.*). We often say *who* instead of *whom* when we speak.

They do not change when they refer to masculine, feminine, singular or plural:

He's the man/She's the woman who(m)/that I met. (Not **He's the man that I met him.**)

They're the men/women who(m)/that I met. (Not **They are the men that I met them.**)

However, we usually omit *who(m)* and *that*. We say:

He's the man/She's the woman I met. They're the men/They're the women I met.

- 2 We use *which* or *that* (in place of noun objects or *it*) to refer to animals and things:

That's the cat which/that I photographed. Those are the cats which/that I photographed.

That's the photo which/that I took. Those are the photos which/that I took.

However, we usually omit *which* and *that*. We say:

That's the cat I photographed. Those are the cats I photographed.

That's the photo I took. Those are the photos I took.

Write: Join these sentences with *who(m)*, *which* or nothing. (All of them will join with *that*.)

- 1 He's the accountant. You recommended him to me. *He's the accountant you recommended...*
- 2 She's the nurse. I saw her at the hospital.
- 3 They're the postcards. I sent them from Spain.
- 4 They're the secretaries. Mr Pym employed them.
- 5 That's the magazine. I got it for you yesterday.
- 6 They're the workmen. I paid them for the job.
- 7 That's the dog! I saw it at the dog show last week.
- 8 They're the birds. I fed them this morning.

1.6C 'Who(m)', 'which' or 'that' as the objects of prepositions [> LEG 1.35-36]

Study:

The position of prepositions in relative clauses is very important. We can say:

- ★★
- 1 He is the **person to whom** I wrote. (Never *to who*) (very formal)
This is the **pan in which** I boiled the milk. (very formal)
 - 2 He is the **person who(m)** I wrote **to**. This is the **pan which** I boiled the milk **in**.
 - 3 However, we usually prefer to omit the relative and say:
He is the **person I wrote to**. This is the **pan I boiled the milk in**.

Write: Join each pair of sentences in three different ways.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 He's the man. I sent the money to him. | 4 He's the boy. I bought this toy for him. |
| a <i>He's the man to whom I sent the money.</i> | a |
| b <i>He's the man who(m) I sent the money to.</i> | b |
| c <i>He's the man I sent the money to.</i> | c |
| 2 She's the nurse. I gave the flowers to her. | 5 That's the building. I passed by it. |
| a | a |
| b | b |
| c | c |
| 3 That's the chair. I sat on it. | 6 They're the shops. I got these from them. |
| a | a |
| b | b |
| c | c |

1.6D Context

Write: Put in the right relative pronouns only where necessary.



A CHANCE IN A MILLION

Cissie, the woman ¹..... *who*..... works in our office, wanted to phone Mr Robinson, but she dialled the wrong number. The number ²..... she dialled turned out to be the number of a public call box in the street. A man, ³..... was passing at the time, heard the phone ringing and answered it. 'Is that Mr Robinson?' Cissie asked. 'Speaking,' the man answered. It turned out that the man ⁴..... she was speaking to was actually called Robinson and had just happened to be passing the call box when she rang!

... just happened to be passing

1.7 The complex sentence: 'whose'; defining/non-defining clauses

1.7A 'Whose' + noun in relative clauses [> LEG 1.32, 1.37]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *whose* in place of possessive adjectives (*my, your, his, etc.*) to refer to people.
Whose does not change when it refers to masculine, feminine, singular or plural:
He's the man/She's the woman whose car was stolen. (Not **whose his car was stolen**)
They're the people whose cars were stolen. (Not **whose their cars were stolen**)
- 2 We sometimes use *whose* in place of *its* to refer to things and animals:
That's the house whose windows were broken. (= the windows of which)
- 3 We can also use *whose* with prepositions:
He's the man from whose house the pictures were stolen. (formal)
He's the man whose house the pictures were stolen from.

Write: Join these sentences using *whose*.

- 1 He is the customer. I lost his address. *He's the customer whose address I lost.*.....
- 2 She is the novelist. Her book won first prize.
- 3 They are the children. Their team won the match.
- 4 You are the expert. We want your advice.
- 5 I'm the witness. My evidence led to his arrest.
- 6 She's the woman. The film was made in her house.

1.7B Defining and non-defining clauses [> LEG 1.26, 1.29, 1.31-32, 1.34-37]

Study:

★★

- 1 When we write relative clauses with *who, which* or *whose*, we have to decide whether to use commas 'round the clauses' or not.
- 2 In sentences like:
I've never met anyone who can type as fast as you can.
The magazine which arrived this morning is five days late.
the relative clauses tell us which person or thing we mean. They give us essential information which we cannot omit. We call them **defining clauses** because they 'define' the person or thing they refer to. We never use commas in such sentences.
We never use commas with *that* in relative clauses:
I've just had a phone call from the people (that) we met during our holidays.
The wallet (that) you lost has been found.
- 3 In sentences like:
Our new secretary, who can type faster than anyone I have ever met, has completely reorganized our office.
Time Magazine, which is available in every country in the world, is published every week.
the relative clauses add 'extra information'. If we take them out of the sentences, we won't seriously change the meaning. We call these **non-defining clauses** (they do not 'define') and we use commas before and after them.
- 4 Sometimes we have to decide when the information is 'essential' or 'extra' and we may or may not use commas. We must decide this for ourselves:
He asked lots of questions,(.) which were none of his business(,) and annoyed everybody.

Write: Add commas to the following sentences where necessary.

- 1 My husband, who is on a business trip to Rome all this week, sent me this postcard.
- 2 The person who told you that story didn't know what he was talking about.
- 3 Will the driver whose vehicle has the registration number PXB2140 please move it?
- 4 The author Barbara Branwell whose latest novel has already sold over a million copies will be giving a lecture at the public library tomorrow.
- 5 The person you got that information from is my cousin.
- 6 The play *Cowards* which opens at the Globe soon had a successful season on Broadway.
- 7 *Cowards* is the name of the play which ran for over two years.
- 8 The thing that pleases me most is that I'll never have to ask for your help again.
- 9 The manager whom I complained to about the service has refunded part of our bill.
- 10 Sally West whose work for the deaf made her famous has been killed in a car accident.
- 11 We found it impossible to cross the river that had flooded after the storm.
- 12 I have just learned that the engine part which I need is no longer made.

1.7C Sentences with two meanings [> LEG 1.26]

Study:

★★

The use or omission of commas round relative clauses can sometimes affect the meaning:
My wife, who is in Paris, will be returning tomorrow. Without commas, this could suggest that I have another wife who is (or other wives who are) somewhere else!

Write: Say what these sentences mean a) without commas; b) with commas.

- 1 The test paper which everyone failed was far too difficult.

- 2 My brother who is in Canada is an architect.

1.7D Context

Write: Put in relative pronouns where necessary and commas where necessary.



THIS CHARMING PROPERTY ...

People ¹..... *who*..... tell the truth about the properties they are selling should be given prizes for honesty. A house ²..... is described as 'spacious' will be found to be too large. Words like 'enchanted', 'delightful', 'convenient', 'attractive' ³..... are commonly used all mean 'small'. The words 'small' and 'picturesque' ⁴..... are not so frequently used both mean 'too small'. A 'picturesque house' is one with a bedroom ⁵..... is too small to put a bed in and a kitchen ⁶..... is too small to boil an egg in. My prize for honesty goes to someone ⁷..... recently described a house ⁸..... he was selling in the following way: 'This house ⁹..... is situated in a very rough area of London is really in need of repair. The house ¹⁰..... has a terrible lounge and a tiny dining room also has three miserable bedrooms and a bathroom ¹¹..... is fitted with a leaky shower. The central heating ¹²..... is expensive to run is unreliable. There is a handkerchief-sized garden ¹³..... is overgrown with weeds. The neighbours ¹⁴..... are generally unfriendly are not likely to welcome you. This property ¹⁵..... is definitely not recommended is ridiculously overpriced at £85,000.'

This charming property ...

1.8 The complex sentence: time, place, manner

1.8A Adverbial clauses of time, place and manner [> LEG 1.44-47]

Study:

★★

Introduction to adverbial clauses of time, place and manner

Suppose you want to write a paragraph like this:

When we visited London, we went to the Tower. We saw the spot where so many famous people had lost their heads! We felt as if we had travelled back in time to another world!

If we want to speak or write like this, we have to master **adverbial clauses of time** (answering *When?*), **place** (answering *Where?*) and **manner** (answering *How?*)

Adverbial clauses of time (past reference) [> LEG 1.45.1]

To say *when* something happened in the past, we use 'joining words' (or **conjunctions**) like *when, after, as, as soon as, before, by the time (that), once, since, until/till, while*:

When we visited London, we went to the Tower. [compare > 9.6A]

Write: Join these sentences with the conjunctions in brackets.

- 1 I lost a lot of weight. I was ill. (when)
I lost a lot of weight when I was ill.
- 2 I phoned home. I arrived in the airport building. (immediately after)
- 3 She had already opened the letter. She realized it wasn't addressed to her. (before)
- 4 The building had almost burnt down. The fire brigade arrived. (by the time)
- 5 We realized that something had gone wrong. We saw him run towards us. (as soon as)

1.8B Adverbial clauses of time (future reference) [> LEG 1.45.2]

Study:

★★

When the time clause refers to the future, we normally use the simple present after: *after, as soon as, before, by the time, directly, immediately, the moment, till, until* and *when*:

The Owens will move to a new flat when their baby is born. (Not **will be born**)

Write: Join these pairs of sentences with the conjunctions in brackets, making necessary changes.

- 1 I won't know if I have got into university. I will get my exam results. (until)
I won't know if I have got into university until I get my exam results.
- 2 I'll give him your message. He will phone. (as soon as)
- 3 We should visit the Duty Free Shop. Our flight will be called. (before)
- 4 I'll be dead. They will find a cure for the common cold. (by the time)
- 5 You'll get a surprise. You will open the door. (the moment)

1.8C Adverbial clauses of place [> LEG 1.46]

Study:

★★

To say *where* something happens or happened, we use conjunctions like *where, wherever, anywhere* and *everywhere*: *That dog follows me **wherever** I go.*

Write: Complete the following sentences to say *where*.

- 1 This is the exact spot where *the accident happened*.....
- 2 You're not allowed to park anywhere
- 3 Some television programmes are familiar everywhere
- 4 Please sit wherever
- 5 Let's put the television set in a place where

1.8D Adverbial clauses of manner [> LEG 1.47]

Study:

★★

To say *how* something happens or happened, we use these conjunctions:

as: *Type this again **as** I showed you a moment ago.*

(in) the way (that), (in) the same way: *Type this again **in the way** I showed you.*

as if/as though (especially after *be, seem, etc.*): *I feel **as if/as though** I'm floating on air.*

Write: Complete the following sentences to say *how*.

- 1 It sounds as if *it's raining*.....
- 2 I think this omelette is exactly as
- 3 When I told her the news she acted as though
- 4 I think you should write the report in the way
- 5 You never do anything the way

1.8E Context

Write: Put in the conjunctions *as, as soon as, as if, before, that, the way (that), when, which*.



CAUGHT BY THE HEEL!

Mr Boxell was just shutting his shoe shop at the end of the day 1..... *when*..... a man in a well-cut suit walked in and asked for an expensive pair of shoes. There was something about 2..... the man walked that made Mr Boxell suspicious. He felt 3..... he had seen him before somewhere, and then remembered that he had – on TV! The man was a wanted criminal! The man tried on a few pairs of shoes 4..... he bought a pair 5..... Mr Boxell strongly recommended. 'They're a bit tight,' the man complained. 'They'll stretch, sir,' Mr Boxell said. 6..... Mr Boxell had expected, the man limped into the shop next day to complain about the shoes. 7..... he entered the shop, he was surrounded by police. Mr Boxell had deliberately sold the man a pair of shoes 8..... were a size too small, knowing he would return them the next day!

The man limped into the shop

1.9 The complex sentence: reason and contrast

1.9A Adverbial clauses of reason [> LEG 1.48]

Study: **★★**

1 Adverbial clauses of reason answer the question *Why?* We often give reasons by using 'joining words' (or **conjunctions**) like *because, as, seeing (that), and since*.

2 We often begin sentences with *as* and *since*. [Compare *since* (time) > 1.8A]
As (Since) *it's a public holiday, you won't find many shops open.*

3 We often use *because* in the second half of a sentence:
*Jim's trying to find a place of his own **because** he wants to feel independent.*
 We can always use *because* in place of *as, since* and *for* [> 1.4A, Note 8]. We cannot always use *as, since* and *for* in place of *because*.

Write: Join these sentences with the conjunctions to say *why*. More than one order is possible.

- 1 Service in this hotel ought to improve. There's been a change of management. (because)
Service in this hotel ought to improve because there's been a change of management
- 2 The Air Traffic Controllers are on strike. We have cancelled our holiday. (as)

- 3 Could you sell your old computer to me? You have no further use for it. (seeing (that))

- 4 She's never in when I phone. I'll have to write to her. (since)

- 5 I've had to have the document translated. I can't read Russian. (since)

1.9B Contrast (1) [> LEG 1.50]

Study: **★★**

We can introduce **contrast** with conjunctions like *although, considering (that), though, even though, even if, much as, while* and *whereas*:
Though *I've had more than 20 lessons, I'm still not ready to take my driving test.*

Write: Join these sentences using the conjunctions in brackets to introduce *contrast*. More than one order is possible.

- 1 I'm going to buy a computer. I haven't got much money. (even though)
I'm going to buy a computer even though I haven't got much money.....
- 2 I intend to go for a walk this morning. It's raining. (even if)

- 3 I'd like to help you. I'm afraid I won't be able to. (much as)

- 4 Your design is excellent. It isn't suitable for our purposes. (while)

- 5 I try hard to play the piano. I don't seem to improve. (although)

- 6 Chinese is so difficult. It's surprising how many people learn it. (considering that)

- 7 The play was wonderful. The film was a commercial failure. (whereas)

1.9C Contrast (2) [> LEG 1.50]

Study:

We can also introduce contrast with:

- *however* + adjective or adverb: e.g. *however small, however much.*
*I intend to buy a CD player **however much** (or **whatever**) it costs.*
- *no matter*: e.g. *no matter how much, no matter where, no matter how (slow/slowly).*
*They'll find him **no matter** where he's hiding.*

Write: Join these sentences using the conjunctions in brackets. Make any necessary changes.

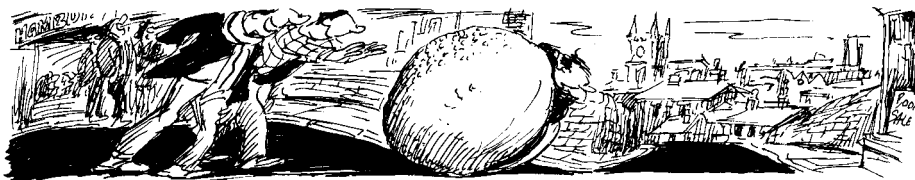
- 1 It's expensive. He's determined to buy it. (however expensive)
However expensive it is, he's determined to buy it.
- 2 I work hard. I still have to take work home with me. (however hard)
.....
- 3 You write well. It doesn't mean you will be published. (however well)
.....
- 4 She feels sorry. The damage has been done. (no matter how sorry)
.....
- 5 How much will they pay us? It will never compensate us. (no matter how much)
.....
- 6 It doesn't matter how many cards I send. I always receive more. (no matter how many)
.....
- 7 It doesn't matter what he tells you. Don't believe a word he says. (whatever)
.....

1.9D Context

Write: Put in the conjunctions *as, because, even though, since, though, while*.

A SORT OF HUMANBURGER

1.....*Even though*..... it's difficult to find work these days, Joe Dobson has just given up his job. They were surprised when he announced this at the Job Centre ²....., after a lot of effort, they had found Joe a job at a Hamburger Bar. ³..... Joe wasn't highly-qualified, this hadn't been easy. Yet Joe resigned, ⁴..... the job was easy and quite well-paid. 'What did you have to do for your money?' the young woman at the Job Centre asked. 'Strange ⁵..... it sounds,' Joe said, 'I had to dress up as a hamburger and stand outside the restaurant.' 'A sort of humanburger?' she suggested. 'That's right,' Joe said. 'I had to stand between the two round halves of a bun, ⁶..... I was "disguised" as the hamburger filling, covered in tomato sauce. The uniform was wonderful, ⁷..... I looked good enough to eat. The manager was pleased with me, ⁸..... I attracted a lot of customers.' 'So why did you give up, Joe?' the young woman asked kindly. ⁹.....,' Joe said, his voice breaking slightly, 'students kept turning me on my side and rolling me down hill!'



A sort of humanburger

1.10 The complex sentence: purpose, result and comparison

1.10A Adverbial clauses of purpose with 'so that' and 'in order that' [> LEG 1.51.2]

Study:

★★★

We can express **purpose** with *so that* and *in order that*.
I spent a year in Germany in order that (so that) I might learn German.
 Note that it's easier to use the *to*-infinitive instead of *so that* and *in order that*:
I spent a year in Germany to learn German. [> 16.2C]

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *in order that* or *so that* making any necessary changes.

- I took twenty driving lessons to pass my driving test first time.
I took twenty driving lessons in order that I might pass my driving test first time.
- I arrived at the cinema early so as not to miss the beginning of the film.

- We stood up in order to get a better view of what was happening.

- Mr Jones bought a second car for his wife to learn to drive.

- I spoke slowly and clearly because I wanted the audience to understand me.

1.10B Adverbial clauses of purpose with 'in case' [> LEG 1.51.3]

Study:

★★

In case means 'so as to be on the safe side' and refers to the future. We use the simple present or *should* after *in case*:
Take an umbrella with you. It might rain. →
Take an umbrella with you in case it rains. (Or ... in case it should rain)

Write: Join these sentences with *in case*, making any necessary changes.

- I'm going to sign the agreement immediately. You might change your mind.
I'm going to sign the agreement immediately in case you change your mind.
- Take this key with you. You might not be able to get into the house.

- We keep a fire extinguisher in the kitchen. There might be a fire.

- Go by train. There might be a lot of traffic on the roads.

- I'm going to take my passport with me. I might need it.

1.10C Adverbial clauses of result with 'so ... (that)' and 'such ... (that)' [> LEG 1.52.1]

Study:

★★

We can describe results with:

- so + adjective (that)** (= 'as a result'):
We were tired. We went to bed. → We were so tired (that) we went to bed.
- such + noun (that)** (= 'as a result'):
He's a fool. He believes anything. → He's such a fool (that) he believes anything.

Write: Join these sentences with *so ... (that)* and *such ... (that)*.

- 1 We were late. We missed the first act of the play.
We were so late (that) we missed the first act of the play.
- 2 I was working hard. I forgot what the time was.
.....
- 3 There was a delay. We missed our connecting flight.
.....
- 4 We've had difficulties. We don't think we can stay in business.
.....

1.10D Adverbial clauses of comparison with 'as ... as' [> LEG 1.53]

Study:

★★

We can make comparisons with *as ... as*, *not so (or as) ... as* and *than*:

We use object pronouns after *as* and *than* [> 4.1B]: *He's as tall as me. He's taller than me.*

Or we use subject + verb: *He is as tall as I (am). He's taller than I (am).*

We may use *do*, *does* or *did* to replace a verb in the simple present or simple past:

He plays the piano as well as I (do). He plays the piano as well as his sister (does).

You didn't finish the crossword puzzle as quickly as I (did).

Write: Join or rewrite these sentences using the conjunctions in brackets.

- 1 John works hard. Susan works hard. (as ... as)
John works as hard as Susan (does).
- 2 John is less intelligent than Susan. (not so ... as)
.....
- 3 This computer holds less information than that one. (not ... as much ... as)
.....
- 4 The film 'Superman 1' is enjoyable. 'Superman 2' is enjoyable, too. (as ... as)
.....

1.10E Context

Write: Put in *as ... as*, *but*, *in case*, *in order that*, *so ... that*, *such ... that*, *when*, *which*.



WYSIWYG /wɪziwɪg/

We create new words all the time. We have to do this *in order that* we may express new ideas. Perhaps the strangest word ²..... has come into the English language recently is 'wysiwyg'. I was ³..... puzzled by this word I kept asking people what it meant, ⁴..... no one knew. Last week I found it in a dictionary. It is not ⁵..... peculiar I had thought. It comes from computers. This is what it means, ⁶..... you want to know: 'What You See Is What You Get'. This means that what you see on your screen is what you get ⁷..... you print. Now I discover that everyone knows this word. The other day I was in my favourite restaurant and ordered sausages. They were ⁸..... small sausages I complained to the waitress. She just smiled at me and whispered, 'Wysiwyg!'

'Wysiwyg!'

1.11 The complex sentence: present participle constructions

1.11A Joining sentences with present participles ('-ing') [> LEG 1.56-1.58.1]

Study:

★★★

The **present participle** is the '-ing' form of a verb: *find* – **finding** [> 16.5].

- 1 We can use the present participle in place of *and*, *so*, etc. to join two simple sentences:
I found the front door locked. I went round the back. (two simple sentences > 1.2A)
*I found the front door locked **and went** round the back.* [> 1.4A]
Finding the front door locked, I went round the back.
- 2 To make a negative, we put *not* in front of the *-ing* form:
Not knowing his phone number, I wasn't able to ring him. (= I didn't know ...)
- 3 Note how we can use *being* in place of *is* or *was*:
I was short of money. I couldn't afford to buy it.
Being short of money, I couldn't afford to buy it.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *-ing*, making any necessary changes.

- 1 She got very worried and thought we had had an accident.
..... She got very worried, thinking we had had an accident.
- 2 He went to his room and closed the door behind him.
.....
- 3 I didn't hear what he said and asked him to repeat it.
.....
- 4 You didn't ask me for permission because you knew I would refuse.
.....
- 5 I'm not a lawyer, so I can't give you the advice you are looking for.
.....

1.11B The present participle in place of adverbial clauses [> LEG 1.56-60]

Study:

★★★

We often use the present participle after a 'joining word' (or **conjunction**).

Instead of: **Since we arrived** here, we have made many new friends. [> 1.8A]

We can say: **Since arriving** here, we have made many new friends.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using a joining word + *-ing*.

- 1 They broke this window when they tried to get into the house.
..... They broke this window when trying to get into the house.
- 2 Though he refused to eat, he admitted he was very hungry.
.....
- 3 I damaged the car while I was trying to park it.
.....
- 4 While I agree you may be right, I still object to your argument.
.....
- 5 After we looked at the map, we tried to find the right street.
.....
- 6 Don't get into any arguments before you check your facts.
.....

1.11C The present participle in place of relative clauses [> LEG 1.58.6]

Study:

★★★

- 1 We can sometimes omit *who* or *which* + *is/are* when we use the present progressive.
 Instead of: **The man who is serving** at the counter is very helpful.
 We can say: **The man serving** at the counter is very helpful.
- Instead of: **The new law applies to vehicles which are carrying** heavy loads.
 We can say: **The new law applies to vehicles carrying** heavy loads.
- 2 We can sometimes use *-ing* in place of *who* or *which* + simple present:
 Instead of: **This job will suit students who want** to work during the holidays.
 We can say: **This job will suit students wanting** to work during the holidays.

Write: Circle the words you can delete and/or change to use *-ing*.

- 1 The plane which is flying overhead is travelling north.
- 2 The candidates who are sitting for this examination are all graduates.
- 3 The woman who is waiting to see you has applied for a job here.
- 4 What can you do about a dog which is barking all night?
- 5 Trains which leave from this station take an hour to get to London.
- 6 Customers who complain about the service should see the manager.
- 7 Passengers who travel on planes shouldn't smoke.
- 8 There's a pension scheme for people who work for this company.
- 9 There's a crime prevention scheme for people who are living in this neighbourhood.
- 10 There's someone who is knocking at the door.

1.11D Context

Write: Use the *-ing* form of the verbs in brackets and put in *after*, *as*, *when* and *who*.



THE CASE OF THE POISONED MUSHROOMS

While (prepare) ¹ *preparing* a meal for her guests, Mrs Grant got rather worried about some unusual mushrooms which a kind friend had sent her from the country. (Feel) ²..... suspicious, she gave a mushroom to her dog. ³..... the dog ate it with no ill effects, Mrs Grant decided to cook the mushrooms for her guests. That evening the guests greatly enjoyed the mushrooms, (comment) ⁴..... on their unusual flavour. They quickly changed their minds ⁵..... Mrs Grant's daughter, Jill, burst into the dining-room and announced that the dog was dead. On (hear) ⁶..... the news, Mrs Grant, now in a state of shock, phoned Dr Craig, ⁷..... came round immediately and pumped out the stomachs of all those who had eaten the mushrooms – a very unpleasant experience for them. ⁸..... Dr Craig asked if he could see the dog, he was led out of the house. He soon discovered that the dog had been killed by a passing car. Not (know) ⁹..... anything of her mother's suspicions about the mushrooms, Jill hadn't mentioned this important fact when (announce) ¹⁰..... the death of the dog.

They quickly changed their minds!

1.12 The complex sentence: perfect/past participle constructions

1.12A 'Being' and 'having been' [> LEG 1.60]

Study:

- 1 We sometimes use *being* in place of *is*, *are*, *was* or *were*, though this is often formal:
Instead of: ***I was lost***, so I had to ask someone the way.
We can say: ***Being lost***, I had to ask someone the way.
- 2 We sometimes use *having been* in place of *have been* or *had been* (also formal):
Instead of: ***I've been abroad***, so I missed the elections.
We can say: ***Having been abroad***, I missed the elections.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *being* or *having been*.

- 1 I am out of work, so I spend a lot of my time at home.
... *Being out of work, I spend a lot of my time at home.*
- 2 John is a scientist, so he hasn't read a lot of novels.
.....
- 3 He has been promised a reward, so he hopes he'll get one.
.....
- 4 I was near a newsagent's, so I went in and got a paper.
.....
- 5 They had been up all night, so they were in no mood for jokes.
.....

1.12B 'It being' and 'there being' [> LEG 1.60]

Study:

- 1 We sometimes use *it being* in place of *it is* or *it was* (formal):
Instead of: ***It was Sunday***, so it was hard to find a garage open.
We can say: ***It being Sunday***, it was hard to find a garage open.
- 2 We sometimes use *there being* in place of *there is* or *there was* (formal):
Instead of: ***There was*** so much noise, I couldn't hear what was going on.
We can say: ***There being*** so much noise, I couldn't hear what was going on.
- 3 We can use *it being* and *there being* after *without* (formal):
They often dig up the roads ***without it being*** necessary. (= it isn't necessary)
She suddenly began shouting ***without there being*** any reason. (= there was no reason)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *it being* or *there being*, making any necessary changes.

- 1 There were no questions so the meeting ended quickly.
... *There being no questions, the meeting ended quickly.*
- 2 He kept helping himself to money and it wasn't noticed. (without it ...)
.....
- 3 He kept asking awkward questions and there was no reason for it. (without there ...)
.....
- 4 It was a holiday, so there were thousands of cars on the roads.
.....
- 5 There was no one in, so I left a message.
.....

1.12C Agreement between present participle and subject [> LEG 1.61]

Study:
★★★

We have to be very careful to make the participle agree with the subject of both verbs:
Turning the corner, I saw a tile fall off the roof. (= I turned ... and I saw ...)
 If we say or write **Turning the corner, the tile fell off the roof**, this means 'the tile was turning the corner and then fell off the roof'. The sentence is nonsense!

Write: What's wrong with these sentences?

- 1 Opening the door of the refrigerator, the smell was bad. *It wasn't the smell that was opening the door.*
- 2 Changing gear, the bus had difficulty getting up the hill.
- 3 Burning the rubbish, all my important papers were destroyed.

1.12D Past participle constructions [> LEG 1.62]

Study:
★★★

- 1 The **past participle** is the third part of a verb [> 9.3A-B]:
*play – played – **played*** (regular verbs); *build – built – **built*** (irregular verbs)
- 2 We sometimes use the past participle instead of the passive:
***Viewed** from a distance, it resembled a cloud.* (When it was viewed ...)
***Although built** years ago, it was in good order.* (Although it was built ...)
***If accepted** for the job, you will be informed soon.* (If you are accepted ...)
- 3 We can omit *who* and *which*: ***The system used** here is very successful.* (which is used...)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using past participles.

- 1 The painting was lost for many years. It turned up at an auction.
lost for many years, the painting turned up at an auction.
- 2 Although the meat was cooked for several hours, it was still tough.

- 3 If the picture is seen from this angle, it looks rather good.

- 4 The vegetables which are sold in this shop are grown without chemicals.

- 5 When the poem is read aloud it is very effective.

1.12E Context

Write: Put in suitable words (and forms where necessary) in the spaces below.



YAH BOOH!

My cat Blossom is always getting into fights with Ginger, the tomcat next door.

1 *When* I see Ginger through my window, I shout and wave my arms to frighten him away. 2 out of the window yesterday, I saw Ginger near my front door. There 3 no one around, I pulled a hideous face, stuck out my tongue, waved my arms over my head and started screaming, 'Yah booh! Yah booh!' 4 the front door, I was determined to chase Ginger away. 5 I succeeded admirably, I terrified the postman as well!

2 Nouns

2.1 One-word nouns

2.1A Noun endings: people who do things/people who come from places

[> LEG 2.2, App 2]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use some words only as nouns: e.g. *desk, hat, tree*, etc.
- 2 However, we often make nouns from other words by adding different endings or **suffixes** and sometimes making other small changes. For example, if we add *-er* to a verb like *play*, we get the noun *player*; if we add *-ity* to the adjective *active*, we get the noun *activity*. There is no easy rule to tell us which endings to use to make nouns.
- 3 Typical endings which make nouns:
people who do things: *actor, assistant, beggar, driver, engineer, historian, pianist*.
people who come from places: *Athenian, Berliner, Milanese, Muscovite, Roman*.

Write:

Give the nouns which describe people who do things or who come from places. Use these noun endings: *-an, -ant, -ar, -er, -ian, -ist, -or*. Some are used more than once.

- 1 He *acts* very well. He's a fine *actor*
- 2 Don't *beg*. You're not a
- 3 I can't play the *piano*. I'm not a
- 4 She *drives* well. She's a good
- 5 I'm from *Berlin*. I'm a
- 6 She's from *Athens*. She's an
- 7 Manuel *assists* me. He's my
- 8 She always tells *lies*. She's such a
- 9 He's from *Texas*. He's a
- 10 Anna is studying *history*. She's a fine

2.1B Nouns formed from verbs, adjectives, other nouns [> LEG 2.2-3, Apps 2, 3.2]

Study:

★★

- 1 Some nouns have the same form as verbs: *act, attempt, blame, book, call, copy, cost, dance, fall, fear, help, joke, kiss, laugh, try, vote, wait, walk, wash, wish*.
- 2 Typical endings which make nouns from:
– **verbs:** *acceptance, agreement, arrival, behaviour, discovery, knowledge, possession*.
– **adjectives:** *absence, activity, anxiety, constancy, happiness*.
– **other nouns:** *boyhood, kingdom, lunacy, mouthful, sexism*.

And note *-ing* forms used as nouns: *I've given your shirt an ironing*. [> 2.2A, 16.5]

Write:

Give the nouns derived from verbs, adjectives or other nouns. Use these endings: *-age, -hood, -ation, -ion, -ful, -ence, -ency, -ness, -al, -(er)y, -ment, -ety, -ism, -ity, -ing*.

- 1 I *decided* this. It was my *decision*
- 2 Don't be so *anxious*. Control your
- 3 Ann's a *socialist*. She believes in
- 4 We all want to be *happy*. We all seek
- 5 We all *agree*. We're all in
- 6 Who *discovered* this? Who made this ?
- 7 We'll all *arrive*. We'll be met on
- 8 I was a *child* then. That was in my
- 9 She is *absent*. Can you explain her ?
- 10 I'll *post* this. What's the ?
- 11 *Try* again. Have another
- 12 Be more *efficient*. Improve your
- 13 Don't be so *curious*. Control your
- 14 *Address* this envelope. I'll give you the
- 15 I *refused* their offer. My is final.
- 16 I *warned* you. I gave you enough
- 17 Put it in your *mouth*. Take one
- 18 Can you *explain* it? Is there an ?
- 19 They *tried* him. I was at the
- 20 Don't *argue*. I don't want an

2.1C Nouns and verbs with the same spelling but different stress

[> LEG 2.3.1, App 3.1]

Study:

★★

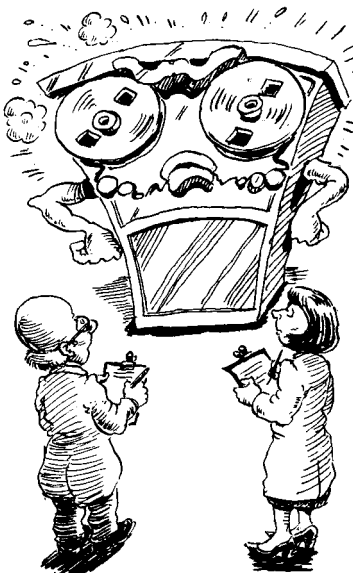
- 1 With some words, when the stress is on the **first syllable**, the word is a **noun**.
When the stress is on the **second syllable**, it is a **verb**. The meanings are related:
noun: *We have finished Book 1. We have made good **'progress**.*
verb: *We are now ready to **pro**g**ress** to Book 2.*
- 2 The meanings can also be quite different:
noun: *My son's **con**duct**** at school hasn't been very good.*
verb: *Mahler used to **con**duct**** the Vienna Philharmonic.*

Write: Underline the syllable that you would stress when speaking.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 I need a <i>permit</i> to work in this country. | 13 I've brought you a <i>present</i> . |
| 2 I can't <i>permit</i> you to park here. | 14 Please <i>present</i> my compliments to him. |
| 3 Will they <i>increase</i> my salary next year? | 15 I must <i>protest</i> at your proposal. |
| 4 I'm looking for an <i>increase</i> in salary. | 16 The proposal didn't go without <i>protest</i> . |
| 5 Joy <i>objects</i> to your proposal. | 17 I've got an Australian <i>accent</i> . |
| 6 Don't treat me as if I were an <i>object</i> . | 18 Please <i>accent</i> every syllable. |
| 7 We've had complaints about your <i>conduct</i> . | 19 Our <i>exports</i> have increased this year. |
| 8 I'll <i>conduct</i> you to your seat. | 20 We <i>export</i> everything we make. |
| 9 This is the <i>entrance</i> to the building. | 21 I'll <i>escort</i> you to your new office. |
| 10 Gloria will <i>entrance</i> you. | 22 You'll need an <i>escort</i> . |
| 11 Do you want to buy this <i>record</i> ? | 23 Our <i>imports</i> have increased. |
| 12 Let me <i>record</i> your voice. | 24 We <i>import</i> too much. |

2.1D Context

Write: Refer to the words in brackets and put in the right nouns.



COMPUTER TANTRUMS

A clever computer built at Imperial College, London, often suffers from (bore) ¹....*boredom*.... The computer was built to find out about human (communicate) ²..... The computer acquired a simple vocabulary in the same way as babies do: through (babble) ³..... It is common (know) ⁴..... that when babies babble, it is a (prepare) ⁵..... for speech. When babies make sounds like real words, they are encouraged to remember them. With (encourage) ⁶..... from their parents, babies quickly build up their vocabulary. In the same way, the clever computer learnt to use real words. For example, it learnt to identify a black cat. It was then shown a white cat to test how good it was at (recognize) ⁷..... It refused to co-operate because the (solve) ⁸..... to the problem was too easy. At first this (refuse) ⁹..... puzzled scientists, but then they decided the computer was having a tantrum. 'It just sits there and goes on strike,' a (science) ¹¹..... said. 'These clever computers must also be taught good (behave) ¹⁰.....'

The computer was having a tantrum!

2.2 Compound nouns

2.2A Nouns formed with gerund ('-ing') + noun: 'dancing-shoes'

[> LEG 2.7, 2.11n.3, 6.3.1, 16.39.3]

Study:

★★

- 1 When a noun has two or more parts (e.g. *classroom*), we call it a **compound noun**.
We can make compound nouns with the *-ing* form: e.g. *dancing-shoes* [compare > 16.5].
- 2 The *-ing* form can sometimes be an **adjective**:
Can you see that 'dancing' couple? (= couple that is dancing)
When the *-ing* form is an adjective, we stress both words and never use a hyphen.
- 3 The *-ing* form can be the first part of a **compound noun**:
I need a pair of 'dancing-shoes. (= shoes used for dancing; not 'shoes that are dancing')
When the *-ing* form is a noun, we stress the first word only and a hyphen is optional.

Write: Put a tick if the second word is part of a compound noun.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 You need a pair of <i>running shoes</i> . ✓ | 5 This water is near <i>boiling point</i> . ___ |
| 2 We sat beside a <i>running stream</i> . ___ | 6 I need some <i>boiling water</i> . ___ |
| 3 Put it in the <i>frying pan</i> . ___ | 7 Where are my <i>walking shoes</i> ? ___ |
| 4 I like the smell of <i>frying sausages</i> . ___ | 8 Vera is a <i>walking dictionary</i> . ___ |

2.2B Apostrophe s ('s) or compound noun? [> LEG 2.10.1, 2.44, 2.47-48]

Study:

★★★

- 1 We use apostrophe s ('s) and s apostrophe (s') with people and some living things to show possession: *Gus's car, the girls' shoes, a dog's bark* [> 2.8].
- 2 When we want to show possession with things, we can use *of*: *the leg of the table*.
However, we often prefer to use a compound noun instead of *of*: *the table-leg*.
- 3 We can say *the voice of a man* or *a man's voice*. (Not **a man voice**)
We can say *the leg of a table* or *a table-leg*. (Not **a table's leg**)

Write: Supply a phrase with 's or a compound noun in place of the phrases in italics.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 Where's <i>the key of the car</i> ? <i>the car key</i> | 17 Please clean <i>the switches of the lights</i> |
| 2 Where's <i>the surgery of the doctor</i> ? | 18 I spoke to <i>the secretary of the boss</i> |
| 3 It's <i>the idea of the committee</i> | 19 This is <i>the new policy of the party</i> |
| 4 Don't damage <i>the nib of the pen</i> | 20 <i>The cover of the book</i> is torn. |
| 5 It's <i>the keyboard of the computer</i> | 21 He's <i>the son of Mr Jones</i> |
| 6 I've cleaned <i>the top of the desk</i> | 22 <i>The gate of the factory</i> was shut. |
| 7 It was in <i>the reign of King John</i> | 23 Please open <i>the door of the garage</i> |
| 8 Do you like <i>the poetry of Eliot</i> ? | 24 I've lost <i>the photos of the children</i> |
| 9 It's <i>the responsibility of no one</i> | 25 <i>The phone in the office</i> is out of order. |
| 10 Look at <i>the handle of the suitcase</i> ! | 26 <i>The critic of the film</i> was wrong. |
| 11 Polish <i>the knob of the front door</i> | 27 She's a <i>teacher of dancing</i> |
| 12 <i>The journey of Scott</i> is historic. | 28 Who's <i>the mother of the twins</i> ? |
| 13 Who stole <i>the bicycle of the postman</i> ? | 29 That's <i>the wife of my brother</i> |
| 14 Put out <i>the stub of that cigarette</i> | 30 I need a <i>new lamp for reading</i> |
| 15 We've got a <i>new table in the kitchen</i> | 31 <i>The surface of the road</i> is slippery. |
| 16 Don't pull <i>the tail of the horse</i> ! | 32 He is <i>the secretary of the President</i> |

2.2C Compound nouns which tell us about materials and substances

[> LEG 2.10.5, 6.13]

Study:

★★

- Names of materials and substances (*leather, gold*) are like adjectives when we use them to form compound nouns: *a watch made of gold* → *a **gold watch***. (Not *golden*)
These words behave like adjectives in this one way, but they remain nouns because they do not have comparative or superlative forms and we cannot put *very* in front of them.
We stress both words in spoken English: *I can't afford a 'gold'watch*. [> 6.4B-D]
- Two important exceptions are *wood* and *wool*, which have adjectival forms:
a table made of wood → *a **wooden** table*; *a dress made of wool* → *a **woollen** dress*.
- There are adjectival forms for words like *gold*: *glass/glassy, gold/golden, leather/leathery, silver/silvery, silk/silky/silken, steel/steely, stone/stony*.
We use them to mean 'like': *a **golden** sunset* (= a sunset like gold).

Write: Make compound nouns or use adjectival forms.

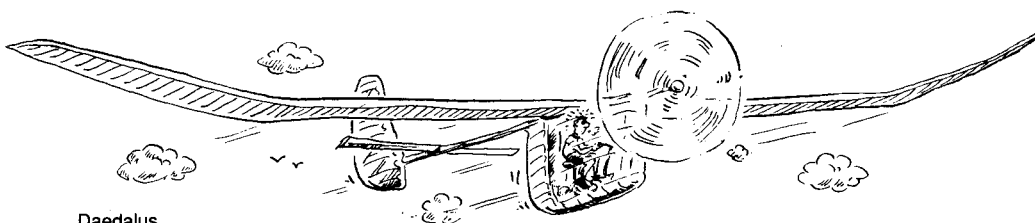
- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1 a raincoat made of plastic <i>a <u>plastic raincoat</u></i> | 10 a blouse made of cotton |
| 2 a shirt made of silk | 11 a teapot made of silver |
| 3 hair like silk | 12 a voice like silver |
| 4 a table-top made of glass | 13 a wall made of stone |
| 5 eyes like glass | 14 silence like stone |
| 6 a wallet made of leather | 15 a tile made of ceramic |
| 7 a spoon made of stainless steel | 16 a nailbrush made of nylon |
| 8 nerves like steel | 17 a tongue like leather |
| 9 a pullover made of wool | 18 a spoon made of wood |

2.2D Context

Write: Refer to the words in brackets and put in the right compounds.

GREEK BIRDMAN

You probably remember the story of Daedalus, who made (*wings of feathers*)¹ *feather wings* for himself and his son, Icarus, to escape Minos, King of Crete. A young Greek, Kanellos Kanellopoulos, recently repeated this journey in (*a machine that flies*)² called 'Daedalus'. His (*path of flight*)³ was from Crete to Santorini, a distance of 119 kilometres. Kanellos, (*a cyclist who is a champion*)⁴, didn't use wax and feathers, but (*power from pedals*)⁵ to drive his machine. He was in the (*seat of the pilot*)⁶ for 3 hours and 5 minutes. His (*machine made of carbon fibre*)⁷ weighed 31 kilos and its wings measured 34 metres. Icarus, in the old story, flew too close to the sun. The wax that held his wings melted, so he crashed into the sea. Kanellos, however, kept 3 to 4 metres above the water and had a good (*wind from the south*)⁸ He broke the record for human-powered flight previously set up by Bryan Allen, who 'cycled' 35.8 km across the English Channel.



Daedalus

2.3 Countable and uncountable nouns (1)

2.3A Countable and uncountable nouns compared [> LEG 2.14]

Study:

★★

1 If a noun is **countable**:

- a** we can use *a/an* in front of it: *I bought **a book**.* (Not **I bought book.**)
b it has a plural and can be used in questions with *How many?*: *How many **books** ...?*
c we can use a number in front of it: *one book, two books.*

2 If a noun is **uncountable**:

- a** we do not normally use *a/an* in front of it: *I bought **some bread**.* (Not **a bread**)
b it does not normally have a plural and can be used in questions with *How much?*:
*How much **bread** ...?* (Not **How many breads?**)
c we cannot normally use a number in front of it. [compare > 2.3C]

3 We need to know whether nouns are countable or uncountable in English to be able to use *a/an, some, any, much, many, a few, a little*, etc. correctly.

- Compare: *It was **a marvellous experience**.* (countable = something that happened)
*We need someone with **experience**.* (uncountable = skill and knowledge)

Write:

Underline the noun in each sentence and write 'C' or 'U' to show whether the noun is countable or uncountable.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 This is an excellent <u>painting</u> . <u>C</u> | 6 Hope keeps me going. <u> </u> |
| 2 I don't like milk. <u> </u> | 7 He hasn't a hope. <u> </u> |
| 3 How many photos did he take? <u> </u> | 8 How much flour did you buy? <u> </u> |
| 4 Add a little more oil. <u> </u> | 9 Where are my two new shirts? <u> </u> |
| 5 His drawings really interest me. <u> </u> | 10 We've got plenty of coal. <u> </u> |

2.3B Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable: 'an egg/egg'

[> LEG 2.16.1, 2.16.2]

Study:

★★

1 Some nouns are countable when they refer to single items, but they are uncountable when they refer to substances:

- | | |
|---|--|
| countable (a single item) | uncountable (substance/material) |
| <i>He ate a whole chicken!</i> | <i>Would you like some chicken?</i> |
| <i>I had a boiled egg for breakfast.</i> | <i>There's egg on your tie.</i> |

2 Some nouns are uncountable when they refer to a material, but they are countable when they refer to an object made from that material:

- | | |
|---|---|
| countable ('thing') | uncountable ('material') |
| <i>I broke a glass this morning.</i> | <i>Glass is made from sand and lime.</i> |
| <i>I picked up a stone.</i> | <i>We used stone to build our walls.</i> |

Write:

Underline the noun in each sentence and write 'C' or 'U' to show whether the noun is being used as a countable or as an uncountable.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 Add more <u>onion</u> . <u>U</u> | 6 Would you like an ice? <u> </u> |
| 2 Would you like some fish? <u> </u> | 7 I need two clean glasses. <u> </u> |
| 3 I eat two eggs every day. <u> </u> | 8 Don't throw stones. <u> </u> |
| 4 Too much cake isn't good for you. <u> </u> | 9 A lot of paper is wasted. <u> </u> |
| 5 They've built a new motorway. <u> </u> | 10 We bought a new iron yesterday. <u> </u> |

2.3C Normally uncountable nouns used as countables (1): 'a coffee/(some) coffee' [> LEG 2.16.3]

Study:

★★

1 Words for drinks like *coffee* are normally uncountable. This means:
 – we use no article: **Coffee** is important to the economy of Brazil.
 – or we use *some/any*: Is there **any coffee**? I'd like **some coffee**, please.

2 However, when we are ordering *coffee*, etc., we normally treat it as countable:
 I'd like **a coffee**, please. **Two coffees**, please. **One coffee** and a glass of milk, please.

Write: Use *I'd like ... , please* to ask for drinks in each situation.

- 1 You have come down to breakfast. There is a choice between tea and coffee.
 *I'd like (some) tea, please. I'd like (some) coffee, please.*
- 2 You are ordering drinks. You want coffee for yourself. Your two friends want tea.

- 3 You are ordering drinks for three people: beer, lemonade, tomato juice.

- 4 You are ordering drinks. Two want coffee. Three want tea. One wants milk.

2.3D Normally uncountable nouns used as countables (2): 'oil/a light oil' [> LEG 2.16.3]

Study:

★★★

Words like *oil* and *plastic* for substances and materials are normally uncountable [> 3.5A]:
Oil is produced in the North Sea.
 We often use *a/an* with nouns like this when we are describing them with an adjective:
The North Sea produces **a light oil** which is highly prized in the oil industry.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using the nouns as countables.

- 1 The North Sea produces oil. (light) *The North Sea produces a light oil.*
- 2 This region produces wine. (excellent)
- 3 This factory produces cloth. (traditional)
- 4 This box is made of wood. (rare)

2.3E Context

Write: Put in *a, some, or '.*



OOOPS!

1..... wine is not cheap and 2..... good wine can cost a lot of money these days. So spare 3..... thought for Mr Sokolin, 4..... New York wine merchant, who recently lost 5..... bottle of wine worth £305,000 (or about £50,000 6..... glass!). It was 7..... 1784 Chateau Margaux which had once belonged to Thomas Jefferson, the third president of America. Mr Sokolin took the bottle to 8..... wine tasting and put it on 9..... table. The bottle was made of 10..... dark glass and a waiter didn't notice it. He hit it with 11..... tray, making 12..... large hole in it. Most of the wine was lost, but Mr Sokolin was able to taste 13..... of it. He said it was 'not very good', but the loss of the bottle was described as '14..... terrible tragedy'.

2.4 Countable and uncountable nouns (2)

2.4A Singular equivalents of uncountable nouns: 'bread/a loaf' [> LEG 2.16.6]

Study:

★★

- 1 A word like *bread* is uncountable. If we want 'one item', we use a different word:
*I'd like **some bread**, please. → I'd like **a loaf** (of bread), please.*
- 2 Sometimes we have to say exactly what we want. We cannot say **a clothing**, so we ask for *a coat, a shirt*, etc. In the same way, we cannot say **a luggage**, **an accommodation**. We have to say what we want: e.g. *a suitcase, a room*.

Write:

Put in any suitable word which means 'one item'.

- 1 Are you giving away all this clothing/all these clothes? – No, I'm giving away a *coat*
- 2 There's a lot of laughter from next door. I just heard a very loud
- 3 My luggage is getting old and worn. I really need a new
- 4 There are a lot of people looking for work. I need a myself.
- 5 I'm looking for accommodation. I'd like a for the night.

2.4B Nouns not normally countable in English: 'information'

[> LEG 2.14.1-2, 2.17, 2.30, App 4]

Study:

★★

- 1 A number of nouns, like *information*, are countable in many languages, but they are uncountable in English. This means we cannot:
 - use *a/an* in front of them: *I'd like **some information**, please.* (Not **an information**)
 - give them a plural: *I'd like **some information**, please.* (Not **(some) informations**)

Other examples: *advice, clothing, flu, furniture, hair, homework, housework, jewellery, lightning, luggage, meat, money, news, permission, progress, rubbish, scenery, shopping, soap, spaghetti, thunder, toast, traffic, weather.*
- 2 *News* is plural in form, but takes a singular verb: **The news is bad.** (Not **the news are**)
Hair (that grows on the head) is singular: **My hair is long.** (Not **my hairs are**)
We use *hairs* only for individual strands of *hair*: **There are three hairs on my nose.**

Write 1:

Tick the words which normally have plurals in English.

- | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1 <i>advice</i> ___ | 4 <i>answer</i> ___ | 7 <i>penny</i> ___ | 10 <i>money</i> ___ |
| 2 <i>diamond</i> ✓ | 5 <i>jewellery</i> ___ | 8 <i>story</i> ___ | 11 <i>news</i> ___ |
| 3 <i>meat</i> ___ | 6 <i>carrot</i> ___ | 9 <i>scenery</i> ___ | 12 <i>shirt</i> ___ |

Write 2:

Put in *some, any, a, the, a lot of* or *'*.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 I'd like some information, please. | 11 Can you give me description of it? |
| 2 The tree was struck by lightning. | 12 I'd like tomatoes, please. |
| 3 Is there toast, please? | 13 Would you like spaghetti? |
| 4 There's slice of toast left. | 14 There was traffic this morning. |
| 5 What's weather like today? | 15 John's gone to bed with flu. |
| 6 Can I have potatoes, please? | 16 Have you made progress with Chinese? |
| 7 I need new clothing. | 17 I've got permission to park here. |
| 8 I'm tired. I've just done shopping. | 18 Our teacher has given us homework. |
| 9 I've done housework. | 19 There's rubbish in our garden. |
| 10 I've just received letter from John. | 20 I'm going to plant tree in the garden. |

2.4C Partitives: 'a piece of', etc. [> LEG 2.18, App 5]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use **partitives** to refer to:
 - one item: **a loaf of bread**
 - a part of a whole: **a slice of bread**
 - a collection of items: **a packet of biscuits**
- 2 The most common partitives are *a piece of* and (in everyday speech) *a bit of*.
Can I have a piece of bread/a bit of bread/two pieces of bread, please?
- 3 There are partitives which go with some words but not with others. So we can say *a slice of bread, a slice of cake, a slice of meat* (but not **a slice of soap**).
Partitives can be 'containers' (*a tin of soup*) or can refer to small amounts (*a drop of rain*).

Write: Match A and B.

A

- 1 I'd like *some* ice. *a cube of ice*
- 2 Have you got *any* chocolate?
- 3 Can I have *some* bread, please?
- 4 We need *some* paper.
- 5 Buy me *some* soap, please.
- 6 Buy me *some* milk, please.
- 7 We need *some* jam.
- 8 Have you got *any* matches?
- 9 I've made *some* tea.
- 10 Buy *some* toothpaste.
- 11 Add *a little* water.
- 12 Add *a little* salt.
- 13 I've drunk *a little* tea.
- 14 Add *a little* soda.
- 15 I can see *a little* smoke.

B

- a wisp of
- a cube of
- a splash of
- a box of
- a sip of
- a tube of
- a drop of
- a bar of
- a slice of
- a pinch of
- a sheet of
- a jar of
- a bar of
- a bottle of
- a pot of

2.4D Context

Write: Put in *a*, *a lot of* (use once only), *some*, or '-'

JUNK OR ART?

Who became famous for painting ¹.....*a*..... tin of soup? The answer is the American pop artist, Andy Warhol. Andy painted everyday objects and he also liked to collect them in large numbers: ²..... cookie jars, ³..... sets of cutlery, ⁴..... vases, ⁵..... furniture and ⁶..... paintings. Andy died in 1987 and his vast collection was sold. Someone paid \$23,100 for two cookie jars which had cost a few dollars each. ⁷..... pieces of furniture were sold for nearly \$300,000. The sale raised ⁸..... money for the Andy Warhol Foundation for the Visual Arts, which may now have \$100m! So, before you clear out your attic, take another look. What you think is ⁹..... rubbish today, might be ¹⁰..... treasure tomorrow. That ugly old vase belonging to Grandma may be more valuable than you think!



Junk or art?

2.5 Number (singular and plural) (1)

2.5A Nouns with plurals ending in -s or -es: 'friends', 'matches' [> LEG 2.20, 2.21]

Study:



- 1 We add -s to form the plural of most nouns.
We pronounce -s as /s/ after these sounds: /f/ chiefs; /k/ cakes; /p/ taps; /t/ pets; /θ/ months.
We pronounce -s as /z/ after these sounds: /b/ verbs; /d/ friends; /g/ bags; /l/ bells; /m/ names; /n/ lessons; /ŋ/ songs; vowel (a, e, i, o, u) + s: eyes, or vowel sound + r: chairs.
- 2 We add -es after nouns ending in -o: potato – potatoes; -s: class – classes; -x: box – boxes; -ch: match – matches; -sh: dish – dishes.

We do not pronounce e in plurals like: cakes, clothes, tables, names, eyes.
We pronounce the plural as /ɪz/ after these sounds:
/z/: noises; /dʒ/: oranges; /s/: buses; /ʃ/: dishes; /tʃ/: matches; /ks/: boxes.

Write:

Write the plurals of these nouns in the columns below to show their pronunciation.
address, beach, bottle, cinema, clock, guitar, hotel, island, lake, light, month, office, park, piece, smile, space, tape, village.

/s/	/z/	/ɪz/
1 clocks	7 bottles	13 addresses
2	8	14
3	9	15
4	10	16
5	11	17
6	12	18

2.5B Nouns with plurals ending in -s or -es: 'countries', 'knives'

[> LEG 2.20, 2.23, 2.36]

Study:



- 1 Consonant (b, c, d, etc.) + -y becomes -ies: country/countries, strawberry/strawberries.
- 2 Vowel (a, e, o and u) + -y adds an -s: days, keys, boys, guys.
Proper nouns (names spelt with a capital letter) ending in -y just add an -s:
Have you met the **Kennedys**? The last four **Januaries** have been very cold.
- 3 We change the ending -f or -fe into -ves in the plural with the following nouns:
calf/calves, half/halves, knife/knives, leaf/leaves, life/lives, loaf/loaves, self/selves, sheaf/sheaves, shelf/shelves, thief/thieves, wife/wives and wolf/wolves.
- 4 We add -s or -ves to: hoof – hoofs/hooves, scarf – scarfs/scarves.
- 5 We just add -s to: handkerchief/handkerchiefs, roof/roofs.

Write:

Rewrite these sentences in the plural making necessary changes.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 This cherry is very sweet.
.....
<i>These cherries are very sweet.</i> | 4 The leaf is turning yellow.
..... |
| 2 I've lost my key.
..... | 5 The roof has been damaged.
..... |
| 3 This knife is blunt.
..... | 6 We have a Henry in our family.
We have three |

2.5C Nouns ending in -o and some irregular plural forms

[> LEG 2.20, 2.25-27, App 49]

Study:

★★

- 1 To nouns ending in -o, we add -es: *hero – heroes, potato – potatoes, tomato – tomatoes*. Or we add -es or -s: *cargo – cargoes or cargos, volcano – volcanoes or volcanos*. Or we add only -s: *bamboos, photos, pianos, radios, solos, videos, zoos*.
- 2 We change the vowels of some nouns to form the plural: *foot/feet, goose/geese, man/men, mouse/mice, tooth/teeth, woman/women*. And note: *child/children, ox/oxen*.
- 3 Some nouns have the same singular and plural forms: *aircraft, deer, salmon, trout, sheep*.
- 4 Nationality nouns ending in -ese and -ss have the same singular and plural forms: *a Chinese – the Chinese; a Swiss – the Swiss*. [> 3.3C]

Write: Rewrite these sentences in the plural making necessary changes.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 Which video do you like best?
.....
<i>Which videos do you like best?</i> | 6 A postman is busy all the time.
..... |
| 2 Which volcano is erupting?
..... | 7 We're going to sell that sheep.
..... |
| 3 This is John's pet mouse.
..... | 8 I can see a salmon in the water.
..... |
| 4 This tooth is giving me trouble.
..... | 9 Which aircraft has just landed?
..... |
| 5 Can you see that goose?
..... | 10 A Swiss is used to mountains.
..... |

2.5D Context

Write: Supply the correct plural forms.



WHAT DOES IT COME UNDER?

If you're dieting there are certain (*food*)¹.....*foods*..... you really have to avoid: (*cake*)²..... and (*biscuit*)³..... are out for a start, but you can't live for ever on (*tomato*)⁴..... and (*orange*)⁵..... . There are (*man*)⁶..... and (*woman*)⁷..... who spend their entire (*life*)⁸..... counting the calories they take in each day. Some national (*cuisine*)⁹..... make you fat. The (*Japanese*)¹⁰..... have a high protein diet, while the (*Swiss*)¹¹..... eat a lot of milk (*product*)¹²..... . Personally, I'm lucky not to have to diet, but my friend, John, can't eat anything without looking it up in his Calorie Chart. This is carefully organized so that (*strawberry*)¹³..... and (*peach*)¹⁴..... are under 'Fruit'; (*potato*)¹⁵..... and (*spaghetti* > 2.4B)¹⁶..... come under 'Starchy Foods', and so on. I entertained John to a nice low calorie meal yesterday and at the end I offered him some jelly. 'What does "jelly" come under?' he asked looking at his chart. 'Half a litre of double cream,' I said, pouring the stuff over my plate!

Half a litre of double cream!

2.6 Number (singular and plural) (2)

2.6A Collective nouns followed by singular or plural verbs: 'government'

[> LEG 2.28-29]

Study:

★★

- 1 Words like *government* and *family* are **collective nouns** because they refer to groups.
- 2 We can use singular or plural verbs with nouns like *committee*, *company*, *family*, *government* and *jury*: *What will you be doing while **the family is** (or **are**) on holiday?*
These words also have regular plurals: *Many **families are** in need of help.*
- 3 We can use singular or plural verbs with nouns like *the majority*, *the public* and *the youth of today*: ***The public want** (or **wants**) to know how **they are** (or **it is**) governed.*
These words do not have regular plural forms: (Not **the publics**)
- 4 We use only plural verbs with nouns like *cattle*, *the military*, *people*, *the police* and *vermin*:
***There are** too many **people** in the world.*
(Not **There is too many people** **There are too many peoples**)
These words do not have normal plural forms, but note that *peoples* means 'national populations': *The **peoples** of the Arab World have a common language.*

Write: Supply *is*, *are*, *has* or *have*. Give two forms where possible.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 The government <i>is/are</i> bringing in a new bill. | 7 The military occupied the house. |
| 2 The company going to employ six staff. | 8 The police interested in this case. |
| 3 All governments trying to control crime. | 9 The public concerned about it. |
| 4 The jury trying to decide now. | 10 How many people coming tonight? |
| 5 The youth of today many advantages. | 11 The committee meeting now. |
| 6 There vermin in this restaurant. | 12 A lot of people signed the petition. |

2.6B Nouns with a plural form + singular or plural verbs: 'acoustics' [> LEG 2.31]

Study:

★★★

- 1 Nouns ending in *-ics*:
 - *athletics*, *gymnastics*, *linguistics*, *mathematics* (*maths*) and *physics* take a singular verb: ***Mathematics is** not the most popular school subject.* (Not **Mathematics are**)
 - *acoustics*, *economics*, *phonetics* and *statistics* take a singular verb only when they refer to the academic subject: ***Statistics is** a branch of economics.* (Not **statistics are**)
They take a plural verb when the reference is specific: ***Your statistics are** unreliable.*
- 2 Nouns like *crossroads*, *headquarters*, *kennels*, *series*, *species* and *works* (= factory) are singular when they refer to one: ***This species** of moth **is** rare.*
They are plural when they refer to more than one: ***There are** thousands of **species**.*

Write: Supply *is*, *are*, *has* or *have*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 The acoustics in this room <i>are</i> very good. | 8 The statistics in this report inaccurate. |
| 2 This crossroads dangerous. | 9 there any statistics for road accidents? |
| 3 There four crossroads in our village. | 11 Many species of moth disappeared. |
| 4 Acoustics a subject I know little about. | 11 This species green and white spots. |
| 5 Our company headquarters in London. | 12 Our works a good canteen. |
| 6 There many series of books on birds. | 13 My maths got worse and worse! |
| 7 there any kennels in this area? | 14 There crossroads every mile. |

2.6C Nouns with a plural form + plural verbs: 'trousers' [> LEG 2.32, App 5.8]

Study:

★★

- 1 These nouns have a plural form only and are followed by a plural verb:
glasses (= spectacles), *jeans*, *pants*, *pliers*, *pyjamas*, *scissors*, *shorts*, *tights*, *trousers*:
My trousers are torn.
All these nouns can combine with *a pair of*, (*two pairs of*):
I bought a pair of shorts yesterday and two pairs of trousers.
- 2 These nouns are plural in form and are followed by a plural verb:
belongings, *brains* (= intellect), *clothes*, *congratulations*, *earnings*, *goods*, *manners*, *stairs*:
Were those clothes expensive?

Write: Supply the missing words.

- 1 The goods you ordered *have* arrived.
- 2 Where the scissors? – are in the first drawer on the left.
- 3 How much a good pair of trousers cost these days?
- 4 How much did you pay for trousers? – were very expensive!
- 5 I know he's clever, but aren't the only thing in life.
- 6 I'm so pleased you got into university! on your success!
- 7 If your clothes dirty, please put them in the laundry basket.
- 8 My jeans (not) faded much even though I keep washing
- 9 I'm looking for the pliers. – You'll find on that shelf.
- 10 All their belongings been destroyed in a fire.
- 11 My earnings (not) high, but at least they regular.
- 12 These shorts fit me at all!

2.6D Context

Write: Put in singular or plural verb-forms.

LIES, DAMN LIES?

Statistics (*be*)¹ *is* a branch of economics, but it is often said that there (*be*)² lies, damn lies and statistics. Recent statistics of British life (*show*)³ that the family (*be*)⁴ happier than it used to be. The youth of today (*be*)⁵ likely to live longer than the previous generation. People (*own*)⁶ more things than they used to, but more police (*be*)⁷ employed to fight crime. Mathematics (*be*)⁸ a subject which is studied more by boys than by girls, as (*be*)⁹ physics. The earnings of working women (*be*)¹⁰ getting higher all the time and many women earn more than their husbands. Good manners (*be*)¹¹ declining. The public (*spend*)¹² more on clothes, and clothes (*be*)¹³ becoming more and more expensive. Glasses (*be*)¹⁴ worn by more people, but only a minority (*favour*)¹⁵ contact lenses. Statistics (*make*)¹⁶ us want to grind our teeth and can probably tell us if we have any teeth left to grind!



2.7 Gender

2.7A Male and female word forms: 'waiter/waitress' [> LEG 2.39-40]

Study:

★★

- 1 In many languages, the names of things such as *book, chair, radio, table* may be grammatically masculine, feminine or neuter. Often gender doesn't relate to sex, so that the word for 'girl' might be neuter and the word for 'chair' might be feminine.
- 2 There is no grammatical gender for nouns in English. Though there can be exceptions [> 4.1C], we use only *he* and *she* to refer to people and *it* to refer to everything else. It is the pronouns, not the nouns, that tell us whether the reference is to male or female:
He is the person you spoke to. She is the person you spoke to.
- 3 We still have a few male and female word forms (*man/woman*) and a few *-ess* endings that refer to females: *waiter/waitress, lion/lioness*. In the case of people, this *-ess* ending is becoming rare. In the interests of sexual equality, words like *author* and *manager* refer to both sexes, rather than using **authoress** or *manageress* for a woman.

Write: Supply the missing words. Refer to this list as little as possible.

actress, aunt, bachelor, bridegroom, cows, daughter, female, goddess, hens, heroine, heiress, lionesses, mares, nephew, nieces, nuns, prince, queens, ram, saleswoman, sister, sow, spinster, uncle, waitress, widower.

- 1 John's *brother* is a bank clerk and his *sister* is a nurse.
- 2 My *aunt* is very nice and my has a wonderful sense of humour.
- 3 My is a little boy of four; my *niece* is a little girl of two.
- 4 My father's *brother* and *sister* have never married. He's still a and she's a
- 5 These days, few men become *monks* and few women become
- 6 There is only one *bull* in the field, but there are dozens of
- 7 The *cock* crows at dawn and wakes up all the
- 8 The *stallion* is in a separate stable from the
- 9 We call the *boar* Henry and we call the Jemima.
- 10 The *ewes* look quiet enough, but I don't like the look of that
- 11 Tony is an *actor* and his wife is an
- 12 John and Jane work in a restaurant; he is a *waiter* and she is a
- 13 In fairy tales the handsome usually marries the beautiful *princess*.
- 14 We went to a wildlife park and saw a lot of *lions* and
- 15 In mythology, Mars is the *god* of war; Diana is the of hunting.
- 16 Katerina is the to her father's fortune.
- 17 Why does everyone expect the *hero* of the story to marry the
- 18 A *widow* can often manage much better on her own than a
- 19 A won the award for most sales this month; a *salesman* came second.
- 20 When you look at fish, it's often difficult to distinguish between *male* and
- 21 Very few people know the names of the *kings* and of England.
- 22 I took a photo of the *bride* and at the wedding.
- 23 The Smiths have a *son* called Robert and a called Jill.
- 24 My *uncle* and are over here from Canada.
- 25 I enjoy being an uncle. I have two and three *nephews*.

2.7B Identifying masculine and feminine through pronouns: 'He/She is a student' [> LEG 2.41]

Study:

★★

1 The word forms *man* and *woman* tell us that the reference is to male and female [> 2.7A], but with most nouns that refer to people, we don't know whether the reference is to male or female until we hear the pronoun:

My neighbour has just bought a new shed for his garden.

My neighbour is always telling us about her famous son.

2 Other typical nouns like this are:

adult, artist, child, cook, cousin, darling, dear, doctor, foreigner, friend, guest, journalist, lawyer, musician, orphan, owner, parent, passenger, person, pupil, relation, relative, scientist, singer, speaker, spouse, stranger, student, teacher, tourist, visitor, writer.

Write: Supply the correct pronouns in these sentences.

- 1 When I saw the doctor,*she*..... told me to go back and see her again next week.
- 2 Jennifer is a fine musician. plays in the Philharmonic.
- 3 My lawyer told me would ring me when he had the information I wanted.
- 4 Your visitor left glasses behind when he came here yesterday.
- 5 Professor Myers is a brilliant scientist. should be given the Nobel Prize for her work.
- 6 Mrs Carter, our English teacher, really knows grammar!
- 7 The artist, Rembrandt, painted several pictures of wife.
- 8 Anton Schmidt works as a cook at a large hotel. is famous for his cooking.
- 9 How would you describe her? – Well, is a student of about 18.
- 10 How do you know this passport belongs to a woman? – The owner has photo in it.
- 11 My daughter works as a journalist and has been very successful.
- 12 You don't know so you should begin your letter 'Dear Madam'.

2.7C Context

Write: Put in *actors, Miss, mother, Prince, princess, Sisters* and the missing words.



CINDERELLA AND THE UGLY SISTERS

Our local school recently put on *Cinderella* as a play and invited the Mayor of the town to see it. After the performance, the distinguished guest went backstage. ¹.....*She*..... congratulated the young ²..... and actresses. ³..... spoke to Henry who played the part of ⁴..... Charming and Liz, who played the part of Cinderella. The Mayor asked Liz if ⁵..... would enjoy being a ⁶..... when she married Prince Charming and she blushed and giggled. The Mayor congratulated the Fairy God-⁷....., and, of course, the teacher who produced the play, Miss Jones. ⁸..... Jones was very pleased because ⁹..... had worked hard to put on the play with a company of eleven-year-olds. The Mayor then approached us and said, 'Excellent ... excellent ... and ...-er ... you must be the Ugly ¹⁰.....!' 'No, ma'am!' we cried. 'We're the children's mothers!'

You must be the Ugly Sisters!

2.8 The genitive

2.8A How to show possession with 's, s' and the apostrophe (') on its own

[> LEG 2.42-46]

Study:

★★

- 1 We show possession in English with the **genitive** form of a noun. This means we normally use 's and s' for people and some living creatures. We put the possessive before the noun it refers to: *Frank's car*. (Not **the car of Frank/the car of Frank's**)
- 2 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 (')**. This means:
 - add 's to singular nouns and names not ending in -s: *a boy's tie, Tom's hat*.
 - 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: *the girls' uniforms*.
 - add 's to names ending in -s: *Charles's address, Doris's party, St James's Park*.
 Famous names ending in s just add ('): *Yeats' poetry*. This is pronounced /s/ or /ɪz/.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using 's, s', or just an apostrophe (').

- 1 This bicycle is for a child. *This is a child's bicycle.*
- 2 This pen belongs to the teacher.
- 3 He described the career of the actress.
- 4 That's a job for a stewardess.
- 5 These toys belong to the children.
- 6 This is a club for women.
- 7 It's a school for girls.
- 8 This is the lounge for residents.
- 9 This umbrella belongs to James.
- 10 That hat belongs to Doris.

2.8B Apostrophe s ('s/s'), compound noun, or 'of'? [> LEG 2.47-48, 2.50]

Study:

★★

- 1 When we want to show possession with things, we can use *of*: *the leg of the table*. However, we often prefer to use a compound noun instead of *of*: *the table-leg* [> 2.2B].
- 2 We must use *of* when we can't form a compound noun:
the book of the film (Not **the film's book**); *the top of the box* (Not **the box's top**)
 You can only learn these from experience. If you are in doubt, use *of*.

Write: Only where possible, use an apostrophe to show possession in these sentences.

- 1 That's *the voice of a man*. *That's a man's voice.*
- 2 I can't see *the bottom of the box*.
- 3 That's *the decision of the committee*.
- 4 It's *the fault of no one*.
- 5 This is a copy of *the poetry of Keats*.
- 6 That's *the leg of the table*.
- 7 Where's *the key of the car*?
- 8 That's *the bell of the village church* that you can hear.
- 9 These are *the stables of the horses*.

2.8C The use of 's and s' with non-living things: 'an hour's journey'

[> LEG 2.49-50]

Study:

★★

We use 's and s' with some non-living things:

- fixed phrases: *the earth's surface, journey's end, the ship's company*
- time phrases (singular): *an hour's journey, a day's work, a month's salary*
- time phrases (plural): *two hours' journey, two days' work, two months' salary*

Write: Use 's or s' only where possible with these.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1 a delay of an hour <i>an hour's delay</i> | 6 the price of success |
| 2 a journey of two days | 7 work of seven years |
| 3 the shade of the tree | 8 the surface of the earth |
| 4 the book of the film | 9 at the door of death |
| 5 the inside of the box | 10 an absence of a year |

2.8D Omission of the noun after 's [> LEG 2.51]

Study:

★★

We generally omit the noun after 's when referring to work-places, shops, and houses:
the doctor's, rather than *the doctor's surgery*, *my mother's* rather than *my mother's house*.

Write: What could we use in place of the words in brackets?

- 1 Your mother has gone to (the shop owned by the hairdresser) *the hairdresser's*
- 2 I'll meet you at (the shop owned by the chemist)
- 3 I'm going to spend the night at (the house owned by my aunt)
- 4 We were married in (the church dedicated to St Andrew)
- 5 I bought this at (the department store owned by Marks and Spencer)

2.8E Context

Write: Put in compounds and 's and s' constructions in this story.



MIND YOUR SKIN!

We have become very conscious of conservation these days. A lot of people won't buy any goods made from (skins of animals) ¹ *animal skins* In many parts of the world, it is now unthinkable for a person to dress in (a coat made of the skin of a leopard) ² We realize that (the wildlife of the earth) ³ needs protection. This affects such things as (clothing worn by children) ⁴ and (coats worn by ladies) ⁵ If (a fur coat worn by an actress) ⁶ attracts admiration these days, it is probably created from man-made materials. Of course, we still farm animals for their skins, but the notice I saw in a shop recently must have been (the revenge of the crocodiles) ⁷ It was selling crocodile-skin bags and offering the following service: ('skins of customers) ⁸ *made up!*

3 Articles

3.1 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (1)

3.1A General statements with 'a/an' and zero (∅) [> LEG 3.7, 3.9.1-2, 3.19.1]

Study:

★★

- 1 A and *an* have exactly the same meaning. We use *a* in front of consonant sounds (*a man, a year*) and *an* in front of vowel sounds (*an umbrella, an eye, an hour*).
- 2 We can talk about people or things 'in general' with *a/an* or with the plural [> 3.5A].
Instead of: **Cats are domestic animals.** (= 'cats in general')
We can say: **A cat is a domestic animal.** (= 'cats in general')

Write:

Make the singular sentences plural and the plural sentences singular.

- 1 A small computer isn't expensive. *Small computers aren't expensive.*
- 2 A quartz watch doesn't last for ever.
- 3 I like plays with messages.
- 4 I admire politicians who are sincere.
- 5 A big city is always fascinating.
- 6 Even an efficient system can break down.
- 7 A road map is always out of date.
- 8 A rule is meant to be broken.
- 9 Restaurants shouldn't charge too much.
- 10 How much do car radios cost?
- 11 A bus leaves here every hour.
- 12 How long does a letter take to get here?

3.1B The 'plural form' of 'a/an' [> LEG 3.5-6, 3.9.1-2]

Study:

★★

- 1 The plural of *a/an* is zero (∅) when we refer to 'things in general':
A cat is a domestic animal. → (∅) **Cats are (∅) domestic animals.**
- 2 The plural of *a/an* is *some* or *any* when we refer to 'quantity' [but compare > 5.3A]:
There's a sandwich on the plate. → *There are some sandwiches on the plate.* [> 5.3B]
We use numbers in place of *a/an* and *some/any* only when we are counting:
There's only one sandwich left. → *There are only four sandwiches left.* [> 3.2B]

Write:

Turn these sentences into the plural, making all necessary changes.

- 1 She's an architect. *They're architects.*
- 2 Do you want a potato?
- 3 A doctor needs years of training.
- 4 How well can a cat see in the dark?
- 5 Have you got a cat at home?
- 6 Why should a compact disc be so dear?
- 7 I borrowed a compact disc.
- 8 Can you lend me a compact disc?
- 9 Why is a car so expensive?
- 10 There isn't a car in the street.

3.1C Describing people and things with 'a/an' + noun: 'He's a doctor'

[> LEG 3.9.3-4, App 49]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use some words as adjectives or nouns when we want to describe people. When we use them as countable nouns, we always put *a/an* in front of them [> 2.3A], e.g.
 - nationality: *She's American.* (adjective) or: *She's an American.* (noun) [> 3.3C]
 - religion: *She's Anglican.* (adjective) or: *She's an Anglican.* (noun)
 - politics: *He's Conservative.* (adjective) or: *He's a Conservative.* (noun)
- 2 We use some words only as countable nouns (people and things) and we always put *a/an* in front of them: *He's a doctor.* (Not **He's doctor.**) *It's a tree.* (Not **It's tree.**)
We can also use adjective + noun: *She's a good girl.* (Not **She's good girl.**)
- 3 We can use *a/an* in front of proper nouns (names spelt with a capital letter) for:
 - members of a family: *He's a Forsyte.* (= a member of the Forsyte family)
 - literature and art: *It's a Dickens novel.* *It's a Brecht play.* Sometimes we can use the name on its own. We can say *It's a Rembrandt painting* or *It's a Rembrandt.*

Write: Write sentences using *He's ...*, *She's ...*, *It's ...* + noun for each of the following.

- 1 What does he do? He *drives a taxi.* *He's a taxi-driver.*
- 2 What's her religion? She's *Catholic.*
- 3 Where does he come from? He comes from *England.*
- 4 What's that? (*ant*)
- 5 What's that? (*kind of insect*)
- 6 What political party does she belong to? She's *socialist.*
- 7 What does she do? She *teaches* children.
- 8 What does she do? (*architect*)
- 9 What is it? (*sonnet by Shakespeare*)
- 10 What is it? (*painting by Picasso*)

3.1D Context

Write: Put in *a*, *some*, *any* or '-'. Alternatives are possible.

AT YOUR SERVICE, SIR!

¹..... robots are common in industry and perhaps they will soon be common in the home.
²..... robot working in the home must be able to behave like ³..... human. You could ask it to make breakfast for you. 'I'd like ⁴..... pot of coffee, please and ⁵..... boiled eggs.' 'How many, sir?' 'Two please.' You wouldn't have to worry about bringing friends home to dinner. 'I've brought ⁶..... friends for dinner,' you would say, 'please prepare ⁷..... meal for six.' Your robot would be ⁸..... cook, ⁹..... servant and ¹⁰..... cleaner, and perhaps it could even do the shopping. 'We haven't got ¹¹..... tomatoes,' you would say. 'Be ¹²..... good robot and get some from the supermarket.' ¹³..... robots would never need to sleep, and would never complain. But I wouldn't want them wandering round the house at night!



Ask it to make breakfast for you.

3.2 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (2)

3.2A The use of 'a/an' when something is mentioned for the first time

[> LEG 3.8, 3.10.2]

Study:

★

We use *a/an* to introduce a person or thing for the first time. This shows that the listener or reader doesn't know what we are referring to. After this first reference, we use *the*.

*I watched **a car** as it came up our road. **The car** stopped outside our house and **a man** got out. **The man** was carrying **a case** in his hand. With **the case** in his hand, **the man** looked like **a salesman**.*

Write: Supply *a/an* or *the* in the following text.

During our journey we came to ¹.....*a*..... bridge. As we were crossing ²..... bridge, we met ³..... old man and spoke to him. ⁴..... man refused to answer us at first. He could tell at a glance that we had escaped from ⁵..... prisoner-of-war camp and he was afraid of getting into trouble. We weren't ⁶..... first prisoners of war to have escaped from ⁷..... camp. As soon as Jim produced ⁸..... revolver, ⁹..... man proved very willing to answer our questions. He told us exactly where we were and directed us to ¹⁰..... farm where we might find food.

3.2B The difference between 'a/an' and 'one' [> LEG 3.10.1, 3.11]

Study:

★★

1 We do not use *a/an* + noun and *one* + noun in the same way.

We use *a/an* to mean 'any one': *I'd like **a coffee**, please.*

We use *one* when we are counting: *It was **one coffee** I ordered and **not two**.*

2 We use *one* with *day, morning, evening* when we are telling a story:

***One day**, when I was working as a salesman, I received a strange telephone call.*

Compare: *I had to stay in bed for **a day**.* (= any day, it doesn't matter which)

*I had to stay in bed for **one day**.* (= one day and not two or more)

3 We use *a/an* or *one* with:

a Whole numbers: *a/one hundred, thousand.* **c** Money: *a/one pound, dollar.*

b Fractions: *a/one quarter, half.*

d Weights, measures: *a/one kilo, foot.*

Write: Supply *a/an* or *one* in these sentences. Note where you can use either *a/an* or *one*.

- 1 I need*a*..... picture-hook to hang this picture.
- 2 Did you say you wanted picture-hook or two?
- 3 nail won't be enough for this job. I need several.
- 4 You should use hammer to drive in those nails.
- 5 How many orange juices did you say? – Just orange juice, please.
- 6 You should get out into the fresh air on day like this!
- 7 day, many years later, I learnt the truth.
- 8 I was out walking late evening when I saw strange object in the sky.
- 9 He says he's going to be millionaire day.
- 10 There were over hundred people at the party.
- 11 Have you ever seen silent movie?
- 12 I've only ever seen silent movie.

3.2C 'A/an' for price, distance and frequency: '80p a kilo' [> LEG 3.12]

Study:
★★

price/weight: 80p a kilo distance/speed: 40 km an hour
distance/fuel: 30 miles a (or to the) gallon frequency/time: twice a day

Write: Write complete answers to these questions.

- How much are these apples? 90p/kilo *They're 90p a kilo.*
- How often do you take these pills? once/day
- What speed are we doing? 100 km/hour
- How many miles a gallon do you do? 45 miles/gallon
- How often is the rubbish collected? twice/week
- What does olive oil cost? £3/litre.

3.2D 'A/an' or zero with reference to illnesses: 'a cold' [> LEG 3.15]

Study:
★★

- We always use *a/an* with these illnesses: *a cold, a headache, a sore throat.*
- We can use or omit *a/an* with these:
catch (a) cold, have (a/an) backache/earache/stomach-ache/toothache.
- We use no article at all with these plurals: *measles, mumps, shingles.*
- We use no article with these: *(high) blood pressure, flu, gout, hepatitis.*

Write: Supply *a/an* where necessary. Note where you can use *a/an* or zero (-).

- I'm going to bed, I've got^a headache.
- I was awake all night with toothache.
- I think Gillian's got flu.
- The children are in bed with mumps.
- Mind you don't catch cold.
- measles can be very unpleasant.
- Don't come near me. I've got sore throat.
- I think I've got cold!
- I've had terrible backache.
- I often suffer from backache.

3.2E Context

Write: Put in *a, the, or one* only where necessary.



HERE'S HEALTH!

'I think that's all, Mrs Grant,' Dr Grey said as she handed her ¹.....^a..... list of prescriptions. ²..... list was very long and Mrs Grant almost fainted as she tried to read it. She had ³..... headache and ⁴..... cold and felt as if she was getting ⁵..... flu. On top of this, one of her children was in bed with ⁶..... mumps. 'I've prescribed some pills for ⁷..... high blood pressure as well,' Dr Grey said. 'How many do I have to take – ⁸..... pill ⁹..... day?' 'No. One pill with each meal. Three pills ¹⁰..... day.' Mrs Grant thanked ¹¹..... doctor and walked out of her surgery with some difficulty. She staggered into the local chemist's and handed ¹²..... long prescription list to Mr Burt, ¹³..... chemist. Mr Burt greeted her cheerfully. 'Good morning, Mrs Grant,' he said, glancing at ¹⁴..... list. 'What a list! I trust you're keeping well!'

I trust you're keeping well!

3.3 The definite article: 'the' (1)

3.3A Form and basic uses of 'the' [> LEG 3.16, 3.18]

Study:



- 1 *The* never varies in form whether it refers to people or things, singular or plural:

a <i>That's the man we met last night.</i>	d <i>They're the men we met last night.</i>
b <i>That's the woman we met last night.</i>	e <i>They're the women we met last night.</i>
c <i>That's the shirt I bought yesterday.</i>	f <i>They're the shirts I bought yesterday.</i>
- 2 We use *the* to refer to something that is known. [> 3.2A]
- 3 *The* can combine with singular countable nouns (*the book*), plural countable nouns (*the books*), and uncountable nouns, which are always singular (*the furniture*).

Write: Supply *a* or *the* in the following text.

We wanted to reach ¹.....*a*..... small village and knew we must be near. Then we saw ²..... woman just ahead and some children playing. When we stopped to ask the way, ³..... woman said she was ⁴..... stranger herself. We called out to ⁵..... children, but they ignored us. Just then two men came along and we asked them the way. ⁶..... men didn't know, but at least they were helpful. 'There's ⁷..... signpost a mile along this road,' one of them said. We drove to ⁸..... signpost eagerly. This is what it said: NORTH POLE 6,000 MILES.

3.3B 'A/an', 'the' and zero in front of abbreviations: 'the BBC'

[> LEG 3.7, 3.17, 3.24]

Study:



- 1 We make abbreviations with the first letters of the most important words. We then treat these abbreviations like ordinary nouns and use them with *a/an*, *the* or zero [> 3.1C]:
*I've just bought **an LP**.* (= a Long Playing record).
We use *an* + vowel sound (*an LP*) and *a* + consonant sound (*a VW* = a Volkswagen).
- 2 We use *a/an* and full stops with titles: *She's **an M.A.*** (= Master of Arts)
- 3 We use *the* in front of institutions when we can't say them as single words. We don't use full stops: *I listen to the news on **the BBC**.* (= the British Broadcasting Corporation)
*We are members of **UNESCO**.* /ju:ˈneskəʊ/
(= the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization)
- 4 We use no article (zero) with chemical symbols: ***CO₂** stands for Carbon Dioxide.*
- 5 The first letters of some words are often used as normal words: e.g.
*Planes use **radar**.* (= RAdio Detection And Ranging)

Write: Supply *a/an*, *the* or '-':

- 1 Jim got*a*..... B.Sc. (= Bachelor of Science) from Durham University in 1988.
- 2 Celia is sure she's seen UFO (= Unidentified Flying Object).
- 3 EC (= European Community) does a lot of trade with the rest of the world.
- 4 I don't know how much MP (= Member of Parliament) earns.
- 5 Which countries belong to NATO /neɪtəʊ/ ? (= North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
- 6 H₂O is the chemical formula for water.
- 7 I've used my computer to learn BASIC (= Beginners' All-purpose Instruction Code).
- 8 NASA (= National Aeronautics and Space Administration) had a setback in 1986.

3.3C 'The' + nationality noun: 'the Chinese' [> LEG 3.19.2, App 49]

Study:

★★

We use *the* in front of nationality nouns to refer to 'all the people in general'.
We can divide nationality nouns into four groups:

- 1 **the + -ese or -ss:** *the Chinese, the Japanese, the Portuguese, the Sudanese, the Swiss.*
- 2 **the + plural ending in -s:**
 - ian: *the Austrians, the Belgians, the Brazilians, the Egyptians, the Russians.*
 - an: *the Americans, the Koreans, the Mexicans, the Venezuelans, the Zimbabweans.*
 - other -s endings: *the Arabs, the Germans, the Greeks, the Poles, the Scots, the Turks.*
- 3 Two forms: *the Danes/the Danish, the Spaniards/the Spanish, the Swedes/the Swedish.*
- 4 **the + -ch or -sh:** *the British, the Dutch, the English, the French, the Irish, the Welsh.*

Write: Rewrite these sentences using nationality nouns to refer to 'the people in general'.

- 1 *The people from Portugal are very different from the people from Spain.*
The Portuguese are very different from the Spaniards.
- 2 *The people from America and the people from Russia understand each other better.*
- 3 *The people from Brazil speak Portuguese, but the people from Mexico speak Spanish.*
- 4 *The people from Germany and the people from Japan work very hard.*
- 5 *The people from Greece buy ships from the people from Korea.*
- 6 *The people from Britain and the people from Holland do a lot of foreign trade.*

3.3D Context

Write: Put in *a* or *the*.



An ancient Egyptian drill

ANCIENT SECRETS

Mr Denys Stocks, ¹.....*a*..... retired policeman, has just been given ²..... B.Sc. for twelve years' research into ancient Egyptian industrial methods. Egyptologists have often wondered how ³..... Egyptians were able to cut such hard stone and how they produced such fine jewellery. Mr Stocks has shown that ⁴..... Egyptians used saws and drills. ⁵..... saws and drills were made of copper, which is very soft. But ⁶..... Egyptian craftsmen turned them into very powerful tools. First ⁷..... craftsman made ⁸..... cut in ⁹..... stone with ¹⁰..... soft saw. Then ¹¹..... craftsman poured sand into ¹²..... cut. ¹³..... hard sand got into ¹⁴..... teeth of ¹⁵..... saw and did ¹⁶..... cutting. In this way, ¹⁷..... worker could cut basalt, one of the hardest rocks. ¹⁸..... sand he used turned into ¹⁹..... very fine powder. ²⁰..... powder was then used by jewellers to cut precious stones and to make delicate jewellery.

3.4 The definite article: 'the' (2)

3.4A 'The' for specifying [> LEG 3.20]

Study:



- 1 When we use *the*, the listener or reader knows or can understand what we are referring to. We can make a reference 'specific' or 'definite' by means of:
 - **back reference:** *We stopped at a small village. **The village** was very pretty.* [> 3.2A, 3.3A]
 - **the + noun + of:** ***The life of Napoleon** was very stormy.*
 - **a clause** (= part of a sentence): ***The Jones I'm referring to** is a colleague of mine.*
 - **context:** The listener knows exactly what we are referring to from the context.
That's why we say: *It's **the postman**.* (Not **a postman**)
*She's gone to **the butcher's**.* (Not **a butcher's**) [> 2.8D]
*Running is good for **the heart**.* (Not **a heart**)
- 2 We often say *the cinema, the theatre, the supermarket, the bank*, etc. even if we don't know exactly which: *He's gone to **the cinema/the theatre/the supermarket/the bank**.*
- 3 We refer to *the country, the mountains, the seaside* even if we don't know exactly where: *We're spending the weekend in **the country/in the mountains/at the seaside**.*
- 4 We use *the* to refer to 'one of a kind': *the earth, the sea, the sky, the sun, the moon, the solar system, the planets, the galaxy, the universe: **The earth** doesn't belong to us.*

Write: Supply *a/an, the* or '-':

- 1 We were looking for *a* place to spend *the* night. place we found turned out to be in charming village. village was called Lodsworth.
- 2 individual has every right to expect personal freedom. freedom of individual is something worth fighting for.
- 3 Yes, my name is Simpson, but I'm not Simpson you're looking for.
- 4 Who's at door? – It's postman.
- 5 When you go out, would you please go to supermarket and get some butter.
- 6 I've got appointment this afternoon. I've got to go to doctor's.
- 7 We went to theatre last night and saw *Flames*. It's wonderful play.
- 8 We prefer to spend our holidays in country, mountains or by sea.
- 9 We have seen what earth looks like from moon.
- 10 This is the front room. ceiling and walls need decorating, but floor is in good order. We'll probably cover it with carpet.
- 11 You're imagining things. All your fears are in mind.
- 12 Look at this wonderful small computer. top lifts up to form screen; front lifts off to form keyboard and whole thing only weighs 5 kilos.
- 13 history of world is history of war.
- 14 Is there moon round planet Venus?
- 15 What's John doing these days? – He's working as postman.
- 16 exercise is good for body.
- 17 Could you pass me salt, please?
- 18 They're building new supermarket in centre of our town.
- 19 Where's your mother at moment? – I think she's in kitchen.
- 20 If you were a cook, you'd have to work in kitchen all day long.

3.4B 'The' to refer to things that are unique (not place names) [> 3.6C, LEG 3.22]

Study:

★★

- 1 We often use *the* to refer to 'things that are unique':
- | | |
|--|---|
| a organizations: <i>the United Nations</i> | g historical events: <i>the French Revolution</i> |
| b ships: <i>the Titanic</i> | h official titles: <i>the President</i> |
| c documents: <i>the Constitution</i> | i political parties: <i>the Labour Party</i> |
| d public bodies: <i>the police, the Government</i> | j the press: <i>The Economist, The Times</i> |
| e titles of books and films: <i>The Odyssey</i> | k beliefs: <i>the gods</i> |
| f climate: <i>the weather</i> | l the whole species: <i>the dinosaurs</i> |
- 2 We treat other, similar, words as proper nouns [> 3.5A] and use no article (zero), e.g.
- | | |
|--|---|
| a organizations: <i>Congress, Parliament</i> | d official titles: <i>Queen Elizabeth</i> |
| b titles of books and films: <i>Jaws</i> | e the press: <i>Punch, Time magazine</i> |
| c beliefs: <i>God, Buddha</i> | f the whole species: <i>Man</i> |

Write: Supply *the* or '-':

- 1 I like to read newspapers like *The*..... *Times* and *The*..... *Washington Post*.
- 2 I read *Economist* every week and *Time* magazine.
- 3 Do you think *New Yorker* and *Punch* have much in common?
- 4 We can't be sure about the history of human race, but man developed earlier than we think, though we certainly weren't around at the time of dinosaurs.
- 5 I like watching old films. I recently watched *Graduate* and *Jaws* on video.
- 6 The Ancient Greeks believed in gods. The idea of God was not known to them.
- 7 I've read Homer's *Odyssey*, but I haven't read Joyce's *Ulysses*.
- 8 United Nations may be a talking shop, but so is Congress.
- 9 A lot of people object to attempts to bring up *Titanic*.
- 10 My oldest son joined Navy and now my youngest wants to join Army.
- 11 France celebrated the 200th anniversary of French Revolution in 1989.
- 12 In many countries, the head of state is called President.
- 13 Do you know who killed President Lincoln?
- 14 Because of 'the greenhouse effect' climate of the world is changing.

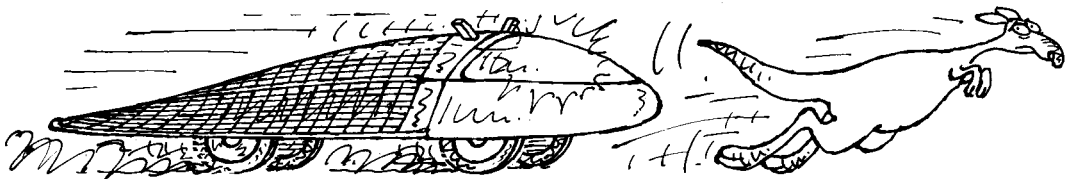
3.4C Context

Write: Put in *a/an* or *the*.

SUNRAYCER

I read recently in ¹..... *The*..... *Times* that the big American company, General Motors, has developed ²..... vehicle that uses ³..... power of ⁴..... sun instead of petrol. ⁵..... vehicle is called Sunraycer. Sunraycer has just taken part in ⁶..... race against 25 solar-powered vehicles. ⁷..... route of ⁸..... race was from Darwin to Adelaide, ⁹..... immense distance. Sunraycer covered ¹⁰..... distance in 45 hours at ¹¹..... average speed of 41 miles ¹²..... hour in temperatures as high as 48°C. It beat all other cars by two and ¹³..... half days! Sunraycer ('ray of the sun' + 'racer') is certainly ¹⁴..... car of ¹⁵..... future!

Sunraycer



3.5 The zero article (1)

3.5A Basic uses of the zero article (∅): 'Life is short' [> LEG 3.24-26, 3.27.1, 3.27.3-5]

Study:

★★

We often use no article at all (zero) in English where some other languages use *the*:

- 1 In front of **plural countable nouns** used in general statements [> 3.1A], e.g. for:
 - people: ∅ **Women** need better pay.
 - animals: ∅ **Cats** don't like cold weather.
 - food: ∅ **Beans** are good for you.
 - (Not *The beans are good for you.* etc.) [compare > 5.3A]
 - places: ∅ **Museums** are closed on Mondays.
 - plants: ∅ **Trees** don't grow in the Antarctic.
 - products: ∅ **Watches** aren't expensive.
- 2 In front of **uncountable nouns** (always singular) used in general statements, e.g. for:
 - food: I like ∅ **butter**.
 - colours: ∅ **Red** is my favourite colour.
 - abstract: ∅ **Life** is short.
 - (Not *The life is short.* etc.) [compare > 5.3A]
 - substances: ∅ **Oil** is produced in Alaska.
 - activities: ∅ **Swimming** is good for you.
 - languages: ∅ **English** is a world language.
- 3 In front of most **proper nouns** (names spelt with a capital letter) [> 3.1C, 3.6C]:
Fritz Weber lives in **Berlin**. This was made by **Jackson and Son**.

By comparison, we use *the* when the reference is specific, not in general statements:

- 1 In front of plural countable nouns: **The beans** I like best are kidney beans.
- 2 In front of uncountable nouns: I used all **the butter** that was in the **butter** dish.
- 3 In front of proper nouns: **The Fritz Weber** I know lives in Vienna.

Write: Supply *the* or '∅'.

- 1 A lot of people are giving up meat.
- 2 meat we had for lunch last Sunday was very tough.
- 3 As someone said, life is just one damned thing after another.
- 4 I don't know much about life of Napoleon.
- 5 running is supposed to be good for you.
- 6 I ought to be fit with all running I do, but I don't feel fit.
- 7 Which is your favourite colour? – Red.
- 8 I think red one will suit you best. Red is more your colour.
- 9 We learnt English at school, but English we learnt was useless.
- 10 London is a safe city today, but London of the 18th century was pretty rough.
- 11 watches have become very cheap and very attractive.
- 12 Most of watches you see today work on quartz.
- 13 indoor plants require a lot of effort and attention.
- 14 Bach gives me a great deal of pleasure.
- 15 Bach recording you bought for my birthday is first class.
- 16 What has been the longest period of peace in history?
- 17 If you study History, you've got to read a lot.
- 18 fasting during Ramadan is more difficult in the summer months.
- 19 journeys to unknown places require a lot of preparation.
- 20 lives of poets and musicians have often been unbearably difficult.
- 21 I'm not interested in the price of silver or the price of gold.
- 22 time is money.
- 23 I can never regret time I've spent enjoying myself.
- 24 I often listen to music and I like jazz best.

3.5B The zero article with names and titles: 'Mr Pym' [> LEG 2.13, 3.27]

Study:

★★

- 1 We do not normally use articles in front of proper nouns (like *John, London*, etc.).
- 2 We use a surname or first name + surname after *Mr, Mrs, Miss* and *Ms* /məz/ : *Mr Pym, Mr John Pym*. We often write, but rarely say *Ms*, as in *Ms Joan Cartwright*.
- 3 We abbreviate *Doctor* to *Dr* in writing and use a surname after it: *I'm Dr Brown*, but we can use *Doctor* on its own as a form of address (written in full): *It's my liver, Doctor*.
- 4 In British English *Madam* and *Sir* can be used as forms of address, e.g. by shop assistants: *Yes, madam? Sir* is also a title in front of first name (+ surname): *Sir John (Falstaff)*, (Not **Sir Falstaff**). Americans use *Sir* on its own to speak to strangers.
- 5 We can say *Uncle* and *Auntie* (but not **Cousin** or **Sister**) to address our relations.
- 6 *Major* and *Professor* can be used with names or on their own.
- 7 *Nurse* and sometimes *Sister* can be used as forms of address for nurses.

Write: Mark with an X those sentences that are wrong or unacceptable and briefly say why.

- 1 Excuse me, Mr – can you tell me the way to the station, please? X
- 2 Good morning, Doctor. ___
- 3 Don't ask me. Ask Mrs Elizabeth. ___
- 4 Can I introduce you to Mrs Elizabeth Jackson? ___
- 5 I have an appointment with Dr White. ___
- 6 I've just received a letter from cousin Frank. ___
- 7 Can I help you, Mrs? ___
- 8 Can I help you, Madam? ___
- 9 Sir Falstaff is a famous Shakespeare character. ___
- 10 May I have a word with you please, Professor? ___
- 11 I've addressed the letter to Professor John Williams. Is that right? ___
- 12 Nurse, could I speak to you for a moment, please? ___

3.5C Context

Write: Put in *a/an, the* or *'*.

FOOD FIT FOR A KING!

¹..... seeds dating from 1325 B.C. have been found at ²..... Kew Gardens in ³..... London. 'It's ⁴..... exciting discovery,' ⁵..... Professor Arthur Bell, ⁶..... Director, said yesterday. ⁷..... seeds were found in 30 cardboard boxes by ⁸..... French student, ⁹..... Christian Tutundjian de Vartavan. ¹⁰..... seeds come from ¹¹..... tomb of ¹²..... King Tutankhamun. Inside ¹³..... tomb were *shawabtis*, that is, model human beings who would serve ¹⁴..... King after ¹⁵..... death. Inside ¹⁶..... Tutankhamun's tomb, there was ¹⁷..... wheat for making ¹⁸..... bread, ¹⁹..... barley, perhaps for brewing ²⁰..... beer, and spices like ²¹..... coriander, ²²..... cumin and ²³..... sesame, as well as ²⁴..... grapes and ²⁵..... tropical fruits. ²⁶..... food had to be suitable for ²⁷..... King's last journey, but it was very tasty, too!

Inside Tutankhamun's tomb



3.6 The zero article (2)

3.6A Zero article for parts of the day ('at dawn') and for meals ('for lunch')

[> LEG 3.28.1-2]

Study:

★★

- 1 Parts of the day and night:** We use no article when we refer to parts of the day and night:
at dawn/daybreak, at sunrise/sunset/noon/night, by day/night,
*at/by/before/after/till 4 o'clock: We left **at dawn**.*
 But compare: *I've never seen **a dawn** like it! I got up early to admire **the dawn**.*
- 2 Meals:** We use no article with words like: *breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, supper.*
*Dinner is served. He's **at lunch**. Let's **have breakfast**.*
 But compare: ***The breakfast** I ordered still hasn't arrived. (a specific reference)*
*That was **a very nice dinner**. (simple description [> 3.1C])*

Write: Supply *a/an, the* or ' '.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 We're setting off at sunrise. | 6 We're invited to the Smiths for lunch. |
| 2 We must be home before midnight. | 7 Let's have breakfast on the terrace. |
| 3 I'm often wide awake at night. | 8 Do you always have tea at four? |
| 4 We reached the village before sunset. | 9 We've come here to see sunset. |
| 5 lunch I ordered was burnt. | 10 I had nice lunch at the Ritz. |

3.6B Zero article for e.g. 'She's at school' and 'He's in hospital'

[> LEG 3.28.3, Apps 21-23]

Study:

★★

- 1** We use no article in front of nouns like *school* and *hospital* in phrases like *to school, at school, in hospital* when we are referring to their normal purpose:
*Jane's gone **to school**. Jane's **at school**. (to learn); John's **in hospital**. (he's ill)*
 (Not **Jane's gone to the school. *Jane's at the school. *John's in the hospital.*)
 Other nouns like this are: *bed, church, class, college, prison, sea, town, university, work.*
 For the use of *to, at* and *in* with these nouns [> 8.2A]. For *home* [> 8.2A, 10.2C].
- 2** We use *the* or *a/an* with these nouns when we are not referring to their 'purpose':
*Jane's gone **to the school** for a meeting. There's a meeting **at the school**.*
*Norton High is **a very good school**. I'm going to make **the bed**.*
- 3** Nouns which are not part of this special group behave in the usual way:
*My wife's **at the office**. (perhaps to work); They are **at the mosque**. (perhaps to pray)*
*John's **in the kitchen**. (perhaps to prepare a meal) [> 3.4A]*
*My wife's firm has **an office** in Edinburgh. (Not **My wife's firm has office** [> 3.1C])*

Write: Supply *a/an, the* or ' '.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 I'm really tired and I'm going to bed. | 9 My father went to sea when he was 14. |
| 2 Your shoes are under bed. | 10 When do you hope to go to university? |
| 3 Tim's been in bed for hours. | 11 Martha's been taken to hospital. |
| 4 We've bought lovely new bed. | 12 How long will she be in hospital? |
| 5 We took some photos outside church. | 13 There's a strike at hospital. |
| 6 We always go to church on Sunday. | 14 We've got fine new hospital. |
| 7 Have you ever worked in factory? | 15 When do you get home from office? |
| 8 Susan's in class at the moment. | 16 John's at work at the moment. |

3.6C Zero article or 'the' with place names [> LEG 3.31]

Study:

★★

- 1 **General rule:** We use no article with proper nouns [> 3.5A], so this includes place names, but there is some variation. We use *the* with the words *bay, canal, channel, gulf, kingdom, ocean, republic, river, sea, strait(s), union, united: the United States of America.*
- 2 **Zero** for: countries (*Turkey*), states (*Ohio*), cities (*Paris*), streets (*Oxford Street*), parks (*Hyde Park*), addresses (*24 North Street*), buildings (*Westminster Abbey*), geographical areas (*Africa*), historical references (*Ancient Rome*), mountains (*Everest*), islands (*Malta*).
- 3 **The** for: some countries (*the USA, the USSR*), some geographical areas (*the Arctic, the Balkans*), some historical references (*the Dark Ages*), oceans and rivers (*the Pacific, the (River) Nile*), mountain ranges (*the Alps, the Himalayas*), deserts (*the Sahara, the Gobi*).
- 4 **Zero or the:** theatres (*Her Majesty's/The Globe*), hotels (*Brown's/the Hilton*), restaurants (*Leoni's/the Café Royal*), hospitals (*Guy's/the London Hospital*).

Write: Supply *the* or '-':

- 1 I've always understood *the* Dark Ages to refer specifically to Medieval Europe.
- 2 Ferguson has travelled everywhere from Central Asia to Arctic.
- 3 I've been to Brazil and Argentina, but I've never been to USA.
- 4 I'd love to do a tour of European capitals and visit London, Paris, and Vienna.
- 5 What's your address? – I live in Montague Road, number 27.
- 6 I could never afford to stay at hotels like Brown's or Hilton.
- 7 Karl was born in Bavaria, but he now lives in Ohio.
- 8 You can't visit London without seeing Buckingham Palace.
- 9 I've been climbing in Alps, but I've never managed to get up Mont Blanc.
- 10 A lot of people have tried to cross Sahara without being properly prepared.
- 11 I'd love to travel down Nile as far as Luxor.
- 12 There's a splendid view of Lake Geneva from this hotel.
- 13 We had an early dinner at Leoni's and then went to a play at Globe Theatre.
- 14 Go down Oxford Street till you come to Oxford Circus, then turn right.
- 15 Do you know the song about London Bridge?

3.6D Context

Write: Put in *a/an, the* or '-':

HIGH FLYER

I travel all over ¹..... *the*..... world on business and my neighbour thinks my life is one long holiday. You know what ²..... business travel is like: up at ³..... dawn to catch ⁴..... plane; ⁵..... breakfast in ⁶..... London, ⁷..... lunch in ⁸..... New York, ⁹..... luggage [> 2.4B] in ¹⁰..... Bermuda. When you're in ¹¹..... sky, you see only snow in ¹²..... Arctic or ¹³..... Greenland. You have glimpses of ¹⁴..... Andes or ¹⁵..... Pacific. You're always exhausted. Your wife or husband complains you're never there to take ¹⁶..... children to ¹⁷..... school or put them to ¹⁸..... bed. When you get home, your neighbour says, 'Another nice holiday, eh?' Give me Home Sweet Home any day!



Home Sweet Home!

4 Pronouns

4.1 Personal pronouns

4.1A Subject and object pronouns [> LEG 4.1-6]

Study:



- 1 We use pronouns in place of nouns. They may be subject (*she*) or object (*her*).
- 2 We call *I, you*, etc. **personal pronouns** because they refer to 'grammatical persons':
1st person: *I, we* **2nd person:** *you* **3rd person:** *he, she, it, one, they*
- 3 In English, we must express the subject of a sentence, so we use a pronoun or a noun:
John (or **He**) *is here.* **Tim and Pam** (or **They**) *have arrived.* (Not **is here** **have arrived** etc.)
- 4 We do not have singular and plural forms of *you*. We can say *You're right* to someone we don't know at all or to someone we know very well, to a child or to an adult.
- 5 We use *it* to say who someone is: *Who's that? – It's our new neighbour, Mr Groves.*
We use *he/she/they* to give information about someone:
Who's Mr Groves? – He's our new neighbour.
- 6 We also use *it* when we don't know the sex of a baby or child: *Is it a boy or a girl?*

Write: Supply pronouns and underline the words they replace.

- 1 Your parcel has arrived. It was delivered this morning.
- 2 Jane and I have already eaten. had a meal before we left home.
- 3 Who's that? – 's my mother. Would you like to meet her?
- 4 Who's Jane Wilson? – 's the woman who's just started working for our company.
- 5 So you've had a baby! Is a boy or a girl?
- 6 Whose cat is that? 's always in our garden.
- 7 When John comes in, please tell I phoned.
- 8 If you see Catherine, please give my regards.

4.1B Subject or object pronoun? [> LEG 4.7, 6.27.1]

Study:



- 1 We often use object pronouns after *be*: *Who is it? – It's me/him/her/us/them.*
- 2 We do not use *I, she*, etc. on their own in answer to questions with *Who?*. In everyday speech, we use object pronouns: *Who told him? – Me/Not me.* Or we say: *I did/I didn't.*
- 3 We use object pronouns after *as* and *than*: *He's taller than me/as tall as me.*
or we use subject + verb: *He's taller than I am/as tall as I am.* [> 1.10D]

Write: Supply suitable pronouns in the following. Alternatives are possible.

- 1 Who's that? – It's me/him/her/us/them !
- 2 Who wants to know what we're having for dinner tonight? – !
- 3 Who wants to help me in the garden? – Not !
- 4 You can invite him to your place. – ! You must be joking!
- 5 It was who told you, not my brother.
- 6 She's taller than, but not as strong as am.
- 7 He's more intelligent than am, but not as good at sports as

4.1C Gender in relation to animals, things and countries [> LEG 4.8]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *it* to refer to animals, as if they were things [> 1.6, 2.7A]. We only use *he*, *she* and *who* when there is a reason for doing so, for example, when we refer to a pet:
Rover's a good dog. He's my best friend. Bessie's a fine cow. She gives a lot of milk.
Or in folk stories: '*It's late,*' *the hare said as he looked at his watch.*
- 2 We use *he* or *she* to refer to 'lower animals' when, for example, we regard their activities with interest: *Look at that frog! Look at the way he jumps!*
- 3 We sometimes refer to ships, cars, motorbikes and other machines as *she*, when the reference is 'affectionate': *My old car's not fast, but she does 50 miles to the gallon.*
- 4 Some writers refer to a country as *she* when they're thinking of it 'as a person':
In 1941, America assumed her role as a world power.

Write: Supply suitable pronouns in the following. Alternatives are possible.

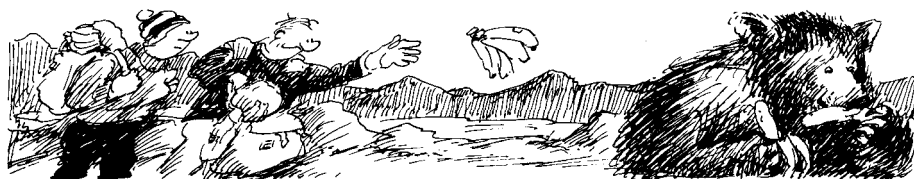
- 1 What do you call your dog? – *She* 's called Flossie.
- 2 There's a dog in our neighbourhood that barks all night. 's getting on my nerves.
- 3 They're launching a new ship in Portsmouth and I've been invited to see launched.
- 4 The *Titanic* may be at the bottom of the sea, but 's never forgotten.
- 5 I run a car in London, but I really don't need
- 6 This old car of mine may be falling to pieces, but 's all I've got.
- 7 Did you see that frog? jumped right in front of us!
- 8 I saw a frog in our garden. – Where did you see
- 9 You can't see America in a week, you know. 's a big country!
- 10 In the 19th century America welcomed the European poor. opened her arms to them.
- 11 '..... 's a cunning fox,' the monkey said to the hen. 'Be careful!'
- 12 They've just found an old wreck off the coast of Florida. 's probably Spanish.

4.1D Context

Write: Put in the missing pronouns (including *who*).

TOO MUCH TO BEAR!

If you're on holiday in the Western Islands of Scotland and ¹..... *you* see a bear, avoid ².....! It might turn out to be Hercules, the famous star ³..... has appeared in TV ads, films and cabaret. Hercules disappeared when his owner, Andy Robbins, took ⁴..... for a swim. Police and troops have joined in the search, but ⁵..... haven't had any success. After all, Hercules is unlikely to appear suddenly, shouting, 'It's ⁶.....! Here ⁷..... am!' The search party are carrying yoghurt and bananas to offer the bear because that's what ⁸..... likes best. ⁹..... isn't dangerous, but ¹⁰..... 's very hungry,' a searcher said. So if you see a ten-foot bear in the Western Islands, make sure ¹¹..... are carrying some bananas. ¹²..... may be just what a hungry bear is waiting for and if ¹³..... don't find ¹⁴....., you can always eat ¹⁵..... yourself!



If you see a ten-foot bear ...

4.2 'One'

4.2A 'One' and 'you' [> LEG 4.9]

Study:
★★

We use *one*, as a pronoun meaning 'everyone/anyone', to refer to 'people in general' only when we want to be formal. In everyday speech, we use *you* in an informal way to mean 'everyone/anyone'. Compare:

A: *Is it easy to go camping in this country?*

B: *Yes, but **one** isn't allowed to camp where **one** likes. **One** can only use camp-sites.*

or: *Yes, but **you** aren't allowed to camp where **you** like. **You** can only use camp-sites.*

Don't use *one*, *one's* (= your) and *oneself* (= yourself) unless you want to sound formal.

Write: Rewrite this paragraph so that it sounds 'informal'. Use *you*.

The moment one gets into the mountains, one is on one's own. One has to rely on oneself for everything. This means one has to carry all one's own food, though, of course, one can get pure drinking water from mountain streams. One won't see any local people for days at a time, so one can't get help if one's lost. One has to do one's best to find sheltered places to spend the night.

The moment you get into the mountains

.....

.....

.....

.....

4.2B 'One' and 'ones' in place of countable nouns: 'Use this clean one'

[> LEG 4.10]

Study:
★★

1 We can't use an adjective on its own in place of a singular countable noun. We must use a noun after an adjective or we must use *one* to avoid repeating the noun [> 6.3A]:

*Don't use that **cloth**. Use this clean **one**. (Not *Use this clean.*)*

2 We use *ones* to avoid repeating a plural countable noun:

*I don't want to wear my old **shoes**. I want to wear my new **ones**. (Not *wear my new*)*

3 We can use *one* and *ones* for people as well as things:

*Do you know **John Smith/Jane Smith**? – Is **he/she** the **one** who phoned last night?*

*Do you know **the Smiths**? – Are **they** the **ones** who used to live in this house?*

4 We do not use *one* in place of an uncountable noun. We repeat the noun or use no noun at all:

*Don't use that **milk**. Use this **fresh milk**. Or: Use this **fresh**. (Not *this fresh one*)*

Write: Supply *one* or *ones* where necessary.

- 1 Have you met our new secretary? – Is she the *one* who joined us last week?
- 2 You know the man I mean, the who lent you £50.
- 3 Which actresses did you meet? – The who appeared in Act 1.
- 4 Here are your stamps. These are the you paid for.
- 5 Which computer did you use? – The that is in your office.
- 6 The children I like to teach are the who like to learn.
- 7 Pour away that dirty water and get some clean
- 8 If I were you, I'd sell that old car and buy a new

4.2C 'Which one(s)?' – 'This/that (one)', etc. [> LEG 4.10]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *one/ones* to refer to people and things after *Which?*, *this/that* and adjectives:
Which one would you like? **This one** or **that one**? – I'd like the **large one/the red one**.
We can also say **Which** would you like? **This** or **that**?
- 2 We sometimes omit *one* and *ones* after superlatives and in short answers:
Which one/ones would you like? – I'd like **the best** (*one/ones*).
Which one/ones would you like? – **The large/the red**.
- 3 We usually avoid *ones* after *these/those*: I want **these**. I want **those**. (Not **these ones**)
- 4 We normally use *one/ones* after *this/that/these/those* + adjective:
I want **this/that white one**. I want **these/those white ones**.
- 5 We cannot omit *one/ones* in structures like: *Which woman?* – **The one** in the green dress.

Write:

- a Supply *one* or *ones*.
- b Put a tick beside the sentences where *one/ones* could be omitted.

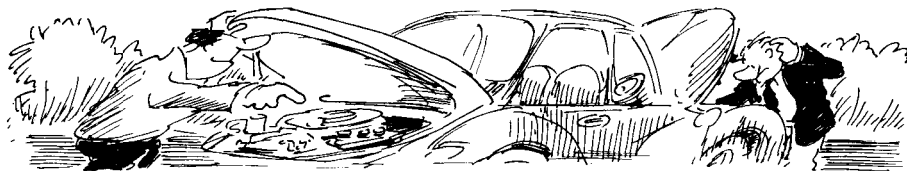
- 1 Which gloves would you like to see? – The ~~ones~~ in the window.
- 2 Which shoes fit you best? – The large
- 3 Which pullover do you prefer? – The red
- 4 Which jeans are you going to buy? – The most expensive
- 5 Please pass me that plate. – Which ?
- 6 Two of those coats suit you very well. – Which ?
- 7 I'd like to test-drive one of these two cars. – This or that ?
- 8 I'd like to see some rings, please. – These in silver or those in gold?
- 9 I'd like to try one of these shirts. Please pass me that white
- 10 I think, on the whole, I prefer these yellow

4.2D Context

Write: Put in *you*, *one* or *ones* where necessary.

HELP!

1.....~~You~~..... can always tell the people who know all about cars. They're the 2..... who can recognize all the latest models and who bore 3..... silly with useless information. The 4..... who don't know about cars are a bit like my friend, Robin. Robin is 5..... of those people who believes that all car engines are in the front of a vehicle. He recently hired a car without even realizing that it was 6..... of those with its engine at the back. Last week he was driving along a country road when he heard a strange noise coming from the car and he stopped to have a look. He raised the bonnet to examine his engine and you can imagine his surprise when he saw that he didn't have 7.....! He waved to a passing car and a young man stopped. Robin explained that he had lost his engine. 'I don't suppose 8..... can help me,' he said. 'Of course I can help 9.....,' the young man said. 'I've got a spare 10..... in the back of my car. You can use that 11.....'



A spare engine in the back.

4.3 'It' and 'one/some/any/none'

4.3A 'It' as in 'It's hot' and 'It's nice to see you' [> LEG 4.12-13]

Study:

★★

1 'empty subject': 'It's hot' [> 1.2A, 4.1A]

It carries no information in sentences like *It's hot*, *It's 8 o'clock*, etc. so we call it an 'empty subject'. We use *it* because a sentence must have a subject. (Not **Is hot**)

2 'preparatory subject': 'It's nice to see you' [> 1.5B, 16.4A, 16.7A]

We sometimes begin a sentence with *it* and continue with *to-*, *-ing* or *that*.

The true subject is *to-*, *-ing*, or *that*, but we generally prefer to begin with *it*.

To lie in the sun/Lying in the sun is pleasant. → *It's pleasant to lie/lying in the sun.*

That he's arriving today is certain. → *It's certain (that) he's arriving today.*

Write: Here are some notes. Write them as sentences beginning with *It*.

- 1 Monday, 13th June today. *It's Monday, 13th June, today.*
- 2 Snowing now. Snows a lot here.
- 3 22° Celsius in London yesterday.
- 4 100 kilometres from here to Paris.
- 5 Important to get to the meeting.
- 6 Difficult making such decisions.
- 7 A pleasure to welcome you all here.
- 8 A pity that they couldn't come.

4.3B 'It' and 'one' as subjects and objects: 'I like it' [> LEG 4.16]

Study:

★★

1 We use *it* and *they* if we are referring to 'something particular':

Has **the letter** arrived this morning? - Yes, **it** has just arrived.

Have **the letters** arrived this morning? - Yes, **they** have just arrived.

2 We use *one*, *some* and *none* when we mean 'in general':

Has **a letter** arrived? - Yes, **one** has just arrived.

Have **any letters** arrived? - Yes, **some** have arrived. No, **none** have/has arrived. [> 5.7C]

3 We must use an object after verbs like *enjoy* and *like* [> 1.2B]:

particular: Do you like **this cake**? - Yes, I like **it**. (Not **I like/I don't like**)

general: Would you like **some cake**? - Yes, I'd like **some**./No, I don't want **any**.

(Not **I'd like/I wouldn't like**)

Write: Supply *it*, *them*, *one*, *some*, *any* or *none* in the following.

- 1 Were any cars parked outside our house today? - Yes, *one* was parked there all morning.
- 2 Was that car parked outside our house today? - Yes, was parked there all morning.
- 3 Did any letters come for me this morning? - No, came for you.
- 4 Have the spare parts arrived yet? - Yes, of them have just arrived.
- 5 Do you like this dish? - Yes, I like very much.
- 6 Did you enjoy the strawberries? - Yes, I enjoyed very much.
- 7 Would you like some strawberries? - No, I don't want, thank you.
- 8 Would you like any cherries? - Yes, I'd like, please.
- 9 Have you got the maps with you? - No, I haven't got
- 10 Have you got a spare light bulb? - No, I haven't got

4.3C 'I hope/believe/expect so' [> LEG 4.17]

Study:



- 1 We use *so* (not **it**) after these verbs when we are responding in the affirmative: *believe, expect, fear, guess, hope, imagine, say, suppose, tell someone* and *think*:
Is what you told me true? – I believe so. (Not **I believe* *I believe it**)
- 2 We use *so* in the affirmative after *I'm afraid* and *It seems*:
The weather changing for the worse. – I'm afraid so. It seems so.
- 3 We can make a negative in two ways after these verbs: *believe, expect, imagine, suppose, think* and *It seems*:
Is that true? – I don't think so. Or: I think not.

Write: Write questions or statements followed by responses using *believe, etc.*

- 1 Someone asks you if the next train goes to London. You believe it does.
Does the next train go to London? – I believe so.
- 2 Someone says the weather is going to improve. You hope it will.
.....
- 3 Someone asks you if the letters have arrived yet. You don't think they have.
.....
- 4 Someone says the rail strike hasn't ended. It doesn't seem to have ended.
.....
- 5 Someone says it's a holiday tomorrow. You want to know who says this.
.....
- 6 Someone says there's been a terrible air disaster. You fear this is the case.
.....
- 7 Someone asks if the democrats will win the election. You don't expect they will.
.....

4.3D Context

Write: Put in *one, any, it, they, them, or so*.



SPELLING CAN BE A PAIN!

¹.....*It*..... was late in the afternoon when Mr Fox asked his ten-year-olds if
²..... would like to do a spelling test.

MR FOX: ³.....'s quite an easy ⁴..... . I'll say the words and
you'll spell ⁵..... . Write ⁶..... in your exercise
books. If there are ⁷..... words you can't spell, I'll write
⁸..... on the blackboard. Do you like spelling, Liz?

LIZ: I love ⁹..... .

MR FOX: What about you, Annie?

ANNIE: I think ¹⁰....., but I'm not sure.

Annie was quite late getting home from school that afternoon. Annie's granddad was worried.

GRANDDAD: Why are you late, Annie?

ANNIE: ¹¹.....'s because of rheumatism.

GRANDDAD: Only older people have rheumatism, Annie.

ANNIE: No, I haven't got ¹²....., granddad. I just can't spell
¹³.....!

... because of rheumatism

4.4 Possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns ('my/mine')

4.4A Basic differences between 'my' and 'mine', etc. [> LEG 4.19-21]

Study:



- 1 *My, your, his, her, its, one's, our, your* and *their* are **possessive adjectives**. This means they must go in front of nouns: *He's my son. It's your house.* etc.
- 2 They refer to the possessor, not to the thing possessed:
John amused his daughter. (= his own) **John amused her daughter.** (= someone else's)
Jane amused her son. (= her own) **Jane amused his son.** (= someone else's)
Its refers to possession by an animal or thing: **The cat drank its milk.** [> 2.7A]
- 3 *Mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours,* and *theirs* are **possessive pronouns**. This means they stand on their own: *That book is mine.* (Not **That is mine book.**)
 We cannot use possessives with *the*. (Not **That's the my car./That car's the mine.**)

Write: Supply the missing possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns.

- 1 What a beautiful baby girl! What's *her* name?
- 2 This is your towel: it's yellow. And that's your husband's is blue.
- 3 This car isn't My car has a different registration number.
- 4 'Shall we have supper on a tray and watch TV?' my wife asked.
- 5 That umbrella doesn't belong to you. is the one with the leather handle.
- 6 Their flat and our flat may seem to be the same, but is different from ours.
- 7 One should put own interests last.
- 8 John's son wants to be an actor and daughter wants to be an actress.
- 9 Patricia's eldest daughter has just left school and youngest has just begun.
- 10 Has the cat been given milk yet?

4.4B The double genitive: 'He is a friend of mine' [> LEG 2.52]

Study:



- 1 We can say: *He is your friend.*
 or: *He is a friend of yours.* (No apostrophe: not **He is a friend of your's.**)
 And note: *He is a friend of mine.* (Not **He is a friend of me.**)
- 2 We can say: *He is my father's friend.* [> 2.8A]
 We still use 's after *of* if we say: *He is a friend of my father's.* (Not **of my father**)
- 3 We often use *this* and *that* with this construction, especially when we are criticizing:
That boy of yours is in trouble again. That motorbike of yours is very noisy.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using phrases with *of*, making any necessary changes.

- 1 *Your brother* is always in trouble. That *brother of yours is always in trouble.*
- 2 He's not *my friend*. He's no
- 3 We watched *a play by Shakespeare*. We watched
- 4 Now tell me about *your problem*. Now tell me about
- 5 We've known him for years. He's *our friend*. He's
- 6 *Her loud music* drives me crazy! That
- 7 *My sister's friend* phoned from New York. A
- 8 *Their neighbours* have been complaining again. Those
- 9 *Your radio* keeps us all awake! That

4.4C 'My own' and 'of my own' [> LEG 4.22]

Study:

★★

We can use *own* after possessive adjectives, not pronouns, in two ways:
I have **my own room**. Or: I have **a room of my own**. (Not **mine own room/of mine own**)

Write:

Complete these sentences in two ways.

- 1 I'd love to have a room. *my own room / a room of my own*. 3 The children have rooms.
2 Frank has started a business. 4 Our dog has a kennel.

4.4D 'The' in place of 'my', etc.: 'a pain in the neck' [> LEG 4.23]

Study:

★★

We sometimes use *the* where we might expect *my*, *your*, etc., e.g. with parts of the body or with clothing after prepositions: *He hit me in the face*. *She pulled me by the sleeve*.
We use *the* to refer informally to members of the family: *How are the children?*
But avoid expressions like 'Meet the wife'.

Write: Supply *my* or *the*.

- 1 He hit me in *the* eye. 6 collar is too tight. I can't bear it.
2 Something has got into eye. 7 hair is getting too long. I must get it cut.
3 You don't have to pull me by collar. 8 She looked me in face and said, 'No'.
4 It's nice to see you. How's family? 9 What's worse than a pain in back?
5 What's wrong? – I've hurt arm. 10 The house is quiet with children away.

4.4E Context

Write: Put in *my*, *mine*, etc., or *the* where necessary.



REAL PERSONAL SERVICE

On ¹..... *our*..... last visit to London my wife and I stayed at the Magna Hotel. The Magna used to be a favourite hotel of ²....., but we hadn't stayed there for over sixteen years. The hotel is famous for ³..... service and we weren't disappointed. 'The porter will show you to ⁴..... room,' the Receptionist said with a smile and we were shown to a room on the first floor. 'This is ⁵..... favourite room,' I exclaimed. 'I know sir,' the porter said. '⁶..... is the room with a view, isn't it?' 'That's right,' I said. 'You like milk in ⁷..... tea in the morning and madam prefers lemon in ⁸.....' 'That's right,' my wife said. She pulled me by ⁹..... sleeve with pleasure when the porter had gone. 'Aren't they amazing! They remember ¹⁰..... preferences after all these years. This is real personal service!' The next morning at breakfast, we were given raspberry jam with ¹¹..... toast instead of orange marmalade. 'Isn't there any marmalade?' I asked the waiter. 'We never eat raspberry jam in the morning.' 'Sorry sir,' the waiter said. 'You ordered some for breakfast on ¹²..... last visit and it's been in the computer memory ever since!'

It's been in the computer memory ...

4.5 Reflexive pronouns ('myself')

4.5A Verbs commonly followed by reflexive pronouns: 'I enjoyed myself'

[> LEG 4.25]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves and themselves* are **reflexive pronouns**. There aren't many verbs in English which we must always use with reflexive pronouns: *absent oneself, avail oneself (of) and pride oneself (on)*:
*Monica **absented herself** from work. Jim **prides himself** on his cooking.*
- 2 We often use reflexive pronouns with these verbs: *amuse, blame, cut, dry, enjoy, hurt, and introduce*: *I've **cut myself** with the bread knife.*
We can use these verbs without reflexive pronouns if we want to: *I've cut **my thumb**.*
We can use object pronouns (*me, him, her, etc.*) after these verbs only when we refer to someone else: *He **amused** me* (but not **I amused me/I cut me**, etc.)

Write: Supply the correct reflexive pronouns in the following.

- 1 I enjoyed *myself* very much at the party.
- 2 I see you've cut again. Won't you ever learn how to shave?
- 3 How did Tom dry? – He used your towel!
- 4 She has no reason to blame for what has happened.
- 5 I think that poor dog has hurt
- 6 'One prides on one's patience,' the boss said, in his usual pompous manner.
- 7 We amused playing football on the beach.
- 8 Our new neighbours knocked at our door and introduced
- 9 Sheila prides on her ability to judge people's characters.
- 10 Bill had to absent from work when his baby was born.

4.5B Verb + reflexive, or not?: 'I've dressed (myself)' [> LEG 4.26-27]

Study:

★★

- 1 We sometimes add reflexive pronouns after verbs like *dress, hide, shave* and *wash* for emphasis or to show that something has been done with an effort. For example, if we are referring to a child, we might say: *Polly's now learnt how to **dress herself***, but we could also say: *Polly has now learnt how to **dress***. (without *herself*). The choice is ours.
- 2 Verbs such as *get up, sit down, stand up, wake up* and *get wet, get tired, get dressed, get married* [> 10.4C] are not normally reflexive in English: *I sat down with difficulty.*
We might use a reflexive only for emphasis:
*I **sat myself down** with difficulty. Old Bill has **got himself** married at last!*

Write: Write these sentences again using reflexive pronouns with the verbs.

- 1 We didn't know where to *hide*. *We didn't know where to hide ourselves.*
- 2 That kitten now *washes* every day.
- 3 She's just learning how to *dress*.
- 4 We *sat down* and waited.
- 5 I *got wet* watering the garden.
- 6 I *woke up* with a start.
- 7 Barry has just *got engaged*.
- 8 *Get ready* quickly!

4.5C Reflexive pronouns used after prepositions and for emphasis

[> LEG 4.29-30]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use reflexive pronouns:
 - after a preposition: *Look **after yourself!** Take care **of yourself!***
 - in fixed expressions: *strictly **between ourselves**, just **among ourselves**, in **itself**.*
- 2 We use object pronouns when we refer to:
 - place: *Have you got any money **on you?*** (Not **Have you got any money on yourself?**)
 - after *with* (= accompanied by): *I brought the children **with me**.* (Not **with myself**)
- 3 We use *by* + reflexive to mean 'without help' or 'alone':
*She made the dress **by herself**.* (= without help) *She lives **by herself**.* (= alone)
- 4 We sometimes use reflexive pronouns after nouns and pronouns for emphasis to mean 'that person/thing and only that person/thing':
*The **film itself** is very good. **You yourself** saw it.*
 The reflexive pronoun can also go at the end of a sentence or clause:
***You saw what happened yourself.** Or: **You yourself** saw what happened.*

Write 1: Use reflexive pronouns or object pronouns in the following.

- 1 Hargreaves knows how to take care of *himself*.
- 2 Have you got any money on?
- 3 Come and sit beside
- 4 Strictly between, she's wrong.
- 5 She's very certain of
- 6 There's a big truck in front of
- 7 Granddad doesn't like living by
- 8 Jimmy tied his shoelaces all by

Write 2: Rewrite these sentences using reflexive pronouns for emphasis.

- 1 *I didn't know about it till yesterday. I didn't know about it myself till yesterday.*
- 2 *The building is all right, I think.*
- 3 *You can't do that!*
- 4 *I can't fetch it – you fetch it.*
- 5 *Don't expect me to do it. Do it!*

4.5D Context

Write: Put in reflexive pronouns (*ourselves*, etc.) or object pronouns (*us*, etc.).



KEEP SMILING!

Psychiatrists have proved that happiness is the secret of good health. Mood really can affect the body ¹..... *itself*..... This means we all have to look after ²..... We have to enjoy ³..... and take pride in ⁴..... and we'll rarely have to visit the doctor. Praise helps ⁵..... to learn and is good for us, too. We all know how pleased young children feel when they learn to dress ⁶..... and do things by ⁷..... We should praise ⁸..... for their achievements. Bosses rarely have a good word for ⁹..... Yet if we want to be happy and healthy, we need people around ¹⁰..... who keep telling ¹¹..... how marvellous we are. Then we ¹²..... will believe that we are marvellous, too!

You're marvellous!

4.6 Demonstrative adjectives/pronouns ('this', etc.) 'Some/any/no' compounds ('someone', etc.)

4.6A Different uses of 'this' and 'that' [> LEG 4.32-36, App 7]

Study:

★★

- 1 The basic uses of *this*, *these* and *that*, *those* are:
 - *this* and *these* may refer to something that is close to you: **this one here**.
 - *that* and *those* may refer to something that is not close to you: **that one there**.
- 2 You can use *this* and *that* in many different contexts and situations. For example:
 - when you are showing someone round the house: **This is my room**.
 - when you recognize someone you are looking for: **There he is – that's him!**

Write: Say when you would use these sentences.

- 1 *This* is Mr Cooke. – How do you do. *Introducing someone*
- 2 Hullo. Is *that* George? *This* is Tom here.
- 3 We lost the match and *that* set us back.
- 4 I was robbed. – When did *this* happen?
- 5 You can't be too careful *these* days.
- 6 Quick! Run! It's *that* man again!
- 7 £50? It costs more than *that*!
- 8 There was *this* missionary.
- 9 I don't mean *that* Mrs Smith.
- 10 The fish I caught was *that* big.

4.6B Uses of 'some/any/no' compounds [> LEG 4.37-39]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *some* compounds in [compare > 5.3B-C, 13.2A]:
 - 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?**
- 2 We use *any* compounds in:
 - negative statements: **There isn't anyone here who can help you.**
 - questions when we're doubtful about the answer: **Is there anyone here who's a doctor?**
- 3 We use *no* compounds when the verb is affirmative: **There's no one here.** (= not anyone)

Write: Supply *anybody/anyone*, *nothing*, *anything*, *nobody/no one*, *somebody/someone* or *something* in these sentences.

- 1 There's *nothing* in the clothes basket. It's empty.
- 2 Is there in the clothes basket? – No, it's empty.
- 3 I've tried phoning, but every time I phone there's in.
- 4 I've prepared for dinner which you'll like very much.
- 5 I've never met who is as obstinate as you are.
- 6 Would you like to start with before you order the main course?
- 7 I know who can help you.
- 8 He sat at the table, but he didn't have to eat.
- 9 Is there here who can speak Japanese?
- 10 Does want a second helping?

4.6C 'Everyone', 'anyone', etc. with singular or plural pronouns [> LEG 4.40]

Study:

★★

1 We often use *anyone* to mean 'it doesn't matter who', especially after *if*.
The traditional rule is to use masculine pronouns with *anyone*, *everyone*, *no one*, etc., unless the context is definitely female (e.g. a girls' school).

According to this rule, you would address an audience of both sexes like this:

If anyone wants to leave early, he can ask for permission.

But you would address an audience of females like this:

'If anyone wants to leave early,' the headmistress said, 'she can ask for permission.'

2 In practice, we use *they*, *them*, etc. without a plural meaning to refer to both sexes, though some native speakers think this is wrong:

Instead of: **Everyone knows what he has to do, doesn't he?**

We say: **Everyone knows what they have to do, don't they?**

Write: Change the words in italics into plural references.

- 1 Anyone planning to travel abroad should take *his* driving licence with *him*. *their* *them*.....
- 2 I suppose everyone believes *he* could be Prime Minister.
- 3 We knew that no one had done *his* homework.
- 4 If anybody wants to know the answer, *he* can ask me.
- 5 Everybody knows what the answer is, *doesn't he?*
- 6 If anyone wants help in an emergency, *he* can dial 999.
- 7 Everyone wants to have *his* cake and eat it.
- 8 Nobody wants to be told that *he is* going to be sacked.
- 9 Ask anyone you know what *he thinks* of war and *he'll* say it's evil.
- 10 Everyone gets what *he deserves*, even if *he doesn't like* what *he gets*.

4.6D Context

Write: Put in *they*, *this*, *that*, *nothing*, *something*, *anyone* or *no one*.



MY BEST PERFORMANCE

Everyone has studied subjects at school which ¹.....*they*..... weren't very good at. ²..... can claim that some subjects aren't harder for them than others, however clever ³..... are. I've never met ⁴..... who's ⁵..... clever. My weakest subject at school was certainly chemistry. I learnt formulas and experiments by heart, but there was ⁶..... I could do to improve my performance. 'Is ⁷..... the best you can do?' my chemistry teacher would say after every test he set us. 'It's time you did ⁸..... about ⁹..... subject!' 'I really do try, sir,' I would answer. Before my last chemistry exam, I made a big effort. 'I can't do better than ¹⁰.....' I said to my teacher as I handed in my paper. 'It was my best performance.' Two weeks later I got my report and eagerly looked up my chemistry marks. I had got 8%! I couldn't believe it! 'Is ¹¹..... all I got, sir?' I asked. 'I'm afraid so,' my teacher said. 'Of course, 4% was for neatness!'

5 Quantity

5.1 Quantifiers + countable and uncountable nouns

5.1A Quantifiers + countable and uncountable nouns [> LEG 5.1-2]

Study:

★★

Quantifiers are words like *few, little, plenty of*.

They 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:

A + plural countable	B + uncountable	C + plural countable + uncountable	D + singular countable
<i>both books</i>	<i>a bit of bread</i>	<i>some books</i> <i>some ink</i>	<i>each book</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>a (small) amount of</i>	<i>some (of the)</i>	<i>all (of) the</i>
<i>(a) few</i>	<i>a bit of</i>	<i>any (of the)</i>	<i>any/some (of the)</i>
<i>fewer</i>	<i>a great deal of</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>each</i>
<i>the fewest</i>	<i>a good deal of</i>	<i>a lot of/lots of</i>	<i>either</i>
<i>a/the majority of</i>	<i>(a) little</i>	<i>hardly any</i>	<i>every</i>
<i>(not) many</i>	<i>less [but see 5.4D]</i>	<i>more/most (of the)</i>	<i>most of the</i>
<i>a minority of</i>	<i>the least</i>	<i>plenty of</i>	<i>neither</i>
<i>a number of/several</i>	<i>(not) much</i>	<i>no, none of the</i>	<i>no, none of the</i>

Write:

a Choose the right word in brackets.

b Mark the quantifier **A, B, C** or **D**.

- We have imported *fewer* videos this year than last year. (fewer/less) **A**
- There has been demand for videos this year than last year. (fewer/less) ___
- vehicles have just been recalled because of a design fault. (a lot of/much) ___
- effort has been put into this project. (a lot of/many) ___
- There isn't hope of finding the wreck. (much/many) ___
- There aren't dictionaries that can compare with this one. (much/many) ___
- book was written by someone else. (most/most of the) ___
- magazines carry advertisements. (most/most of) ___
- metal is liable to rust. (most/most of) ___
- I'd like milk in this coffee, please. (a few/a little) ___
- This room needs pictures to brighten it up. (a few/a little) ___
- businesses have gone bankrupt this year. (a good deal of/several) ___
- There aren't chocolates left! (any/some) ___
- There isn't time to waste. (any/some) ___
- We've had trouble with this machine already. (enough/hardly any) ___
- There have been accidents on this corner this year. (a good deal of/hardly any) ___
- We can't accept the estimates. estimate is low enough. (either/neither) ___
- examples prove that I am right. (both/neither) ___
- There have been changes in the new edition. (no/any) ___
- There has been change in the new edition. (no/any) ___

5.1B Quantifiers that tell us roughly how much and how many [> LEG 5.3]

Study:
★★

- 1 If we say *I bought **five magazines** to read on the train*, we are saying exactly how many.
- 2 If we say *I bought **some magazines** to read on the train*, we aren't saying how many.
- 3 If we say *I bought **a few magazines** to read on the train*, we are giving 'a rough idea'.
Some quantity words like *a few*, *a little* give us 'a rough idea'. If we arrange these on a scale, *too much* and *too many* are at the top of the scale and *no* is at the bottom.

Write: Arrange the quantifiers to show *most* at the top and *least* at the bottom. More than one answer is possible.

There are

- enough eggs. 1a *too many eggs*
- no eggs. 2a
- too many eggs. 3a
- hardly any eggs. 4a
- a few eggs. 5a
- plenty of eggs. 6a
- very few eggs. 7a
- a lot of eggs. 8a
- not many eggs. 9a

There is

- hardly any milk. 1b *too much milk*
- too much milk. 2b
- a little milk. 3b
- no milk. 4b
- not much milk. 5b
- enough milk. 6b
- a lot of milk. 7b
- plenty of milk. 8b
- very little milk. 9b

Now write sentences of your own using any six of the above quantifiers.

- 1 *There are plenty of apples in the bowl.*
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

5.1C Context

Write: Put in *any, enough, few, hardly any, many, no, plenty of, some or very little*.



I'm asking for some NOW!

EXCUSES! EXCUSES!

You may be trying to buy a pair of shoes and there are too
 1 *many* in your size and you can't choose, or there are too
 2 Shop assistants are good at inventing excuses. A few
 days ago I was trying to buy 3 birthday cards for three
 five-year-old children. There were 4 cards for children, but
 5 for five-year-olds. 'Five is a very popular age this year,'
 the assistant said. 'We can't get 6 cards for this age-
 group.' Then I went to a Do It Yourself shop and tried to buy some
 orange paint. There was 7 paint in the shop, but in the
 end I found 8 Then I asked for two small paint brushes.
 'We don't have 9,' the shop assistant explained. 'There's
 10 demand for them. No one ever asks for
 11'. 'Yes, they do!' I exclaimed. 'I'm asking for
 12 now!'

5.2 General and specific references to quantity

5.2A 'Of' after quantifiers ('a lot of', 'some of', etc.) [> LEG 5.5]

Study:

★★

- 1 We always use *of* with these quantifiers when we put them in front of a noun or pronoun, and the reference is general:
a bit of, a couple of, a lot of, lots of, the majority of, a number of, plenty of.
A lot of people don't eat meat. (= a lot of people in general)
- 2 If we use words like *the* or *my* after *of*, the reference is specific:
A lot of the people I know don't eat meat. (= the ones I know)
- 3 We use quantifiers like *some, any, much* and *many* without *of* in general references:
Some people don't eat meat. (= some people in general)
- 4 If we use *of + the, my* etc., after *some* etc., the reference is specific [compare > 5.7C]:
Some of the people I know don't eat meat. (= the ones I know)
Note that *None of* is always specific: ***None of my friends is here. I want none of it.***

Write:

- a Supply *of* where necessary.
- b Mark each sentence **G** (= General) or **S** (= Specific).
 - 1 There have been a lot*of*..... changes to our plans. G
 - 2 You only need to use a small amount salt in a dish like this. ___
 - 3 A lot the trouble was caused by a faulty switch. ___
 - 4 Have some tea. ___
 - 5 Would you like any cake? ___
 - 6 Would you like any this cake? ___
 - 7 We need a couple people to work in our new warehouse. ___
 - 8 There's plenty food for everybody. ___
 - 9 There were plenty complaints about the service. ___
 - 10 There's plenty this stew left, so we can have it again tonight. ___
 - 11 How much milk is there in the pan? – None ___
 - 12 How much of the milk have you used? – None it. ___
 - 13 Some students have complained about the canteen. ___
 - 14 Some my students have complained about the canteen. ___
 - 15 Would you like a bit butter on this toast? ___

5.2B When to use quantifiers without 'of': 'I've got a lot' [> LEG 5.5]

Study:

★★

If we use a quantifier on its own (not in front of a noun or pronoun) we do not use *of*.
Did you buy any fruit? – Yes, I bought a lot/lots/plenty. (Not *a lot of* etc.)

Write: Use *a couple, a bit, a lot, lots* and *plenty* in short answers to these questions.

- 1 Are there any eggs in the fridge? – Yes, *there are a couple*
- 2 Did you buy any cheese at the supermarket? – Yes,
- 3 Have we got enough potatoes for the weekend? – Yes,
- 4 Is there any milk in that jug? – Yes,
- 5 Were there many people at the meeting? – Yes,
- 6 Is there any ironing to be done? – Yes,

5.2C 'More' and 'less' after quantifiers: 'some more', 'a little less' [> LEG 5.6]

Study:

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We can emphasize quantity with *more* and *less* after quantifiers:

1 We can use *more* + plural nouns after:

some/any, a couple, hundreds, a few, hardly any, a lot, lots, many, no, plenty, several:
There are **a lot more students** studying English this year.

2 We can use *more* + uncountable nouns after:

some/any, a bit, a good deal, hardly any, a little, a lot, lots, much, no, plenty:
There's **a little more soup** if you'd like it.

3 We can use *less* + uncountable nouns after:

any, a bit, a good deal, a little, a lot, lots, much:
I'd like **a little less soup**, please.

Write: Choose *any more*, *any less*, etc. in the following sentences.

- 1 How much did we make yesterday? £200? – No, ... *much less* ... than that. (much less/a few less)
- 2 You've had enough food already and you can't have (any more/some more)
- 3 There are people giving up smoking these days. (much more/many more)
- 4 Newspapers have freedom than you think. (many less/much less)
- 5 young people are passing their driving test first time. (lots more/much more)
- 6 I'll help myself to of these vegetables. (some more/any more)
- 7 Have what you like. There are where these came from. (plenty more/much more)
- 8 There's been interest in this idea than we expected. (a lot less/many less)
- 9 We've had than forty applicants for this job. (no less/no fewer)
- 10 We need of this material, but it's hard to get. (many more/much more)
- 11 Do you want any more? – Yes,, please. (hardly any more/a lot more)
- 12 I've got experience in business than you think. (much more/many more)

5.2D Context

Write: Put a circle round the correct words in brackets.

SPARE THAT TREE!

How ('many/much) lists is your name on? There must be (²plenty/plenty of) lists of names in every part of the world and they must be used to send information to (³millions/millions of) people. The (⁴number/amount) of letters ordinary people receive these days has greatly increased. (⁵A lot/A lot of) the people I know object to receiving unwanted letters. (⁶Much/Many) of the mail we receive goes straight into the waste-paper basket. That's why (⁷most/the most) people refer to it as 'junk mail'. It would be better for all of us if we received (⁸much/many) less junk mail and, as a result, saved (⁹many/much) more trees from destruction. (¹⁰A lot/A lot of) trees must be wasted each year to produce mountains of junk mail. Recently, I received a very welcome (¹¹bit/bit of) junk mail. It was a leaflet urging me not to waste paper and to return junk mail to the sender. 'If we all do this,' the leaflet said, 'we will reduce the (¹²number/number of) trees being destroyed.' I agreed with every word they said, but why did they have to send me four copies of the leaflet?



'Junk mail'

5.3 Uses of 'some', 'any', 'no' and 'none'

5.3A 'Some/any' or zero in relation to quantity [> LEG 3.6, 3.28.8, 5.3, 5.10]

Study:

★★

countable nouns

The plural of *a/an* is normally *any* or *some* when we are referring to **quantity** [> 3.1B]:

Is there a present for the children? → *Are there **any presents** for the children?*

Here's a present for the children. → *Here are **some presents** for the children.*

Sometimes we don't use *any* and *some*, even if we are referring to quantity.

The meaning is exactly the same, though we generally prefer to use *any* and *some*:

*Are there **any presents** for the children?* → *Are there **presents** for the children?*

*Here are **some presents** for the children.* → *Here are **presents** for the children.*

uncountable nouns

In the same way, we sometimes don't use *any* and *some* when referring to quantity:

*Is there **any milk** in the fridge?* is the same as *Is there **milk** in the fridge?*

*There's **some milk** in the fridge.* is the same as *There's **milk** in the fridge.*

general statements

We always use zero in general statements [> 3.1A-B, 3.5A]:

***Beans** are good for you. **Oil** is produced in Alaska. **Life** is short.*

Write: We can use zero in all these sentences. Put in *some* or *any* only where possible.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 eggs are not nice to eat raw. | 9 We can't do without bread. |
| 2 There are eggs in that basket. | 10 Get bread while you're out. |
| 3 life is full of surprises. | 11 I don't like boiled cabbage. |
| 4 He's 89, but there's still life in him. | 12 Would you like boiled cabbage? |
| 5 Get meat and salad for the weekend. | 13 money has to be earned. |
| 6 Some people don't eat meat. | 14 You need to earn money. |
| 7 biscuits are bad for the teeth. | 15 There isn't news of him. |
| 8 You won't find biscuits in that tin. | 16 I hate bad news. |

5.3B Four basic uses of 'some' and 'any' [> LEG 5.10]

Study:

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Some [compare > 4.6B]

- 1 Affirmatives: *I want **some eggs**.*
- 2 Questions + 'yes': *Do you want **some tea**?*
- 3 Requests: *May I have **some tea**?*
- 4 (= certain): ***Some people** believe anything.*

Any [compare > 4.6B]

- 1 Negatives: *I don't want **any eggs**.*
- 2 Uncertain questions: *Is there **any** ...?*
- 3 With *hardly*, etc.: *There's **hardly any ink**.*
- 4 With *at all*: *I haven't **any idea at all**.*

Write: Supply *some* or *any*.

- 1 Are there any more potatoes? – Yes, there are *some* potatoes in the dish.
- 2 Have we got any sugar? – I expect we have. Yes, there's sugar in this bowl.
- 3 May I have more tea? – Yes, of course.
- 4 people just don't know how to mind their own business.
- 5 I didn't get shoes at the sales. They were too expensive.
- 6 I think we've run out of sugar. Is there sugar in that bowl? – No, there isn't.
- 7 There are never taxis when you want one.
- 8 There isn't point at all in getting upset about it.

5.3C 'Not ...any', 'no' and 'none' [> LEG 5.11]

Study:

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- 1 We can use *no* instead of *not any*. We use an affirmative verb with *no* [> 13.2A]:
There **aren't any** buses after midnight. → There **are no** buses after midnight.
There **isn't any** milk. → There's **no** milk.
- 2 We can also use *no* in place of *not a/an*: I'm **not an** expert. → I'm **no** expert.
- 3 *None* stands on its own as a pronoun: We have **no bananas**. We have **none**.

Write: Rewrite these sentences with *any*, *no* and *none*.

- 1 There are no buses after 12.30. There aren't *any buses after 12.30.*
- 2 We haven't got any. We've got
- 3 I'm not an accountant, but these figures are wrong. I'm
- 4 There isn't any explanation for this. There's

5.3D Other uses of 'some' and 'any' [> LEG 5.12]

Study:

★★

Some and *any* also have special uses:
I haven't seen Tom for **some years**. (= I haven't seen Tom for several years.)
Any fool knows the answer to a question like that. (= 'It doesn't matter who')

Write: Match the sentences on the left with the meanings on the right.

- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| 1 It took <i>some minutes</i> to see what had gone wrong. <u>f</u> | a) it doesn't matter which |
| 2 There were <i>some 500</i> people at the meeting. ___ | b) an extraordinary |
| 3 Monica's really <i>some actress</i> . ___ | c) an ordinary |
| 4 There must be <i>some person</i> who knows the answer. ___ | d) not much |
| 5 You're <i>some help</i> , I must say! ___ | e) about |
| 6 Albert isn't just <i>any hairdresser</i> , you know. ___ | f) several |
| 7 <i>Any coat</i> will do. It needn't be a raincoat. ___ | g) an unknown |

5.3E Context

Write: Put in *some*, *any*, *no* or '-'.
1



Sardines for lunch.

CAUSE FOR ALARM!

'1..... Children and 2..... grown-ups must do their best to keep the world clean,' Mr Fox said to his class. 'Sometimes we see 3..... rubbish in the streets and we must pick it up. Sometimes we eat 4..... sweets and we must put the wrappings in the bin. We must all work together so there's 5..... rubbish in the world. Never throw 6..... plastic into the sea! There's 7..... tar on the beaches. There's 8..... oil in the sea. If we pour 9..... poison into our rivers, 10..... fish die. This is called 11..... pollution. This weekend, see if you can find 12..... examples of pollution and write 13..... sentences about it.' Jimmy looked very worried when he went home. On Monday, he handed in his composition. 'Yesterday we had 14..... sardines for lunch. Mummy opened the tin, but all the fish were dead and the tin was full of oil!'

5.4 'Much', 'many', 'a lot of', '(a) few', '(a) little', 'fewer', 'less'

5.4A Basic uses of 'much', 'many' and 'a lot of' [> LEG 5.13-14]

Study:

★

The basic uses are:

- 1 *much* (+ uncountable, always singular) and *many* (+ plural countable) [> 5.1A]:
 - in **negative statements**: *We haven't got much time. There aren't many pandas in China.*
 - in **questions**: *Is there much milk? Have you had many inquiries?*
- 2 *a lot of* or the informal *lots of* (+ plural countable or singular uncountable):
 - in the **affirmative**: *I've got a lot of time/lots of time. I've got a lot of/lots of books.*

Write: Supply *much*, *many* or *a lot of* in these sentences.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 I know old Mr Higgins has <u>a lot of</u> money. | 4 There aren't portraits of Shakespeare. |
| 2 Is there demand for silk stockings? | 5 I must say, you have books. |
| 3 There isn't space in this flat. | 6 Will there be guests at your party? |

5.4B Other common uses of 'much', 'many' and 'a lot of' [> LEG 5.13-14]

Study:

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- 1 We can also use *much* and *many* in the affirmative (like *a lot of/lots of*):
 - in formal statements: ***Much money*** is spent on defence. ***Many teachers*** retire early.
 - with *as ... as*: Take ***as much as*** you like.
 - in time references: *I've lived here for many years.*
- 2 We can use *Not much* and *Not many* to begin a sentence: ***Not many*** know about this.
- 3 We can use *not a lot of* for emphasis: *I haven't got a lot of time for people like him.*

Write: Supply *much* or *many* in these sentences.

- 1 ...Much... depends on the outcome of the inquiry.
- 2 Don't be discouraged! have failed to run the marathon.
- 3 You can have as of this material as you like.
- 4 Take as of these tiles as you want.
- 5 He has lived here for of his life.
- 6 We have occupied the same house for years.
- 7 Not happens around here when the tourists leave.
- 8 Not doctors are prepared to visit patients in their own homes.

5.4C 'Few', 'a few', 'little', 'a little' [> LEG 5.15]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *few* and *a few* with plural countable nouns: *few friends*, *a few friends*.
We use *little* and *a little* with uncountable nouns: *little time*, *a little time*.
- 2 *Few* and *little* are negative (= hardly any): *I've got few friends. I've got little time.* (hardly any)
We sometimes use *very* with *few* and *little*:
I've got very few friends. I've got very little time. (hardly any at all)
- 3 *A few* and *a little* are positive (= some): *I've got a few friends. I've got a little time.* (some)
We sometimes use *only* with *a few* and *a little*:
I've got only a few friends. (not many) *I've got only a little time.* (not much)

Write: Supply *few*, *a few*, *little* or *a little* in these sentences.

- 1 There are very *few* scholarships for students in this university.
- 2 I'm sorry, but I'm going to have to ask you for more time to pay this bill.
- 3 If you don't hurry we'll miss our train. There's time to spare.
- 4 It's a difficult text. I've had to look up quite words in the dictionary.
- 5 I can't spare any of these catalogues. There are only left.
- 6 I can't let you use much of this perfume. There's only in the bottle.
- 7 There are who know about this, so keep it to yourself.
- 8 If what you say is true, there is we can do about it.

5.4D 'Fewer' and 'less' [> LEG 5.16]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Fewer* is the comparative of *few* (*few*, *fewer*, *the fewest*).
Less is the comparative of *little* (*little*, *less*, *the least* [> 6.5C]).
- 2 *Fewer* goes with plural countables: ***Fewer videos*** have been imported this year than last.
- 3 *Less* goes with uncountables: ***Less oil*** has been produced this year than last.
- 4 Informally, we often use *less* with uncountables. Some native speakers think it's wrong:
Less people are travelling abroad this year.
People are buying ***less newspapers*** than they used to.

Write: Supply *fewer* or *less* in these sentences.

- 1 The *less* you pay, the *fewer* services you get.
- 2 We've had complaints this year.
- 3 I've had lessons than you.
- 4 New cars need servicing than old ones.
- 5 People have money to spend this year.
- 6 Sue's got homework than Tom.

5.4E Context

Write: Put in *a little*, *a lot of*, *a few*, *few*, *fewer*, *many* or *much*.

DON'T CALL US, WE'LL CALL YOU!

Two years ago I moved to a new neighbourhood. There seem to be very 1..... *few* people in this area who are without telephones, so I expected to get a new phone quickly. I applied for one as soon as I moved into my new house. 'We aren't supplying 2..... new phones in your area,' an engineer told me. '3..... people want new phones at the moment and the company is employing 4..... engineers than last year so as to save money. A new phone won't cost you 5..... money, but it will take 6..... time. We can't do anything for you before December.' You need 7..... patience if you're waiting for a new phone and you need 8..... friends whose phones you can use as well. Fortunately, I had both. December came and went, but there was no sign of a phone. I went to the company's local office to protest. 'They told me I'd have a phone by December,' I protested. 'Which year?' the assistant asked.



Which year?

5.5 'Both' and 'all'

5.5A 'Both/both the' and 'all/all the' with nouns [> LEG 5.18.1-2]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *both* and *both the* (or *both my*, etc.) in exactly the same way to refer to two particular people or things (plural countable nouns):
***Both children/Both the children* are in bed. *Both cars/Both the cars* are very fast.**
- 2 We use *all* + noun to refer to things in general: (= the whole number or amount):
***All children* like to play.** (plural countables) ***All advice* is useless.** (uncountable nouns)
- 3 *All the* refers to particular people or things:
***All the children in our street* like to play.** (*all the* + plural countable nouns)
***All the advice you gave me* was useless.** (*all the* + uncountable noun)

Write: Supply *both (the)* or *all (the)*. There is often more than one possibility.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 <i>Both (the)</i> tyres on my bicycle are flat. | 6 addresses in this list are out of date. |
| 2 people are mortal. | 7 twins want to go to the party. |
| 3 salt in this bag is damp. | 8 cars need regular servicing. |
| 4 drinking water must be pure. | 9 front legs of this chair are shaky. |
| 5 windows in the house are open. | 10 earth and moon go round the sun. |

5.5B 'Both' and 'all': word order with verbs [> LEG 5.19]

Study:

★★

Both and *all* have three basic positions in affirmative sentences [compare > 7.4A]:

- a after *be* when it is the only verb in a sentence:
*The girls **are both** ready.* (= *Both girls/Both the girls are ready.*)
*The girls **are all** ready.* (= *All the girls are ready.*)
- b after auxiliaries (*can*, etc.) or the first auxiliary when there is more than one:
*The girls **can both** speak French.* (= *Both girls/Both the girls can speak French.*)
*The committee **should all have** resigned.* (= *All the committee should have resigned.*)
- c before the main verb when there is only one verb:
*The girls **both left** early.* (= *Both girls/Both the girls left early.*)
*The girls **all left** early.* (= *All the girls left early.*)

Write: Rewrite these sentences so that *both* and *all* are before or after the verbs.

- 1 All the customers are complaining. *The customers are all complaining.*
- 2 Both the patients had appointments at 10.
- 3 Both the directors have retired.
- 4 Both our secretaries can speak French.
- 5 All the customers should have complained.
- 6 Both the boys had haircuts.
- 7 All the pupils may leave now.
- 8 All the students wrote good essays.
- 9 All our employees work too hard.
- 10 All the children must go home early.
- 11 All the children here learn German.

5.5C 'Both' and 'all': word order with pronouns [> LEG 5.20]

Study:

★★

subject

Instead of: **We/They are both** ready. We can say: **Both of us/them** are ready.
We/They all left early. **All of us/them** left early.

object

Instead of: I love **you both/all**. We can say: I love **both of you/all of you**.
 He gave **us both/all** some money. He gave some money **to both/all of us**.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *both of* and *all of*.

- 1 We all took taxis. *All of us took taxis.*
- 2 They both turned left.
- 3 I know you both.
- 4 She's interested in them both.
- 5 It all went bad.
- 6 She's concerned about us all.
- 7 You all filled in the forms, didn't you?

5.5D 'None of' and 'neither of' [> LEG 5.21]

Study:

★★

The negative of **All the girls** left early. is: **None of the girls** left early.
 The negative of **Both the girls** left early. is: **Neither of the girls** left early.

Write: Rewrite these sentences in the negative.

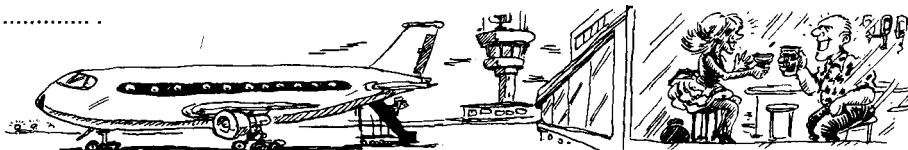
- 1 All the passengers survived. *None of the passengers survived.*
- 2 We were both late.
- 3 Both tyres needed air.
- 4 We all knew the answer.

5.5E Context

Write: Put in *us, them, both, both the, all or all the*.

ALL ON BOARD?

1..... *All* of 2..... who travel by plane probably find reasons to complain about airlines, but it is less common for airlines to complain about 3.....! At 2.35 p.m. Flight 767 was ready to leave for Ibiza and nearly 4..... passengers were on board. At 6.10 p.m. the plane was still on the runway. Two passengers hadn't boarded. If people check in but don't board 5..... the luggage must be unloaded. 6..... passengers had to get off the plane and 7..... of 8..... identified their luggage. At the end there were two pieces of luggage left. Just then, 9..... missing passengers appeared. 'We 10..... went to the bar and we had something to drink and a sandwich,' they explained. 11..... of 12..... had been sitting in the bar for hours! The captain scolded 13..... 14..... severely and the other passengers were very angry with 15.....



The plane was still on the runway

5.6 'All (the)', '(a/the) whole', 'each' and 'every'

5.6A 'All (the)' compared with '(a/the) whole' [> LEG 5.22]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *the whole* and *a whole* with singular countable nouns:
He ate **the whole loaf**. He swallowed **a whole banana**. **The whole film** was boring.
We do not use *the whole* with plurals or uncountables. (Not **the whole books/bread**)
- 2 Some nouns combine only with *all*:
He spent **all the money**. She's 90 and she's still got **all her teeth**.
Some nouns combine only with *whole*:
You must tell me **the whole truth**. I'd like to know **the whole history** of the world.
Some nouns combine with *all* or *whole*:
I've waited **all my life/my whole life** for such a moment as this.
- 3 We also use *all* and *a/the whole* with time references: *all day*, *a/the whole night*.
Whole is stronger than *all* and also combines with words like *hour* and *century*:
a/the whole hour, *a/the whole century*. (Not **all the hour** **all the century**)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using either *all* or *whole*.

- 1 I'm losing my hair. *I'm losing all my hair.*
- 2 He explained the situation to me.
- 3 The money was spent.
- 4 You didn't tell me the truth.
- 5 I heard the story.
- 6 It will take a century to clean up the atmosphere.

5.6B 'All' compared with 'everyone/everybody' and 'everything' [> LEG 5.24-25]

Study:

★★

- 1 We rarely use *all* on its own to mean 'everyone/everybody':
Everyone/Everybody wanted Marilyn's autograph. (Not **All wanted**.)
- 2 *All* means 'everyone/everybody' when we use other words with it:
All of us/We all agreed to sign the contract. All those who were present were in favour.
(= Everyone/Everybody agreed to sign. Everyone/Everybody present was in favour.)
- 3 We often use *all* and *everything* with other words to refer to things:
All/Everything I have belongs to you. He taught me all/everything I know.
But note: *He gave me everything.* (Not **He gave me all.**)

Write: Use *all*, *everyone* or *everything* in these sentences.

- 1 When the famous actress appeared, *everyone* wanted to speak to her.
- 2 I invited came to my party.
- 3 I'm not buying anything. is too expensive.
- 4 those who know me can be sure I'm telling the truth.
- 5 of us felt that it had been a wonderful experience.
- 6 stood up when the President came into the room.
- 7 talked about the elections, but I'm not sure they voted.
- 8 in the building was destroyed in the fire. Some of the objects were priceless.
- 9 I wouldn't help you for the tea in China!
- 10 How much do you want for in the shop?

5.6C 'Each' and 'every' [> LEG 5.26]

Study:



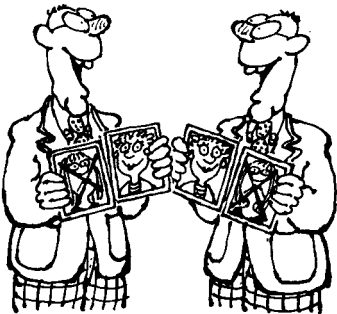
- 1 We often use *each*, like *both*, to refer to two people or things:
My wife and I each ordered avocado to start with. We cannot use *every* here.
- 2 We can use *each* and *every* to refer to more than two.
Each suggests 'one by one', 'separately'; *every* suggests 'all together':
Each child at the party had a piece of cake. (*Every* is also possible.)
Every child in the world loves the story of Cinderella. (*Each* is unlikely.)
- 3 We must use *every* (Not **each**) after *nearly* and after *not*:
Nearly every shop is shut today. **Not every** train driver is on strike today.
- 4 We cannot use *of* after *every* and we cannot use *every* at the end of a sentence:
Each of the children received a present. They received a present **each**.
- 5 We can use **every** with a few uncountable nouns:
My mother gave me **every encouragement** when I was a child.

Write: Supply *each* or *every* in the following sentences. Sometimes both are possible.

- 1 Nearly *every* home in the country has television.
- 2 Here is something for of you.
- 3 Not student is capable of learning English.
- 4 Our motoring organization will give you assistance if you break down.
- 5 The admission ticket cost us £5
- 6 They seem to be repairing road in the country.
- 7 road is clearly signposted.
- 8 There's a fire extinguisher on floor in the building.
- 9 floor in the building has its own fire extinguisher.
- 10 They are fortunate to have such a good start in life.
- 11 They both did well and they will receive prizes
- 12 You've been given opportunity to do well in this company.
- 13 I've phoned him twice, but he's been out on occasion.
- 14 I've been phoning him all week, but he's been out on occasion.

5.6D Context

Write: Put in *each*, *every*, *everyone*, *everything*, *all* or *whole*.



JIM MEETS JAMES

I've just heard the ¹ *whole* story of the Lewis twins from Ohio, who were adopted by different families at birth and who met each other for the first time at the age of 39. ² wanted to know if they had anything in common. They had! They had ³ married a woman called Linda. ⁴ of them had been divorced and married another woman called Betty. The couples who adopted them had ⁵ called them 'Jim'. Many similar things happened to them ⁶ their lives. The ⁷ list is endless. Almost ⁸ experience they had had was the same: there were exact parallels for ⁹ they had ever done. As Jim said when he first met James, 'It wasn't like meeting a stranger!'

'It wasn't like meeting a stranger!'

5.7 'Another', '(the) other(s)', 'either', 'neither', 'each (one of)'

5.7A 'Another', 'other', 'others', 'the other', 'the others' [> LEG 5.27]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Another* doesn't refer to anything in particular. It can mean:
 - 'different': *Come **another day**.* (= any other day, no particular day)
 - 'additional': *We need **another day** to finish this.* (= one more day, no particular day)
- 2 We can contrast *some* and *other(s)* when we talk about things in general:
 - Some holidays** are cheap and **other holidays** are expensive.*
 - Some holidays** are cheap and **others** are expensive.* (= holidays in general)
- 3 We can contrast *one* with *the other* or *the others* when referring to particular things:
 - This one** is mine and **the other one** is yours.* (Or: ... ***the other** is yours*)
 - This one** is mine and **the other ones** are yours.* (Or: ... ***the others** are yours*)
- 4 We can use *the other(s)* to refer to people as well:
 - John went cycling and **the other boy/the other boys** went with him.*
 - John went cycling and **the others** went with him.*
- 5 *The other day* can mean 'a few days ago'; *the next day* refers to the following day:
 - I met your father in the street **the other day**.* (= a few days ago)
 - We spent our first night in Cairo and **the next day** we went to Alexandria.*

Write: Supply *another*, *other*, *the next*, *the other*, *the others* and *others*.

- 1 John came to see me *the other* day. It was last Friday, I think.
- 2 I met two strangers on the way to work. One of them greeted me and didn't.
- 3 Some people like to have the windows open all the time; don't.
- 4 I can't see him today. I'll have to see him day.
- 5 We spent the night in a small village and continued our journey day.
- 6 Bill and boy are playing in the yard. Jane and girls are in the front room.
- 7 There must be road that leads to the city centre.
- 8 There must be roads that lead to the city centre.
- 9 I can't let you have any of these plants, but you can have all

5.7B 'Either' and 'neither' + singular nouns [> LEG 5.29]

Study:

★★

Either and *neither* refer to two people, things, etc. only. [compare > 1.4]
Either means 'one or the other':
*Which pot will I use? – **Either (of them)**.* *It doesn't matter which.*
Neither means 'not one and not the other':
*Which pot will I use? – **Neither (of them)**.* *Use this frying pan.*

Write: Supply *either* or *neither*.

- 1 When shall we meet: at 7 or at 7.30? – I don't mind. *Either* time is convenient for me.
- 2 You can't use those screwdrivers. of them is suitable for the job.
- 3 I don't know who's on the phone. It's your mother or your aunt.
- 4 I met John a year ago, but I've seen him nor heard from him since.
- 5 Say what you like about those two applicants. I didn't like of them! [> 13.2A]
- 6 I know you sent us two letters, but we have received of them.

5.7C 'Each of', etc. [> LEG 5.5.2, 5.30-31]

Study:

★★

1 We can use *of the/my*, etc. after *any, some, another, each, either, neither, none* [> 5.2A]:

Instead of: **Neither lift is working.**

We can say: **Neither of the lifts is working.**

2 After *either, neither* and *none*, 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 this. None of my friends has/have been invited.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *of the*.

- 1 Another teaspoon is missing. *Another of the teaspoons is missing.*
- 2 Neither roadmap is much use.
- 3 Any roadmap you have will be OK.
- 4 Either road leads to the same place.
- 5 Each painting is perfect.
- 6 Neither boy is guilty.
- 7 I can't ask either secretary to do the job.
- 8 Give a tip to each porter.

5.7D 'One of' [> LEG 5.30]

Study:

★★

We can say: **Each of these answers is right.** Or: **Each one of these answers is right.**

We can use *of or one of* after *any, another, each, either, and neither*.

We must use a noun after *every (every room)* or we must use *one of (every one of)*:

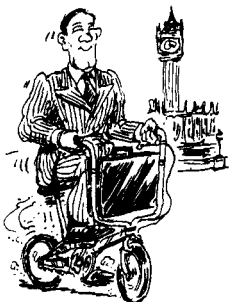
Every room is booked. Every (single) one of the rooms is booked. (Not *Every of*)

Write: Delete *one* where possible in these sentences.

- 1 Every one of these answers is wrong.
- 2 Each one of these pilots has been highly trained.
- 3 She came in here and criticized every single one of our products.
- 4 I'm not prepared to listen to another one of your complaints.
- 5 Any one of us might be asked to help in an emergency.

5.7E Context

Write: Put in *one, either, others, other, the other* or *some*.



He goes everywhere by bicycle

HALT!

The ¹..... *other*..... day the Prime Minister appointed a new Minister of Transport.
²..... ministers like to travel everywhere by car; ³..... prefer to use public transport. ⁴..... of these means of transport is fine, but the new minister is ⁵..... of those who goes everywhere by bicycle. When he arrived at the House of Commons yesterday, he was stopped by two security guards. ⁶..... of them was sure he had seen him before. 'I know you, don't I?' asked one of the guards. 'You're ⁷..... of these messengers, aren't you?' 'Well, no, actually,' the minister replied. 'I'm ⁸..... of the ministers.' 'I knew you were ⁹..... or ¹⁰.....!' the guard replied.

6 Adjectives

6.1 Formation of adjectives

6.1A Adjectives formed with suffixes: 'enjoy/enjoyable' [> LEG 6.2, App 8.1]

Study:
★★

Many adjectives related to verbs or nouns have a characteristic ending (or **suffix**):
We enjoyed the party. The party was very enjoyable.

-able (capable of being): <i>manageable</i>	-ible (like <i>-able</i>): <i>permissible</i>
-ful (full of): <i>boastful</i>	-(i)an (historical period, etc.): <i>Victorian</i>
-ic : <i>energetic</i>	-ish (have the quality of): <i>foolish, reddish</i>
-ive (capable of being): <i>attractive</i>	-ly (have this quality): <i>friendly</i> [> 7.1C]
-ant : <i>hesitant</i>	-ous : <i>humorous</i>

And note *-ing* forms used as adjectives: *running water* [> 2.2A, 6.3B, 16.5A].

Write: Supply the right adjectival forms. Refer to the box above only when you have to.

- I'm *attracted* by this scheme. I find it very *attractive*
- A class of forty can be *managed*. It's just about
- I know I *hesitated* before agreeing. I couldn't help being
- I don't know where you find all that *energy*. You're tremendously
- This piece of furniture was made in the reign of *Victoria*. It's
- I don't know how to describe the colour of the sky. It's almost *red*, sort of
- I've never met anyone who *boasts* as he does. He's extremely
- What level of radiation can be *permitted*? How much radiation is
- The story is full of *humour*. I've rarely read anything that's so

6.1B Adjectives formed with prefixes: 'possible/impossible' [> LEG 6.2, App 8.2]

Study:
★★

A **prefix** (e.g. *im-*) added to an adjective generally has a negative effect:
I think it's possible to solve the problem. I think it's impossible to solve the problem.

un- : <i>uncooked, unimaginable</i>	im- : <i>immoral, impractical</i>
in- : <i>incapable, inhuman</i>	dis- : <i>dishonest, disagreeable</i>
il- : <i>illegal, illegible</i>	ir- : <i>irresponsible, irregular</i>

And note **pre-** (*pre-war*) and **hyper-** (*hyperactive*), which do not create opposites but modify the meaning of the word in some way.

Write: Supply the right adjectival forms. Refer to the box above only when you have to.

- I suspect he isn't *honest*. In fact, I think he's quite *dishonest*
- This arrangement isn't strictly *legal*. Some people would regard it as
- Sometimes she doesn't behave in a *responsible* manner. She's quite
- Such a situation is barely *imaginable*. It's quite
- Bob's not very *capable*. He's of making sound decisions.
- This fish hasn't been *cooked* enough. It's
- This scheme isn't very *practical*. In fact, it's quite
- This dates from before the *war*. It's

6.1C Compound adjectives of measurement, etc.: 'a twenty-year-old man'

[> LEG 6.3.2]

Study:

★★

1 We combine numbers with nouns in the singular to form compound adjectives with hyphens: *a twenty-year-old man* (Not **a twenty-years-old man**).

We prefer compounds of this kind to phrases with *of*: 'a man of twenty years'.

2 Compound adjectives of this kind can refer to:

- | | |
|---|---|
| - age: <i>a three-year-old building</i> | - area: <i>a fifty-acre farm</i> |
| - volume: <i>a two-litre car</i> | - duration: <i>a four-hour meeting</i> |
| - length: <i>a twelve-inch ruler</i> | - depth: <i>a six-foot hole</i> |
| - price: <i>a \$50 dress (a fifty-dollar dress)</i> | - time/distance: <i>a ten-minute walk</i> |
| - weight: <i>a five-kilo bag</i> | |

Write: Rewrite the following sentences using compound adjectives.

- 1 The office-block costs two million pounds. It's *a two-million-pound office-block*.
- 2 The woman is seventy years old. She's
- 3 The conference lasts two days. It's
- 4 The farm is eighty hectares. It's
- 5 The journey takes three days. It's
- 6 The bag weighs five kilos. It's
- 7 My engine is three litres. It's
- 8 It's a note for fifty pounds. It's
- 9 The fence is twenty miles. It's
- 10 The tunnel is fifty kilometres. It's

6.1D Context

Write: Refer to the words in brackets and put in the right adjectives.



EAGER DRIVER

It's (*legal*) ¹ *illegal* to drive under the age of seventeen in Britain, but a (*boy of seventeen years old*) ² managed to pass his driving test on the day of his seventeenth birthday. Most people would consider this (*possible*) ³ because you need a lot of lessons to pass the test. David Livesey arranged to have (*a lesson of eight hours*) ⁴ beginning at dawn on his birthday. At first he was very (*care*) ⁵ and (*hesitate*) ⁶, but he had a (*wonder*) ⁷ teacher and his driving improved amazingly during the day. By four in the afternoon, still feeling (*energy*) ⁸, he was ready to take his test and he passed first time! He was almost in a state of shock after the test, and he drove home very slowly in the (*red*) ⁹ light of the (*set*) ¹⁰ sun. David's driving attracted the attention of two policemen, but they broke into smiles and congratulated him warmly when he showed them his certificate and told them his story.

... they broke into smiles

6.2 Position of adjectives

6.2A Form and position of most adjectives [> LEG 6.4, 6.7]

Study:



1 Adjectives have the same form whether they refer to people or things in the singular or plural:

*He's a **tall** man. She's a **tall** woman. It's a **tall** building.*

*They're **tall** men. They're **tall** women. They're **tall** buildings.*

2 Most adjectives are used in two ways in English:

– before a noun: *He is an **old** man. This is an **old** ticket.*

– after *be, seem*, etc. the adjective stands on its own: *The man **is old**. The ticket **is old**.*

Write: Rewrite these sentences so that the adjectives come after *be*:

1 This is a big company. This company *is big*

2 Kevin and Matthew are clever boys. Kevin and Matthew

3 Nina is a hardworking girl. Nina

4 These are busy streets. These streets

5 They're well-behaved children. The children

6.2B Adjectives that can change in meaning before a noun or after 'be'

[> LEG 6.7, 6.8]

Study:



– before a noun: *John is an **old** friend of mine.* (= I've known him for a long time)

– after *be*: *My friend, John, **is** very **old**.* (= old in years)

Some other common adjectives that can change meaning according to their position are:

early, faint, fine, heavy, ill, late, sick. Note that *sick* can go before a noun or after *be*, but *ill* (like *well*) comes after *be*. *Sick* means 'ill' and also means 'upset in the stomach'.

Write 1: Rewrite these sentences using adjectives with the same meaning as the words in italics.

1 John is a friend *whom I have known for a very long time*.

John is *an old friend*

2 Some money was left to me by my uncle *who is dead*.

Some money was left

3 She drew a line *which I could hardly see*.

She drew

4 Your suitcase *weighs a lot*.

Your suitcase is

5 Susan *smokes a lot*.

She's

Write 2: Which words or phrases in B will replace words or phrases in A?

A

1 Her wedding dress is made of *beautiful* silk. b

2 The weather is *good* today. ___

3 Something's upset me. I think I'm going to *throw up*. ___

4 John is *extremely unwell*. ___

5 I was born *at the beginning of the* 1960s. ___

6 Martha is *not a healthy* woman. ___

B

a) a sick

b) fine (twice)

c) very ill

d) in the early

e) be sick

6.2C Adjectives before and after nouns with a change of meaning [> LEG 6.11.2]

Study:

★★★

Adjectives go before nouns in English [> 6.2A], but there are a few adjectives which go before or after nouns and they change in meaning according to their position:

This **elect body** meets once a year. (before the noun = 'specially chosen')

The **president elect** takes over in May. (after the noun = 'who has been elected')

Write: Which words or phrases in B best explain the words or phrases in A?

A

- 1 The *concerned* doctor phoned for an ambulance. b
- 2 The doctor *concerned* is on holiday at the moment. ___
- 3 It was a very *involved* question. ___
- 4 The person *involved* has left the company. ___
- 5 *Present* employees number 3,000. ___
- 6 The employees *present* should vote on this. ___
- 7 It was a *proper* question. ___
- 8 The question *proper* has not been answered. ___
- 9 Janet is a *responsible* girl. ___
- 10 The girl *responsible* has been expelled. ___

B

- a) correct
- b) worried
- c) who was blamed
- d) complicated
- e) with a sense of duty
- f) now employed
- g) here now
- h) connected with this (twice)
- i) itself

6.2D Context

Write: Put in the missing adjectives. Alternatives are sometimes possible.

alive, asleep, beautiful, big, complete, fast, fresh, lovely, pleased, polished, poor, quick-drying, shiny, tall, young

NOT A FAST LIFE!

Three and a half years ago Mr Bell received a ¹ *beautiful* present from his ² grandson. The boy had had a ³ holiday by the seaside and had bought his grandfather a present. It was a ⁴ sea-snail which had been stuck on top of an oyster and another shell. Mr Bell was very ⁵ with his gift and put it on a shelf. While he was dusting one morning, he accidentally knocked the ⁶ snail off the oyster. He went to find some ⁷ glue. When he came back, he couldn't believe his eyes. The snail had moved along the shelf. It was ⁸ ! 'It must have been ⁹ all these years and the shock woke it up.' Mr Bell said. He put the snail in a paper bag to show his friends. At first they thought the story was ¹⁰ nonsense, until they saw the snail. The ¹¹ creature was so hungry, it had eaten a hole in the bag. Mr Bell gave it a ¹² meal of ¹³ cabbage leaves which it really enjoyed. 'It's not such a ¹⁴ story,' a scientist explained. 'These creatures live on the seashore and don't lead a ¹⁵ life. They can hibernate for years without eating.'



It had eaten a hole in the bag

6.3 Adjectives that behave like nouns; ‘-ed/-ing’ endings

6.3A ‘The’ (etc.) + adjective + noun: ‘the blind’ [> LEG 6.6, 6.12.2]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use a noun after an adjective or we use *one/ones* [> 4.2B-C, compare > 3.1C]:
*He's a **young man**. (Not *He's a young*) You **poor thing!** (Not *You poor!*)
 I sold my **old car** and I've bought a **new one**. (Not * ... and I've bought a new*)*
- 2 In the plural, we use no article (zero) [> 3.1A]:
*They are **young men**. You **poor things!** We sold our **old cars** and bought **new ones**.*
- 3 We can use a few adjectives on their own after *the* to refer to ‘the group as a whole’:
*the blind/the sighted, the deaf, the dumb, the living/the dead, the rich/the poor,
 the young/the old, the elderly, the healthy/the sick, the injured, the unemployed:
 We have opened a new school for **the blind**/for **blind people**. (Not *for (the) blinds*)
 We say He is **blind**. or He is **a blind man**. (Not *He is a blind.*)
 We say They are **blind**. or They are **blind people**. (Not *They are blinds.*)*

Write 1: Rewrite these sentences using the adjectives with *man, woman* or *people*.

- 1 He is *poor*. *He is a poor man.*
- 2 They are *unemployed*.
- 3 She is *young*.
- 4 He is *elderly*.
- 5 She is *sick*.
- 6 They are *healthy*.

Write 2: Rewrite these sentences to refer to a group without using the word *people*.

- 1 Rich people should pay more tax than poor people.
 *The rich should pay more tax than the poor.*
- 2 What hope can the government give to unemployed people?

- 3 Will this new invention really help deaf people?

- 4 Old people usually have to live on a fixed income.

- 5 After the crash, the injured people were rushed to hospital.

- 6 This is a memorial to dead people.

- 7 We have interesting study courses for elderly people.

- 8 Healthy people never think about getting ill.

- 9 It's a nurse's job to look after sick people.

- 10 Blind people should have the same opportunities as sighted people.

6.3B Adjectives ending in '-ed' and '-ing': 'interested/interesting'

[> LEG 6.15, App 10]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use some past participles ending in *-ed* (e.g. *excited*) and some present participles ending in *-ing* (e.g. *exciting*) as adjectives. Common pairs of *-ed/-ing* adjectives are: *amazed/amazing, annoyed/annoying, bored/boring, enchanted/enchanting, excited/exciting, interested/interesting, pleased/pleasing, tired/tiring*.
Similar pairs are: *delighted/delightful, impressed/impressive, upset/upsetting*.
- 2 We often use *-ed* endings to describe people:
The story interested John. → John was interested in the story.
We often use *-ing* endings to describe things, events, etc.: *The story was interesting.*
- 3 We can also use *-ing* endings to describe people: *Isn't John interesting!* Compare:
Gloria was interesting to be with. (= that was the effect she had on others)
Gloria was interested. (= that was the effect someone or something had on her)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *-ed/-ing* or other endings. Make necessary changes.

- 1 The coincidence amazed us. We *were amazed by the coincidence*.....
- 2 *The journey* tired us. The journey
- 3 The experience upset *Sylvia*. *Sylvia*
- 4 *The experience* upset us. The experience
- 5 *Gloria* enchanted me. *Gloria*
- 6 I enchanted *Gloria*. *Gloria*
- 7 *The children* delighted us. The children
- 8 The children delighted *us*. We
- 9 *The new building* impresses us. The new building
- 10 The new building impresses *everybody*. Everybody

6.3C Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the words in brackets: *the* + adjective or *-ed/-ing* adjectives.



A HUMAN IDEAL

A just society is a human ideal. We would all like to live in a place where (*rich*)
1. *the rich* are not too rich and (*poor*)² are not too poor;
where no one would be (*shock*)³ or (*embarrass*)
4. at the way (*old*)⁵ are cared for. (*blind*)
6. would have as much opportunity as (*sighted*)
7. (*deaf*)⁸ would be able to develop their skills.
(*unemployed*)⁹ would not depend on the state, because no one
would be unemployed. (*healthy*)¹⁰ would take care of (*sick*)
11. The most innocent people in society, (*young*)
12., would be protected. In this happy place no one would feel
(*depress*)¹³ or (*distress*)¹⁴ Unfortunately, in
the real world, life can be both (*distress*)¹⁵ and (*depress*)
16. So let's be thankful for a sense of humour. I recently saw a
notice in an undertaker's window and I wasn't sure whether it was addressed to
(*living*)¹⁷ or (*dead*)¹⁸ It said: 'Once you've tried
one of our funerals, you'll never want to try another!'

You'll never want to try another!

6.4 Adjectives after 'be', 'seem', etc.; word order of adjectives

6.4A 'Look good' compared with 'play well' [> LEG 6.17]

Study:

★★

1 After *be, look, feel, seem, smell, taste, and sound* we use adjectives:

That egg is/tastes bad. (*Bad* is an adjective describing the noun *egg*.) [> 1.2C]

2 After other verbs, we use adverbs: *John behaved badly.* [> 7.1]

(*Badly* is an adverb: it adds to the meaning of the verb *behave*.) Compare:

John looks good. (adjective) *John looks well.* (adjective [> 6.2B]) *John plays well.* (adverb)

Write:

Supply adjectives or adverbs in the following.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 He behaved <i>nicely</i> (nice) | 5 Your cooking is (good) |
| 2 The music sounds (nice) | 6 You cook (good) |
| 3 The play ended (bad) | 7 The train went (smooth) |
| 4 This food smells (bad) | 8 I've just shaved and my face feels (smooth) |

6.4B Word order: two-word and three-word nouns: 'a teak kitchen cupboard'

[> LEG 6.13, 6.20.1]

Study:

★★

1 Materials (nouns) behave like adjectives when we use them to form compound nouns:

a cupboard (noun) made of *teak* (noun) → *a teak cupboard* (compound noun) [> 2.2C]

2 We can have three-word compound nouns. 'Material' comes before 'purpose' or 'use':

a teak cupboard, used in the *kitchen* → *a teak kitchen cupboard* (compound noun)

Adjectives go in front of nouns [> 6.2A]. We cannot separate a compound noun by an adjective:

a fine teak kitchen cupboard. (Not **a teak fine kitchen cupboard**)

Write:

Make two-word and three-word nouns.

- a shirt made of cotton *a cotton shirt*
- a shirt made of cotton/worn in the summer
- a rake made of wire
- a clock used in the kitchen
- a clock made of plastic/used in the kitchen

6.4C Word order: past participle + noun: 'a handmade cupboard' [> LEG 6.20]

Study:

★★

An adjectival past participle (*damaged, handmade, etc.*) comes in front of a noun:

adjective + one-word noun: *a handmade cupboard*

adjective + two-word noun: *a handmade teak cupboard*

adjective + three-word noun: *a handmade teak kitchen cupboard*

Write:

Add these adjectives to the nouns made in 6.4B above: *unused, damaged, worn, broken, handmade.*

- *a worn cotton shirt*
-
-
-
-

6.4D Word order: adjective + noun: 'a big round table' [> LEG 6.20]

Study:

★★

The order of adjectives in front of a noun is as follows (in reverse order):

3 where from? + past participle: a *French handmade* kitchen cupboard

Or: **past participle + where from?:** a *handmade French* kitchen cupboard

2 size/age/shape/colour + where from? + past participle:

a *large French handmade* cupboard

1 quality/opinion + size, etc. The most general adjective usually comes first:

a *beautiful large French handmade* teak cupboard

summary:

opinion	size	age	shape	colour	from?	past part.	noun
a valuable	–	–	–	brown	Victorian	handmade	teak cupboard
					Or: handmade	Victorian	

Write: You're looking for items you want to buy. Begin each sentence with *I'm looking for ...*

1 clock radio – white – Taiwanese – cheap – for my bedside table

I'm looking for a cheap white Taiwanese clock radio for my bedside table.

2 sports car – well-maintained – second-hand – with a low mileage

3 polished – beautiful – antique – dining-table – mahogany – English

4 canvas – American – a pair of – trainers – grey and red – which I can use for jogging

5 cottage – stone-built – small – old – country

6 cotton – dress – summer – pink and white – for my holiday

6.4E Context

Write: Put in the right word order or choose the right forms.

NOT A DOG'S DINNER!! *Expensive handmade Italian leather shoes*

(*shoes leather Italian expensive handmade*)¹.....: these are my pride and joy. I own a (*old beautiful pair*)²..... – or I did until yesterday, when I discovered that one of the shoes was missing. I had left the shoes on my (*doorstep back*)³..... to do some gardening. My neighbour has a (*dog friendly large*)⁴..... called Sam. When I saw that one of my shoes had disappeared, I knew that Sam had taken it. I can't say he behaved (*bad/badly*)⁵..... He just behaved like a dog. Leather looks (*good/well*)⁶..... and tastes (*good/well*)⁷....., too. I unwillingly gave Sam the (*remaining Italian shoe*)⁸..... and then followed him. I not only found one (*Italian unchewed shoe*)⁹....., but also a pile of things Sam had been borrowing, including my wife's (*slippers fur-lined red*)¹⁰....., which Sam had tried to have for dinner!



... had tried to have for dinner!

6.5 The comparison of adjectives

6.5A Common comparative and superlative forms: 'cold – colder – coldest'

[> LEG 6.5, 6.22-29]

Study:

★

- 1 We add **-er** and **-est** to form the comparative and superlative of most one-syllable adjectives: *clean – cleaner – the cleanest, cold – colder – the coldest.*
- 2 Adjectives like *hot (big, fat, sad, wet)* double the consonant: *hot – hotter – the hottest.*
- 3 Adjectives like *nice (fine, large, late, safe)* add **-r, -st**: *nice – nicer – the nicest.*
- 4 With adjectives like *busy* we use **-i** in place of **-y**: *busy – busier – the busiest.*
- 5 We use the **comparative** when comparing one person or thing with another.
- 6 We use the **superlative** when comparing one person or thing with more than one other.

Write:

- 1 My room's *big*. (in the house)
..... *My room's bigger than yours. It's the biggest in the house.*
- 2 My room's *cold*. (in the house)
.....
- 3 My garden's *nice*. (in the street)
.....
- 4 My desk is *tidy*. (in the office)
.....

6.5B Adjectives with two or more syllables: 'clever', 'expensive' [> LEG 6.22-29]

Study:

★★

- 1 Some two-syllable adjectives like *happy (clever, common, narrow, pleasant, quiet, simple, stupid)* have two comparative or superlative forms:
– either with **-er/-est**: *She's cleverer than you. She's the cleverest person I know.*
– or with **more/the most**: *She's more clever than you. She's the most clever person I know.*
- 2 We use only **more/the most** with most two-syllable adjectives: *careless, correct, famous.*
- 3 We use **more/the most** with three-syllable adjectives: *more beautiful, the most beautiful.*

Write: Give both forms where possible.

- 1 She's *happy*.
than I am *She's happier / more happy than I am.*
- person I have ever met *She's the happiest / most happy person I have ever met.*
- 2 His work was *careless*.
than mine
in the class
- 3 This problem is *simple*.
than that one
in the book
- 4 This watch is *expensive*.
than that one
in the shop
- 5 This engine is *quiet*.
than mine
ever built

6.5C Comparative and superlative forms often confused: 'older/elder'

[> LEG 6.24-26, 7.4-5, App 12]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Further* and *farther* refer to distance: *London is five miles further/farther.*
Further (Not **farther**) can mean 'in addition': *There's no further information.*
- 2 We use *elder/eldest* before a noun only with reference to people in a family:
my elder brother/son, the eldest child, he's the eldest (but not **He is elder than me.**)
We use *older/oldest* for people and things: *He is older than I am. This book is older.*
- 3 **Irregular comparisons:** *good/well, better, the best; bad, worse, the worst; much/many, more, the most; little, less, the least.*
Good is an adjective; *well* is adjective or adverb [> 6.4A].
- 4 *Lesser* is formed from *less* but is not a true comparative. We cannot use *than* after it.
Lesser means 'not so great' and we use it in fixed phrases like *the lesser of two evils.*
- 5 *Latest/last:* *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.*
- 6 The comparative and superlative of *little* is *smaller/smallest:* *a small/little boy, a smaller/the smallest boy.* Very young children often use *littler* and *littlest.*

Write: Circle the right forms in these sentences. In some cases both forms are right.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 Is your house much (further/farther)? | 11 I've got (less/lesser) than you. |
| 2 Who is the (oldest/eldest) in this class? | 12 Jane is (older/elder) than I am. |
| 3 Your driving is (worse/worst) than mine. | 13 This is the (more/most) expensive. |
| 4 It's the (less/lesser) of two evils. | 14 His English is (best/better) than mine. |
| 5 Have you heard the (last/latest) news? | 15 It's the (better/best) in the shop. |
| 6 We have no (further/farther) information. | 16 It's the (furthest/farthest) point west. |
| 7 Jane Somers writes (good/well). | 17 It's the (oldest/eldest) tree in the country. |
| 8 His (latest/last) words were: 'The end'. | 18 She's my (elder/older) sister. |
| 9 This is the town's (oldest/eldest) house. | 19 I've got the (least/less)! |
| 10 My flat is (littler/smaller) than yours. | 20 You've got the (more/most)! |

6.5D Context

Write: Put in the right forms. Alternatives are possible.



King Karate was at the bar as usual!

THE CHAMP

The two men were sitting at the bar. The one (*near*)¹.....*nearer*..... to me was the (*big*)²..... and (*strong*)³..... man I have ever seen. The one (*far*)⁴..... from me was the (*small/little*)⁵..... and (*weak*)⁶..... They were having the (*violent*)⁷..... argument I had ever heard. Suddenly the little man said, 'It's a case of the (*small*)⁸..... brain in the world fitted into the (*big*)⁹..... head!' They were his (*last/latest*)¹⁰..... words. The little man didn't know what hit him as he fell to the floor. 'When Shortie wakes up, tell him that was my (*better/best*)¹¹..... Karate chop,' the big man told the barman as he left. The next evening, King Karate was at the bar as usual when Shortie crept in quietly, swung his arm and the champ fell to the floor. 'When Karate wakes up,' Shortie said, 'tell him it was my (*oldest/eldest*)¹²..... Land Rover starting handle.'

7 Adverbs

7.1 Adverbs of manner

7.1A Adverbs with and without '-ly': 'carefully', 'fast' [> LEG 7.7, 7.13, Apps 14, 15.1]

Study:

★★

- 1 An adverb adds to the meaning of a verb. Adverbs of manner tells us *how* something happens:
*How did John behave? – (He behaved) **badly**.*
- 2 We form adverbs of manner by adding *-ly* to an adjective: *slow/slowly*.
After a consonant, *-y* changes to *-i*: *heavy/heavily*.
It was a slow train./The train went slowly. It was heavy rain./It rained heavily.
- 3 We can use some words as adjectives or adverbs without adding *-ly* or *-ily*:
*It was a fast train. → The train went **fast**.*
Other examples are: *better, best, early, hard, high, last, late, monthly, near, wide, worse.*

Write: Supply the right adverb. Some adverbs end in *-ly* and some do not.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 He's a <i>bad</i> driver. He drives <i>badly</i> | 11 He's a <i>quick</i> thinker. He thinks |
| 2 She's a <i>hard</i> worker. She works | 12 She's an <i>eager</i> helper. She helps |
| 3 He's a <i>fast</i> runner. He runs | 13 My name is <i>last</i> . I come |
| 4 I'm a <i>better</i> player than you. I play | 14 The plane is very <i>high</i> . It's flying |
| 5 This is an <i>airmail</i> letter. Send it | 15 Be <i>careful</i> . Act |
| 6 He made a <i>sudden</i> move. He moved | 16 The bus was <i>late</i> . It came |
| 7 She gave a <i>rude</i> reply. She replied | 17 She was <i>brave</i> . She acted |
| 8 The train is <i>early</i> . It has arrived | 18 The house was <i>near</i> . We went |
| 9 Make your <i>best</i> effort. Do your | 19 What a <i>wide</i> window! Open it |
| 10 She's <i>glad</i> to help. She helps | 20 I get a <i>monthly</i> bill. I pay |

7.1B Two forms and different meanings: 'hard/hardly' [> LEG 7.14, App 15.2]

Study:

★★

Some adverbs have two forms, one without *-ly* and one with *-ly*.
These forms have different meanings and uses: e.g. *hard/hardly, last/lastly, late/lately*.
*He played **hard**. He **hardly** played at all.*

Write: Choose the right adverb in each sentence.

- 1 Farm workers have to work very *hard*..... during the harvest. (hard/hardly)
- 2 Farm workers earn enough money to pay their bills. (hard/hardly)
- 3 I got off first in the race but managed to come (last/lastly)
- 4 – and, I'd like to thank all those who made my success possible. (last/lastly)
- 5 We've been receiving a lot of junk mail (late/lately)
- 6 The postman brings my mail so I rarely see it before I go to work. (late/lately)
- 7 I'm sure the boss thinks very of you. (high/highly)
- 8 If you want to succeed, you should aim (high/highly)
- 9 I don't think you were treated very (just/justly)
- 10 I've been offered a job in Mexico! (just/justly)
- 11 Please don't go too the edge of the platform. (near/nearly)
- 12 I fell off the edge of the platform! (near/nearly)

7.1C Adjectives which end in '-ly': 'friendly' [> LEG 7.12]

Study:

★★

Some adjectives end in *-ly*: *cowardly, friendly, lively, lovely, motherly, sickly, silly*.

Meg's a **friendly** girl. John gave me a **friendly** handshake.

If we want to use these words as adverbs we say *in a friendly way/manner/fashion*:

Meg always greets me **in a friendly way**. (Not *greets me friendly/friendlily*)

Write: Change the adjectives into adverbs or adverbial phrases in the following sentences.

- 1 That was a *cowardly* thing to do. You acted *in a cowardly way*
- 2 That was a *quick* response. She responded
- 3 The music was very *loud*. The band played far too
- 4 That was a *silly* thing to do. You acted
- 5 The orchestra gave a *lively* performance. They performed
- 6 She's a *slow* runner. She runs
- 7 The singers gave a *bad* performance. They performed
- 8 She can't control her *motherly* feelings. Even though he's 40, she looks after him
- 9 She's a *lovely* teacher. She handles young children
- 10 She delivered a *careful* speech. She spoke
- 11 He looks pale and *sickly*. He always greets me
- 12 You don't have to be so *unfriendly*! You needn't look at me

7.1D Context

Write: Put in the missing adjectives and adverbs. Add *-ly* or make other changes where you need to.

beautiful, best (twice), careful, cheap, early, far, fast, full, hurried, important, last, new, past, quick, rapid, silly



A SPLASH OF COLOUR

1 *last* Thursday I had an 2 interview for a job. I got up 3 and dressed 4 I put on my 5 jacket and trousers, to look my 6 I had to travel by train, so I walked to the station which isn't 7 from my house. I was walking quite 8 when I saw a man just ahead painting his fence with red paint. He didn't notice me as I walked 9 Then he turned suddenly and splashed my 10 trousers! He had acted 11 and he apologized, but the damage was done. There was a big store on the corner, so I decided to buy a new pair 12 I could change on the train. I 13 found a nice pair, which I bought quite 14 The shop was 15 so I paid 16 grabbed my shopping-bag and left. On the train, I went to the toilet to change. I took off my stained trousers and threw them out of the window. Then I opened the bag to get my 17 ones, but all I found was a pink woollen sweater!

... threw them out of the window

7.2 Adverbs of time

7.2A Points of time: 'Monday', 'this morning' [> LEG 7.21-22, App 48]

Study:
★

- 1 Adverbs of time tell us *when* something happens. 'Points of time' tell us 'exactly when': e.g. *today, yesterday, this/next/last week, on Monday, at 5 o'clock.*
- 2 We can refer to days of the week without *this, last, next* or *on*:
*I'm seeing him **Monday**.* (= this/next/on Monday). (Not **I'm seeing him the Monday.**)
*I saw him **Monday**.* (= last/on Monday). (Not **I saw him the Monday.**)
- 3 *This morning*, etc. (Not **today morning* *today afternoon** etc.) can refer to:
 - now: *I feel terrible **this morning**.*
 - earlier: *I spoke to him **this morning**.*
 - later on today: *I'll speak to him **this morning**.*
- 4 Note: *tonight, tomorrow night* and *last night* (Not **yesterday night**).
- 5 Note: *the day before yesterday, the day after tomorrow (in the evening)*, etc.
- 6 We do not use *the* in phrases like *next Monday, last Monday: I'll see him **next Monday**.*
- 7 We normally put time references at the end of a sentence or clause, but we can also put them at the beginning: *(This morning) I went to the dentist (this morning).* [> 1.1A]

Write 1: Fill in the missing points of time.

1 <i>yesterday</i>	today <i>tomorrow</i>
2	this morning
3	at noon
4	this afternoon
5	this evening
6	tonight
7	this Monday
8	this January
9	this week
10	this year

Write 2: Today is Tuesday. Write sentences using the right points of time (*today*, etc.)

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday
1	When is she arriving? (<i>Tuesday morning</i>) <i>She is arriving this morning.</i>
2	When can you see him? (<i>Tuesday</i>)
3	When did she arrive? (<i>Monday night</i>)
4	When are you expecting her? (<i>Wednesday night</i>)
5	When will you be home? (<i>Tuesday night</i>)
6	When can I make an appointment? (<i>Tuesday afternoon</i>)
7	When can I see you? (<i>Thursday</i>)
8	When did she leave? (<i>Monday in the evening</i>)
9	When can I see you? (<i>Thursday morning</i>)
10	When can I come to your office? (<i>Tuesday midday</i>)
11	When did he leave? (<i>Monday morning</i>)
12	When will she phone? (<i>Wednesday in the afternoon</i>)

7.2B 'Still' and 'yet' [> LEG 7.25, 7.27]

Study:



- 1 *Still* and *yet* mean 'until now' and we often use them with the present perfect [> 9.5A].
- 2 We use *still* to emphasize continuity, mainly in affirmatives and sometimes in questions:
I'm **still** waiting for my new passport. Is Martha **still** in hospital?
We can also use *still* in the negative for special emphasis: John **still hasn't** written to me.
Still has the same position in a sentence as adverbs of frequency [> 7.4B].
- 3 We use *yet* mainly in questions and negatives and often put it at the end of a sentence:
Has your new passport arrived **yet**? – No, not **yet**. It hasn't arrived **yet**.

Write: Rewrite these sentences supplying *still* or *yet*. Sometimes both are possible.

- 1 The children are at the cinema. *The children are still at the cinema.*
- 2 I haven't met your brother.
- 3 Jim works for the same company.
- 4 Has she phoned you? – No, not
- 5 The new law hasn't come into force.

7.2C 'Already' and other adverbs of time [> LEG 7.23-24, 7.26, 7.28-29]

Study:



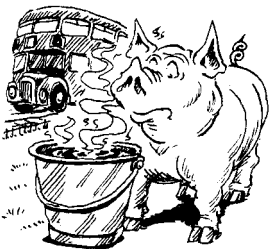
- 1 *Already* means 'before now' or 'so soon'. We use it in questions and affirmatives, but not in negatives. We can put it in the middle [> 7.4B] of a sentence or at the end:
Have you **already** finished lunch? Have you finished lunch **already**?
This machine is **already** out of date. It's out of date **already**.
- 2 Other common adverbs of time are: *afterwards, at last, just, lately, now, once, recently, soon, suddenly, then, these days*. We often use these adverbs in story-telling.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *yet* or *already*. Sometimes both are possible.

- 1 Have you had breakfast? – I've had it, thanks. *I've already had it, thanks.*
- 2 I haven't received an invitation to the party.
- 3 I have received an invitation to the party.
- 4 Have you finished eating?
- 5 Haven't you finished eating?

7.2D Context

Write: Put in *already, immediately, this week, still, then, yesterday, yet*. Use each word once only.



FIT FOR HUMANS, BUT NOT FOR PIGS!

1.....*This week*..... there's going to be a festival of British Food and Farming in Hyde Park in London. The festival hasn't begun 2..... and farmers are 3..... bringing their animals. But a pig farmer has 4..... run into a serious problem. 5..... he arrived with his pigs from the Welsh Hills – hundreds of miles away. The pigs were very thirsty when they arrived in Hyde Park and the farmer 6..... gave them some London water. 7..... he got a big surprise because the pigs refused to drink the water. London water is fit for humans but not for pigs!

Not fit for pigs!

7.3 Adverbial phrases of duration

7.3A 'Since', 'for' and 'ago' [> LEG 7.31, 7.32, 9.18]

Study:

★★

- 1 **'Since' + a point of time** [> 7.2A] answers *Since when?* We use *since* with the present perfect to mark a period lasting till now: *I haven't seen him **since January**.* [> 9.5A, 10.2D]
- 2 **'For' + period of time** answers *How long?* We use *for* to refer to periods of time:
 – in the past: *My wife and I worked in America **for five months**.*
 – in the future: *John will be staying in New York **for two weeks**.*
 – in the present perfect: *I've known Susan **for five years**.* [> 9.5A, 10.2D]
- 3 **Period of time + 'ago'** answers *How long ago?* and marks the start of a period going back from now. We use *ago* with the simple past [> 9.3C]: *I **arrived here two months ago**.*

Write 1: Show where *since* or *ago* will fit into these sentences.

Since when have ...

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 When have you been interested in jazz? | 4 I saw her last week and haven't seen her. |
| 2 I saw your mother a week. | 5 I haven't been home 1987. |
| 3 I started work here seven months. | 6 How long did you become a director? |

Write 2: Show where *since* or *for* will fit into these sentences.

... for five years ...

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 They lived here five years before moving. | 4 I've been expecting a letter weeks. |
| 2 They have lived here 1984. | 5 I've been expecting a letter last week. |
| 3 I've known him six years. | 6 I've enjoyed jazz I was a boy. |

7.3B 'Till' (or 'until') and 'by' [> LEG 7.34]

Study:

★★★

- 1 Some verbs naturally refer to 'periods of time' or 'continuity' [> 9.5B]:
 e.g. *learn, lie, live, rain, sit, sleep, stand, stay, wait* and *work*.
- 2 *Till* (or *until*) and *by* mean 'any time before and not later than'.
 We cannot use *by* at all with these 'continuity' verbs. (Not **I'll wait here by 5 o'clock.**)
 We can only use *till* (or *until*) with these verbs:
*I'll **wait here till** (or **until**) 5 o'clock. I **won't wait here till** (or **until**) 5 o'clock.*
- 3 We use *by* with verbs which do not refer to periods of time.
 We can think of these as 'point of time verbs': e.g. *arrive, come, finish, go, leave*:
*She **will arrive by** 5. (= any time before and not later than 5.)*
*She **won't arrive by** 5. She'll arrive at 6.*
- 4 We use *till* or *until* with 'point of time verbs' only in the negative.
*She **won't arrive till** (or **until**) 5. (But not **She will arrive till 5.**)*

Write: Supply *by* or *till*.

- I'll wait *till* Monday before answering his letter.
- I intend to stay in bed 10 o'clock tomorrow morning.
- Your suit will be ready Friday.
- Your suit won't be ready Friday. You can collect it then.
- Your suit won't be ready Friday. You can collect it next Monday.
- I'm sure I will have left Monday.
- Your aunt says she won't leave Monday. Monday's the day she's going to leave.

7.3C 'During', 'in' and 'for' [> LEG 7.35]

Study:

★★

1 *During* means:

- either: 'from the beginning to the end': *We had a lot of fun **during** the holidays.*
- or: 'at some point during a period of time': *I'll mend the gate **during** the weekend.*
*We watched a very nice film **during** the flight to New York.*

2 We use *in* like *during* to refer to time:

- We had a lot of fun **in** the holidays.* (Or: ... *during* the holidays)
- But we cannot use *in* to refer to an activity or event:
*We watched a film **during** the flight.* (Not **in* the flight*)

3 *For* tells us 'how long' [> 7.3A]:

- We stayed in Recife **for** a week/**for** three weeks.* (Not **during* three weeks*)

Write: Supply *in*, *during* and *for*. Show which sentences take both *in* and *during*.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 It was very hot <i>during</i> August. | 7 Many people gave up the course. |
| 2 I was sent abroad my military service. | 8 I suddenly felt ill my speech. |
| 3 It rained the night. | 9 There was an accident the race. |
| 4 I'll see you the lunch hour. | 10 I sleep the daytime. |
| 5 I woke up twice the night. | 11 I'm going abroad June. |
| 6 I tried to get a taxi a whole hour. | 12 Can you hold your breath two minutes? |

7.3D Context

Write: Put in *during*, *in*, *by*, *till*, *since*, *for* or *ago*.

PEACE AND QUIET

I moved to this area seven years ¹..... *ago* ²..... years I have had noisy neighbours. Ever ³..... I moved into this flat, I've had to put up with noise ⁴..... the night. I decided I'd had enough and I've been looking for a new flat ⁵..... the beginning of the year. I haven't found anything ⁶..... now. Every week I go to the local estate agent's office, but it's the same story. 'I might have something ⁷..... the end of the week,' he says, or, 'Wait ⁸..... next week. I think I might have a few flats ⁹..... then.' I've seen a few flats ¹⁰..... my search, but I don't like any of them. One flat I saw has been empty ¹¹..... two years. 'It's got a busy road on one side and a railway on the other!' I exclaimed. 'I want peace and quiet.' Last week I visited the agent again. 'I won't leave ¹²..... you show me something,' I said. He smiled and said, 'I've got just the flat for you.' I went to see it and I was horrified. 'But it's next to a cemetery!' I cried. 'But you won't have noisy neighbours,' my agent said. 'It's ideal for peace and quiet!'



You won't have noisy neighbours!

7.4 Adverbs of frequency

7.4A Position of adverbs of frequency ('often') in affirmatives and questions

[> LÉG 7.37-40]

Study:

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- 1 Adverbs of frequency generally answer the question *How often?*. The most common are: *always, almost always, generally, usually, normally, frequently, often, sometimes, hardly ever, seldom, ever, not ... ever, never.*
- 2 Adverbs of frequency have three basic positions in affirmative sentences:
 - after *be* when it is the only verb in a sentence: *I **am always** late.*
 - after the first auxiliary when there is more than one: *I **would always** have been late.*
 - before the main verb when there is only one verb: *You **never** tried hard enough.*
- 3 In questions, the adverb of frequency comes after the subject: *Are you **always** late?*

Write:

Rewrite these sentences using any suitable adverb of frequency in each one.

- 1 I am late. *I am generally late.*
- 2 I was late for work.
- 3 I can tell the difference between the two.
- 4 I would have been able to find a job like yours.
- 5 You tried hard enough.
- 6 You got good marks at school.
- 7 Are you late?
- 8 Have you lived in this town?
- 9 Did you get good marks at school?

7.4B The position of adverbs of frequency in negative statements [> LEG 7.40.2]

Study:

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- 1 These usually come after *not*: *always, generally, normally, often, regularly, usually*:
*Public transport **isn't always** (etc.) very reliable.*
- 2 *Generally, normally, often* and *usually* can come after the subject for special emphasis:
***We normally** don't worry if the children are late.*
- 3 We use *sometimes* and *frequently* before *not* or before *isn't, doesn't, don't, didn't, etc.*:
*Debbie is **sometimes not** responsible for what she does. He is **frequently not** at home. She **sometimes isn't** reliable. He **frequently doesn't** get home till 10.*
- 4 We can't use *not* to form negatives with *hardly ever*, etc. [> 13.2A]: *He **hardly ever** writes.*
(Not **He almost always doesn't write.** or **He doesn't hardly ever write.**)

Write:

Write these sentences again using the adverbs in brackets. Make changes where necessary.

- 1 Public transport isn't reliable. (always) *Public transport isn't always reliable.*
- 2 He wasn't late when he worked here. (often)
- 3 She doesn't arrive on time. (usually)
- 4 She doesn't arrive on time. (sometimes)
- 5 We don't worry if the children are late. (normally)
- 6 You don't phone. (hardly ever)
- 7 We don't complain. (generally)
- 8 You're not at home when I phone. (sometimes)

7.4C Adverbs of frequency at the beginning of a sentence [> LEG 7.40.4]

Study:

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For special emphasis, we can begin a sentence with *frequently, generally, normally, (very) often, sometimes* and *usually*.

We can say: *We **normally** don't worry if the children are late home from school.*

Or: ***Normally**, we don't worry if the children are late home from school.*

Write: Answer each question in full putting the adverb a) in the middle and b) at the beginning.

- 1 Do you ever bring work home from the office? (often)
I often bring work home from the office. Often, I bring work home...
- 2 Does John leave home before his wife does? (normally)

- 3 Have you ever forgotten to lock the back door? (frequently)

- 4 Do you know when to wake up? (usually)

- 5 Are you the one who pays the bills? (generally)

- 6 Is the traffic heavy in the mornings? (often)

- 7 Do you ever have power cuts? (sometimes)
 We
- 8 Are there complaints about the service? (often)

7.4D Context

Write: Show where the adverbs in brackets can go in the sentences that follow them.



People don't carry stuffed gorillas!

WHERE DID I PUT MY TEETH?

(¹*ever*) Have you forgotten something on a train or bus? *ever forgotten*

(²*never*) Don't say you have!

(³*always*) (⁴*occasionally*) We can't be careful with our things and most of us must have left something behind when getting off a bus or train.

(⁵*never*) There can't be anyone who forgets anything.

(⁶*regularly*) Over 150,000 items a year are dealt with by London Transport's Lost Property Office.

(⁷*normally*) People don't carry stuffed gorillas, but someone recently left one on a train.

(⁸*most often*) The things people lose are umbrellas and keys.

(⁹*sometimes*) But there are items that are not very common.

(¹⁰*ever*) Can you imagine losing a bed and not claiming it?

(¹¹*often*) Prams and pushchairs are lost.

(¹²*frequently*) But it is unbelievable that people forget false teeth and even glass eyes when they get off a train!

(¹³*often*) Yet they do!

7.5 Adverbs of degree

7.5A The two meanings of 'quite' [> LEG 6.5, 7.41-42]

Study:

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1 *Quite, fairly* and *rather* are common **adverbs of degree**. They can make the word they modify weaker or stronger and their effect depends on stress and intonation. If we say:

*The film is **quite** good!* and our voice 'goes up', this means 'I enjoyed it on the whole'.

*The film is **quite** good.* and our voice 'goes down', this means 'I didn't really enjoy it'.

We can put *quite* in front of ordinary adjectives (*quite good*), adverbs (*quite slowly*), and a few verbs (*I quite enjoy*). Regardless of stress, the meaning is 'less than'.

2 We can also use *quite* with 'absolute' adjectives (*dead, empty* and *full*), and with 'strong' adjectives like *amazing* and *wonderful*. Then it means 'completely'. The voice 'goes up'.

*The man was **quite** dead! The bucket is **quite** full! The film was **quite** wonderful!*

Write:

Answer these questions in full with *quite*, and say whether *quite* means 'less than' or 'completely'.

- 1 What was the film like? (good) *The film was quite good. ('less than')*
- 2 How was the exhibition? (amazing)
- 3 What's Pam like? (wonderful)
- 4 How was the play? (awful)
- 5 How was your holiday? (quite enjoy)
- 6 Do you eat snails? (quite like)

7.5B 'Fairly' [> LEG 7.43]

Study:

★★

Fairly often goes with 'good' adjectives and adverbs (*good, nice, well*, etc.). It is generally 'less complimentary' than *quite*. We do not use 'enough' [> 16.4B] to mean *quite* or *fairly*.

*What's Yoko's English like? – It's **quite** good.* ('complimentary') Not **enough good**

*What's Yoko's English like? – It's **fairly** good.* ('less complimentary') Not **enough good**

We can't use *fairly* with some 'absolute' adjectives: Not **fairly dead/fairly wonderful**

Write:

Add *quite* and *fairly*. Mark as 'complimentary', 'less complimentary' or 'completely'.

- 1 She sings *quite/fairly* well. (*'complimentary'/'less complimentary'*)
- 2 The dinner is spoilt.
- 3 I feel sick.
- 4 She's clever.
- 5 I think he's mad.
- 6 You're incredible!

7.5C 'Rather' [> LEG 7.44]

Study:

★★

Rather is stronger than *quite* and *fairly* and suggests 'inclined to be'.

It often goes with 'bad' adjectives (*bad, poor, awful, unpleasant*, etc.).

When it goes with 'good' adjectives (*good, nice, tasty*, etc.) it often means 'surprisingly':

*This ice-cream is **rather** good.* (perhaps I didn't expect it to be)

Write: Add *quite* and *rather* to each sentence, where possible. Say if they mean 'inclined to (be)', 'less than' or 'completely'.

- 1 I'm afraid Jane's health is *quite/rather* poor. (*'completely'/'inclined to be'*).....
- 2 Don't worry! Your son is all right!
- 3 Your work has been unsatisfactory.
- 4 I'm afraid an appointment tomorrow is impossible.
- 5 Last night's documentary was interesting.

7.5D 'Much', 'any', 'far' and 'a lot' as adverbs of degree [> LEG 5.12.3, 7.45]

Study:

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- 1 We can use *much* and *far* with comparatives and superlatives to say 'to what degree':
*Jane is **much better** today. London is **far bigger** than Edinburgh.
This Indian cookery book is by **far the best**. London is **much the biggest** city in Britain.*
- 2 We can use *a lot* and *any* with comparatives: *It's **a lot bigger**. Is it **any better**?*
- 3 *Not much* and *not any* go with a few adjectives: *This battery isn't **much good/any good**.*
- 4 We can use *not much* and (*not*) *a lot* with verbs such as *like* and *enjoy*.
*I **don't much like** fish. I **don't like** fish (very) **much**. I (**don't**) **like** fish **a lot**.*
- 5 We often use *much* and *far* with *prefer* and *would rather* [> 16.8B, 11.8]:
*I **much prefer** tea to coffee. I'd **far rather** have tea than coffee.*

Write: Add *much*, *any*, *far* or *a lot* and give alternatives where possible.

- 1 I'm not *much/any* good at maths.
- 2 You're quicker than me.
- 3 This is more expensive.
- 4 This is the best way to enjoy yourself.
- 5 I can't go faster.
- 6 Those two recordings aren't different.
- 7 I don't like people who show off.
- 8 I prefer swimming to cycling.
- 9 This machine isn't use.
- 10 You're thinner than when I last saw you.

7.5E Context

Write: Put in any suitable adverbs of degree (*any*, *many*, *much*, *rather*, *fairly*, *quite*, etc.).



CAN WE GO HOME PLEASE?

It was ¹..... *quite*..... late. The restaurant clock showed 1.30 a.m. The waiters were feeling ²..... tired and were beginning to yawn. There was one ³..... middle-aged couple left. They had clearly had ⁴..... a good meal. Now they were looking at each other across the table and were ⁵..... unaware of the world around them. The waiters wanted to go home. One of them asked the couple if they wanted ⁶..... more to eat or drink. He didn't get an answer. It clearly wasn't ⁷..... use asking questions! One of the waiters had ⁸..... a good idea. He began stacking chairs upside-down onto the tables. The others joined in. Another waiter turned off the lights. In the end, the restaurant was ⁹..... dim. The chairs were stacked on the tables round the couple who just sat and sat and sat!

The couple sat and sat and sat!

7.6 Intensifiers

7.6A 'Very', 'too' and 'very much' [> LEG 6.8.2, 6.9, 6.28.2, 7.45, 7.48, 7.50-51]

Study:

★★

- 1 **Intensifiers** are words like *very* and *too* which strengthen adjectives and adverbs.
- 2 We use *very* to strengthen:
 - the positive form of adjectives (not comparative/superlative): *Martha has been **very ill**.*
 - adjective + noun: *John is a **very nice man**.*
 - adverbs: *The wheels of bureaucracy turn **very slowly**.*
 - many past participle adjectival forms: *I'm **very interested**. You're **very mistaken**.*

The very goes with *best/worst*: *It's **the very best/the very worst** meal I've ever had.*
and some nouns (*beginning/end*): *I waited till **the very end** of the film.*
- 3 *Too* goes before adjectives and adverbs and means 'more than is desirable' [> 7.7B, 16.4B]:
Compare: *It's **very hot**, but I can drink it. It's **too hot** and I can't drink it.*
It's often more polite to say *not very good* or *not too good* rather than 'bad':
*His work's **not very good/not too good**.* (There is no difference in meaning here.)
- 4 *Very much* goes with:
 - comparatives: *She is **very much better**.*
 - verbs: *I like your painting **very much**. This idea **has very much interested** me.*
 - adjectives like *afraid, awake, alive* and *alone*: *Old Mrs Page is **very much alone**.*

Write 1: Supply *very*, *too*, or *very much* in these sentences. Two answers may be possible.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 I hear Jack has been <i>very</i> ill. | 11 She's intelligent to believe that! |
| 2 I can't go faster than I'm going. | 12 The Antarctic would be cold for me. |
| 3 Go slower. You're driving fast for me. | 13 I like your idea. |
| 4 She didn't think my work was good. | 14 The new XJ6 is faster than the old one. |
| 5 I can't afford that. It's expensive. | 15 We were late, but we just got the train. |
| 6 If you think that, you are mistaken. | 16 We were late, so we missed our train. |
| 7 This project has interested our firm. | 17 We have missed you. |
| 8 I didn't enjoy the meal | 18 Your children get much pocket money. |
| 9 Susan's paintings have been admired. | 19 He hasn't got much money. |
| 10 I always try and buy the best. | 20 I've been alone lately. |

Write 2: Complete these responses using *very*, *too*, *very much* and *too much*.

- 1 How did you enjoy last night's film? – I enjoyed it *very much*.....
- 2 So you didn't buy the picture in the end! – No, it cost
- 3 I think you should take a coat with you. – Yes, I will. It's cold outside.
- 4 Is that lobster alive? – Yes, it's alive!
- 5 Was that car expensive? – Yes,
- 6 Are you thirsty? – Yes,
- 7 Did you spend a lot of time on it? – Yes,
- 8 I don't like sitting in the smoking compartment. – I agree. There's smoke.
- 9 Why aren't you buying those shoes? – They're large for me.
- 10 Those shoes are very large! – Yes, but not large!
- 11 Are the children still awake? – Yes, they're awake!
- 12 How are you feeling? – Not well, I'm afraid.

7.6B Adverbs in place of 'very': 'extremely happy', 'fast asleep'

[> LEG 7.52-53, 6.8.2, App 16]

Study:

★★

- 1 We often use *extremely* and *really* for special emphasis instead of *very*:
I'm very sleepy. → *I'm **extremely** sleepy.* (more emphatic)
- 2 In everyday speech we often use *terribly* and *awfully* in place of *very*:
That hi fi is very expensive. → *It's **awfully/terribly** expensive.*
- 3 Note that we say *fast asleep* and *wide awake* (Not **very asleep/very awake**):
*Don't disturb the children – they're **fast asleep**.*
- 4 We use some *-ly* adverbs in fixed phrases: *deeply hurt, painfully embarrassed, highly respected, richly deserved, I greatly appreciate, badly needed, bitterly cold*:
*Mr Wilson is **highly respected** in our community.*
*A new playground for our children is **badly needed**.*

Write: Use suitable adverbs in place of *very*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 The traffic is <i>awfully</i> slow today. | 13 I was bored by the play. |
| 2 I'm confused by the new regulations. | 14 I didn't think the film was funny. |
| 3 I appreciate all you've done for me. | 15 I'm sorry about this. |
| 4 We are interested in your proposal. | 16 What you did was stupid. |
| 5 That radio talk wasn't interesting. | 17 Your staff have been helpful. |
| 6 I was awake all night. | 18 You didn't wake me. I was asleep. |
| 7 I was hurt by her answer. | 19 It was cold last night. |
| 8 Old Mr Ford is boring! | 20 You think you're clever. |
| 9 I'm annoyed about this. | 21 A well is needed in that village. |
| 10 Your success has been deserved. | 22 This computer is fast. |
| 11 We were all embarrassed! | 23 She's still young. |
| 12 Your friend works slowly. | 24 We're grateful to you. |

7.6C Context

Write: Use suitable words to complete this story. Don't use the same word more than twice.



JUSTLY PUNISHED

There were ¹.....*too*..... many people on the bus for comfort and passengers were standing in the aisle. A young woman carrying a baby was ²..... grateful when an old man offered her his seat. The baby was ³..... asleep and she could now rest him on her lap. She thanked the old man ⁴..... and was just going to sit down when a rude young man sat in the empty seat. Everyone was ⁵..... embarrassed, and the young mother was ⁶..... surprised to say anything. All the passengers ⁷..... disapproved of the man's action. They were ⁸..... angry with him, but he paid no attention. ⁹..... later, the rude man wanted to get off the bus and tried to push past the passengers. They all stood closely together and wouldn't let him move. He was made to stay on the bus till it reached its terminus, a punishment he ¹⁰..... deserved.

A rude man sat in the empty seat

7.7 Focus adverbs

7.7A 'Even', 'only', 'just' and 'simply' for 'focusing' [> LEG 7.54-55]

Study:

★★

1 We can change the position in a sentence of adverbs like *even*, *only*, *just* and *simply* depending on where we want to 'focus our attention'. Compare:

Even I understood Professor Boffin's lecture. (i.e. even though I'm stupid)

I even understood Professor Boffin's lecture. (i.e. out of various things I understood)

2 In everyday speech, we often put these adverbs before the verb and other people can understand what we mean from stress and intonation: *I only asked a question* means 'that's all I did' rather than 'I was the only person who asked a question'.

Write: Write sentences to show how you interpret these statements.

- 1 *Only* I understood his lecture. *I understood his lecture, but no one else did.*
- 2 I *only* listened to his lecture.
- 3 I understood his lecture *only*.
- 4 Set the table *simply*.
- 5 I *just* understood his lecture.
- 6 I understood *just* his lecture.
- 7 I understood his lecture – *just!*

7.7B Two meanings of 'too' [> LEG 7.48, 7.56]

Study:

★

Too changes its meaning according to position:

This coffee is too hot to drink at the moment. (= more than is desirable [> 7.6A, 16.4B])

The croissant is freshly-made and the coffee is hot, too. (= also)

Write:

- 1 I can't drink the coffee. (hot) *It's too hot.*
- 2 The coffee is freshly-made and it is also hot. *and it's hot, too.*
- 3 I went to the bank and I also went to the supermarket.
- 4 I didn't walk to the supermarket. (far)
- 5 I didn't buy that jacket. (expensive)
- 6 I didn't buy that jacket. It was badly-made and also expensive.

7.7C 'Too' and 'not either' [> LEG 7.56]

Study:

★

We use *too* at the end of an affirmative sentence to mean *also*:

Billy can already read and he can write, too.

In the negative, we must use *either* in place of *too*:

Billy can't write yet and he can't read, either. (Not **He can't read, too.** [>13.4])

Write: Add *too* or *either*.

- 1 I like walking and I like cycling, *too.*
- 2 I met John and I met his wife,
- 3 I don't swim and I don't run,
- 4 He runs a restaurant and a hotel,
- 5 I can't knit and I can't sew,
- 6 Don't drink tea and don't drink coffee,
- 7 I don't know and I don't care,
- 8 I know John well and I like him,

7.7D 'Also' and 'as well' [> LEG 7.56]

Study:

★★

1 We use *also* and *as well* like *too*, that is in affirmative sentences. We replace them by *either* in negative sentences. We use *as well* only at the end of a clause or sentence:

*I bought this handbag and I bought these shoes to go with it, **as well**.*

2 *Also* is more common in writing than in speech. It normally comes:

– after *be*, *have*, *can*, etc.: *Susan is an engineer. She is **also** a mother.*

– after the first auxiliary verb when there is one or more than one:

*I should have collected the letters from your office and I **should also** have posted them.*

– before the main verb: *I play volley-ball and I **also play** tennis.* [compare > 7.4A]

Write: Show where *also* goes in these sentences.

- 1 She can act and she can sing. ...*She can act and she can also sing.*.....
- 2 I have had a rest and I have had a shower.
- 3 He writes novels and he writes TV scripts.
- 4 He has been arrested and he will be tried.
- 5 You should have phoned and you should have written.
- 6 I have to write a report and I have to file some letters.
- 7 I'd like a cup of coffee and I'd like some sandwiches, please.
- 8 Mr Mason owns the corner shop and he owns the flat over it.
- 9 We sell our products in the home market but we export a lot.
- 10 I'm not going to buy it because it's not what I want and it's too expensive.

7.7E Context

Write: Show where the adverbs in brackets will go in the sentences that follow them.



A SAFE PLACE

(¹*either*) My aunt, Millie, always said she had some jewels which she would leave to me, but when she died she didn't leave any money and she didn't leave any jewels: *either*.

(²*even*) My mother was surprised.

(³*too*) 'I know she had some rings and some lovely necklaces.

(⁴*only*) I saw them once, but perhaps she sold them.'

(⁵*as well*) My mother and I looked everywhere: we looked in the bedrooms, in the bathroom, and in the attic, but we found nothing.

(⁶*also*) 'Millie was very careful and was afraid of burglars,' mother said, 'but I don't think she hid her jewels anywhere.

(⁷*too*) Let's go home, and we'd better take all the food in the deep freeze.'

On Sunday, mother said to me, 'I'm going to cook this lovely goose which was in your aunt Millie's deep freeze. I'll prepare some stuffing and you can stuff the goose.'

(⁸*too*) Five minutes later I screamed with surprise: the goose was full of jewels and there were some gold coins!

I screamed with surprise!

7.8 Viewpoint adverbs, connecting adverbs and inversion

7.8A Viewpoint adverbs [> LEG 7.57, App 17]

Study:

★★★

We may express our 'viewpoint' in speech or in writing using adverbs like these:

- (= I'm sure): *clearly, definitely, honestly, naturally, obviously, really, strictly speaking.*
- (= I'm going to be brief): *anyhow, briefly, in brief, in effect, in a few words, in short.*
- (= I'm expressing my opinion): *as far as I'm concerned, frankly, in my opinion, I think.*

Write: Mark the 'viewpoints' (a-i) that are expressed in this text.

I was *agreeably* (1. *ad.*) surprised to learn that I had passed my history exam. *Between ourselves*, (2.) I was expecting to fail. *After all*, (3.) I hadn't done any work and, *naturally*, (4.) I didn't think I deserved to pass. So when the results came, I was expecting the worst. *As a general rule*, (5.) you get what you deserve and this is *certainly* (6.) true of exams. *Frankly*, (7.) I deserved to fail, but, I not only passed, I even got very good marks. This only shows that luck can help; *at any rate*, (8.) it helped in my case. *In my view*, (9.) it just shows that passing exams is not always a matter of hard work.

- a I am making a generalization
- b the reason for this was
- c I don't want you to repeat this
- d I was pleased
- e as was to be expected
- f I am sure
- g the important thing is this
- h I'm being honest
- i I'm expressing my opinion

7.8B Connecting adverbs [> LEG 7.58, App 18]

Study:

★★★

We can connect ideas in speech or writing using adverbs like these:

- (= I'm adding something): *in addition, again, apart from this, besides, moreover.*
- (= I'm comparing/contrasting): *as compared to, equally, however, in reality.*
- (= I'm summarizing): *all in all, and so on, essentially, in brief, in conclusion, in effect.*

Write: Mark the 'connecting ideas' (a-h) that are expressed in this text.

According to (1. *lc.*) a lot of people I know, there are few things more terrifying than having to speak in public. The only way to succeed is to follow strict rules. *First of all*, (2.) you should be well-prepared. *Second*, (3.) you should have a few jokes ready. *As well as that*, (4.) you should have rehearsed your speech, preferably in front of a mirror. *In comparison with* (5.) being hit by a bus, public speaking isn't too bad, but it's bad enough. *However*, (6.) you can make things easier for yourself by being ready. *Alternatively*, (7.) you can do nothing and make a fool of yourself. *To sum up*, (8.) success depends entirely on you.

- a I am introducing a list
- b I am making an addition
- c I am pointing to a contrast
- d I am stating an alternative
- e I am summarizing
- f I am making a second point
- g I am making a comparison
- h As stated by



7.8C Inversion after 'negative adverbs', etc. [> LEG 7.59, App 19]

Study:

★★★

- 1 Some adverbs like *never* and *little* have a 'negative effect' and we sometimes refer to them as 'negative adverbs'. We can use them in the ordinary way [> 7.4]:
I have never seen so much protest against a government.
Michael little realizes how important this meeting is.
- 2 If we begin a sentence with a 'negative adverb' we must follow with the word order we use in a Yes/No question [> 13.1]. Beginning with a negative is very formal:
Never have I seen so much protest against a government.
Little does Michael realize how important this meeting is.
- 3 We use this kind of inversion, in formal style, after:
 - 'negative adverbs': e.g. *hardly, hardly ever, never, rarely, seldom.*
 - phrases with *only*: e.g. *only after, only then, only when (Only then did I learn ...).*
 - *so* + adjective: ***So difficult was this problem, Einstein couldn't solve it.***

Write: Rewrite these sentences so that they begin with the words in italics.

- 1 There has *never* been such a display of strength by the workers.

Never has there been such a display of strength by the workers.

- 2 I realized what had happened *only later*.

- 3 You shouldn't sign the document *on any account*.

On no account

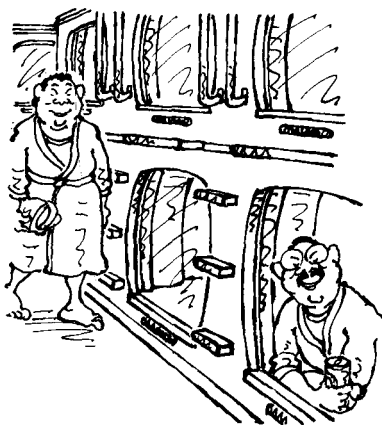
- 4 You shouldn't answer the door when I'm out *in any circumstances*.

In no circumstances

- 5 The papyrus was *so old*, we didn't dare to touch it.

7.8D Context

Write: Put in the right verb form and these adverbs: *according to, agreeably, however, in brief, moreover or ultimately.*



Don't ask for a room with a view!

DON'T ASK FOR A ROOM WITH A VIEW!

So high ¹ (be).....⁴..... the price of land in Tokyo, that its land area probably costs as much as the whole of California. Never, in any place in the world, (there be) ²..... such a demand for space! ³..... a newspaper report, this lack of space has led to 'capsule hotels'. The rooms are just capsules, measuring 1 metre high, 76 cms wide and 2 metres deep. ⁴....., you will be ⁵..... surprised to hear that they are equipped with phones, radio and TV. ⁶....., they are less expensive than ordinary hotels. ⁷....., they provide you with all you need for a comfortable night's sleep, even if they don't give you an automatic wash and dry as well! ⁸....., some people would argue, a small hole in the wall is preferable to a big hole in your pocket! But don't ask for a room with a view!

8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

8.1 Prepositions, adverb particles and conjunctions

8.1A Words we can use either as prepositions or as adverbs [> LEG 8.4, 7.3.4]

Study:



- 1 There are many 'small words' in English such as *up*, *down*, and *by* which we call **prepositions**. In fact, we use these as **prepositions** or **adverb particles**. Understanding the difference between the two will help us to understand 'phrasal verbs' [> 8.6-8].
- 2 A **preposition** must have an **object** (a noun or a pronoun), so it is always related to a **noun**: *across the road*, *over the wall*, *up the hill*, *down the mountain*.
- 3 An **adverb particle** does not need an object, so it is more closely related to a **verb**: *walk across*, *drive over*, *come up*, *climb down*.
- 4 We can use the following words either as **prepositions** or **adverb particles**: *about*, *above*, *across*, *after*, *along*, *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *between*, *beyond*, *by*, *down*, *in*, *inside*, *near*, *off*, *on*, *opposite*, *outside*, *over*, *past*, *round*, *through*, *under*, *underneath*, *up*, *without*. This means we can say:
*We drove **round the city**.* (*round* has a noun object, so it's a **preposition**)
*We drove **round**.* (*round* has no object, so it's an **adverb particle**).

Write: You are giving instructions to a young child. Give each instruction twice.

- 1 (run across the road) *Run across the road. Run across now.*
- 2 (climb over the wall)
- 3 (come inside the house)
- 4 (go down the hill)
- 5 (go up the ladder)
- 6 (run past the window)

8.1B Words we can use only as prepositions or only as adverbs [> LEG 8.4.2-3]

Study:



- 1 We use some 'small words' only as **prepositions**, so they always have a noun or pronoun object: *against*, *among*, *at*, *beside*, *during*, *except*, *for*, *from*, *into*, *of*, *onto*, *on top of*, *out of*, *since*, *till/until*, *to*, *toward(s)*, *upon*, *with*. This means we have to say: e.g. *Sit **beside me**.* We can't say **Sit beside.**
- 2 We use other 'small words' only as **adverb particles**, so they do not have an object: *away*, *back*, *backward(s)*, *downward(s)*, *forward(s)*, *on top*, *out*, *upward(s)*. This means we have to say: e.g. *Don't go near the fire. Stay **away!*** (Not **Stay away the fire!**)

Write: You are answering the question *What did you do?* Supply suitable noun objects where possible.

- 1 We waited at *the station*
- 2 We went to
- 3 We jumped back
- 4 We climbed out
- 5 We drove away
- 6 We ran into
- 7 We ran out of
- 8 We went upwards

8.1C Words we can use either as prepositions or conjunctions

[> LEG 8.4.4, 1.45.1]

Study:

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- 1 There are a few words we can use either as **prepositions** or **conjunctions**:
after, as, before, since and *till/until* [> 1.8, 1.9, 7.3A-B].
- 2 When we use them as **prepositions**, we have a noun or pronoun **object** after them:
*Let's have our meeting **after** lunch.*
- 3 When we use them as **conjunctions**, we have a **clause** [> 1.5] after them:
*Let's have our meeting **after we have had** lunch.*

Write: Complete these sentences with a) a noun object b) a clause.

- 1 I can't work before *breakfast / before I have had breakfast*
- 2 I'll meet you after
- 3 I'll wait here till
- 4 I've been staying at this hotel since

8.1D Object pronouns after prepositions: 'between you and me' [> LEG 8.3]

Study:

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We use the object form of a pronoun, not the subject form, after a preposition [> 4.1A]:
Between you and me, I think he's a fool. (Not *Between you and I*)

Write: Circle the right forms in these sentences.

- 1 The invitation is for my husband and (me/I).
- 2 She gave these presents to (us/we).
- 3 Share this between yourselves and (they/them).
- 4 For (we/us), the older generation, there have been many changes in society.
- 5 Employers are keen on people like (us/we) who work hard.
- 6 The news came as quite a surprise to a person like (me/I).

8.1E Context

Write: Circle 17 items (including in the title) and say whether they are prepositions or particles.



... legs sticking out of the boat!

TWO LEGS IN ONE BOOT *preposition*

It was late in the afternoon. Inspector Mayhew had an hour to go before he finished work for the day. He sat in his police car watching the traffic go by. Suddenly, he sat up! A woman in a blue car drove slowly past and the inspector clearly saw a pair of man's legs sticking out of the boot! Inspector Mayhew immediately gave chase. The woman drove round the town. The blue lamp on top of the police car was flashing, but the woman paid no attention to it. The inspector finally got in front of her and made her stop. 'What's the matter?' the woman asked. 'You've got a body in the boot!' the inspector said. There was a loud laugh from the boot. 'But I'm alive,' the voice said. 'I'm a car mechanic and I'm trying to find the cause of a strange noise in the back of this car.'

8.2 Prepositions of movement and position

Prepositions of time

8.2A 'At a point', 'in an area' and 'on a surface' [> LEG 8.6-9, Apps 21-23]

Study:

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- 1 We use *to/from* and *into/out of* to show direction with movement:
 - *to/from*: She has gone **to Paris**. She has just come home **from Paris**.
 - *into/out of*: I went **into the shop**. I came **out of the shop**.
- 2 We use *at, in, on* to show position after movement: *at a point, in an area, on a surface*. We can use *at* with some nouns to mean 'a (meeting) point' or *in* to mean 'inside':
 - I'll meet you **at the airport***. (= that's the meeting point)
 - I'll meet you **in the airport***. (= inside the building)
 - Typical nouns like this are: *the cinema, the office, the bank, the library, (the) school*.
- 3 We use *at* mainly with:
 - public places/buildings: *at the airport, the bus stop, the Grand Hotel, the butcher's*.
 - addresses: *at his sister's, 24 Cedar Avenue*.
 - nouns with zero article: *at home, church, college, school, university* [> 3.6B]
 - events: *at a concert, a dance, a dinner, a funeral, a meeting, a party, a wedding*.
*He's gone **to a party***. *He is **at a party***.
*He's been **to a party***. *He was **at a party***. [> 10.2C]
- 4 We use *in* mainly with:
 - large areas: *in Europe, Asia, the Antarctic, the Andes, the Sahara, Texas, the Pacific*.
 - towns/parts of towns: *in Canterbury, Chelsea, Dallas, Manhattan, New York, Paris*.
 - outside areas: *in the garden, the park, Hyde Park, the street, the old town, the desert*.
 - rooms: *in the bathroom, his bedroom, the garage, the kitchen, the waiting room*.
 - nouns with zero article: *in bed, chapel, church, hospital, prison*. [> 3.6B]
*He's gone **to Texas***. *He is **in Texas***.
*He's been **to Texas***. *He was **in Texas***. [> 10.2C]

Write: Supply *at* or *in*.

- 1 He's gone to the station. He's probably *at* the station now.
- 2 She's gone to school. She's probably school now.
- 3 He flew from London. He's probably Paris now.
- 4 He's gone into the garden. He's the garden now.
- 5 She's gone to bed. She's bed now.
- 6 He's gone to a dinner party. He's probably the dinner now.
- 7 She's gone to a wedding. She's probably the wedding now.
- 8 He's gone to the kitchen. He's probably the kitchen now.
- 9 They've come out of the desert. They're probably the jungle now.
- 10 They've gone to New York. They're probably New York now.
- 11 She's gone to the waiting room. She's probably the waiting room now.
- 12 He's been sent to prison. He's probably prison now.
- 13 She's gone to the doctor's. She's probably the doctor's now.
- 14 He's gone home. He's probably home now.
- 15 She's gone to the old town. She's probably the old town now.
- 16 They've sailed to the Pacific. They're probably the Pacific now.
- 17 We live 14 Woodland Avenue.
- 18 She was taken to hospital. She's hospital now.

8.2B Prepositions of time: 'at', 'on' and 'in' [> LEG 8.10-14]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *at* for: exact time: *at 10 o'clock*; meal times: *at lunch time*; points of time: *at night* [> 3.6A]; festivals: *at Christmas*; age: *at the age of 14*; + 'time': *at this/that time*.
- 2 We use *on* for: days of the week: *on Monday, on Mondays*; parts of the day: *on Monday morning*; dates: *on June 1st*; particular occasions: *on that day*; anniversaries: *on your birthday*; festivals: *on New Year's Day*.
- 3 We use *in* for [> 7.3C]: parts of the day: *in the evening*; months: *in May*; years: *in 2050*; seasons: *in (the) spring*; centuries: *in the 20th century*; periods: *in Ramadan, in two years' time*.

Write: Supply *at, on* or *in*.

- 1 I'll meet you *at* 10.30 *on* Monday, June 14.
- 2 We're taking our holiday July.
- 3 I always finish work early Fridays.
- 4 Who knows what the world will be like the year 2030?
- 5 You don't want anything to go wrong your wedding day.
- 6 the 19th century many children died before they were a year old..
- 7 We got up dawn and reached the summit noon.
- 8 the age of 14 I realized I would never become a brain surgeon.
- 9 The birds don't find much to eat in our garden winter.
- 10 What will you be doing the holidays?
- 11 What will you be doing New Year's Day?
- 12 The year was 1986. that time I was working as a waiter.
- 13 We try to get away Christmas time.
- 14 I'll see you ten days' time.
- 15 They prepared a surprise for me at the office my birthday.

8.2C Context

Write: Supply the missing prepositions.

'THE PROPHECY'

People who live ¹..... ~~in~~..... California have every reason to be afraid of earthquakes. No one has ever forgotten the great quake that destroyed San Francisco ²..... 1906. ³..... May, 1988, the people of Los Angeles panicked. According to a prophecy made ⁴..... the 16th century by a prophet called Nostradamus, the city would be destroyed early ⁵..... 1988. During the panic, parents didn't send their children ⁶..... school and people didn't go ⁷..... work. No one stayed ⁸..... home, either. The airlines did great business carrying people who fled ⁹..... their 'doomed city'. Which is more puzzling: how Nostradamus knew that a city which didn't even exist ¹⁰..... his time would be destroyed ¹¹..... the 20th century, or the behaviour of the people who believed 'the prophecy'?



The people of Los Angeles panicked

8.3 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (1)

8.3A Prepositions, particles, etc. often confused and misused [> LEG App 25.1-11]

Study:



1 **about** and **on**

We can use *about* and *on* to mean 'concerning'. We use *on* in a formal way, e.g. to describe a textbook: *a textbook on physics*; *about* is informal: *a book about animals*.

2 **according to** and **by**

We use *according to* to refer to information coming from other people or sources: *according to him*, *according to this guide book*. When we refer to ourselves, we say *in my opinion* (Not **according to me**). We can use *by* or *according to* when we refer to a clock or a timetable: *By* or *According to my watch, it's 3.15*.

3 **across** and **over**

We can use both these prepositions to mean 'from one side to the other': *My house is across/over the road/the river*. We cannot use *over* for large areas: *They're laying a pipeline across Siberia*. (Not **over**) We use *over* after verbs like *wander* to mean 'here and there'. We use *across* to describe movement through water: *She swam across the Channel*. (Not **over the Channel**) But we say *over a wall/a fence*. (Not **across**)

4 **across** and **through**

Through, meaning 'from one side to the other', refers to something like a tunnel (*through a pipe*) or something dense (*through the forest*); *across* refers to a large area (*across the desert*). With some nouns, like *park*, we can use either *across* or *through*.

5 **after** and **afterwards**

We generally use a noun or pronoun with *after*: *after lunch* [> 8.1A]. We use *afterwards* on its own: *We had a swim in the sea. Afterwards we lay on the beach*. (Not **After**)

6 **around** and **about**

We use both words to refer to 'lack of purpose': *We didn't have anything to do, so we started fooling around/about*. But we say *He lives (a)round here*. (= near) (Not **about**)

7 **at, to** and **against**

We use *at* after adjectives like *good*, *clever*. After verbs like *throw*, *at* often means 'taking aim'. Compare: *throw at* (to hit) and *throw to* (for someone to catch). When there is no idea of 'taking aim', we use *against*: *throw the ball against the wall*. And note: *fight against*. We use *at* for speed or price: *at 100 miles an hour, at \$2 each*.

8 **away**

Away [> 8.1B] combines with *far* (*far away*) and *from* (*away from*) and with verbs which give the idea of 'distance': e.g. *live, work*: *I live 5 miles away*. (Not **I live 5 miles far away**)

9 **because** and **because of**

We use *because* to give a reason: *We left the party because it was noisy*. [> 1.9] We use a noun or pronoun after *because of*: *We left the party because of the noise*.

10 **before** or **in front of**

We often use *before* to refer to time (*before 7*); *in front of* (and its opposite, *behind*) refers to position. We can use either *before* or *in front of* after the verbs *come* and *go*.

11 **behind, at the back (of)** and **back**

We can put a noun or pronoun after *behind* (*behind this house*) or we can use it on its own (*there's a garden behind*). Or we can say: *at the back of this house, it's at the back*.

Do not confuse *back* with *again*: *invite them back* means 'return their hospitality'. Don't use *back* after *return*: *We returned early*. (Not **returned back**) Note *3 years back* (= ago).

Write: Supply suitable words. Refer to the notes only when you have to.

about or on?

1 Read this article ...*on/about*... the Antarctic.

2 I've read a lot of books animals.

according to or by?

3 Dr Pim, the sea is rising.

4 the timetable, the train leaves at 8.27.

5 It's 10.15 my watch.

across or over?

6 There's a newsagent's the road.

7 No one wants a pipeline Alaska.

8 We skated the frozen lake.

9 I'm going to swim the river.

across or through?

10 Nothing can flow this pipe.

11 We managed to get the jungle.

12 I've never walked the park.

away (add far where possible)

13 I see storm clouds in the distance.

14 London is 15 miles from here.

because or because of?

15 I couldn't get to work I was ill.

16 I couldn't get to work my illness.

before or in front of?

17 Make sure you're there 7.

18 I'll wait for you the shop.

19 You come me in the queue.

after or afterwards?

20 Come and see me work.

21 We tidied up. Our guests arrived soon

22 We had a swim and we sunbathed.

around or about?

23 We stood waiting.

24 I wish you'd stop fooling

25 Let me show you the house.

26 He lives somewhere Manchester.

at, to or against?

27 I'm not very good figures.

28 Throw it me so that I can catch it.

29 Jim is always throwing stones birds.

30 We fought the enemy.

31 Ron is driving 100 miles an hour.

32 We have combs \$2 each.

behind, at the back (of) or back?

33 There's a garden in front and one

34 Keep this book. I don't want it

35 There's a garden the house.

36 I saw him four years

37 They invited us. We must invite them

38 We had to go early after the party.

39 Put it in its place.

40 I've fallen in my work.

41 I tried to lift it out of the hole but it fell

8.3B Context

Write: Put in *about, according to, across, after, at, away, because, before, behind, in front of, on*.



... the photographer's left ear

A GOOD EYE FOR A LEFT EAR

My friend Jonathan, who lives ¹.....*across*..... the road, develops and prints films. ²..... Jonathan most of us take awful pictures. Usually, we fail to aim ³..... the subject so that the subject is not even in the picture. Sometimes the subject is too far ⁴.....; sometimes too near. Some photos are spoilt because the sun is ⁵..... us, when of course, it should always be ⁶..... us. Some of us take blank pictures ⁷..... we take the lens cover off ⁸..... we have taken our shots. We take most of our pictures when we are on holiday and like to catch our friends when they are fooling ⁹..... . It's a pity we don't practise using our cameras ¹⁰..... we go on holiday. A good book ¹¹..... photography would make us better ¹²..... taking pictures, but most of us are too lazy to bother. I asked Jonathan what was the worst film he had ever seen. He didn't have to think very hard ¹³..... the question. At once he answered, 'Twenty-four shots of the photographer's left ear!'

8.4 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (2)

8.4A Prepositions, particles, etc. often confused and misused

[> LEG App 25.12-19, 25.25]

Study:

★★

1 **beside** and **besides**

Beside + noun/pronoun means 'next to': *Sit **beside me***. *Besides* with or without an object means 'in addition to' or 'as well as': *There were many people there **besides (us)***.

2 **between** and **among**

We commonly use *between* to show a division between two people, things, or times: *Divide this **between you both***. We use *among* + plural noun to refer to a mass of people, etc.: *Were you **among the people** present?* We sometimes use *between* to refer to more than two, if these can be viewed separately: *Don't smoke **between courses***.

3 **but (for)** and **except (for)**

But (for)/except (for) mean 'with the exception of': *Everyone has helped **but (for)/except (for) you***. We can use *except* and *but* without *for*, but not to begin a sentence:

***Except for/But for you**, everyone has helped.* (Not **Except you/But you everyone ...* *)

Except for/but for can mean 'if not': *We'd've been on time **except for/but for the snow***.

4 **by**, **near** and **on**

By can mean 'right next to': *Sit **by me***. We often use the words *right* or *close* in front of *by*: *The hotel is **right by/close by** the station*. *Near* (or *not far from*) usually suggests 'a short way from': *We live **near/not far from** London*. *On* means 'right next to' or 'beside' when we refer to 'a line': *Our house is **right on the road***. *I can't see what is **on my left***.

5 **by** and **past**

We use either word after verbs of motion (*go*, *run*, *walk*, etc.) to mean 'beyond in space or time': *He **went right by/past me** without speaking*. *A few days **went by/past***.

6 **by**, **with** and **without** [compare > 8.5An.7]

We often use *by* in fixed phrases: *by bus*, *by car*, *by post*. We also use it to refer to 'method': *You can open it **by moving** the catch*. *By* can refer to time and rate: *I'm paid **by the hour***. *With/without* refer to things (especially tools or instruments) which we need to use: *You can't open it **with/without a bottle-opener***.

7 **down**, **up**, **under** and **over**

Down is the opposite of *up* and shows direction towards a lower level, especially with 'movement verbs': *Let's **climb up/down***. We can also use *up* and *down* to show position: *He lives **up/down the street***. *Under* suggests 'being covered': *Let's sit **under a tree***. *Over* can have the meaning 'covering': *Keep this blanket **over you***.

8 **due to** and **owing to**

We often use either one or the other. However, *due to* is related to a noun + *be*: *Our delay (noun) **was (+ be) due to/caused by the heavy traffic***. *Owing to* (= because of) is related to the verb: *The broadcast was cancelled (verb) **owing to/because of the strike***.

9 **like** and **as**

Like (= to compare with) is followed by a noun or pronoun: *There's no one **like John/you***. We can also use it to mean 'such as': *Invite people **like the Frys***. *Like* can also mean 'similar to/in the same way as': *It was **like a dream***. *He acts **like a king***.

We use *as* (Not **like**) + object to mean 'in the capacity of': *I work **as a receptionist***.

We also use *as* to give a reason [> 1.9]: ***As the last bus had left**, we walked home*.

We use *like* informally to introduce a clause, especially in American English: ***Like I told you**, it's an offer I can't refuse*. A lot of native speakers of English think this is wrong.

Write: Supply suitable words. Refer to the notes only when you have to.

beside or besides?

- 1 Who was sitting *beside* you?
- 2 Who's invited us?
- 3 It's a fast car. it's got four-wheel drive.

between or among?

- 4 Divide it equally the two of you.
- 5 Switzerland lies four other countries.
- 6 I saw you the crowd.

but (for) or except (for)?

- 7 The plane would've landed the fog.
- 8 Everyone sent flowers you.
- 9 you, everyone sent flowers.
- 10 Everyone's here John.
- 11 Who John would do a thing like that?

by, near or on?

- 12 I sat the phone all morning.
- 13 We live Manchester.
- 14 Our house is right the river.
- 15 my right I have Frank Milligan.

by or past?

- 16 The ball went right my head!
- 17 Several days went before I had news.
- 18 Stop here on your next visit.
- 19 Something flew my ear.
- 20 It's your bedtime.

by, with or without?

- 21 Our dog was hit a bus.
- 22 You can open it pulling this lever.
- 23 Dentists are paid the hour.
- 24 It won't open a bottle-opener.

down, up, under and over?

- 25 My mother lives the street.
- 26 The bus got stuck the bridge.
- 27 Put this blanket your knees.

due to or owing to?

- 28 Our success was luck.
- 29 Flights were delayed the strike.
- 30 He lost his job bad health.

like or as?

- 31 There's no business show business.
- 32 a lawyer, I would advise caution.
- 33 I once worked a bus conductor.
- 34 This motorway is a car park!
- 35 People the Joneses always copy us.
- 36 it was raining, I took a taxi.
- 37 I explained, it's a public holiday today.
- 38 He's more his mother than his father.
- 39 Who's used this knife a screw-driver?
- 40 You're just your brother.
- 41 He spends money a millionaire.

8.4B Context

Write: Put in *among, as, beside, between, by, down (or up), due, except, like, past, without*.



DELIVERED AND SIGNED FOR!

1..... *As*..... my grandmother used to say, 'Don't sign for anything
 2..... checking it first.' I forgot this good advice when two
 delivery-men brought my new sideboard yesterday. Delivery was very
 late 3..... to the heavy traffic on the road. I saw the delivery-
 van go 4..... the house and stop outside a neighbour's
 5..... the street. Then I watched it reverse until it stopped
 right 6..... my house. I went outside to look into the back of
 the van: there was my lovely sideboard 7..... several pieces
 of furniture! It was quite heavy, but the two men managed it
 8..... them. Soon, the beautiful sideboard was in place,
 9..... the dining-room wall. I had waited so long for it, it was
 10..... a dream! It was only when the men left that I realized I
 had checked everything 11..... the keys. It had been delivered
 12..... keys! It was too late to phone the shop, but I needn't
 have worried because next morning the keys arrived in the post. I
 unlocked the sideboard and found a note inside which said, 'Keys will
 follow 13..... post'!

8.5 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (3)

8.5A Prepositions, particles, etc. often confused and misused

[> LEG App 25.26-37]

Study:

★★

1 **of, out of, from** and **with** after **made**

We use *made of* and *made out of* when we can actually recognize the material(s): *made of wood, iron, etc.* We use *made from* when the ingredients are not immediately obvious: *a cake made from eggs, milk and flour.* We use *made with* (= contains) to identify one or more of the ingredients: *These chocolates are made with fresh cream.*

2 **of** and **off**

We never use *of* and *off* in place of each other. We always use a noun or pronoun object after *of*: *north of the river, a woman of 50.* We can use an object after *off*, or we can use it on its own to suggest separation: *just off the motorway, take the top off.*

3 **on** and **in**

We often use both of these to refer to the body. *On* refers to surface: *on your nose.* *In* suggests 'deep': *a speck in my eye,* or refers to pain: *a pain in my stomach.*

4 **out of** and **outside**

Out of is the opposite of *into* when we are describing movement: *We ran out of the building.* In this sense, we can't replace *out of* by *outside*. Compare uses without movement: *He is out of his office.* (= not here) *He is outside the office.* (= waiting)

5 **over, above** and **on top of**

Over (= covering, sometimes touching): *Keep the blankets over you.* *Above* (= at a higher level and not touching): *a light above my head.* *On top of* (= touching): *on top of the TV.* We can use *over* and *above* in place of each other to mean 'vertically at a higher level': *a helicopter over/above a lifeboat.* We cannot use *over* and *above* in place of each other when all we are concerned with is 'a higher level' (not vertical). If, for example, we were referring to two cats on a tree we would say that A was *above* B, not *over* it. We also use both words to refer to rank, etc.: *over/above the rank of colonel.*

6 **under, underneath** and **below**

Under (= covered by, sometimes touching); *underneath* (= completely covered by): *a mat under/underneath a hot dish.* *Below* is the opposite of *above* and we can use it in place of *under/underneath*. *Below* (Not *under*) refers to position (*below the knee*).

7 **with** and **without**

We use *with* and *without* to mean 'accompanied by' or 'not accompanied by': *with/without my sister.* *With* can suggest 'having': *with your hands in your pockets,* and 'taking into consideration': *with the high cost of living.* *With* follows common adjectives (e.g. *angry*) and we use it in expressions like *blue with cold.* *Without* + *-ing* can suggest 'and not do something': *Go into the room without waking the children.*

8 **with, without, in** and **of**

We can use *with* and *without* to mean 'carrying'/'not carrying': *with a handbag, without any money.* We can also refer to physical characteristics: *with a big nose;* and such things as hairstyles and make-up: *with pink lipstick.* We can use *in* to mean 'wearing': *the man in the blue suit.* We can also refer to voice quality: *in a loud voice.* *Of* can describe personal qualities: *a man of courage;* age: *a man of 65;* or wealth: *a woman of substance.*

Write: Supply suitable words. Refer to the notes only when you have to.

of, out of, from or with after made?

- 1 You rarely find toys made *of/out of* solid wood.
- 2 Beer is made hops.
- 3 Bronze is made copper and tin.
- 4 This sauce is made fresh cream.

of or off?

- 5 We live south the river.
- 6 Our house is just the main road.

on or in?

- 7 There's a black mark your nose.
- 8 I've got a speck of dust my eye.
- 9 I've got a deep cut my foot.
- 10 I've got a light scratch my arm.

out of or outside?

- 11 We ran the house, into the street.
- 12 Mr Ray's not here. He's his office.
- 13 Please wait the headmaster's study.
- 14 There was a big crowd the building.

with or without?

- 15 Enter the room making a noise.
- 16 all our expenses, we can't save.
- 17 She was very angry me.
- 18 I turned blue cold.
- 19 'Life father' is a famous book.
- 20 As an orphan, I grew up parents.
- 21 He stood his hands in his pockets.
- 22 I was green envy!

over, above or on top of?

- 23 I can't sleep with a light my head.
- 24 Don't put that cup my papers, please.
- 25 The helicopter was the lifeboat.
- 26 My bedroom is the kitchen.
- 27 We have the sky us.
- 28 We don't want a boss like that us.
- 29 Major is the rank of Captain.
- 30 His work is average.
- 31 The answer is on the next page. See

under, underneath or below?

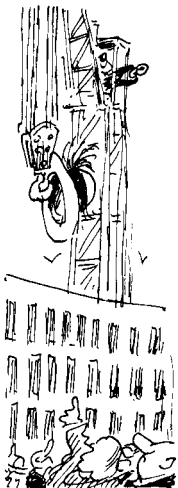
- 32 There's nothing new the sun.
- 33 I think she's 17.
- 34 Put a mat that saucepan.
- 35 The stone hit me just the knee.
- 36 What's the rank of Captain?
- 37 She swam just the surface.
- 38 I have two people me at work.

with, without, in or of?

- 39 Who's the woman the green umbrella?
- 40 I can't pay. I'm any money.
- 41 The camera comes a case included.
- 42 Who's the woman the green blouse?
- 43 He spoke a quiet voice.
- 44 He's a man a red moustache.
- 45 She's a woman 38.
- 46 She's a woman intelligence.

8.5B Context

Write: Put in *with, out of, over, off, of, in, above, below, on top of*.



THE AMAZING FLYING HAT

She was a striking woman ¹.....*of*..... about 25, dressed for the races. ²..... her smart dress and fantastic hat made ³..... feathers, she drew admiring glances as she walked down the street. Her hat attracted even more attention when a gust ⁴..... wind lifted it ⁵..... her head and carried it into the air. We all stopped to watch as this amazing hat flew ⁶..... our heads. People came ⁷..... buildings and into the street. The young woman ⁸..... the smart dress was as entertained as the rest ⁹..... us. Suddenly, the hat rested ¹⁰..... a high building and we lost sight of it. Then the wind lifted it up again. 'There it is!' cried a man ¹¹..... an umbrella. He jabbed his umbrella at the sky ¹²..... Then an amazing thing happened. The hat simply disappeared! The mystery was solved when someone shouted ¹³..... a loud voice. There was a tall yellow crane ¹⁴..... a high building and the crane driver looked down at the crowd ¹⁵..... 'Lost your hat, miss?' the crane driver cried and we all gasped ¹⁶..... surprise when we saw that the hat had been caught by his crane!

'Lost your hat, miss?'

8.6 Phrasal verbs: Type 1, verb + preposition (transitive)

8.6A Introduction to phrasal verbs [> LEG 8.23-26]

Study:

★★

We often combine verbs with prepositions and adverb particles [> 8.1A-B] to form **phrasal verbs**. These verbs can have non-idiomatic or idiomatic meanings and we use them a lot. So, for example, if someone knocks at the door, we would probably say 'Come in!' rather than 'Enter'. We would say 'take off' your jacket, rather than 'remove' it, and so on. We can define four types of phrasal verbs according to form. As you learn new verbs, get used to recognizing them as one of these four types so that you learn how to use them.

Note the terms: **transitive** (= followed by a noun or pronoun object) [> 1.2B]

intransitive (= not followed by a noun or pronoun object) [> 1.2B]

Type 1: verb + preposition (transitive): e.g. **Listen to this record. Listen to it. Listen!**

Type 2: verb + particle (transitive): e.g. **Take off your hat. Take your hat off. Take it off.**

Type 3: verb + particle (intransitive): e.g. **Hurry up! Sit down!**

Type 4: verb + particle + preposition (transitive): e.g. **We've run out of matches.**

8.6B Type 1: Verb + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'look at the camera'

Study: These verbs are used in their normal sense. [> LEG 8.27.2, App 28]

Write: Supply the missing prepositions.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 I don't agree ... <i>with</i> ... your proposal. | 13 I don't agree you. |
| 2 Mr Potter suffers asthma. | 14 How do you know this? |
| 3 Please don't insist paying the bill. | 15 Does this jacket belong you? |
| 4 I wouldn't think borrowing money. | 16 Let's begin tomato soup. |
| 5 These two pictures differ each other. | 17 Can you look the children for tonight? |
| 6 Choose the two. | 18 I couldn't wish a nicer office. |
| 7 Where did you read it? | 19 We failed our attempt to win the race. |
| 8 I'm depending you. | 20 You can't reason him. |
| 9 We can only guess the truth. | 21 This pie tastes onion. |
| 10 Please wait me. | 22 I don't believe fairies. |
| 11 Knock the door. | 23 I succeeded starting the engine. |
| 12 Ask the menu. | 24 The police are looking the robbers. |

8.6C Type 1: Verb + object + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'tell me about it'

Study: These verbs are used in their normal sense. [> LEG 8.27.3, App 29]

Write: Supply the missing prepositions.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 I've arranged an excursion ... <i>for</i> ... you. | 9 I'll reserve a seat you. |
| 2 He accused me lying. | 10 You remind me my sister. |
| 3 You can't hide the truth me. | 11 Don't associate me them. |
| 4 Would you kindly explain this me? | 12 Can you forgive me what I did? |
| 5 Invest some money this company. | 13 They robbed me my wallet. |
| 6 I can't advise you your private life. | 14 Don't repeat this anyone. |
| 7 Insure your house storm damage. | 15 You can't blame me this. |
| 8 Translate this report Spanish for me. | 16 He stole money the firm. |

8.6D Type 1: Verb + preposition + object, idiomatic: 'get over an illness'

[> LEG 8.27.4, App 30]

Study: We cannot relate the parts of these verbs to their literal meanings: e.g.

★★ I don't know what **came over me**. (= affected)

Write: Match these verbs (1-20) with the explanations on the right (a-t) after you have tried to explain them in your own way.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1 Eggs don't <i>agree with</i> me. <i>f</i> | a) decide later |
| 2 Please <i>call for</i> me at 6. | b) found (it) easy |
| 3 I <i>came across</i> this old book. | c) found |
| 4 The dog <i>went for</i> the postman. | d) reaches |
| 5 Let's <i>go after</i> him. | e) supervise |
| 6 Can I <i>count on</i> you for help?..... | f) have a bad effect on |
| 7 I haven't <i>got over</i> my cold yet. | g) doing nothing with |
| 8 This dress will <i>do for</i> Jane. | h) obtain |
| 9 Where did you <i>come by</i> this information?..... | i) come and collect |
| 10 You can't <i>dictate to</i> me. | j) resemble |
| 11 I'll <i>sleep on</i> your suggestion. | k) serve |
| 12 I can't <i>make anything of</i> this. | l) attacked |
| 13 I won't <i>stand for</i> your rudeness. | m) give orders to |
| 14 Is there anyone here to <i>wait on</i> us?..... | n) try and catch |
| 15 The cost <i>runs into</i> millions. | o) inspect |
| 16 She <i>took to</i> English quickly. | p) rely on |
| 17 He's been <i>sitting on</i> my application. | q) understand |
| 18 You <i>take after</i> your father. | r) tolerate |
| 19 You can <i>look over</i> the house. | s) be all right for |
| 20 You don't have to <i>stand over</i> me, you know. | t) recovered from |

8.6E Context

Write: Put in *at, for, from, in, of, on, out of* or *to*. Use each word at least once.



IS THERE ANYBODY THERE?

A dentist in Bavaria has been haunted by a voice which swears 1.....*at*..... him all the time. The voice comes 2..... light sockets, washbasins and the telephone. It is a sharp, deep voice which laughs 3..... the dentist and mocks him. The poor dentist is suffering 4..... a bad case of nerves. Recently, the voice was recorded and broadcast, so now everyone in Bavaria is looking 5..... the ghost, but so far no one has succeeded 6..... finding it. People who don't believe 7..... ghosts think it is just a practical joke. The voice always shouts 8..... the dentist, but speaks sweetly 9..... his 17-year-old assistant, Claudia. But no one can blame Claudia 10..... the behaviour of the ghost or accuse her 11..... playing tricks 12..... her poor boss. Engineers don't know what to make 13..... it. 'He's a technical genius,' one of them said. The ghost has responded 14..... all this activity by saying, in a thick Bavarian accent, 'You'll never get hold 15..... me!'

You'll never get hold of me!

8.7 Phrasal verbs: Type 2, verb + particle (transitive)

8.7A Type 1 and Type 2 phrasal verbs compared [> LEG 8.28, Apps 32, 33]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use prepositions after Type 1 verbs. We cannot separate the preposition from the verb: *I'm **looking at** the camera.* (Not **I'm looking the camera at.*)
- 2 We can separate the adverb particle from a Type 2 verb and put it immediately after the noun object: *She **gave away** her books. She **gave** her books **away**.*
- 3 If the object is a pronoun, we cannot put the particle in front of it: *Give **it** away.* (Not **Give away it.*) *Give **them** away.* (Not **Give away them.*)
- 4 Special note: In *She gave away her books*, *away* is an adverb particle [> 8.1B], not a preposition, even if it has an object after it. Unlike a preposition, a particle is 'mobile' and can be used before or after a noun object. [> LEG 8.28.2]

Write: Use arrows to show which adverb particles you can move in these sentences.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1 I'm looking for my glasses. | 6 Yes, I've given them out. |
| 2 I read about it in the papers. | 7 Write the information down here please. |
| 3 Did you turn the gas off ? | 8 A crowd emerged from the cinema. |
| 4 Yes, I've just turned it off. | 9 Don't associate with him. |
| 5 Have you given the papers out? | 10 We've dealt with the problem. |

8.7B Type 2: Particles that extend the verb: 'write down' [> LEG 8.28.3-4, App 32]

Study:

★★

- A single particle can strengthen or extend the meaning of a verb:
- a *The scarecrow frightened the birds **away**.* (*away* refers to 'distance')
 - b *I was holding my hat and the wind snatched it **away**.* (*away* refers to 'detachment')
 - c *I got a cloth and wiped **away** the coffee I had spilled.* (*away* refers to 'disappearance')
 - d *Please put these dishes **away**.* (*away* refers to 'tidying')
- The verb often has its non-idiomatic meaning, but the particle 'extends' this meaning: e.g. *pull out, push away, wash away, move back, burn down, bring in, cut off.*

Write: Match these meanings to the adverb particles in the sentences below.

- | | | | |
|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| a 'put on paper' | f 'movement out' | k 'removal' | p 'distribution' |
| b 'exclusion' | g 'permanence' | l 'reduction' | q 'inwards' ('destroy') |
| c 'addition' | h 'movement in' | m 'to the ground' | r 'up from the surface' |
| d 'out of bed' | i 'enclose' | n 'extension' | s 'confine' |
| e 'completely' | j 'clearly' | o 'into pieces' | t 'upwards direction' |

- | | | | |
|------------|---|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| out | 1 drive the car <i>out</i> f | up | 11 pull that line <i>up</i> |
| | 2 leave that word <i>out</i> | | 12 pick that <i>up</i> |
| | 3 take that stain <i>out</i> | | 13 fill this car <i>up</i> |
| | 4 put <i>out</i> your hand..... | | 14 chop that wood <i>up</i> |
| | 5 copy this <i>out</i> | | 15 let the patient <i>up</i> |
| | 6 give these <i>out</i> | | 16 wrap this box <i>up</i> |
| in | 7 let him <i>in</i> | down | 17 cut the tree <i>down</i> |
| | 8 lock him <i>in</i> | | 18 turn the heat <i>down</i> |
| | 9 write this <i>in</i> | | 19 close the shop <i>down</i> |
| | 10 beat the door <i>in</i> | | 20 write this <i>down</i> |

8.7C Type 2: Verb + particle + object, idiomatic: 'bring about a change'

[> LEG 8.28.5, App 33]

Study: We cannot relate the parts of these verbs to their literal meanings: e.g.
 ★★ *What brought about this change? What brought this change about? What brought it about?*
 (= caused to happen)

Write: Match these verbs (1-15) with the explanations on the right (a-o) after you have tried to explain them in your own way.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1 When will they <i>bring your article out</i> ? <i>é</i> | a) get my revenge |
| 2 So she's <i>broken off</i> her engagement! | b) discuss your grievance |
| 3 Don't <i>bring that subject up</i> again please! | c) fill |
| 4 Why don't you <i>call up</i> your mother? | d) give me accommodation |
| 5 Shall I <i>do your room out</i> ? | e) publish |
| 6 What excuse did he <i>cook up</i> this time? | f) invent |
| 7 They're sure to <i>find him out</i> | g) destroyed |
| 8 You've <i>given away</i> the secret. | h) make him stop talking |
| 9 I can't <i>make out</i> what he means. | i) ended |
| 10 If you're angry, <i>have it out</i> with her. | j) clean |
| 11 I'll <i>pay you back</i> for this! | k) reveal his dishonesty |
| 12 Can you <i>put me up</i> for the night? | l) mention |
| 13 <i>Shut him up!</i> | m) revealed |
| 14 The earthquake <i>wiped the village out</i> | n) phone |
| 15 Why don't you <i>top up</i> the battery? | o) understand |

8.7D Context

Write: Look at the phrases in italics. Show with arrows which particles can be moved and where.



NOT ONLY RED IN THE FACE!

Ken Rose is a company director and he has to sit at a desk all day. He likes to keep fit by running to work every morning. He ¹*arrives at the office* early, ²*gets out of his shorts and vest* and ³*puts on a business suit*. Last week, Ken ⁴*got to his office* earlier than usual, dressed in red shorts and a red vest. He had just ⁵*put on his shirt and tie*, when the phone rang. Ken ⁶*picked up the receiver* and sat behind his desk. A business colleague ⁷*had called him up* early. Could he see Ken later? Could he ⁸*bring someone round*? Could they ⁹*check over some figures*? Could they ¹⁰*think of ways of* ¹¹*cutting down expenses*? Could they ¹²*put off the meeting* till later in the week? Ken ¹³*was writing down some notes* when he noticed the time. It was after 9. 'Excuse me,' Ken said. 'I'll ¹⁴*call you back*.' He ¹⁵*had just put the receiver down* when someone ¹⁶*knocked at the door*. The Managing Director ¹⁷*came into the room* with six important guests. 'Ah, Ken,' he said, 'I want to ¹⁸*introduce you to our visitors* and I'd like you to ¹⁹*show them round the company*.' 'Of course, sir,' Ken said and he got up to shake hands, forgetting he still ²⁰*had on his red shorts!*

He got up to shake hands

8.8 Phrasal verbs: Type 3, verb + particle (intransitive) Type 4, verb + particle + preposition (transitive)

8.8A Type 3: Verb + particle, intransitive, non-idiomatic: 'hurry up' [> LEG 8.29.2]

Study: We use these verbs in their normal sense. Many combinations are possible:
 ★★ *Hurry up! Sit down! Stand up!* Compare Type 1 [> 8.6A-B]: *Look!* (Not **Look at!*)

Write: Combine the following verbs with the following particles in different ways:
come, go, hurry, sit, stand + along, away, down, in, up

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------------|---|-------|----|-------|----|-------|
| 1 | <i>Come along</i> | 5 | | 9 | | 13 | |
| 2 | | 6 | | 10 | | 14 | |
| 3 | | 7 | | 11 | | 15 | |
| 4 | | 8 | | 12 | | 16 | |

8.8B Type 3: Verb + particle, intransitive, idiomatic: 'break down'

Study: We cannot relate the parts of these verbs to their literal meanings: e.g.
 ★★ *She broke down when she heard the news* (= collapsed). [> LEG 8.29.3, App 36]

Write: Match these verbs (1-17) with the explanations on the right (a-q) after you have tried to explain them in your own way.

- | | | | |
|----|--|----|----------------------|
| 1 | All this information doesn't <i>add up</i> <i>b</i> | a) | be careful! |
| 2 | I'm glad to say my plan <i>came off</i> | b) | make sense |
| 3 | I need the money and you'd better <i>cough up</i> . (informal) | c) | improving |
| 4 | You're tired. You should <i>ease off</i> | d) | improving |
| 5 | When did the plane <i>take off</i> ? | e) | work less hard |
| 6 | Please don't <i>let on</i> I told you this. | f) | reveal the secret |
| 7 | I'm going to <i>lie in</i> tomorrow morning. | g) | happen |
| 8 | Is there sufficient food to <i>go round</i> ? | h) | succeeded |
| 9 | Business is <i>looking up</i> | i) | not working properly |
| 10 | You work and I'll <i>look on</i> | j) | pay |
| 11 | My car's <i>playing up</i> again. | k) | start your journey |
| 12 | I'll be late, so don't <i>wait up</i> | l) | arrived |
| 13 | <i>Mind out!</i> He's turning left! | m) | leave the ground |
| 14 | I waited for him, but he never <i>showed up</i> | n) | not go to bed |
| 15 | What time are you going to <i>set out</i> ? | o) | be enough |
| 16 | I'm glad to say business is <i>picking up</i> | p) | be a spectator |
| 17 | How did that <i>come about</i> ? | q) | stay in bed late |

8.8C Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'walk up to the top'

Study: These verbs are used in their normal sense. [> LEG 8.30.2, 8.8]

★★
Write: Write sentences with the following.

- (come down from) *The lift takes a long time to come down from the top floor*
- (drive on to)
- (hurry over to)
- (run along to)
- (stay away from)

8.8D Verb + particle + preposition + object, idiomatic: 'put up with it'

[> LEG 8.30.3, App 37]

Study: We cannot relate the parts of these verbs to their literal meanings: e.g.

★★ *How do you put up with it?* (= tolerate)

Write: Match these verbs (1-20) with the explanations on the right (a-t) after you have tried to explain them in your own way.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 1 Your argument <i>boils down to</i> this. ... <i>e</i> | a) use |
| 2 I can't <i>go back on</i> my word. | b) allow me to share |
| 3 Please <i>let me in on</i> the secret. | c) expecting to enjoy |
| 4 You'd better <i>talk him out of</i> his plan. | d) contact |
| 5 Some of his good luck has <i>rubbed off on</i> me. | e) can be summarized as |
| 6 I can't <i>live up to</i> my reputation. | f) totals |
| 7 I've <i>set up in</i> business. | g) started |
| 8 That <i>ties in nicely with</i> my plan. | h) treat unfairly |
| 9 Who <i>put you up to</i> this? | i) benefited |
| 10 I don't <i>feel up to</i> this party. | j) accept with courage |
| 11 This won't <i>make up for</i> the damage. | k) fits |
| 12 You've got to <i>face up to</i> reality. | l) fail to honour |
| 13 The Cabots <i>look down on</i> us. | m) abolished |
| 14 We've had to <i>fall back on</i> our savings. | n) maintain the high standard |
| 15 I think it would be a good idea to <i>keep in with</i> her. | o) consider us inferior |
| 16 I'll <i>get on to</i> them immediately. | p) compensate for |
| 17 The bill <i>comes out at</i> £100 exactly. | q) gave you this idea |
| 18 If you're angry, you don't have to <i>take it out on</i> me. | r) stay on good terms |
| 19 I'm glad they've <i>done away with</i> that bad law. | s) feel well enough for |
| 20 I'm <i>looking forward to</i> the holidays. | t) persuade not to do |

8.8E Context

Write: Put in *about, down, down on, in, in on, up, up on, up to, up with* or *to*.

A CURE FOR SNORING

It's very difficult for people who sleep silently to ¹put *up with* the sound of snoring. Some people are asleep the moment they ²lie; others ³stay half the night waiting for the miracle of sleep to ⁴come Even insomniacs snore. Insomniacs are the ones who need to ⁵lie in the morning to ⁶catch lost sleep. Snorers will never admit to snoring. They know the rest of the world ⁷looks them and they just can't ⁸face reality. My friend, Henry, a champion snorer, has just found a cure and he ⁹let me his little secret. He has just ¹⁰coughed good money for a band with a stud on it. He wears the band round his head at night and if he tries to sleep on his back, the stud gives him a jab. I'm sure this news will ¹¹cheer all snorers, who now have a new experience to ¹²look forward With one of these on their heads, all they have to lose is their sleep!



He wears this round his head

9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.1 The simple present and present progressive tenses (1)

9.1A Pronunciation and spelling of the 3rd person, simple present [> LEG 9.6-7]

Study:

★★

1 Pronunciation [compare plural nouns > 2.5A]:

We pronounce -s as /s/ after these sounds: /f/ *laughs*; /p/ *drops*; /k/ *kicks*; /t/ *lets*.

We pronounce -s as /z/ after /z/ *loses*; /dʒ/ *manages*; /s/ *passes*; /ʃ/ *pushes*; /tʃ/ *stitches*, and /ks/ *mixes*.

We pronounce -s as /z/ after all other sounds: /b/ *robs*; /d/ *adds*; /g/ *digs*; /l/ *fills*; /m/ *dreams*; /n/ *runs*; /ŋ/ *rings*; after vowels: *sees*; after vowel + w or r: *draws*, *stirs*.

2 Spelling

Add -s to most verbs: *work/works*, *drive/drives*, *play/plays*, *run/runs*.

Add -es to verbs ending in -o: *do/does*; -s: *misses*; -x: *mixes*; -ch/-sh: *catches/pushes*.

Write:

a Give the third person forms of the verbs in these sentences.

b Show whether you would pronounce the third person form as /s/, /z/ or /ɪz/

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 They laugh a lot. He <i>laughs</i> / s / | 8 I rush around a lot. She / / |
| 2 I often drop things. She / / | 9 I always saw the wood. She / / |
| 3 We drink a lot of tea. She / / | 10 I wear old clothes at home. He / / |
| 4 I often forget things. She / / | 11 I love sweets. She / / |
| 5 We often lose things. He / / | 12 I often see them. He / / |
| 6 They manage all right. She / / | 13 They pay £30 a week rent. He / / |
| 7 I often pass your house. He / / | 14 I cry at sad films. She / / |

9.1B Uses of the simple present tense: 'I work/he works' [> LEG 9.8, 9.12]

Study:

★★

There are seven basic uses of the **simple present tense** [compare > 11.11A]. We use it for:

- 1 Permanent truths: *Summer follows spring. Gases expand when heated.*
- 2 'The present period' (= 'this is the situation at present'): *My sister works in a bank.*
- 3 Habitual actions: *I get up at 7. I sometimes stay up till midnight.*
- 4 Future reference (for timetables, etc.): *The concert begins at 7.30 next Friday evening.*
- 5 Observations and declarations: *I hope so. It says here that ... I love you. I hate him.*
- 6 Instructions: *First you weigh the ingredients.*
- 7 Commentaries: *Becker serves to Lendl.*

Write:

Give the correct form of the simple present of each verb.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 Water <i>boils</i> at 100°C. (boil) | 9 She never up very early. (get) |
| 2 Hot air (rise) | 10 I occasionally meat. (eat) |
| 3 My uncle in a factory. (work) | 11 The coach at 6 this evening. (leave) |
| 4 John and Sue glasses. (wear) | 12 The concert at 7 next Friday. (start) |
| 5 The children a lot of sweets. (eat) | 13 I Barcelona won again. (see) |
| 6 He only at weekends. (work) | 14 It's not right, you (know) – I (agree) |
| 7 I always out on Saturdays. (go) | 15 Can he manage? – I so. (hope) |
| 8 She to London once a week. (drive) | 16 It in the paper it'll be hot. (say) |

9.1C Stative and dynamic verbs [> LEG 9.3, App 38]

Study:

★★

- 1 We call a few verbs like *love* **stative** because they refer to 'states'. A state has no beginning and no end. We don't 'control' it, so we don't normally use stative verbs in progressive tenses: *She **loves** her baby more than anything.* (Not **is loving**)
- 2 Most verbs in English are **dynamic**. We can use them in two ways:
 - in the simple present tense to describe habits, etc. [> 9.1B]: *I **often make** cakes.*
 - in the present progressive to describe deliberate actions in progress [> 9.2B]: *I'm **making** a cake.*
- 3 We can describe three classes of verbs:
 - a Dynamic verbs which have simple or progressive forms (most verbs in English):
*I **often listen** to records.* (simple present tense)
*I'm **listening** to a record.* (present progressive tense)
 - b Verbs which are always stative:
*This coat **belongs** to you.* (simple present tense) (Not **is belonging**)
 - c Verbs that have stative or dynamic uses:
*I'm **weighing** myself.* (a deliberate action: present progressive tense)
*I **weigh** 65 kilos.* (a state) (Not **I'm weighing 65 kilos.**)
- 4 There are five groups of stative verbs referring to:
 - a feelings (*like, love, etc.*);
 - b thinking/believing (*think, understand, etc.*)
 - c wants (*want, prefer, etc.*)
 - d perception (*hear, see, etc.* [> 11.2B])
 - e being/having/owning (*appear, seem, belong, etc.* [> 10.4])

Write: Tick the sentences that are right. Cross out the verbs that are wrong and correct them.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1a You're never ill. I envy you. ✓ | 1b You're never ill. I'm envying you. ___ |
| 2a I understand English well. ___ | 2b I'm understanding English well. ___ |
| 3a You're knowing what I mean. ___ | 3b You know what I mean. ___ |
| 4a Is he seeming unfriendly? ___ | 4b Does he seem unfriendly? ___ |
| 5a I prefer fish to meat. ___ | 5b I'm preferring fish to meat. ___ |
| 6a Do you see that bird over there? ___ | 6b Are you seeing John tomorrow? ___ |
| 7a Why is he smelling his coffee? ___ | 7b Something smells strange. ___ |
| 8a She's weighing herself again. ___ | 8b She weighs 75.5 kilos. ___ |

9.1D Context

Write: Put in the simple present or the present progressive tenses.

CHOMP CHAMP!

¹(you sit) ...*Are you sitting*... comfortably? Good! I ²(hope) you ³(study) this text carefully because I ⁴(have) news for you. The *Guinness Book of Records* ⁵(not include) records for eating any more. People who ⁶(try) to swallow 47 hard boiled eggs in half a minute will have to do it for pleasure and not to get into the record book. 'We ⁷(regard) these records as unhealthy,' said the book's editor, Mr Donald McFarlan. However, one record-holder will remain. He is Michel Lotito of Grenoble ('Monsieur Mangetout'). Since 1966, he has chomped his way through 10 bicycles, 7 TV sets and a light aircraft. He's likely to remain world champ, unless you ⁸(want) to challenge him, of course!



Chomp! chomp!

9.2 The simple present and present progressive tenses (2)

9.2A Spelling: how to add '-ing' to a verb: 'wait/waiting' [> LEG 9.10]

Study:



- 1 We add *-ing* to most verbs, without changing the base form: *wait/waiting*:
Wait for me. → *I am **waiting** for you.*
- 2 If a verb ends in *-e*, omit the *-e* and add *-ing*: *use/using*:
Use a broom. → *I am **using** a broom.*
- 3 A single vowel followed by a single consonant doubles the final consonant: *sit/sitting*:
Sit down. → *I am **sitting** down.* [> compare 6.5A]
- 4 We double the last consonant of two-syllable verbs when the second syllable is stressed:
begin/beginning. Compare the unstressed final syllable: *'differ/'differing*:
Begin work. → *I am **beginning** work.*
- 5 *-ic* changes to *-ick*: *picnic/picnicking*; *-ie* changes to *-y*: *lie/lying*:
Lie down. → *I am **lying** down.*

Write: Add *-ing* to the verbs in these sentences.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 I'm <i>making</i> the beds. (make) | 4 I'm always things. (forget) | 7 I'm the 9.04. (catch) |
| 2 I'm a sandwich. (eat) | 5 I'm on my coat. (put) | 8 I'm of thirst. (die) |
| 3 I'm a letter. (write) | 6 I'm abroad. (travel) | 9 I'm your case. (carry) |

9.2B Uses of the present progressive tense: 'I am working/he is working'

[> LEG 9.11]

Study:



- There are four basic uses of the **present progressive tense**. We use it for:
- 1 Actions in progress at the moment of speaking: **He's working at the moment.**
 - 2 Temporary situations/actions, not necessarily in progress at the moment of speaking:
*My daughter **is studying** English at Durham University.*
 - 3 Planned actions (+ future adverbial reference): **We're spending next winter in Australia.** [> 9.9A]
 - 4 Repeated actions with adverbs like *always, forever*: **She's always helping people.**

Write:

- a** Use the present progressive in the sentences below.
b Number the sentences 1, 2, 3 or 4 to show uses of the present progressive.

- 1 Don't rush me. *I am working. (1)* as fast as I can. (I/work)
- 2 What ? It looks awful. (you/drink)
- 3 to see the boss. (She/still wait)
- 4 to catch his train. (He/hurry)
- 5, aren't you? Calm down! (You/constantly/panic)
- 6 more and more politically aware these days. (Young people/become)
- 7 What nowadays? (John/do) – for the British cycle team. (He/ride)
- 8 our holiday here very much. (We/enjoy)
- 9 people by asking personal questions. (He/always/upset)
- 10 What time tomorrow? (he/arrive)
- 11 to lock the front door. (She/forever/forget)
- 12 treatment on my bad back for a few weeks. (I/have)
- 13 You can't believe a word he says. (He/always/lie)
- 14 the 1,500 metres in the next Olympics. (She/run)

9.2C The simple present and the present progressive tenses in typical contexts [> LEG 9.12]

Write:

- a** Use the correct present tense form.
b Say what the context for each extract could be, written and/or spoken.
- Let me explain what you have to do. First you (take) *take* the photos and (sort) *sort* them into categories. Then you (file) *file* them according to subject.
 - We (hope) you (enjoy) this marvellous weather as much as we are. We (sunbathe) and (go) swimming every day. Next week we (go) snorkelling.
 - The play is set in London in 1890. The action (take) place in Sir Don Wyatt's mansion. When the curtain (go) up, the hero and heroine (sit) in the lounge. They (argue)
 - The house is in a mess because we've got the workmen in. The plumber (put) in a new bath, the electricians (rewire) the system, and the carpenter (build) us some new bookshelves!
 - Dear Jane,
Sorry to hear about your problem at work I (think) you (do) the right thing, but I (doubt) whether your boss really (know) his job from what you (tell) me!
 - Pym (pass) to Smith, who (run) straight at the central defence and (shoot), and Gomez (push) it over the bar for a corner.

9.2D Context

Write: Put in the simple present or present progressive. Note where both forms are possible.



A HOLIDAY JOB WITH A DIFFERENCE!

I (study)¹ *am studying* English at Exeter University. I'm on holiday at the moment and I (work)² in a public library. I'm lucky to have this job. I (not have to)³ get up early. The library (open)⁴ at 10 and (close)⁵ at 7. It's interesting work because people (always come in)⁶ and (ask)⁷ me to help them, so I (learn)⁸ a lot about different subjects. I (enjoy)⁹ the job and (find)¹⁰ it very amusing, too. People (use)¹¹ the strangest things as bookmarks. I have found a rasher of bacon (uncooked!). Matchsticks (be)¹² common and so (be)¹³ bus tickets. My colleagues (always find)¹⁴ things too – even a £10 note, but I haven't been so lucky! I often (think)¹⁵ of the photo of a beautiful woman which I found. On the back were the words: 'I (love)¹⁶ you. I (miss)¹⁷ you and I'll never forget you.'

The strangest bookmarks!

9.3 The simple past tense

9.3A The past form and pronunciation of regular verbs [> LEG 9.14, App 39]

Study:

★★

- Regular verbs always end with a *-d* in the simple past, but we do not always pronounce the *-d* ending in the same way. We usually add *-ed* to the base form of the verb:
I play – I played, I open – I opened. We do not pronounce *-ed* as an extra syllable. We pronounce it as /d/: *I played* /pleɪd/ Not * /pleɪ-ɪd/ *; *I opened* /əʊpənd/ Not * /əʊpənɪd/ *; *I arrived* /əraɪvd/ Not * /əraɪvɪd/ *; *I married* /mæɪrɪd/ Not * /mæɪrɪ-ɪd/ * [compare > 2.5A].
- Verbs which end in the following sounds are pronounced /t/ in the past: /k/ *packed*; /s/ *passed*; /tʃ/ *watched*; /ʃ/ *washed*; /f/ *laughed*; /p/ *tipped*.
- A few verbs are pronounced and spelt /d/ or /t/: *burned/burnt, dreamed/dreamt*.
- Verbs ending in the sounds /t/ or /d/ have their past ending pronounced /ɪd/:
added, decided, counted, excited, needed, posted, shouted, started, tasted, wanted.

Write:

- Give the past forms of these regular verbs.
- Show whether you would pronounce these past forms as /d/, /t/ or /ɪd/.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 We <i>waited</i> an hour yesterday. (wait) /t/ | 10 I TV all evening. (watch) / / |
| 2 Joan her room on Friday. (clean) / / | 11 We when we saw them. (laugh) / / |
| 3 I squash last night. (play) / / | 12 He the sergeant's orders. (obey) / / |
| 4 She my letter yesterday. (post) / / | 13 We into the house. (hurry) / / |
| 5 I at her. (smile) / / | 14 You to me! (lie) / / |
| 6 She when she saw me. (stop) / / | 15 I early yesterday. (finish) / / |
| 7 I of you last night. (dream) / / | 16 It's in the bill. (include) / / |
| 8 Who the cakes? (burn) / / | 17 I the door before I left. (lock) / / |
| 9 He a lot as a baby. (cry) / / | 18 We first class. (travel) / / |

9.3B Irregular past forms [> LEG 9.15-16, App 40]

Study:

★

- Some irregular verbs have the same form in all parts: *hit-hit-hit, cut-cut-cut*.
- Some change one part only: *keep-kept-kept, make-made-made, sell-sold-sold*.
- Some change two parts: *break-broke-broken, know-knew-known, ride-rode-ridden*.

Write: Supply the past forms of the irregular verbs in italics.

- I often *see* Giulio. I *saw* him again only yesterday.
- As teenagers, we always each other very well. We still *understand* each other now.
- I hardly Ray's wife. Did you *know* her at all?
- We always *meet* on Sunday. We last Sunday as usual.
- I often *find* things on the beach. I this very old bottle yesterday.
- Someone's always *leaving* that window open. Who it open this time?
- I a lot of letters when I was young. I hardly ever *write* letters now.
- They *sell* all kinds of rubbish now, but they once good handmade furniture.
- She *is* very good at figures, you know. She first in maths at school.
- I *have* the same car now that I five years ago.
- I don't *keep* pets now, but I a dog when I was a boy.
- Where did you *eat* last night? – We at a restaurant.

9.3C Uses of the simple past tense: 'I worked/he worked' [> LEG 9.17-18]

Study:
★★

We use the **simple past** to talk about events, actions or situations which happened in the past and are now finished. We always have to say (or imply) **when** the action happened, so we often use time references like *yesterday, ago, last summer* [> 7.2A].

We use the past:

- to describe actions which happened in the recent or distant past:
*Sam **phoned a moment ago**.* (Not **Sam has phoned**) [> 9.5A]
*The Goths **invaded Rome in A.D. 410**.* (Not **The Goths had invaded**) [> 9.6]
- to describe past habit: *I **smoked forty cigarettes a day** till I gave up.* [compare > 11.11]

If we do not use time references (*a moment ago, when I was young, etc.*) we imply them:
*I **saw** Fred in town.* (i.e. when I was there this morning)
*I **never met** my grandfather.* (i.e. perhaps he died before I was born)

Write: Give complete answers to these questions using the time references in brackets.

- 1 How long ago did you work as a civil servant? (five years ago)
I worked as a civil servant five years ago.
- 2 When did you last play football? (when I was 14)

- 3 When did the Carters leave for their summer holiday? (last night)

- 4 What time did John arrive? (at 4)

- 5 When did you last see 'Gone with the Wind'? (recently)

- 6 How long did you wait at the airport? (till they arrived)

- 7 When did Sally tell you about her engagement? (when she was here)

9.3D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the simple past tense of the verbs in brackets.



... red eyes and green scaly skin

LIZARDMAN

Christopher Davis, a young driver from South Carolina, (*claim*)

1 *claimed* a monster (*attack*) 2 him while he was driving along a lonely road. The monster (*be*) 3 seven feet tall and (*have*) 4 red eyes and green, scaly skin. It (*chase*) 5 Christopher's car and (*jump*) 6 on the roof. Many people (*believe*) 7 the story and the newspapers (*call*) 8 the monster 'Lizardman'. Seventy hunters recently (*set out*) 9 to trap Lizardman and a local radio (*offer*) 10 \$1 million to anyone who (*capture*) 11 him dead or alive. Lizardman had so much publicity that thousands of people (*visit*) 12 South Carolina to find him. No one has found him yet. As everyone knows, monsters may or may not exist, but they are very good for the tourist industry!

9.4 The simple past and past progressive tenses

9.4A Irregular verbs with the same form in the present as in the past: 'put/put' [> LEG 9.16]

Study:

★★

A small number of irregular verbs have the same form in the present as in the past: e.g. *burst/burst, cost/cost, cut/cut, hit/hit, put/put*. We have to remember, especially with such verbs, that the third person singular does not change in the past:

He put on a clean shirt yesterday. (past) He puts on a clean shirt every day. (present)

After *I, you, we, and they*, the context or the adverbial tells us the tense:

I put on a clean shirt yesterday. (past) I put on a clean shirt every day. (present)

Write: Do these sentences refer to the present or the past? Write 'present' or 'past'.
In a few cases both references are possible.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 That shirt cost me £7.00. <i>past</i> | 8 She often hit him. |
| 2 He often cuts himself. | 9 He shut the door with a bang. |
| 3 She hurt her arm. | 10 I hurt my arm yesterday. |
| 4 He let me drive his car. | 11 I often let him drive my car. |
| 5 She reads a lot. | 12 She always beat him at tennis. |
| 6 I set the table every morning. | 13 The BBC broadcasts every day. |
| 7 I set the table an hour ago. | 14 The BBC broadcast the talk yesterday. |

9.4B Uses of the past progressive tense: 'I was working' [> LEG 9.20]

Study:

★★

There are five basic uses of the **past progressive tense**. We use it for:

- Temporary actions in progress in the past: *I was living abroad in 1987*.
We often use *all* to emphasize continuity (*all day, all summer*): *It was raining all night*.
- Actions which were in progress when something else happened:
Just as/When I was leaving, the phone rang.
These are often introduced by conjunctions like *when, as, just as* and *while*, but the shorter action can be introduced by *when*: *We were having supper when the phone rang*.
- Actions in progress at the same time: *While I was reading, Joan was playing the piano*.
- Repeated actions with e.g. *always*: *When I worked here, I was always making mistakes*.
- Polite inquiries: *I was wondering if you could give me a lift*.

Write: Use the past progressive in the sentences below.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 I ... <i>was not listening</i> ... , so I missed what he said. (not listen) | 8 when I left? (you still work) |
| 2 We stayed because we ourselves. (enjoy) | 9 I lived in France at the time you in Spain. (live) |
| 3 tennis yesterday? (they play) | 10 When she was younger, she things for other people. (always do) |
| 4 He all weekend. (garden) | 11 Bill and Sue their house, before they moved. (constantly improve) |
| 5 television all evening? (you watch) | 12 when I rang you? (you read) |
| 6 It hard all day. (rain) | 13 Just as I to an interesting part of the story, the doorbell rang. (get) |
| 7 I whether you could lend me some money. (wonder) | |

9.4C The simple past and the past progressive in story-telling [> LEG 9.21]

Study:

★★

We often use past tenses (simple past, past progressive and past perfect [> 9.6]) for story-telling. We use the past progressive to set the scene at the beginning of the story.

Write:

- a Circle the simple past and the past progressive verbs in this story.
b Number the past progressive verbs 1, 2, 3 to show their uses [> 9.4B].

THE SECRET AGENT

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 letter, which was signed, 'A Friend', asked Tom to go to The Crown Inn during his lunch hour. All morning, as he was dealing with customers, Tom was wondering whether he should do this. At lunch time he decided to go to the inn. It was full of people and Tom couldn't recognize anyone. He was just wondering if he should leave, when a stranger introduced himself and said he had known Tom's father, who had died when Tom was a baby. The stranger explained that Tom's father, Bill, was a secret agent in the First World War. Through this meeting, Tom was recruited to be a secret agent, too, and was already working in France when the war began.

9.4D Context

Write: Put in the simple past or past progressive. Note where both forms are possible.

TUG-OF-WAR WITH A HEDGEHOG

Mrs May, our District Nurse, (*drive*) ¹ *was driving* home at 3 a.m. one night after an urgent visit to a sick patient. She (*drive*) ² along a deserted country lane, when she (*see*) ³ a new kind of animal. She (*stop*) ⁴ her car and (*get out*) ⁵ The animal (*be*) ⁶ clearly visible in the blaze of her headlights. It (*look*) ⁷ like a hedgehog with a tall white hat. It (*cross*) ⁸ the road without paying any attention to Mrs May. When Mrs May (*go*) ⁹ close to it, she (*notice*) ¹⁰ that there was a plastic yoghurt pot on the hedgehog's head. The poor creature had got its head stuck in the plastic pot! Her instincts as a nurse (*tell*) ¹¹ her she would have to rescue it, so she (*pull*) ¹² at the pot, but the hedgehog (*pull*) ¹³ , too. After a struggle, she (*pull*) ¹⁴ the pot off the hedgehog's head. Mrs May (*think*) ¹⁵ the hedgehog (*look*) ¹⁶ rather sad, when she (*notice*) ¹⁷ that the pot was half full of strawberry yoghurt. She (*give*) ¹⁸ it back to the hedgehog. The creature (*seize*) ¹⁹ it, (*put*) ²⁰ it on its head again, and triumphantly (*continue*) ²¹ its journey across the road.



A hedgehog with a tall white hat

9.5 The simple present perfect and present perfect progressive

9.5A Uses of the simple present perfect tense: 'I have eaten/he has eaten'

[> LEG 9.22-27]

Study:

★★

There are two basic uses of the **simple present perfect tense**. We use it to describe:

- 1 Actions beginning in the past and continuing up to the present moment:
 - with time references like *before (now), ever, never ... before, up till now, so far*.
*I **have received** 20 cards so far. I **have never tasted** papaya (before).*
 - with *since/for*. *I've **lived** here since 1980. I've **lived** here for 20 years.* [> 7.3A]
- 2 Actions which happened at an unspecified time in the past:
 - with no time reference at all: ***Have you passed** your driving test?*
(Depending on context, this could mean 'very recently' or 'at any time up to now'.)
 - with references to recent time, like *just, recently, already, still, yet*. *I've **just eaten**.*
 - repeated/habitual actions: *I've **watched** him on TV **several times**. I've **often met** her.*

Write: Supply the simple present perfect tense of the verbs in brackets.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 Up to now <i>ive visited</i> twenty countries. (visit) | 11 They a new car. (buy) |
| 2 He six letters so far. (type) | 12 He all over the world. (travel) |
| 3 couscous? (you ever eat) | 13 your promise? (you forget) |
| 4 They like this before. (never quarrel) | 14 I an elephant. (ride) |
| 5 I to Marco since 1989. (not write) | 15 She in from Rome. (just fly) |
| 6 We there since we were young. (not be) | 16 She a director. (recently become) |
| 7 I saw her in May, but her since. (not see) | 17 They to me. (already speak) |
| 8 She the same car for fifteen years. (drive) | 18 I my tea yet. (not drink) |
| 9 I them for many years. (know) | 19 She still my letter. (not answer) |
| 10 She in that shop for ages! (be) | 20 I her several times. (met) |

9.5B The present perfect progressive tense: 'I have been eating' [> LEG 9.32-34]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use the **present perfect progressive** in place of the simple present perfect when we want to emphasize that something has been in progress throughout a period:
Instead of saying: *I've **typed** all day*, we can say, for emphasis, *I've **been typing** all day*.
Depending on context, this may mean *I'm still typing* or *I've just recently stopped*.
- 2 Some verbs like *learn, lie, live, rain, sit, sleep, stand, study, wait, work*, naturally suggest continuity [> 7.3B] and we often use them with *since* and *for* [> 7.3A].
We can use them in the simple present perfect tense:
*I've **waited** here for two hours. I've **worked** here since 1987.*
But we most often use them in the progressive:
*I've **been waiting** here for two hours. I've **been working** here since 1987.*

Write: Supply the present perfect progressive tense of the verbs in brackets.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 I'm tired. I <i>have been digging</i> all day. (dig) | 6 You're out of breath.? (you run) |
| 2 How long here? (you wait) | 7 We here for twelve years. (live) |
| 3 I here since 6 o'clock. (stand) | 8 Your eyes are red. (You cry) |
| 4 How long Chinese? (you learn) | 9 How long? (the children sleep) |
| 5 She English for five years. (study) | 10 What all afternoon? (you do) |

9.5C The simple present perfect and the present perfect progressive compared [> LEG 9.34]

Study:

★★

The simple present perfect and the progressive forms mean different things here:
I've been painting this room. It will look good when it's finished. (the job is unfinished)
I've painted this room. Doesn't it look good? (the job is definitely finished)

Write:

Supply the simple present perfect or the present perfect progressive.

- 1a I *I've typed* all your letters. The job's done. (type)
 1b I this report since yesterday and I'm only half way through. (type)
 2a Your mother is still in the kitchen. She all morning. (cook)
 2b I a lovely meal which I'll be serving in a couple of minutes. (cook)
 3a We this garage ourselves and have just begun to use it. (build)
 3b We this garage ourselves and hope to finish it within the next two months. (build)

9.5D The simple past and the simple present perfect compared [> LEG 9.23, 9.26.1]

Study:

★★

With the **simple past** we have to say or imply **when** something happened [> 7.3A, 9.3C]:
I finished the job yesterday/an hour ago, etc. (Not **I have finished the job yesterday.*)
 With the **present perfect**, we do not say 'exactly when': *I have finished the job*.
 Even if we say *I have just finished the job*, we are still not saying 'exactly when' [> 9.5A].

Write:

Supply the simple past or the simple present perfect in these pairs of sentences.

- 1a She *never read* a book until she was 25. (never read)
 1b She is 80 and a book in her life. (never read)
 2a I lunch an hour ago. (have)
 2b I lunch. (just have)
 3a to the bank yet? (he go)
 3b to the bank at lunch time? (he go)

9.5E Context

Write:

Put in the simple present perfect, the present perfect progressive or the simple past.

THE AUSTRALIAN SALUTE

Before I (visit) ¹ *visited* Australia, an Australian friend in London (tell) ² me I'd learn 'the Australian salute'. 'What's that?' I (ask) ³ 'You'll find out when you get there,' he (say) ⁴ I (arrive) ⁵ in Perth last week. Since then, I (stay) ⁶ at a nice hotel near a beautiful beach. I (never visit) ⁷ Australia before and I am enjoying my stay. I (swim) ⁸ every day from the time I (arrive) ⁹ Yesterday, an Australian friend (suggest) ¹⁰ a tour into 'the bush'. I (agree) ¹¹ at once. The first thing I (notice) ¹² when we (be) ¹³ in the bush (be) ¹⁴ the flies. After a while I (remember) ¹⁵ the conversation I had had in London before I (come) ¹⁶ here. 'What's the "Australian salute"?' I (ask) ¹⁷ suddenly, as I waved my right arm to keep the flies away. 'That's it!' my friend said as he (wave) ¹⁸ back!



I waved my right arm

9.6 The simple past perfect and past perfect progressive tenses

9.6A Uses of the simple past perfect tense: 'I had worked' [> LEG 9.29-30]

Study:

★★

1 When we have two past references, we are not obliged to use the simple past perfect:
After I finished work, I went home. (simple past + simple past)

2 But we often need the past perfect for the event that happened first to avoid ambiguity:
When I arrived, Ann left. (i.e. at that moment)
When I arrived, Ann had left. (i.e. before I got there)

We use the past perfect to refer to 'an earlier past', that is to describe the first of two or more actions: **First** the patient died. **Then** the doctor arrived.

The patient had died when the doctor arrived.

We often introduce the past perfect with conjunctions like *when, after, as soon as, by the time that*. We use adverbs like *already, ever, never ... before*.

Write: Supply the simple past or the simple past perfect. Show when both are possible.

- 1 They *locked/had locked* the gates before I *got* there. (lock, get)
- 2 By the time we _____, the party _____ (arrive, finish)
- 3 I _____ the shop as soon as I _____ the contents of the box. (ring, check)
- 4 After we _____ it on the phone, I _____ him a letter about it. (discuss, write)
- 5 We _____ a good rest when our guests _____ (have, all leave)
- 6 When she _____ the office this morning, Jim _____ (ring, already go out)
- 7 Before we _____ Tim to the theatre, he _____ a stage play before. (take, never see)
- 8 I _____ the carpet when the dog _____ in and _____ himself. (just clean, come, shake)
- 9 He _____ to do the job in an hour, but he still _____ by 10 o'clock. (promise, not finish)

9.6B Uses of the present and past perfect progressive: 'I have/had been working' [> LEG 9.32-33]

Study:

★★

The past perfect progressive is the 'past' form of the present perfect progressive. [> 9.5B]
The progressive forms have the effect of emphasizing continuity.

1 We use them to describe actions in progress throughout a period:

present perfect progressive: *She is very tired. She has been typing all day.*

past perfect progressive: *She was very tired. She had been typing all day.*

Depending on context, she was still typing, or had recently stopped. (*then*, not now)

2 Some verbs like *learn, lie, live, wait, work*, naturally suggest 'continuity' [> 7.3B, 9.5B]:

We say: *I've waited for two hours.* (simple present perfect)

Or: *I've been waiting for two hours.* (present perfect progressive)

We say: *I'd waited for two hours before he arrived.* (simple past perfect)

Or: *I'd been waiting for two hours before he arrived.* (past perfect progressive)

3 Repeated actions:

present perfect progressive: *He's been phoning every night for a month.*

past perfect progressive: *He'd been phoning every night for a month.*

4 Drawing conclusions:

present perfect progressive: *Her eyes are red. It's clear she's been crying.*

past perfect progressive: *Her eyes were red. It was clear she'd been crying.*

Write: Supply the present perfect progressive or the past perfect progressive tenses. Show where both are possible.

- 1 I was tired. I ... *had been digging* all day. (dig)
- 2 We for your call all evening. (wait)
- 3 How long there? (you wait)
- 4 I there since 6 o'clock. (stand)
- 5 She English for five years before she visited Canada. (study)
- 6 It started raining last Monday and it ever since. (rain)
- 7 I to the firm regularly for a month before, but they still hadn't answered. (write)
- 8 They me about it every day for the past week. (ring)
- 9 I knew you – How did you know? – Your hair was covered with paint! (paint)
- 10 You were out of breath when you came in this morning.? (you run)

9.6C The simple past perfect and past perfect progressive compared

[> LEG 9.34]

Study:

★★

The past perfect progressive can tell us that an action was uncompleted *then*:
When I got home, I found that Jill had been painting her room. [compare > 9.5C]
 The simple past perfect can tell us that an action was completed *then*:
When I got home, I found that Jill had painted her room.

Write: Supply the simple past perfect or the past perfect progressive.

- 1 We *had been cooking* all day for the party that evening and by 8 o'clock we still weren't ready. (cook)
- 2 John a beautiful meal for his guests and they all enjoyed it. (prepare)
- 3 I knew she the washing because the machine was still working when I got in. (do)
- 4 I knew she the washing because when I got in she was ready to go out. (do)
- 5 By 10 o'clock the children their homework and were ready to go to bed. (do)
- 6 The children their homework and by 10 o'clock they still hadn't finished. (do)

9.6D Context

Write: Put in the past perfect simple or progressive or the simple past. Give alternatives where possible.



COOKING THE BOOKS?

Old Mr Williams was very concerned. He and his wife were pensioners and he (spend) ¹ *had spent* the whole morning looking for their pension books. He (look) ² everywhere, but he (not be able) ³ to find them. Meanwhile, his wife (be) ⁴ busy. She (cook) ⁵ all morning. She (prepare) ⁶ a delicious meal. She (make) ⁷ soup, followed by a lovely pie, which she (bake) ⁸ in the oven. Mr Williams (always enjoy) ⁹ his food, but he clearly wasn't enjoying his lunch. 'What's the matter, Tom?' his wife asked. Mr Williams (have to) ¹⁰ confess that he (lost) ¹¹ their pension books. 'I know,' Mrs Williams (say) ¹² with a twinkle in her eye. 'I've got them'. 'You've got them?' 'Yes – and guess where I (find) ¹³ them!' Mr Williams suddenly remembered. 'In the oven! I (put) ¹⁴ them there for safe-keeping.' He (smile) ¹⁵ with relief as she (fish) ¹⁶ them out of her apron pocket!

He wasn't enjoying his lunch

9.7 The simple future tense

9.7A Some uses of 'will' and 'shall' [> LEG 9.37, 11.23, 11.38-40, 11.73]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Will* and *shall* are 'modal verbs', so they are like *can*, *must*, etc. [> Chapter 11].
- 2 We often use *will* and *shall* to make predictions (**the simple future tense**):
It will rain tomorrow. I don't know if I shall see you next week.
- 3 We use *will* and *shall* in many other ways, apart from predicting the future: e.g.
- intentions/promises [> 9.8A]: ***I'll*** (= I will) ***buy*** you a bicycle for your birthday.
 - requests/invitations [> 11.6D]: ***Will you hold*** the door open for me, please?
 - offers [> 11.6E]: ***Shall I get*** your coat for you?
 - suggestions [> 11.6F]: ***Shall we go*** for a swim tomorrow?
 - threats: ***Just wait! You'll regret*** this!
 - decisions [> 9.9A]: ***I'll stop*** and ask the way.

Write: Match the sentences on the left with the functions on the right.

A

- 1 We'll have a thunderstorm tonight, I'm sure. a
- 2 Will there be a general strike? ___
- 3 I'll send you a card from Florida. ___
- 4 Will you write to me? ___
- 5 Shall I go to the post office for you? ___
- 6 Shall we take a drive into the country later? ___
- 7 I'll report you to the police next time. ___
- 8 The wedding will take place next Friday. ___
- 9 I hope you'll come and see us again. ___
- 10 Tell them again. Perhaps they'll understand. ___
- 11 Will you have lunch with us on Sunday? ___
- 12 I'll be seeing John at the meeting tomorrow. ___

B

- a) making a formal announcement
- b) making a request
- c) stating a planned arrangement
- d) making a prediction
- e) making an invitation
- f) asking for a prediction
- g) promising/stating intention
- h) expressing future hope
- i) expressing future uncertainty
- j) threatening
- k) offering
- l) making a suggestion

9.7B 'Will' and 'shall' to refer to the future [> LEG 9.35-37]

Study:

★★

Forms of 'will' and 'shall'

- 1 When we are referring to the future, we use *will* with all persons (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, etc.), but in British English, we often use *shall* with *I/we*. (Not **he/she/it/you/they shall**):
I/We will (I'll/We'll) see you tomorrow. Or: ***I shall/We shall see you tomorrow.***
- 2 In speech, we weaken *shall* to /ʃəl/. We often use 'll in place of *will* in speech and sometimes in writing, especially after vowels: ***I'll/He'll see you tomorrow.***
We also use 'll after consonants: ***Tom'll be here soon. When'll I see you?***
- 3 Negative short forms are: 'll not, won't (= will not) or shan't (= shall not):
I'll not be there/I won't be there/I shan't be there tomorrow.
In American English *shall* and *shan't* with a future reference are rare.

Uses of the 'will/shall' future

- 1 Prediction: We invite prediction or we say what we think will happen:
Who will win on Saturday? Tottenham will win on Saturday.
- 2 In formal style we say what will happen for events that have been arranged:
The wedding will take place at St Andrew's on June 27th.
- 3 We use *shall* and *will* to express hopes and expectations:
I hope she'll get the job she's applied for. She'll get a surprise. – I expect she will.

Write: Supply suitable forms of *will* and *shall*. Give alternatives where possible.

Situation: Jim is asking his friend Don for advice about a job interview.

JIM: What sorts of questions do you think they ¹.....*u/will*..... ask?

DON: The same as they asked me. They ²..... ask you why you want to work for them.

JIM: That's easy. I want to earn more money.

DON: Yes, but you can't say that. You ³..... have to think of some better reasons.

JIM: I can't think of any just now, but I expect I ⁴..... think of something at the time. I hope I ⁵..... anyway!

DON: I'm sure you ⁶..... What time is your interview?

JIM: It's at three in the afternoon.

DON: I know it ⁷..... help very much, but I ⁸..... be thinking of you. Don't worry, everything ⁹..... be OK!

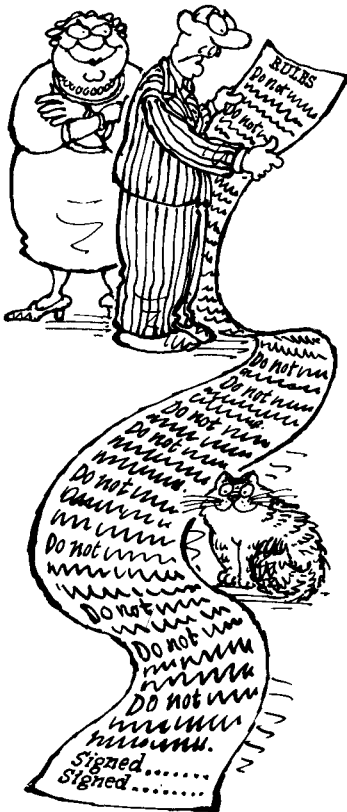
JIM: When ¹⁰..... I know if I've got the job?

DON: They ¹¹..... let you know in a couple of days. That's what happened in my case.

You ¹²..... get a letter which begins, 'We regret to inform you - !'

9.7C Context

Write: Put in suitable forms of *will* and *shall*.



RETIREMENT

I'm going to retire next week and I'm looking forward to it. For the first time in my life I ¹.....*shall*..... be able to do all the things I've always wanted to do. I ²..... (*not*) have to travel to work any more. I ³..... (*not*) have to earn a living. My firm ⁴..... pay my pension into my bank account and I ⁵..... (*not*) have to worry about earning money ever again. My wife and I ⁶..... be able to spend more time together. We ⁷..... take care of the house together. We ⁸..... do the shopping together. I explained all these plans to my wife. 'Of course,' she said. 'I'm looking forward to your retirement, too, but you must remember that while you can retire, I can't. I've written out some simple rules for us both which ⁹..... apply from the day you retire. Here they are:'

RULES OF THE HOUSE

- 1 We ¹⁰..... take turns to do the cooking and the housework.
- 2 We ¹¹..... (*not*) watch TV all day long.
- 3 We ¹²..... keep regular hours.
- 4 We ¹³..... find interesting hobbies to keep us occupied.
- 5 We ¹⁴..... spend time out of the house as well as in it.
- 6 We ¹⁵..... keep fit in mind and body.

'They look like sensible suggestions,' I said. 'They are,' my wife answered. 'If we follow these rules I'm sure we ¹⁶..... enjoy a long and happy life together.' 'I hope we ¹⁷.....', I answered.

If we follow these rules ...

9.8 The simple future, the future progressive, the future perfect

9.8A Simple future 'I will work' and progressive 'I will be working' compared

[> LEG 9.40-41]

Study:

★★

There are three basic uses of the **future progressive**:

- 1 We use it to emphasize actions that will be in progress in the near or distant future, especially when we imagine ourselves doing something:
*By this time tomorrow, I'll be lying on the beach. (Not *I will lie*)*
- 2 The progressive 'softens' the effect of *will* + verb and sounds more polite:
When will you finish these letters? (e.g. boss to assistant)
When will you be seeing Mr White? (e.g. assistant to boss)
If we say *I'll work on this tomorrow* we may be stating an intention.
If we say *I'll be working on this tomorrow*, we are simply referring to future time.
- 3 We use the future progressive like the present progressive for planned actions [> 9.2B]:
We'll be spending the winter in Australia is the same as:
We're spending the winter in Australia.

Write 1: Supply *will* + verb or *will be* + *-ing*. Where both are possible, see if you can 'feel' the different effect of the simple future compared with the progressive.

- 1 Sit down and fasten your seat belt. We *will take off* in a few minutes. (take off)
- 2 When to the bank to draw some money? (you go)
- 3 Do you think you here in five years' time? (still work)
- 4 They from Dover, not Folkestone. (sail)
- 5 The President the Prime Minister before flying back home. (meet)
- 6 So you're stopping off in Dubai on your way to Beijing. How long there? (you stay)
- 7 We to London next Monday morning. (drive)
- 8 By this time next year, I my memoirs. (write)
- 9 In five years' time a permanent space station the moon. (circle)
- 10 I don't think I him tonight. (see)

Write 2: Supply *will* + verb or *will be* + *-ing* – whichever 'feels' appropriate in this dialogue.

Situation: Susan and her family will be setting out on holiday tomorrow morning.



MEG: So you're off on holiday tomorrow. How exciting! What time (you leave) ¹...*will you be leaving*.....?

SUE: We (leave) ²..... the house at about 6 a.m.

MEG: 6 a.m.! Why so early? You don't have to check in till 9.45. You (arrive) ³..... at the airport terribly early!

SUE: I know, but the airport is very busy at this time of the year and we want to avoid the rush. We (check in) ⁴..... as quickly as we can, then we (have) ⁵..... breakfast at the cafeteria.

MEG: I'm sure that's wise of you. Imagine! By this time tomorrow evening you (lie) ⁶..... on the beach and I (do) ⁷..... the ironing or something!

SUE: I hope you're right! I hope we (not sit around) ⁸..... at the airport. You never know these days!

9.8B The future perfect simple and the future perfect progressive tenses

[> LEG 9.43-44]

Study:

★★

1 We often use the **future perfect simple** with *by* and *not ...till/until* [> 7.3B] to show that an action will already be completed by a certain time in the future.

We use it with verbs which point to completion, like *complete*, *finish* and *retire*:

I will have retired by the year 2020. I won't have retired till the year 2020.

2 We often use the **future perfect progressive** with verbs like *learn*, *lie*, *live*, *rain*, *sit*, *wait* and *work* which naturally suggest continuity [> 7.3B, 9.5B, 9.6B] to say that what is in progress now will be in progress in the future:

By this time next week, I will have been working on this book for a year.

Write: Supply the future perfect simple or progressive. Note where both are possible.

- 1 They *will have completed* the new bridge by the end of the year. (complete)
- 2 By the end of this week, I seventeen weeks for my phone to be repaired. (wait)
- 3 Do you realize that on August 15, we in this house for fifty years? (live)
- 4 I hope I this report by the end of the day. (finish)
- 5 She for work before the children get home from school. (leave)
- 6 We non-stop for fourteen hours before we get to Calcutta. (fly)
- 7 They work on the great dam by the end of this decade. (complete)
- 8 Radio waves from earth for light years before anyone picks them up. (travel)

9.8C Context

Write: Put in the simple future, the future progressive or the future perfect simple.

FLYING JUNK

By the middle of the 21st century we (build) ¹ *will have built* space stations which (circle) ² the earth and (probably circle) ³ the moon, too. We (establish) ⁴ bases on planets like Mars. At present, we use radar to 'watch' nearly 8,000 objects in space. In addition, there are at least 30,000 bits of rubbish from the size of marbles to the size of basket balls flying round the earth. These (increase) ⁵ in number by the year 2050 and (orbit) ⁶ the earth. All these bits and pieces are watched by NORAD (North American Radar Defence Command). NORAD (have) ⁷ more and more rubbish to watch as the years go by. Some bits fall back to earth, like the Russian satellite C954, which crashed in the Northern Territories of Canada in 1978. Crashing junk could give us a bad headache. Most of the stuff (stay) ⁸ up there (we hope)! The sad fact is that we who are alive today (not clear up) ⁹ our own junk tomorrow. Perhaps we (just watch) ¹⁰ from some other (safe) place as it goes round and round the earth!



Perhaps we'll be watching ...

9.9 'Going to' and other ways of expressing the future

9.9A Uses of the 'going to'-future compared with 'will' [> LEG 9.44-46]

Study:

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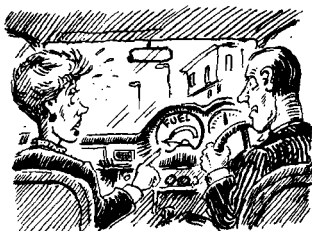
There are three basic uses of the 'going to'-future:

- 1 Predictions: We often use *going to* to predict the future, especially when we can see something that is about to happen: *Look out! She's going to faint.* (Not *will*)
Or we can describe something which we know will take place in the future:
Angus and Margaret are going to be married in May.
- 2 Intentions: We often use *going to* rather than *will* in informal style:
I'm going to practice the piano for two hours this evening.
I'm going to be successful one day.
- 3 Planned actions: We use *going to* like the present progressive or future progressive:
We're going to spend the winter in Australia.
Or: *We're spending the winter in Australia.* [> 9.2B]
Or: *We'll be spending the winter in Australia.* [> 9.8A]
- 4 We use *will* when we decide to do something at the moment of speaking:
We're lost. I'll stop and ask the way. (= I've just decided to do this.)

Write:

Supply *be going to* or *'ll* in this dialogue.

Situation: Mr Sims is driving. His wife is sitting beside him.



- HE: Where (we spend)¹ ~~we spend~~ *are we going to spend*... the night?
SHE: Cardiff. I've booked us in at the Angel Hotel. Why do you ask?
HE: That's another thirty miles away. We (run)²..... out of petrol before we get there. I (stop)³..... at the next filling-station.
Half an hour later.
SHE: This road goes on forever.
HE: We (get)⁴..... stuck. The car's stopping. We (have to)⁵..... walk.
SHE: Come on then. Perhaps someone (give)⁶..... us a lift.
HE: Not a filling-station in sight and look at those black clouds. It (rain)⁷.....
SHE: Look! A car's coming. I (wave)⁸..... to the driver.
HE: Oh good!. He's slowing down. He (stop)⁹.....

9.9B 'am/is/are to', 'be about to', 'be due to' [> LEG 9.47-48]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *to be to* for:
 - formal arrangements/duties: *OPEC representatives are to meet in Geneva in May.*
 - formal appointments/instructions: *Three tablets are to be taken twice a day.*
 - prohibitions: *You're not to tell him anything about our plans.*
- 2 *to be about to* refers to the immediate future:
Look! The race is just about to start.
- 3 We often use *to be due to* to refer to timetables:
The plane is due to land at 2.15.

Write: Supply the correct forms of the verb phrases in brackets.

- 1 The conference delegates *are to* meet again later today. (to be to)
- 2 You take these new tablets four times a day. (to be to)
- 3 They open their instructions until midnight. (not to be to)
- 4 You'll have to hurry. The train leave. (to be (just) about to)
- 5 I can't talk now. I go out. (to be (just) about to)
- 6 There's not much longer to wait. Their plane land in ten minutes. (to be due to)
- 7 Don't be so impatient. She is arrive until teatime. (not to be due to)

9.9C The future-in-the-past [> LEG 9.49-50]

Study:

★★

Sometimes we want to refer to events which were 'destined' or planned to take place in the past ('the future-in-the-past'). We use *was going to*, *was about to*, *was to* and *was due to*. We use these forms for:

- events we couldn't foresee: *They didn't know they **were to be reunited** ten years later.*
- events which were interrupted: *We **were just going to leave**, when Jean had an accident.*

We also use *would* for 'destiny' in story-telling:

*They had already reached 9,000 feet. Soon they **would reach** the top.*

Write: Supply suitable 'future-in-the-past' forms.

- 1 I *was to* meet them at the station at 4, but I was held up in the traffic.
- 2 She phone later, but she must have completely forgotten.
- 3 She was still young. She didn't realize she be world famous before she was 20.
- 4 He thought his life's work was finished. He didn't know he win the Nobel Prize.
- 5 The plane take off at 4.25, but it was delayed.

9.9D Context

Write: Supply suitable future forms (*will*, *going to*, etc.). Alternatives are possible.

THE ADVENTURES OF ORLIK

The plane had been privately hired to transport Orlik the bull from one part of the country to the other. 'What (do) *are we to do* with him, sir?' the co-pilot asked. 'We (*deliver*)² him to a farm in Wales,' the captain said. 'I (*just check*)³ the wooden crate,' the co-pilot said. A few minutes later, he reported that it looked safe. 'I've just heard from Ground Control,' the pilot said. 'Our flight (*be*)⁴ due in ten minutes. We (*take off*)⁵ from Runway Number 7.' Little did both men know how dramatic their flight (*be*)⁶ They couldn't have imagined that when they were in the air, Orlik the bull (*break*)⁷ loose from his crate and smash his way into the flight cabin! 'I (*take over*)⁸ , sir!' the co-pilot cried as the captain grabbed Orlik's nose-ring and pulled him away. The co-pilot made an emergency landing in a field. Both men jumped to safety, while Orlik crashed about inside the tiny plane, smashing everything to pieces!



Orlik the bull

9.10 The imperative

9.10A Some uses of the imperative to express different functions [> LEG 9.51-2]

Study:



- 1 We don't use the imperative just for 'giving orders'. We can use it e.g. for:
- offering: **Have another sandwich.**
 - prohibiting: **Do not walk on the grass.**
 - directing: **Take the next turning left.**
 - warning: **Look out! A bus is coming!**
- 2 We can make an imperative more polite or more urgent with *Do*. Compare:
- ordinary imperative: **Help yourself!**
 - polite imperative: **Do help yourself!**
 - negative imperative: **Don't help yourself!**

Write: Make these imperatives more polite or more urgent.

- 1 Have a cup of coffee. *Do have a cup of coffee.*
- 2 Make yourself at home.
- 3 Stop talking!
- 4 Hurry!
- 5 Try and ring us.
- 6 Help me with this letter.

9.10B The imperative to address particular people [> LEG 9.54]

Study:



- 1 When we say e.g. *Wait here!* we might be addressing one person or several. We are really saying 'You (singular or plural) wait here!'
- 2 If we want to speak to someone in particular, we can:
- add *you* (unstressed) for an instruction: **You wait here for a moment.** (= I want you to)
 - add *you* (stressed) to express annoyance: **You keep quiet!**
 - use *you* with (or without) a name: **You wait here, Henry.** Or: **Henry, you wait here.**
 - add *yourself/yourselfs* to verbs like *help, enjoy, behave*: **Help yourself!**
- 3 If we are talking to groups of people, we can use the imperative with:
- *everybody*: **Everybody keep quiet. Keep quiet, everybody.**
 - *somebody/nobody*: **Somebody answer the phone! Nobody say a word!**
 - *Don't .. anybody*: **Don't say a word, anybody! Don't anybody say a word!**

Write: Write these imperatives again to address particular people. Alternatives are possible.

- 1 Enjoy *Enjoy yourself./Enjoy yourselves.*
- 2 Try teaching 40 noisy children every day!
- 3 Make the coffee today! (Meg)
- 4 Turn off that TV!
- 5 Don't turn the lights on!
- 6 Carry this case! (John)
- 7 Sit down!
- 8 Have a short break!
- 9 Don't move!
- 10 (John) Post these letters!
- 11 Don't listen to her!
- 12 Enjoy (children)!

9.10C The imperative with question tags [> LEG 9.55]

Study:

★★★

We can make a request [> 11.6D] by adding a 'tag' like *will you?* to an imperative:

- 1 We add *will you?/won't you?/can't you?* to express annoyance: **Stop shouting, will you?**
 - 2 We add *would you?/could/can you?* for neutral requests: **Post this for me, would you?**
 - 3 We add *will you?/won't you?* for friendly offers: **Take a seat, will you?**
- We show our feelings not just by adding a tag, but through stress and intonation.

Write: Rewrite each request as an imperative + tag.

- 1 Will you stop whistling? *Stop whistling, will you?*
- 2 Can't you do something useful?
- 3 Won't you stop asking questions?
- 4 Could you post this letter?
- 5 Would you hold this bag?
- 6 Can you get me some stamps?
- 7 Won't you come in?
- 8 Will you take a seat?

9.10D Double imperatives joined by 'and' [> LEG 9.56]

Study:

★★

When we have two imperatives together, we join them with *and* (Not **to**):

Go and buy yourself a new pair of shoes. (Not **Go to buy**)

The only exception is *try*. We can say: **Try and help** or **Try to help**.

Write: Write double imperatives joined by *and* with the following.

- 1 Come/see *Come and see us soon.*
- 2 Try/lift it
- 3 Sit here/wait
- 4 Wait/see

9.10E Context

Write: Put in the missing imperatives.

ASK AVOID COME AND ASK DO KEEP MIND THINK! DON'T WASTE



The kitchen sink

THINK!

It's a case of ¹..... *DO*..... AS YOU'RE TOLD in our company! I work for a small firm and my boss is so *bossy* that we all call him 'Napoleon'. He doesn't mind a bit. Wherever you look in our building there's a notice of some kind. The first thing you see when you arrive is ²..... OFF THE GRASS! You come into the building and see ³..... THE STEPS! The walls are covered with advice. IF IN DOUBT ⁴..... ME! ⁵..... MAKING MISTAKES! ⁶..... ME FIRST! ⁷..... TIME! We have learnt to ignore this advice, but lately notices have begun to appear in every part of the building. We have a small kitchen at the back where we make coffee. Yesterday there was a new notice over the kitchen sink. It said: ⁸..... I was pleased to see it wasn't long before someone added another notice under it which said THOAP!

10 Be, Have, Do

10.1 'Be' as a full verb (1)

10.1A Some uses of the imperative of 'be': 'Be careful!' [> LEG 10.1, 10.5, App 41]

Study:
★★

- 1 *Be* is a 'helping' (or auxiliary) verb when it 'helps' other verbs, for example to form the present or past progressive [> 9.2B, 9.4B]: *He is reading. He was sleeping.*
- 2 *Be* is a full verb when we use it with nouns (*She's a teacher*) or adjectives (*She's tall*).
- 3 *Be* + noun or adjective in the imperative has limited uses.
We use *be* with nouns to mean 'act like': *Be a dear and answer the phone!*
or to mean 'become': *Be a better cook!* or 'pretend to be': *Be a monster, granddad!*
Don't be is more common: *Don't be silly! Don't be a fool!*
- 4 We use *be* only with adjectives that describe 'passing behaviour':
Be + careful, patient, quiet, etc. Don't be + careless, impatient, silly, etc.
But not with adjectives which describe 'states', like *hungry, thirsty, pretty.*

Write 1: Rephrase the words in italics using *be*.

- 1 *Act like* an angel and fetch my newspaper, please. *Be an angel!*
- 2 *Don't act like* a silly idiot!
- 3 The advertisement said: '*Become* the proud owner of a new sports car!'
- 4 *Don't become* a writer. You'll regret it.
- 5 You *play the part of* Batman and I'll *pretend to be* Robin.

Write 2: Using (*Do*) *be* ... or *Don't be* ..., what would you say to these people? Write two sentences for each, choosing from: *afraid, brave, careful, careless, critical, friendly, generous, mean, noisy, quiet.*

- 1 Some children who are making a lot of noise. *(Do) be quiet!*
- 2 Someone who has just broken a cup.
- 3 A friend who refuses to give any money to charity.
- 4 A friend who is always criticizing other people.
- 5 Someone who is afraid of going to the dentist.

10.1B The use of 'aren't' [> LEG 10.7n.3]

Study:
★★

The full form *Am I not* is rare. We use *Aren't I ...?* (Not **Amn't I!*) in:

- negative questions: *Am I not late? → Aren't I late?*
- negative Wh-questions: *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?* [> 13.3]

We use *aren't I* only in negative questions and negative question tags, never in negative statements: *I am not late. → I'm not late. (Not *I aren't late*)*

Write: Supply negative forms of *be*.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 1 You <i>aren't</i> cold, are you? | 5 We're late again, we? |
| 2 I'm right, I? | 6 They're French, they? |
| 3 You're American, you? | 7 He angry, was he? |
| 4 She's here already, she? | 8 You were early, you? |

10.1C 'Be' in the simple present and simple past [> LEG 10.6-9]

Study:



In the **simple present** and **simple past** we use *be* as a full verb with nouns and adjectives. Be careful of instances when English makes use of *be* where other languages sometimes don't. For example: ***I am hungry*** (Not **I have hunger**), ***It's cold*** (Not **It makes cold**)

Write: Supply *am, is, are, was, were* or *weren't*.

- 1 Her family name is now Jones, but it ~~was~~ Smith before she got married.
- 2 The name of the country previously Rhodesia, but it now Zimbabwe.
- 3 I hungry. – You can't be. We only had breakfast an hour ago.
- 4 It very cold and windy today, so wear a coat.
- 5 She a very nice woman, but her late husband a very unpleasant man.
- 6 This a beautiful blue dress. Buy it.
- 7 Today 23rd March: yesterday the 22nd.
- 8 I'm sure the twins 18 today: they 17 last year.
- 9 Whose these? – They Sue's, but she gave them to me, so they mine now.
- 10 Here, this book yours, and that one Jim's. They were both on the floor.
- 11 The other students here already. They all downstairs in the canteen.
- 12 The party next Saturday evening at Petra's house.
- 13 Mr James in? – No, I'm sorry, he here not long ago, but now he out.
- 14 Fred and Carmen at home when you called? – No, they, but they home now.
- 15 It quite foggy tonight, but it far worse last night.
- 16 It only 2 miles to the shops now. It 20 miles to any shops from our old house.
- 17 My ambition to start my own window-cleaning business, but it didn't work out.
- 18 Her dream to dance with the Royal Ballet Company.

10.1D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the verb *be*. Use contracted forms (e.g. *I'm*) where you can.



... her class of five-year-olds

YOU TRY TEACHING FIVE-YEAR-OLDS!

Yesterday, it ¹.....~~was~~ Mrs Ray's first day at school with her class of five-year-olds.

MRS RAY: Now, you ²..... Liz, ³..... you?

LIZ 1: Yes, I ⁴..... Liz

LIZ 2: I'm Liz, too, ⁵..... I?

MRS RAY: Yes. You ⁶..... Liz, too. You ⁷..... another Liz.

LIZ 2: I ⁸..... not Another Liz. I ⁹..... Liz.

MRS RAY: Of course. Well, Liz, ¹⁰..... a good girl and fetch some chalk from the cupboard.

BOY: ¹¹..... careful! Don't drop it!

MRS RAY: What ¹²..... your name?

BOY: I ¹³..... Don.

MRS RAY: Don ¹⁴..... a nice name. What do you want to ¹⁵..... when you grow up, Don?

DON: A racing driver. Brrrr, brrrr, brrrr ...!

MRS RAY: ¹⁶..... yourself again! (Brrrr! Brrrr!) Stop it, Don, or I'll tickle you. ¹⁷..... you ticklish?

DON: No, I ¹⁸..... Scottish!

10.2 'Be' as a full verb (2)

10.2A Progressive forms of 'be' for 'temporary behaviour' [> LEG 10.10-11, App 41]

Study:

★★

We use the progressive forms (*he is being/he was being*) with adjectives that describe 'passing behaviour' like *naughty* and *silly* [> 10.1A], not states, like *hungry* and *thirsty*. We often imply that this behaviour is deliberate: *He is being naughty*. We can use the progressive of *be* with a few nouns as well: *He's being a (silly) fool*.

Write: Tick the temporary behaviour in these sentences.

- 1 They're both being very greedy. ✓
- 2 They aren't normally greedy. ___
- 3 You're being a nuisance. ___
- 4 You aren't generally a nuisance. ___
- 5 He was being very childish at the party. ___
- 6 He isn't often childish at parties. ___

10.2B 'Has been', 'have been', 'had been' + adjectives and nouns [> LEG 10.12-13]

Study:

★★

The rules for the **present** and **past perfect** apply to *have been* and *had been* [> 9.5-6]. The actions or states begin in the past and continue into the present (*have been*) or they refer to an earlier past (*had been*). We use *was/were* when we have a time reference:

- behaviour/states/moods: *She's been very quiet. I said she had been very quiet.*
- the weather: *It's been very cold lately. I said it had been very cold lately.*
- professions, behaviour: *Have you ever been a teacher? She has been a real angel.*

Compare: *The baby was very quiet while you were out.* (the past + exact time reference)

Write: Supply *has*, *have* or *had*.

- 1 Your brother ~~has~~ been very annoying.
- 2 How long you been a bus conductor?
- 3 I been terribly tired lately.
- 4 She said she never been seasick before.
- 5 It been a beautiful day, hasn't it?
- 6 She been so good. She been an angel!
- 7 You said you been a teacher.
- 8 I been a real fool.

10.2C 'Have been' and 'have gone' [> LEG 10.13.4]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Have been* and *has been* have the sense of 'visit a place and come back':
Where have you been? – I've been home. (= and now I'm back)
- 2 *Have gone* and *has gone* have the sense of 'be at a place or on the way to a place':
Where's John? – He's gone home. (= he's either there now or on his way there)
- 3 *Have been* and *have gone* combine with *to* + noun [> 8.2A]:
I've been to a party. (= and I'm back) *John's gone to a party.* (= he's there/on his way)
Have been combines with *at* and *in* [> 8.2A]: *I've been at a meeting. I've been in Paris.*
- 4 *Have been* and *have gone* combine with adverbs like *out* and *away*:
I've been out/away. (= and I'm back) *John's gone out/away.* (= he's not here)
and with *home*. (Not **gone/been to home** and not **to the** to mean 'my own home').
Compare: *He's been/He's gone home.* (his own place) *He's been to the home of a friend.*

Write: Supply *have/has been* or *have/has gone*.

- 1 Isn't Jack here? – No, he *'s gone* home.
- 2 Where have you been? – I home.
- 3 The Smiths to Paris for the weekend and have just returned.
- 4 The Smiths to Paris for the weekend and are coming back on Monday.
- 5 It's nice to see you. I hear you away.
- 6 He doesn't live here. He away.
- 7 The boss won't be in the office till tomorrow. He to a meeting.
- 8 The boss wasn't here earlier, but he's back now. He at a meeting.

10.2D 'Have been' with 'since' and 'for' [> LEG 10.13.5]

Study:

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We often use *How long ...?* with *have been* in questions and we use *since/for* in answers:

- 1 **How long have you been a nurse?** – *I've been a nurse for nearly a year.*
I've been a nurse since January. [> 7.3A, 9.5A]
- 2 *Have been* can have the following meanings [> 9.5B]:
 - *have lived/have been living:* *I've been in this flat for five years.*
 - *have worked/have been working:* *Jane's been in the civil service since she was 23.*
 - *have waited/have been waiting:* *We've been outside the bank since 9.15.*

Write: What do *have been* and *has been* mean in these sentences?

- 1 She's been in the waiting-room for over an hour. *She has been waiting*
- 2 I have been with this company for most of my life.
- 3 We have been in this district since 1982.
- 4 How long have we been under this clock?
- 5 How long has Silvia been with this publishing company?
- 6 How long has your brother been in Australia?

10.2E Context

Write: Put in *have been*, *have gone*, *has been*, *is being* or *were*.



IT'S BEEN A WONDERFUL EVENING!

This is what Angela wrote in her diary last night:

Mr and Mrs Lucas ¹..... *have gone*..... to the theatre. They ²..... away for two hours now and I ³..... with Jenny. This is the first time I ⁴ (ever) a baby-sitter and I'm not finding it easy. Jenny is seven years old. She is very nice, but she ⁵..... a real nuisance. She won't stay in bed and she won't sit still. I really don't know what to do.'

This is what happened next:

Mr and Mrs Lucas ⁶..... home at 11.30. The house was very quiet and all the lights ⁷..... on. Jenny was sitting on the floor, playing with her toys. Her mother rushed up to her. 'Hullo, Jenny,' she said. 'Are you all right? I hope you ⁸ (not) naughty. Where's Angela?' 'She's sitting at the kitchen table,' Jenny answered. 'She ⁹..... asleep for the last two hours. She ¹⁰..... a very good girl. I've had a lovely time. It ¹¹..... a wonderful evening!'

'I've had a lovely time'

10.3 'There' + 'be'

10.3A 'There' + 'be' as a 'natural choice' [> LEG 10.19]

Study:



- 1 We use *there is*, etc. (Not **it has** or **it is**) when we are talking about or asking about the existence of people, things, etc. It is more 'natural' to say:
There's a man at the door. than to say: *A man is at the door.*
- 2 We use *there is*, *there was*, *there will be*, *there has been/had been* when we want to:
– announce or report events: ***There'll be a meeting tomorrow. There's been an accident.***
– set a scene for story-telling: ***There had been no rain for months. The earth was bare.***

Write:

- a** Tick the sentences which sound more idiomatic or 'natural'.
b Rephrase the unticked sentences using *There*.

- 1 There are two men at the door. ✓
- 2 A good clothes shop is not far from here. There is a good clothes shop not far from here.
- 3 There was an interesting article about that in yesterday's paper. _____
- 4 A photograph of that girl was in last week's magazine. _____
- 5 A new security system will be in operation from next week. _____
- 6 There'll be a lot of supporters at the match. _____
- 7 A public holiday is on May 1st. _____
- 8 A meeting between the two world leaders will be in Helsinki. _____

10.3B 'There is', etc. compared with 'it is', etc. [> LEG 10.20]

Study:



First we show existence with *There is*, then we use personal pronouns (*he*, *she*, *it* or *they*) to give more details:

There was a concert in our village last night. ('existence')

It (= The concert) was in the village hall. ('more details')

Note how this happens in the following sentences:

There's a bus coming, but it's full.

There's a man at the door. It's the postman. [compare > 3.4A, 4.1A]

There's a man at the door. He wants to speak to you.

There are some children at the door. They want to see Jimmy.

There's a van stopping outside. It's someone delivering something.

Write: Supply *there* and a personal pronoun (*it*, *he*, *she* or *they*) in the blanks.

- 1 There were a lot of people at the concert, and they all enjoyed it.
- 2 's a policewoman waiting to see you. 's in your office.
- 3 's a parcel here for you. I think 's that book you've been waiting for.
- 4 'll be a new boy in your class today. 's just arrived from Hong Kong.
- 5 has been a lot of argument about the plan. has all centred on traffic problems.
- 6 have been serious riots in this country. have all been about the price of food.
- 7 's a review in today's paper of the film we saw last night. 's very favourable.
- 8 's a dog in our garden. 's our next door neighbour's.
- 9 Is a route to the town centre from here and is more direct?
- 10 Are any applicants for the job and are suitable?

10.3C Combinations with 'there' + 'be' [> LEG 10.17, 10.21-2, 11.76]

Study:

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- 1 *There is, there are, there was* and *there were* are the most common combinations:
There's a phone call for you. ***There was*** a phone call for you this morning.
- 2 We also use *there* with different tenses, for example [compare > 11.13D]:
perfect tenses: ***There has (there's) been*** an accident.
*He said **there had (there'd) been** an accident.*
There haven't been many earthquakes in England.
future tenses: ***There will (there'll) be*** a letter for me tomorrow.
There'll have been an answer by Friday.
- 3 *There* also combines with *seem to be* and *appear to be*:
There seems to be a mistake in our bill. ***There appears to be*** no one in.

Write: Complete these sentences with the correct forms of *there + be* or *seem*.

- 1 *There was* an exhibition of Venetian glass last month.
- 2 days when I don't feel like going to work.
- 3 any letters for me today? – No, none. Oh, yes, sorry. some here.
- 4 anything I can do to help? – Yes, something. You can file those reports.
- 5 We'll have to rearrange the room. a lot more people here than we thought.
- 6 I've just driven down South Street. a terrible accident on the corner.
- 7 more jobs for everybody if more money is invested by large companies.
- 8 Where can I put these cherries? – my shopping bag. You can put them in there.
- 9 What did he say? – He said no news from Fred for months.
- 10 There's a big match on TV tonight, ?
- 11 to be fewer teaspoons in the drawer than there should be.
- 12 to be less money in my pay packet than I had expected.

10.3D Context

Write: Put in the correct combinations with *there* and *it*.



'I've never seen anything like this before'

WHERE TIME STOOD STILL

Miss Margaret White shut down her chemist's shop in the West of England in 1970, never to open it again. ¹*There had been* a chemist's shop in her family since the 19th century when ² (*first*) opened by her grandfather William. After Miss White's death, the auctioneers moved in. They couldn't believe their eyes. ³ an old-fashioned cash-register and ⁴ still old pennies in it. At the back of the shop ⁵ old medicine bottles covered with dust, and 127 little drawers. ⁶ full of herbal remedies. ⁷ unusual products like 'Allcocks Powder – Guaranteed Not to Contain Opium or Any Poison Whatsoever'. ⁸ a copy of a newspaper for April 16, 1912. ⁹ the issue that described the sinking of the Titanic. ¹⁰ (*never*) anything like this before and ¹¹ (*never*) again.' one of the auctioneers said.

10.4 Verbs related in meaning to 'be'

10.4A Certainty and uncertainty with 'be', 'seem', etc. [> LEG 10.23-24]

Study:

★★

- 1 These verbs have nearly the same meaning as *be*:
appear, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste, and also *chance/happen/prove to be*.
- 2 When we are certain about something, we use *be* or an ordinary verb:
He is ill. He knows the answer.
- 3 When we are uncertain about something, we can use 'modal verbs' [> 11.1C, 11.4]:
He may/might/could be ill. He may/might/could know the answer.
or we can use verbs related to *be*:

<i>He is ill.</i>	→	<i>He seems/appears (to be) ill.</i>
<i>He knows the answer.</i>	→	<i>He seems/appears to know the answer.</i>
<i>He was rich.</i>	→	<i>He seemed/appeared (to be) rich.</i>
<i>He is working hard</i>	→	<i>He seems/appears to be working hard.</i>
<i>He was working hard.</i>	→	<i>He seemed/appeared to be working hard.</i>
<i>He has been hurt.</i>	→	<i>He seems to have been/appears to have been hurt.</i>

Write: Rewrite these sentences using appropriate forms of *seem*.

- 1 They are very happy. *They seem (to be) very happy.*
- 2 He was a genius at maths.
- 3 She's finding the job difficult.
- 4 They were looking for something.
- 5 He's been knocked out.
- 6 It's very dark outside.
- 7 It's raining very hard outside.
- 8 My watch has stopped.

10.4B 'To be' or not 'to be'? [> LEG 10.25]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can leave out *to be* after *appear* and *seem* in the simple present and simple past:
He appears/seems (to be) ill. He seemed (to be) a fool.
- 2 We usually include *to be* before adjectives like *afraid, asleep* and *awake*:
They seem to be asleep. He seems to be afraid.
- 3 We cannot use *to be* after *feel, look, smell, sound* or *taste*:
He feels hot. You look cold. (Not **He feels to be hot.* *You look to be cold.**)

Write: Add *to be* where necessary in these sentences. Where you can't use *to be*, put a dash (-). Where *to be* is optional, put brackets (*to be*).

- 1 It seemed (*to be*) a good idea at the time.
- 2 These things often appear a little strange.
- 3 All the old people seem asleep.
- 4 Doesn't he look stupid in that hat?
- 5 I think it feels quite hot in here.
- 6 That goulash smells good, doesn't it?
- 7 The choir sounded very good to me.
- 8 She seemed to me too young for the job.

10.4C 'Process verbs' related to 'be' and 'become' [> LEG 10.26]

Study:

★★

- 1 Process verbs describe a change in state: *When I asked him about it, he grew angry.*
Typical process verbs are: *become, come, fall, go, get, grow, run, turn, wear.*
- 2 The most common process verbs are *get, become* and *grow*.
I'm getting tired. You're becoming lazy. It's growing dark.
We often use other verbs in fixed phrases: e.g. *come true, fall ill, go bad, run dry, turn sour.*
- 3 We often use *get + adjective*: *get annoyed, get bored, get depressed, get ill, get wet.*
- 4 Nouns are not so common after process verbs, but note *become* and *make*:
The ugly frog became a handsome prince. Cynthia will make a good nurse one day.

Write: Supply suitable forms of verbs other than *be* in these sentences.

- 1 When I *grow* old, I hope I'll have lots of grandchildren.
- 2 You must be very careful you don't ill when you're travelling.
- 3 I think this milk sour.
- 4 Food bad very quickly in hot weather.
- 5 It hasn't rained for months and our local river dry.
- 6 It's no good impatient every time I ask you a question. [> 16.7C]
- 7 She always wanted to retire before the age of 40 and her dream true.
- 8 I had to cut my trip short because I ill.
- 9 I must get these shoes repaired. The soles rather thin.
- 10 Don't you bored listening to political broadcasts?
- 11 My son is determined to a pilot when he grows up.
- 12 Personally, I think he'll a very good pilot.

10.4D Context

Write: Put in *appeared, became, feel, got, looked, looks, proves, seemed, seems* or *smelt*.



NOT AS INNOCENT AS IT SEEMS TO BE!

It was Katy's birthday last Thursday. Her husband, Paul, bought her a beautiful bouquet with what ¹..... *seemed* to be an unusual flower as the centre piece. Katy was delighted with the flowers. They ²..... wonderful and ³..... wonderful, too. Katy ⁴..... very excited when she saw the beautiful flower in the centre of the bouquet. She bent over to smell it when it ⁵..... to punch her in the nose! Paul was amazed. He ⁶..... so interested in the flower that he took it to the botanical gardens at Kew to find out about it. An expert examined the flower and told him that it was a kind of orchid called a Cymbidium. This flower seizes anything that ⁷..... like an insect so that it will carry its pollen. If you try to smell it, the Cymbidium will try to grab your nose! So next time you ⁸..... like sniffing a rare orchid, hold your nose – just in case it ⁹..... to be a Cymbidium. It's not as innocent as it ¹⁰..... to be!

This flower seizes anything

10.5 'Have' as a full verb = 'possess'; 'have got' = 'possess'

10.5A 'Have got' = 'own' and 'have got' = 'obtain' [> LEG 10.30]

Study:

★★

- 1 In British English, we often use *have* or *have got* to mean 'possess':
I have a new car. I have got a new car. (= I own, I possess a new car)
- 2 In British English, we also use *have (just) got* (American English *have gotten*) as the normal present perfect form of the verb *get* to mean 'have obtained' or 'have received':
I've just got(ten) a letter from Pam. (= I have just received)

Write: What does *have got* mean in these sentences? Tick the columns.

	'have received/obtained'	'possess/own'
1 I've just got a letter from Pam.	✓	—
2 I've got a black sweater.	—	—
3 They've got a villa near the beach.	—	—
4 They've just got a puppy.	—	—
5 Don't come near me. I've got a bad cold.	—	—
6 I think I've just got a cold!	—	—

10.5B Uses of 'have' and 'have got' to mean 'possess' [> LEG 10.30]

Study:

★★

- 1 We often use *have got* in place of *have* in the present:
I've got a good job. Have you got a good job? I haven't got a good job.
- 2 *Do you have?* and *I don't have* are also common especially in American English:
Do you have a good job? I don't have a good job.
- 3 We use the correct forms of *have*, not *have got*, in other tenses to mean 'possess':
I have had this car for three years. By June, I will have had this car for three years.
- 4 In other tenses, *have got* means 'obtained':
When I saw him, he had just got a new car. By May I will have got a new car.

Write: Replace the phrases in italics by a phrase with *have* or *have got*.

If you think it is possible to use *have* and *have got*, give two versions.

- 1 *They own* an apartment near the beach. *They have. / They've got an apartment.*
- 2 *I don't possess* a party dress.
- 3 *Do you possess* a motorbike?
- 4 *My uncle owned* a Rolls Royce once.
- 5 *I've owned* this bike for five years.
- 6 *We'll possess* a new apartment soon.
- 7 *I will have owned* this suit for ten years by my next birthday.
- 8 She said *she had possessed* the car for some time.
- 9 That's a marvellous little invention. *I must own* one.
- 10 If he can't hear very well, *he should own* a hearing-aid.
- 11 *Does your brother possess* a bicycle?
- 12 *Will you own* this house one day?
- 13 *Have you owned* this house for a long time?
- 14 *Do you own* a car?

10.5C Common uses of 'have' and 'have got' [> LEG 10.31]

Study:



We can use *have* and *have got* to say we own or possess something (*I have/I've got a car*). But note how we can extend this idea of 'possession':
I have/I've got a good dentist. I have/I've got an appointment at 4.30. etc.

Write: Supply correct forms of *have* and *have got*. Give alternatives where possible.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 Have you got ... a new car yet? <i>Do you have</i> | 13 I a good accountant. |
| 2 They a nice apartment. | 14 We a very good butcher. |
| 3 you any spare pencils? | 15 That's a smart suit he on. |
| 4 you today's newspaper? | 16 What she on last night? |
| 5 She ten dresses. | 17 I a temperature, I think. |
| 6 He plenty of money. | 18 When you last a cold? |
| 7 He long black hair. | 19 I a meeting in town today. |
| 8 This tree red leaves in autumn. | 20 She a date tonight. |
| 9 I (not) any faith in him. | 21 I no idea what to do. |
| 10 She (not) much patience. | 22 you a better suggestion? |
| 11 How many sisters you? | 23 You mud on your shoes. |
| 12 They three sons. | 24 She something in her eye. |

10.5D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of *have* or *have got*.



Ole Ez

OLE EZ

I work as a journalist and today I was lucky ¹.....*to have*... an interview with Ezra Pryme, the famous English eccentric. I say 'lucky', because Ole Ez (as the locals know him) ²..... (*not*) much time for the human race and he rarely ³..... visitors. Ole Ez is very rich and he ⁴..... an immense country house with a large garden. He ⁵..... a large family, but he never sees any of his children or grandchildren. 'I ⁶..... (*not*) any time for them,' he says. Ole Ez ⁷..... the largest collection of Art Deco objects in the world, but he is the only one who ever sees them. I knocked at the door of the mansion at exactly 3 p.m. Ez's butler opened the door for me. I was led through a large hall which ⁸..... all sorts of paintings on the walls and then into a library. I waited for a while and at last a very short man appeared. He ⁹..... white hair and twinkling grey eyes. He ¹⁰..... a beautiful green velvet suit on and a pink bow tie. He also ¹¹..... a smile on his face, which surprised me. As soon as he saw me, he held out his hand. Not expecting this, I hesitated for a moment. 'You can shake hands,' he said, 'I ¹²..... (*not*) any diseases! Mind the steps!' he cried, leading me down some steep steps. 'I don't say that to all my visitors, you know!'

10.6 'Have' as a full verb meaning 'eat', 'enjoy', etc.

10.6A 'Have' (= 'eat', 'enjoy', etc.) compared with 'have' (= 'possess')

[> LEG 10.32-36, App 42.1]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Have* can mean 'eat, enjoy, experience, drink, take', etc. In these senses, we use *have* like any other verb, in all tenses, including the progressive:
I'm having a drink. (= I'm drinking something at the moment)
 By comparison, *have* meaning 'possess' does not have progressive forms [> 9.1C]:
I have a drink. I have got a drink. (= e.g. I have one in my hand)
I have a car. I have got a car. (Not **I'm having a car.*)
- 2 In the simple present and simple past of *have* (= eat, etc.), we use *do, does* and *did* to form questions and negatives:
Do you have milk in your tea? (= Do you take ...?)
 Compare: ***Have you/Do you have/Have you got any milk in your tea?*** (= Is there any?)
- 3 Note how *have* can be both an auxiliary and a full verb in:
I have had my lunch. (= I have eaten)
He said he had had his lunch. (= He said he had eaten)

Write 1: Replace the words in brackets by a suitable phrase with *have got* or *have*.

- 1 (Do you take) sugar in your coffee? ... *Do you have*
- 2 (There are) some beautiful fir trees in their garden.
- 3 (We own) a new apartment.
- 4 (She takes) a hot bath the moment she comes home from work.
- 5 Would you like a coffee? – No, thanks. (I've just drunk) one.
- 6 (We enjoyed) a very pleasant evening with them.
- 7 (She's suffering from) a very bad cold.
- 8 (I receive) a letter from them about once a year.
- 9 (I don't often eat) breakfast.
- 10 (Are there) any large envelopes in your drawer?
- 11 They told me (they had enjoyed) a pleasant holiday.
- 12 What (did you eat) for breakfast this morning?

Write 2: Supply the correct forms of *have* in these sentences.

- 1 Please help yourself. *Have* another sandwich.
- 2 She never milk in her coffee.
- 3 Where's John? – Oh, he a long talk with Simon in the garden.
- 4 I a lovely cycle ride in the country last Sunday.
- 5 We dinner when a salesman came to the door.
- 6 I a lot of bad luck recently.
- 7 She German lessons for about two years now.
- 8 He already interviews for two other jobs before he came to see me.
- 9 She trouble with her back before she went to see a specialist.
- 10 Don't phone between 6 and 7. I a rest then.
- 11 They supper if you don't get there before eight o'clock.
- 12 By August he 25 years with this company.

10.6B Common 'have' + noun combinations [> LEG 10.37-39, App 42.1]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Have* combines with many nouns: *Let's **have lunch!** I've **had a good trip***, etc. We often use it in the imperative: **Have a sandwich! Have a good time!**
- 2 In place of common verbs like *to sleep* or *to swim*, we often prefer to use *have* + noun: Instead of: *I **danced twice** with Molly.* We can say: *I **had two dances** with Molly.*

Write 1: Make good sentences with *have* + the words in brackets.

- 1 (a meal) *We had an awful meal at the Station Hotel.*
- 2 (a dream)
- 3 (a haircut)
- 4 (an appointment)
- 5 (a good trip)
- 6 (a lovely day)
- 7 (a pain)
- 8 (a sense of humour)

Write 2: Rewrite these sentences with *have*.

- 1 Those twins are always fighting. *Those twins are always having fights.*
- 2 Look at this!
- 3 I want to rest this afternoon.
- 4 Can I ride in your car?
- 5 I talked to Jim about it.
- 6 Come and swim with us.
- 7 I must wash before lunch.
- 8 Sleep and you'll feel better.

10.6C Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of *have got* or *have*.



NOT A MAN OF STRAW!

Our neighbour, Mr French, ¹ *has (got)* ... a very large farm and he ² trouble with birds all his life. Birds eat his vegetable crops and cost him a lot of money, so Mr French has just bought a computerized scarecrow called Worzel. Worzel is more than two metres tall and ³ four legs. He ⁴ a round head and arms that swing from right to left. ⁵ Worzel any success?' I asked Mr French recently as I watched him ⁶ a walk in a vegetable field. 'He ⁷ a tremendous effect on birds,' Mr French said. 'Come and ⁸ a look at him. An ordinary scarecrow ⁹ a head full of straw, but Worzel ¹⁰ a brain!' Just then I heard a loud moan and saw a blinding flash. 'You ¹¹ (*not*) a dream,' Mr French said. 'He does this to frighten the birds!' Of course, there wasn't a bird in sight! 'I must leave now, Mr French,' I said as I saw Worzel coming towards me. 'I ¹² an appointment.' 'He's harmless,' Mr French said, but I wasn't going to wait to find out!

I saw Worzel coming towards me!

10.7 'Do' as a full verb

10.7A Forms and uses of 'do' as an auxiliary and as a full verb [> LEG 10.40-44]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *do* as an auxiliary verb to form questions and negatives in the simple present and simple past tenses: **Do you like Italian opera?** etc. [> 13.1]
- 2 *Do* is also a full verb meaning 'perform an activity or task'. We use it like any other verb in all tenses. This means *do* can be auxiliary verb and full verb at the same time:
*What **did** (auxiliary) you **do** (full verb) this morning? – I **wrote** a lot of letters.*
- 3 We often use *do* to avoid repeating a previous verb:
*The washing machine often **stops** suddenly. I don't know why it **does** that.*
- 4 *Do* can also mean 'be in the wrong place' in: *What are these clothes **doing** on the floor?*
- 5 We often use *do* + *-ing* for 'named tasks': *I've just **done the ironing**.*

Write 1: Match the phrases in column A with the phrases in column B.

- | A | B |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1 Do <u> </u> / | a) the same job for thirty years! |
| 2 She always does ___ | b) the job by the time I get back? |
| 3 Are you still doing ___ | c) 140 kilometres an hour. |
| 4 I did ___ | d) a great favour for me. |
| 5 They were still doing ___ | e) this time tomorrow? |
| 6 He's just done ___ | f) all the ironing by the time Sue came home. |
| 7 He's been doing ___ | g) the cleaning on Thursday. |
| 8 John had done ___ | h) quite a few little jobs yesterday. |
| 9 She had been doing ___ | i) the same job for ten years by next month. |
| 10 This car will do ___ | j) the same job? |
| 11 What will you be doing ___ | k) the housework when their guests arrived. |
| 12 Will you have done ___ | l) this exercise now, please. |
| 13 I will have been doing ___ | m) the gardening for an hour when she remembered she should have been at the bank. |

Write 2: Supply the correct forms of *do* in the sentences below.

- 1 What are you doing?? – What does it look like? I'm reading the paper.
- 2 She loves cooking, but she (never washes up)
- 3 Shall I make the beds? – No, that. Dust the furniture first.
- 4 What (that flowerpot/do) in the kitchen sink?
- 5 A lot of people in Britain (wash their clothes) on Mondays.
- 6 Cut the grass first. Then, when that, start weeding the flower beds.
- 7 Whatever business he's in, he always makes a success of it. How it?
- 8 It's a shame (he doesn't read)
- 9 What? – I've just reversed the car into the garage door!
- 10 What (those suitcases/do) in the entrance hall?
- 11 What have you been doing all afternoon? – I (do/a bit of gardening)
- 12 What (that car/do) in the middle of the motorway?
- 13 Phone your mother. – I (already/so)

11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.1 The two uses of modal verbs

11.1A The first use of modal verbs (1) [> LEG 11.1-2]

Study:

★★

1 Verbs like *can* and *may* are **modal auxiliaries**. We often refer to them as **modal verbs** or just **modals**. We use them with other verbs [> 16.1A], for example, to ask for permission:

Can I use your phone, please? May I borrow your car, please?

There are ten modals: *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought to* and three 'semi-modals': *need, dare* and *used to*.

2 In their **first use**, modal verbs have basic meanings which are given in dictionaries:

- | | |
|--|---|
| – <i>can/could</i> (= ability): | I can lift 25 kg./I can type. |
| – <i>may/might</i> (= permission): | You may leave early. |
| – <i>will/would</i> (= prediction): | It will rain soon. [> 9.7] |
| – <i>shall</i> after <i>I/We</i> (= prediction): | Will we find our way? – I'm sure we shall. |
| – <i>should/ought to</i> (= duty): | You should do as you're told. |
| – <i>must</i> (= total obligation): | You must be quiet. |
| – <i>needn't</i> (= no obligation): | You needn't wait. |

Write: What do these sentences express? Match A and B.

A

- 1 I can type twenty-five words a minute. c
- 2 You should do as you're told. ___
- 3 You needn't wait. ___
- 4 It will rain soon. ___
- 5 You may leave now if you want to. ___
- 6 You must be quiet. ___

B

- a) prediction
- b) permission
- c) ability
- d) no obligation
- e) total obligation
- f) duty

11.1B The first use of modal verbs (2) [> LEG 11.4, 11.6.1]

Study:

★★

1 Modal verbs are not 'complete verbs'. For example, we use verbs like *must* and *can* to refer only to the present or the future:

I must go to the bank now. I must go to the bank tomorrow.

This means we have to make up the 'missing parts' of *must* with *have to*.

So if we want to express the past of *must*, we say: **I had to go to the bank yesterday.**

In the same way, we use *be able to* to make up the 'missing parts' of *can* [> 11.2A,C].

2 Other important points about modal verbs:

We can't use them as *to*-infinitives: **I want to be able to type very fast.** (Not **to can*)

We do not use the *to*-infinitive after modals: **You must/mustn't phone.** (Not **to phone*) [> 16.1A]

There's no *-(e)s* in the 3rd person singular: **The boss can see you now.** (No *-s* on *can*)

Write: Use suitable forms of *have to* only when it is impossible to use *must*.

- 1 You take a taxi if you intend to catch the next train.
- 2 Since the new boss took over, we ...*have had to*... change our working methods.
- 3 We talk about this again tomorrow.

- 4 If you bring up a large family, you wouldn't have had so much money to spend.
- 5 I was late for work this morning because I go to the bank first.
- 6 I (not) speak French since I was at school.
- 7 I hate wait for people who don't know how to keep appointments. [> 16.8B]
- 8 He get up early tomorrow morning if he wants to see the sunrise.

11.1C The second use of modal verbs [> LEG 11.3-4, 11.8]

Study:
★★

1 The second way we use modals is to express degrees of **certainty** or **uncertainty**. We use nine of the modals for this purpose (not *shall*), but we don't use them in a fixed order. We express the greatest uncertainty with *might*, the greatest certainty with *must/can't*.
 He **might be** right. He **might know** the answer. (very uncertain)
 He **could be** right. He **would know** the answer. (fairly certain)
 He **must be** right. He **must know** the answer. (almost certain)
 He **can't be** right. He **can't know** the answer. (almost certain)

We use *be* or an ordinary verb, not a modal, for 'absolute certainty' [> 10.4A, 11.4A]:
 You **are** right. You **know** the answer. (certain)

2 In their second use, modals have only two forms:
 – present form: He **must be** right. He **must know** the answer. (now)
 – perfect or past form: He **must have been** right. He **must have known** the answer. (then)

Write: Put 'certain', 'almost certain', 'fairly certain' or 'very uncertain' beside these sentences.

- 1 The phone's ringing. It's Roland. *Certain*
- 2 The phone's ringing. It might be Roland.
- 3 A car is parking outside our house. That will be the Kennedys.
- 4 A car is parking outside our house. That must be the Kennedys.
- 5 From your description, the person you met would have been my cousin, Jeff.
- 6 From your description, the person you met can't have been my cousin Jeff.
- 7 If I have understood you correctly, Jeff should be my second cousin.
- 8 Are you saying it mightn't be possible for me to get a visa to visit the USA?
- 9 If he spent five years in America, he must speak English, I suppose.

11.1D Context

Write: Put in *am, can, can't, couldn't, have had to, haven't been able to, may, must, must be* or *must have*.



REMEMBER ME?

There was a knock at the door. I opened it and saw a stranger. 'Hullo, Fred,' he cried. '1... *May I Can*..... I come in?' 'How do you know my name?' I asked. 'We met ten years ago on a ferry-boat and you gave me your card.' 'You 2..... mistaken,' I said. 'No, I 3..... not,' the stranger said. He produced my card: Fred Ames. I 4..... given it to him ten years ago, but I 5..... remember it! 'I 6..... remember you,' I said. 'We exchanged cards years ago,' the stranger said. 'You said, "You 7..... come and stay with us for as long as you like any time you're in England." I'm sorry I 8..... wait so many years before coming to visit you. I've been so busy, I 9....., but here I am at last! Better late than never! I've just arrived on the ferry. My wife and children are in the car and we wonder if we 10..... stay with you for a month.'

Remember me?

11.2 Uses of modals (etc.) to express ability and inability

11.2A Expressing present and past ability: 'can' and 'be able to' [> LEG 11.10-12]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use *can* (or sometimes *am/is/are able to*) to describe natural or learned ability:
I can (I am able to) run 1500 metres in 5 minutes. (natural ability)
I can't (I am not able to/I am unable to) drive. (learned ability)
- 2 We can use *could, couldn't* or *was/were (not) able to* to describe 'general ability in the past':
I could (I was able to) run very fast when I was a boy. (i.e. general ability)
- 3 We use *was/were able to* or *managed to* (Not **could**) to describe the successful completion of a specific action:
We were able to (we managed to) get tickets for the match yesterday. (Not **could**)
- 4 However, we can use *couldn't* to describe a specific action not successfully completed:
We couldn't get tickets for the match yesterday. Or:
We weren't able to/didn't manage to get tickets for the match yesterday.

Write: Supply *can, can't, could, couldn't, was/were able to, managed to*. Alternatives are possible.

- 1 A good 1500-metre runner *can* run the race in under four minutes.
- 2 Bill is so unfit he run at all!
- 3 Our baby is only nine months and he already stand up.
- 4 When I was younger, I speak Italian much better than I now.
- 5 she speak German very well? – No, she speak German at all.
- 6 He draw or paint at all when he was a boy, but now he's a famous artist.
- 7 After weeks of training, I swim a length of the baths underwater.
- 8 It took a long time, but in the end Tony save enough to buy his own hi-fi.
- 9 Did you buy any fresh fish in the market? – No, I get any.
- 10 For days the rescuers looked for the lost climbers in the snow. On the fourth day they saw them and reach them without too much trouble.

11.2B 'Can/could' with verbs of perception: 'I can see' [> LEG 9.3, 11.13, App 38.4]

Study:

★★

- 1 **Verbs of perception** are verbs like *see, hear, smell, etc.* [> 9.1C]
- 2 When we are describing something that is happening now, we do not use the progressive with these verbs: *I see a bird in that tree.* (Not **I'm seeing**)
- 3 We often use *can + verb* in place of the simple present with verbs of perception:
I can see a bird in that tree. (= I see) **Can you see it?** (= Do you see)
 We often use *could + verb* in place of the simple past with verbs of perception:
I looked up, but couldn't see anything. (= didn't see)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *can, can't, could* or *couldn't*.

- 1 Do you see that man over there? *Can you see that man over there?*
- 2 I smell something burning.
- 3 I understood what he said.
- 4 Did you understand what he said?
- 5 I don't see anyone.
- 6 I didn't understand what he said.

11.2C Ability in tenses other than the present and the past [> LEG 11.16]

Study:
★★

Can and *could* are not 'complete verbs', so we use *be able to* and sometimes *manage to* if, for example, we want to express the future or the present perfect [> 11.1B]:
I'll be able to pass my driving test after I have had a few lessons. Not *I can/I will can*

Write: Supply suitable forms of *be able to* in these sentences.

- 1 Our teacher says we *will be able to* speak English fluently in a few months.
- 2 I've been trying for hours, but so far I (not) get through on the phone.
- 3 If he had asked me earlier, I help him.
- 4 I'm sure she would have helped you if she
- 5 I think I play table tennis better after a bit of practice.
- 6 He has managed to live in England for years without speak English.
- 7 I'm practising hard because I want to pass my driving test first time.
- 8 If I sing, I would have loved to be an opera singer.

11.2D 'Can/could' in place of 'is often' and 'was often' [> LEG 11.18]

Study:
★★

Instead of: **It's often cold in January.** We can say: **It can be cold in January.**
Instead of: **He was often naughty when he was a boy.** We can say: **He could be naughty when he was a boy.**

Write: Rewrite these sentences with *can be* or *could be*.

- 1 The sea is often rough in the harbour. *The sea can be rough in the harbour.*
- 2 She is bad tempered at times.
- 3 She was often rude when she was a girl.
- 4 It is often cold here in winter.
- 5 He was often helpful when he wanted to be.

11.2E Context

Write: Put in suitable forms which express ability.



JOURNEY'S END

The journey to Western Papua had been very hard. We *had not been able to* make much progress in the heavy rain and we ²..... only cross rivers with great difficulty. After two month's journey, we ³..... see smoke in the distance and knew we must be near a village. There was another boiling river in front of us, but we ⁴..... cross it by using a rope bridge we had brought with us. At last we approached the village and wondered how we ⁵..... communicate with the chief. None of us ⁶..... speak the local language. Soon, a young, dignified and smiling man approached us. ⁷..... you speak English?' I asked hopefully. 'Of course,' the young man replied. 'I was educated at Oxford University. I'm Chief Naga. Welcome to my village!'

I'm Chief Naga

11.3 Uses of modals (etc.) to express permission and prohibition

11.3A Asking for permission with 'can', 'could', 'may' and 'might' [> LEG 11.20-22]

Study:

★★

We use *can*, *could*, *may* and *might* to ask for permission, depending on the situation.

- 1 *Can* is the commonest and most informal: **Can I borrow your umbrella (please)?**
- 2 *Could* is more polite than *can*: **Could I borrow your umbrella (please)?**
- 3 *May* is more 'respectful' than *can* and *could*: **May I borrow your umbrella (please)?**
- 4 *Might* is the most polite but the least common: **Might I borrow your umbrella (please)?**
- 5 We can add *possibly* and use expressions like *Do you think* and *I wonder if* to make requests even more polite:
Can/Could/May/Might I possibly borrow your umbrella?
Do you think I could/Do you think I might (possibly) borrow your umbrella?
I wonder if I could/I wonder if I might (possibly) borrow your umbrella?

Write: Make suitable requests for permission in these situations.

- 1 You are visiting a close friend and you want to make yourself some coffee.
Can I make myself some coffee (please)?
- 2 You are visiting an acquaintance and want to use the lavatory.

- 3 You are at a party given by people you hardly know. You want to see their garden.

- 4 You are visiting people you know reasonably well. You want to make a phone call.

- 5 You are visiting a close friend and want to borrow his new car.

11.3B Giving and refusing permission/Expressing prohibition [> LEG 11.19, 11.23]

Study:

★★

We personally give or refuse permission in everyday situations in the following ways:

You { *can (not)* } watch TV for as long as you like. (Not *could*)
 { *may (not)* } (Not *might*)

We refer to 'some other authority' that gives/refuses permission like this [> 11.10A, 16.5A5]:

<i>You can/cannot</i>	or	<i>You're allowed to/not allowed to</i>	}	<i>smoke here.</i>
<i>You can/cannot</i>	or	<i>You're permitted to/not permitted to</i>		
<i>You mustn't</i>	or	<i>You're forbidden to</i>		

Write: Rephrase these notices to give or refuse permission. Begin each sentence with *You ...*

- 1 Thank you for not smoking *You may not smoke.*
- 2 No camping or picnicking
- 3 Fishing strictly forbidden
- 4 Campers welcome
- 5 Private – Keep Out
- 6 Do not lean out of the window
- 7 Leave your litter here
- 8 No stopping

11.3C Permission/prohibition in tenses other than present and future

[> LEG 11.24, 11.4, 11.6.1]

Study:
★★

May and *must* are not 'complete verbs', so we use *be allowed to* to make up their 'missing parts'
[> 11.1B]:
The children were allowed to watch TV last night. (Not **could** > 11.2A)

Write: Supply the correct tense form of *be allowed to*.

- 1 The children *were allowed to* stay home from school yesterday because of the weather.
- 2 I never stay up late when I was very young.
- 3 She only go to parties in the last few months.
- 4 He just go home after three hours at the police station.
- 5 Since he was admitted to hospital, we (not) visit him.
- 6 His doctor (not) him take any exercise in the year before he died.

11.3D 'Can' (= ability) and 'can/could' (= have permission, be free to)

[> LEG 11.10, 11.16, 11.26]

Study:
★★

We use *can/could* in the sense of 'am/is/are free to' to refer to the future:
Mr Jones can/could see you tomorrow, if you are free. Or Mr Jones is able to see you ...
But we must use *will be able to* (not **can/could**) to describe future ability [> 11.2C]:
Baby will be able to stand up in two weeks' time. (Not **can/could**)

Write: Replace *will be able to* with *can* where possible in the sentences below.

- 1 She'll be able to drive by the end of next week.
- 2 We'll be able to go to the seaside tomorrow. *We can go to the seaside tomorrow.*
- 3 She'll be able to drive you home tomorrow.
- 4 I'll be able to play chess soon.
- 5 I'll be able to play a game of chess with you tomorrow.
- 6 You will be able to use my computer during the weekend.
- 7 You will be able to operate this computer after a bit of practice.

11.3E Context

Write: Supply suitable forms which express permission, prohibition or ability.



WHAT WOULD YOU ADVISE? *Am I allowed to*
Mrs Wilkins is on a strict diet. 'I eat toast and butter for breakfast?' she asked her doctor. 'I'm afraid not, Mrs Wilkins. You ² only have half a grapefruit and a glass of water. You certainly ³ eat any kind of fat and you ⁴ eat biscuits or sweets. But don't worry, you ⁵ eat what you like after two months of this diet.' Mrs Wilkins was very determined and took a lot of exercise as well. After two months' diet and exercise she said to her husband, 'I still ⁶ touch my toes as I ⁷ before we married.' 'Don't worry, my love,' he said kindly. 'Perhaps your fingernails were longer in those days!'

Perhaps your fingernails were longer ...

11.4 Uses of modals (etc.) to express certainty and possibility

11.4A Certainty and possibility [> LEG 11.27-30]

Study:

★★

- 1 If we are certain of our facts, we use *be* or any full verb [> 11.1C]:
Jane is at home. Jane works at home. (certain facts)

- 2 If we are referring to possibility, we use *may, might* or *could* + *be/have been*:
Jane may/might/could be at home now.
She may/might/could have been at home yesterday.
 Or we use *may, might, could* + full verb:
Jane may/might/could work (or ... *may/might/could be working*) *at home.*
She may/might/could have worked (or ... *have been working*) *at home yesterday.*

Write 1: Read these sentences and write C (= Certain) or P (= Possible) against each one.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 My boss is away on holiday. <u>C</u> | 8 He could be swimming right now. ___ |
| 2 His wife may be with him. ___ | 9 He'll come back in a good mood. ___ |
| 3 She will be back next week. ___ | 10 He might leave this evening. ___ |
| 4 He could reply by the weekend. ___ | 11 They've been staying at a big hotel. ___ |
| 5 He wasn't here last week. ___ | 12 They may have been dancing all night. ___ |
| 6 She might have been to Paris. ___ | 13 He borrowed my ladder. ___ |
| 7 She's returned from Paris. ___ | 14 He could have borrowed my ladder. ___ |

Write 2: Turn these 'certain' statements into 'possible/less than certain' statements.

- 1 He is at home now. *He may/might/could be at home now.*
- 2 He will be at home tomorrow.
- 3 He was at home yesterday.
- 4 She leaves at 9.
- 5 She will leave tomorrow.
- 6 She has left.
- 7 She left last night.
- 8 She will have left by 9.
- 9 He is working today.
- 10 He will be working today.
- 11 He was working today.
- 12 He has been working all day.

Write 3: Write uncertain answers to these questions.

- 1 Where's Jim today? *He may/might/could be at home.*
- 2 Where was Jim yesterday?
- 3 Where will Jim be tomorrow?
- 4 What time does the train leave?
- 5 What time did the train leave last night?
- 6 What's Sue doing at the moment?
- 7 What was Sue doing yesterday?
- 8 What will Sue be doing tomorrow?
- 9 What has Sue been doing this week?
- 10 What has John had for breakfast?
- 11 Where has Ann parked the car?
- 12 What did that car cost?

11.4B Certain and uncertain answers to questions [> LEG 11.31, 13.5-6]

Study:

★★★

- 1 A 'certain' question may produce an 'uncertain' answer [compare > 13.1C]:
Does he like fish? – He might (do). He may (do). He could (do). He may not.
- 2 An 'uncertain' question may produce a 'certain' answer:
Can he still be working? – Yes, he is.
- 3 We use *be* and *have been* to answer questions with *be*:
Is he ill? – He may be. Was he ill? – He may have been. (Not **he may**)
- 4 We use *do/done* to replace other verbs, though this is optional:
Will you catch the early train? – I may./I may do.
Has he received my message? – He could have./He could have done.
- 5 We also answer *Wh*-questions with 'certainty' or 'uncertainty':
What's his name? – It's Smith. (certain) **It may/might be Smith.** (uncertain)
What was his name? – It was Smith. (certain) **It may/might have been Smith.** (uncertain)

Write: Give uncertain answers to these questions.

- 1 Does she still live in London? (Yes, she may (do)).....
- 2 Where does she live?
- 3 Did he catch the early train?
- 4 Which train did he catch?
- 5 Are they still living abroad?
- 6 Where are they living?
- 7 Has he finished work?
- 8 When did he finish work?
- 9 Will you leave tomorrow?
- 10 When will you leave?

11.4C Context

Write: Put in suitable forms which express uncertainty or possibility.



OLDER AND WISER?

We make decisions all the time, but we ¹.....*can*..... never be certain whether we are right or wrong. The work you choose to do ²..... be suitable for you or it ³..... not. The person you marry ⁴..... be a perfect match or ⁵..... be the worst possible choice. Suppose you have saved money for the future. You ⁶..... invest it wisely so that it grows in value or you ⁷..... lose the lot in a foolish moment. You think you have a healthy diet, but the food you eat ⁸..... actually be very bad for you and ⁹..... be the cause of terrible illness. Perhaps you travel a lot by plane. All the flights you make are routine, but one of them ¹⁰..... be your last. Decisions! Decisions! But we don't learn from experience. Experience is the quality that allows us to go on making the same mistakes with more confidence!

Decisions! Decisions!

11.5 Uses of modals to express deduction

11.5A Certainty or deduction? [> LEG 11.27, 11.32-33]

Study:

★★

- 1 We express certainty with *be* or any full verb: *He is here. He lives here. He is leaving.*
- 2 We express deduction with *must be/can't be, must have been, can't/couldn't have been*:
He must be at home. He can't be out. He must have been at home yesterday.
or with verbs other than *be*: *He must live abroad. He must have lived abroad.*

Write:

Read these sentences and write C (= Certainty) or D (= Deduction) against each one.

- 1 John Wright is a man of action. C
- 2 He was in the Galapagos ten years ago. ___
- 3 Now he lives in an enormous house. ___
- 4 He is writing a book. ___
- 5 He has been writing this book since he came back from the Galapagos. ___
- 6 He must be writing about his travels. ___
- 7 He must have seen the giant tortoises and the iguanas on the Galapagos. ___
- 8 He can't have seen any elephants on the Galapagos. ___
- 9 He can't have been working very hard on his book. ___
- 10 He must have taken a lot of photos while he was on the islands. ___
- 11 He must have done a lot of research for his book. ___
- 12 He must enjoy life. ___

11.5B Two kinds of 'must be' [> LEG 11.33, 11.46-48]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *must be* in the present to express deduction [> 11.1C]:
You haven't eaten for hours. You must be hungry!
- 2 The negative of *must be* (= deduction) is *can't be*, not **mustn't be**:
*You've only just eaten. You can't be hungry again! (Not *mustn't be*)*
- 3 We can also use *must (be)* to express total obligation [> 11.1A]:
This is a hospital. You must be quiet.
- 4 The negative of *must (be)* (= total obligation) is *mustn't (be)* (= prohibition [> 11.3B]):
You mustn't be noisy outside a hospital.

Write:

- a Supply *must be, can't be, or mustn't be*.
- b Write D (= Deduction) or O (= Obligation) beside each sentence.
 - 1 The meeting is at 10 o'clock sharp and you *mustn't be* late. O
 - 2 You at the station ten minutes before the departure of the train. ___
 - 3 The children tired already! We've only been walking for ten minutes. ___
 - 4 The children thirsty. They haven't had a drink for hours. ___
 - 5 Did you hear that? It someone walking about in our garden. ___
 - 6 I don't recognize the handwriting on this envelope. It from anyone we know. ___
 - 7 Your handwriting clear, otherwise no one will be able to read it. ___
 - 8 You a nuisance when you're a guest in someone's house. ___
 - 9 Don't panic! We late for the train. It doesn't leave till 10.05. ___
 - 10 We late for the train or we'll miss our connection. ___

11.5C 'Must have been', 'can't/couldn't have been'; 'had to be/didn't have to be' [> LEG 11.32-33]

Study:

★★

- 1 We express deduction about the past with *must have been*:
*You hadn't eaten for hours. You **must have been** hungry!*
- 2 The negative of *must have been* is *can't/couldn't have been*, not **mustn't have been**:
*You had already eaten. You **can't/couldn't** have been hungry! (Not **mustn't have been**)*
- 3 *Must* (= total obligation) is not a 'complete verb' [> 11.1B]. We use *had to* in the past:
*The meeting was at 10 this morning and I **had to be** there. (Not **must have been**)*
- 4 The negative of *had to* is *didn't have to*:
*It was a holiday yesterday, so I **didn't have to be** at work. (Not **mustn't have been**)*

Write: Supply *must have been*, *can't/couldn't have been*, *have to/had to (be)*, *didn't have to (be)*.

- 1 He knows a lot about flying planes. He *must have been* a pilot when he was young.
- 2 Vera at the supermarket this morning. I didn't see her there.
- 3 John at the bank till 10, so he only arrived here five minutes ago.
- 4 When (she) at the hospital? – Early this morning.
- 5 We had enough foreign currency left at the end of the holiday, so I buy any more.
- 6 Monica knew exactly what to do. I tell her twice.
- 7 There are so many nice things for tea, I think you expecting us.
- 8 There an accident on South Street because the road is closed off.
- 9 You waiting long. After all, I'm only five minutes late.
- 10 When I was a boy we sitting at our desks working before the boss got in.
- 11 I left a message on your answer phone last night. You out.
- 12 The fire alarm went and we out of the building in two minutes.

11.5D Context

Write: Put in *must be/must have been*, *can't be/can't have been*, *had to be* or *didn't have to be*.



THE MYSTERY OF THE TALKING SHOE

Tracy Evans *didn't have to be* at work till ten, so she ignored her alarm clock. But she woke up with a start when she heard a strange sound coming from her wardrobe! What was it? It ² a mouse, Tracy thought. No, it ³ She knew there were no mice in her room. I ⁴ careful, Tracy said to herself as she opened the wardrobe. There, in front of her, was the lovely pair of wedge-shaped sandals she had bought the day before. Then she heard the sound again! 'It ⁵ coming from my sandals!' she cried. She picked them up and, sure enough, one of them was 'talking!' Tracy ⁶ at work at ten, but she still had enough time to visit Mr Lucas, her shoemaker. He removed the wooden heel and they were both amazed to see a white larva eating the wood. Mr Pope, of the Natural History Museum, solved the mystery. 'These shoes ⁷ (*import*) from Brazil. An insect ⁸ (*lay*) its eggs in the tree from which the shoes were made,' he explained.

One of the shoes was talking!

11.6 Uses of modals for offers, requests and suggestions

11.6A Offering things and substances [> LEG 11.35]

Study:
★★

Offering: e.g. **Would/Wouldn't you like** a sandwich/some coffee?
Yes/No responses: e.g. Yes, I'd like one/some, please. No, thank you.

Write:

Make offers for the following things and substances.
a sandwich, some coffee, a slice of toast, some potatoes, an orange, some fruit

- 1 *Would you like a sandwich?*
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

11.6B Requests for things and substances [> LEG 11.36]

Study:
★★

Requesting [> 11.3A]: e.g. **Can/Could/May/Might I** have a sandwich/some sugar, please?
Yes/No responses: e.g. Of course you can/may. No, you can't/may not, I'm afraid.

Write:

Make requests for the following things and substances.
a sandwich, some coffee, a slice of toast, some potatoes, an orange, some fruit

- 1 *Can I have a sandwich, please?*
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

11.6C Making suggestions, inviting actions [> LEG 11.37]

Study:
★★

Making suggestions, inviting actions: e.g. **Would/Wouldn't you like to** come with us?
Yes/No responses: e.g. Yes, I'd like to/love to. No, I'd prefer not to, thank you.

Write:

Make suggestions/invite actions for the following situations.

- 1 Your friend has nowhere to stay for the night. *Would you like to stay with me?*
- 2 You want your friends to join you for a meal.
- 3 You want your friend to come on an excursion.
- 4 You want your friends to have a holiday with you.

11.6D Requesting others to do things for you [> LEG 11.38]

Study:
★★

Requesting others to do things for you: e.g. **Will/Would you please open** the door for me?
Yes/No responses: e.g. Yes, of course I will. No, I'm afraid I can't at the moment.

Write: Make requests for the following situations. You want someone to ...

- 1 hold the door open for you. *Will/Would you hold the door open for me, please?*.....
- 2 dial a number for you.
- 3 translate a letter for you.
- 4 deliver some flowers for you.

11.6E Offering to do things for others [> LEG 11.39]

Study:
★★

Offering to do things for others: e.g. **Shall I carry that for you?**
Yes/No responses: e.g. *Can/Could you? That's very kind of you. No, thank you.*

Write: Make offers for the following situations.

- 1 An old lady clearly wants to put her large suitcase on the luggage rack.
Shall I put the suitcase on the rack (for you)?.....
- 2 A young woman is shivering and the window is open.
.....
- 3 Your friend accidentally drops some sheets of paper on the floor.
.....

11.6F Making suggestions that include the speaker [> LEG 11.40]

Study:
★★

Making suggestions that include the speaker: e.g. **Shall we go for a swim?** [> 16.1B]
Yes/No responses: e.g. *Yes, let's./Yes, let's, shall we? No, I'd rather we didn't.*

Write: Make suggestions to a friend for the following situations. You feel like ...

- 1 driving to the coast. *Shall we drive to the coast?*.....
- 2 having a meal out this evening.
- 3 travelling first class.
- 4 having a holiday in Bahia.

11.6G Context

Write: Put in the missing requests, offers, etc.



PLEASE BE NICE TO NIGEL!

'Please be nice to Nigel,' his mother said to Jenny, the baby sitter, before she went out. Jenny is doing her best.

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| JENNY: 1. <i>Would you</i> like something to eat, Nigel? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 2. build a castle for you, Nigel? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: I'm cold. 3. shut the window for me? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 4. like to watch TV with me, Nigel? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 5. borrow your crayons, Nigel? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 6. play a game together? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 7. get a glass of water for you, Nigel? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 8. get a glass of water for me? | NIGEL: No! |
| JENNY: 9. you like to go to the moon, Nigel? | NIGEL: Yes! |
| JENNY: And I'd like to send you there in a rocket! | |

And I'd like to send you there!

11.7 Expressing wishes, etc.: 'I wish', 'if only', 'it's (high) time'

11.7A Present and past reference with 'I wish', 'if only' and 'it's (high) time'

[> LEG 11.41-43]

Study:

★★

After *(I) wish, if only, it's (high) time* and *it's (about) time*, we 'go one tense back':

- 1 The past tense refers to the present: ***I wish I had a better watch!*** (i.e. NOW)
- 2 The past perfect tense refers to the past: ***If only you had asked me first!*** (i.e. THEN)

Write: Tick the sentences that refer to 'present' or 'past'.

	present	past
1 I wish I had a better watch!	✓	—
2 If only I knew the answer to the problem!	—	—
3 It's high time/about time he learnt more manners!	—	—
4 I wish you hadn't done that!	—	—
5 If only you had phoned me yesterday!	—	—

11.7B Expressing wishes and regrets with 'I wish' and 'if only' [> LEG 11.41-42.1-3]

Study:

★★

- 1 We often use *I wish* for things that might (still) happen:
I wish I knew the answer! (= it's possible I might find out the answer)
If only is stronger. We use it to express regret for things that can (now) never happen:
If only your mother were alive now! (Of course, *I wish* is also possible.)
- 2 We may use the simple past of *be* after *wish* and *if only*, especially in everyday speech:
I wish I was on holiday now. If only Tessa was here now!
- 3 If we want to be more formal, we use *were* in all persons [> 11.13B, 14.2B]:
I wish I were on holiday now. If only Tessa were here!
- 4 We may use the past perfect of *be* for things that can never happen:
I wish I had been on holiday last week. If only Tessa had been here yesterday!
- 5 We use the past or past perfect forms of other verbs:
I wish I knew the answer to your question. I wish I had known then what I know now!

Write: Express wishes and regrets about these situations. Refer to yourself where possible.

- 1 You're not very fit. *I wish / If only I was / were fit / fitter!*
- 2 It's very hot today.
- 3 It's raining.
- 4 You were too impatient.
- 5 You wasted a lot of time watching TV.
- 6 They don't have a lot of friends.
- 7 We didn't lock the back door!
- 8 He is abroad.
- 9 Jane has read your letter.
- 10 John didn't take your advice.

11.7C 'Would' and 'could' after 'I wish' and 'if only' [> LEG 11.42.4]

Study:

★★

We must use *could*, not *would*, after *I* and *we*. Compare:

I can't swim.

→ ***I wish I could swim.***

We weren't together!

→ ***I wish we could have been together.***

We sometimes use *I wish you* (*he, she, etc.*) *would*(n't) like an imperative:

(I am making a lot of noise!)

→ ***I wish you wouldn't make so much noise!***

(He is making a lot of noise!)

→ ***I wish he would be quiet!***

Write: Supply *would*, *wouldn't* or *could*.

- I wish they *would* be quiet.
- We wish you drive so fast.
- We wish we come to London with you.
- I wish I have seen the film with them.
- We really wish she change her mind and come on holiday with us.
- If only we have good weather like this the whole year.

11.7D 'It's (high) time' and 'It's (about) time' [> LEG 11.41, 11.43]

Study:

★★

We use *It's time*, *It's high time* and *It's about time* to express present or future wishes, or to express our impatience about things that haven't happened yet:

Kim can't even boil an egg. – I know. It's time/high time/about time she learnt to cook!

Write: Respond to these sentences with *It's high time* or *It's about time*.

- John and Julie have been engaged now for over ten years.
It's high time they got married!
- We haven't been out for an evening together for ages, have we?
.....
- It's very late. You should both really go now.
.....
- The boys' room is terribly untidy.
.....

11.7E Context

Write: Put in the right forms for the words in brackets.



HAVING A WONDERFUL TIME! WISH YOU WERE HERE!

While trying to sail round the world in a small boat, Harry, Sandy and Joe were shipwrecked one night. 'I wish there (be) ¹ *was/were* an island nearby,' Harry said. By morning, they were washed up on to a desert island. For six months they lived on fish, nuts and fruit. One day, they saw a bottle on the shore. 'If only it (contain) ² a note or something!' Sandy said. They opened it and a genie appeared. 'It's high time someone (open) ³ that bottle!' the genie gasped. 'I'm so grateful, I'll give you one wish each. You first,' the genie said, pointing to Harry. 'That's easy,' Harry said. 'I wish I (be) ⁴ with my family.' And (whoosh!) he disappeared. 'Me too,' Sandy said. 'If only I (can be) ⁵ in dear old Glasgow.' And (whoosh!) off he went. 'And you, sir?' the genie asked Joe. 'I wish I (have) ⁶ my friends back!' Joe said.

'I wish I could have my friends back!'

11.8 Expressing preferences: 'would rather' and 'would sooner'

11.8A Expressing personal preference with 'I'd rather'/'I'd sooner' [> LEG 11.44, 16.5]

Study:

★★

1 We use *would rather* and *would sooner* in exactly the same way to express preference.

We can refer to the present or the future:

I'd rather/I'd sooner be a builder than an architect.

Or we can refer to the past:

If I could choose again, I'd rather/sooner have been a builder than an architect.

2 We can omit the verb in negative short answers:

Are you coming with us? – No, I'd rather/sooner not.

Would you rather have been a builder? – No, I'd rather/sooner not (have been).

Write 1: Supply the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

- Which would you sooner *be*? A pilot or a passenger? (be)
- My career is nearly over, but I'd much rather in the navy than in the army. (be)
- If I had lived in the past, I'd sooner a peasant than a king. (be)
- I'd rather in the eighteenth century than in the nineteenth century. (live)
- I like my job. I'd rather my living as a teacher than anything else. (make)
- I wish my job were secure. I'd sooner worry about it. (not have to)
- Jim had to break the bad news to her. I know he'd rather do it. (not have to)

Write 2: Supply negative short answers with *I'd rather/I'd sooner* to these questions.

- Are you coming with us? No, *I'd rather not. / I'd sooner not.*
- Would you rather have been invited to the party? No,
- Do you want to catch the next train? No,
- Would you rather have lived in the past than the present? No,

11.8B Expressing preferences about other people's actions [> LEG 11.45]

Study:

★★★

1 We can refer to other people after *I'd rather* or *I'd sooner*. Compare:

I'd rather leave on an earlier train. (= I'm referring to myself)

I'd rather Jack (etc.) left on an earlier train.

2 We use the past tense form after *I'd rather* to refer to the present or future. Compare:

I'd rather be happy. I'd rather not sit next to her. (= now – I'm referring to myself)

I'd rather she were/was happy. (= now) ***I'd rather she didn't sit next to me.*** (= now)

3 We use the past perfect form after *I'd rather* to refer to past time. Compare:

I'd rather have been present. (= then – I'm referring to myself)

I'd rather you had been present. (then) ***I'd rather you hadn't told me about it.*** (then)

Write: Supply the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

- You might be late for the meeting. I'd rather you ... *caught* an earlier train. (catch)
- I won't be home till very late. I'd sooner you for me. (not wait up)
- He took a risk investing money with them. I'd rather he it. (not do)
- I don't mind your borrowing my ladder, but I'd sooner you me first. (ask)
- I know our daughter is enjoying herself, but I'd rather she here than abroad. (be)
- I'd rather you present when we signed the agreement. (be)

11.8C 'I'd rather he didn't', etc. [> LEG 11.45]

Study:

★★★

We generally omit the main part of the verb in short responses:

- 1 negative responses: **Frank is going to buy a motorbike. – I'd rather he didn't. I've told everyone about it. – I'd rather you hadn't.**
- 2 affirmative responses: **Frank won't give up his present job. – I'd rather he did. I haven't told anyone about it. – I'd rather you had.**
- 3 We do not have to repeat the main verb in a complete sentence: **You always go without me and I'd rather you didn't.**

Write: Supply negative short responses or continuations to these sentences.

- 1 Joan wants to become self-employed. *I'd rather/sooner she didn't.*
- 2 I've told everyone about it.
- 3 Susan has moved her account to another bank.
- 4 Bill takes sleeping pills.
- 5 I often drive fast.
- 6 Frank went to live in Australia last year.
- 7 Our neighbours keep a large dog.
- 8 Our neighbours have cut down all the trees at the back of their garden.
- 9 I know you've already booked our holiday, but
- 10 Jane cycles to work every day, but
- 11 Alan retired early last year, but

11.8D Context

Write: Put in the missing preferences.



KNOW YOURSELF!

Most parents (*their children not decide*) ¹ *would rather their children didn't decide* to join the acting profession because it is so hard to earn a living. They (*their children choose*) ² secure, well-paid jobs. But if you ask actors themselves, they always tell you there is nothing they (*do*) ³ An actor is a person who (*be*) ⁴ a different man or woman. An actor (*talk, walk, and behave*) ⁵ like someone else. That's what acting is about. Many actors (*be called*) ⁶ something other than their real names. The great American comic actor Claude William Dukenfield (*be called*) ⁷ W.C. Fields, which was the name he adopted when he became an actor. Fields was eccentric and (*live*) ⁸ in a world in which there were no dogs or children. He used to wear a funny top hat and carry a walking-stick. He loved to pretend to be other people in real life as well. He opened bank accounts all over America using comic names. He died in 1946 and the epitaph he wrote for his tombstone clearly expressed a healthy preference for life: 'On the whole, I (*be*) ⁹ in Philadelphia!'

W.C. Fields

11.9 'It's advisable ...'/'It's necessary ...'

11.9A 'It's advisable' → 'It's necessary': 'a scale of choice' [> LEG 11.47]

Study:

★★

We can say what, in our opinion, is advisable or necessary on a scale which shows how much choice there is. We use the following words to give advice or say what is necessary:

- 1 *Should* and *ought to* (= in my opinion it's advisable, but there is some choice):
*You **should see** a doctor. You **ought to vote** in the next election.*
 (= That's my advice, but ignore it if you want to.)
- 2 *Had better* is stronger, even a warning: ***You'd better see** a doctor.*
 (= That's my urgent advice. There may be consequences if you ignore it.)
- 3 *Have to, have got to* (less formal) and *must* (= in my opinion, you have no choice):
***You have to/have got to/must see** a doctor.*
 (= That's the strongest advice I can give you. Don't ignore it!) [compare > 11.10A]

Write: Tick the sentences that mean 'it is/it was advisable' or 'it is/it was necessary'.

	advisable	necessary
1 You should listen more carefully.	✓	—
2 I must get to the meeting before 7.30.	—	—
3 I'd better hurry, or I'll be late.	—	—
4 They should have taken umbrellas with them.	—	—
5 She had to complete the test in ten minutes.	—	—
6 We ought to have stopped for a meal on the way.	—	—

11.9B 'Must', 'have to' and 'have got to' [> LEG 11.48]

Study:

★★

- 1 We often use *must, have to* and *have got to* in place of each other, but sometimes not.
- 2 We tend to prefer *must*:
 - when we refer to ourselves (with *I/we*): *I really **must weed** this garden.*
 - with *you* to express urgency: ***You must phone** home at once.*
 - in public notices, etc.: ***Cyclists must** dismount.*
 - (= Can't you stop yourself?): ***Must you** interrupt?*
 - pressing invitations or advice: ***You must come** and see us. **You must repair** that fence.*
- 3 We often use *have to* (or *have got to*) to refer to outside authority:
***I have (got) to pay** my road tax soon.*

Write: Supply the forms *must* or *have (got) to* which 'feel right' in these sentences. Sometimes more than one form is possible.

- 1 We really *must* do something about having this house decorated.
- 2 We pay this electricity bill by the end of the week.
- 3 You write and let us know you've arrived safely.
- 4 I be at my desk by 9.00 every morning.
- 5 We always clock in when we arrive at work.
- 6 ALL VISITORS REPORT TO THE DUTY OFFICER.
- 7 you always slam the door when you come in?
- 8 You really come and see the new extension to our house some day.

11.9C Expressing necessity in other tenses [> LEG 11.50-51, 11.46]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Must* can refer to the present or the future:
I must speak to him today. I must speak to him tomorrow.
- 2 *Must* is not a 'complete verb', so we use *have to* to make up its 'missing parts' [> 11.1B]:
I shall/will have to phone her tomorrow. (or ***I must phone her tomorrow.***) (future)
I had to spend the day in a meeting. (past)
I have had to tell you before. (present perfect)
I am having to/I have been having to get up earlier this year. (progressive forms)
- 3 *Had to* shows that we couldn't avoid doing something: ***I had to leave at six.*** (and I did)
Should have shows we've failed to do something: ***I should have left at six.*** (and I didn't)

Write: Use a construction with *have to* in place of the words in italics.

- 1 *It will be necessary for him to try harder if he wants to win the prize.* *He will have to*
- 2 *It has been necessary for them to save hard to buy their new hi-fi.*
- 3 *Because of the snow she has been finding it necessary to walk to college.*
- 4 *It had already been necessary for us to clear the office floor twice before the boss asked us to clear it again.*
- 5 *It would have been necessary for me to pay twice as much to travel first class.*
- 6 *We are finding it necessary to cut back on staff because of a shortage of orders.*

11.9D Context

Write: Put in *will have to*, *must*, *having to*, *has to*, *should*, *had to*, *have to* and *should have*.
Use each one at least once.

ARIJABA!

The Post Office in Britain is famous for getting letters and parcels to their destinations. The problem is that we the public ¹ *have to* observe the rules. For example, we ² put a stamp on a letter. If we don't, the recipient ³ pay double. We often see the sign ALL LETTERS ⁴ BE CORRECTLY ADDRESSED. These days, this means ⁵ use postcodes. If you didn't use a postcode, it's no good complaining that your letter ⁶ arrived sooner. Parcels are a problem because they ⁷ be correctly packaged. If Aunt Sophie is going to send you a jar of your favourite jam, she ⁸ wrap it up well. The most important thing we ⁹ do is to address our letters and parcels legibly and correctly. This means clear handwriting and correct spelling. What we ¹⁰ do and what we actually do are often miles apart. Recently, the Post Office ¹¹ deliver a letter which showed a name followed by the word ARIJABA. What is this, do you think? Arabic? Hindustani? Wrong both times! Say it out loud and you'll see it's just plain (misspelt!) English: HARWICH HARBOUR!



Arabic? Hindustani?

11.10 'It isn't advisable ...'/'It isn't necessary ...'/'It's forbidden ...'

11.10A 'It isn't advisable' → 'It's forbidden': 'a scale of choice' [> LEG 11.54]

Study:

★★

We can say what, in our opinion, is not advisable, or what is forbidden on a scale which shows how much choice there is. We use the following words [compare > 11.9A]:

- 1** *Shouldn't* and *oughtn't to* (= in my opinion it isn't advisable, but there is some choice):
You **shouldn't drive too fast**. You **oughtn't to drive too fast**.
(= That's my advice, but ignore it if you want to.)
- 2** *Had better not* is stronger, even a warning: **You'd better not lose your passport**.
(= That's my urgent advice. There may be consequences if you ignore it.)
- 3** *Can't* and *mustn't* (= you have no choice: it's forbidden [> 11.3B]):
You **can't stop on a motorway**. You **mustn't stop on a motorway**. (= it's against the law)

Write: Match A and B to show the effect of the verbs.

A

- 1 You **mustn't** park near a zebra crossing. b
- 2 You **shouldn't** eat so much chocolate cake.
- 3 You **can't** use that footpath. It's closed.
- 4 You **had better not** be late for the lecture.

B

- a) 'not advisable' – warning
- b) 'forbidden' – law
- c) 'not advisable' – personal
- d) 'not possible'

11.10B 'Mustn't', 'needn't', 'don't have to', 'haven't got to' [> LEG 11.55]

Study:

★★

- 1** *Must, have to, have got to* generally mean the same in the affirmative [> 11.9B].
But *mustn't* **never** means the same as *don't have to/haven't got to*.
- 2** *Mustn't* means 'it's forbidden' [> 11.3B, 11.5B]: *Life belts **must not be removed***. (no choice)
- 3** We can use *needn't, don't have to* and *haven't got to* in place of each other to mean 'it isn't necessary': *I **needn't/don't have to/haven't got to go to the office tomorrow***. (choice)

Write: Supply *mustn't* or *needn't/don't have to/haven't got to*.

- 1 You *don't have to* work such long hours. You won't earn any more.
- 2 They wear a uniform. It's not obligatory.
- 3 She leave the office last. She can go when she's ready.
- 4 You really waste money like that. It worries your parents.
- 5 Visitors enter the laboratories without permission.
- 6 We always wear protective clothing in the factory.
- 7 You go to the party if you don't want to. Nobody's forcing you.
- 8 He do the job today, as long as it gets done some time this week.
- 9 Surely we leave home yet. It's far too early to go to the station.
- 10 Passengers smoke in the toilets.
- 11 'Are you going to read the report?' – 'No, I It's confidential.'
- 12 'Are you going to read the report?' – 'No, I I already know what it says.'
- 13 You attend the meeting tomorrow. It's for union officials only.
- 14 You attend the meeting tomorrow. It's not important.
- 15 You forget to pay the electricity bill, or we'll be cut off.
- 16 We worry about Tom. He's just phoned to say he's all right.

11.10C 'Needn't have', 'didn't have to', 'didn't need to' [> LEG 11.57.1]

Study:

★★★

- 1 These sentences mean 'I went there, but it wasn't necessary':
I needn't have gone to the office yesterday (but I went).
I didn't have to/didn't need to go to the office yesterday (but I went).
 (have and need are stressed in speech)
- 2 Compare *didn't have to* and *didn't need to*, without stress:
I didn't have to go to the office yesterday. I didn't need to go to the office yesterday.
 (= I knew in advance it wasn't necessary to go to the office and I didn't go.)

Write: Supply *needn't have* or *didn't have to* and the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

- 1 I *needn't have phoned* the plumber. I learnt later that John had already phoned him. (phone)
- 2 I the plumber. I knew John had already phoned him. (phone)
- 3 You your umbrella after all. It hasn't rained. (bring)
- 4 The forecast was for fine weather so I knew I my umbrella. (bring)
- 5 I these clothes. I didn't know they had already been washed. (wash)
- 6 I a meal last night because we went out and the food I prepared was uneaten. (cook)

11.10D 'Shouldn't have' and 'oughtn't to have' [> LEG 11.57.2]

Study:

★★

We often use *shouldn't have (done)* or *oughtn't to have (done)* to criticize our own actions or someone else's: *//You shouldn't have paid/oughtn't to have paid the plumber in advance.*

Write: Respond to these statements with *shouldn't have done that* or *oughtn't to have done that*.

- 1 I had to stop on the motorway. *You shouldn't have done that.*
- 2 John read your letter.
- 3 Frank and Jane sat in the sun all day.
- 4 Jane left the front door unlocked.
- 5 I borrowed your car this morning.

11.10E Context

Write: Put in *didn't need to*, *must not*, *shouldn't have* and *should have*.



HOW TO CATCH YOUR MAN

'Candidates ¹.....*must not*..... attempt more than four questions.' The young candidate for the law exam was very well-prepared and ²..... be told what to do. The results were brilliant. The paper achieved the third highest score out of 7,000 papers! But the examiners were puzzled. Mr Paul Blake ³..... achieved such a high score. This candidate had failed this exam three times already. Then the truth became known. The candidate was not Mr Paul Blake, as it ⁴..... been. His wife had gone instead. Mrs Alison Blake, a brilliant lawyer, had dressed up as a man. The fraud was discovered because an examiner had noticed that the candidate was visibly pregnant!

Mr Paul Blake?

11.11 Modals to express habit: 'used to', 'will' and 'would'

11.11A The form of 'used to' [> LEG 11.59]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Used to* is a simple past form only. If you want to say 'I am in the habit of', you must use the simple present [> 9.1B]: **I get up early every day.** (Not **I use to get up early**)
- 2 We often use *do* and *did* + *use* (Not **used**) to form questions and negatives:
Did you use to smoke? I didn't use to smoke. (Not **Did you used to* *I didn't used to**)
We also use *never* to form the negative: **I never used to smoke.** (*Used not to* is rare.)
- 3 Note the use of *did*: **He used to live in Manchester, didn't he?** (rather than *usedn't he?*)
Did you use to live here? – Yes, I did./No, I didn't. He used to live here and so did I.

Write: Supply the missing forms in the following.

- 1 She used to be a singer, *didn't* she?
- 2 He never used to have grey hair, he?
- 3 We enjoy physics, did we? (not/used to)
- 4 smoke when you were young? (you/used to)
- 5 Did you use to smoke? – Yes, I
- 6 He used to work here and so I.
- 7 Where live? (you/used to)
- 8 You (not/used to) eat so much.

11.11B Uses of 'used to' [> LEG 11.60-62]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use the simple past or *used to* to refer to past habit.
We need a time reference with the simple past [> 9.3C], but not with *used to*:
I collected stamps when I was a child. I used to collect stamps (when I was a child).
(Not **I was collecting stamps when I was a child** [> 9.4B])
- 2 We use *used to* to make a contrast between past and present with expressions like:
but now ..., but not any more, but not any longer:
I used to eat a large breakfast, but I don't any longer.
- 3 *Used to* can also refer to past states:
She used to be very punctual (but she isn't any more).

Write: Fill in the blanks with forms of *used to* or the past progressive (e.g. *was living*).

- 1 We ... *used to go* for long walks in the country when my father was alive. (go)
- 2 I getting up early when I was very young. In fact, I still don't like it. (like)
- 3 you eating vegetables when you were young? (like)
- 4 I drive to get to work, but I don't any longer. (have to)
- 5 I never Sundays, but I do now. (enjoy)
- 6 I a bath when you phoned me. (have)
- 7 She an employee at the post office before she started her own business. (be)
- 8 There open fields all round our town when I was a boy. (be)
- 9 John and I abroad last year. (work)
- 10 it here yesterday? (rain)

11.11C 'Would' in place of 'used to' and in place of the simple past [> LEG 11.61]

Study:

★★

When we are 'remembering the past', we sometimes use *would* in place of *used to*.

First we set the scene with *used to*, then we continue with *would*:

When I was a boy we always spent/used to spend our holidays on a farm. We would get up at 5 and we'd help milk the cows. Then we'd return to the kitchen for breakfast.

Write: Underline instances where we could use *would* in place of the simple past or *used to*.

From the time he was very young, Gerald used to spend all his spare time collecting birds, animals and insects of all kinds. Every morning he used to get up early and go first to the beach. There he caught small crabs and sometimes small fishes, which he put into a large jar and took home with him. On the way, he always used to go to an ruined fisherman's cottage where he was often lucky enough to find some unusual insect that he had never seen before.

11.11D 'Will/would' to describe 'usual behaviour' [> LEG 11.63-64]

Study:

★★

We sometimes use *will* in place of the simple present [> 9.1B] and *would* in place of the simple past [> 9.3C] to refer to a person's 'usual behaviour':

In fine weather he will often sit in the sun for hours. (= he often sits)

As he grew old, he would often talk about his war experiences. (= he often talked)

Write: Use a phrase with *will* or *would* in place of the words in italics.

- 1 She *always used to* tell us a story before we went to bed. *would always tell*
- 2 She *still tells* us a story occasionally.
- 3 They *only used to* discuss family matters with the priest.
- 4 He's very good, you know. He *plays* with that toy for hours on end.
- 5 When he needed extra money, he *used to* work overtime.
- 6 She *doesn't always* tell the truth, I'm afraid.

11.11E Context

Write: Put in appropriate forms of the past, *used to*, *will* or *would*. Alternatives are possible.



WATER, WATER, EVERYWHERE!

The thing I remember most about my childhood was my visits to my aunt Charlotte in her lovely country house. She (be) ¹..... *was*..... a remarkable woman by any standards. She (be) ²..... really skilled at water-divining and she (find) ³..... water on the most unpromising bits of land. The farmers (love) ⁴..... her, especially as she (never accept) ⁵..... money for water-divining. 'Water (always find) ⁶..... its own level,' she (say) ⁷..... 'and I know exactly where that level is. Water-divining is a gift from God and you don't accept payment for that.' She had a gift for noticing changes in the weather, too. 'It's going to rain soon,' she (say) ⁸....., 'I can feel it in my bones,' and she (always be) ⁹..... right! In her later years, she developed a bad back and (often visit) ¹⁰..... her osteopath. She (never tire) ¹¹..... of telling us that her osteopath (say) ¹²....., as he massaged her painful back, 'It's going to rain, Charlotte. I can feel it in your bones!'

I can feel it in your bones!

11.12 'Need' and 'dare' as modals and as full verbs

11.12A 'Need' as a modal and as a full verb [> LEG 11.49]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *need* as a modal (without *to* after it) mainly in the negative to mean 'it isn't necessary' [> 11.10B-C]: *I needn't go to the meeting today. I needn't have gone to the meeting yesterday.*
- 2 In the affirmative, we use *need* as a modal:
 - in questions: **Need you go so soon? Need you have told him the truth?**
 - with 'negative adverbs' (e.g. *hardly*): **I need hardly tell you how important this is.**
- 3 Otherwise, we generally use the full verb *need to* (used like any regular verb):
I need to/ I don't need to/ I needed to/ I didn't need to go to the dentist this morning.

Write: Replace the phrases in italics with modal *need* or the full verb *need to*.

- | | modal | full verb |
|--|------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 <i>Is it necessary for you to go so soon?</i> | <i>Need you go...?</i> | <i>Do you need to go...?</i> |
| 2 <i>Is it necessary for me to wait till you return?</i> | | |
| 3 <i>It's not necessary for them to wait.</i> | | |
| 4 <i>It wasn't necessary for you to have said that.</i> | | |
| 5 <i>It's hardly necessary for me to explain it.</i> [> 13.2A] | | |
| 6 <i>There is no need for him to learn about this.</i> | | |
| 7 <i>All that is necessary for you to do is to agree.</i> | | |
| 8 <i>I don't think there is any need for you to explain.</i> | | |

11.12B The form of 'dare' as a modal and as a full verb [> LEG 11.65-66]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *dare* as a modal (that is, without *to* after it) mainly in the negative to express lack of courage: ***I daren't tell him the truth. I daren't ask for more money.***
- 2 In the affirmative, we use *dare* as a modal:
 - in questions: ***Dare you do it?***
 - with 'negative adverbs' (e.g. *hardly*): ***I hardly dare tell him what happened.***
- 3 We also form questions with *do/does/did*: ***Do you dare tell him? I don't dare tell him.***
- 4 We can use *dare to* as a full verb: ***Do you dare to tell him? I don't dare to tell him.***
- 5 And note: *I didn't like the meal ...*,
but I daren't say so/ I daren't have said so/ I didn't dare (to) say so/ I dared not say so.

Write: Supply *dare*, *daren't*, *dare not have (done)*, *didn't dare (do)*, etc.

- 1 I *daren't* tell them I've just broken their favourite vase.
- 2 I tell them I had broken their favourite vase.
- 3 I hardly mention this, but you still haven't paid for those tickets.
- 4 we ask for more money after what he has just said?
- 5 I knew I was right, but I say so at the time.
- 6 I'm going to tell your mother what you've just said! – Just you
- 7 She'd like to wear more unconventional clothes, but she
- 8 We didn't like the meal they gave us, but we said so. It would have been rude.
- 9 They offered me something strange to eat which I refuse.

11.12C Uses of 'dare' [\triangleright LEG 11.67-69]

Study:

★★

We use *dare* in four ways to express:

- 1 courage: *Very few climbers have **dared (to) attempt** Mount Everest without oxygen.*
Dare (to) is in the affirmative here, and this use is relatively rare.
- 2 lack of courage: *I **don't dare (to) tell** the children that our holiday has been cancelled.*
This use of *dare (to)*, in the negative, is the most common.
- 3 challenge: *I **dare you to jump** off that wall.* (Not **I dare you jump**)
We use *dare* only as a full verb with *to* for challenging. We use it in the affirmative and negative like any other verb. 'Challenging' is common in the language of children.
- 4 outrage: *How **dare you read** my private diary!* (Not **How dare you to read**)
We use *dare* only as a modal without *to* when expressing outrage.

Write: What do the sentences below express? Choose **a, b, c, or d**:

a courage **b** lack of courage **c** challenge **d** outrage

- 1 You dare raise your voice! *a*
- 2 I dare you to put a spider in her desk. ___
- 3 How dare you speak to me like that? ___
- 4 He's the only person who'll dare (to) stand up to her! ___
- 5 I wanted to ask for some time off, but I didn't dare. ___
- 6 Jill's friends dared her to bring her pet snake to class. ___
- 7 I daren't ask for any more money. ___
- 8 He lost his job because he dared (to) speak out. ___
- 9 Don't you dare do anything like that in public again! ___
- 10 I daren't have said so at the time, but I was very bored. ___
- 11 John never dares to stand up in public and say what he thinks. ___
- 12 I'm going to break the door down! – Just you dare! ___

11.12D Context

Write: Combine the correct forms of *dare* and *need* with the verbs in brackets.

UNWELCOME FRESH AIR!

It was a routine flight from Hilo on Hawaii to Kahului 110 miles away. Suddenly, there was a tremendous noise and the top of the plane was torn away! Ninety-four passengers (*not move*)¹ *dared not move*, wondering what would happen next. They (*not worry*)² because Robert Schornsteimer, the pilot, was firmly in control. For 25 minutes they hardly (*breathe*)³, though there was plenty of unwelcome fresh air! 'I (*not open*)⁴ my mouth,' one of the passengers said later. 'I hardly (*tell*)⁵ you how terrified I was.' The passengers embraced the pilot who had brought the plane down safely. 'I've heard of a plane flying off a roof,' joked one of them later, 'but never of a roof flying off a plane!'



Plenty of unwelcome fresh air!

11.13 'Would/wouldn't'; 'that ... should'; 'there' + modal

11.13A 'Would' and 'wouldn't' in place of the simple present tense or 'will' future [> LEG 11.74.2]

Study:

★★

We often use *would* and *wouldn't* in place of the simple present (and sometimes in place of *will/won't*) when we want to sound less definite, or when we want to be very polite:

That seems to be a good idea. → *That would seem to be a good idea.*
I think Friday will be OK. → *I would think that Friday will be OK.*
Thursday isn't/won't be convenient. → *Thursday wouldn't be convenient.*

Write: Replace the verbs in italics with *would* and *wouldn't*.

- £100 *is* rather expensive for a pair of gloves. ... *would be*
- I'm sure your proposal *isn't* acceptable to the committee.
- Does my idea seem reasonable to you? – I *think* so.
- This new law *doesn't seem* to be fair to pensioners.
- I'm not free on Thursday, but I'm free on Friday.
- She's offered to help, but I *don't imagine* she's serious.
- Does that *seem* a reasonable price to offer for a used car?

11.13B 'That ... should' after verbs like 'suggest' [> LEG 11.75, App 45.3]

Study:

★★★

If we put *that* after verbs like *ask, propose, recommend, suggest*, we continue like this:

- with *should*: *I suggest that he should apply/shouldn't apply for the job.*
- with the simple present: *I suggest that he applies/he doesn't apply for the job.*
- with the 'subjunctive': *I suggest that he apply/not apply for the job.*

Note on the 'subjunctive': In the 'subjunctive', the base form of the verb (*be, go, run*, etc.) remains the same in all persons. The present form is rare in British English:

I suggest you go/he go/they go (etc.) *go to the meeting tomorrow.*

The subjunctive form *were* is used in all persons in the past [> 11.7B, 14.2B].

Write: a Supply suitable verb forms in these sentences.

b Then mark your answers **a** (= should), **b** (= simple present) or **c** (= 'subjunctive').

- Marion proposed that *we should buy* a gift for Jim who would soon be leaving the firm. (we/buy) a
- The travel agent recommended that driving abroad during the holidays. (we/avoid) ___
- I suggest that this matter during the meeting. (he/not raise) ___
- All I ask is that the rules. (they/not break) ___
- What does he advise? (she/do) ___
- It's no good demanding that our performance. We're doing our best. (we/improve) ___
- I would only request that good care of this flat while you're living in it. (you/take) ___
- Her solicitor insisted that she in signing the contract. (not/delay) ___
- I suggest a taxi if we want to get to the meeting on time. (we/take) ___
- He asks that to visit his children once a week. (he/be allowed) ___

11.13C 'That ... should' after adjectives like 'essential' [> LEG 11.75.3, App 44]

Study: *******

If we put *that* after adjectives like *essential, urgent, vital*, we continue like this:
 - with *should*: ***It's urgent that he should send the information at once.***
 - with the simple present: ***It's urgent that he sends the information at once.***
 - with the 'subjunctive': ***It's urgent that he send the information at once.***

Write:

- a** Supply suitable verb forms in these sentences.
b Then mark your answers **a** (= should), **b** (= simple present) or **c** (= 'subjunctive')
- 1 It's urgent that *we should send* the information now. (we/send) a
 - 2 It's essential that home now. (she/return) ___
 - 3 It's vital that (he/be inform) ___
 - 4 I'm eager that present at the meeting. (she/be) ___

11.13D 'There' + modal auxiliaries [> LEG 11.76]

Study: *******

Just as *there* will combine with *be* (*there is, there was, there has been*, etc. [> 10.3]), it will combine with modals:
There could be no doubt about it. There must be a mistake.
There can't have been any doubt about it. There might have been a mistake.
There never used to be anyone living next door. There might have been someone outside.

Write:

- Supply appropriate modal combinations. More than one answer is possible in each case.
- 1 There (be) a problem about this. *There could be a problem about this*
 - 2 There (be) a witness present.
 - 3 There (never be) a better opportunity.
 - 4 (there be) a reason for this delay?
 - 5 (there be) another election soon?
 - 6 Why (there be) so much red tape?
 - 7 Why (not there be) more university places?

11.13E Context

Write:

Supply suitable forms of the verbs and insert *could be, may be, will be, would seem*.



You've been painting the ceiling!

MEDICAL DETECTIVE?

'For the time being,' Dr Grey said, 'it's important that (you take) ¹ *you (should) take* it easy. Immediately after a heart attack, I suggest (you get) ² plenty of rest. After a month, I recommend (you begin) ³ taking a little exercise.' Mr Fry blinked through his glasses. 'I ⁴ dead!' he protested. 'If you don't do as I tell you, you will be,' Dr Grey said. 'It's vital that (you follow) ⁵ my advice.' 'But I've always been so active, Doctor.' 'And you ⁶ active again, but not yet. Come and see me in a fortnight.' Of course, Mr Fry didn't follow his doctor's advice. 'There ⁷ people who can sit around,' he said to his wife, 'but I can't!' He spent the morning before his next appointment painting the kitchen ceiling. In the afternoon, he visited Dr Grey. 'It ⁸ you have been painting the ceiling!' Dr Grey said sternly. 'How can you possibly know, Doctor?' 'You've got paint on your glasses!' the doctor said.

12 The passive and the causative

12.1 General information about form

12.1A Basic forms of the passive [> LEG 12.1-3]

Study:

★★

- 1 In the **active** voice, the subject of the verb is the person or thing that does the action:
John burnt the dinner last night.
In the **passive** voice, the action is done to the subject: **The dinner was burnt** last night.
- 2 We form the passive with a suitable form of *be* + past participle. Only verbs which take an object (**transitive verbs** [>1.2B]) can go into the passive:
The dinner was burnt. (But not **The plane was arrived.**)
- 3 Basic tense forms are a tense of *be* + past participle:
present: *he writes* → **it is written**
past: *he wrote* → **it was written**
present/past perfect: *he has/had written* → **it has/had been written**
- 4 Basic modal forms are: modal + *be/have been* + past participle:
will: *he will write* → **it will be written**
may: *he may write* → **it may be written**
may have: *he may have written* → **it may have been written, etc.**
- 5 Infinitive: *to be/to have been* + past participle [> 16.1A]:
he is/was to write → **it is to be written/it was to have been written**

Write 1: Mark with a P those sentences which will go into the passive.

- 1 Someone will drive you to the airport. P
- 2 Goldfish live in fresh water. ___
- 3 The Egyptians built pyramids. ___
- 4 We walked for miles yesterday. ___
- 5 They arrived at 7 last night. ___
- 6 They informed me about it. ___
- 7 I slept till 8. ___
- 8 It's raining. ___
- 9 You must obey the rules. ___
- 10 He's sneezing again. ___

Write 2: Rewrite these sentences in the passive.

- 1 *They owe* a lot of money to the bank.
..... *A lot of money is owed to the bank.*
- 2 *They have proved* that there is no life on the moon.
It
- 3 *You can buy* videos like this one anywhere.
.....
- 4 *Someone has to write* the history of the European Community one day.
.....
- 5 *Someone may have already written* the history of the European Community.
.....
- 6 When we arrived home, we found that *someone had broken* one of our windows.
.....
- 7 *They have sold* their car to pay their debts.
.....
- 8 *They hold* a meeting in the village hall once a week.
.....

12.1B The passive with progressive forms: 'She is being interviewed'

[> LEG 12.3n.6]

Study:

★★

Only the present and past progressive [> 9.2B, 9.4B] are common in the passive. We form the passive with the progressive form of *be* (*am/is/are/was/were being*) + a past participle:

present progressive: *They are interviewing her now.* → *She is being interviewed now.*

past progressive: *They were interviewing her here.* → *She was being interviewed here.*

Write: Rewrite these sentences beginning with the words provided.

- 1 The manager always welcomes new employees.
New employees *are always welcomed by the manager*
- 2 They're building a new supermarket near the church.
A new supermarket
- 3 They fought the battle in 1623.
The battle
- 4 Someone was cleaning the windows while I was there.
The windows
- 5 Someone has moved my desk!
My desk
- 6 They are taking the refugees to a camp outside the village.
The refugees
- 7 Someone had signed all the documents before I arrived.
All the documents
- 8 They were questioning us and searching our vehicle at the same time.
We and our vehicle
- 9 They will post our letters when the ship arrives at the next port of call.
Our letters
- 10 They are opening the case again because they're not satisfied with the verdict.
The case

12.1C Context

Write: Put in the correct forms, active or passive, of the verbs in brackets.

HOW THE OTHER HALF LIVES (?)

Lord Manners was a rich and famous banker. When he (*die*)¹ *died* recently, he (*give*)² a magnificent funeral which (*attend*)³ by hundreds of famous people. The funeral was going to (*hold*)⁴ in Westminster Abbey. Many ordinary people (*line*)⁵ the streets to watch the procession. The wonderful black and gold carriage (*draw*)⁶ by six black horses. The mourners (*follow*)⁷ in silence. Lord Manners (*give*)⁸ a royal farewell. Two tramps were among the crowd. They (*watch*)⁹ the procession with amazement. As solemn music (*could hear*)¹⁰ in the distance, one of them (*turn*)¹¹ to the other and (*whisper*)¹² in admiration, 'Now that's what I call really living!'



That's what I call really living!

12.2 Uses of the passive

12.2A Uses of the passive [> LEG 12.1, 12.4.1-3]

Study:

★★

- The passive is not just a different form of the active. It has its own uses and is very common in English. It would be hard to think of the active forms of sentences like:
Rome wasn't built in a day. The origin of the universe will never be explained.
- We use the passive mainly in three ways:
 - when we don't want to take responsibility for something:
The matter will be dealt with soon. (We don't know or want to say who'll deal with it.)
 - when we want to focus on a happening, not who or what did it:
Our roof was damaged in last night's storm. (We're concerned about the roof.)
 - when we want to avoid 'vague subjects' like *one, someone, they*, etc.:
The form has to be signed. (Not *Someone/One has to sign the form.)*
English spoken. (Not *One speaks English*) **Shoes repaired.** (Not *One repairs shoes*)

Write:

Supply suitable active and passive forms in these sentences using the verbs in brackets. Some variations in tenses may be possible.

- It isn't clear how far the ozone layer (damage) *has been damaged* by aerosol sprays. It may be possible to tell whether the hole over the Antarctic (widen) *has widened* after the area (investigate) *has been investigated* by high-flying planes.
- These days, even the most remote places on earth (visit) by tourists. Package tours (can/arrange) for almost anywhere, from the Himalayas to the Amazonian jungle.
- Notices such as (English/Speak) and (Shoes/Repair) are common. Sometimes they (translate) into different languages for the benefit of tourists.
- We (constantly remind) of the way the world (become) smaller when events taking place in different parts of the globe (flash) on our television screens.
- If you (involve) in a car accident and someone (hurt), you (have to) report the matter to the police. If only the vehicles (damage), drivers should exchange names and addresses.

12.2B The use of 'by' + agent (= 'doer') after a passive [> LEG 12.5]

Study:

★★

- We use *by* only when we need to say who or what is responsible for an event:
The window was broken last night. (We don't know or want to say who or what did it.)
The window was broken by a slate that fell off the roof. (We wish to give information.)
- We often use *by* + agent with the passive of verbs like *build, compose, damage, design, destroy, discover, invent, make* and *write* to identify who or what is/was responsible:
Who designed St Paul's? – It was designed by Christopher Wren.

Write:

Supply passive forms with *by* + agent where necessary.

- When Jasper Morgan died his collection of pictures (sell) *was sold* to raise enough money to pay his taxes. Tremendous interest in the sale (show/the general public) *was shown by the general public*
- The music that (compose/Beethoven) towards the end of his life is very different from his early music. The music (write) in extremely difficult conditions.
- Many beautiful old buildings in cities (replace/modern ones) If this replacement (not control), it isn't very long before a city loses its character.

12.2C The passive with verbs of 'saying' and 'believing': 'It is said (that) ...'

[> LEG 12.8]

Study:

★★★

We need to be sure of our facts when we say: e.g. **He was** a spy in World War II.

If we are not sure of our facts, we can express caution by saying:

It is said (that) he was a spy in World War II./**He was said to be** a spy in World War II.

We can express caution in three ways, with:

- 1 *It* (+ passive + *that*-clause) with e.g. *agree, believe, consider, decide, hope, know, say*.
It is said (that) there is plenty of oil off our own coast.
- 2 *There* (+ passive + *to be*) with e.g. *allege, believe, fear, know, report, say, suppose, think*.
There is said to be plenty of oil off our own coast.
- 3 Subject (not *it*) (+ passive + *to*-infinitive) with e.g. *allege, believe, consider, know, say*.
Jane is said to know all there is to know about chimpanzees.

Write: Begin these sentences with *It, There* or a name/a noun + passive construction.

- 1 *It is expected* that prices will rise again this month. (expect)
- 2 that all the passengers had died in the crash. (fear)
- 3 to be an expert in financial matters. (suppose)
- 4 to have committed the crime. (think)
- 5 that the sea level is rising. (think)
- 6 to be a lot of coal in the Antarctic. (think)
- 7 to be honest and reliable. (consider)
- 8 to be thousands of people waiting to renew their passports. (say)
- 9 that thousands of new jobs will be created in the computer industry. (say)
- 10 to be a fall in house prices, but I haven't noticed it. (suppose)

12.2D Context

Write: Use the correct tenses and passive forms of the verbs in brackets.



FISHY TALES

Mermaids (*see*) ~~1 have been seen~~ by sailors for centuries. The basis of all mermaid myths (*suppose*) ² to be a creature called a Manatee: a kind of walrus! Mermaids used (*to show*) ³ in funfairs until recently. It all began in 1817 when a 'mermaid' (*buy*) ⁴ for \$6,000 by a sailor in the South Pacific. She (*eventually sell*) ⁵ to the great circus-owner Barnum. She (*exhibit*) ⁶ in 1842 as 'The Feejee Mermaid'. It (*say*) ⁷ that she earned Barnum \$1,000 a week! The thousands who saw this mermaid (*must/disappoint*) ⁸ She (*cleverly make*) ⁹ by a Japanese fisherman. A monkey's head (*delicately sew*) ¹⁰ to the tail of a large salmon. The job (*so skilfully do*) ¹¹ that the join between the fish and the monkey was invisible. Real imagination (*must/require*) ¹² to see this revolting creature as a beautiful mermaid combing her golden hair!

A beautiful mermaid?

12.3 Form and use of the causative

12.3A Form of the causative: 'have something done' [> LEG 12.10-11]

Study:

★★

- Note the difference between these two sentences:
I had built a house. (past perfect tense = 'I did it myself' [> 9.6A])
I had a house built. (the causative = 'I arranged for it to be done' [> 12.3B])
- We form: the causative with *have* + noun or pronoun object + past participle.
 We use the causative in different tenses and with modals:
I am having a house built. I had a house built. I have had a house built.
I will have a house built. I must have a house built. I can't have a house built. etc.

Write: Complete these sentences with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

- They've just had their living room *decorated* (decorate)
- Your car engine sounds dreadful. You ought to have it (look at)
- Have you had your eyes recently? (test)
- He's going to have his hair at the weekend. (cut)
- Can I have this letter, please? (photocopy)
- This letter is so important, I'm going to have it by a lawyer. (write)

12.3B The causative compared with the active and passive [> LEG 12.12]

Study:

★★

- We use the **active** to describe jobs we do ourselves or when we know who's doing a job:
I'm servicing the car. Jack is servicing the car.
- We use the **passive** to say that a job is being done for us, but we don't know or don't want to say who is doing it:
The car is being serviced. (We're focusing on the car [> 12.2A])
- We use the **causative** to stress the fact that we are 'causing' someone to do a job for us:
I'm having the car serviced. I have had my car serviced. I'm going to have my hair cut.
 Not **I'm going to cut my hair** which means 'I'm going to cut it myself'. [compare > 16.2B]
 We often use the causative with verbs that have to do with services: e.g.
build, clean, decorate, develop (a film), mend, photocopy, press, print, repair, service.

Write 1: Supply the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

- What are you doing? – I *'m cleaning* the car. (clean)
- Where's your car? – It at the moment. I'll collect it in an hour. (clean)
- I never find time to clean the car myself, so I (clean)
- Did you decorate the room yourselves? – No, we (decorate)
- We can't use the living room. It at the moment. (decorate)
- You They look quite worn. (must/repair your shoes)
- My shoes It was an expensive job! (just repair)
- The heel came off my shoe and I it myself. (repair)
- 'I'd like this film, ' I said. 'Certainly,' the assistant said. (develop and print)
- 'Can I use the photocopier this document?' I asked. (photocopy)
- Who the children's clothes, in this house? – Who do you think? I do! (mend)
- What's happened to my report? – It at the moment. (photocopy)

Write 2: Today is Wednesday. Look at the notes Maria wrote yesterday and early today. Then write:
a what she had done yesterday; **b** what she is having done today;
c what she is going to have done tomorrow.

Tuesday	Wednesday (today)	Thursday
best skirt cleaned	eyes tested	a tooth extracted
two trees planted	a film developed	two teeth filled
car serviced	some furniture delivered	hair done

- 1a *She had her best skirt cleaned yesterday.*
 b *She's having her eyes tested today.*
 c *She's going to have a tooth extracted tomorrow.*
- 2a
 b
 c
- 3a
 b
 c

12.3C 'Get' in the causative: 'get something done' [> LEG 12.11, 12.13]

Study:

★★

We sometimes use *get* in place of *have* in the causative to say something is urgent:
Have that car repaired! (causative) **Get that car repaired!** (more urgent causative)

Write: Use *get* in place of *have* in these sentences.

- I must have *I must get* this report photocopied and sent off straightaway.
- They're finally having their central heating repaired.
- We'll be having the job done by a local builder.
- Why don't you have that suit cleaned? It's filthy!
- Have your hair cut!

12.3D Context

Write: Put in causative forms for the verbs in brackets.



CONSTANT MAINTENANCE!

The more you own, the more there is to go wrong. You invest in a new hi-fi system and in no time you have to (*it repair*) ¹ *get it repaired*. You (*a new washing machine install*) ² and you have to buy expensive insurance to maintain it. You buy a car and need to (*it service*) ³ regularly. You buy a camera and then spend a fortune (*films develop and print*) ⁴ It's not only things that need constant attention. How often we have to (*our eyes test*) ⁵, (*our teeth fill*) ⁶ and (*our chests X-ray*) ⁷! But I had to smile last time I went to (*my hair cut*) ⁸ A bold notice in the window announced: 'All our customers promptly executed!' You certainly wouldn't need to (*any jobs do*) ⁹ after that!

... customers promptly executed!

13 Questions, answers, negatives

13.1 Yes/No questions, negative statements, Yes/No answers

13.1A Yes/No questions (expecting 'Yes' or 'No' in the answer) [> LEG 13.1-3]

Study:



- 1 We make Yes/No questions from statements. In the case of *be*, *have* (auxiliary) and modal verbs like *can* and *must* [> 11.1A] we do this by **inversion**, that is by putting *be*, *have* or *can*, etc. in front of the subject: **He is leaving.** → **Is he leaving?**
She can drive a bus. → **Can she drive a bus?**
- 2 With all other verbs, we form Yes/No questions with *Do* and *Does* in the simple present and *Did* in the simple past. The form of the verb is always the bare infinitive:
We turn left here. → **Do we turn left here?**
He works well. → **Does he work well?**
They arrived late. → **Did they arrive late?**

Write: You want to know if ... What do you say?

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 you're late. <i>Am I late?</i> | 9 she should be here. |
| 2 this is the London train. | 10 she could ask a question. |
| 3 your photos are ready. | 11 it will be fine tomorrow. |
| 4 John is working in the garden. | 12 my friend will be staying. |
| 5 the children are studying. | 13 they would like an invitation. |
| 6 Jane gives piano lessons. | 14 they often argue like that. |
| 7 Tony was enjoying himself. | 15 I run a mile every morning. |
| 8 they live in the south. | 16 Sheila went to the lecture. |

13.1B Negative statements [> LEG 13.2, 13.4]

Study:



- 1 When a sentence contains *be*, *have*, or a modal like *can*, we form the negative by putting *not* after the auxiliary: **He is leaving.** → **He is not (He isn't or He's not) leaving.**
He can leave. → **He cannot (can't) leave.**
- 2 With all other verbs we use *do not (don't)* and *does not (doesn't)* after the subject in the simple present and *did not (didn't)* after the subject in the past. The verb is always a bare infinitive:
We turn left here. → **We do not (don't) turn left here.**
He works well. → **He does not (doesn't) work well.**
They arrived late. → **They did not (didn't) arrive late.**

Write: Say 'no', disagree or contradict with full negative statements.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 Are you ready? <i>No, I'm not ready.</i> | 9 He can speak Russian. |
| 2 She's right. | 10 He'll be leaving soon. |
| 3 They're late. | 11 It would be a very good idea. |
| 4 You're being silly. | 12 It looks like rain. |
| 5 He's working in London. | 13 They always win. |
| 6 They're playing tennis. | 14 They missed the last lesson. |
| 7 I'm going to fail. | 15 She's always been good at sport. |
| 8 She was waiting for you. | 16 You've met her. |

13.1C Yes/No short answers [> LEG 13.5-7]

Study:



1 When answering with *Yes* or *No*, we usually repeat the first word in the question:

Was James late? – Yes, he **was**./No, he **wasn't**.

Can he play chess? – Yes, he **can**./No, he **can't**.

Note: **Are you ...?** – Yes, **I am**./No, **I'm not**. **Were you ...?** – Yes, **I was**./No, **I wasn't**.
where we repeat the verb, but in a different form.

2 We do not usually answer a Yes/No question in full:

Did James go out last night? – **Yes, he did**./No, **he didn't**.

rather than 'Yes, he went out last night.' 'No, he didn't go out last night.'

We do not usually answer a Yes/No question with just *Yes* or *No*:

Do you like dancing? – **Yes, I do**./No, **I don't**. Not *Yes./No.* which can sound rude.

3 We can put a lot of expression into short answers and use them to give information, agree, disagree, confirm, etc. e.g.

Did you lock the back door? – **Yes, I did**./No, **I didn't**. **It's hot.** – **Yes, it is**./No, **it isn't**.

Write: Answer these questions with either *Yes* or *No*.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 Are you ready? <i>Yes, I am</i> | 10 Should I go with them? |
| 2 Is she still at college? | 11 Will you be at the meeting? |
| 3 Are they on their way here? | 12 Would you do that if you were me? |
| 4 Are you still learning French? | 13 Does she still write to you? |
| 5 Is Carla applying for that job? | 14 Do you like curry? |
| 6 Are we staying at the same hotel? | 15 Did he tell you about the party? |
| 7 Are you going to help me? | 16 Has he finished yet? |
| 8 Was she joking? | 17 Have you ever eaten swordfish? |
| 9 Were they living there then? | 18 Has she been working here long? |

13.1D Context

Write: Put in suitable Yes/No questions, negatives or short answers.

GUESS WHAT!

Before setting out on holiday, the Weeks family sat in their car and went through their usual quiz.

MR WEEKS: (*we/turn off*)¹ *Did we turn off/Have we turned off* the electricity?

MRS WEEKS: (*Yes*)²..... I turned it off myself.

MR WEEKS: (*all the taps off*)³.....?

JIMMY: (*Yes*)⁴..... I checked every one of them, dad.

SALLY: (*not remember*)⁵..... my teddy-bear!

MRS WEEKS: (*Yes*)⁶....., darling. I packed him in your case.

MR WEEKS: (*there any windows open*)⁷.....?

JIMMY: (*No*)⁸..... I shut them all, dad.

MRS WEEKS: (*the front and back doors/lock*)⁹..... ?

MR WEEKS: (*Yes*)¹⁰..... I've just locked them.

After they had been on the road for an hour, Mr Weeks suddenly turned pale and said, 'Guess what! I (*not/got*)¹¹..... my house keys. They're still in the back door!'



13.2 Alternative negative forms and negative questions

13.2A Negative statements with 'negative adverbs': 'never', etc. [> LEG 13.8-10]

Study:

★★

1 We can make negative or near-negative statements with adverbs like *never*, *hardly*, *hardly ever*, *seldom* and *rarely* [compare > 7.4A-B, 7.8C]. *Never* is more emphatic than *not*.

Compare: *I don't drink coffee.* (negative) with: *I never drink coffee.* (emphatic negative)

2 We can't use a negative adverb with a negative verb to make a 'double negative':

I can hardly recognize him. (Not **I can't hardly recognize him.**)

Nobody phoned. (Not **Nobody didn't phone.**)

This is especially true for *no*, *any* and their compounds [> 4.6B]:

I've got no time. → *I haven't got any time.*

I've seen no one/nobody. → *I haven't seen anyone/anybody.*

I've bought none of them. → *I haven't bought any of them.*

I've done nothing today. → *I haven't done anything today.*

I've been nowhere today. → *I haven't been anywhere today.*

Write: Make negative or near-negative statements using the adverbs in brackets.

- 1 I don't go to the cinema. (never) *I never go to the cinema.*
- 2 She doesn't watch TV. (hardly ever)
- 3 I can't get him on the phone. (seldom)
- 4 They didn't greet me. (barely)
- 5 We don't go out. (scarcely ever)
- 6 We can't wait till tomorrow. (hardly)
- 7 We don't see our neighbours. (rarely)
- 8 It's not worth the trouble. (scarcely)
- 9 I haven't bought any eggs. (no)
- 10 I didn't speak to anyone. (no one)
- 11 I don't want any of them. (none)
- 12 She didn't say anything. (nothing)
- 13 We didn't go anywhere. (nowhere)
- 14 Please don't tell anybody. (nobody)
- 15 She doesn't understand English. (hardly)

13.2B Cancelling what has just been said: 'No, not Wednesday' [> LEG 13.12]

Study:

★★

We can cancel what we have just said with *not*:

See you Wednesday – no, not Wednesday, Thursday. (Not **No Wednesday**)

Write: Cancel the following by referring to the words in italics.

- 1 Ask *Diana*. *(No,) not Diana, Josephine.*
- 2 I'll see you at *5*.
- 3 The plane leaves from *London*.
- 4 The film you want to see is on *today*.
- 5 I'd like a cup of *coffee*.
- 6 Please pass me the *salt*.

13.2C Negative questions: 'Can't you ...?' [> LEG 13.14-16]

Study:

★★

1 In negative questions, the word order of the full form is different from the short form:

full form: *Did he not explain the situation to you?*

short form: *Didn't he explain the situation to you?*

We normally use the short form in conversation and the full form only for emphasis.

2 Depending on the stress and intonation we use, we can:

– express disbelief, surprise: *Can't you really ride a bicycle?*

– invite the answer 'Yes!': *Don't you remember our holiday in Spain?*

– persuade: *Won't you please help me?*

– express annoyance: *Can't you ever shut the door behind you?*

– make exclamations: *Isn't it hot in here!*

Write: Rewrite these negative questions using short forms.

- 1 Am I not too early? [> 10.1B] *Aren't I too early?*
- 2 Is she not very well?
- 3 Are those answers not wrong?
- 4 Is he not waiting for you?
- 5 Are they not living in Canada?
- 6 Was she not a famous actress?
- 7 Were you not at my old school?
- 8 Are you not going to be there?
- 9 Can you not walk faster?
- 10 Could you not do this for me?
- 11 Do you not like fish?
- 12 Does she not go to church?
- 13 Did he not enjoy the film?
- 14 Have you not finished yet?
- 15 Has he not gone yet?
- 16 Have I not been invited?
- 17 Should you not let him know?
- 18 Am I not invited?

13.2D Context

Write: Put in *anything, anywhere, everyone, hardly ever, no, no one, nothing*.

NOT YETI

A Yeti is supposed to be a strange creature that lives in the Himalayas. Nearly ¹.....*everyone*..... has heard of Yetis, but ²..... has actually seen one. Recently, a party of climbers went up Mount Jaonli looking for Yetis. Unlike more famous mountains, Jaonli has ³..... been climbed. The party saw ⁴..... Yetis ⁵..... . There was a moment's excitement one night when a climber heard a strange, two-note sound. He rushed out of his tent and asked his Tibetan guide, Chewang Thundup, if he had heard ⁶..... . 'No, I heard ⁷.....,' the guide replied. 'But I just heard a strange sound,' the climber said. 'That was no Yeti,' Chewang laughed. 'It was me, blowing my nose!'



... a strange two-note sound

13.3 Tag questions and echo tags

13.3A Tag questions 1: 'It is ..., isn't it?'/ 'It isn't ..., is it?' [> LEG 13.17-19, 13.22.1-2]

Study:

★★

- 1 A tag question is a short question (e.g. *have you?/haven't you?*) that follows a statement. We form tag questions with auxiliaries (*be, have, can, may, etc.*) and *do, does, did*.
- 2 They are **affirmative – negative**: *John was annoyed, wasn't he? You like fish, don't you?* or **negative – affirmative**: *John wasn't annoyed, was he? You don't like fish, do you?*
- 3 Many languages have a phrase which means 'Isn't that so?' In English, we use tags to say this, but we also use expressions like *don't you think?, right?* etc.
- 4 If our voice goes up on the tag, we are asking a real question which needs an answer:
You left the gas on, didn't you? – Yes, I did./No, I didn't.
You didn't leave the gas on, did you? – Yes, I did./No, I didn't.
- 5 If our voice goes down on the tag, we want the listener to agree with us and we don't usually expect an answer: *You locked the door, didn't you? (= I assume you did.)*
You didn't lock the door, did you? (= I assume you didn't.)

Write: You want the listener to agree with you. Do the exercise orally, then in writing.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 She's late, <i>isn't she</i> ? | 10 She isn't late, ? |
| 2 They're on holiday, ? | 11 They aren't on holiday, ? |
| 3 I'm early, ? [> 10.1B] | 12 I'm not early, ? |
| 4 Carla was at home, ? | 13 Carla wasn't at home, ? |
| 5 We were all ill, ? | 14 We weren't all ill, ? |
| 6 You've finished, ? | 15 You haven't finished, ? |
| 7 Marc has gone out, ? | 16 Marc hasn't gone out, ? |
| 8 I always do the wrong thing, ? | 17 I don't often do the right thing, ? |
| 9 Tessa works hard, ? | 18 Tessa doesn't work hard, ? |

13.3B Tag questions 2: 'You painted it yourself, did you?' [> LEG 13.20-21, 13.22.3]

Study:

★★

Tag questions can also be **affirmative – affirmative**.

If our voice goes up on the tag, we mean 'Tell me more', etc.:

She's getting married, is she? (= I'd like to know more about it.)

If our voice goes down on the tag, we express negative feelings like disappointment, disapproval or suspicion. We don't usually expect an answer:

I'll get my money back, will I? (= I don't believe it.)

Write: Say the sentences under A aloud and match them with a statement under B.

A

- 1 You painted it yourself, did you? e
- 2 You couldn't give me a hand, could you? __
- 3 Someone broke that vase, did they? __
- 4 You'll give me a call, will you? __
- 5 So they're selling their house, are they? __
- 6 You didn't leave the garage open, did you? __
- 7 He says he's innocent, does he? __

B

- a) I don't believe it.
- b) Tell me more.
- c) I hope you can.
- d) I hope you didn't.
- e) I'm impressed.
- f) I hope you will.
- g) I'm sorry to hear that.

13.3C Echo tags: 'Is he?'/ 'He is?' [> LEG 13.24-26]

Study:

★★

1 An echo tag is a response, in tag form, to an affirmative or negative statement.

affirmative

He's resigning.

– *Is he? He is?*

– *He is, isn't he?*

– *He is, is he?*

negative

He isn't resigning.

– *Isn't he? He isn't?*

– *He isn't, is he?*

–

2 If our voice goes up on the echo, we want more information:

I've just won £500! – *Have/you?/You/have?/You haven't, have/you?* (= Tell me more!)

3 If our voice goes down on the echo, we confirm what we know or have guessed:

I'm afraid he's made a bad mistake. – *He has, hasn't/he?* (= I confirm what you say.)

or we express anger, surprise, disbelief, etc.:

I've got the sack! – *You/haven't!/You haven't, have/you?/You have, have/you?*

Write:

Supply different echo tags in response to these statements.

Say the echo tags aloud with different intonation and describe what they express.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 John's paying. <i>Is he?</i> | 6 They don't eat much. |
| 2 They aren't very happy. | 7 You shouldn't be here. |
| 3 Suzy was 30 yesterday. | 8 I can afford a new car now. |
| 4 I wasn't very well last week. | 9 We can't go tomorrow. |
| 5 He works very hard. | 10 There'll be trouble about this. |

13.3D Context

Write:

Put in appropriate question tags and echo tags.



YOU COULD HAVE KNOCKED ME DOWN WITH A FEATHER!

I asked for my favourite perfume at the perfume counter of a large department store. 'We don't have that, ¹ *do we*?' the snooty assistant asked her colleague, as if I had just tried to buy a bag of onions. I was about to leave the counter when I saw a girl of about twelve slip away from her mother, seize a huge bottle of perfume from the counter and put it into her carrier bag. I gasped! 'Excuse me,' I said. 'Your daughter has just stolen a large bottle of perfume!' The mother looked at me in amazement. 'She ²?' 'That's right,' I said. She turned to her daughter. 'You didn't steal that big bottle that was on display, ³?' The girl nodded. 'You did, ⁴?' 'Yes, mum,' the girl confessed. 'I've told you hundreds of times, ⁵, that the big one on display is a *dummy*'. She angrily took the bottle from her daughter and put it back on display. 'You should always take one of the boxed ones at the back, ⁶? You do understand that, ⁷?' She helped herself to a boxed one and both she and her daughter disappeared into the crowd quick as a flash.

You could have knocked me down!

13.4 Additions and responses

13.4A Additions and contrasts: 'John can ... and I can, too/but I can't'

[> LEG 13.28-29]

Study:

★★

We can add to statements or make contrasts in the following ways:

statement	parallel addition	contrast
John can speak French	and I can , too.	but I can't .
John can't speak French	and I can't , either. [> 7.7C]	but I can .
John speaks French	and I do , too.	but I don't .
John doesn't speak French	and I don't , either.	but I do .
John can speak French	and so can I.	but I can't .
John can't speak French	and neither/nor can I.	but I can .
John speaks French	and so do I.	but I don't .
John doesn't speak French	and neither/nor do I.	but I do .

Write: Rudi and Roxanne are brother and sister. Read this information about them, then write good sentences, beginning each sentence with 'Rudi ...'.

Rudi

He can speak English, but not Italian.
 He plays tennis and goes skiing.
 He doesn't like classical music.
 He visited London last year.

Roxanne

She can speak English and Italian.
 She plays tennis, but doesn't go skiing.
 She doesn't like classical music.
 She visited Rome last year.

- 1 *Rudi can speak English, and Roxanne can, too.*.....
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10
- 11
- 12

13.4B Parallel responses: 'John can ...'/'I can, too/So can I' [> LEG 13.28-29]

Study:

★★

1 We repeat the auxiliary and if there is no auxiliary, we use *do*, *does* or *did*:

statement	parallel response	
John can speak French.	I can , too.	or: So can I.
John can't speak French.	I can't , either.	or: Neither/Nor can I.
John speaks French.	I do , too.	or: So do I.
John doesn't speak French.	I don't either.	or: Neither/Nor do I.

2 We often say *So'm I*, *Neither'm I*, *Nor'm I*, but we usually write them in full:
So am I, *Neither am I*, *Nor am I*. *Neither* and *Nor* are exactly the same.

Write: People say things and you respond.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 I can swim quite well. <i>I can, too./So can I.</i> | 7 I once had a holiday in Ireland. |
| 2 I can't speak Danish. | 8 I didn't enjoy that film. |
| 3 I really should study more! | 9 I was hoping to get home early. |
| 4 I won't be at college tomorrow. | 10 I've had a terrible cold. |
| 5 I love Spanish food. | 11 I haven't been very well. |
| 6 I don't like red wine. | 12 I thought the concert was awful! |

13.4C 'So have you' and 'So you have!' [> LEG 13.29.4]

Study:



Note the difference between:
I've got a rash on my arm and so have you. (parallel addition)
I've got a rash on my arm. – So you have! (confirmation or surprise)

Write: Tick which statements are additions and those which show confirmation/surprise. Then continue with similar sentences of your own.

	addition	confirmation/surprise
1 She's wearing that funny hat again! – So she is!	—	✓
2 He's doing very well at work. – So is she.	—	—
3 Maria visits us quite often. – So does Sandro.	—	—
4 Sandro looks just like his uncle. – So he does!	—	—
5 I've got something in my eye. – So you have!	—	—
6 Rosa's got a new bicycle. – So have I.	—	—
7	—	—
8	—	—
9	—	—
10	—	—
11	—	—
12	—	—

13.4D Context

Write: Put in suitable additions and responses.



CRAZY STORY

'What are you having to start with?' I asked my wife. 'I don't know,' she said. 'I'm not very hungry.' '1.....', I answered, 'but I think I'll start with soup.' '2.....', my wife said. The waiter took our order. 'My wife would like some soup and 3.....', I said. When the waiter brought the soup, I noticed a monkey sitting on a chair beside me. Suddenly, the monkey's tail was in my soup! 'Waiter! Waiter!' I cried. 'There's a monkey's tail in my soup!' '4.....!' the waiter exclaimed. 'I can't remove it,' I said. '5.....', the waiter said. 'This monkey belongs to the restaurant pianist and he won't let anyone touch it.' I spoke to the pianist. 'Do you know there's a monkey's tail in my soup?' I asked. 'No,' the pianist answered, 'but if you hum it to me, I'll be glad to play it for you.'

... a monkey's tail in my soup!

13.5 Question-word questions (1): 'Who(m) ...?', 'What ...?'

13.5A Form of question-word questions (except subject questions [> 13.8]) [> LEG 13.30-32]

Study:



The word order of question-word questions is: question-word + auxiliary + subject:

statement:	<i>He is working.</i>	<i>He arrives at 8.</i>
Yes/No question:	<i>Is he working?</i>	<i>Does he arrive at 8? [> 13.1A]</i>
question-word:	<i>Why is he working?</i>	<i>When does he arrive?</i>
	(Not <i>*Why he is working?*</i>)	(Not <i>*When he arrives?*</i>)

Write: Make two questions from each statement:

a a Yes/No question; **b** a question-word question.

- 1 She is arriving today. (When)
 - a *Is she arriving today?*
 - b *When is she arriving?*
- 2 He has written a letter. (Why)
 - a
 - b
- 3 She can help us. (How)
 - a
 - b
- 4 They live in Jamaica. (Where)
 - a
 - b
- 5 He arrives at 10. (What time)
 - a
 - b
- 6 You can't tell us. (What)
 - a
 - b

13.5B 'Who(m) ...?' as a question-word [> LEG 13.33]

Study:



- 1 *Who(m) ...?* asks for the object of a sentence, usually a person's name or a pronoun:
statement: *Frank met Alice.* **question:** *Who(m) did Frank meet? – Alice.*
- 2 *Who(m) ...?* refers only to people and can be used to ask about masculine, feminine, singular or plural: ***Who(m) did you see? – Tim/Ann/The Robinsons.***
- 3 We still use *Whom ...?* in formal English, spoken or written, but we often prefer *Who ...?* in everyday style:
Whom did you meet at the party? (formal) ***Who did you meet at the party?*** (informal)
- 4 We often use *Who(m) ...?* in questions with verbs followed by *to* or *for*.
Who(m) did you give it to? Who(m) did you buy it for?

Write: Write questions using the past tense with *Who(m) ...?* to produce the answers given.

- 1 you invite to your house? – The Frys. *Who(m) did you invite to your house?*
- 2 Jane see this morning? – Her mother.
- 3 you speak to? – The manager.
- 4 they employ? – Miss Johnson.
- 5 she buy this present for? – Her son.
- 6 John phone? – His brother.
- 7 you complain to? – The headmaster.
- 8 she write to? – Her sister.

13.5C 'What ...?' as a question-word [> LEG 13.34]

Study:

★★

- 1 *What ...?* asks for a whole sentence: ***What are you doing? – I'm reading.***
or for the object of a sentence: ***What are you reading? – 'Gone with the Wind'.***
- 2 *What ...?* also combines with nouns:
What book/books? What boy/boys? What girl/girls? [compare *Which?* > 13.6B]
- 3 We can use *What?* on its own (*What do you prefer?*) or in a variety of combinations:
*What('s) ... like?, What('s) ... called? What make ...? What nationality?,
What ... do (for a living)?, What time/date/year?, What('s) ... for?,
What kind(s)/sort(s) of ...?, What colour ...?, What size ...?*

Write:

Complete the questions on the left to fit the answers on the right.
Think about the combinations you can make with *What's ...?* or *What ...?*

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1 What <i>What are you doing / looking at</i> | ? | I'm looking at some travel brochures. |
| 2 What | ? | I work as an assistant in a book shop. |
| 3 What | ? | I use 'Woodland' shampoo. It's lovely. |
| 4 What | ? | She's good-looking, but very unpleasant. |
| 5 What | ? | Wonderful! Lots of sunshine and no rain. |
| 6 What | ? | It's called a 'spade' in English. |
| 7 What | ? | It's a Saab. |
| 8 What | ? | He's Nigerian. |
| 9 What | ? | I think they're leaving at 9.00. |
| 10 What | ? | It's March 13th. |
| 11 What | ? | It's for scraping paint off windows. |

13.5D Context

Write: Supply questions with *Who(m) ...?* and *What ...?*



I don't mind the risk!

TAKING RISKS

- MAGISTRATE: (*What/his name?*)¹ *What's his name?*
- POLICEMAN: James Denyer.
- MAGISTRATE: Not Denyer again! If he's not in gaol, he's in and out of this court. (*What/he/do this time?*)²
- POLICEMAN: He stole 25 pence.
- MAGISTRATE: (*Who(m)/steal it/from?*)³
- POLICEMAN: An old lady. He took it out of her purse.
- MAGISTRATE: (*What date/it?*)⁴
- POLICEMAN: March 24th.
- MAGISTRATE (to Denyer): (*What/do that for?*)⁵
- DENYER: I'm sorry, sir. It won't happen again.
- MAGISTRATE (to policeman): (*What/the chances?*)⁶
- if I let him go?
- POLICEMAN: It would be a risk, sir.
- MAGISTRATE: Do you hear, Denyer? It would be a risk. (*What/say*)⁷
- to that?
- DENYER: It's a risk I'd be glad to take. Honest, I don't mind the risk!
(*The court falls about with laughter.*)
- MAGISTRATE: In that case, I'd better let you go!

13.6 Question-word questions (2): 'When?', 'Where?', 'Which?', 'Whose?'

13.6A 'When ...?' and 'Where ...?' as question-words [> LEG 13.35, 13.38]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *When ...?* to ask about time in the present, past or future.
The answers are usually adverbs of time or prepositional phrases:
When is your flight? – Tomorrow morning./At 4.
- 2 We use *Where ...?* to ask about place.
The answers can be whole sentences, phrases or single words:
Where is he? – He's over there. Over there! There!
Where ... from? asks about people and things: ***Where are you from?/do you come from?***

Write: Read these situations. Then write questions with *When?* or *Where?*.

- 1 It's Jim's birthday soon. You can't remember when it is. Ask.
When is/When's Jim's birthday?
- 2 You like your friend's T-shirt. You'd like to know where he/she got it. Ask.
.....
- 3 You're going on a coach trip but can't remember the departure time. Ask a friend.
.....
- 4 Someone mentions a place called Kyzyl. You have no idea where it is. Ask.
.....

13.6B 'Which ...?' as a question-word [> LEG 13.36]

Study:

★★

- 1 *Which* + noun asks about people: ***Which boy/boys/girl/girls did you see?***
or things: ***Which book/books do you prefer?*** [> 4.2C and compare > 13.5C]
- 2 *Which* always refers to a limited choice and we don't always use a noun after it:
Which is the longest river in the world? (Or: ***Which river is the longest?***)
We also use *Which of* for two or more items: ***Which of the two/of them do you prefer?***
- 3 *Which* combines with the comparative/superlative: ***Which is the cheaper/the cheapest?***
- 4 *Which* combines with *day, month or year*: ***Which (or What) day was it?***
- 5 *Which way ...?* asks for more exact information than *Where?*: ***Which way did they go?***

Write: Complete the questions on the left to fit the answers on the right.

Think about combinations you can make with '*Which ...?*'.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Which <i>film did you go to</i> | ? | (We went to see) 'Star Wars'. |
| 2 Which | ? | Oh, I like novels best. |
| 3 Which | ? | She always uses 'Smooth' soap. |
| 4 Which | ? | I met Jill and Sue there. |
| 5 Which | ? | I think the Nile's the longest. |
| 6 Which | ? | Oh, this desk is definitely the cheapest. |
| 7 Which | ? | Of the three, I prefer the leather one. |
| 8 Which | ? | That's easy. I'll always remember 1989. |
| 9 Which | ? | Oh, July is definitely the hottest. |
| 10 Which | ? | I think they went towards the station. |

13.6C 'Whose?' [> LEG 13.39]

Study:

★★

- 1 *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 (*mine*).
- 2 When the possession is a thing or a substance, we can omit the noun after *Whose*:
Whose (umbrella/coffee) is this? – It's mine.
- 3 When the 'possession' is a person, we normally use a noun after *Whose*:
Whose son/daughter is he/she? – Kate's. Whose children are they? – The Lakers'.
- 4 We can also phrase questions with *Whose* in the following way:
Whose is this umbrella? (Compare: *Whose umbrella is this?*)
Whose are those children? (Compare: *Whose children are they?*)

Write: Fill in the blanks with *Whose?* or *Who?*.

- 1 *Who*..... does this pen belong to? – It's John's.
- 2 pencil is this? – It's Kate's.
- 3 do those books belong to? – They're both mine.
- 4 are those socks on the floor? – They're Karl's.
- 5 book is this? – It's Maria's.
- 6 gloves are these? – They're Suzanne's.
- 7 children are they? – My neighbour's.
- 8 son is he? – He's John and Jean's.
- 9 's at the front door?
- 10 are these children? – They're Mike and Shona's from next door.

13.6D Context

Write: Put in *When?*, *Where?*, *Which?*, *Who?* or *Whose?*.



WHO DID WHAT AND WHEN?

What we believe depends on our view of the world. For example, if we ask, '1.....*When*..... was America discovered?', most of us would think of Christopher Columbus in 1492. But Chinese children learn that Hui Shen, a Buddhist monk, got to America 1000 years earlier than Columbus. 2..... was printing invented by and 3..... year was it invented? You immediately think of Gutenberg in 1436, but Chinese children learn that it was invented by Bi Shen in 1041. 4..... invention is spaghetti? It's the invention of the Italians, you will say. Wrong again. The Chinese had it before them. 5..... and 6..... was the compass invented? Answer: in China in 200 B.C. 7..... was silk-making invented? Not in Persia, as you might think, but in China. 8..... was the first country to put a man into space and 9..... was he? The Soviet Union, you will say and the man's name was Yuri Gagarin. But according to the Chinese, Wan Hu made an attempt long before Yuri. 10....., do you think? – In A.D. 1500! He sat in a chair attached to 47 rockets, holding a giant kite which would help him return to earth. He never came back!

He never came back!

13.7 Question-word questions (3): 'Why?', 'How?'

13.7A 'Why ...?' as a question-word [> LEG 13.37]

Study:

- 1 *Why ...?* asks for a reason and we answer with *Because* (Not **Why*) or a *to*-infinitive.
- 2 We can use *What ... for?* in place of *Why?*: **What** did you do that **for**? (= Why did you do that?)
- 3 We use *Why don't/doesn't ...?* (*Why don't you?/Why doesn't she?*) to make suggestions.
- 4 We may use *Why?* or *Why not?* + bare infinitive: **Why wait** for him? **Why not wait** a bit?

Write:

Write suitable questions with *Why?* on the left to fit the answers on the right.
Think of possible combinations with *Why?*: *Why don't ...?*, *Why not ...?* *Why (wait) ...?* etc.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 Why <i>are you still downstairs</i>? | Because I want to watch the late-night film. |
| 2 Why | That's a good idea. |
| 3 Why | Because I didn't want to trouble you. |
| 4 Why | I phoned to let him know I had arrived. |
| 5 Why | I'm sorry I shouted at you. |
| 6 Why | To find out his address. |
| 7 Why | I'm already late for my appointment. |
| 8 Why | All right. I'll put the job off till tomorrow. |
| 9 Why | To check that I had locked the back door. |

13.7B 'How ...?' as a question-word; 'How much?/How many?' [> LEG 13.40]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *How?*, basically, to ask about manner:
How did you get on in the exam? – **Quite well**, I hope!
How combines with *much*, *many*, and with adjectives and adverbs (*How far?* etc.).
- 2 We use *How much?* + uncountable to ask about quantity: **How much** bread/milk/time?
We also use *How much?* to refer to cost: **How much** does this cost? **How much** is it?
- 3 We use *How many?* + plural noun to ask about number: **How many** people/books ...?

Write:

Use *How much ...?* or *How many ...?* in these sentences.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1 <i>How much</i> time do we have? | 4 did that car cost you? |
| 2 coffee do you drink every day? | 5 people came to the meeting? |
| 3 times do I have to tell you? | 6 slices of bread do you want? |

13.7C 'How' + adjective or adverb: 'How far?' [> LEG 13.40.2, 13.34.8, 6.16]

Study:

★★

We can use *How* + adjective (*How long?*) in place of *What* + noun (*What length?*):
How long is that skirt? **What length** is that skirt?

Write:

Change these *What* + noun questions into *How* + adjective questions.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 What's the age of this building? How <i>old</i>? | 4 What size is your briefcase? How |
| 2 What's the depth of this pool? How | 5 What length is this room? How |
| 3 What distance is Rome from here? How | 6 What height is this house? How |

13.8 Subject-questions: 'Who?', 'What?', 'Which?', 'Whose?'

13.8A Subject or object? [> LEG 13.41-43]

Study:

★★

- 1 A subject-question asks for the identity of the subject.
There is no inversion and the question has the same word order as a statement:

	subject	verb	object	subject-answer
statement:	<i>Someone</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>the waiter.</i>	
subject-question:	<i>Who</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>the waiter?</i>	<i>John (did).</i>

Compare a *Who(m)*-question which asks for the object of a statement [> 13.5B]:

	subject	verb	object	object-answer
statement:	<i>John</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>the waiter.</i>	
<i>Who(m)</i> -question:	<i>Who(m) did John pay?</i>			<i>The waiter.</i>

- 2 Answers to subject-questions often echo the auxiliary verb used in the question:
Who can play the piano? – I can./I can't.
When no auxiliary verb is present in the question, we use *do*, *does* or *did* in the answer:
Who wants a lift? – I do. Who won? – We did.
- 3 *What*, *Which*, *Whose* and *How much/How many* can combine with other subject-words:
What number is ...? Which boy likes ...? Whose car is ...? How many students are ...?

Write 1: Does the question-word ask for the subject or the object in each question?

Write **S** or **O** against each one.

- 1 Who spoke to you? S
- 2 Who did you speak to? ___
- 3 Who will she leave her money to? ___
- 4 Who'll lend you the money? ___
- 5 What frightened you? ___
- 6 What did she see? ___
- 7 Which hat does he like? ___
- 8 Which hat suits him best? ___
- 9 Whose number did you ring? ___
- 10 Whose telephone rang? ___
- 11 How many people did you invite? ___
- 12 How many people came to your party? ___

Write 2: Supply suitable subject question-words on the left and suitable answers on the right.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 1 <i>Who</i> can play chess? | <i>Mary can.</i> |
| 2 wants to have a day off? | |
| 3 broke the big glass vase? | |
| 4 'll help tomorrow? | |
| 5 made this mark on the table? | A knife |
| 6 will make you happy? | A new car |
| 7 teacher took you for maths? | |
| 8 tie goes best with this shirt? | |
| 9 dog bit you? | My neighbour's |
| 10 dog bit you? | The |
| 11 suitcase got lost on the journey? | |

Write 3: What questions would you ask in these situations?

- 1 You and some other students are planning a beach party. You need someone who can play the guitar.
.....
Who can play the guitar? / Which of you can play the guitar?
.....
- 2 You're entertaining some friends. You've just made another pot of coffee.
.....
- 3 A friend has just seen a film and you want to know the story-line.
.....
- 4 You have organized a weekend walk. Ten of the class have said they'll come, but you're worried because you want to know the exact number.
.....
- 5 You are discussing a film with a friend. You were most impressed by one actor. What about your friend's opinion?
.....
- 6 You're sitting chatting with friends. A chair is squeaking. You find it annoying.
.....
- 7 You are at a party and want to go home, but someone's car is blocking your exit. You want to identify the owner of the car.
.....
- 8 You want to identify the students who want to come with you on an excursion.
.....

13.8B Context

Write: Put in the right questions and verb forms.



PLAY IT AGAIN, WINSTON!

(Who/compose) ¹...*Who composed*... some of the most famous songs of the 20th century? The answer is Irving Berlin. (What songs/compose) ².....? Famous ones, like *Alexander's Rag Time Band* and *White Christmas*. There is a well-known story about the famous British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, who read in a paper that Mr Berlin was in London, so he asked his aide to invite the great man to lunch. Over lunch, Mr Churchill asked question after question. (Which party/win) ³..... the next American election? (Who/be) ⁴..... the next president of the USA? (What/papers say) ⁵.....? (Which papers/be) ⁶..... the most influential? (Which country/have) ⁷..... the better political system, Britain or America? (Whose system/Mr Berlin prefer) ⁸.....? (What/Mr Berlin/think) ⁹..... of party politics in Britain? Mr Churchill was very disappointed with Mr Berlin's answers. Mr Berlin didn't have strong political opinions and Mr Churchill decided he was rather dull. The fact is that Mr Churchill's aide had invited the wrong Mr Berlin to lunch. Mr Churchill thought he was speaking to Isaiah Berlin, the famous philosopher, but his aide had invited Irving Berlin, the song-writer instead!

... the wrong Mr Berlin!

13.9 Questions about alternatives Emphatic questions with 'ever'

13.9A Questions about alternatives (1): 'Did you laugh, or cry?' [> LEG 13.44-45]

Study:

★★

We can abbreviate questions after *or*.

Instead of: *Did you laugh, or **did you cry** when you heard the news?*

We can say: *Did you laugh or **cry** when you heard the news?*

Write: Join these full questions with *or* to make single questions.

- 1 Did they listen to records? Did they go for a walk?
...Did they listen to records, or go for a walk?.....
- 2 Can she dance? Can she sing? Can she play the piano?

- 3 Do you buy clothes when you need them? Do you wait for the summer sales?

- 4 Has she gone to church? Has she stayed at home?

- 5 Will you phone her? Will you wait till she rings back?

13.9B Questions about alternatives (2): 'Did you take it, or didn't you?'

[> LEG 13.44-45]

Study:

★★

We can ask two questions, one affirmative and one negative, about the same thing without repeating the verb in full.

Instead of: ***Did you take it, or didn't you take it?***

We can say: ***Did you take it, or didn't you?***

or: ***Did you or didn't you take it? Did you, or didn't you?***

or: ***Did you take it, or not?*** (Not *or no*)

Write: Rephrase each question in three ways without repeating the verb in full.

- 1 Do you like fish, or don't you like fish?
 a *Do you like fish, or don't you?*.....
 b *Do you or don't you like fish?*.....
 c *Do you like fish, or not?*.....
- 2 Can you help me, or can't you help me?
 a
 b
 c
- 3 Have you sent a card, or haven't you sent a card?
 a
 b
 c
- 4 Will you phone the plumber, or won't you phone the plumber?
 a
 b
 c

13.9C Emphatic questions with 'ever', etc. [> LEG 13.46-47]

Study:

★★

- 1 We ask emphatic questions with *ever* to express admiration, anger, concern, etc. We write *ever* as a separate word from question-words. Compare:
Where ever did you buy that tie? **Wherever** you go, take your passport. [> 1.8C]
How ever did you manage it? **However**, I managed to persuade him. [> 7.8B]
What ever does she see in him? **Whatever** she sees in him, she'll marry him. [> 1.9C]
- 2 We use *ever* after all question-words except *Which?* and *Whose?* and we often put heavy stress on it in spoken questions: **Where 'ever** did you pick that up?
- 3 We can ask questions with *ever*.
 – to get a subject or an object: **What ever** made you late? **What ever** did he say?
 – in short responses: **What ever** for? **Why ever** not?
 or we use a phrase like *on earth* for extra emphasis: **How on earth** did you know?

Write: Make these questions more emphatic to express admiration, surprise, concern, etc.

- 1 Who gave you permission to do that? *Who ever gave you permission to do that?*.....
- 2 Why didn't you ask an expert to look at it?
- 3 When did they go to Iceland?
- 4 What will she say next?
- 5 Where shall I put this wet umbrella?
- 6 How do you expect me to carry all this?
- 7 How did you get into this mess?

13.9D Context

Write: Use forms with *ever*, etc. and ask questions about alternatives.



THE MAN I'VE BEEN WAITING FOR!

Colonel Blimp is a short-tempered man. He pays good money to his motoring organization and he expects instant service. He broke down on a lonely road recently and was ready to explode when he had to wait for two hours before help arrived. Even before the driver got out of his car, the Colonel was muttering, '(What) ¹..... *What ever*..... took you so long? (What) ²..... do we pay good money for? I don't break down often, but (when) ³..... I do, I expect real service.' The driver leaned out of the window. ('Have you broken down? Have you run out of petrol?') ⁴..... 'Can't start the engine!' the Colonel said sharply. 'Let's have a look at it,' the man said. ('Have you tried to start it? Haven't you tried to start it?') ⁵..... The Colonel, now red in the face, didn't reply. 'Well, (have you? haven't you?)' ⁶..... the man asked. 'Oh, I see, you've flooded the engine. Got a cloth?' 'Haven't you even brought a cloth?' the Colonel yelled. The man smiled. 'Oh, this isn't my job, you know. I'm just a passing motorist. I stopped because you looked as if you needed help.'

This isn't my job, you know

14 Conditional sentences

14.1 Type 1 conditionals

14.1A Type 1 conditionals, basic uses: 'If the weather clears, we'll go for a walk' [> LEG 14.4-6]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use all present tenses after *if*, not just the simple present, for example:
If she finishes work early, she will go home. (*if* + simple present + *will*)
If she has finished work by 4 o'clock, she will go home. (*if* + present perfect + *will*)
- 2 We can use all future tenses in the main clauses, not just the *will*-future:
If he doesn't hurry, the plane will have left by the time he gets to the airport.
- 3 We use Type 1 conditionals to describe what will or won't (probably) happen:
If the weather clears, we'll go for a walk. (Not **If the weather will clear**)

Write: Supply the correct forms of the missing verbs.

- 1 If it *is* (be) fine tomorrow, we *will go* (go) for a picnic.
- 2 If I (have) time tonight, I (finish) the novel I'm reading.
- 3 If it (rain) next weekend, we (not able to) plant the vegetables.
- 4 If he (be leaving) at 6 o'clock, I (ask) him to give me a lift.
- 5 If she (have drive) all that way since this morning, (be) tired and hungry.
- 6 If they (have/be working) all afternoon, they (probably need) a cup of tea.
- 7 If I (can't/finish) the job this weekend, I (try) to get it done during the week.
- 8 If John (be picked) for the team, he (be boasting) about it for weeks!
- 9 If you (have/forget) to phone, they (will have/go) without you.
- 10 If we (stay) in this flat till May, we (will have/be living) here for twenty years.

14.1B 'If' + present + modal: 'If it's fine tomorrow, we may go for a swim' [> LEG 14.7]

Study:

★★

When we use *will* in the main clause, we are expressing certainty or near-certainty:
If the weather clears, we'll go for a walk. (certain, or nearly certain) [> 11.4A]
If we do not feel 'certain' enough to use *will*, we can use another modal to say what is possible, necessary or desirable, for example:
If it's fine tomorrow, we may go for a swim. (it's possible)
If it's fine tomorrow, we must go for a swim. (it's necessary or desirable to do this)

Write: Supply the correct forms of the missing verbs, but use these modals in the main clause: *can, could, may, might, should, ought to, or must*. Alternatives are possible.

- 1 If you *are* (be) still ill tomorrow, you *ought to* stay at home.
- 2 If you (finish) work early, you come for a drink with us.
- 3 If she (have) too much to do, she ask someone to help her.
- 4 If he (not be coming) tonight, he come next week.
- 5 If he (have only just arrive), he not have heard the news.
- 6 If they (have be/waiting) longer than an hour, they be getting impatient.
- 7 If we (can't/go) next week, we manage to go the week after.

14.1C 'If + should' instead of 'if + present' [> LEG 14.8]

Study:

★★

If + should, instead of *if + present*, makes the condition more doubtful or very polite:
If I should see him, I'll ask him to ring you. (= **If I see him, I'll ask him to ring you.**)

Write: Rewrite these sentences using *should* in the *if*-clause.

- 1 If you see him, please give him this message. *If you should see him,*
- 2 If she asks you, please don't tell her anything.
- 3 If he phones, please say I'm out.
- 4 If the temperature falls, turn up the heating.
- 5 If you receive a letter, let me know.
- 6 If you go out, get me a paper.

14.1D Imperative + 'and/or' + clause: 'Fail to pay and ...' [> LEG 14.9]

Study:

★★

We can use the imperative in place of an *if*-clause to comment, threaten, request, etc.

- 1 We follow the imperative with *and* in place of an *if*-clause in the affirmative:

If you fail to pay, they'll cut off the electricity. →
Fail to pay and they'll cut off the electricity.

- 2 We follow the imperative with *or* in place of an *if*-clause in the negative:

If you don't stop borrowing money, you'll be in trouble. →
Stop borrowing money, or you'll be in trouble.

Write: Change these sentences to begin with an imperative.

- 1 If you ask me nicely, I'll mend it for you. *Ask me nicely and I'll mend it for you.*
- 2 If you crash my car, I'll never forgive you.
- 3 If you work late tonight, I'll pay you well.
- 4 If you don't hurry, you'll be late.
- 5 If you don't take a taxi, you'll miss your train.
- 6 If you don't stop shouting, I'll slap you.

14.1E Context

Write: Put in the missing verb forms.



Here's the doctor!

AN URGENT CASE

The family party was in full swing when the phone rang. Dr Craig answered it. He listened carefully for a moment, then said, 'I'll come right away.' 'Do you *have* to go out?' his wife asked. 'If it ¹..... *(go)*..... an urgent case, I have to go,' Dr Craig answered. 'If I *(should)* ²..... late, please don't wait up for me.' Dr Craig drove into the night. If I don't hurry, he thought, I *(might)* ³..... too late. The thought made him drive faster. After driving for an hour, he arrived at a house. All the lights were on. If all the family is up, the doctor thought, the situation *(must)* ⁴..... serious. A woman opened the front door immediately. 'Thank God you've come, doctor,' she cried. 'It's my daughter.' A sleepy child of about six appeared in a nightdress. 'I told her,' her mother said, '"*(go)*" ⁵..... to bed, or I'll fetch the doctor". See,' she shouted at the child. 'I've done it. Here's the doctor!'

14.2 Type 2 conditionals

14.2A Type 2 conditionals, basic uses: 'If you went by train, you would ...'

[> LEG 14.10-12]

Study:

★★

We form Type 2 conditionals with *if* + past (or *if* + *could*) + *would*.

- 1 We can use Type 2 conditionals in place of Type 1 to describe something that is reasonably possible. The past tense form does not refer to past time:

If you go by train, you will (you'll) get there earlier. (Type 1: reasonably possible)

If you went by train, you would (you'd) get there earlier. (Type 2, 'more tentative')

- 2 We often use Type 2 conditionals to describe what is totally impossible:

If you had longer legs, you would be able to run faster. (Not **If you would have**)

If you could run fast, you'd be an Olympic champion.

Write: Write Type 2 conditionals to match these situations.

- 1 I don't have a spare ticket. I can't take you to the concert.

If I had a spare ticket, I could/would take you to the concert......

- 2 She drinks too much coffee. She doesn't feel calm.

.....

- 3 He can't type. He isn't able to operate a computer.

.....

- 4 They don't understand the problem. They won't find a solution.

.....

- 5 He sits around too much. He isn't fit.

.....

14.2B 'If + were/was' + 'would': 'If I were you, I would ...'

[> LEG 14.13]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use *were* in place of *was* after *if* in all persons: 'the subjunctive' [> 11.13B].

Were is formal. We also prefer *were* when expressing doubt or imagining something:

If I was better qualified, I'd apply for the job. (*If I was*: less formal)

If I were better qualified, I'd apply for the job. (*If I were*: more formal)

How would she be managing, if she were running a large company? (progressive forms)

If I were the Queen of Sheba, you would be King Solomon. (*were* is preferable here)

- 2 We use *If I were you* and *If I were in your position* to give advice. (Not **If I was**)

We can also refer to somebody else: ***If I were in Jane's position, I'd look for a new job.***

Write: Write Type 2 conditionals to match these situations.

- 1 She is not in your position. She isn't able to advise you.

If she were in your position, she would be able to advise you......

- 2 I am in a hurry. I won't stay to dinner.

.....

- 3 He's not a millionaire. He won't buy you a palace.

.....

- 4 The weather isn't sunny. We won't stay indoors.

.....

- 5 I am fit. I will go climbing.

.....

14.2C 'If' + past + modal: 'If he knew the facts, he might ...' [> LEG 14.14]

Study:

★★

When we use *would* in the main clause, we are expressing as much certainty as possible:

If he knew the facts, he would tell us what to do. (certain or nearly certain [> 14.1B])

If we don't feel 'certain' enough to use *would*, we can use another modal to say what would be possible or necessary, for example:

If he knew the facts, he might tell us what to do. (it's possible)

If he knew the facts, he should tell us what to do. (it's necessary)

Write: Supply the correct forms of the missing verbs. Use *could*, *ought to*, or *might* in the main clause.

- 1 If she *were/was* (be) here now, she *could give* (give) us some advice.
- 2 If he (fail) in his present job, he (think) about another career.
- 3 If you (can play) a musical instrument, you (help) with the school orchestra.
- 4 If they (have) the right qualifications, they (be able to) apply for better jobs.
- 5 If she (can have) some lessons, she (improve) her performance.
- 6 If we (run) our own business, we (be) more independent.
- 7 If John (go) to his home town, he (visit) his mother.
- 8 If Susan (borrow) your book, she (return) it.
- 9 If Frank (want) advice, he (ask) his bank manager.

14.2D Context

Write: Put in Type 2 conditionals throughout.

LYING IN THE SUN

Two tramps, Eugene and Sergio, were lying in the sun.

EUGENE: What (*we/doing*) ¹ *would we be doing* if the sun (*not shining*) ²

SERGIO: Well, (*we/not be*) ³ lying here for a start. But that's not the important question. The important question is: what (*we do*) ⁴ if (*we/be*) ⁵ rich?

EUGENE: If (*we/be*) ⁶ rich, we (*can/travel*) ⁷ everywhere.

SERGIO: True, but we travel everywhere already.

EUGENE: Yes, but not in style. If (*we/have*) ⁸ money, our chauffeur, James, (*can/drive*) ⁹ us round in our Rolls. Imagine, if (*we/be*) ¹⁰ in that position! (*We/return*) ¹¹ to our fine mansion in the country.

SERGIO: Yes, the butler (*put out*) ¹² fresh clothes for us, the cook (*prepare*) ¹³ a fine meal for us. We ¹⁴ not just be eating carrots all the time.

EUGENE: Yes. If (*we/own*) ¹⁵ a house like that, (*we/also have*) ¹⁶ a fine swimming-pool.

SERGIO: Yes! Yes! If (*we/have*) ¹⁷ a fine swimming-pool, (*we can/swim*) ¹⁸ as much as we liked.

EUGENE: If (*we/be*) ¹⁹ really really rich, (*we can/lie*) ²⁰ in the sun!

SERGIO: But we are lying in the sun!



Lying in the sun

14.3 Type 3 conditionals

14.3A Type 3 conditionals, basic uses: 'If you had gone by train, ...'

[> LEG 14.16-19]

Study:

★★

We form Type 3 conditionals with *if + past perfect (or if + could have) + would have*. We often use Type 3 conditionals to express regret, etc. about things that can now never happen. We can use simple or progressive forms of the past perfect in the *if*-clause:

If I'd (= I had) been taller, I'd (= I would) have joined the police force.
If I had had any sense, I wouldn't have bought a second-hand car.
If we had gone by car, we would have saved time.
If I had been trying harder, I would have succeeded.
If I could have stopped, there wouldn't have been an accident.

Write: Comment on the following situations with *if* (expressing regret, etc.).

- 1 John ate too much birthday cake, so he was sick.
If John hadn't eaten too much birthday cake, he wouldn't have been sick......
- 2 We came home from our holiday early because we ran out of money.

- 3 The house didn't burn down because the fire brigade came immediately.

- 4 The men were wearing protective clothing, so they were all quite safe.

- 5 I had an accident because I wasn't watching the road.

- 6 I was sweating because it was so hot.

- 7 My father didn't earn much money, so life wasn't easy for us.

- 8 I didn't enjoy school, so I didn't do very well.

14.3B 'If I had been you/If I had been in your position' [> LEG 14.18.1]

Study:

★★

We often use *If I had been you* and *If I had been in your position* to describe what we would have done in someone else's position:

If I had been you/If I had been in your position, I would have accepted their offer.

Write: Comment on these situations. Begin each sentence with *If I had been ...*

- 1 Marie paid £200 for a dress.
If I had been Marie, I wouldn't have paid £200 for a/that dress......
- 2 Franz didn't take that job he was offered.

- 3 Ali didn't study at all, so he failed his exams.

- 4 Sandra walked to work in the rain and got wet.

14.3C 'If' + past perfect + modal: 'If he had known the facts, he might have ...'

[> LEG 14.19]

Study:

★★

When we use *would have* in the main clause, we are expressing as much certainty as possible:

If he had known the facts, he would have told us what to do. (certain or nearly certain)

If we don't feel 'certain' enough to use *would have*, we can use another modal to say what would have been possible:

If he had known the facts, he might have told us what to do. (it's possible)

If he had known the facts, he could have told us what to do. (he would have been able)

Write: Supply the correct forms of the missing verbs. Use *could have (done)* and *might have (done)* in the main clause.

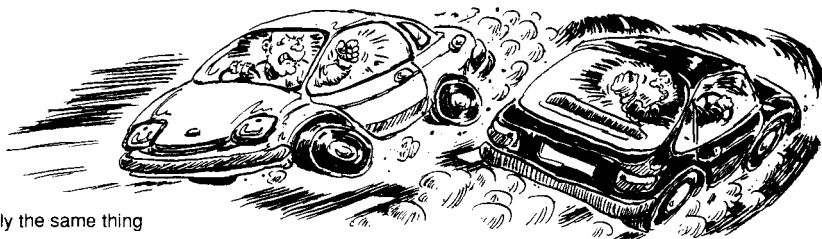
- 1 If I *had managed* (manage) to repair my car earlier, I *could have driven* (drive) you to London.
- 2 If I (know) last week that she was ill, I (visit) her.
- 3 If you (not want) to drive straight home, we (miss) all this traffic.
- 4 If you (ask) politely, I (help) you.
- 5 If the weather forecast (be) different, we (stay) at home.
- 6 We (be) at the airport for hours, if we (not know) that the flight was delayed.
- 7 I (make) a bad mistake, if I (not read) the instructions.
- 8 We (have) an accident, if our car (not be) properly serviced.
- 9 If he (fasten his seatbelt), he (not be) hurt.
- 10 She (not hear) the news, if she (not turn on) the radio this morning.
- 11 If they (could see) us, they (laugh).
- 12 If you (tell) me you needed money, I (lend) you some.
- 13 I (save) some food for you, if I (know) you were going to be late.
- 14 They (play) better, if they (have) more training.

14.3D Context

Write: Put in Type 3 conditionals throughout.

BOTH RIGHT AND BOTH WRONG

The black car screamed round the corner on the wrong side of the road and passed a white car doing exactly the same thing in the other direction. Both drivers stopped and got out of their cars. 'If I (*be*) ¹ *had been* on my side of the road, you (*kill*) ² me,' driver A shouted. 'But you weren't on your side of the road,' driver B shouted back. 'If you (... *driving*) ³ more carefully, you (*not be*) ⁴ on the wrong side of the road.' 'If I (*know*) ⁵ what was round the corner, I (*keep*) ⁶ to my side of the road,' driver A said. 'If you (*know*) ⁷ what was round the corner, you (... *not driving*) ⁸ so carelessly.' Suddenly, both men stopped shouting and driver A said, very quietly, 'If we both (*not be*) ⁹ on the wrong side of the road, we (*be*) ¹⁰ dead now.' Without speaking a further word, both men shook hands and drove away.



... doing exactly the same thing

14.4 Mixed conditionals; 'unless/if ... not', etc.

14.4A Mixed tenses in conditional sentences [> LEG 14.3]

Study:

★★★

We do not always have to stick rigidly to the 'three types of conditional sentences'. There are occasions when we can use any tenses in *if*-clauses, depending on the context:

If I am as clever as you say I am, I would have been rich by now. Type 1 + Type 3

If you knew me better, you wouldn't have said that. Type 2 + Type 3

If I had had your advantages, I'd be better off now. Type 3 + Type 2

Write: Use mixed tenses in these sentences.

- 1 If I *were* (be) you, I *would have checked*. (check) my facts before I wrote that letter.
- 2 If you (be) so hungry, you (not miss) breakfast.
- 3 If he (not catch) the 5.30 train, he (not arrive) for another two hours.
- 4 He (feel) very tired today if he (play) rugby yesterday.
- 5 If the snake bite (be) poisonous, you (feel) very ill now.
- 6 If I (be) in your position, I (answer) his letter by now.

14.4B 'If not' and 'unless' [> LEG 14.20]

Study:

★★★

1 We can use *if ... not* and *unless* in place of each other when we are saying 'except if'.

Unless is 'stronger' than *if not* and we sometimes use it in 'threats':

If you don't change your mind I won't be able to help you. (= Except if you change ...)

Unless you change your mind, I won't be able to help you. (= Except if you change ...)

2 We cannot use *unless* in place of *if not* when *if not* doesn't mean 'except if':

I'll be surprised if he doesn't win. (*if not* doesn't mean 'except if')

She'd be better company if she didn't complain so much. (*if not* doesn't mean 'except if')

3 We often use *unless* (never *if ... not*) to introduce an afterthought:

I couldn't have got to the meeting – unless, of course, I had caught an earlier train.

Write 1: Tick the sentences where we could use either *if not* or *unless*.

- 1 I won't do it if you don't help me. ✓
- 2 Unless he chooses his words more carefully, he'll be in trouble. ___
- 3 She'd have more friends if she didn't criticise everyone so much. ___
- 4 I'll be surprised if they don't get married one day. ___
- 5 She couldn't have stolen the jewels unless she had had inside help. ___
- 6 She couldn't have stolen the jewels – unless of course someone had helped her. ___
- 7 I'd be very pleased with this car if it didn't break down all the time. ___

Write 2: Supply *if not* or *unless* in these sentences. Note where you could use either.

- 1 (you/tell) *Unless you tell / If you don't tell* me the whole story, I won't be able to help you.
- 2 He would be happier and healthier (he/have) so many worries.
- 3 We couldn't have caught the plane – (we/break) the speed limit getting to the airport.
- 4 (management and unions/become) more flexible, there'll be a lot more strikes.
- 5 I'll be there by 7 o'clock (I/get held up) in the traffic.
- 6 (we/have) more rain soon, the plants will all die.
- 7 (you/not warn) me, I would have fallen into the same trap as you.

14.4C Conjunctions we can sometimes use in place of 'if' [> LEG 14.21]

Study: ★★

We can introduce conditionals with conjunctions which do not always have exactly the same meaning as *if*, for example: *assuming (that), even if, on (the) condition (that), provided (or providing) that, so long as, suppose and supposing:*
Assuming (that) it's fine tomorrow, we'll go for a swim.

Write: Rewrite these sentences using the conjunctions in brackets.

- 1 If you gave me \$10,000, I still (not go) down a coal mine. (even if)
Even if you gave me \$10,000, I still wouldn't go down a coal mine......
- 2 I (lend) you my book if you let me have it back by Monday. (on (the) condition (that))

- 3 If you look after it, I (let) you keep my bicycle till the weekend. (providing (that))

- 4 If you (not tell) anyone else, I'll tell you what happened. (so long as)

- 5 If it (be) a holiday on Monday, we can drive to the seaside. (assuming (that))

- 6 The children were never scolded if they (do) what they were told. (so long as)

14.4D Context

Write: Put in the right conditionals.

THE SECRET OF A LONG LIFE

Grygori Pilikian recently celebrated his 114th birthday and reporters visited him in his mountain village in Georgia to find out the secret of a long life. 'The secret of a long life,' Grygori said, 'is happiness. If you (be) ¹.....*are*..... happy, you will live a long time.' 'Are you married?' a reporter asked. 'Yes,' Grygori replied. 'I married my third wife when I was 102. If you are happily married, you (live) ²..... for ever. But for my third wife, I (die) ³..... years ago.' 'What about smoking and drinking?' a reporter asked. 'Yes, they are important,' Grygori said. 'Don't smoke at all and you (feel) ⁴..... well. Drink two glasses of wine a day and you (be) ⁵..... healthy and happy.' 'If you (can/live) ⁶..... your life again, what (you/do) ⁷.....?' a reporter asked. 'I would do what I have done. If I had had more sense, I (eat) ⁸..... more yoghurt!' he chuckled. 'Supposing you (can/change) ⁹..... one thing in your life what (you/change) ¹⁰.....?' another reporter asked. 'Not much,' Grygori replied. 'So you don't have any regrets?' 'Yes, I have one regret,' Grygori replied. 'If I (know) ¹¹..... I was going to live so long, I (look after) ¹²..... myself better!'



The secret is ... happiness!

15 Direct and indirect speech

15.1 Direct speech

15.1A Quotation marks and other punctuation marks [> LEG 15.1-3]

Study:

★★

We use the term **direct speech** to describe the way we represent the spoken word in writing. We punctuate the four types of sentence [> 1.1B] by putting **quotation marks** (also called **inverted commas**) outside all other punctuation marks, such as commas (,), full stops (.), and exclamation marks (!). Quotation marks may be single ('...') or double ("..."). We put them at the beginning and end of each quotation, high above the base-line. We don't use dashes * – * or chevrons * < ... > * to punctuate direct speech. We use only one question mark or exclamation mark at the end of a question or exclamation:

statement:	<i>'The shops close at 7 tonight.'</i>	or: <i>"The shops close at 7 tonight."</i>
question:	<i>'Do the shops close at 7 tonight?'</i>	or: <i>"Do the shops close at 7 tonight?"</i>
command:	<i>'Shut the window!'</i>	or: <i>"Shut the window!"</i>
exclamation:	<i>'What a slow train this is!'</i>	or: <i>"What a slow train this is!"</i>

Write: Add correct punctuation marks to these examples of direct speech.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 John's in a hurry | 8 What a noise | 15 Keep quiet |
| 2 Have you been out | 9 When did you arrive | 16 Stop |
| 3 Where are my glasses | 10 Tell me what happened | 17 Are you all right |
| 4 What a surprise | 11 Don't shout at me | 18 I'm waiting for a bus |
| 5 How are you | 12 Have a cup of coffee | 19 Here's a letter for you |
| 6 It's unbelievable | 13 How do you like your coffee | 20 Haven't we met before |
| 7 There's someone at the door | 14 Have you met Jean | |

15.1B Quotation marks and 'reporting verbs' [> LEG 15.1-3]

Study:

★★

- When we show direct speech in writing, we often use **reporting verbs** like *say*, *tell* and *ask*. What is said, plus reporting verb and its subject, is a whole unit of meaning.
- When the subject + reporting verb comes at the beginning of a sentence, we put a comma after the reporting verb (sometimes a colon (:)) in American English) and we begin the quotation with a capital letter:
*John **said**, 'We're late.'* (Not **John said, 'we're late.'*)
- When the subject + reporting verb comes after what is said, we put a comma before the second quotation mark:
*'We're late' **John said**.* or: *'We're late' **he said**.* (Not **'We're late', John said.*)
- If we end a quotation with a question mark or an exclamation mark, we do not use a comma as well:
*'Where can I get a taxi?' **John asked**.* (Not **taxi,?'*) *'What a surprise!' **John exclaimed**.*
- Subject + verb can come in the middle of a quotation-sentence:
*'Where, in this wretched town,' **John asked**, 'Can I get a taxi?'* (Not **... asked, 'Can'*)
The second part of the quotation does not begin with a capital letter because it is not a separate sentence.

Write: Add single quotation marks and other punctuation marks to these examples.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1 Where do you come from John asked | 9 What's the time Andrew asked |
| 2 It's here Bill said | 10 Bill said I'm hungry |
| 3 I've got a good idea Mark said | 11 What is it Jill asked |
| 4 Is it something she asked that we all ought to know | 12 You are stupid sometimes she said |
| 5 As I was leaving he explained I heard someone shout | 13 Where is he Tom asked |
| 6 Don't shout at me he cried | 14 What a surprise she exclaimed |
| 7 John said We're late | 15 Is there anyone in she inquired |
| 8 We're late John said | 16 Which way did they go he asked |
| | 17 Tom said She's ill |
| | 18 She's ill Tom said |

15.1C 'Quote within a quote' [> LEG 15.3ns.3,5]

Study:

★★★

- 1 If we are quoting someone else's words inside a quotation, we use a second set of quotation marks. If we have used single quotation marks on the 'outside', we use double ones 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!".'

'What do you mean, "Are you all right?"?' Ann asked.

- 2 We can also use a second set of quotation marks when we mention the title of e.g. a book or a film: *'How long did it take you to read "War and Peace"?' I asked.*

- 3 We don't normally use quotation marks with verbs like *think* and *wonder*.

So that was their little game, he thought. Why hasn't she written, he wondered.

Write: Add correct punctuation marks to these examples of direct speech.

- As I was leaving, he explained someone shouted Fire
- Please don't keep asking me What's the time Jim said crossly
- Have you read Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf my teacher asked
- What do you mean Have you lost your way the stranger asked me
- Where are they now he wondered

15.1D Context

Write: In printed dialogue, each new speech begins on a new line in a new paragraph. Punctuate the following.



The Roxy was closed ...

INSPECTOR WILEY INVESTIGATES

- It's all lies Boyle cried
- You think so Inspector Wiley asked mildly
- Think so? I know it Boyle answered sharply
- And no doubt the inspector continued you can prove it. Where were you on Saturday night, the night of the robbery
- I was at the Roxy with my girlfriend Boyle replied. We saw *Gone with the Wind*. The film lasted four hours
- But, cried the inspector the Roxy was closed all last weekend

15.2 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask'

15.2A 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask' [> LEG 15.5-9]

Study:

★★

- 1 The commonest reporting verbs in both direct and indirect speech are: *say*, *tell* and *ask*.
- 2 We must always use a personal indirect object after *tell* (*tell somebody ...*):
He told me he was tired. (Not **told to me**) **John told his mother** he was going out.
We can use *to me*, etc. after *say* if we want to, but we can't say **He said me** [> 1.3B]:
'You haven't got much time,' **he said (to me)**, or: ... he told me. Not **he said me/he told**
- 3 We can use *me*, etc. after *ask* if we want to: 'Are you comfortable?' **he asked (me)**.

Write:

Choose the correct word from those in brackets to fill the blank in each sentence.

- 1 He often *says* things like that. (says/tells)
- 2 She always me her troubles. (says/tells)
- 3 The children always me if they can go out to play. (tell/ask)
- 4 They me to leave. (said/asked)
- 5 'Don't do that!' she to them. (said/told/asked)
- 6 'They've arrived,' she (said/told/asked)
- 7 'How are you both?' she (told/asked)
- 8 I that I didn't know what to do. (said/told/asked)
- 9 She me she didn't know what to do. (said/told/asked)
- 10 They if I knew what to do. (said/told/asked)
- 11 The nurse him whether he needed anything else. (said/told/asked)
- 12 Did he you where you came from? (say/ask)
- 13 Did she you where she had put my books? (say/tell)
- 14 The policeman us where we were going. (said/told/asked)
- 15 He didn't me how long the job would take. (say/tell)
- 16 'There's no match on Saturday.' – 'Who so?' (says/tells/asks)
- 17 'You were right. Those curtains look terrible!' – 'I you so!' (said/told/asked)
- 18 When I was introduced to the Princess, she a few words to me. (said/told)
- 19 That little boy's very bad. He a lot of lies. (says/tells)
- 20 'How much are those bananas?' – 'I've got no idea. Go and the price.' (say/tell/ask)

15.2B Fixed expressions with 'say', 'tell' and 'ask' [> LEG 15.7.2]

Study:

★★

There are many common expressions with *say*, *tell* and *ask*, for example:
say: *say a few words, say so, say no more, say nothing, say your prayers*
tell: *tell a lie, tell a story, tell you so, tell the time, tell the truth*
ask: *ask after someone, ask (for) a favour, ask a question, ask the price*

Write:

Supply the missing phrases with *say*, *tell* and *ask*.

- 1 Don't say *'I told you so'* now that the worst has happened.
- 2 Don't offer to buy it. first.
- 3 You've told me more than I need to know.
- 4 If you need money, why don't you a loan?
- 5 Don't tell them anything.
- 6 'Who?' – 'I say so!'
- 7 When did your son learn to
- 8 I did it. I cannot

15.2C Indirect statements with the reporting verb in the present [> LEG 15.10-11]

Study:

★★

- If the reporting verb 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. *That* is optional after *say* and *tell*:
Someone says 'I've eaten.' and we report it as: *He says (that) he has eaten.*
Someone says 'I enjoyed it.' and we report it as: *He says (that) he enjoyed it.*
- The reporting verb is often in the present when:
 - we are passing on messages: 'What does mother say?' 'She says you must come in now.'
 - reading aloud and reporting: 'The instructions say that you connect this plug to the set.'
 - reporting what someone often says: 'She's always telling me how rich she is.'

Write: Report what these people are saying with the reporting verbs provided.

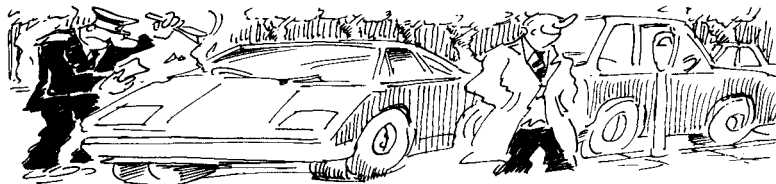
- 'She's going to America for six months.' They say *she's going to America for six months.*
- 'They went to Rhodes last year.' Peter tells me
- A: 'I'm not feeling well.' B: 'Pardon?' C: 'She's not feeling well.'
She says
- A: 'I'll look at your work in a minute.' B: 'Pardon?' C: 'She'll look at your work in a minute.'
She says
- A: 'I've typed those letters.' B: 'What does she say?' C: 'She's typed those letters.'
She says
- 'We must investigate this case.' The writer of this report says
- 'The last strike did no one any good.'
The writer of this article says
- 'Turn off the electricity at the mains.' It says here
- 'You have to rub down the walls.' The instructions say
- 'I'm good at flower arranging.' She's always telling people

15.2D Context

Write: Put in appropriate forms of *ask*, *say* and *tell*.

WHO HAS THE LAST SAY?

Some people ¹(*always*) ^{*are always say*}-ing that they don't build cars as they used to. What nonsense! I walked round the beautiful new Ferrari again, admiring its lines, when my thoughts were rudely interrupted. 'Will you be here long?' a voice ²..... sharply. 'I haven't made up my mind yet,' I ³....., looking up at a sour-faced traffic warden. 'Well, you can't stop here,' he ⁴..... me. 'Who ⁵..... so?' I ⁶..... him cheekily. 'I ⁷..... so,' he ⁸..... to me. 'It ⁹..... here,' he added, 'in case you can't read, "No Waiting".' 'You read very well. Go to the top of the class!' I ¹⁰..... him, 'but I'll make my own decisions.' 'Oh, will you?' the traffic warden ¹¹..... 'Then so will I and I've decided to give you a ticket,' he ¹²..... to me with relish as he began filling out a form. 'Go ahead,' I ¹³..... him. 'This car doesn't belong to me anyway. I wish it did!'



I've decided to give you a ticket!

15.3 Indirect statements with tense changes

15.3A Common indirect speech forms [> LEG 15.12-13, 9.5]

Study:

★★

We tend to use past tenses in indirect speech because we are reporting past events, so we use the past tense of reporting verbs (*he said (that) ... he told me (that)*). How we report is a matter of common sense and we can mix tenses if we want to. We can say:
Jim says he's read Tony's book and **didn't understand** it. (= then, when he read it)
Jim said he'd read Tony's book and **doesn't understand** it. (= now), etc.
 But what commonly happens is that present attracts present and past attracts past, so we would probably say: **Jim said he'd read** Tony's book and **didn't understand** it.
 We move the reported clauses 'one tense back'. A useful general rule is:
 'present becomes past and past becomes past perfect'.

Write: Report these statements with *said* (except 13) moving the clauses 'one tense back'.

DIRECT SPEECH STATEMENTS

INDIRECT SPEECH STATEMENTS

present becomes past

- 1 MAC: I need a holiday.
- 2 SUE: I'm not wasting my time.

Mac said (that) he needed a holiday.

present perfect becomes past perfect

- 3 TOM: I've had some good news.
- 4 PAM: I've been sleeping.

past becomes past or past perfect (past perfect is often optional)

- 5 LOU: I went home early.
- 6 JAN: I was waiting for you.

past perfect does not change

- 7 JOE: I had eaten earlier.
- 8 PAT: I had been waiting for you.

modal 'present' becomes 'conditional' or 'past'

- 9 TIM: I will see you later.
- 10 DOT: I can speak French.
- 11 KIM: I may arrive later.

'shall' with a future reference becomes 'would'

- 12 RON: I shall speak to him.

'shall' in offers and suggestions becomes 'should' [> 15.5B]

- 13 MEG: Shall I speak to him?

Meg asked whether

'past' or 'conditional' modals do not change

- 14 TED: I could help you.
- 15 ANN: I might see him.
- 16 JIM: I would enjoy that.

'perfect' modal forms do not change

- 17 SAM: I must have fainted.
- 18 DON: I couldn't have said that.
- 19 NED: I needn't have gone there.
- 20 LYN: I ought to have helped her.

'should' (= 'it's advisable') doesn't change

- 21 LEE: I should go to the dentist's.

'should' used in place of 'would' in conditionals becomes 'would'

- 22 DAN: If I were you I should get legal advice.

'must' (= necessity in the past) does not change, or becomes 'had to'

23 PAUL: I must catch an early train.

24 JILL: I must speak to you.

'must' (= necessity in the future) does not change, or becomes 'would have to'

25 BILL: I must leave tomorrow.

26 JANE: I must work till late.

'must' (= deduction or possibility) does not change.

27 PHIL: John must be a fool.

'mustn't' (= prohibition) does not change, or becomes 'couldn't'

28 JEAN: I mustn't eat meat.

29 JEFF: They mustn't give up.

15.3B Pronoun and adverb changes in indirect speech [> LEG 15.12-13]

Study:

★★

1 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) I'd send her a card. (reported by Ann)

2 Time and place changes: Adverb changes depend on context, e.g.

now → *immediately/then*

today → *that day*

tonight → *that night, etc.*

It is not always necessary to make these changes, especially in spoken indirect speech.

'I'll see you tonight,' he said. → *He said he would see me tonight.*

15.3C Context

Write: Turn each direct-speech statement into indirect speech with tense changes.



JUST WHAT THE DOCTOR ORDERED!

'I've conducted a number of tests,' Dr Grey said.

1 *Dr. Grey said (that) she had conducted a number of tests.*

'I must put you on a very strict diet,' she told me.

2

'You're putting on a lot of weight,' she said.

3

'You have gained 5.5 kilos in six months,' she added.

4

'You gained 10 kilos last year,' she reminded me.

5

'You will get very fat if you go on like this,' she told me.

6

'You should eat very little,' she said.

7

'So I'll have to live on nuts and water,' I said nervously.

8

'You can live on nuts and water without the nuts,' she said.

9

Nuts and water without the nuts

15.4 Indirect questions with tense changes

15.4A Indirect Yes/No questions: 'He asked me if I was ready' [> LEG 15.17-18]

Study:

★★

- 1 We don't use quotation marks or question marks in indirect questions:
He asked me if (or whether) I was ready.
- 2 Tense changes: 'Present becomes past and past becomes past perfect', but [> 15.3A]:
'Are you ready?' → He asked (me) if/whether I was ready.
If we are reporting a question that has just been asked, we can say:
'Are you ready?' – 'What did John ask you?' – 'He asked me if/whether I'm ready.'
- 3 The inversion [> 13.1A] in the direct question changes to statement word order:
'Are you ready?' → He asked (me) if/whether I was ready.
A reported tag question [> 13.3] also changes to statement word order:
'You're ready, aren't you?' → He asked (me) if/whether I was ready.
- 4 We use *if* or *whether* after *ask*, *want to know*, *wonder*, *(not) know*, *didn't say/tell me*.

Write: Report these Yes/No questions moving the clauses 'one tense back'.

- 1 'Are you hungry?' She asked us *if/whether we were hungry.*
- 2 'Are you enjoying yourself?' He wanted to know
- 3 'Do you always go to church on Sunday?' He wondered
- 4 'Have you seen John recently?' She asked me
- 5 'Has Debbie been working here long?' He wanted to know
- 6 'Did you study hard for the exam?' She wondered
- 7 'Will Ted and Alice be at the party?' She asked us
- 8 'Will you be coming to the concert or not?' He wanted to know
- 9 'You like Italian food, don't you?' She asked me
- 10 'You don't like Italian food, do you?' She wanted to know

15.4B Indirect question-word questions: 'He asked me why I went there'

[> LEG 15.19-20]

Study:

★★

The inversion after a question-word in a direct question changes to statement word order in the reported question and, if necessary, the tense is changed at the same time:
'Why haven't you finished?' → He asked (me) why I hadn't finished.
'When did you go there?' → He asked (me) when I went (or had gone) there.

Write: Report these question-word questions moving the clauses 'one tense back'.

- 1 'What's the weather like?' She asked me *what the weather was like.*
- 2 'What does Frank do for a living?' I wanted to know
- 3 'Why is Maria crying?' She wondered
- 4 'What kind of holiday has Marco had?' You wanted to know
- 5 'How long have you both been living here?' They inquired
- 6 'Where did they go last week?' She wanted to know
- 7 'Who were you looking for?' He asked me
- 8 'When will lunch be ready?' You didn't tell me
- 9 'Which countries will John be visiting?' You didn't say
- 10 'How can I solve the problem?' I wanted to know

15.4C Indirect subject-questions [> LEG 15.21-22]

Study:

★★

A direct subject-question has the same word order as a statement [>13.8A]:

John paid the waiter. → **Who paid the waiter?** (Not **Who did pay the waiter?**)

We keep the same word order when we report a subject-question, though, if necessary, we change the tense:

'John paid the waiter.' → *He asked (me) who (had) paid the waiter.*

Write: Report these subject-questions moving the clauses 'one tense back' only where necessary.

- 1 'Who's next please?' She wanted to know *who was next.*
- 2 'What makes a noise like that?' He wondered
- 3 'Which of you is waiting to see me next?' The doctor asked
- 4 'Whose composition haven't we heard yet?' The teacher asked us to tell her
- 5 'Who left this bag here?' Tell me
- 6 'What caused the accident?' Can you explain
- 7 'Which newspaper carried the article?' I'd like to know
- 8 'Whose painting will win the competition?' I haven't any idea
- 9 'Which firms have won prizes for exports?' This article doesn't say
- 10 'Which number can be divided by three?' The teacher asked

15.4D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms and tenses of the numbered verbs.



BURNING THE CANDLE AT BOTH ENDS

The nurse asked me if I (*be*)¹ *was* next and she led me into Dr Grey's surgery. Dr Grey smiled at me and asked (*what the problem be*)² I'm a young man and am not the sort of person she has to see very often! I told her I (*be*)³ feeling rather run down. She asked me if I (*keep*)⁴ regular hours and I said I (*have not*)⁵ She wanted to know why I (*not/keep*)⁶ regular hours and I said I (*be*)⁷ out with friends almost every evening. Dr Grey then wanted to know how I (*spend*)⁸ my time and I (*tell*)⁹ her I (*go*)¹⁰ to parties mostly. The doctor asked if I (*not/have*)¹¹ the chance to recover during weekends and I (*tell*)¹² her that my party-going (*be*)¹³ even worse during the weekends! She asked me if I (*smoke*)¹⁴ When I said I did, she asked how many cigarettes a day I (*smoke*)¹⁵ She raised her eyebrows when I answered! Then she asked me if I (*take*)¹⁶ any exercise and I answered that I (*not/have*)¹⁷ time for that sort of thing. 'You're burning the candle at both ends, Mr Finley,' she told me. 'Rest is the only cure for you. You've really got to slow down.' She looked at me wistfully before I left her surgery and added, 'but I do envy you the life you've been living!'

15.5 Uses of the *to*-infinitive in indirect speech

15.5A Reporting the imperative: 'He reminded me to post the letter' [> LEG 15.24]

Study:

★★

- 1 We report the imperative with suitable verbs + *to*-infinitive. The reporting verb matches the function of the imperative (*asking, telling, advising, etc.* [> 9.10A, 16.3C]), e.g. **'Remember to post the letter,'** he asked me. becomes: **He reminded me to post the letter.**
- 2 When we report a negative imperative, we put *not* or *never* before the *to*-infinitive: **'Don't wait,'** he said. → **He asked me not to wait.** (Not **to not** or **to don't**)
'Never do that again,' he said. → **He told us never to do that again.** (Not **to never**)

Write: Report the following using the simple past of the verbs in brackets.

- 1 'Wait for me,' I said to him. (tell)
I told him to wait for me.
- 2 'Go on holiday when the weather gets warmer,' she told him. (advise)

- 3 'Keep out of this room at all times,' she said to them. (warn)

- 4 'Remember to post those letters,' he said to me. (remind)

- 5 'Don't go into my study,' he said to them. (ask)

- 6 'Don't wait for me,' I said to him. (tell)

- 7 'Don't go on holiday yet,' she told him. (advise)

- 8 'Don't ever enter this room,' she said to them. (warn)

15.5B Offers, suggestions, requests for advice: 'He asked if he should ...' [> LEG 15.24.2]

Study:

★★

- This is how we report offers and suggestions with *shall* or *should* [> 11.6E,F]:
- direct offer or suggestion: **'Shall I phone her?'** **'Should I phone her?'**
 - reported with *if* or *whether*: **He wanted to know if/whether he should phone her.**
 - reported with *whether to*: **He wanted to know whether to phone her.** (Not **if to**)

Write: Report each question in two ways.

- 1 'Shall I fax the information to them?' She asked *if/whether she should fax the information to them.*
She asked whether to fax the information to them.
- 2 'Should I leave a message for her?' He asked
- 3 'Shall I heat the food for you?' She asked him
- 4 'Should I phone him now?' He wanted to know
- 5 'Shall I invite them to dinner?' She wanted to know

15.5C Requests for advice with question-words: 'He wanted to know how ...'

[> LEG 15.24.2, 16.24]

Study:

★★

This is how we report requests for advice with question-words:

- direct request for advice: **How shall I repair it? How should I repair it?**
- reported with question-word + *should*: He wanted to know **how he should** repair it.
- reported with question-word + *to*-infinitive: He wanted to know **how to** repair it.

We can use a *to*-infinitive after all question-words (*how to*, *when to*, etc.) except *why*:
 He wanted to know **why he should** wait. (Not "He wanted to know why to wait.")

Write: Report each request in two ways, where possible.

- 1 'When should I be at the station?' She asked *when she should be at the station*.....
She asked when to be at the station.....
- 2 'Where shall we have our meeting?' They asked
- 3 'Which should I choose?' He asked
- 4 'Who(m) shall I ask?' She wanted to know
- 5 'What should I do?' He asked me
- 6 'Why should I pay this bill?' She wanted to know
- 7 'Whose car should I borrow?' He wanted to know
- 8 'Why should I be punished?' She asked

15.5D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms.



A GIFT FROM CHICAGO

It had been a particularly bad winter in Chicago. Nearly forty inches of snow had fallen in a fortnight. Railway workers at Chicago station didn't know (*what/do*) ¹ *what to do* with it. The foreman (*advise them/shovel*) ² it into huge mountains to keep the platforms clear. He (*tell/not leave*) ³ any snow on the platforms because it was dangerous for passengers. But it was an impossible task! Suddenly, one of the workers had a bright idea. 'I know (*how/get rid*) ⁴ of it,' he said. 'Let's load it onto this freight train. We can send it south to Mississippi and New Orleans. It'll just melt away.' The next day five tons of snow arrived in Memphis, Tennessee. 'It's a welcome gift,' a railway worker said. 'We know (*what/do*) ⁵ with it here. We'll send what we can to the children's playground. Some of us have never seen snow before!'

'It's a welcome gift.'

15.6 When we use indirect speech

15.6A Interpreting direct speech [> LEG 15.13n.2, 15.25, App 45]

Study:

★★★

- 1 Indirect speech commonly occurs in continuous paragraphs of reported language, not in unrelated sentences. To hold it together, we use phrases like: *she went on to say, he continued, he added that*. We also vary the reporting verbs: *he observed, she noted, they remarked, etc.* Yes/No answers or adverbs like *Well* are common in direct speech, but they disappear when we report them.
- 2 We don't apply 'rules' mechanically when we are reporting; we have to interpret what we hear or read, so we often use reporting verbs like *exclaim, insist, suggest, etc.*:
'*You really must let me pay the bill,*' Andrew said. can be 'interpreted' as:
Andrew insisted on paying the bill.

Write: Interpret these examples of direct speech, then re-express them as indirect speech.

- 1 'Why don't we go sailing?' Diana said.
..... *Diana suggested (that) we (should) go sailing.*
- 2 'You've just won a lottery!' Tom said.
'Really?' Jennifer exclaimed.
.....
.....
- 3 'More money should be spent on education,' Frank observed.
'Yes, I agree,' Gillian answered.
.....
.....
- 4 'I don't think you should take up wind-surfing at your age,' John said.
'I feel it's a sport that will suit all ages,' Jenny replied.
'But it requires great physical strength,' John said.
'And who told you I was short of that?' Jenny said.
.....
.....
.....
- 5 'Don't go too near the lions' cage,' mother said.
'But I want to see the lions close up,' Billy answered.
'Isn't this close enough?' mother asked.
'No,' Billy replied.
'I'm sorry, Billy, but you can't go any closer than this.'
'But I want to,' Billy insisted.
'Well, you can't.'
.....
.....
.....



6 'You really must keep to your diet, Mrs Flynn, if you're serious about losing weight,' Dr Grey said.
 'You have been keeping to it, haven't you?'
 'Well, I ... er ...,' Mrs Flynn muttered.
 'Have you or haven't you?'
 'Well, I have occasionally had a bit extra.'
 'What do you mean, "a bit extra"?'
 'Oh – a cream cake or two.'



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7 'You did enjoy the film, didn't you?' Sandra asked.
 'I'm not sure,' Sam answered.
 'I thought Gloria Gleam's performance was fantastic!'
 'Well, I didn't like it at all,' Sam replied.
 'Didn't you really?' Sandra replied.



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15.6B Context

Write: Put in the missing words.



SECOND-HAND GOODS

It's a sad fact that people steal from hotels. Recently I interviewed Mr David Wills, the manager of a large hotel, and he ¹.....*told*..... me that all kinds of things, large and small, ²..... constantly stolen. Mr Wills told ³..... that a check ⁴..... made on a person's room as soon as they (*leave*) ⁵..... it, but unless someone had walked off with a wardrobe, he (*advise*) ⁶..... the staff (*not/make*) ⁷..... a fuss. 'What is even more surprising,' Mr Wills ⁸..... 'is the things people leave behind – anything from wooden legs to false teeth!' He then ⁹..... on to tell me a story about a snobbish lady who (*recently check out*) ¹⁰..... . She (*object*) ¹¹..... that her bill (*be*) ¹²..... too high, but paid it nevertheless. Just as she (*leave*) ¹³....., the phone rang and the cashier answered it. He then ¹⁴..... the lady that a hotel bathrobe was missing from her room. The lady expressed great surprise and ¹⁵..... that the hotel maid must have packed it in by mistake. 'But the maid has just reported the bathrobe missing,' the cashier ¹⁶..... . Handing over the bathrobe, the lady left in disgust. 'Who wants a second-hand bathrobe, anyway?' she said, as she made her way to a taxi complaining that hotel service (*be*) ¹⁷..... not what it used to be.

The lady left in disgust

16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.1 The bare infinitive and the *to*-infinitive

16.1A Forms of the infinitive [> LEG 16.1-3]

Study:

★★

1 We often use the base form of a verb (*go*) as an infinitive. We call this the **bare infinitive** because we use it without *to*. We must distinguish it from the ***to*-infinitive**, where we always use *to* in front of the base form of the verb (*to go*). The most common use of the bare infinitive is after modal verbs *He may/can* (etc.) *go* [> 11.1A-B].

2 Forms of the infinitive:

	active	passive
present infinitive	(not) (to) ask	(not) (to) be asked
present progressive infinitive	(not) (to) be asking	–
perfect or past infinitive	(not) (to) have asked	(not) (to) have been asked
perfect/past progressive infinitive	(not) (to) have been asking	–

Write:

Using the verbs in brackets, supply the appropriate forms of the infinitive:
be doing, be done, do, have been doing, have been done, or have done.

- 1 We can *leave* soon. (leave)
- 2 I don't know what Mark's doing. He may in his room. (study)
- 3 She's a slow worker! I could the job twice in the time she's taken. (do)
- 4 Why were you waiting here? You should round the corner. (wait)
- 5 I promise you your order will today. (send)
- 6 'How was that table scratched?' – 'It must when it was being moved.' (do)

16.1B 'Let', 'make', 'would rather/sooner' and 'had better' [> LEG 16.4-5]

Study:

★★

1 We use the imperative form *Let's* (= Let us) + bare infinitive for making suggestions:

Let's take a taxi! *Let's take a taxi, shall we? Do let's take a taxi.* [> 11.6F]

The negative is: ***Let's not (take a taxi).*** Or: ***Don't let's (take a taxi).***

2 *Let* as a full verb (= 'allow') is always followed by a noun or pronoun + bare infinitive:

I won't let you/him, etc. go. Don't let the children annoy you. They won't let us speak.

3 *Make* (= compel) is followed by a bare infinitive in the active: *She made them work hard.*

It is followed by a *to*-infinitive in the passive: *They were made to work hard.*

4 We use the bare infinitive after *would rather (not), would sooner (not), had better (not)*:

I'd rather be told the truth. You'd better not go near the edge. [> 11.8A]

Write:

Supply suitable infinitive forms for the verbs given in brackets.

- 1 Let's *go* to the cinema. (go)
- 2 Let's out long. (not stay)
- 3 Let's , shall we? (go out)
- 4 Don't let's home yet. (go)
- 5 Let XYZ a triangle. (be)
- 6 Let me that letter for you. (post)
- 7 They didn't let her jeans. (wear)
- 8 He made me the mess. (clear up)
- 9 That T-shirt makes you younger. (look)
- 10 I was made floors. (scrub)

- 11 I'd rather for a walk in the rain than nothing at all. (go, do)
- 12 I'd rather anything if you don't mind. (not have)
- 13 I don't really want to see that play. I'd sooner at home. (stay)
- 14 You'd better what you think. (not say)
- 15 It's late. I think we'd better (go)

16.1C The infinitive with or without 'to' after 'help' and 'know' [> LEG 16.7]

Study:

★★

- 1 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?
- 2 We sometimes use *help* without a noun or pronoun object:
Everyone in the village helped (to) build the new Youth Centre.
- 3 We have a noun or pronoun object after *know*.
I've never known her (to) be late before. I've never known her not (to) be late.
We use *to* in the passive: *He was known to have/to have had a quick temper as a boy.*

Write: Join or rewrite the sentences below using the words given.

- 1 I found this book. The librarian helped me.
The librarian *helped (me) (to) find this book*
- 2 I have to fill in this job application form. Can you help me?
Can you
- 3 You mustn't worry so much. I can help you.
I can help
- 4 People know him to be a very generous man.
He
- 5 He's a ruthless businessman. He is known for that.
He's known
- 6 She's never on time.
I've never known

16.1D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the verbs.



He had had a brilliant idea.

ONE CUBE OR TWO?

When we were at school as children we were (make/wear) ¹ *made to wear* indoor shoes inside the school building. The teachers would never (let us/wear) ² our outdoor shoes at all and they (make us/change) ³ in the changing rooms from the moment we entered the building. I'd never known teachers (be) ⁴ more strict about any other school rule. The trouble was that my indoor shoes really (make me/suffer) ⁵ because they were so tight. ('Let/expand) ⁶ our shoes!' a fellow sufferer suggested. He had had a brilliant idea. We put plastic bags inside our shoes and poured water into the bags. We sealed the bags carefully and put our shoes into the freezer. Of course the ice (make the shoes/expand) ⁷ and they were a pleasure to wear. This clever idea (help me/get) ⁸ through my schooldays with less discomfort and I have never forgotten it!

16.2 The bare infinitive or the '-ing' form; the *to*-infinitive

16.2A Verbs of perception: 'Watch him draw/drawing' [> LEG 16.9.2-3]

Study:

★★

- 1 We can use a noun or pronoun object + the bare infinitive or *-ing* after these verbs: *feel, hear, listen to, look at, notice, observe, perceive, see, smell, watch* [compare > 16.6B].
- 2 The bare infinitive generally refers to the complete action:
I watched a pavement artist draw a portrait in crayons. (i.e. from start to finish)
- 3 The *-ing* form generally refers to an action in progress:
I watched a pavement artist drawing a portrait in crayons. (i.e. I saw part of the action)
- 4 We often use *hear, observe, perceive* and *see* in the passive + *-ing* or a *to*-infinitive:
They were seen waiting. They were seen to climb through the window.

Write: Join these pairs of sentences, deciding when to use a bare infinitive or *-ing*.

- 1 She crossed the road. I saw her.
I saw *her cross the road.*
- 2 She was crossing the road. I caught sight of her.
I noticed
- 3 Something's burning. I can smell it.
I can smell
- 4 They sang a song. I listened to them.
I listened
- 5 She was shouting at the children. I heard her.
I heard
- 6 The robbers were waiting near the bank. They were seen.
The robbers were seen

16.2B 'Have' + object: 'Have the next patient come in' [> LEG 16.10.1-2]

Study:

★★

- 1 When we cause someone to do something for us, we use *have* + object + bare infinitive:
Have the next patient come in, please. [compare > 12.3B]
We may also use *have* + *know, have* + *believe*: *I'll have you know I'm the company secretary.*
- 2 We use *have* + object + *-ing* to refer to intended results, and unintended consequences:
I'll have you speaking English in no time. You'll have the neighbours complaining.

Write: Use the bare infinitive or the *-ing* form after *have* in these sentences.

- 1 Have him *bring* his car round the back. (bring)
- 2 'I will not have students on the walls of this college,' the principal said. (draw)
- 3 I'll have you I'm a qualified accountant. (know)
- 4 He had her he was a millionaire. (believe)
- 5 We have people us up all hours of the day and night. (ring)
- 6 The film had them right from the first few minutes. (laugh)
- 7 He's an excellent piano teacher. He'll have you in about a year. (play)
- 8 I'll have the plumber the central heating boiler. (look at)
- 9 The sergeant had all the recruits like real soldiers inside a month. (march)
- 10 He had never had anything like that to him before. (happen)

16.2C '(Not) to', 'so as (not) to', 'in order (not) to' [> LEG 16.2, 16.12-18]

Study:

★★

- 1 We use *to*, *so as to* and *in order to* to express purpose [compare > 1.10A]:
I went to France to learn French. I went to France so as to/in order to learn French.
 We can also use the *to*-infinitive (not **so as to* **in order to**) to express sequence:
We came home after our holidays to find the house neat and tidy. (= and found)
- 2 We use *not to* for alternatives:
I went to France not to learn Spanish, but to learn French.
- 3 We use *so as not to* and *in order not to* to express 'negative purpose' (Not **to not**):
I shut the door quietly so as not to/in order not to wake the baby.
- 4 We use the *to*-infinitive after many verbs like *appear*, *arrange*, *hope*, *'d like*, and *want*.
He told me to phone home. I hope to see you soon. I want to travel abroad.
 Note the difference in meaning between these negatives:
He didn't tell me to phone home. He told me not to phone home.

Write: Use *to*, *so as to*, *in order to* in these sentences. Alternatives are sometimes possible.

- 1 I went to town *to do / in order to do / so as to do* some shopping. (do)
 2 He covered the floor with a sheet paint on it. (not splash)
 3 I got out some more chairs for the other guests on. (sit)
 4 Can you arrange for me the doctor tomorrow? (see)
 5 We came home the house had been burgled. (find)
 6 She left home (never return)
 7 I'd like to the States for a holiday one year. (go)
 8 We would like at your party. (have been)
 9 Mr Smith wants you later. (see)
 10 He appears all about our arrangement. (have forgotten)
 11 The keeper told us the monkeys. (not feed)
 12 She told us to feed the hens. She the horses. (not tell us/feed)

16.2D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the infinitive or *-ing*.



Go left! Go right!

THIS WAY! THAT WAY!

In a split second, when no one was paying attention, the two prisoners escaped from the back of the police van. They were handcuffed to each other. It was minutes before a policeman saw them (*run*)¹ *running* down the street. 'We'll follow,' two policemen said. 'Have the driver (*bring*)² the van to the end of the road. Tell him (*not let*)³ them get away. If we're not careful, we'll have the whole neighbourhood (*complain*)⁴ that we've been careless.' The prisoners were still running side by side. The policemen saw them (*race*)⁵ up the hill and (*disappear*)⁶ round a corner. 'We'll never catch them now!' one of them said. 'I told you (*not leave*)⁷ them unattended.' The prisoners were running at top speed. Suddenly, they saw a lamp post in front of them 'Go left! Go right!' they each shouted at the same time. They ran on either side of the lamp post. It just took time for the police (*find*)⁸ them, lying on the pavement, unhurt, dazed, and with silly grins on their faces.

16.3 Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive

16.3A 'He can't afford to buy it' [> LEG 16.19, App 46]

Study:

★★

Some verbs are followed only by a *to*-infinitive, not by *-ing* or *that ...*:
 e.g. *can('t) afford, aim, apply, fail, hasten, hurry, manage, offer, prepare, refuse, seek*.
He can't afford to buy a car. (Not **He can't afford buying/He can't afford that ...*).

Write: Rewrite these sentences to begin with the words in italics.

- 1 He'd like to buy a car. *He can't afford it.* *He can't afford to buy a car.*.....
- 2 I didn't pass my driving test. *I failed.*
- 3 He'll pay for all of us. *He's offering.*
- 4 Can you move the desk on your own? *Can you manage*
- 5 He wants to join the army. *He's just applied.*
- 6 Apologize to her? *I refuse.*

16.3B 'I want (you) to speak to him' [> LEG 16.20, App 46.1]

Study:

★★

We use a *to*-infinitive after these verbs:
ask, beg, choose, expect, hate, help [> 16.1C], *like, love, need, prefer, want, wish*:
I want to speak to the manager. (= I will speak to the manager)
 Or we can use a noun or pronoun before the infinitive:
I want you to speak to the manager. (= You will speak ...) Not (**I want that you ...*)

Write: Complete these sentences so that they refer to other people.

- 1 I don't want to speak to the manager. I want *you to speak to him.*.....
- 2 She doesn't expect to pay. She expects
- 3 I don't want to write to them. I'd like
- 4 I don't want anyone to know about it. I'd hate
- 5 You won't listen to me. How many times do I have to ask
- 6 I can't do the job myself. I need
- 7 We can't move it. Perhaps you can help [> 16.1C]

16.3C 'He advised me to take out a loan' [> LEG 16.21]

Study:

★★

These verbs always have an object before the *to*-infinitive:
advise, allow, entitle, forbid, invite, order, remind, (it) takes, teach, tell, warn:
My bank manager advised me to take out a loan. [compare > 15.5A]

Write: Complete these sentences using an object + *to*-infinitive after the verbs.

- 1 Take out a loan. My bank manager advised *me to take out a loan.*.....
- 2 She didn't peel the potatoes. You didn't tell
- 3 We work hard. Our teacher taught
- 4 The soldiers fired. The officer ordered
- 5 You can apply for free travel. This certificate entitles
- 6 The public should not approach this man. The police have warned
- 7 My wife and I play tennis. My boss invited

16.3D 'I know him to be an honest man' [> LEG 16.22]

Study:

We can use *that* or a *to*-infinitive after these verbs to refer to people or things:
believe, consider, discover, find, imagine, know, prove, suppose, think, understand.
 Instead of: **People know (that) he is an honest man.**
 We can say: **People know him to be an honest man.**

Write: Rewrite these sentences using a *to*-infinitive instead of *that*.

- 1 People know that he is an honest man. *People know him to be an honest man.*.....
- 2 I imagine that he works very hard.
- 3 I believe that she is guilty.
- 4 I found that the job was too difficult.
- 5 We discovered the claim was false.
- 6 I know that she has an interest in the company.

16.3E 'I agreed to accept their offer' [> LEG 16.23]

Study:

**

We can use *that* or a *to*-infinitive after these verbs:
agree, arrange, claim, choose, decide, expect, hope, pretend, promise, swear, threaten, wish.
 Instead of: **I agreed that I would accept their offer.**
 We can say: **I agreed to accept their offer.**

Write: Rewrite these sentences using a *to*-infinitive after the verbs.

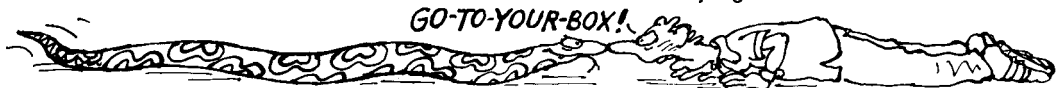
- 1 I agreed that I would accept the offer. *I agreed to accept the offer.*.....
- 2 I hope that I will succeed.
- 3 I expect that I will hear from you
- 4 He claimed that he had met me.
- 5 I arranged that I should be there.
- 6 She pretended that she didn't know me.

16.3F Context

Write: Put in the correct forms of the verbs.

HOW TO GET RID OF RATS

When I was a young man, working in Malaya, my boss gave me a difficult job to do. The roof of his house had become infested with rats and he (*want/I get rid of*) ¹ *wanted me to get rid of* them for him. I tried everything: rat poison, cats, even a mongoose, but I (*fail/move*) ² them. Then a friend of mine (*advise/ I use*) ³ a python. I (*considered this/be*) ⁴ my last chance and (*agree/try*) ⁵ it. My friend brought me a box in which he had trapped a young python, about six feet long. We (*manage/get*) ⁶ the box into the roof and then released the python. The effect was amazing! The rats disappeared in no time! It (*prove/be*) ⁷ a wonderful solution. But then we didn't know (*what/do*) ⁸ with the python. I couldn't (*bear/shoot*) ⁹ this superb creature. It (*take/six of us an hour/get*) ¹⁰ it into the box and then we returned it to the jungle.



... didn't know what to do with the python

16.4 Adjectives and nouns + to-infinitive

16.4A Adjective + 'to': 'It was kind (of him) to help us' [> LEG 16.26-31, App 44]

Study:

★★

We can use a *to*-infinitive after adjectives in a variety of ways, for example:

1 We use a personal subject (*he, she, etc.*), or we use *it* with adjectives like these:

clever, foolish, generous, good, polite, right/wrong, rude, selfish, silly, wicked.

Instead of: **He was kind (enough) to help us. She was silly not to buy it.**

We can say: **It was kind (of him) to help us. It was silly (of her) not to buy it.**

We can also say: **He was so good/kind (etc.) as to help us.**

2 We use only a personal subject (*he, she, it* or name) with these adjectives:

afraid, anxious, ashamed, careful, curious, eager, fit, free, frightened, glad, keen, sorry:

John is eager to please. (Not **It is eager to*.) **I'm sorry to have troubled you.**

3 We use a personal subject or *it*, but not *of him, etc.* (> 1 above) with these adjectives:

agreeable, amusing, boring, difficult, easy, hard, impossible:

John is easy to please. It is easy to please John.

Write: Rewrite the sentence or join the pairs of sentences beginning with the word(s) given.

1 He was foolish. He left the firm.

He was *foolish to leave the firm.*

2 You want to ask for more money. You would be stupid if you don't.

You would be

3 Ring me later. Would you be so good?

Would you

4 Open the window. Would you be good enough?

Would you

5 He worked out the answer. It was clever of him.

It was

6 They don't take any part in local life. It's silly of them.

It's

7 We can't refuse their invitation. It would look rude.

It would

8 She worked overtime. Wasn't it good of her?

Wasn't it

9 He's eager. He wants to help us in any way he can.

He's

10 I was careful. I didn't offend them.

I was

16.4B Adjectives with 'too/enough': 'too weak/not strong enough to' [> LEG 16.32]

Study:

★★

1 *Too* before an adjective means 'excessively' [> 7.6A, 7.7B]:

He isn't strong. He can't lift it. → *He is too weak to lift it.* (Not **very weak to*)

2 *Enough* after an adjective means 'to the necessary degree'. It combines two ideas:

He is strong. He can lift it. → *He's strong enough to lift it.*

He is weak. He can't lift it. → *He isn't strong enough to lift it.*

Write: Join these pairs of sentences twice: **a** with *enough* **b** with *too*.

- | | | |
|---|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1 I'm not <i>strong</i> . I can't lift it. | a <i>I'm not strong enough to lift it.</i> | b <i>I'm too weak to lift it.</i> |
| 2 I'm not <i>rich</i> . I can't afford one. | a | b |
| 3 She's not <i>old</i> . She can't drive a car. | a | b |
| 4 I wasn't <i>interested</i> . I didn't watch the film. | a | b |
| 5 The pie is very <i>hot</i> . I can't eat it. | a | b |
| 6 The film was <i>boring</i> . I didn't watch it. | a | b |

16.4C Noun + to-infinitive: 'My decision to wait was wise' [> LEG 16.33-37]

Study:

★★

- 1 Some nouns are related to verbs which are followed by a *to*-infinitive. They may have a different form from the verb: *I **decide** to* → *it's my **decision** to*; or they may have the same form as the verb: *I **wish** to* → *it's my **wish** to*.
- 2 Some nouns are related to adjectives which are followed by a *to*-infinitive. They usually have a different form from the adjective: *I am **determined** to* → *my **determination** to*; *I am **eager** to* → *my **eagerness** to*.

Write: Rewrite these sentences beginning with a noun phrase.

- I *decided* to wait, which was wise. My *decision to wait was wise*.
- He *refused* to help, which surprised us. His
- She *failed* to get into college, which disappointed her parents. Her
- I'm *pleased* to be with you. It's a
- They were *eager* to help, which pleased me. Their
- I was *determined* to pass the test and that helped me. My
- I was *willing* to co-operate and this was appreciated. My

16.4D Context

Write: Supply the correct *to*-infinitive combinations.



THE BRAVE OLD LADY AND THE HOPELESS CROOK

Mrs Johns, a 75-year-old widow, woke up with a start. Peering into the darkness, she was astonished (*see*) ¹ *to see* a man in her room. It was easy (*see*) ² he was a burglar. At first, she was too afraid (*move*) ³ Then she plucked up her courage and said, 'We must talk about this over a cup of tea. Would you be so kind (*help me*) ⁴ downstairs?' To her surprise, the man meekly obeyed. He was eager (*help*) ⁵ and anxious (*please*) ⁶ the old lady. He prepared the tea and said he was sorry (*have disturbed*) ⁷ her. He was too frightened (*run away*) ⁸ After a cup of tea, he said he would be glad (*give*) ⁹ Mrs Johns his name and address and left empty-handed. Of course, Mrs Johns informed the police, who commended her for her bravery. Later, during the trial, the judge said it was his duty (*send*) ¹⁰ the man to prison, describing him as the most incompetent burglar he had ever met!

A most incompetent burglar!

16.5 The '-ing' form

16.5A Basic information about the '-ing' form [> LEG 16.38-40, 2.16.5]

Study:

★★

We use the *-ing* form in three ways:

- 1 We use it as a *verb* (called a **participle**): *He is **playing**. She is **writing**.* etc. [> 9.2B, 9.4B]
*Walking in the park yesterday, I saw a bird **building** a nest.* [> 1.11-12]
 (= I was walking. + The bird was building a nest.)
- 2 We use the *-ing* form as an *adjective*:
I need some { hot } water. (= water which is hot)
{ boiling } (= water which is boiling) [> 2.2A]
- 3 We use the *-ing* form as a *noun* (called a **gerund**):
I like { coffee. }
{ swimming. (i.e. 'the act of swimming')
 With a few exceptions, we use the *-ing* form (gerund) like any other noun.

Write: Supply gerund forms for the words in brackets. (For spelling, [> 9.2A])

A1 The gerund as an uncountable noun in general statements [> 3.5A]

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 <i>Dancing</i> is fun. (dance) | 6 makes me tired. (drive) |
| 2 tall is an advantage. (be) | 7 able to drive is a disadvantage. (not be) |
| 3 tall is an advantage. (not be) | 8 keeps you fit. (run) |
| 4 What I like is (ride) | 9 I like (cycle) |
| 5 I enjoy (read) | 10 is a difficult profession. (act) |

A2 The gerund as an uncountable noun with 'some', 'a lot of' 'a little', etc. [e.g. > 10.7A]

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 He does a lot of <i>reading</i> (read) | 6 I heard a lot of last night. (shout) |
| 2 Did you do any? (iron) | 7 There's more in the streets. (fight) |
| 3 I did some this morning. (shop) | 8 We all enjoy a bit of (sing) |
| 4 I do very little these days. (swim) | 9 We all need a little (encourage) |
| 5 There's no my decision (regret) | 10 I've done enough for today. (garden) |

A3 The gerund as an uncountable noun after prepositions [> 16.7D]

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 This is used for <i>cutting</i> metal. (cut) | 6 What do you know about? (compute) |
| 2 What can you do besides? (dig) | 7 I'm not interested in (garden) |
| 3 I'm against (box) | 8 She's above (argue) |
| 4 I'm always hungry after (sleep) | 9 Since I've done nothing. (retire) |
| 5 Try to work without a noise. (make) | 10 Taste it before (complain) |

A4 The gerund as an uncountable noun after adjectives and possessives [compare > 16.6C-D]

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 Quick <i>thinking</i> saved us. (think) | 6 The meat will be fine with slow (cook) |
| 2 Her quick saved us. (think) | 7 We had some tough (train) |
| 3 Your to help hurt him. (refuse) | 8 His woke us up. (shout) |
| 4 His doesn't matter. (not know) | 9 Their delighted everyone. (sing) |
| 5 I like your (violin play) | 10 Try deep (breathe) |

A5 The gerund as an uncountable noun after 'no' in prohibitions [compare > 11.3B]

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 No .. <i>parking</i> .. (park) | 4 No (smoke) |
| 2 No (camp) | 5 No (trespass) |
| 3 No (wait) | 6 No (fish) |

A6 The gerund as a countable noun in the singular and plural

- 1 He owns ... *a painting* ... by Hockney. (paint)
- 2 He owns several by Hockney. (paint)
- 3 is priceless. (Leonardo drawing)
- 4 Are there many? (Leonardo drawing)
- 5 I have of Tosca. (new recording)
- 6 There was on the door. (banging)
- 7 There was of bells. (ringing)
- 8 I have three of this. (recording)
- 9 There's on the left. (turning)
- 10 There are three to the right. (turning)

A7 The gerund after 'the', 'this' and 'these'

- 1 Who does the *cooking* in this house? (cook)
- 2 Have you done the? (shop)
- 3 The of rubbish is forbidden. (burn)
- 4 This is hard to read. (write)
- 5 These are expensive. (draw)
- 6 I've taken the wrong (turn)
- 7 The of wine is difficult. (make)
- 8 Have you heard this of Bach? (record)
- 9 The of Picasso are wonderful. (paint)
- 10 These are valuable. (record)

A8 The gerund followed by an object

- 1 He's good at *repairing* bikes. (repair)
- 2 fruit is good for you. (eat)
- 3 a car costs money. (run)
- 4 I hate the washing-up. (do)
- 5 He enjoys orders. (give)
- 6 holes is hard work. (dig)
- 7 Do you mind places? (change)
- 8 beds is boring. (make)
- 9 What do you know about maps? (make)
- 10 You should avoid rules. (make)

A9 Perfect gerund forms, active [> 16.6A]

- 1 I'm sorry for *having disturbed* you. (have disturb)
- 2 I didn't take it. I deny it. (have take)
- 3 I'm annoyed about all that money. (have lose)
- 4 I appreciate me (your have help)
- 5 I enjoy with you. (have work)

A10 Perfect gerund forms, passive [> 16.6A]

- 1 That explains *his having been fired* from his job. (his have fire)
- 2 I don't mind above me. (his have promote)
- 3 I resent (have dismissed)
- 4 He's surprised at (have find out)
- 5 She's angry at abroad. (have post)

16.5B Context

Write: Put in the correct forms.

IT TAKES YOUR BREATH AWAY!

The art of (*cook*)¹ *cooking* requires the use of garlic. Of course, the (*eat*)² of garlic is not generally approved of. (*Work*)³ beside someone who has eaten garlic is as bad as (*sit*)⁴ beside someone who smokes. But while (*smoke*)⁵ is definitely bad for you, there is no doubt that (*eat*)⁶ garlic is good for the health. We are likely to see more 'No (*smoke*)'⁷ signs, but we won't see any 'No (*breathe*)'⁸ signs for garlic eaters! (*Cultivate*)⁹ and (*export*)¹⁰ garlic has become big business now that so many people use it for (*flavour*)¹¹ meat and (*add*)¹² to different dishes. People often buy it when they do the (*shop*)¹³ You don't have to deny (*use*)¹⁴ it or (*have/eat*)¹⁵ it. (*Be*)¹⁶ a garlic eater is something to be proud of and shows you enjoy good (*live*)¹⁷ The story of garlic is a breathtaking success!



A breathtaking success!

16.6 Verb + the '-ing' form

16.6A 'I deny taking it' [> 16.41-44]

Study:

★★

- 1 Some verbs are followed only by the *-ing* form, not by a *to*-infinitive: e.g. *admit, appreciate, avoid, consider, delay, deny, detest, dislike, enjoy, explain, fancy, feel like, finish, forgive, can't help, imagine, it involves, keep, mention, mind, miss, pardon, postpone, practise, prevent, recall, resent, resist, risk, stop* [> 16.8C] *suggest, understand.*
- | | |
|---|---|
| verb + present '-ing' form | verb + perfect/past '-ing' form |
| active: I <i>deny/denied taking it.</i> | I <i>deny/denied having taken it.</i> |
| passive: He <i>resents/resented being accused.</i> | He <i>resents/resented having been accused.</i> |
- 2 After the verbs *come* and *go*, we often use the *-ing* form relating to outdoor activities: e.g. *climbing, driving, fishing, riding, sailing, shopping, skiing, walking, water-skiing:*
*Why don't you **come sailing** with us? Let's **go sailing!*** (Not **to sail/for sail(ing)**)
- 3 The *-ing* form can follow *need* and *want*.
*He **needs encouraging.** It **wants mending.***

Write: Supply any suitable verb in a suitable form.

- Our neighbours are very considerate. They avoid*making*..... a lot of noise.
- Just imagine in a country where it is always warm and sunny!
- The police questioned me at some length and I didn't enjoy
- What does the job involve? – It involves the engine apart.
- I missed an interesting programme on TV last night. I really mind it.
- We often go during the weekend. Would you like to come with us?
- Look at the state of those windows! They really need
- Our front gate is falling to pieces. It really wants

16.6B 'Start him working' [>LEG 16.41-44]

Study:

★★

- 1 These verbs are followed by *-ing* [but compare > 16.2A]: *hear, keep, smell, start, stop, watch:*
*When are you going to **start working?***
 But if we want to refer to someone else, we use a direct object after the verb:
*When are you going to **start him (John, etc.) working?***
- 2 These verbs always have a direct object: *catch, find, leave, notice, observe, perceive, see:*
*I'd better not **catch you doing** that again!*

Write: Match A and B.

A

- It's difficult to keep them f
- I think that's enough to start her ___
- I could smell smoke ___
- The police caught him ___
- The searchers found the boy ___
- They left us ___
- Will you please stop ___
- I can hear someone ___

B

- sheltering in the barn.
- coming from the forest.
- worrying again.
- opening the safe.
- thinking about the problem.
- working all the time.
- shouting in the distance.
- changing TV channels.

16.6C 'We appreciate your helping us' [> LEG 16.45.2]

Study:
★★★

We can use a possessive (*my, John's*) + *-ing* after these verbs:
appreciate, avoid, consider, defer, delay, deny, enjoy, postpone, risk, suggest:
We **appreciate your** (*John's, etc.*) **helping us.** (Not **We appreciate you helping**)

Write: Match A and B.

A

- 1 We very much appreciate f
- 2 He strongly denied ___
- 3 We enjoyed ___
- 4 The chairman suggested ___
- 5 I agreed to delay ___
- 6 He should consider ___

B

- a) my leaving till the next day.
- b) their meeting that afternoon.
- c) her taking more responsibility.
- d) the band's playing very much.
- e) our postponing the question till later.
- f) your helping us.

16.6D 'I can't imagine my mother('s) approving' [> LEG 16.45.3]

Study:
★★★

These verbs are followed by *-ing* on its own or by a direct object or possessive + *-ing*:
detest, dislike, escape, excuse, fancy, forgive, hate, imagine, it involves, like, love, mention, mind, miss, pardon, prevent, resent, resist, understand, can't bear, can't face, can't help:
a I can't **imagine my mother approving!** **c** I can't **imagine my mother's approving!**
b They **resented me winning** the prize. **d** They **resented my winning** the prize.

Write: Complete the following using either a direct object or a possessive + *-ing*.

- her not answering our invitation.*
- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 I can't excuse | 5 They can't prevent |
| 2 You must pardon | 6 Please forgive |
| 3 Would you mind? | 7 I really miss |
| 4 I can't bear! | 8 Fancy |

16.6E Context

Write: Put in the correct forms.

A FLYING START!

Gillian Forbes is only 17 and she has just got her pilot's licence. She is the country's youngest girl pilot. 'How do you feel, Gillian?' I asked her after her test. 'Wonderful!' Gillian cried. 'I enjoy (fly) ¹..... *Flying*..... more than anything in the world. I can't imagine (let) ²..... a week pass without spending some of my time in the air.' 'What started (you/fly) ³.....?' I asked. 'I just love (travel) ⁴..... in planes. I started (learn) ⁵..... to fly when I was very young.' 'Would you consider (fly) ⁶..... as a career?' 'I might, but I've got to pass my school exams now. There are some things you can't avoid (do) ⁷.....!' 'Excuse (me/?/my/?/ask) ⁸.....,' I said, 'but does everyone in your family approve of (you/?/your/?/fly) ⁹.....?' 'Of course!,' Gillian exclaimed. 'I can't imagine (anyone/?/anyone's/?/disapprove) ¹⁰..... Can you?' 'Of course not!' I said. 'What's your greatest ambition now?' 'I want to learn to drive a car!' Gillian said with a big smile.

I want to learn to drive a car!



16.7 Adjectives, nouns and prepositions + '-ing'

16.7A Adjectives + '-ing' form (gerund) or to-infinitive [> LEG 16.47, 4.12-13]

Study:

★★

We can use *-ing* or a *to*-infinitive after a great many adjectives and some nouns [> 4.3A]:
To lie in the sun/Lying in the sun is pleasant. → It's pleasant to lie/lying in the sun.

Write:

Use the *to*-infinitive and the *-ing* form in the following sentences.

- 1 It's difficult *finding / to find* somewhere to live nowadays. (find)
- 2 It's awkward a friend that you don't like the way she dresses. (tell)
- 3 It isn't very nice you're useless. (be told)
- 4 It isn't easy work these days. (find)
- 5 It was kind of her you like that. (help)
- 6 It was fun to the north of Scotland. (drive)
- 7 It was just a piece of luck a restaurant open so late at night. (find)
- 8 It's a pleasure a surprise party for someone. (arrange)

16.7B Adjective + '-ing' form (participle) [> LEG 16.47]

Study:

★★

We use some adjectives with a personal subject (Not **it**) + *-ing*:
I am busy. + I am working. → I am busy working. (Not **to work)**

Write:

Join the following sentences.

- 1 John gets bored. He watches TV all the time. *John gets bored watching TV all the time.*
- 2 Sylvia is frantic. She is getting ready for the wedding.
- 3 I got tired. I waited so long for an answer.
- 4 Jane's occupied. She's making lists.
- 5 We're busy. We're decorating our house.

16.7C Common expressions followed by '-ing' [> LEG 16.49]

Study:

★★

We use *-ing* after common expressions like *It's no good* and *it's (not) worth*:
It's no good complaining about it.

Write:

Join the following sentences starting with the words in italics.

- 1 Don't complain about it. *It's no good.* *It's no good complaining.*
- 2 Don't worry about it. *It's just not worth it.*
- 3 Don't try to persuade him. *There's no point in it.*
- 4 Why apologize? *What's the use of it?*
- 5 I owe a lot of money. *There's nothing worse than that.*

16.7D Preposition + '-ing' [> LEG 16.50-54, Apps 27-30]

Study:

★★

We use *-ing* after prepositions, not a *to*-infinitive [> 16.5A3]:
He left the restaurant without paying. (Not **without to pay)**

Write: Complete these sentences with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

D1 Preposition + '-ing'

- 1 He left without *paying* (pay) 3 Open it by (pull)
2 Don't punish him for (shout) 4 She succeed after again. (try)

D2 Adjective + preposition + '-ing'

- 1 I'm interested in *acting* (act) 6 I was afraid of you. (disturb)
2 We're bored with cards. (play) 7 She's clever at (sew)
3 I'm sorry for (complain) 8 I'm worried about the train. (miss)
4 He's fond of (sail) 9 I'm surprised at you in. (find)
5 We're keen on (ride) 10 You're very slow at (understand)

D3 Verb + preposition + '-ing' [compare > 8.6B-D]

- 1 I advise you against *doing* that. (do) 9 Thank you for (help)
2 She believes in hard. (work) 10 I apologize for (interrupt)
3 They accuse him of (steal) 11 Who'll compensate me for time? (lose)
4 Excuse me for you. (disturb) 12 They charged him with money. (steal)
5 I must congratulate you on (pass) 13 We aim at in this business. (succeed)
6 You can't blame me for (try) 14 I often dream about you again. (see)
7 They insisted on (enter) 15 Everything depends on it right. (get)
8 I prevented them from (enter) 16 Begin by nicely. (ask)

16.7E The '-ing' form after 'to' as a preposition [> LEG 16.56]

Study:



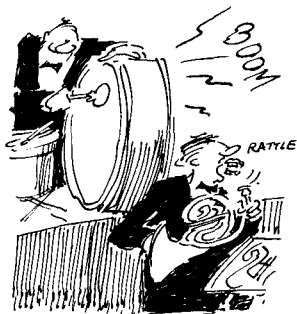
To is part of the infinitive in *I want to go home*, but it is a preposition in *object to, be used to*, etc. and we use a noun or *-ing* after it: *I object to noise, I object to smoking*.

Write: Join the following sentences.

- 1 I do all my own shopping. I'm used to it. *I'm used to doing all my own shopping.*
2 I live on my own. I'm accustomed to it.
3 I don't like to be kept waiting. I object to it.
4 I'll see you soon. I look forward to it.
5 He writes begging letters. He's resorted to it.
6 I'm criticized. I'm resigned to it.

16.7F Context

Write: Put in the correct forms.



... a loud burst on the drums!

A CASE OF THE SHAKES!

It's hard (*appreciate*) ¹ *to appreciate* some of the problems of (*play*) ² in an orchestra, especially if you're not a musician. While the orchestra is busy (*play*) ³, all kinds of things are going on. Recently, my friend John, a horn player, told me about his experiences (*play*) ⁴ with the Philharmonic. One day, without even (*whisper*) ⁵ a word, he got up in the middle of a performance of 'The Marriage of Figaro' and moved to another seat. After the performance, the drummer, who played behind him, insisted on (*find*) ⁶ out why John had moved. John said that he didn't object to (*sit*) ⁷ in front of the drummer: he was used to (*sit*) ⁸ in this position, but often, after a loud burst on the drums, he couldn't prevent his teeth from (*rattle*) ⁹ and couldn't play the horn!

16.8 The *to*-infinitive or the '-ing' form?

16.8A Verb + *to*-infinitive or '-ing': no change in meaning: 'begin to read/reading' [> LEG 16.57]

Study:

- 1 We can use a *to*-infinitive or the *-ing* form without a change in meaning after: *attempt, begin, can't bear, cease, commence, continue, intend, omit, start* [> 16.6B]:
I can't bear to see/seeing people suffering.
- 2 We do not use the *-ing* form after the progressive forms of *begin, cease, continue, start*:
I'm beginning to realize how difficult this is. (Not **I'm beginning realizing**)
- 3 Stative verbs like *know* and *understand* cannot be used with an *-ing* form after *begin, cease, continue*: *I began to understand the problem.* (Not **began understanding**)

Write: Supply the correct forms. Give two forms where both are possible.

- 1 You must begin *to work / working* harder. (work)
- 2 I was beginning I was wrong. (think)
- 3 She continued all through the film. (talk)
- 4 I had just started when the waiter took my plate away! (eat)
- 5 We intended to the concert, but we were both ill. (go)
- 6 I'm intending him tomorrow. (see)
- 7 The conductor raised his baton and the orchestra commenced (play)
- 8 You omitted me about it. (tell)
- 9 I'll never begin how he thinks. (understand)

16.8B Verb + *to*- or '-ing': some changes in meaning: 'I love to read/reading' [LEG > 16.58]

Study:

We can use *to* or *-ing* after: *dread, hate, like, love* and *prefer*. Sometimes there is a difference in meaning and sometimes there isn't. Generally, the *-ing* form refers to a situation 'in general' and the *to*-infinitive refers to a future event:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1a <i>I love/like watching TV.</i> | 1b <i>I love/like to watch TV.</i> (same meaning) |
| 2a <i>I hate disturbing you.</i> (in general) | 2b <i>I hate to disturb you.</i> (but I'm going to) |
| 3a <i>I dread visiting the dentist.</i> (in general) | |
| 3b <i>I dread to think about what has happened.</i> (so I try not to) (Not <i>*I dread thinking*</i>) | |
| 4a <i>I prefer walking to cycling.</i> (in general) | 4b <i>I prefer to wait here.</i> (now) |
| 5a <i>I'd love sailing if I could afford it.</i> (in general) | |
| 5b <i>I'd love to sail if I could afford it.</i> (at some time in the future) | |

Write: Supply the correct forms. Give two forms where both are possible.

- 1 I love *watching / to watch* old films. (watch)
- 2 I hate for buses. (wait)
- 3 I hate you this, but your jacket's torn. (tell)
- 4 I dread for the telephone to ring. (wait)
- 5 I prefer at home to at restaurants. (eat, eat)
- 6 What will you have? – I'd prefer steak, please. (have)
- 7 Would you like to the beach with us tomorrow? (come)

16.8C Verb + to- or '-ing': different meanings: 'remember to post/posting'

[> LEG 16.59]

Study:

★★

The *to*-infinitive and *-ing* never mean the same when used after these verbs:

remember, forget, regret, try, stop, go on.

- To* refers to the present or future and *-ing* refers to the past in:

Remember to post my letter.	I remember posting your letter.
You mustn't forget to ask .	Have you forgotten meeting me years ago?
I regret to say I feel ill.	I regret saying what I said.

We can also refer to the 'future seen from the past': I **remembered to post** your letter.
- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Try to (= make an effort): | Try to understand. |
| Try + -ing (= experiment): | Try holding your breath for more a minute. |
- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| Stop to (= infinitive of purpose [> 16.2C]): | We stopped to buy a paper. |
| Stop + -ing [> 16.6]: | Stop shouting. |
- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| Go on + to (= do something different): | We went on to discuss finance. |
| Go on + -ing (= continue [> 16.7D3]): | Go on talking. |

Write: Supply the correct forms (*to*-infinitive or *-ing*) of the verbs in brackets.

- I remember *visiting* Paris when I was very young. (visit)
- Please remember the door on your way out. (lock)
- Did you remember Jim last night? (phone)
- I shall never forget taken to see the Moscow State Circus. (be)
- Don't forget how many are coming on Saturday. (find out)
- I forgot to the chemist's on my way home. (go)
- We all tried him, but he just wouldn't listen to any of us. (stop)
- If you want to stop coughing, why don't you try some water? (drink)
- She got annoyed because her husband stopped in every shop window. (look)
- Just stop and listen for a moment. (talk)
- If we hadn't turned the music off they'd have gone on till morning. (dance)
- She got a degree in Physics and then went on a course in Applied Maths. (take)
- I regret you that there's been an accident. (tell)
- He regretted in the same job for so long. (stay)

16.8D Context

Write: Put in the correct forms.



SNAP!

Postmen have stopped (*deliver*) ¹..... *delivering*... letters to the new houses in our area. They object to the letterboxes on the front doors. They hate (*push*) ²..... letters through them, because the letterboxes snap shut. If you try (*push*) ³..... a letter through, you can't get your fingers out! You try (*push*) ⁴..... a letter into one of these boxes and see what happens! You quickly regret (*have*) ⁵..... tried! They have been designed to stop burglars (*open*) ⁶..... your front door from the outside, but postmen dread (*use*) ⁷..... them as well. The painful condition known as Letterbox Finger is just as bad as Housemaid's Knee or Tennis Elbow!

Letterbox Finger

Index

A

- a/an:** 3.1-2: general statements 3.1A; the 'plural' of *a/an* 3.1B; with countable nouns: *he's a doctor, it's a Rembrandt* 2.3A, 3.1C; with uncountables used as countables: *a coffee*, etc. 2.3C-D; 'first mention' 3.2A; compared with *one*, with numbers, etc. 3.2B; *twice a day* 3.2C; illness (*a cold*) 3.2D; with abbreviations (*an M.A.*) 3.3B; *no* in place of *not a/an* 5.3C; *at a party* 8.2A; *a painting* 16.5A6
- abbreviations:** *the BBC*, etc. 3.3B
- able to:** and *can/could* 11.2, 11.3D
- about:** preposition/particle 8.1A; and *on*, *around* 8.3A; *it's about time* 11.7D; *How/What about ...?* 13.7E; + *-ing* 16.5A3, 16.7D3
- about to:** *be about to* 9.9B-C
- above:** preposition/particle 8.1A; and *over*, *on top of* 8.5A; + *-ing* 16.5A3
- abstract nouns:** 3.5A
- according to:** and *by* 8.3A
- accustomed to:** + *-ing* 16.7E
- across:** preposition/particle 8.1A; and *over*, *through* 8.3A
- active voice:** 12.1A; compared with the passive and causative 12.3B; *sorry for having disturbed you* 16.5A9
- adjectival clauses:** see **relative pronouns and clauses**
- adjectives:** 6.1-5: formation 6.1A-C; position 6.2; *a young man and the young* 6.3A; *he looks good* 6.4A, 10.4A-B; word order 6.4B-D; comparison of adjectives 6.5A-B; *-ing* form (*boiling water*) 2.2A, 16.5A; *she's American* or *she's an American* 3.1C; *the large one(s)* 4.2B-C; *it's nice to see you* 4.3A; compared with *-ly* adverbs 7.1C; 'absolute adjectives' 7.5A; after *very* and *extremely*, etc. 7.6; after *be* 10.1-2; after *seem*, etc. 10.4A-B; after *get*, etc. 10.4C; *it's vital that ... should* 11.13C; *How + adjective* 13.7C; adjective + *to*-infinitive 16.4A-B, 16.7A; adjective + *-ing* 16.7A-B; adjective + preposition 16.7D; and see **demonstrative adjectives/pronouns, -ed/-ing forms, possessive adjectives, word formation**
- admit:** *admit it to me* 1.3B; + *-ing* 16.6A
- adverbial clauses:** 1.8-10; introduction 1.8A; of time 1.8A-B; of place 1.8C; of manner 1.8D; of reason 1.9A; contrast 1.9B-C; of purpose 1.10A-B; of result 1.10C; of comparison 1.10D; and participle constructions 1.11B
- adverb particles:** words used as prepositions or particles 8.1A-B; particular particles and prepositions 8.3-5; after verbs 8.7-8
- adverbs/adverbials:** 7.1-8: of manner 7.1A-B; *friendly/in a friendly way* 7.1C; time 7.2; adverbial phrases of duration 7.3; frequency 7.4; degree 7.5; intensifiers 7.6; focus adverbs (*even*, etc.) 7.7; viewpoint (*naturally*) 7.8A; connecting (*however*) 7.8B; *little does he realize* 7.8C *he plays well* 6.4A; usual position in a sentence 1.1A, 7.2A, 7.4; with verb tenses: 9.2B, 9.3C, 9.4B, 9.5A-B, 9.6A-C, 9.7A-B, 9.8A-B; in indirect speech 15.3B
- adverbs of degree:** 7.5
- adverbs of frequency:** 7.4, 9.1B, 9.2B, 9.4B, 9.5A, 9.6A
- adverbs of manner:** 1.1A, 7.1
- adverbs of place:** 1.1A, 15.3B
- adverbs of time:** 1.1A, 7.2, 9.3C, 13.6A, 15.3B
- advise:** *someone about* 8.6C; + *that ... should* 11.13B; *someone (not) to* 15.5A, 16.3C; *advise against* 16.7D3
- afraid:** *I'm afraid so* 4.3C; (*very*) *much afraid* 7.6A; *seems to be afraid* 10.4B; *afraid to* 16.4A; *afraid of + -ing* 16.7D2
- after:** preposition/particle 8.1A; conjunction 8.1C; clauses of time: 1.5A, 1.8A-B, 9.6A; *after looking* 1.11B, 16.5A3, 16.7D; and *afterwards* 7.2C, 8.3A
- again:** connecting adverb 7.8B
- against:** preposition 8.1B; *fight against* 8.3A
- ago:** *ago, since* and *for* 7.3A; with simple past 9.3C, 9.5D; *How long ago?* 13.7D
- agree:** + *to/with* 8.6; *it is agreed* 12.2C; *agree to/that* 16.3E
- agreement:** see **concord**
- all:** 5.1A; and *both* 5.5; and *a/the whole* 5.6A; and *everyone/everybody, everything* 5.6B; *all day* 9.4B, 9.5B, 9.6B
- allowed to:** and *can/could/may/might* 11.3; *allow you to* 16.3C
- almost:** 7.4
- along:** preposition/particle 8.1A; *Come along* 8.8A
- a lot (of):** 2.4B, 5.1-2; and *much/many* 5.4A-B; *a lot better* 7.5D; *do a lot of reading* 16.5A2
- already:** and *yet* 7.2C; with the present perfect 9.5A; with the past perfect 9.6A
- also:** *not only ... but ... also* 1.4; and *as well* 7.7D
- although:** contrast clauses 1.9B
- always:** 7.4; with progressive tense 9.2B, 9.4B
- among:** preposition 8.1B; and *between* 8.4A
- amount:** *an amount of* 5.1A
- and:** in compound sentences 1.4; *go and* 9.10D; *and I can, too* 13.4A; *Fail to pay and ...* 14.1D
- another:** 5.7A, *another of* 5.7C-D
- answers:** questions, answers, negatives 13.1-9; and see **short answers**
- any:** with countable and uncountable nouns 2.3C, 2.4B, 5.1-3; as the 'plural' of *a/an* 3.1B, 5.3A; *not any and no* 5.3C, 13.2A; *I don't want any* 4.3B; *any of* 5.2A, 5.7C-D; *any good, any better* 7.5D; *do any reading?* 16.5A2
- anybody/anyone/anything:** 4.6B-C, 13.2A; *anyone and you* 4.2A; with imperatives 9.10B
- any-compounds:** 4.6B-C, 9.10B; 13.2A
- any longer:** and *any more* 11.11B
- anywhere:** conjunction, clauses of place 1.8C; and *nowhere* 13.2A
- apostrophe s and s apostrophe:** 2.2B, 2.8, 4.4B, 13.6C; *if I were in Jane's position* 14.2B; and see **genitive**
- appear:** 9.1C, 8.3C, 10.4A-B, 16.2C
- aren't I:** 10.1B
- around:** and *about* 8.3A
- arrange:** *arrange to* 16.2C; *arrange to/that* 16.3E
- articles:** 3.1-6; see **a/an, the, zero**
- as:** conjunction 8.1C; time 1.8A, 9.4B; manner 1.8D; reason 1.9A; contrast 1.9B; comparison 1.10D, 4.1B; preposition: 8.1C, and *like* 8.4A
- as ... as:** clauses of comparison: *as I am/as me* 1.10D, 4.1B; *as (much) as you like* 5.4B
- as if:** clauses of manner 1.8A, D
- ask:** + *for* 8.6B; + *that ... should* 11.13B; in direct speech 15.1; and *say, tell* 15.2A-B; in indirect questions 1.5C, 15.4; *ask someone (not) to do something* 15.5A, 16.3B; suggestions 15.5B-C
- as soon as:** clauses of time 1.5A, 1.8A-B, 9.6A
- assuming (that):** 14.4C

as though: clauses of manner 1.8D
as well: *not only ...* 1.4; and *too* 7.7D
at: preposition 8.1B; *at noon, at 10 o'clock* 3.6A, 7.2A, 8.2B; position: *at school* 3.6B, *at home* 8.2A, 10.2C; *good at, throw at* 8.3A; *at the back of* 8.3A; + *-ing* 16.7D2; *at all* 5.3B
attempt: + *to or -ing* 16.8A
auxiliary verbs: position of adverbs 7.2B-C, 7.4, 7.7D; and see **be, have, do, let and modal auxiliaries**
avoid: + *-ing* 16.6A,C
away: adverb particle 8.1B, 8.7A-B; *far away* 8.3A; *Go away!* 8.8A

B

back: adverb particle 8.1B; and *at the back of, behind* 8.3A
backward(s): adverb particle 8.1B
bad: and *badly* 6.4A; *worse/worst* 6.5C
badly: and *bad* 6.4A; adverb 7.1A,C; intensifier (*badly needed*) 7.6B
bare infinitive: 16.1-2; and see **infinitive**
be: as auxiliary verb: e.g. 9.1C, 9.2B, 9.4B, 10.1A; as linking (full) verb 1.2C, 6.4A, 10.1-2; imperative 10.1A; *aren't I?* 10.1B, simple present and past 10.1C, progressive forms 10.2A, *has been/had been* 10.2B, *have been* and *have gone* 10.2C, *have been* with *since/for* 10.2D; *there + be* 10.3; and *seem*, etc. 10.4; to express certainty 10.4A, 11.1C, 11.4A-B, 11.5A; *I wish I were* 11.7B; *I'd rather be* 11.8A; in questions, answers, negatives 13.1-9; + *as if* 1.8D; *being* 1.11A, and *having been* 1.12A; *it being and there being* 1.12B; *go to a place/be at a place* 8.2A; and see **there**
bear: *can't bear + -ing* 16.6D; *to or -ing* 16.8A
because: clauses of reason 1.9A, 13.7A; and *because of* 8.3A
become: + *of* 8.6B; replaced by *be* 10.1A; and verbs meaning *become* 10.4C
bed: *to/in bed* 3.6B, 8.2A
been: see **be** and **have been**
before: preposition/particle 8.1A; conjunction 8.1C: time 1.8A-B, 9.5A, 9.6A-B; *before + -ing* 1.11B, 16.5A3; and *in front of* 8.3A
begin: + *with* 8.6B; + *by* 16.7D3; + *to/ -ing* 16.8A
be, have, do: 10.1-7
behind: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *at the back of/back* 8.3A

being: present participle, 1.11A; *he's being greedy* 10.2A; use in the passive 12.1B
believe: *I believe so* 4.3C; + *in* 8.6A, 16.7D3; the passive with verbs of saying and believing (*it is believed ...*) 12.2C; *have you believe* 16.2B; *believe that/you to be* 16.3D
belong: + *to* 8.6B; as stative verb 9.1C
below: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *under* 8.5A
beneath: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.5A
beside: preposition 8.1B; and *besides* 7.8B, 8.4A, 16.5A3
better/best: 6.5C; as adverb 7.1A; *much better* 7.5D, *very much better, the very best* 7.6A; and see **had better**
be to/be about to/be due to: 9.9B-C
between: preposition/particle 8.1A; *between ourselves* 4.5C; *between you and me* 8.1D; and *among* 8.4A
beyond: preposition/particle 8.1A
bit: *a bit (of)* 2.4C, 5.1A, 5.2
blame: + *myself* 4.5A; *someone for* 8.6C, 16.7D3
bored: and *boring* 6.3B; 16.4A-B, 16.7B; *bored with + -ing* 16.7D2
both: 5.1A; and *all* 5.5
breakfast: *have breakfast* 3.6A
busy: + *-ing* 16.7B
but: conjunction, in compound sentences 1.4; preposition, *but (for)* 8.4A; ... *but I can't* 13.4A
buy: + *me/for me* 1.3A,C
by: preposition/particle 8.1A; *by the time (that), by this time* clauses of time 1.8A-B, 9.6A, 9.8A-B; *by day* 3.6A; *by himself* 4.5C; and *till/until* 7.3B; and *according to* 8.3A; and *near, on* 8.4A; and *past* 8.4A; and *with, without* 8.4A; with the passive 12.2B; + *-ing* 16.7D1

C

can/could: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; ability 11.2; permission and prohibition 11.3, 11.10A; certainty and possibility 11.4; *must be/have been* and *can't be/have been* (deduction) 11.5; requests 11.6B; *could* after *I wish* and *if only* 11.7C; *if you could (have)* 14.2A, 14.3A; in indirect speech 15.3-6
capital letters: to begin sentences 1.1B; proper nouns 2.5B-C, 3.1C, 3.4B, 3.5A
case: see **genitive**; and see **in case**
catch: *catch you doing* 16.6B
causative: *have/get something done* 12.3; compare 16.2B

cease: + *to or -ing* 16.8A
church: *to/at/in church* 3.6B, 8.2A
cinema: *the cinema* 3.4A, 8.2A; *the Globe* 3.6C
clauses: in compound sentences 1.4; subordinate and main clause 1.5-12; noun clauses 1.5B-C; relative clauses 1.6-7; adverbial clauses 1.8-10; and participle constructions 1.11-12
clothes: 2.6C
clothing: 2.4A-B
collective nouns: *committee, majority, people* 2.6A
colour adjectives: *red is my favourite* 3.5A; *the red one(s)* 4.2C and word order 6.4D
come: + *across, by* 8.6D; + *off* 8.8B *come and* 9.10D; *come true* 10.4C; *come dancing* 16.6A
comma: in direct speech 1.1B, 15.1; in compound sentences 1.4; in non-defining clauses 1.7B-C
commands: see **imperatives**
commence: + *to or -ing* 16.8A
comparatives and superlatives: 6.5
comparison: adverbial clauses 1.10D
complements: 1.2C, 6.4A, 10.1-2, 10.4
complex sentences: 1.5-12
compound adjectives: 6.1C
compound nouns: 2.2, 2.8B; and order of adjectives 6.4C-D
compound sentences: 1.4
concord: with participles 1.12C; *the government is/are* 2.6A; with *everyone ... they* 4.6C; after *none* 5.2A, 5.7C; of adjectives and nouns 6.2A
condition: *on (the) condition (that)* 14.4C
conditional sentences: 14.1-4: Type 1: 14.1A; *if + present + modal* 14.1B; *if + should* 14.1C; imperative + *and/or* 14.1D; Type 2: 14.2A; *if + were/was* 14.2B; *if + past + modal* 14.2C; Type 3: 14.3A; *if + had been* 14.3B; *if + past perfect + modal* 14.3C; mixed tenses 14.4A; *if not/unless* 14.4B; words replacing *if* 14.4C
congratulate: someone *on* 16.7D3
conjunctions: in compound sentences 1.4; in complex sentences 1.5-12; words that are prepositions or conjunctions 8.1C; replacing *if* 14.4C; in indirect speech 15.3-6
connecting adverbs: *however*, etc. 7.8B
consider: *it is considered that* 12.2C; *consider that/him to be* 16.3D; + *-ing* 16.6A,C
considering (that): contrast clauses 1.9B
continue: + *to or -ing* 16.8A

continuous tenses: see **present progressive**, **past progressive**, etc.
contrast: adverbial clauses 1.9B-C
co-ordinating conjunctions: 1.4
could: see **can/could**

countable and uncountable nouns: 2.3-4: how to tell the difference 2.3A; *an egg and egg* 2.3B; *a coffee and coffee* 2.3C-D; *bread and a loaf* 2.4A; *information* 2.4B; *a piece/loaf of bread* 2.4C; singular countables with *a/an* 3.1-2; singular or plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns with *the* 3.3-4, 3.5A; *Beans are good for you* 3.1A-B, 3.5A; *one(s)* used in place of countable nouns 4.2B-C, 4.3B; with quantifiers 5.1-7; *-ing* form nouns 16.5

countries: 3.6C, 4.1C

country: *the country* 3.4A

couple: *a couple (of)* 5.2A-B; *a couple more* 5.2C

D

dare: as semi-modal 11.1A; modal and full verb 11.12B-C

dates: 8.2B; *What date?* 13.5C

day: *one day* 3.2B; *by day* 3.6A; *the next day/the other day* 5.7A; *the day before yesterday* 7.2A; *Which day?* 13.6B; *that day* 15.3B

days of the week: 7.2A, 8.2B

decide: *it was decided that* 12.2C; *decide to/that* 16.3E; *decide to/my decision to* 16.4C

defining/non-defining clauses: 1.7B-C

definite article: see **the**

demonstrative adjectives/pronouns: 4.6; and see **this/that/these/those**

deny: *deny taking/having taken* 16.6A,C

depend: + *on* 8.6B, 16.7D3

describe: *describe it to me* 1.3B

dinner: *dinner is served* 3.6A

directly: conjunction, clauses of time 1.8B

direct object: see **object**

direct speech: and indirect speech 15.1-6; punctuation of direct speech 1.1B, 15.1; interpreting direct speech 15.6

dislike: + *-ing* 16.6A,D

do: *do it for me* 1.3A; *as/than I do* 1.10D; + imperative 9.10A, 10.1A; as an auxiliary verb in questions, answers, negatives 13.1-9; as a full verb (*do the ironing*) 10.7, 16.5A7; *do and make* 10.7B; *he may (do)* 11.4B

double genitive: *a friend of mine* 4.4B

double imperative: (*go and ...*) 9.10D

double negative: 13.2A

down: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.7B; and *under* 8.4A; *Sit (down)!* 8.8A; *break down* 8.8B

downward(s): adverb particle 8.1B

dream: + *to or -ing* 16.8B

dress: + (*yourself*) 4.5B

due to: and *owing to* 8.4A; *be due to* 9.9B-C

during: preposition 8.1B; *during, in and for* 7.3C

dynamic verbs: 9.1C

E

each: 5.1A; and *every* 5.6C; + (*one*) of 5.7C-D

eager: + *that ... should* 11.13C; *eager to* 16.4A,C

early: position 6.2B; as adverb 7.1A

easy: *he's easy to please/it's easy to please him* 16.4A; + *-ing* 16.7A

echo tags: *Is he?* etc. 13.3C; *Did you, or didn't you?* 13.9B

-ed/-ing forms: *dancing-shoes* 2.2A; *excited/exciting* 6.3B; *quite amazing* 7.5A; *very interested, very much interested* 7.6A; *get bored* 4.5A, 10.4C; *too boring to/not interesting enough to* 16.4B

either: *either ... or* in compound sentences 1.4; 5.1A; + singular noun 5.7B; *either of* 5.7B-D; focus adverb: *too and not either* compared 7.7C, 13.4A-B

elder, eldest: 6.5C

empty subject: 4.3A, 16.7A

English: *English spoken* 12.2A

enjoy: transitive verb: 1.2B, 4.3B, + *yourself* 4.5A, 9.10B; *quite enjoy* 7.5A; *much enjoy* 7.5D; + *-ing* 16.6A,C

enough: quantity 5.1, 16.5A2; degree 16.4B

essential: + *that ... should* 11.13C

even: focus adverb 7.7A

even if: contrast clauses 1.9B;

conditionals 14.4C

even though: contrast clauses 1.9B

ever: *hardly ever, not ... ever* 7.4A-B, 9.5A, 9.6A; *Where ever?*, etc. (question) and *wherever*, etc. (conjunction) 1.8C, 13.9C

every: 5.1A; and *each* 5.6C; *every (single)* 5.7D

everybody/everyone: 4.6C; and *one* 4.2A; and *all* 5.6B; with imperatives 9.10B

everything: and *all* 5.6B

everywhere: conjunction, clauses of place 1.8C

except: preposition 8.1B; *except (for)* and *but (for)* 8.4A

excited/exciting: 6.3B

exclamation mark: to end a sentence 1.1B, 15.1

exclamations: as type of sentence 1.1B, in direct speech 15.1A

excuse: + *him/his -ing* 16.6D; *excuse me for + -ing* 16.7D3

expect: *I expect so* 4.3C; *expect (you)* to 16.3B; *expect to/that* 16.3E

explain: *explain it to me* 1.3A, 8.6C; + *-ing* 16.6A

extremely: 7.6B

F

fail: *fail to* 16.3A, *fail in* 8.6B; *failure to* 16.4C

fairly: 7.5B-C

fancy: + *-ing* 16.6A,D

far: *farther/further* 6.5C; *far better, far prefer* 7.5D; *far away* 8.3A; *not far from* 8.4A; *How far?* 13.7C

fast: adjective/adverb 7.1A; *fast asleep* 7.6B

feel: *feel as if* 1.8D; *feel well* 6.4A; *feel up to* 8.8D; 10.4A-B; *feel something happen/happening* 16.2A; *feel like + -ing* 16.6A

feminine: see **gender**

few/a few: 5.1, 5.4C; *a few more* 5.2C

fewer/the fewest: 5.1; *fewer and less* 5.4D

find: *find it for me* 1.3A,C; *find out* 8.7C; *find that/you to be* 16.3D; *find you doing* 16.6B

fine: position 6.2B

finish: + *-ing* 16.6A

focus adverbs: 7.7

fond: *fond of + -ing* 16.7D2

foot/feet: 2.5C; *a six-foot hole* 6.1C

for: preposition 8.1B; *for, since and ago* 7.3A, 9.5A-B, 9.6B, 10.2D; *for, in and during* 7.3C; *buy it for me* 1.3A; (= instead of/for the benefit of) 1.3C; conjunction (= because) in compound sentences 1.4A; *How long for?* 13.7D; *Who(m) ... for?* 13.5B; *What (ever) for?* 13.5C, 13.9C; + *-ing* 16.5A3, 16.7D

forbid: 11.3, *forbid you to* 16.3C

forget: + *to or -ing* 16.8C

forgive: *forgive someone for* 8.6C; + *-ing* 16.6A,D

forward(s): adverb particle 8.1B; *look forward to* 8.8D, 16.7E

frankly: viewpoint adverb 7.8A

frequently: 7.4

friendly: 7.1C

from: preposition 8.1B; movement 8.2A; away from 8.3A; made from 8.5A
fully: and *fully* 7.1B
full stop: to end a sentence 1.1B; with abbreviations 3.3B; in direct speech 1.1B, 15.1
further, furthest: 6.5C; see *far*
future-in-the-past: 9.9C
future perfect simple/progressive: uses 9.8B
future progressive tense: uses, and simple future tense 9.8A; and present progressive 9.2B, 9.8A
future simple: see **simple future tense**

G

gender: 2.7; grammatical gender 2.7A; -ess, brother/sister 2.7A; neighbour 2.7B; relative pronouns 1.6A-B; and the 3.3A; he/she for animals, things, etc. 4.1C; and adjectives 6.2A
generally: 7.4
genitive: of and 's 2.2B, 2.8B; basic rules 2.8A; 's/s' with non-living things (a month's salary) 2.8C; the butcher's, etc. 2.8D, 3.4A; a friend of mine/of my father's 4.4B; answering Whose? 13.6C; appreciate John's helping us 16.6C,D
geographical names: 3.6C; with prepositions 8.2A
gerund: 16.5-6; and see **-ing form**
get: get it for me 1.3A; get (yourself) dressed 4.5B; get wet 4.5B, 10.4C; have got/have gotten 10.5A; get something done (causative) 12.3C
give: + me/to me 1.3A; give something away 8.7A
glad: glad to 16.4A
go: go to/be at 8.2A; + preposition 8.6D; go (away) 8.8A; go and buy 9.10D; have gone and have been 10.2C; go bad 10.4C; go sailing 16.6A; go on + to or -ing 16.8C
going to-future: uses 9.9A; was going to 9.9C
gold: and golden 2.2C
good: a good deal of 5.1A; a good deal more/less 5.2C; and well 6.4A, 6.5C; better/best 6.5C; any good 7.5D; not very/too good 7.6A; good at 8.3A; good to/so good as to 16.4A; it's no good complaining 16.7C
government: 2.6A; the Government 3.4B
great: a great deal of 5.1A
grow: grow old 10.4C
guess: I guess so 4.3C; guess at 8.6B

H

had better: 11.9A, 16.1B; + not 11.10A, 16.1B
hair: 2.4B
happen to be: 10.4A
hard: and *hardly*, adjective/adverb 7.1A-B, 16.4A; and see **hardly**
hardly: hardly any 5.1B, 5.3B, hardly any more 5.2C; and hard 7.1A-B; hardly ever 7.4A-B; hardly and hardly ever + inversion 7.8C; with need 11.12A; with dare 11.12B
hate: I hate him 9.1B; hate (you) to 16.3B; hate him/his knowing 16.6D; + to or -ing 16.8B
have: as auxiliary verb, e.g. 9.5-6; as full verb, compared with *have got* (= possess) 10.5; (= eat, enjoy, take, etc.) 10.6; have something done (causative) 12.3; in questions, etc. 13.1-9; have the next patient come in 16.2B
have been: 10.2B-D; and *have gone* 10.2C; after *would rather*, *would sooner* 11.8A
have to: had to and must have been, didn't have to and mustn't have been 11.5C; and *have got to*, *must* 11.9; don't have to, mustn't and needn't 11.10B; didn't have to, needn't have and didn't need to 11.10C; in indirect speech 15.3-6
having been: and *being* 1.12A
he: (and *him*) personal pronoun 4.1A-B, 2.7B; for animals 4.1C; with *anyone/ everyone* 4.6C
hear: stative verb 9.1C; I can hear 11.2B; hear someone arrive/arriving 16.2A, 16.6B
help: Help yourself! 9.10B; help me (to) do 16.1C, 16.3B; can't help + -ing 16.6A
high: and *highly* 7.1A-B; highly respected 7.6B; it's (high) time 11.7
home: at home 8.2A; be/go home 10.2C
hope: I hope so 4.3C, 9.1B; it is hoped that 12.2C; hope to 16.2A; hope to/ that 16.3E
hospital: to/in hospital 3.6B, 8.2A
how: question-word 13.7B-E; How long? How long ago? 7.3A, 10.2D, 13.7D; How long?/What length? 13.7C; How often? 7.4A; How dare you! 11.12C; conjunction (manner) 1.8D; how to/ should in indirect speech 15.5C
however: conjunction + e.g. much (however much, contrast) 1.9B; connecting adverb 7.8B, however and How ever? 13.9C
hundred: 3.2B, hundreds (more) 5.2C

hurry: Hurry up! 8.8A; hurry to 16.3A
hyphens: dancing-shoes 2.2A; a twenty-year-old man 6.1C

I

I: personal pronoun 4.1A-B; as I am 1.10D, 4.1B; and we with *shall* 9.7B, 11.1A; aren't I? 10.1B
if: 14.1-4; if ... not and unless 14.4B; and see **conditional sentences**
if only: and I wish, it's (high) time 11.7
if, whether (or not): after reporting verbs 1.5C, 15.4A; if/whether ... should 15.5B
ill: and sick 6.2B
illnesses: 3.2D
imagine: I imagine so 4.3C; imagine that/him to be 16.3D; + -ing 16.6A,D
immediately: conjunction, clauses of time 1.8B; adverb 15.3B
imperatives: 1.2A, 9.10; as type of sentence 1.1B, 15.1A; of be 10.1A; Have a sandwich! 10.6B; Have/Get that car repaired! 12.3C; in conditional sentences 14.1D; in indirect speech 15.5A; let 16.1B
in: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.7B; position: in Texas 8.2A; in March 8.2B; in, for and during 7.3C; in my eye 8.5A; in a blue suit 8.5A
in case: clauses of purpose 1.10B
indefinite article: see **a/an**
indefinite pronouns: one 4.2, 4.3B; someone, etc. 4.6B-C
indirect object: see **object**
indirect speech: 15.2-6; say, tell and ask 15.2A-B; statements with reporting verb in the present 15.2C; indirect statements with tense changes 15.3A; pronoun and adverb changes 15.3B; indirect questions with tense changes 15.4; uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech 15.5; interpreting direct speech 15.6
infinitive: and the -ing form 16.1-8; forms 16.1A; bare infinitive after let, etc. 16.1B; bare infinitive or to after help, know 16.1C; see him come/ coming 16.2A; have him come in 16.2B; purpose 1.10A, so as (not) to, etc. 16.2C; can't afford to 16.3A; want to/want you to 16.3B; tell him to 16.3C; know him to be 16.3D; agree to/that 16.3E; it's nice to see you 4.3A, 16.4A, 16.7A; passive 12.1A; in indirect speech 15.5
information: 2.4B
in front of: and before 8.3A
-ing form: participle constructions 1.11-12; gerund 2.1B; part of compound

-ing form (continued)

noun or adjective 2.2A, 16.5A; *it's nice seeing you* 4.3A; adding *-ing* to a verb 9.2A; *see him come/coming* 16.2A; *have them complaining* 16.2B; uses of the gerund (*No Parking*, etc.) 16.5, 16.6A; *deny taking/having taken* 16.6A; *start (him) working* 16.6B *appreciate your helping* 16.6C; *excuse me/my asking* 16.6D; *it's pleasant lying in the sun* 16.7A; *busy working* 16.7B; *no good complaining* 16.7C; preposition + *-ing* 16.7D-E; verb + *to* or *-ing*? 16.8; and see **infinitive, -ed/ing forms**

in order that: clauses of purpose 1.10A
in order to: 16.2C

inside: preposition/particle 8.1A

insist: + *on* 8.6B, 16.7D3; + *that ... should* 11.13B; in indirect speech 15.6A

intend: + *to* or *-ing* 16.8A

intensifiers: 7.6

interested/interesting: 6.3B; with *too/enough* 16.4B; *interested in gardening* 16.5A3, 16.7D2

into: preposition 8.1B; movement 8.2A

intransitive verbs: 1.2B; phrasal verbs 8.6-8; and the passive 12.1A

introduce: *introduce him to me* 1.3B; + (*myself*) 4.5A

inversion: after negative adverbs (*never*) 7.8C; in questions 13.1-9

inverted commas: 1.1B, 15.1

invite: *invite you to* 16.3C

irregular comparison of adjectives: 6.5C

irregular plurals of nouns: 2.5C

irregular verbs: 9.3B

isn't that so?: 13.3A

it: personal pronoun 4.1A; *give it to me/give me it* 1.3A; *it's obvious that* 1.5B, 4.3A; *it being* 1.12B; (= a boy/girl) 4.1A; *it's me* 4.1B; animals, etc. 4.1C; *it's hot* 4.3A; and *one (I'd like it/one)* 4.3B; and *so* after *believe* 4.3C; *it is and there is* 10.3; *it's (high) time* 11.7D; *it is said that* 12.2C; *it's easy to/ing* 16.4A, 16.7A

its: possessive 4.4A; replaced by *whose* 1.7A

it's: 10.1C

itself: 4.5A,C

J

joining words: see **conjunctions**

just: and *justly* 7.1B; adverb 7.2C, 7.7A, 9.5A; *just as* 9.4B; *just about to* 9.9B

K

keen: *keen to* 16.4A; *keen on* + *-ing* 16.7D2

keep: *keep it for me* 1.3C; + *-ing* 16.6A-B

kind: + *of you to* 16.4A, 16.7A; *What kind?* 13.5C

know: + *about* 8.6B; *know that* 1.5B; *it is known that* 12.2C; *not know it/whether* 1.5C, 15.4A; *know him (to) be* 16.1C, 16.3D; *know about* 16.7D3; *begin to know* 16.8A

L

last: and *latest* 6.5C; and *lastly* 7.1A-B; *last night* 7.2A, 9.3C; *at last* 7.2C

late: position 6.2B; comparison 6.5C; and *lately* 7.1A-B, 7.2C

latest: and *last* 6.5C

least: 5.1A; superlative 6.5C

leave: + *-ing* 16.6B

less: 5.1A, *any less*, etc. 5.2C; and *fewer* 5.4D; comparative 6.5C

lesser: 6.5C

let: as auxiliary and main verb 11.6F, 16.1B

like: transitive verb: *I like it* (Not **I like**) 1.2B, 4.3B; *I quite like* 7.5A; *I don't much like* 7.5D; as stative verb 9.1C; *Would you like?* 11.6; *would like to* 16.2C; (*would*) *like (you) to* 16.3B; *like him/his* + *-ing* 16.6D; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8B; preposition: and *as* 8.4A

linking verbs: *be*, etc. 1.2C, 6.4A, 9.1C, 10.1-2, 10.4

little/a little: 5.1, 5.4C; *a little more/less* 5.2C; *less/least* 6.5C; and *small* 6.5C; *little does he realize* 7.8C; *do a little reading* 16.5A2

look: *he looks good* 1.2C, 6.4A, 10.4A-B; *look at*, *look after*, *look for* 8.6B; *look at him work/working* 16.2A

look forward to: 8.8D, 16.7E

lots (of): 5.1-2; and *much/many* 5.4A-B

love: as stative verb 9.1B-C; *I'd love to* 11.6C; *love (you) to* 16.3B; *love him/his* + *-ing* 16.6D; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8B

luggage: 2.4A-B

lunch: *at lunch* 3.6A; *have lunch* 10.6B
-ly adverbs: 7.1; intensifiers (*extremely*) 7.6B

M

main clause: 1.5A; complex sentences 1.5-12; in conditional sentences 14.1-4

majority: 2.6A; *the majority of* 5.1A, 5.2A

make: *make it for me* 1.3A; + *of*, *out of*, *from*, *with* 8.5A; and *become* 10.4C; *make and do* 10.7B; *she made them work hard* 16.1B

manage to: and *can/could* 11.2; verb + *to* 16.3A

manner: adverbial 1.1A; adverbial clauses 1.8A,D; adverbs of manner 7.1

many: 5.1, 5.4B, *many more*, etc. 5.2C, *not many* 5.4A-B; *many/more most* 6.5C; *How many?* 2.3A, 13.7B, 13.8A

masculine: see **gender**

matter: *no matter how*, etc. 1.9C

may/might: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; permission and prohibition 11.3; certainty and possibility 11.4; requests 11.6B; the passive 12.1A; after *in order that*, *so that* 1.10A; compared with *seem* 10.4A; in indirect speech 15.3-6

me: object pronoun 4.1A-B; *give me* 1.3A; *as/than me* 1.10D, 4.1B; *between you and me* 8.1D

measures, etc.: 3.2B-C, 6.1C; *What size?* 13.5C

might: see **may/might**

mind: + *-ing* 16.6A,D; *Mind out!* 8.8B

mine/my: 4.4A-B

minority: *the minority of* 5.1A

miss: + *-ing* 16.6A,D

modal auxiliaries and related verbs: 11.1-13: the two uses of modal verbs 11.1; ability and inability 11.2; permission and prohibition 11.3, 11.10; certainty and possibility 11.4; deduction 11.5; offers, requests and suggestions 11.6; *I wish/if only/it's (high) time* 11.7; *would rather*, *would sooner* 11.8; 'it's advisable' 11.9; 'it isn't advisable' 11.10; habit 11.11; *need and dare* 11.12; *that ... should* 11.13B-C; *there might be* 11.13D; the passive 12.1A; in questions, answers, negatives 13.1-9; in conditional sentences 14.1B, 14.2C, 14.3C; in indirect speech 15.3-6; + bare infinitive 16.1

moment: *the moment*, conjunction, clauses of time 1.8B; *a moment ago* 9.3C

money: (noun) 2.4B; *a/one dollar* 3.2B-C

months of the year: 7.2A, 8.2B

more: quantifier 5.1A; *some more*, etc. 5.2C; comparatives 6.5

most: quantifier 5.1A; superlatives 6.5
Mr, Mrs, Dr, etc.: 3.5B

much: quantifier 5.1, 5.4B, *much less*, etc. 5.2C, *not much* 5.4A; *much/more/most* 6.5C; *much better, much enjoy* 7.5D, *very much better* 7.6A; *How much?* 2.3A, 13.7B, 13.8A

much as: contrast clauses 1.9B

must: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; *mustn't and can't* (prohibition) 11.3B, 11.10; *must be/have been and can't be/have been* (deduction) 11.5; *must be/have been and had to be* compared 11.5B-C; and *have (got) to* 11.9; *mustn't, needn't, don't have to, haven't got to* 11.10B; in indirect speech 15.3-6

my: and *mine* 4.4A-B; *my own* 4.4C; and *the* 4.4D

N

names and titles: plurals 2.5B; with apostrophe *s* 2.8A; *a Rembrandt* 3.1C; academic titles 3.3B; *the Mr Jones* 3.4A, 3.5A; organizations, etc. 3.4B; titles: 3.5B; place names 3.6C; replaced by *the one/ones* 4.2B

nationality words: plurals 2.5C; *she's an American/American* 3.1C

near: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *near/on* 8.4A; and *nearly* 7.1A-B

nearly: *nearly every* 5.6C; and *near* 7.1A-B

need/needn't: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; *needn't, mustn't, don't have to, haven't got to* 11.10B; *needn't have, didn't have to and didn't need to* 11.10C; modal and full verb 11.12A; in indirect speech 15.3-6; *need (you) to* 16.3B; *need mending* 16.6A

negative adverbs: 7.4A, 13.2A; + inversion 7.8C; with *need* 11.12A

negative questions: 13.2C, 10.1B

negative statements: with *be, do, etc.* 13.1B; and adverbs of frequency 7.4B; with 'negative adverbs' 7.8C, 13.2A; with *no and not any*, 4.6B, 5.3B-C; and tag questions 13.3

neither: *neither ... nor* in compound sentences 1.4; 5.1A; *neither of* as the negative of *both the* 5.5D; + singular noun 5.7B; *neither of* 5.7B-D; *Neither do I, etc.* 13.4A-B

never: 7.4A; + inversion 7.8D; *never ... before* 9.5A, 9.6A; *never used to* 11.11A; compared with *not* 13.2A; *never to* 15.5A

news: 2.4B

next: *the next day and the other day* 5.7A; *next Monday* 7.2A, 9.1B

night: *at night* 3.6A; *last night* 7.2A

no: quantifier 5.1, *no more* 5.2C; and *not any* 5.3C, 13.2A; in *yes/no* short answers 13.1C; *there's no regretting* 16.5A2; *No + ing* 16.5A5

nobody/no one/nothing: 4.6B-C, 13.2A; with imperatives 9.10B

no-compounds: 4.6B-C, 13.2A

no matter: conjunction + *how, etc.* 1.9C

non-defining/defining clauses: 1.7B-C

none: 4.3B, 5.1-2, 5.3C, 5.7C, 13.2A;

none of as the negative of *all the* 5.5D

noon: *at noon* 3.6A, 7.2A, 8.2B

nor: *Nor do I, etc.* 13.4A-B; and see

neither

normally: 7.4

not: *not only ... but* (compound sentences) 1.4; *not so (or as) ... as* (clauses of comparison) 1.10D; *not + -ing* 1.11A; *not me* 4.1B; *I believe not* 4.3C; *not much/many* 5.1, 5.4A-B; *not any, no and none* 5.3C; compared with *never* 13.2A; *not every* 5.6C; *not yet* 7.2B; *not ever* 7.4A; *not ... until* 7.3B, 9.8B *not very good* 7.6A; *not either and too* 7.7C; *I'd rather not* 11.8A; *Not Wednesday, Thursday* 13.2B; *Why (ever) not?* 13.7A, 13.9C; *... or not?* 13.9B; *not to* 15.5A, 16.1A, 16.2C; *let's not* 16.1B; and see **negative questions, negative statements**

nothing: 4.6B-C, 13.2A

noun clauses: derived from statements 1.5B; derived from questions 1.5C, 15.4, 15.5B-C

nouns: 2.1-8; compared with verbs (*export and export*) 2.1C; as modifiers (*a gold watch*) 2.2C, 6.4B-D; *she's an American or she's American* 3.1C; with *both and all* 5.5A; + to-infinitive 16.4C; + *-ing* 16.7A,C; and see **abstract nouns, collective nouns, compound nouns, countable and uncountable nouns, gender, genitive, number, proper nouns, word formation, a/an, the, zero article**

now: 7.2C, 15.3B

nowhere: 13.2A

number: *a number of* 5.2A

number (singular and plural): nouns without plural forms (uncountable) 2.3A, 2.5-6: *box/boxes* 2.5A; *knife/knives* 2.5B; *photo/photos, foot/feet, sheep* 2.5C; *government, the public, people* 2.6A; *statistics* 2.6B; *trousers, clothes* 2.6C; *the Americans* 3.3C; plurals with apostrophe 2.8A; *beans are good for you* 3.1A, 3.5A

numbers: *a/an and one* 3.1B; *a/one hundred* 3.2B; quantity 5.1B; *a twenty-year-old man* 6.1C

O

object: usual position in a sentence 1.1A; transitive and intransitive verbs 1.2B; compared with complement 1.2C; indirect and direct object (*show me that photo*) 1.3A; *tell me, say to me* 15.2A; direct object + *to* (*explain it to me*) 1.3B; pronouns 4.1; *it and one* as objects 4.3B; object pronouns compared with reflexive 4.5A; of prepositions 8.1; *between you and me* (Not *I) 8.1D; with phrasal verbs 8.6-8; and the passive 12.1A; asking for the object with *Who(m)?* 13.5B, 13.8A; *good at repairing bikes* 16.5A8; *start him working* 16.6B; *excuse me asking* 16.6D

object to: 8.6B, 16.7E

of: preposition 8.1B; and *made of, and off, a man of 65* 8.5A; *the leg of the table/table leg* 2.2B, 2.8B; *a slice of bread* 2.4C; *of my own* 4.4C; *after some, etc.* 5.1A, 5.2A; *after both/all* 5.5C; *after each, etc.* 5.6C, 5.7C-D; *kind of you to* 16.4A; and see **genitive**

off: preposition/particle 8.1A; and of 8.5A

offers: with the imperative 9.10A, 9.10C; with modals 11.6A, 11.6E; in indirect speech 15.5B

often: 7.4, 9.5A, 11.2D

old: *old friend/old man* 6.2B; *the old* 6.3A; *older, oldest* 6.5C; *too old to* 16.4B

omit: + *to or -ing* 16.8A

on: preposition/particle 8.1A; *any money on you* 4.5C; *on a surface* 8.2A; *on Monday* 7.2A, 8.2B; and *about* 8.3A; and *by, near* 8.4A; *on your nose* 8.5A; *How on earth ...?* 13.9C

once: conjunction, time clauses 1.8A; adverb 7.2C

one: personal pronoun 4.1A; compared with *a/an* 3.1B, 3.2B; *one day* 3.2B; and *you* (= anyone) 4.2A; *one/ones* in place of nouns 4.2B-C, 4.3B; *one's* (possessive) 4.4A; *oneself* 4.5A; *this one and the other one* 5.7A; *after each, etc.* 5.7D; *not *one speaks English** 12.2A

only: *not only* 1.4; *only a few/a little* 5.4C; focus adverb 7.7A; *only after, etc.* + inversion 7.8C

onto: preposition 8.1B

on top of: and *above, over* 8.5A

opposite: preposition/particle 8.1A

or: in compound sentences 1.4; questions joined by *or* 13.9A-B; *... or not?* 13.9B; *Stop borrowing money, or ...!* 14.1D; and see **either**

other: *other, the other, the others, others* 5.7A
ought to: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; 'it's advisable' 11.9A; *oughtn't to* 11.10A,D; in indirect speech 15.3-6
out: adverb 8.1B, 8.7B; and *outside, out of* 8.5A
out of: preposition 8.1B; movement 8.2A; *made out of* 8.5A; and *outside, out* 8.5A; and *out of, out* 8.5A
outside: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *out of* 8.5A
over: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *across* 8.3A; and *up* 8.4A; and *above, on top of* 8.5A
owing to: and *due to* 8.4A
own: *my own room/a room of my own* 4.4C

P

pair: *a pair of trousers* 2.6C
pardon: + *-ing* 16.6A,D
participle constructions: present: 1.11A, in place of adverbial clauses 1.11B, in place of relative clauses 1.11C; *being* and *having been* 1.12A; *it being* and *there being* 1.12B; agreement between participle and subject 1.12C; past constructions 1.12D; *see someone coming* 16.2A, 16.6B, 16.6D
particles: used as adjectives (*boiling water*) 2.2A, 16.5A; *exciting/excited* 6.3B; past participles as adjectives 6.4C-D; *busy working* 16.7B; *not worth complaining* 16.7C; and see **-ed/-ing forms**
articles: see **adverb particles**
partitives: *a loaf of bread, etc.* 2.4C
passive: 12.1-3: basic forms 12.1A; with the progressive 12.1B; uses 12.2A; with *by* + agent 12.2B; *it is said, etc.* 12.2C; and the causative (*have something done*) 12.3B; passive infinitive 16.1A; *they were made to work* 16.1B; *-ing form passive* 16.6A, 16.5A10
past: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *by* 8.4A
past participles: see **participle constructions, participles**
past perfect progressive tense: and present perfect progressive 9.6B; and simple past perfect 9.6C; of *be* 10.2A
past perfect simple: see **simple past perfect tense**
past progressive tense: uses 9.4B; and simple past 9.4C; of *be* 10.2A; and *used to* 11.11B; the passive 12.1B
people(s): 2.6A
permit: 11.3B
person: (noun) 2.7B; 1st/2nd/3rd 4.1A, 9.1A, 9.4A
personal pronouns: 4.1: subject and object 4.1A-B, 1.10D; and gender 2.7, 4.1C; after *give, etc.* 1.3; or reflexive pronouns 4.5C; with *both* and *all* 5.5C; *between you and me* (Not *I) 8.1D; *There is/It is/He is* 10.3B; *it is said that/he is said to be* 12.2C; indirect speech 15.3B; *he is easy to please* 16.4A; *start him working* 16.6B; *excuse me asking* 16.6D
phrasal verbs: 8.6-8; and see **verbs**
piece: *a piece of* 2.4C
place: adverbial 1.1A; adverbial clauses 1.8A,C
place names: with zero article 3.5A, 3.6C; with prepositions 8.2A
plenty (of): 5.1-2
plural (of nouns): 2.5-6; and see **number**
point: *there's no point in trying* 16.7C
points of time: *today, etc.* 3.6A, 7.2A, 8.2B; in indirect speech 15.3B
police: *the police* 2.6A, 3.4B
possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns: replaced by *whose* 1.7A; 4.4; *his (not) knowing* 16.5A4; *excuse my asking* 16.6C-D
possessive case: see **genitive**
possibly: in polite requests 11.3A
prefer: stative verb 9.1C; *I much prefer* 7.5D; *prefer (you) to* 16.3B; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8B
prefixes: adjectives 6.1B
preparatory subject: 4.3A, 1.5B, 16.4A, 16.7A-C
prepare: *prepare to* 16.3A
prepositions: in relative clauses 1.6C, 1.7A; + object or reflexive pronouns 4.5C; words used as prepositions or adverb particles 8.1A-B, as prepositions or conjunctions 8.1C; movement and position 8.2A; time 8.2B; particular prepositions, 8.3-5; after verbs 8.6A-D, 8.7A, 8.8D; after question-words (*Who for?*) 13.5B-C, 13.9C, 13.7A; + *-ing* 16.5A3, 16.7D-E
prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs: 8.1-8
present participles: see **participle constructions, participles**
present perfect progressive tense: uses 9.5B; and simple present perfect 9.5C; and past perfect progressive 9.6B; and *have been* 10.2D
present perfect simple: see **simple present perfect tense**

present progressive tense: and simple present 9.1C, 9.2C; form 9.2A; uses 9.2B-C; of *be* 10.2A; the passive 12.1B
present simple tense: see **simple present tense**
pretend: + *to/that* 16.3E
prevent: + *-ing* 16.6A,D; *prevent from* 16.7D3
process verbs: *become, etc.* 10.4C
pronouns: 4.1-6; in indirect speech 15.3B; and see **demonstrative adjectives/pronouns, personal pronouns, possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, relative pronouns and clauses**
pronunciation: *-s/-es* plurals 2.5A, 3rd person simple present 9.1A; simple past (regular verbs, *-(e)d*) 9.3A
proper nouns: plurals 2.5B-C; with apostrophe *s* 2.8A; with *a/an* (*a Rembrandt*) 3.1C; *the Mr Jones* 3.4A, *Fritz Weber* 3.5A; *the Titanic* 3.4B; titles: *Mr Pym, etc.* 3.5B; place names 3.6C; names replaced by *the one/ones* 4.2B
propose: 11.13B
prove: *prove it to me* 1.3B; *prove that/him to be* 16.3D
providing/provided (that): 14.4C
public: *the public* 2.6A
punctuation: sentences 1.1B; in compound sentences 1.4; in relative clauses 1.7B; in direct speech 1.1B, 15.1; and see **comma, exclamation mark, full stop, question mark, quotation marks**
purpose: adverbial clauses 1.10A-B; *to*-infinitive 16.2C

Q

quantifiers: 5.1-7
question mark: to end a sentence 1.1B; in direct speech 1.1B, 15.1; indirect speech 1.5C, 15.4A
questions: as type of sentence 1.1B; *yes/no* questions 13.1A; *wh*-questions 13.5-9; and short answers 13.1C; questions joined by *or* 13.9A-B; in direct speech 1.1B, 15.1; in indirect speech 1.5C, 15.4, 15.5B-C; and see **negative questions, question tags, subject-questions, wh-questions**
question tags: affirmative/negative, etc. 13.3A-B; echo tags 13.3C; *Did you, or didn't you?* 13.9B; after imperatives 9.10C; *aren't I?* 10.1B

question-word questions: 13.5-9; and noun clauses 1.5C; and see **wh-questions**
quite: 7.5A-C
quotation marks: 1.1B, 15.1

R

rarely: 7.8C, 13.2A
rather: 7.5C; and see **would rather**
really: viewpoint adverb 7.8A; intensifier 7.6B
reason: adverbial clauses 1.9A; with *for* 1.4
recently: 7.2C, 9.3C, 9.5A
recommend: + *that ... should* 11.13B
reflexive pronouns: 4.5
refuse: *refuse* to 16.3A; *refusal* to 16.4C
regret: + *to* or *-ing* 16.8C
regular verbs: 9.3A
relative pronouns and clauses: 1.6-7; and participle constructions 1.11C
remember: *remember to* in indirect speech 15.5A; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8C
remind: *someone about something* 8.6C; *someone (not)* to 15.5A, 16.3C
report: *report it to me* 1.3B; *it was reported* 12.2C
reported speech: 15.2-6; see **indirect speech**
reporting verbs: in direct and indirect speech 1.5B-C, 15.1-6
requests: with modals: 11.3A, 11.6B,D; + *that ... should* 11.13B; in indirect speech 15.5C
result: in adverbial clauses 1.10C; with *so* 1.4
risk: + *-ing* 16.6A,C
round: preposition/particle 8.1A

S

say: *say it to me* 1.3B; *say so* 4.3C, 15.2B; *it says here that* 9.1B; *it is said that* 12.2C; in direct speech 15.1; and *tell, ask* 1.5B, 15.2, 15.3; *say if/whether* 15.4A
school: *to/at school* 3.6B, 8.2A
sea: *the sea* 3.4A; *go to sea/be at sea* 3.6B
seasons: 8.2B
see: stative verb 9.1C; *I can see* 11.2B; *see someone arrive/arriving* 16.2A, 16.6B
seeing (that): clauses of reason 1.9A
seem: as linking verb 1.2C, 6.4A, 9.1C, 10.4A-B; + *as if* 1.8D; *it seems so* 4.3C; *there seems to be* 10.3C; *it would seem to be* 11.13A
seldom: 7.4A, 13.2A; + inversion 7.8C

sense verbs: 6.4A, 9.1C, 10.4A-B, 11.2B, 16.2A
sentences: 1.1-12; word order 1.1A-B; forms of the sentence 1.1B; complete sentences 1.2A; see also **simple sentences, complex sentences, compound sentences**
sequence of tenses: reporting verb in the present 15.2C; reporting verb in the past 15.3-6; and see **conditional sentences**
several: 5.1A; *several more* 5.2C; + *times* 9.5A
sex: and grammatical gender 2.7A, 4.1
shall: modal auxiliary 9.7A; and *will* to form the future tense 9.7B; two uses of modals 11.1; *Shall I?* (offers) 11.6E; *Shall we?* (suggestions) 11.6F; in indirect speech 15.3-6, 15.5B-C
shan't: and *won't* 9.7B
she: (and *her*) personal pronoun 4.1A-B, 2.7B; for animals, things, countries 4.1C
short: and *shortly* 7.1B
short answers: *the large one*, etc. 4.2C; with *yes/no* 13.1C; after tag questions 13.3; *yes/no* short answers with modals 11.4B
should: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; 'it's advisable' 11.9A; *should have (done)* 11.9C; *shouldn't (have done)* 11.10A,D; *that ... should* 11.13B-C; *if you should see him* 14.1C; after *in case* 1.10B; in indirect speech 15.3-6; 15.5B-C
show: + *me/to me* 1.3A
sick: and *ill* 6.2B
silly: *in a silly way* 7.1C; *don't be silly* 10.1A; *he's being silly* 10.2A; *silly to* 16.4A
simple future tense: 9.7; and future progressive 9.8A; and simple present 9.1B; and present progressive 9.2B; and *going to* 9.9A
simple past perfect tense: uses 9.6A; and past perfect progressive 9.6C; of *be* 10.2B; after *I wish/if only* 11.7; after *would rather* 11.8B; the passive 12.1A; and the causative 12.3A
simple past tense: form and pronunciation of regular verbs 9.3A; with irregular verbs 9.3B; uses 9.3C; and simple present 9.4A; and past progressive 9.4C; and present perfect 9.5D; of *be* 10.1C; after *I wish/if only* 11.7; after *would rather* 11.8B-C; and *used to* 11.11B-C; replaced by *would* 11.11D; passive 12.1A
simple present perfect tense: uses 9.5A; and progressive 9.5C; and simple past 9.5D; *have been* 10.2B-D, *have gone* 10.2C; passive 12.1A

simple present tense: pronunciation and spelling (3rd person) 9.1A; uses 9.1B; and present progressive 9.1C, 9.2C; and simple past tense 9.4A; of *be* 10.1C; and *used to* 11.11A; replaced by *will* 11.11D; replaced by *would* 11.13A; after *suggest*, etc. 11.13B-C; passive 12.1A; after time conjunctions 1.8B; after *in case* 1.10B
simple sentences: 1.1-3
simply: viewpoint adverb 7.7A
since: preposition 8.1B; conjunction 8.1C; clauses of time 1.5A, 1.8A, 9.5A-B, 10.2D; of reason 1.9A; *since arriving* 1.11B, 16.5A3; *since, for* and *ago* 7.3A
singular and plural (nouns): 2.5-6; see **number**
smell: stative/dynamic verb 9.1C; *smell nice* 6.4A, 10.4A-B; *smell something burning* 11.2B, 16.2A, 16.6B
so: adverb: *not so ... as* 1.10D; *I believe so* 4.3C; *so far* 9.5A; *So do I* 13.4A-B; *So have you* and *So you have!* 13.4C; conjunction, in compound sentences 1.4
so as to: 16.2C; *so (kind) as to* 16.4A
so long as: 14.4C
some: with countable and uncountable nouns 2.3C, 2.4B, 5.1-3; as the plural of *a/an* 3.1B, 5.3A; *I'd like some* 4.3B; *some ... others* 5.7A; *some of* 5.2A, 5.7C-D; *do some reading* 16.5A2
somebody/someone/something: 4.6B-C; with imperatives 9.10B; and passive 12.2A
some-compounds: 4.6B-C; with imperatives 9.10B
sometimes: 7.4
soon: 7.2C
sooner: see **would rather, had better**
sorry: *sorry to* 16.4A; *sorry for* 16.7D2
so that: clauses of purpose 1.5A, 1.10A
so ... (that): clauses of result 1.10C; *so difficult was it* 7.8C
sound: *sound nice* 1.2C, 6.4A, 10.4A-B
spelling: nouns and verbs with the same spelling 2.1C; of nouns (plurals) 2.5-6; *-er/-est* to adjectives (comparison) 6.5; of adverbs of manner 7.1A; verbs (3rd person singular, simple present) 9.1A; how to add *-ing* to a verb 9.2A; regular past of verbs 9.3A
stand: *can't stand him/his* + *-ing* 16.6D; *won't stand for, stand over* 8.6D; *Stand up!* 8.8A
start: *start him working* 16.6B; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8A
statements: as type of sentence 1.1B; and questions/negatives 13.1A-B; and

statements (continued)

tag questions 13.3A-B; and question-word questions 13.5A; and subject-questions 13.8; in direct speech 15.1; in indirect speech 15.2-6; see also

negative statements

statistics: 2.6B

stative and dynamic verbs: 9.1C

still: and yet 7.2B, 9.5A

stop: *stop (him) working* 16.6B; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8C

Street: *Oxford Street* 3.6C

subject: usual position in a sentence 1.1A-B; importance in a sentence 1.2A, 4.1A, 4.3A; of *be*, etc. 1.2C; use and omission in compound sentences 1.4A; pronouns 4.1; *it* and *one* as subjects 4.3; active and passive voice 12.1A; questions asking for the subject 13.8

subject-questions: 13.8; in indirect speech 15.4C

subjunctive: *were* after *I wish*, *if only* 11.7B; after *suggest*, etc. 11.13B-C; *if* + *were* 14.2B

subordinate clauses: in complex sentences 1.5-12

succeed: + *in* 8.6A, 16.7D3

such: *such ... that*, clauses of result 1.10C

suddenly: 7.2C

suffixes: nouns 2.1A-B, 2.6B, 3.3C;

adjectives 6.1A; *-(i)ly* (adverbs) 7.1A

suggest: *suggest it to me* 1.3B; + *that ... should* 11.13B; + *-ing* 16.6A,C

suggestions: with modals 11.6C,F; in indirect speech 15.5B; *Why/Why not* 13.7A; *Let's* 16.1B

superlatives: 4.2C, 6.5

suppose: *suppose so* 4.3C; *it is supposed that* 12.2C; *suppose that/him to be* 16.3D; *suppose/supposing* (conjunction) in conditional sentences 14.4C

surprised at: 16.7D2

T

tag questions: *She's late, isn't she?* etc. 13.3; and see **question tags**

take: *(it) takes (me) 10 minutes to* 16.3C

taste: *taste bad* 1.2C, 6.4A, 10.4A-B; + *of* 8.6A

teach: *teach you to* 16.3C

tell: + *me/to me* 1.3A; + *if/whether/when* 1.5C, 15.4A-B; *tell someone so* 4.3C, 15.2B; *tell me about* 8.6C; and *say*, *ask* 1.5B, 15.2A-B; *tell someone (not)* to 15.5A, 16.2C, 16.3C

temporal conjunctions: 1.8A-B

tenses: see **sequence of tenses** and **particular tenses:** **simple present**, **present progressive**, etc.

terribly: 7.6B

than: clauses of comparison: *than I am/than me* 1.10D; in comparatives 6.5; + *-ing* 16.7C

thank: *thank you for* + *-ing* 16.7D3

that: conjunction 1.5A-B, 4.3A, 15.2, 16.3D-E; *that... should* 11.13B-C; *it is said that* 12.2C; relative pronoun 1.6, 1.7B; degree (*that big*) 4.6A; and see **in order that**, **so that**, **such that**; **this/that/these/those**

the: 3.3-4: basic uses 3.2A, 3.3A; with abbreviations (*the BBC*) 3.3B; with nationality nouns 2.5C, 3.3C; *the* for specifying 3.4A, 3.5A (*the cinema*, *the country*, *the sun*); with unique items (*the Titanic*) 3.4B; with some place names (*the USA*) 3.6C; *a pain in the neck* 4.4D; after *a lot of* 5.2A; *the* + adjective (*the young*) 6.3A; *do the ironing*, etc. 16.5A7

their/theirs: 4.4A

then: 1.4A, 7.2C, 15.3B

there: *there is*, etc. 10.3: 'natural choice' 10.3A; and *it is* 10.3B; *there will be*, etc. 10.3C; + modal auxiliaries (*there might be*, etc.) 11.13D; *there is said to be* 12.2C; *there being* 1.12B

they: personal pronoun 4.1A, 4.3B; replacing *everyone*, etc. 4.6C

think: *think that* 1.5B; *think so* 4.3C; *think of* 8.6B; stative verb 9.1C; *Do you think I might?* 11.3A; *it is thought that* 12.2C; in direct speech 15.1C; *think that/him to be* 16.3D

this/that/these/those: 4.6; + *ones(s)* 4.2C, 5.7A; *that boy of yours* 4.4B; *this morning* 7.2A; *these days* 7.2C; + *this time* 8.2B

though: contrast clauses 1.9B; *though* + *-ing* 1.11B

thousand: 3.2B

through: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.3A

till: see **until, till**

time: adverbial 1.1A; adverbial clauses 1.8A-B; time expressions 3.6A, 8.2B; adverbs of time 7.2; *all day*, *the whole night* 5.6A; *it's (high) time* 11.7

tired: and *tiring* 6.3B, 16.7B

to: preposition 8.1B; movement 8.2A; *throw to/at* 8.3A; *give/explain it to me* 1.3A-B; *to school* 3.6B, 10.2C; *Who(m) ... to?* 13.5B; + *-ing* 16.7E

today: 7.2A, 15.3B

to-infinitive: see **infinitive**

tomorrow: 7.2A, 9.7B

too: degree: *too much/many* 5.1B; and *very* 7.6A, 7.7B; *too weak* to 16.4B; focus adverb and *not either* 7.7B-C, 13.4A-B; *as well* 1.4A, 7.7D

toward(s): preposition 8.1B

transitive verbs: 1.2B; phrasal verbs 8.6-8; and the passive 12.1A

trousers: 2.6C

try: *try and/try to* 9.10D; + *to* or *-ing* 16.8C

turn: *turn it off* 8.7A; *turn (it) down* 8.7B; *turn yellow* 10.4C

U

uncountable nouns and countable: 2.3-4

under: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *down* 8.4A; and *below* 8.5A

underneath: preposition/particle 8.1A; and *below* 8.5A

understand: stative verb 9.1C, 11.2B; *understand that/him to be* 16.3D; + *him/his doing* 16.6A,D; *begin to understand* 16.8A

unless: and *if not* 14.4B

until, till: conjunction 8.1C: time clauses 1.8A-B, 9.3C; and by 7.3B, 9.8B; preposition 8.1B

up: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.7B, 8.8A; and over 8.4A; *up till now* 9.5A

upon: preposition 8.1B

upward(s): adverb particle 8.1B

urgent: + *that ... should* 11.13C

use: *what's the use of worrying?* 16.7C

used to: as semi-modal 11.1A; *I used to smoke* 11.11A-C; *I am used to* + *-ing* 16.7E

usually: 7.4

V

verbs, verb tenses, imperatives: 9.1-10

verbs: usual position in a sentence 1.1A-B; transitive and intransitive 1.2B, 8.6A; + direct/indirect object 1.3; compared with nouns (*export* and *'export*) 2.1C; followed by reflexive pronouns 4.5; with *both* and *all* 5.5B; of perception 6.4A, 9.1C, 10.4A-B, 11.2B, 16.2A, 16.6B; verb + preposition: *look at* 8.6, 8.7A, 16.7D3; verb + particle: *give away*, *write down* 8.7, 8.8A-B; verb + particle + preposition: *put up with* 8.8D; + *that should* 11.13B; + bare infinitive 16.1-2A; + *to*-infinitive 16.3; + *-ing* form + *to* or *-ing* 16.8; and see

verbs (continued)**infinitive, -ing form, linking verbs, process verbs, reporting verbs, stative and dynamic verbs, intransitive, transitive**

very: *very few/little* 5.1B, 5.4C; *very much* 7.5D; *very, too and very much* 7.6A; replaced by *extremely*, etc. 7.6B

viewpoint adverbs: *frankly*, etc. 7.8A

vital: + *that ... should* 11.13C

W

want: stative verb 9.1C; *want (you) to* 1.5C, 16.2C, 16.3B; *want mending* 16.6A

want to know: 15.4

warn: *someone (not) to* 15.5A, 16.3C

wash: + *(yourself)* 4.5B

watch: *watch him draw/drawing* 16.2A, 16.6B

way: *(in) the way (that), (in) the same way (as)*, clauses of manner 1.8D; *in a friendly way* 7.1C; *Which way?* 13.6B

weights, measures: *a/one kilo* 3.2B-C; *a five-kilo bag* 6.1C

well: and *good* 6.4A

were: after *I wish, if only* 11.7B; after *I'd rather* 11.8B; subjunctive 11.13B; after *if* 14.2B

what: question-word 13.5C, *What size?* 13.7C, in subject-questions 13.8, 15.4C; *What ever?* and *whatever* (conjunction) 13.9C; *what to/should* in indirect speech 15.5C

when: conjunction, clauses of time 1.5A, 1.8A-B, 9.3C, 9.4B, 9.6A,C, 11.11B; *when trying* 1.11B; question-word: 13.6A; *When ever?* 13.9C; *when to/should* in indirect speech 15.5C

where: conjunction, clauses of place 1.8C; *wherever* 1.8C, 13.9C; question-word 13.6A; *Where ever?* 13.9C; indirect speech 15.5C

whereas: contrast clauses 1.9B

whether (or not), if: after reporting verbs 1.5C, 15.4A; *if/whether ... should* 15.5B

which: relative pronoun: 1.6, 1.7B-C; question-word: 13.6B, in subject-questions 13.8, 15.4C; *which to/should* in indirect speech 15.5C; + *one(s)* 4.2C

while: conjunction, clauses of time 1.8A, 9.4B; contrast clauses 1.9B; *while trying* 1.11B

who: relative pronoun 1.6, 1.7B-C, 4.1C; question-word 4.1A-B, 13.5B, in subject-questions 13.8, 15.4C; *Who ever?* 13.9C

whole: *a/the whole* and *all (the)* 5.6A

who(m): relative pronoun 1.6, 1.7B; question-word 13.5B; *who(m) to/should* in indirect speech 15.5C

whose: relative pronoun 1.6A, 1.7A-B; question-word 13.6C, in subject-questions 13.8, 15.4C; *whose to/should* in indirect speech 15.5C

wh-questions: form: 13.5A; *Who(m)?* 13.5B; *What?* 13.5C; *When?*, *Where?* 13.6A; *Which?* 13.6B; *Whose?* 13.6C; *Why?* 13.7A; *How?* 13.7B-E; subject-questions 13.8, 15.4C; + *ever* 13.9C; in indirect speech 15.4B-C, 15.5C

why: question-word 13.7A; *Why ever?* 13.9C; *why ... should* in indirect speech 15.5C

wide: and *widely* 7.1A; *wide awake* 7.6B

will: and *shall* to form future tense 9.7; and *going to*-future 9.9A; modal auxiliary, 9.7-8; two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; requests 11.6D; in place of the simple present 11.11D; the passive 12.1A; Type 1 conditionals 14.1A, 14.2A; in indirect speech 15.3-6

wish: *I wish, if only and it's (high) time* 11.7; + *for* 8.6B; *wish (you) to* 16.3B; *wish to/that* 16.3E; *it's my wish to* 16.4C

with: preposition 8.1A, 8.5A; and *by* 8.4A; *made with* 8.5A; and *in* 8.5A; *with me* 4.5C

without: preposition/particle 8.1A, 8.5A; and *by* 8.4A; + *it/there being* 1.12B; + *-ing* 16.7D

wonder: *I was wondering/I wonder if* 9.4B, 11.3A, 15.4A; direct speech 15.1C

won't: and *shan't* 9.7B, 9.8

wood: and *wooden* 2.2C

wool: and *woollen* 2.2C

word formation: noun endings 2.1, 2.7A; compound nouns 2.2, 2.8B, 6.4B-D; adjectives formed with suffixes and prefixes 2.2C, 6.1A-B; nationality nouns and adjectives 3.3C; compound adjectives 6.1C

word order: in sentences 1.1A-B, 1.4A; *both* and *all* 5.5B-D; adjectives 6.2, 6.4B-D; of *already, still* and *yet* 7.2B-C; adverbs of frequency 7.4; focus adverbs 7.7; of *too, as well, also* 7.7B-D; *little does he realize* 7.8C; in questions 13.1-9; in indirect questions 1.5C, 15.4, 15.5B-C

work: and *job* 2.4A; *to/at work* 3.6B

worse/worst: 6.5C, 7.6A

worth: *it's not worth worrying* 16.7C

would: two basic uses of modal verbs 11.1; offers, suggestions, requests

11.6A,C-D; future-in-the-past 9.9C; after *I wish, if only* 11.7C; and *used to* 11.11C-D; replacing the simple present (*it would seem to be*) 11.13A; in conditional sentences 14.2-4; in indirect speech 15.3-6

would like to: see **like**

would rather/sooner: 11.8, 16.1B; *I'd rather we didn't* 11.6F, 11.8B-C; *I'd far rather* 7.5D

Y

year: *this year*, etc. 7.2A, *in 2050* 8.2B; *What/Which year?* 13.5C, 13.6B

yes/no questions: 13.1A; tag questions 13.3; and noun clauses 1.5C; in indirect speech 15.4A, 15.5B

yes/no short answers: see **short answers**

yesterday: 7.2A, 9.3C

yet: conjunction in compound sentences 1.4; adverb: and *still* 7.2B, 9.5A; and *already* 7.2C

you: personal pronoun 4.1A; and *one* (= anyone) 4.2A; *you yourself* 4.5C; imperatives 9.10B

your/yours: 4.4A

Z

zero article: 3.5-6; with uncountable nouns 2.3-4, 3.5A, 5.3A; with *-ing* nouns: *Swimming is good for you* 3.5A, 16.5A1; with proper nouns 3.4, 3.5; with plural countable nouns (*Beans are good for you*) 3.5A; *at dawn, dinner is ready* 3.6A; *at school/in hospital* 3.6B; as the 'plural' of *a/an* 3.1A-B, 5.3A; with place names 3.6C; with illness (*flu*) 3.2D; with abbreviations (*radar*) 3.3B

Key to exercises

1 The sentence

1.1 Sentence word order

1.1A The basic word order of an English sentence

Write 1:

- 1 S John Bailey V has set O a new high-jump record.
- 2 S The passport officer V examined O the passport.
- 3 S The dogs V don't like O these biscuits.
- 4 S The shop assistant V is wrapping O the parcel.
- 5 S The visitors V have seen O the new buildings.
- 6 S My father V didn't wash O the dishes.
- 7 S The plumber V is going to fix O the pipe.
- 8 V Will S the goalkeeper V catch O the ball?
- 9 V Has S the guest V enjoyed O the meal?
- 10 S John V can't play O the game.

Write 2:

- 1 S The children V slept T till 11 o'clock this morning.
- 2 S He V threw O the papers P into the bin.
- 3 S I V don't speak O English M well.
- 4 S Mrs Jones V hides O her money P under the bed.
- 5 S You V didn't pack O this suitcase M carefully.
- 6 S I V left O some money P on this shelf T this morning.
(or: T This morning S I V left O some money P on this shelf.)
- 7 S You V 'll have to get O a loan P from the bank.
- 8 S The phone V/O woke me up T in the middle of the night.
(or: T In the middle of the night S the phone V/O woke me up.)
- 9 S You V shouldn't walk P in the park T at night.
- 10 S You V should eat O your food M slowly.
- 11 S My term V begins T in October
- 12 S I V read O your article M quickly P in bed T last night
(or: T Last night S I V read O your article M quickly P in bed.)

1.1B The forms of a sentence

- 1 Don't spill the coffee. (C)
- 2 Have you seen today's papers? (Q)
- 3 How nice to meet you! (E)
- 4 Where did you put my umbrella? (Q)
- 5 The train arrived fifteen minutes late. (S)
- 6 The plane won't arrive on time. (S)
- 7 I can't pay this electricity bill. (S)
- 8 Please open the door for me. (C)
- 9 'Where's the nearest hotel?' he asked. (Q)
- 10 'I can't pay the bill!' he cried. (E)

1.1C Context

- 1 I parked my car in the centre of the village.
- 2 I saw an old man near a bus stop.
- 3 'What a beautiful village!' I exclaimed.
- 4 'How many people live here?'
- 5 'There are seventeen people,' the old man said.
- 6 'How long have you lived here?'
- 7 'I have lived here all my life.'
- 8 'It's a quiet sort of place, isn't it?'
- 9 'We live a quiet life here.'
- 10 We don't have a cinema or a theatre.
- 11 Our school was closed five years ago.
- 12 We have only one shop.
- 13 A bus calls once a day.
- 14 The Romans came here in 55 B.C.
- 15 Since then nothing has happened.'

1.2 The simple sentence: verbs with and without objects

1.2A What is a complete sentence?

The following need ticks:

- 2, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19, 20.

1.2B Verbs with and without objects

Possible answers for those verbs that need an object

- 1 contains pencils
- 4 ringing the doorbell
- 5 need a rest
- 7 hit him
- 8 beat the other team
- 9 opened the fridge
- 13 This sentence could be complete, or we could say e.g. I began my work.
- 16 enjoy the film?

1.2C Sentences with linking verbs like 'be' and 'seem'

Possible answers

1 tall (adjective) 2 a teacher (noun) 3 sour (adjective) 4 in the garden (phrase of place) 5 at 6.30 (phrase of time) 6 mine (possessive pronoun) 7 like his grandfather (prepositional phrase) 8 (too) loud (adjective) 9 a nice person (adjective + noun) 10 a lawyer (noun)

1.2D Context

- 1 My son Tim attends the local school.
- 2 My wife and I went to his school yesterday. (or: Yesterday, ...)
- 3 We spoke to his teachers.
- 4 We collected Tim's school report.
- 5 Tim's report wasn't very good.
- 6 His marks were low in every subject.
- 7 Tim was waiting anxiously for us outside.
- 8 'How was my report?' he asked eagerly.
- 9 'It wasn't very good,' I said.
- 10 'You must try harder.'
- 11 That boy Ogilvy seems very clever.
- 12 He got good marks in all subjects.'
- 13 'Ogilvy has clever parents,' Tim said.

1.3 The simple sentence: direct and indirect objects

1.3A Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object: 'Show me that photo'

- 1 Please find them for me./Please find me them.
- 2 Please buy one for him./Please buy him one.
- 3 Please pass it to me./Please pass me it.
- 4 Please show it to her./Please show her it.
- 5 Please do it for me. (Not *Do me it*)
- 6 Please order one for me./Please order me one.

1.3B Verb + object + 'to' + noun or pronoun: 'Explain it to me'

1 this camera to the Customs 2 me to your friend/
your friend to me 3 what you like to me 4 this idea
to you 5 his crime to the police 6 this to anyone
7 this man to me 8 this to anyone 9 this to the
headmaster 10 what I told you to anyone

1.3C The two meanings of 'for'

instead of: 2, 4, 6, 7, 9

for your/my benefit: 1, 3, 5, 8, 10

1.3D Context

The following need ticks: 1 buy me an expensive uniform 5 write our parents a letter 7 lend anyone anything 8 give help to each other

1.4 The compound sentence

1.4A The form of a compound sentence

Write 1:

- 1 ... *and* complained about them.
- 2 ... *but* (she) didn't leave a message.
- 3 I can *either* leave now, *or* (I can) stay for another hour.
- 4 Jim *not only* built his own house, *but* (he) designed it himself *as well*.
- 5 I *neither* know *nor* care what happened to him.
- 6 ... very well, *but* (he) hasn't much experience ...

Write 2:

- 1 ... at the station *and* two men ...
- 2 *Either* you can give me some advice, *or* your colleague can. (*Either* you *or* your colleague can ...)
- 3 ... *but* it didn't stop.
- 4 ... when we called, *so* we left a message.
- 5 ... after the film, *so* we went straight back.
- 6 ... was nervous, *for* she wasn't used to strangers calling late at night.
- 7 ... in the country, *but* my parents ...
- 8 ... has been lost, *or* the postman has ...
- 9 ... was visible, *and then* a cloud covered it.
- 10 ... career woman, *yet* her mother ...

1.4B Context

1 and 2 and 3 and 4 as well 5 and 6 but 7 yet 8 either 9 or 10 for 11 and 12 and 13 but 14 and

1.5 The complex sentence: noun clauses

1.5A Introduction to complex sentences

- 1 You can tell me all about the film ...
- 2 ... you can help me with the dishes.
- 3 You didn't tell me ...
- 4 I walk to work every morning ...
- 5 ... I left a message on the answer-phone.

1.5B Noun clauses derived from statements

- 1 (that) he feels angry.
- 2 (that) she has resigned from her job.
- 3 (that) you don't trust me.
- 4 (that) you are feeling better.
- 5 (that) she's upset.
- 6 (that) he didn't get the contract.
- 7 (that) it's a fair price.
- 8 (that) you're leaving.
- 9 (that) she's been a fool.

1.5C Noun clauses derived from questions

- 1 if/whether he has passed his exam.
- 2 if/whether you can (or could) type.
- 3 if/whether he will arrive tomorrow.
- 4 if/whether he likes ice-cream.
- 5 if/whether he was at home yesterday.
- 6 if/whether I should phone her.
- 7 if/whether she's ready.
- 8 when you met her.
- 9 how you will manage.
- 10 why he has left.
- 11 where you live.
- 12 which one she wants.
- 13 who's at the door.
- 14 what he wants.

1.5D Context

- 1 you know ...
- 2 you can turn into superwoman or superman ...
- 3 that her baby nearly slipped under the wheels of a car.
- 4 she lifted the car (to save her baby).
- 5 that he jumped nearly three metres into the air ...
- 6 if you can perform such feats.
- 7 that you can.
- 8 that we can find great reserves of strength ...
- 9 that adrenalin can turn us into superwomen or supermen!

1.6 The complex sentence: relative pronouns and clauses**1.6A 'Who', 'which' and 'that' as subjects of a relative clause**

- 1 ... the accountant who does my accounts.
- 2 ... the nurse who looked after me.
- 3 ... the postcards which arrived yesterday.
- 4 ... the secretaries who work in our office.
- 5 ... the magazine which arrived this morning.
- 6 ... the workmen who repaired our roof.

1.6B 'Who(m)', 'which' and 'that' as objects of a relative clause

- 1 ... the accountant who(m) you recommended .../... the accountant you recommended ...
- 2 ... the nurse who(m) I saw at the hospital./... the nurse I saw ...
- 3 ... the postcards which I sent from Spain./... the postcards I sent ...
- 4 ... the secretaries who(m) Mr Pym employed./... the secretaries Mr Pym employed.
- 5 ... the magazine which I got .../... the magazine I got ...
- 6 ... the workmen who(m) I paid ... /... the workmen I paid ...

- 7 ... the dog which I saw .../... the dog I saw ...
- 8 ... the birds which I fed.../... the birds I fed ...

1.6C 'Who(m)', 'which' or 'that' as the objects of prepositions

- 1a He's the man to whom I sent the money.
 - b He's the man who(m)/that I sent the money to.
 - c He's the man I sent the money to.
- 2a She's the nurse to whom I gave the flowers.
 - b She's the nurse who(m)/that I gave the flowers to.
 - c She's the nurse I gave the flowers to.
- 3a That's the chair on which I sat.
 - b That's the chair which/that I sat on.
 - c That's the chair I sat on
- 4a He's the boy for whom I bought this toy.
 - b He's the boy who(m)/that I bought this toy for.
 - c He's the boy I bought this toy for.
- 5a That's the building by which I passed.
 - b That's the building which/that I passed by.
 - c That's the building I passed by.
- 6a They're the shops from which I got these.
 - b They're the shops which/that I got these from.
 - c They're the shops I got these from.

1.6D Context

- 1 who 2 (-) 3 who 4 (-)

1.7 The complex sentence: 'whose'; defining/non-defining clauses**1.7A 'Whose' + noun in relative clauses**

- 1 ... the customer whose address I lost.
- 2 ... the novelist whose book won first prize.
- 3 ... the children whose team won the match.
- 4 ... the expert whose advice we want.
- 5 ... the witness whose evidence led to his arrest.
- 6 ... the woman whose house the film was made in./ ... in whose house the film was made.

1.7B Defining and non-defining clauses

Commas are necessary in these sentences:

- 1 My husband, who is on a business trip to Rome all this week, ...
- 4 The author Barbara Branwell, whose latest novel has already sold over a million copies, ...
- 6 The play *Cowards*, which opens at the Globe soon, ...
- 9 The manager, whom I complained to about the service, ...
- 10 Sally West, whose work for the deaf made her famous, ...

1.7C Sentences with two meanings

- 1 Without commas: There were other test papers, which everyone didn't fail.
With commas: There was a single test paper and everybody failed it.
- 2 Without commas: I have another brother or other brothers somewhere else.
With commas: I have only one brother.

1.7D Context

- 1 who (no commas) 2 which/that (no commas)
 3 ..., which are commonly used, (commas)
 4 ..., which are not so frequently used, (commas)
 5 which/that (no commas) 6 which/that (no commas)
 7 who (no commas) 8 No relative pronoun necessary; no commas 9 ..., which is situated in a very rough area of London, (commas)
 10 ..., which has a terrible lounge and a tiny dining room, (commas) 11 which/that (no commas) (*or*: ..., which is fitted with a leaky shower. – one comma)
 12 ..., which is expensive to run, (commas)
 13 which/that (no commas) (*or*: ..., which is overgrown with weeds. – one comma) 14 ..., who are generally unfriendly, ... (commas) 15 ..., which is definitely not recommended, (commas)

1.8 The complex sentence: time, place, manner**1.8A Adverbial clauses of time (past reference)**

- 1 ... weight *when I was ill*.
 2 ... home *immediately after I arrived in the airport building*.
 3 ... the letter *before she realized it wasn't addressed to her*.
 4 ... burnt down *by the time the fire brigade arrived*.
 5 ... gone wrong *as soon as we saw him run toward us*.

1.8B Adverbial clauses of time (future reference)

- 1 ... university *until I get my exam results*.
 2 ... message *as soon as he phones*.
 3 ... Duty Free Shop *before our flight is called*.
 4 ... dead *by the time they find a cure for the common cold*.
 5 ... surprise *the moment you open the door*.

1.8C Adverbial clauses of place

Possible answers

- 1 where the accident happened.
 2 anywhere you like.
 3 everywhere you go in the world.
 4 wherever you can find a chair.
 5 where everyone can see it.

1.8D Adverbial clauses of manner

Possible answers

- 1 as if it's raining.
 2 as he likes it.
 3 as though it was my fault.
 4 in the way you wrote it last year.
 5 the way I show you.

1.8E Context

- 1 when 2 the way (that) 3 as if 4 before
 5 which/that 6 As 7 As soon as 8 that/which

1.9 The complex sentence: reason and contrast**1.9A Adverbial clauses of reason**

Possible answers

- 1 Service in this hotel ought to improve *because there's been a change of management*.
 2 *As the Air Traffic Controllers are on strike*, we have cancelled our holiday.
 3 Could you sell your old computer to me, *seeing (that) you have no further use for it?*
 4 *Since she's never in when I phone*, I'll have to write to her.
 5 I've had to have the document translated, *since I can't read Russian*.

1.9B Contrast (1)

Possible answers

- 1 ... computer, *even though I haven't got much money*.
 2 ... this morning, *even if it's raining*.
 3 *Much as I'd like to help you*, I'm afraid ...
 4 *While your design is excellent*, it isn't suitable ...
 5 *Although I try hard to play the piano*, I don't ...
 6 *Considering that Chinese is so difficult*, it's surprising ...
 7 *Whereas the play was wonderful*, the film ...

1.9C Contrast (2)

Possible answers

- 1 *However expensive it is*, he's determined ...
 2 *However hard I work*, I still ...
 3 *However well you write*, it doesn't mean ...
 4 *No matter how sorry she feels*, the damage ...
 5 *No matter how much they pay us*, it will never ...
 6 *No matter how many cards I send*, I always ...
 7 *Whatever he tells you*, don't believe ...

1.9D Context

- 1 Even though/Though 2 because/as, since
 3 As/Because/Since 4 even though 5 though/as
 6 while 7 because 8 because/as/since 9 Because

1.10 The complex sentence: purpose, result and comparison

1.10A Adverbial clauses of purpose with 'so that' and 'in order that'

- 1 ... driving lessons *in order that/so that I might pass my driving test first time.*
- 2 ... the cinema early *in order that/so that I might not miss the beginning of the film.*
- 3 We stood up *in order that/so that we might get a better view ...*
- 4 ... a second car *in order that/so that his wife might learn to drive.*
- 5 ... and clearly *in order that/so that the audience might understand me.*

1.10B Adverbial clauses of purpose with 'in case'

- 1 ... immediately *in case you change (or should change) your mind.*
- 2 ... with you *in case you are not able (or should not be able) to get into the house.*
- 3 ... the kitchen *in case there is (or should be) a fire.*
- 4 ... train *in case there is (or should be) a lot of traffic on the roads.*
- 5 ... with me *in case I need (or should need) it.*

1.10C Adverbial clauses of result with 'so ... (that)' and 'such ... (that)'

- 1 We were *so late (that) we missed ...*
- 2 I was working *so hard (that) I forgot ...*
- 3 There was *such a delay (that) we missed ...*
- 4 We've had *such difficulties (that) we don't think ...*

1.10D Adverbial clauses of comparison with 'as ... as'

Possible answers

- 1 John works *as hard as Susan (does).*
- 2 John is *not so intelligent as Susan (is).*
- 3 This computer *does not hold as much information as that one (does).*
- 4 The film 'Superman 1' is *as enjoyable as 'Superman 2' (is).*

1.10E Context

- 1 in order that 2 which 3 so ... (that) 4 but
5 as ... as 6 in case 7 when 8 such ... (that)

1.11 The complex sentence: present participle constructions

1.11A Joining sentences with present participles ('-ing')

- 1 She got very worried, *thinking we had had an accident.*
- 2 He went to his room, *closing the door behind him.*

- 3 *Not hearing what he said,* I asked him to repeat it.
- 4 You didn't ask me for permission, *knowing I would refuse.*
- 5 *Not being a lawyer,* I can't give you the advice you are looking for.

1.11B The present participle in place of adverbial clauses

- 1 They broke this window *when trying to get into the house.*
- 2 *Though refusing to eat,* he admitted he was very hungry.
- 3 I damaged the car *while trying to park it.*
- 4 *While agreeing you may be right,* I still object to your argument.
- 5 *After looking at the map,* we tried to find the right street.
- 6 Don't get into any arguments *before checking your facts.*

1.11C The present participle in place of relative clauses

- 1 Delete *which is.* 2 Delete *who are.*
- 3 Delete *who is.* 4 Delete *which is.*
- 5 Change *which leave* to *leaving.* 6 Change *who complain* to *complaining.* 7 Change *who travel* to *travelling.* 8 Change *who work* to *working.*
- 9 Delete *who are.* 10 Delete *who is.*

1.11D Context

- 1 preparing 2 Feeling 3 As 4 commenting
5 after/when 6 hearing 7 who 8 When/After
9 knowing 10 announcing

1.12 The complex sentence: perfect/past participle constructions.

1.12A 'Being' and 'having been'

- 1 *Being out of work,* I spend a lot of my time at home.
- 2 *Being a scientist,* John hasn't read a lot of novels.
- 3 *Having been promised a reward,* he hopes he'll get one.
- 4 *Being near a newsagent's,* I went in and got a paper.
- 5 *Having been up all night,* they were in no mood for jokes.

1.12B 'It being' and 'there being'

- 1 *There being no questions*, the meeting ended quickly.
- 2 He kept helping himself to money *without it being noticed*.
- 3 He kept asking awkward questions *without there being a(ny) reason for it*.
- 4 *It being a holiday*, there were thousands of cars on the roads.
- 5 *There being no one in*, I left a message.

1.12C Agreement between present participle and subject

- 1 It wasn't the smell that was opening the door.
- 2 It wasn't the bus that was changing gear.
- 3 It wasn't the important papers that were burning the rubbish.

1.12D Past participle constructions

- 1 *Lost for many years*, the painting turned up at an auction.
- 2 *Although cooked for several hours*, the meat was still tough.
- 3 *If seen from this angle*, the picture looks rather good.
- 4 *The vegetables sold in this shop* are grown without chemicals.
- 5 *When read aloud*, the poem is very effective.

1.12E Context

- 1 When/Whenever/If
- 2 Looking
- 3 being
- 4 Opening
- 5 Although

2 Nouns**2.1 One-word nouns****2.1A Noun endings: people who do things/people who come from places**

- 1 actor
- 2 beggar
- 3 pianist
- 4 driver
- 5 Berliner
- 6 Athenian
- 7 assistant
- 8 liar
- 9 Texan
- 10 historian

2.1B Nouns formed from verbs, adjectives, other nouns

- 1 decision
- 2 anxiety
- 3 socialism
- 4 happiness
- 5 agreement
- 6 discovery
- 7 arrival
- 8 childhood
- 9 absence
- 10 postage
- 11 try (no change)
- 12 efficiency
- 13 curiosity
- 14 address (no change)
- 15 refusal
- 16 warning
- 17 mouthful
- 18 explanation
- 19 trial
- 20 argument

2.1C Nouns and verbs with the same spelling but different stress

- 1 permit
- 2 permit
- 3 increase
- 4 increase
- 5 objects
- 6 object
- 7 conduct
- 8 conduct
- 9 entrance
- 10 entrance
- 11 record
- 12 record
- 13 present
- 14 present
- 15 protest
- 16 protest
- 17 accent
- 18 accent
- 19 exports
- 20 export
- 21 escort
- 22 escort
- 23 imports
- 24 import

2.1D Context

- 1 boredom
- 2 communication
- 3 babble/babbling
- 4 knowledge
- 5 preparation
- 6 encouragement
- 7 recognition
- 8 solution
- 9 refusal
- 10 scientist
- 11 behaviour

2.2 Compound nouns**2.2A Nouns formed with gerund ('-ing') + noun: 'dancing-shoes'**

The following need ticks: 1, 3, 5, 7

2.2B Apostrophe s ('s) or compound noun?

- 1 the car key
- 2 the doctor's surgery
- 3 the committee's idea
- 4 the pen nib
- 5 the computer keyboard
- 6 the desk top
- 7 King John's reign
- 8 Eliot's poetry
- 9 no one's responsibility
- 10 the suitcase handle
- 11 the front door knob
- 12 Scott's journey
- 13 the postman's bicycle
- 14 that cigarette stub
- 15 a new kitchen table
- 16 the horse's tail
- 17 the light switches
- 18 the boss's secretary
- 19 the new party policy
- 20 the book cover
- 21 Mr Jones's son
- 22 the factory gate
- 23 the garage door
- 24 the children's photos
- 25 the office phone
- 26 the film critic
- 27 a dancing teacher
- 28 the twins' mother
- 29 my brother's wife
- 30 a new reading lamp
- 31 the road surface
- 32 the President's secretary

2.2C Compound nouns which tell us about materials and substances

- 1 a plastic raincoat
- 2 a silk shirt
- 3 silky/silken hair
- 4 a glass table-top
- 5 glassy eyes
- 6 a leather wallet
- 7 a stainless steel spoon
- 8 steely/steel nerves
- 9 a woollen pullover
- 10 a cotton blouse
- 11 a silver teapot
- 12 a silvery voice
- 13 a stone wall
- 14 stony silence
- 15 a ceramic tile
- 16 a nylon nailbrush
- 17 a leathery tongue
- 18 a wooden spoon

2.2D Context

- 1 feather wings
- 2 a flying machine
- 3 flight path
- 4 a champion cyclist
- 5 pedal power
- 6 pilot's seat/pilot-seat
- 7 carbon fibre machine
- 8 south wind

2.3 Countable and uncountable nouns (1)

2.3A Countable and uncountable nouns compared

1 painting C 2 milk U 3 photos C 4 oil U
5 drawings C 6 Hope U 7 hope C 8 flour U
9 shirts C 10 coal U

2.3B Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable: 'an egg/egg'

1 onion U 2 fish U 3 eggs C 4 cake U
5 motorway C 6 ice C 7 glasses C 8 stones C
9 paper U 10 iron C

2.3C Normally uncountable nouns used as countables (1): 'a coffee/(some) coffee'

- I'd like (some) tea/(some) coffee, please.
- I'd like a/one coffee and two teas, please.
- I'd like a/one beer, a/one lemonade and a/one tomato juice, please.
- I'd like two coffees, three teas and one milk/a glass of milk

2.3D Normally uncountable nouns used as countables (2): 'oil/a light oil'

1 a light oil 2 an excellent wine 3 a traditional cloth
4 a rare wood.

2.3E Context

1 (-) 2 a/(-) 3 a 4 a 5 a 6 a 7 a 8 a 9 a
10 (-) 11 a 12 a 13 some 14 a

2.4 Countable and uncountable nouns (2)

2.4A Singular equivalents of uncountable nouns: 'bread/a loaf'

1 coat/jacket/dress, etc. 2 laugh
3 suitcase/bag/case, etc. 4 job 5 room/bed

2.4B Nouns not normally countable in English: 'information'

Write 1:

The following need ticks: 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 12

Write 2:

1 some 2 (-) 3 any 4 a 5 the 6 some/a lot of
7 some/a lot of 8 a lot of/some/the
9 the/some/a lot of 10 a 11 a 12 some/a lot of
13 some 14 a lot of 15 (-) 16 any 17 (-)
18 a lot of/some 19 a lot of/some 20 a

2.4C Partitives: 'a piece of', etc.

1 a cube of ice 2 a bar of chocolate 3 a slice of
bread 4 a sheet of paper 5 a bar of soap
6 a bottle of milk 7 a jar of jam 8 a box of

matches 9 a pot of tea 10 a tube of toothpaste
11 a drop of water 12 a pinch of salt 13 a sip of tea
14 a splash of soda 15 a wisp of smoke

2.4D Context

1 a 2 (-) 3 (-) 4 (-) 5 (-) 6 (-) 7 Some
8 a lot of 9 (-) 10 (-)

2.5 Number (singular and plural) (1)

2.5A Nouns with plurals ending in -s or -es: 'friends', 'matches'

/s/	/z/	/tʒ/
1 clocks	7 bottles	13 addresses
2 lakes	8 cinemas	14 beaches
3 lights	9 guitars	15 offices
4 months	10 hotels	16 pieces
5 parks	11 islands	17 spaces
6 tapes	12 smiles	18 villages

2.5B Nouns with plurals ending in -s or -es: 'countries' 'knives'

- These cherries are very sweet.
- I've lost my keys.
- These knives are blunt.
- The leaves are turning yellow.
- The roofs have been damaged.
- We have three Henrys in our family.

2.5C Nouns ending in -o and some irregular plural forms

- Which videos do you like best?
- Which volcanoes/volcanos are erupting?
- These are John's pet mice.
- These teeth are giving me trouble.
- Can you see those geese?
- Postmen are busy all the time.
- We're going to sell those sheep.
- I can see salmon/some salmon in the water.
- Which aircraft have just landed?
- The Swiss are used to mountains.

2.5D Context

1 foods 2 cakes 3 biscuits 4 tomatoes
5 oranges 6 men 7 women 8 lives 9 cuisines
10 Japanese 11 Swiss 12 products
13 strawberries 14 peaches 15 potatoes
16 spaghetti

2.6 Number (singular and plural) (2)

2.6A Collective nouns followed by singular or plural verbs: 'government'

1 is/are 2 is/are 3 are 4 is/are 5 has/have
6 are 7 have 8 are 9 is/are 10 are 11 is/are
12 have

2.6B Nouns with a plural form + singular or plural verbs: 'acoustics'

1 are 2 is 3 are 4 is 5 is 6 are 7 Are 8 are
9 Are 10 have 11 has 12 has 13 has 14 are

2.6C Nouns with a plural form + plural verbs: 'trousers'

1 have 2 are ... They 3 does 4 these/those ...
They 5 brains 6 Congratulations 7 are
8 haven't ... them 9 them 10 have
11 aren't ... are 12 don't

2.6D Context

1 is 2 are 3 show 4 is 5 is/are 6 own 7 are
8 is 9 is 10 are 11 are 12 spends/spend
13 are 14 are 15 favour/favours 16 make

2.7 Gender**2.7A Male and female word forms: 'waiter/waitress'**

1 sister 2 uncle 3 nephew 4 bachelor, spinster
5 nuns 6 cows 7 hens 8 mares 9 sow 10 ram
11 actress 12 waitress 13 prince 14 lionesses
15 goddess 16 heiress 17 heroine 18 widower
19 saleswoman 20 female 21 queens
22 bridegroom 23 daughter 24 aunt 25 nieces

2.7B Identifying masculine and feminine through pronouns: 'He/She is a student'

1 she 2 She 3 he 4 his 5 She 6 her 7 his
8 He 9 she 10 her 11 she 12 her

2.7C Context

1 She 2 actors 3 She 4 Prince 5 she
6 princess 7 mother 8 Miss 9 she 10 Sisters

2.8 The genitive**2.8A How to show possession with 's, s' and the apostrophe (') on its own**

1 This is a *child's* bicycle. 2 This is the *teacher's*
pen. 3 He described the *actress's* career.
4 That's a *stewardess's* job. 5 These are the
children's toys. 6 This is a *women's* club. 7 It's a
girls' school. 8 This is the *residents'* lounge.
9 This is *James's* umbrella. 10 That is *Doris's* hat.

2.8B Apostrophe s ('s/s'), compound noun or 'of'?

1 That's a *man's* voice. 2 (-) 3 That's *the*
committee's decision. 4 It's *no one's* fault.
5 This is a copy of *Keats' poetry*. 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 (-)

2.8C The use of 's and s' with non-living things: 'an hour's journey'

1 *an hour's* delay 2 *two days'* journey
7 *seven years'* work 8 the *earth's* surface
9 at *death's* door 10 a *year's* absence

2.8D Omission of the noun after 's

1 the hairdresser's 2 the chemist's 3 my aunt's
4 St Andrew's 5 Marks and Spencer's

2.8E Context

1 animal skins 2 a leopardskin coat 3 the earth's
wildlife 4 children's clothing 5 ladies' coats
6 an actress's fur coat 7 the crocodiles' revenge
8 customers' skins

3 Articles**3.1 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (1)****3.1A General statements with 'a/an' and zero (∅)**

1 *Small computers aren't* expensive.
2 *Quartz watches don't* last for ever.
3 I like *a play with a message*.
4 I admire *a politician who is* sincere.
5 *Big cities are* always fascinating.
6 Even *efficient systems can* break down.
7 *Road maps are* always out of date.
8 *Rules are* meant to be broken.
9 *A restaurant shouldn't* charge too much.
10 How much *does a car radio* cost?
11 *Buses leave* here every hour.
12 How long *do letters take* to get here?

3.1B The 'plural form' of 'a/an'

1 *They're architects*.
2 Do you want *any/some potatoes*?
3 *Doctors need* years of training.
4 How well can *cats* see in the dark?
5 Have you got *any cats* at home?
6 Why should *compact discs* be so dear?
7 I borrowed *some compact discs*.
8 Can you lend me *any/some compact discs*?
9 Why *are cars* so expensive?
10 There *aren't any cars* in the street.

3.1C Describing people and things with 'a/an' + noun: 'He's a doctor'

- 1 He's *a taxi-driver*.
- 2 She's *a Catholic*.
- 3 He's *an Englishman*.
- 4 It's *an ant*.
- 5 It's *a kind of insect*.
- 6 She's *a socialist*.
- 7 She's *a teacher*.
- 8 She's *an architect*.
- 9 It's *a Shakespeare sonnet*.
- 10 It's *a Picasso/a Picasso painting*.

3.1D Context

- 1 (-) 2 A 3 a 4 a 5 some 6 some 7 a 8 a/(-)
9 a/(-) 10 a/(-) 11 any 12 a 13 (-)

3.2 The indefinite article: 'a/an' (2)**3.2A the use of 'a/an' when something is mentioned for the first time**

- 1 a 2 the 3 an 4 The 5 a/the [> LEG 3.20.4]
6 the 7 the 8 a 9 the 10 a

3.2B The difference between 'a/an' and 'one'

- 1 a 2 one 3 One 4 a 5 one 6 a 7 One
8 one ... a 9 a ... one 10 a/one 11 a 12 one

3.2C 'A/an' for price, distance and frequency: '80p a kilo'

- 1 They're 90p a kilo.
- 2 I take them once a day.
- 3 We're doing 100 km an hour.
- 4 I/We do 45 miles a (or to the) gallon.
- 5 It's collected twice a week.
- 6 It costs £3 a litre.

3.2D 'A/an' or zero with reference to illnesses: 'a cold'

- 1 a 2 a/(-) 3 (-) 4 (-) 5 a/(-) 6 (-) 7 a 8 a
9 a/(-) 10 (-)/a

3.2E Context

- 1 a 2 The 3 a 4 a 5 (-) 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 one
9 a 10 a 11 the 12 the 13 the 14 the

3.3 The definite article: 'the' (1)**3.3A Form and basic uses of 'the'**

- 1 a 2 a 3 the 4 a 5 the 6 The 7 a 8 the

3.3B 'A/an', 'the' and zero in front of abbreviations: 'the BBC'

- 1 a 2 a 3 The 4 an 5 (-) 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 (-)

3.3C 'The' + nationality noun: 'the Chinese'

- 1 The Portuguese ... the Spanish/the Spaniards
2 The Americans ... the Russians 3 The Brazilians ...
the Mexicans 4 The Germans ... the Japanese
5 The Greeks ... the Koreans 6 The British ... the
Dutch

3.3D Context

- 1 a 2 a 3 the 4 the 5 The 6 the 7 a/the
8 a 9 a/the 10 a 11 the 12 the 13 The 14 the
15 the 16 the 17 a/the 18 The 19 a 20 The

3.4 The definite article: 'the' (2)**3.4A 'The' for specifying**

- 1 We were looking for *a place* to spend *the/a night*.
The place we found turned out to be in
a charming village. *The village* was called (-)
Lodsworth.
- 2 *An (or The) individual* has every right to expect
personal freedom. *The freedom of the*
individual is something worth fighting for.
- 3 Yes, my name is (-) *Simpson*, but I'm not *the*
Simpson you're looking for.
- 4 Who's at *the door*? – It's *the postman*.
- 5 When you go out, would you please go to *the*
supermarket and get some butter.
- 6 I've got *an appointment* this afternoon. I've got to
go to *the doctor's*.
- 7 We went to *the theatre* last night and saw *Flames*.
It's *a wonderful play*.
- 8 We prefer to spend our holidays in *the country*, *the*
mountains or by *the sea*.
- 9 We have seen what *the earth* looks like from *the*
moon.
- 10 This is the front room. *The ceiling* and *the/(-) walls*
need decorating, but *the floor* is in good order.
We'll probably cover it with *a/(-) carpet*.
- 11 You're imagining (-) *things*. All your fears are in *the*
mind.
- 12 Look at this wonderful small computer. *The top*
lifts up to form *the/a screen*; *the front* lifts off to
form *the/a keyboard*, and *the whole thing* only
weighs 5 kilos.
- 13 *The history of the world* is *the history* of (-) war.
- 14 Is there *a moon* round *the planet* Venus?
- 15 What's (-) *John* doing these days? – He's working
as *a postman*.
- 16 (-) *Exercise* is good for *the body*.
- 17 Could you pass me *the salt*, please?
- 18 They're building *a new supermarket* in *the centre*
of our town.
- 19 Where's your mother at *the moment*? – I think
she's in *the kitchen*.
- 20 If you were a cook, you'd have to work in *a kitchen*
all day long.

3.4B 'The' to refer to things that are unique (not place names)

1 *The Times* ... *The Washington Post*
 2 *The Economist* ... *Time* magazine 3 *The New Yorker* ... *Punch* 4 the human race ... man ... the dinosaurs 5 *The Graduate* ... *Jaws* 6 the gods ... God 7 (*The*) *Odyssey* ... *Ulysses* 8 The United Nations ... Congress 9 the *Titanic* 10 the Navy ... the Army 11 the French Revolution 12 the President 13 President 14 the climate

3.4C Context

1 The 2 a 3 the 4 the 5 The 6 a 7 The 8 the 9 an 10 the 11 an 12 an 13 a 14 the 15 the

3.5 The zero article (1)**3.5A Basic uses of the zero article (∅): 'Life is short'**

1 (-) 2 The 3 (-) 4 the ... (-) 5 (-) 6 the 7 (-) 8 the ... (-) 9 (-) ... the 10 (-) ... the 11 (-) 12 the ... (-) 13 (-) 14 (-) 15 The 16 (-) ... (-) 17 (-) 18 (-) ... (-) 19 (-) 20 The ... (-) ... (-) 21 (-) ... (-) 22 (-) ... (-) 23 the 24 (-) ... (-)

3.5B The zero article with names and titles: 'Mr Pym'

The following need an X:

- 1 We use nothing if we are addressing a stranger, or *Mr* + surname if we know it. In American English, we might use *Sir*.
- 3 *Mrs* cannot be followed by a first name.
- 6 Not normal use: old-fashioned.
- 7 This use of *Mrs* is not generally considered polite.
- 9 *Sir John Falstaff*. (Title + first name (+ surname) [> 3.5B, note 4])

3.5C Context

1 (-) 2 (-) 3 (-) 4 an 5 (-) 6 the 7 The 8 a 9 (-) 10 The 11 the 12 (-) 13 the 14 the 15 (-) 16 (-) 17 (-) 18 (-) 19 (-) 20 (-) 21 (-) 22 (-) 23 (-) 24 (-) 25 (-) 26 The 27 the

3.6 The zero article (2)**3.6A Zero article for parts of the day ('at dawn') and for meals ('for lunch')**

1 (-) 2 (-) 3 (-) 4 (-) 5 The 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 (-) 9 the 10 a

3.6B Zero article for e.g. 'She's at school' and 'He's in hospital'

1 (-) 2 the 3 (-) 4 a 5 the 6 (-) 7 a 8 (-) 9 (-) 10 (-) 11 (-) 12 (-) 13 the 14 a 15 the 16 (-)

3.6C Zero article or 'the' with place names

1 the Dark Ages ... Medieval Europe 2 Central Asia ... the Arctic 3 Brazil ... Argentina ... the USA 4 London ... Paris ... Vienna 5 Montague Road 6 Brown's ... the Hilton 7 Bavaria ... Ohio 8 London ... Buckingham Palace 9 the Alps ... Mont Blanc 10 the Sahara 11 the Nile ... Luxor 12 Lake Geneva 13 Leoni's ... the Globe Theatre 14 Oxford Street ... Oxford Circus 15 London Bridge

3.6D Context

1 the 2 (-) 3 (-) 4 a/the 5 (-) 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 (-) 9 (-) 10 (-) 11 the 12 the 13 (-) 14 the 15 the 16 the 17 (-) 18 (-)

4 Pronouns**4.1 Personal pronouns****4.1A Subject and object pronouns**

1 Your parcel ... *It* 2 Jane and I ... *We* 3 that? ... *It's* 4 Jane Wilson? ... *She's* 5 a baby! ... *it* 6 cat ... *It's* 7 John ... *him* 8 Catherine ... *her*

4.1B Subject or object pronoun?

1 me/him/her/us/them 2 Me/Him/Her/Us/Them 3 me/us 4 Me/Us 5 me/I 6 than me/I am ... I 7 I ... me/I am

4.1C Gender in relation to animals, things and countries

1 She 2 It 3 it/her 4 she/it 5 it/one 6 she/it 7 He/It 8 it 9 It 10 She 11 He 12 It/She

4.1D Context

1 you 2 it 3 who 4 him 5 they 6 me 7 I 8 he 9 He 10 he 11 you 12 They 13 you 14 him 15 them

4.2 'One'**4.2A 'One' and 'you'**

The moment *you get* into the mountains, *you are* on *your own*. *You have* to rely on *yourself* for everything. This means *you have* to carry all *your own* food, though, of course, *you can* get pure drinking water from mountain streams. *You won't* see any local people for days at a time, so *you can't* get help if *you're* lost. *You have* to do *your best* to find sheltered places to spend the night.

4.2B 'One' and 'ones' in place of countable nouns: 'Use this clean one'

1 one 2 one 3 ones 4 ones 5 one 6 ones
7 water/(-) 8 one

4.2C 'Which one(s)?' – 'This/that (one)', etc.

1 ones 2 ones (tick) 3 one (tick) 4 ones (tick)
5 one (tick) 6 ones (tick) 7 one ... one (tick)
8 *These ones* or *those ones* are possible, but it would
be best to omit *ones* (tick) 9 one 10 ones

4.2D Context

1 You/One 2 ones 3 you/one 4 ones 5 one
6 one 7 one 8 you 9 you/(-) 10 one/(-)
11 one/(-)

4.3 'It' and 'one/some/any/none'

4.3A 'It' as in 'it's hot' and 'it's nice to see you'

- 1 It's Monday, 13th June, today.
- 2 It's snowing (now). It snows a lot here.
- 3 It was 22° Celsius in London yesterday.
- 4 It's 100 kilometres from here to Paris.
- 5 It's important to get to the meeting.
- 6 It's difficult making such decisions.
- 7 It's a pleasure to welcome you all here.
- 8 It's a pity that they couldn't come.

4.3B 'It' and 'one' as subjects and objects: 'I like it'

1 one 2 it 3 none 4 some 5 it 6 them 7 any
8 some 9 them 10 one

4.3C 'I hope/believe/expect so'

- 1 Does the next train go to London? – I believe so.
- 2 The weather is going to improve. – I hope so.
- 3 Have the letters arrived yet? – I don't think so./I think not.
- 4 The rail strike hasn't ended. – It doesn't seem so./It seems not.
- 5 It's a holiday tomorrow. – Who says so?
- 6 There's been a terrible air disaster. – I fear so.
- 7 Will the democrats win the election? – I don't expect so./I expect not.

4.3D Context

1 It 2 they 3 It 4 one 5 them 6 them 7 any
8 them 9 it 10 so 11 It 12 it 13 it

4.4 Possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns ('my/mine')

4.4A Basic differences between 'my' and 'mine', etc.

1 her 2 His 3 mine 4 our 5 Yours 6 theirs
7 one's 8 his 9 her 10 its

4.4B The double genitive: 'He is a friend of mine'

1 That brother of yours 2 no friend of mine 3 a play of Shakespeare's 4 this/that problem of yours
5 a friend of ours 6 That loud music of hers
7 A friend of my sister's 8 Those neighbours of theirs 9 That radio of yours

4.4C 'My own' and 'of my own'

1 my own room/a room of my own 2 his own business/a business of his own 3 their own rooms/rooms of their own 4 its own kennel/a kennel of its own

4.4D 'The' in place of 'my', etc.: 'a pain in the neck'

1 the 2 my 3 the 4 the 5 my 6 My 7 My
8 the 9 the 10 the

4.4E Context

1 our 2 ours 3 its 4 your 5 our 6 Yours
7 your 8 hers 9 the 10 our 11 our 12 your

4.5 Reflexive pronouns ('myself')

4.5A Verbs commonly followed by reflexive pronouns: 'I enjoyed myself'

1 myself 2 yourself 3 himself 4 herself 5 itself/
himself [> 4.1C] 6 oneself 7 ourselves
8 themselves 9 herself 10 himself

4.5B Verb + reflexive, or not?: 'I've dressed (myself)'

1 hide ourselves 2 washes itself 3 dress herself
4 sat ourselves down 5 got myself wet
6 woke myself up 7 got himself engaged
8 Get yourself/yourselves ready

4.5C Reflexive pronouns used after prepositions and for emphasis

Write 1:

1 himself 2 you 3 me 4 ourselves 5 herself
6 us/you/me, etc. 7 himself 8 himself

Write 2:

1 I didn't know about it *myself* till yesterday/till yesterday *myself*. (or: I *myself* didn't know about it ...)
2 The building *itself* is all right, I think./The building is all right *itself* ...
3 You can't do that *yourself/yourselves*!
4 I can't fetch it – (you) fetch it *yourself*.
5 Don't expect me to do it. Do it *yourself*!

4.5D Context

1 itself 2 ourselves 3 ourselves 4 ourselves
5 us 6 themselves 7 themselves 8 them 9 us
10 us 11 us 12 ourselves

4.6 Demonstrative adjectives/pronouns ('this', etc.)

'Some/any/no' compounds ('someone', etc.)

4.6A Different uses of 'this' and 'that'

- 1 Introducing someone.
- 2 On the phone.
- 3 Referring back to something that we mentioned earlier.
- 4 Referring to something we are talking about.
- 5 Meaning 'now' (*these days*) compared with the past.
- 6 Referring to someone we don't want to meet or don't like (*that man*).
- 7 Making comparisons. ('more than £50')
- 8 Telling a story or an anecdote.
- 9 Making it clear who we mean.
- 10 Showing the size of something (usually with gestures).

4.6B Uses of 'some/any/no' compounds

- 1 nothing 2 anything 3 no one/nobody
 4 something 5 anyone/anybody 6 something/anything
 7 someone/somebody/no one/nobody
 8 anything 9 anyone/anybody/no one/nobody
 10 anyone/anybody/no one/nobody

4.6C 'Everyone', 'anyone', etc. with singular or plural pronouns

- 1 their ... them 2 they 3 their 4 they
 5 don't they? 6 they 7 their 8 they are
 9 they think ... they'll 10 they deserve ... they don't like ... they get

4.6D Context

- 1 they 2 No one 3 they 4 anyone 5 that
 6 nothing 7 this (or that) 8 something 9 this
 10 this (or that) 11 this (or that)

5 Quantity

5.1 Quantifiers + countable and uncountable nouns

5.1A Quantifiers + countable and uncountable nouns

- 1 fewer A 2 less B 3 a lot of C 4 a lot of C
 5 much B 6 many A 7 most of the D 8 most C
 9 most C 10 a little B 11 a few A
 12 Several A 13 any C 14 any C 15 enough C
 16 hardly any C 17 Neither D 18 Both A
 19 no C 20 no D

5.1B Quantifiers that tell us roughly how much and how many

Possible answer

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1a <i>too many</i> eggs | 1b <i>too much</i> milk |
| 2a <i>plenty of</i> eggs | 2b <i>plenty of</i> milk |
| 3a <i>a lot of</i> eggs | 3b <i>a lot of</i> milk |
| 4a <i>enough</i> eggs | 4b <i>enough</i> milk |
| 5a <i>a few</i> eggs | 5b <i>a little</i> milk |
| 6a <i>very few</i> eggs | 6b <i>very little</i> milk |
| 7a <i>not many</i> eggs | 7b <i>not much</i> milk |
| 8a <i>hardly any</i> eggs | 8b <i>hardly any</i> milk |
| 9a <i>no</i> eggs | 9b <i>no</i> milk |

Possible answers

- 1 There are *plenty of apples* in the bowl.
- 2 I've got *hardly any money*.
- 3 *A lot of people* turned up at the meeting.
- 4 You've put *too much salt* in the sauce.
- 5 We've got *enough time* for a drink.
- 6 We usually get *a few letters* every day.

5.1C Context

- 1 many 2 few 3 some 4 plenty of 5 hardly any
 6 enough 7 very little 8 some 9 any 10 no
 11 any 12 some

5.2 General and specific references to quantity

5.2A 'Of' after quantifiers ('a lot of', 'some of', etc.)

- 1 a lot of G 2 a small amount of G 3 a lot of S
 4 – G 5 – G 6 any of S 7 a couple of G
 8 plenty of G 9 plenty of G 10 plenty of S
 11 – G 12 None of S 13 – G 14 Some of S
 15 a bit of G

5.2B When to use quantifiers without 'of': 'I've got a lot'

Possible answers

- 1 Yes, there are a couple. 2 Yes, I bought a bit.
 3 Yes, we've got a lot. 4 Yes, there's plenty.
 5 Yes, there were lots. 6 Yes, there's a lot.

5.2C 'More' and 'less' after quantifiers: 'some more', 'a little less'

- 1 much less 2 any more 3 many more
 4 much less 5 Lots more 6 some more
 7 plenty more 8 a lot less 9 no fewer
 10 much more 11 a lot more 12 much more

5.2D Context

- 1 many 2 plenty of 3 millions of 4 number
 5 A lot of 6 Much 7 most 8 much 9 many
 10 A lot of 11 bit of 12 number of

5.3 Uses of 'some', 'any', 'no' and 'none'**5.3A 'Some/any' or zero in relation to quantity**

1 (-) 2 some 3 (-) 4 some 5 some 6 any 7 (-)
 8 any 9 (-) 10 some 11 (-) 12 some or any
 13 (-) Some could be used here to mean e.g. 'money
 that hasn't been given to you' [> 5.3B, note 4]
 14 some 15 any 16 (-)

5.3B Four basic uses of 'some' and 'any'

1 some 2 some 3 some 4 Some 5 any 6 any
 7 any 8 any

5.3C 'Not ... any', 'no' and 'none'

1 There *aren't any buses* after 12.30.
 2 We've got *none*.
 3 I'm *no accountant*, but these figures are wrong.
 4 There's *no explanation* for this.

5.3D Other uses of 'some' and 'any'

1 f 2 e 3 b 4 g 5 d 6 c 7 a

5.3E Context

1 (-) 2 (-) 3 (-) 4 (-) 5 no 6 (-) 7 (-) 8 (-)
 9 (-) 10 (-) 11 (-) 12 some (or any) 13 some
 14 (-)

5.4 'Much', 'many', 'a lot of', '(a) few', '(a) little', 'fewer', 'less'**5.4A Basic uses of 'much', 'many' and 'a lot of'**

1 a lot of 2 much 3 much 4 many 5 a lot of
 6 many

5.4B Other common uses of 'much', 'many' and 'a lot of'

1 Much 2 Many 3 much 4 many 5 much
 6 many 7 much 8 many

5.4C 'Few', 'a few', 'little', 'a little'

1 few 2 a little 3 little 4 a few 5 a few 6 a little
 7 few 8 little

5.4D 'Fewer' and 'less'

1 less ... fewer (or *less*, informal) 2 fewer (or *less*,
 informal) 3 fewer (or *less*, informal) 4 less 5 less
 6 less

5.4E Context

1 few 2 many 3 A lot of (*fewer* is also possible
 here, but not intended) 4 fewer 5 much 6 a little
 7 a lot of (*little* is also possible) 8 a few (*a lot of* is
 also possible)

5.5 'Both' and 'all'**5.5A 'Both/both the' and 'all/all the' with nouns**

1 Both (the) 2 All 3 All the 4 All 5 All the
 6 All the 7 Both (the) 8 All 9 Both (the)
 10 Both (the)

5.5B 'Both' and 'all': word order with verbs

1 The customers *are all complaining*.
 2 The patients *both had* appointments at 10.
 3 The directors *have both retired*.
 4 Our secretaries *can both speak* French.
 5 The customers *should all have complained*.
 6 The boys *both had* haircuts.
 7 The pupils *may all leave* now.
 8 The students *all wrote* good essays.
 9 Our employees *all work* too hard.
 10 The children *must all go home* early.
 11 The children here *all learn* German.

5.5C 'Both' and 'all': word order with pronouns

1 *All of us* took 2 *Both of them* turned 3 I know
both of you 4 She's interested in *both of them*
 5 *All of it* went 6 She's concerned about *all of us*
 7 *All of you* filled

5.5D 'None of' and 'neither of'

1 None of the passengers 2 Neither of us was/were
 [> 5.7C, note 2] 3 Neither of the tyres needed
 4 None of us knew

5.5E Context

1 All 2 us 3 us 4 all the 5 all 6 All the 7 all
 8 them 9 both/both the 10 both 11 Both
 12 them 13 them 14 both 15 them

5.6 'All (the)', '(a/the) whole', 'each' and 'every'**5.6A 'All (the)' compared with '(a/the) whole'**

1 all my hair 2 the whole situation 3 All the money
 4 the whole truth 5 the whole story
 6 a whole century

5.6B 'All' compared with 'everyone/everybody' and 'everything'

1 everyone 2 Everyone 3 Everything 4 All 5 All
 6 Everyone 7 Everyone ... all 8 Everything 9 all
 10 everything

5.6C 'Each' and 'every'

1 every 2 each 3 every 4 every 5 each
 6 every 7 each/every 8 every/each 9 Each/every
 10 each 11 each 12 every 13 each
 14 every/each

5.6D Context

1 whole 2 Everyone 3 each 4 Each 5 each
6 all 7 whole 8 every 9 everything

5.7 'Another', '(the) other(s)', 'either', 'neither', 'each (one of)'**5.7A 'Another', 'other', 'others', 'the other', 'the others'**

1 the other 2 the other 3 others 4 another
5 the next 6 another/the other ... the other
7 another 8 other 9 the others

5.7B 'Either' and 'neither' + singular nouns

1 Either 2 Neither 3 either 4 neither 5 either
6 neither

5.7C 'Each of', etc.

1 Another of the teaspoons 2 Neither of the roadmaps is/are 3 Any of the roadmaps 4 Either of the roads leads/lead 5 Each of the paintings 6 Neither of the boys is/are 7 either of the secretaries 8 each of the porters.

5.7D 'One of'

One can be deleted in numbers: 2, 4, 5

5.7E Context

1 other 2 Some 3 others 4 Either 5 one 6 One
7 one 8 one 9 one 10 the other

6 Adjectives**6.1 Formation of adjectives****6.1A Adjectives formed with suffixes: 'enjoy/enjoyable'**

1 attractive 2 manageable 3 hesitant 4 energetic
5 Victorian 6 reddish 7 boastful 8 permissible
9 humorous

6.1B Adjectives formed with prefixes: 'possible/impossible'

1 dishonest 2 illegal 3 irresponsible
4 unimaginable 5 incapable 6 uncooked
7 impractical 8 pre-war

6.1C Compound adjectives of measurement, etc.: 'a twenty-year-old man'

1 a two-million-pound office-block 2 a seventy-year-old woman 3 a two-day conference 4 an eighty-hectare farm 5 a three-day journey 6 a five-kilo bag 7 a three-litre engine 8 a fifty-pound note 9 a twenty-mile fence 10 a fifty-kilometre tunnel

6.1D Context

1 illegal 2 17-year-old boy 3 impossible
4 an eight-hour lesson 5 careful 6 hesitant
7 wonderful 8 energetic 9 reddish 10 setting

6.2 Position of adjectives**6.2A Form and position of most adjectives**

1 is big 2 are clever 3 is hardworking 4 are busy
5 are well-behaved

6.2B Adjectives that can change in meaning before a noun or after 'be'

Write 1: 1 an old friend 2 to me by my late uncle
3 a faint line 4 heavy 5 a heavy smoker

Write 2: 1 b (fine silk), 2 b (is fine), 3 e (I'm going to be sick), 4 c (very ill) 5 d (in the early 1960s)
6 a (a sick woman)

6.2C Adjectives before and after nouns with a change of meaning

1 b 2 h 3 d 4 h 5 f 6 g 7 a 8 i 9 e 10 c

6.2D Context

1 beautiful/lovely 2 young 3 lovely
4 polished/shiny 5 pleased 6 shiny/polished
7 quick-drying 8 alive 9 asleep 10 complete
11 poor 12 big 13 fresh 14 tall 15 fast

6.3 Adjectives that behave like nouns; '-ed/ing' endings**6.3A 'The' (etc.) + adjective + noun: 'the blind'**

Write 1: 1 a poor man 2 unemployed people
3 a young woman 4 an elderly man
5 a sick woman 6 healthy people

Write 2: 1 The rich ... the poor 2 the unemployed
3 the deaf 4 The old 5 the injured 6 the dead
7 the elderly 8 The healthy 9 the sick
10 The blind ... the sighted

6.3B Adjectives ending in '-ed' and '-ing': 'interested/interesting'

1 We were *amazed* by the coincidence.
2 The journey was *tiring*.
3 Sylvia was *upset* by the experience.
4 The experience was *upsetting* (for us).
5 Gloria was *enchanted*.
6 Gloria was *enchanted* (by me).
7 The children were *delightful*.
8 We were *delighted* by the children.
9 The new building is *impressive*.
10 Everybody is *impressed* by the new building.

6.3C Context

1 the rich 2 the poor 3 shocked 4 embarrassed
 5 the old 6 The blind 7 the sighted 8 The deaf
 9 The unemployed 10 The healthy 11 the sick
 12 the young 13 depressed 14 distressed
 15 distressing 16 depressing 17 the living
 18 the dead

6.4 Adjectives after 'be', 'seem'; word order of adjectives**6.4A 'Look good' compared with 'play well'**

1 nicely 2 nice 3 badly 4 bad 5 good 6 well
 7 smoothly 8 smooth

6.4B Word order: two-word and three-word nouns: 'a teak kitchen cupboard'

1 a cotton shirt 2 a cotton summer shirt 3 a wire rake
 4 a kitchen clock 5 a plastic kitchen clock

6.4C Word order: past participle + noun: 'a handmade cupboard'

Possible answers:

1 a worn cotton shirt 2 a handmade cotton summer shirt
 3 a broken wire rake 4 a damaged kitchen clock
 5 an unused plastic kitchen clock

6.4D Word order: adjective + noun: 'a big round table'

- 1 a cheap white Taiwanese clock radio for my bedside table.
- 2 a second-hand well-maintained sports car with a low mileage.
or: a well-maintained second-hand sports car.
- 3 a beautiful antique English polished mahogany dining-table.
or: a beautiful antique polished English mahogany dining-table.
- 4 a pair of grey and red American canvas trainers which I can use for jogging.
- 5 a small old stone-built country cottage.
- 6 a pink and white cotton summer dress for my holiday.

6.4E Context

1 Expensive Italian handmade leather shoes (*or: Expensive handmade Italian leather shoes*)
 2 beautiful old pair 3 back doorstep 4 large friendly dog (exceptionally, size comes before the general adjective here) 5 badly 6 good 7 good
 8 remaining Italian shoe 9 unchewed Italian shoe
 10 red fur-lined slippers

6.5 The comparison of adjectives**6.5A Common comparative and superlative forms: 'cold – colder – coldest'**

- 1 My room's *bigger* than yours. It's *the biggest* in the house.
- 2 My room's *colder* than yours. It's *the coldest* in the house.
- 3 My garden's *nicer* than yours. It's *the nicest* in the street.
- 4 My desk's *tidier* than yours. It's *the tidiest* in the office.

6.5B Adjectives with two or more syllables: 'clever', 'expensive'

- 1 She's *happier/more happy* than I am.
 She's *the happiest/most happy* person I have ever met.
- 2 His work was *more careless* than mine.
 It was *the most careless* (work) in the class.
- 3 This problem is *simpler/more simple* than that one.
 It's *the simplest/the most simple* (problem) in the book.
- 4 This watch is *more expensive* than that one.
 It's *the most expensive* (watch) in the shop.
- 5 This engine is *quieter/more quiet* than mine.
 It's *the quietest/most quiet* (engine) ever built.

6.5C Comparative and superlative forms often confused: 'older/elder'

1 farther/further 2 oldest 3 worse 4 lesser
 5 latest 6 further 7 well 8 last 9 oldest
 10 smaller 11 less 12 older 13 most/more
 14 better 15 best 16 farthest/furthest 17 oldest
 18 elder/older 19 least 20 most

6.5D Context

1 nearer/nearest (We can sometimes use superlatives for 'only two' [> LEG 6.28].) 2 biggest 3 strongest
 4 further/farther (*or: furthest/farthest*) 5 smaller, i.e. 'of the two' (*or: smallest, i.e. 'I have ever seen'*)
 6 weaker, i.e. 'of the two' (*or: weakest, i.e. 'I have ever seen'*) 7 the most violent 8 smallest
 9 biggest 10 last 11 best 12 oldest

7 Adverbs

7.1 Adverbs of manner

7.1A Adverbs with and without '-ly': 'carefully', 'fast'

1 badly 2 hard 3 fast 4 better 5 airmail
6 suddenly 7 rudely 8 early 9 best 10 gladly
11 quickly 12 eagerly 13 last 14 high
15 carefully 16 late 17 bravely 18 near 19 wide
20 monthly

7.1B Two forms and different meanings: 'hard/hardly'

1 hard 2 hardly 3 last 4 lastly 5 lately 6 late
7 highly 8 high 9 justly 10 just 11 near
12 nearly

7.1C Adjectives which end in '-ly': 'friendly'

1 in a cowardly way/manner/fashion 2 quickly
3 loudly/loud 4 in a silly way/manner/fashion
5 in a lively way/manner/fashion 6 slowly 7 badly
8 in a motherly way/manner/fashion 9 in a lovely
way/manner/fashion 10 carefully 11 in a sickly
way/manner/fashion 12 in an unfriendly way/
manner/fashion

7.1D Context

1 Last 2 important 3 early 4 carefully 5 best
6 best 7 far 8 fast 9 past 10 beautiful
11 in a silly way/manner/fashion 12 quickly
13 rapidly 14 cheap/cheaply 15 full
16 hurriedly 17 new

7.2 Adverbs of time

7.2A Points of time: 'Monday', 'this morning'

Write 1:

1 yesterday	today	tomorrow
2 yesterday morning	this morning	tomorrow morning
3 yesterday at noon	at noon	tomorrow at noon
4 yesterday afternoon	this afternoon	tomorrow afternoon
5 yesterday evening	this evening	tomorrow evening
6 last night	tonight	tomorrow night
7 last Monday	this Monday	next Monday
8 last January	this January	next January
9 last week	this week	next week
10 last year	this year	next year

Write 2:

- 1 She is arriving *this morning*.
- 2 I can see him *today*.
- 3 She arrived *last night*.
- 4 I'm expecting her *tomorrow night*.
- 5 I'll be home *tonight*.
- 6 You can make an appointment *this afternoon*.
- 7 You can see me *the day after tomorrow*.
- 8 She left *yesterday evening*.
- 9 You can see me *the day after tomorrow in the morning*.
- 10 You can come to my office *at noon/at midday (today)*.
- 11 He left *yesterday morning*.
- 12 She'll phone *tomorrow afternoon*.

7.2B 'Still' and 'yet'

- 1 The children are *still* at the cinema.
- 2 I haven't met your brother *yet*./I *haven't yet* met your brother./I *still* haven't met your brother.
- 3 Jim *still* works for the same company.
- 4 Has she phoned you *yet*? No, not *yet*.
- 5 The new law hasn't come into force *yet*./The new law *still* hasn't come into force.

7.2C 'Already' and other adverbs of time

- 1 I've *already* had it, thanks./I've had it *already*.
- 2 I haven't received an invitation to the party *yet*./I haven't *yet* received an invitation to the party.
- 3 I have *already* received an invitation to the party./I have received an invitation to the party *already*.
- 4 Have you finished eating *yet*?/Have you *already* finished eating/finished eating *already*?
- 5 Haven't you finished eating *yet*?

7.2D Context

1 This week 2 yet 3 still 4 already 5 Yesterday
6 immediately 7 Then

7.3 Adverbial phrases of duration

7.3A 'Since', 'for' and 'ago'

Write 1:

- 1 *Since* when have ...
- 2 ... a week *ago*.
- 3 ... seven months *ago*.
- 4 ... haven't seen her *since (last week)*.
- 5 ... been home *since* 1987.
- 6 How long *ago* did ...

Write 2:

- 1 ... for five years ...
- 2 ... here *since* 1984.
- 3 ... him *for* six years.
- 4 ... a letter *for* weeks.
- 5 ... a letter *since* last week.
- 6 ... jazz *since* I was a boy.

7.3B 'Till' (or 'until') and 'by'

1 till 2 till 3 by 4 till 5 by 6 by 7 till

7.3C 'During', 'in' and 'for'

1 during /in 2 during 3 during/in 4 during/in
5 during/in 6 for 7 during 8 during 9 during
10 during/in 11 during/in 12 for

7.3D Context

1 ago 2 For 3 since 4 during (or in) 5 since
6 till 7 by 8 till 9 by 10 during 11 for 12 till

7.4 Adverbs of frequency**7.4A Position of adverbs of frequency ('often') in affirmatives and questions**

Possible answers

- 1 I *am generally* late.
- 2 I *was usually* late for work.
- 3 I *can always* tell the difference between the two.
- 4 I *would never have been able* to find a job like yours.
- 5 You *seldom* tried hard enough.
- 6 You *sometimes* got good marks at school.
- 7 *Are you often* late?
- 8 *Have you always* lived in this town?
- 9 *Did you ever* get good marks at school?

7.4B The position of adverbs of frequency in negative statements

- 1 Public transport *isn't always* reliable.
- 2 He *wasn't often* late when he worked here./He *often wasn't* ...
- 3 She *doesn't usually* arrive on time./She *usually doesn't* ...
- 4 She *sometimes doesn't* arrive on time.
- 5 We *don't normally* worry if the children are late. Or *We normally don't* ...
- 6 You *hardly ever* phone.
- 7 We *don't generally* complain./We *generally don't* ...
- 8 You're *sometimes not* at home when I phone./You *sometimes aren't* ...

7.4C Adverbs of frequency at the beginning of a sentence

- 1a) I *often* bring work home from the office.
b) *Often*, I bring work home from the office.
- 2a) John *normally* leaves home before his wife does.
b) *Normally*, John leaves home before his wife does.
- 3a) I have *frequently* forgotten to lock the back door.
b) *Frequently*, I have forgotten to lock the back door.
- 4a) I *usually* know when to wake up.
b) *Usually*, I know when to wake up.
- 5a) I'm *generally* the one who pays the bills.
b) *Generally*, I'm the one who pays the bills.
- 6a) The traffic is *often* heavy in the mornings.
b) *Often*, the traffic is heavy in the mornings.
- 7a) We *sometimes* have power cuts.
b) *Sometimes*, we have power cuts.
- 8a) There are *often* complaints about the service.
b) *Often*, there are complaints about the service.

7.4D Context

- 1 Have you *ever* forgotten ...?
- 2 Don't say you *never* have!
- 3 We *can't always* be careful ...
- 4 ... most of us must *occasionally* have left something ...
- 5 ... who *never* forgets anything.
- 6 ... a year *are regularly* dealt with ...
- 7 People *don't normally* carry/normally don't carry .../Normally, people don't carry ...
- 8 The things people *most often* lose/lose most often
- 9 But *sometimes* there are items/there are *sometimes* ...
- 10 Can you *ever* imagine ... (or ... and *not ever* claiming it?)
- 11 Prams and pushchairs *are often* lost./Often, prams and pushchairs ...
- 12 ... people *frequently* forget false teeth ...
- 13 Yet they *often* do!/Yet *often* they do!

7.5 Adverbs of degree**7.5A The two meanings of 'quite'**

- 1 The film was *quite* good ('less than')
- 2 The exhibition was *quite* amazing. ('completely')
- 3 Pam's *quite* wonderful! ('completely')
- 4 The play was *quite* awful. ('completely')
- 5 I *quite* enjoyed my holiday. ('less than')
- 6 I *quite* like snails. ('less than')

7.5B 'Fairly'

- 1 quite ('complimentary')/fairly ('less complimentary')
- 2 quite ('completely')
- 3 quite ('completely')
- 4 quite ('complimentary')/fairly ('less complimentary')
- 5 quite ('completely')
- 6 quite ('completely')

7.5C 'Rather'

- 1 quite ('completely')/rather ('inclined to be')
- 2 quite ('completely')
- 3 quite ('completely')/rather ('inclined to be')
- 4 quite ('completely')
- 5 quite ('less than')/rather ('inclined to be')

7.5D 'Much', 'any', 'far' and 'a lot' as adverbs of degree

- 1 much/any 2 much/far/a lot 3 much/far/a lot
- 4 much/far 5 any/much 6 much/any 7 much
- 8 much/far 9 much/any 10 much/far/a lot

7.5E Context

Possible answers

- 1 quite late 2 rather tired 3 fairly middle-aged
- 4 rather a good meal 5 quite unaware 6 any more
- 7 any/much use 8 rather a good idea 9 quite dim

7.6 Intensifiers**7.6A 'Very', 'too' and 'very much'**

Write 1:

- 1 *very* ill 2 *very much* faster 3 *too* fast for me
- 4 *very* (or *too*) good 5 *too* expensive 6 *very* (or *very much*) mistaken 7 *very much* interested
- 8 *very much* 9 *very much* admired 10 the *very* best
- 11 *too* intelligent 12 *too* cold 13 I *very much* like
- 14 *very much* faster 15 *very* late 16 *too* late
- 17 *very much* missed 18 *too* much pocket money
- 19 *very much* 20 *very much* alone

Write 2:

- 1 very much 2 too much 3 very 4 very much
- 5 very 6 very 7 too much 8 too much 9 too
- 10 too 11 very much 12 very or too

7.6B Adverbs in place of 'very': 'extremely happy', 'fast asleep'

Possible answers

- 1 awfully 2 terribly 3 greatly 4 extremely
- 5 terribly 6 wide 7 deeply 8 extremely 9 really
- 10 richly 11 painfully 12 awfully 13 terribly
- 14 awfully 15 terribly 16 extremely 17 extremely
- 18 fast 19 bitterly 20 terribly 21 badly
- 22 extremely 23 really 24 extremely

7.6C Context

Possible answers

- 1 too 2 very 3 fast 4 very much 5 painfully
- 6 too 7 really/very much 8 extremely
- 9 Much 10 richly

7.7 Focus adverbs**7.7A 'Even', 'only', 'just' and 'simply' for 'focusing'**

Possible answers

- 1 I understood his lecture, but no one else did.
- 2 I listened, but I didn't take notes.
- 3 I didn't understand anyone else's lecture./I understood his lecture, but I didn't understand anything else.
- 4 Set the table in a simple manner.
- 5 I understood it, but with some difficulty./... but I didn't understand anything else.
- 6 I didn't understand anyone else's lecture./I understood his lecture, but I didn't understand anything else.
- 7 I understood it, but with some difficulty.

7.7B Two meanings of 'too'

- 1 It's too hot.
- 2 ... and it's hot, too.
- 3 ... and I went to the supermarket, too.
- 4 It was too far.
- 5 It was too expensive.
- 6 ... and expensive, too

7.7C 'Too' and 'not either'

- 1 too 2 too 3 either 4 too 5 either 6 either
- 7 either 8 too

7.7D 'Also' and 'as well'

- 1 she can *also* sing 2 I have *also* had a shower
- 3 he *also* writes TV scripts 4 he will *also* be tried
- 5 you should *also* have written 6 I *also* have to file some letters 7 I'd *also* like some sandwiches
- 8 he *also* owns the flat 9 we *also* export a lot
- 10 it's *also* too expensive

7.7E Context

- 1 ...she didn't leave any jewels, *either* 2 *Even* my mother was surprised 3 ... she had some rings and some lovely necklaces, *too* 4 I saw them *only* once./I *only* saw them once ... 5 ... in the bedrooms, in the bathroom, and in the attic *as well* 6 Millie was very careful and was *also* afraid of burglars 7 ... we'd better take all the food in the deep freeze, *too*
- 8 ... the goose was full of jewels and there were some gold coins, *too!*

7.8 Viewpoint adverbs, connecting adverbs and inversion

7.8A Viewpoint adverbs

1 d 2 c 3 b 4 e 5 a 6 f 7 h 8 g 9 i

7.8B Connecting adverbs

1 h 2 a 3 f 4 b 5 g 6 c 7 d 8 e

7.8C Inversion after 'negative adverbs', etc.

- 1 *Never has there been such a display of strength by the workers.*
- 2 *Only later did I realize what had happened.*
- 3 *On no account should you sign the document.*
- 4 *In no circumstances should you answer the door when I'm out.*
- 5 *So old was the papyrus, we didn't dare to touch it.*

7.8D Context

1 is 2 has there been 3 According to 4 However
5 agreeably 6 Moreover 7 In brief 8 Ultimately

8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

8.1 Prepositions, adverb particles and conjunctions

8.1A Words we can use either as prepositions or as adverbs

- 1 Run across the road. Run across now.
- 2 Climb over the wall. Climb over now.
- 3 Come inside the house. Come inside now.
- 4 Go down the hill. Go down now.
- 5 Go up the ladder. Go up now.
- 6 Run past the window. Run past now.

8.1B Words we can use only as prepositions or only as adverbs

Possible answers

- 1 We waited at the station.
- 2 We went to the beach.
- 3 We jumped back. (no object possible)
- 4 We climbed out. (no object possible)
- 5 We drove away. (no object possible)
- 6 We ran into the building.
- 7 We ran out of the building.
- 8 We went upwards. (no object possible)

8.1C Words we can use either as prepositions or conjunctions

Possible answers

- 1 ... before breakfast/before I have had breakfast.
- 2 ... after work/after I have finished work.
- 3 ... till 4 o'clock/till you arrive.
- 4 ... since Monday/since I arrived on Monday.

8.1D Object pronouns after prepositions: 'between you and me'

1 me 2 us 3 them 4 us 5 us 6 me

8.1E Context

1 *in* one boot (preposition) 2 *in* the afternoon (preposition) 3 *for* the day (preposition) 4 *in* his police car (preposition) 5 *go by* (particle) 6 *sat up* (particle) 7 *in* a blue car (preposition) 8 *drove past* (particle) 9 *out of* the boot (preposition) 10 *round* the town (preposition) 11 *on top of* the police car (preposition) 12 *no attention to* it (preposition) 13 *in front of* her (preposition) 14 *in* the boot (preposition) 15 *from* the boot (preposition) 16 *of* a strange noise (preposition) 17 *in* the back of this car (preposition)

8.2 Prepositions of movement and position Prepositions of time

8.2A 'At a point', 'in an area' and 'on a surface'

1 at 2 at 3 in 4 in 5 in 6 at 7 at 8 in 9 in
10 in 11 in 12 in 13 at 14 at 15 in 16 in
17 at 18 in

8.2B Prepositions of time: 'at', 'on' and 'in'

1 at... on 2 in 3 on 4 in 5 on 6 in 7 at... at
8 At 9 in 10 in 11 on 12 At 13 at 14 in
15 on

8.2C Context

1 in 2 in 3 in 4 in 5 in 6 to 7 to 8 at 9 from
10 in 11 in

8.3 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (1)

8.3A Prepositions, particles etc. often confused and misused

1 on/about 2 about 3 According to 4 According to 5 by/according to 6 across/over 7 across 8 over/across 9 across 10 through 11 through/across 12 across/through 13 (far) away 14 away 15 because 16 because of 17 before 18 in front of 19 before/in front of 20 after 21 afterwards 22 afterwards 23 (a)round/about 24 around/about 25 (a)round 26 (a)round 27 at 28 to 29 at 30 against 31 at 32 at 33 behind/at the back 34 back 35 at the back of/behind 36 back 37 back 38 back 39 back 40 behind 41 back

8.3B Context

1 across 2 According to 3 at 4 away 5 in front of 6 behind 7 because 8 after 9 about 10 before 11 on (or about) 12 at 13 about

8.4 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (2)

8.4A Prepositions, particles, etc. often confused and misused

1 beside 2 besides 3 Besides 4 between 5 between 6 among 7 but for/except for 8 except (for)/but (for) 9 Except for/But for 10 except (for)/but (for) 11 but 12 by/near 13 near/not far from 14 on/by 15 On 16 past/by 17 past/by 18 by 19 past/by 20 past 21 by 22 by 23 by 24 with/without 25 down/up 26 under 27 over/under 28 due to 29 owing to 30 owing to 31 like 32 As 33 as 34 like 35 like 36 As 37 As 38 like 39 as 40 like 41 like

8.4B Context

1 As 2 without 3 due 4 past/by 5 down/up 6 beside/by 7 among 8 between 9 by 10 like 11 except 12 without 13 by

8.5 Particular prepositions, particles: contrasts (3)

8.5A Prepositions, particles, etc. often confused and misused

1 of/out of 2 from 3 from 4 with 5 of 6 off 7 on 8 in 9 in 10 on 11 out of 12 out of 13 outside 14 outside 15 without 16 with 17 with 18 with 19 with/without 20 without 21 with 22 with 23 above/over 24 on top of 25 over/above 26 over/above 27 above 28 over 29 above 30 above 31 over 32 under 33 under

34 underneath/under/below 35 below 36 below/under 37 below/under/underneath 38 under 39 with 40 without 41 with 42 in 43 in 44 with 45 of 46 of

8.5B Context

1 of 2 In 3 of/out of 4 of 5 off 6 over/above 7 out of 8 in 9 of 10 on top of 11 with 12 above 13 in 14 on top of 15 below 16 in/with

8.6 Phrasal verbs: Type 1, verb + preposition (transitive)

8.6B Type 1: Verb + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'look at the camera'

1 with/to 2 from 3 on 4 of 5 from 6 between 7 about 8 on 9 at 10 for 11 at 12 for 13 with 14 about 15 to 16 with 17 after 18 for 19 in 20 with 21 of 22 in 23 in 24 for

8.6C Type 1: Verb + object + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'tell me about it'

1 for 2 of 3 from 4 to 5 in 6 about 7 against 8 from/into 9 for 10 of 11 with 12 for 13 of 14 to 15 for 16 from

8.6D Type 1: Verb + preposition + object, idiomatic: 'get over an illness'

1 f 2 i 3 c 4 l 5 n 6 p 7 t 8 s 9 h 10 m 11 a 12 q 13 r 14 k 15 d 16 b 17 g 18 j 19 o 20 e

8.6E Context

1 at 2 out of/from 3 at 4 from 5 for 6 in 7 in 8 at 9 to 10 for 11 of 12 on 13 of 14 to 15 of

8.7 Phrasal verbs: Type 2, verb + particle (transitive)

8.7A Type 1 and Type 2 phrasal verbs compared

1 (-) 2 (-) 3 turn *off* the gas 4 (-) 5 given *out* the papers 6 (-) 7 Write *down* the information 8 (-) 9 (-) 10 (-)

8.7B Type 2: Particles that extend the verb: 'write down'

1 f 2 b 3 k 4 n 5 j 6 p 7 h 8 s 9 c 10 q 11 t 12 r 13 e 14 o 15 d 16 i 17 m 18 l 19 g 20 a

8.7C Type 2: Verb + particle + object, idiomatic: 'bring about a change'

1 e 2 i 3 l 4 n 5 j 6 f 7 k 8 m 9 o 10 b 11 a 12 d 13 h 14 g 15 c

8.7D Context

1 (-) 2 (-) 3 puts a business suit *on* 4 (-)
 5 put his shirt and tie *on* 6 picked the receiver *up*
 7 (-) 8 (-) 9 check some figures *over* 10 (-)
 11 cutting expenses *down* 12 put the meeting *off*
 13 writing some notes *down* 14 (-) 15 put *down* the
 receiver 16 (-) 17 (-) 18 (-) 19 (-) 20 had his
 red shorts *on*

8.8 Phrasal verbs:**(Type 3, verb + particle (intransitive))****(Type 4, verb + particle (transitive))****8.8A Type 3: Verb + particle, intransitive, non-idiomatic: 'hurry up'**

Possible answers

1 Come along. 2 Come away. 3 Come in.
 4 Come up. 5 Go away. 6 Go in. 7 Go up.
 8 Hurry along. 9 Hurry up. 10 Hurry away.
 11 Sit down. 12 Sit up. 13 Stand up.
 14 Come down. 15 Hurry in. 16 Go down.

8.8B Type 3: Verb + particle, intransitive, idiomatic: 'break down'

1 b 2 h 3 j 4 e 5 m 6 f 7 q 8 o 9 c/d 10 p
 11 i 12 n 13 a 14 l 15 k 16 c/d 17 g

8.8C Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition + object, non-idiomatic: 'walk up to the top'

Possible answers

- 1 The lift takes a long time to *come down from* the top floor.
- 2 We'd better try to *drive on to* Calcutta before sunset.
- 3 I *hurried over to* Tom's as soon as I heard the news.
- 4 *Run along to* the shop for me and get a loaf of bread.
- 5 It's best to *stay away from* the town centre on Friday nights.

8.8D Verb + particle + preposition + object, idiomatic: 'put up with it'

1 e 2 l 3 b 4 t 5 i 6 n 7 g 8 k 9 q 10 s
 11 p 12 j 13 o 14 a 15 r 16 d 17 f 18 h
 19 m 20 c

8.8E Context

1 put *up with* 2 lie *down* 3 stay *up* 4 come *about*
 5 lie *in* 6 catch *up on* 7 looks *down on* 8 face *up to*
 9 let me *in on* 10 coughed *up* 11 cheer *up*
 12 look forward *to*

9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives**9.1 The simple present and present progressive tenses (1)****9.1A Pronunciation and spelling of the 3rd person, simple present**

1 He <i>laughs</i> /s/	8 She <i>rushes</i> /ɪz/
2 She <i>drops</i> /s/	9 She <i>saws</i> /z/
3 She <i>drinks</i> /s/	10 He <i>wears</i> /z/
4 She <i>forgets</i> /s/	11 She <i>loves</i> /z/
5 He <i>loses</i> /ɪz/	12 He <i>sees</i> /z/
6 She <i>manages</i> /ɪz/	13 He <i>pays</i> /z/
7 He <i>passes</i> /ɪz/	14 She <i>cries</i> /z/

9.1B Uses of the simple present tense:**'I work/he works'**

1 boils 2 rises 3 works 4 wear 5 eat 6 works
 7 go 8 drives 9 gets 10 eat 11 leaves
 12 starts 13 see 14 know ... agree 15 hope
 16 says

9.1C Stative and dynamic verbs

The following need ticks: 1a, 2a, 3b, 4b, 5a, 6a, 6b,
 7a, 7b, 8a, 8b

1b I envy 2b I understand 3a You know 4a Does
 he seem 5b I prefer

9.1D Context

1 Are you sitting 2 hope 3 are studying 4 have
 5 does not include 6 try 7 regard 8 want

9.2 The simple present and present progressive tenses (2)**9.2A Spelling: how to add '-ing' to a verb: 'wait/waiting'**

1 making 2 eating 3 writing 4 forgetting
 5 putting 6 travelling 7 catching 8 dying
 9 carrying

9.2B Uses of the present progressive tense:**'I am working/he is working'**

1 I am working (1) 2 are you drinking? (1) 3 is still
 waiting (1) 4 is hurrying (1) 5 are constantly
 panicking (4) 6 are becoming (2) 7 is John doing ...
 is riding (2) 8 are enjoying (1) 9 is always upsetting
 (4) 10 is he arriving (3) 11 is forever forgetting (4)
 12 am having (2) 13 is always lying (4)
 14 is running (3)

9.2C The simple present and the present progressive tenses in typical contexts

- 1 you take ... and sort ... you file
(Spoken or written explanation or demonstration)
- 2 We hope you are enjoying ... We sunbathe and go ... Next week we're going
(Letter or postcard from someone who is on holiday)
- 3 The action takes place ... goes up ... are sitting ...
They are arguing
(Review of a play in a newspaper or on the radio)
- 4 The plumber is putting ... are rewiring ... is building
(Letter to, or telephone conversation with a friend)
- 5 I think ... you are doing ... I doubt ... knows ... you tell me
(Letter to a friend or relation in reply to a phone call or a letter)
- 6 Pym passes ... runs ... shoots ... pushes
(Spoken commentary on a football match on TV or radio)

9.2D Context

- 1 am studying 2 am working 3 don't have to
- 4 opens 5 closes 6 are always coming in
- 7 asking 8 am learning 9 enjoy/am enjoying
- 10 find/am finding 11 use 12 are 13 are 14 are always finding 15 think 16 love 17 miss/am missing

9.3 The simple past tense

9.3A The past form and pronunciation of regular verbs

- 1 waited /ɪd/ 2 cleaned /d/ 3 played /d/
- 4 posted /ɪd/ 5 smiled /d/ 6 stopped /t/
- 7 dreamt /t/, or dreamed /d/ 8 burnt /t/, or burned /d/
- 9 cried /d/ 10 watched /t/ 11 laughed /t/
- 12 obeyed /d/ 13 hurried /d/ 14 lied /d/
- 15 finished /t/ 16 included /ɪd/ 17 locked /t/
- 18 travelled /d/

9.3B Irregular past forms

- 1 saw 2 understood 3 knew 4 met 5 found
- 6 left 7 wrote 8 sold 9 was 10 had 11 kept
- 12 ate

9.3C Uses of the simple past tense: 'I worked/he worked'

- 1 I *worked* as a civil servant *five years ago*.
- 2 I last *played* football *when I was 14*.
- 3 The Carters *left* for their summer holiday *last night*.
- 4 John *arrived* at 4.
- 5 I last *saw* 'Gone with the Wind' *recently*.
- 6 I/We *waited* at the airport *till they arrived*.
- 7 Sally *told* me/us about her engagement *when she was here*.

9.3D Context

- 1 claimed 2 attacked 3 was 4 had 5 chased
- 6 jumped 7 believed 8 called 9 set out
- 10 offered 11 captured 12 visited

9.4 The simple past and past progressive tenses

9.4A Irregular verbs with the same form in the present as in the past: 'put/put'

- 1 past 2 present 3 past 4 past 5 present
- 6 present or past 7 past 8 past 9 past 10 past
- 11 present or past 12 past 13 present 14 past

9.4B Uses of the past progressive tense: 'I was working'

- 1 was not listening 2 were enjoying 3 Were they playing 4 was gardening 5 Were you watching 6 was raining 7 was wondering 8 Were you still working 9 were living 10 was always doing 11 were constantly improving 12 Were you reading 13 was getting

9.4C The simple past and the past progressive in story-telling

- 1 It was just before
- 2 Tom *was* only 20
- 3 (he) *was living* with his mother (1)
- 4 He *was working* and *travelling* (1)
- 5 He *received* a mysterious letter
- 6 It *was addressed*
- 7 ... *was signed* ... *asked*
- 8 as he *was dealing* ... Tom *was wondering* (3)
- 9 he *decided*
- 10 It *was* full
- 11 He *was just wondering* ... when a stranger *introduced* himself (2)
- 12 (The stranger) *said* ... when Tom *was* a baby
- 13 The stranger *explained* ... Bill *was*
- 14 Tom *was* recruited ...
- 15 *was already working* ... when the war *began* (2)

9.4D Context

- 1 was driving 2 was driving 3 saw 4 stopped
- 5 got out 6 was 7 looked 8 was crossing/crossed
- 9 went 10 noticed 11 told 12 pulled 13 pulled
- 14 pulled 15 thought 16 looked/was looking
- 17 noticed 18 gave 19 seized 20 put
- 21 continued

9.5 The simple present perfect and present perfect progressive

9.5A Uses of the simple present perfect tense: 'I have eaten/he has eaten'

1 have/ve visited 2 has/s typed 3 Have you ever eaten 4 have/ve never quarrelled 5 haven't written 6 haven't been 7 haven't seen 8 has/s driven 9 have/ve known 10 has/s been 11 have/ve bought 12 has/s travelled 13 Have you forgotten 14 have/ve ridden 15 has/s just flown 16 has/s recently become 17 have/ve already spoken 18 haven't drunk 19 hasn't answered 20 have/ve met

9.5B The present perfect progressive tense: 'I have been eating'

1 have/ve been digging 2 have you been waiting 3 have/ve been standing 4 have you been learning 5 has/s been studying 6 Have you been running? 7 have/ve been living 8 have/ve been crying 9 have the children been sleeping 10 have you been doing

9.5C The simple present perfect and the present perfect progressive compared

1a I've typed 1b I've been typing 2a She has/s been cooking 2b I've cooked 3a We have/ve built 3b We have/ve been building

9.5D The simple past and the simple present perfect compared

1a never read 1b has never read 2a had 2b have just had 3a Has he gone 3b Did he go

9.5E Context

1 visited 2 told 3 asked 4 said 5 arrived 6 have been staying 7 have never visited 8 have been swimming 9 arrived 10 suggested 11 agreed 12 noticed 13 were 14 was (or informally *were*) 15 remembered 16 came 17 asked 18 waved

9.6 The simple past perfect and past perfect progressive tenses

9.6A Uses of the simple past perfect tense: 'I had worked'

1 locked/had locked ... got 2 arrived ... had finished 3 rang ... checked/had checked 4 discussed/had discussed ... wrote 5 had ... had all left 6 rang ... had already gone out 7 took ... had never seen 8 had just cleaned ... came ... shook 9 promised/had promised ... hadn't finished

9.6B Uses of the present and past perfect progressive: 'I have/had been working'

1 had been digging 2 have been waiting (or *had been waiting* if the context is the past) 3 have/had you been waiting 4 had been standing 5 had been studying 6 has been raining 7 had been writing 8 have/had been ringing 9 had been painting 10 Had you been running?

9.6C The simple past perfect and past perfect progressive compared

1 had been cooking 2 had prepared 3 had been doing 4 had done 5 had done 6 had been doing

9.6D Context

1 had spent 2 had looked/had been looking 3 had not been able 4 had been 5 had been cooking 6 had prepared 7 had made 8 had baked 9 had always enjoyed/always enjoyed 10 had to 11 had lost 12 said 13 found 14 put 15 smiled 16 fished

9.7 The simple future tense

9.7A Some uses of 'will' and 'shall'

1 d 2 f 3 g 4 b 5 k 6 l 7 j 8 a 9 h 10 i 11 e 12 c

9.7B 'Will' and 'shall' to refer to the future

1 they'll/they will 2 They'll/They will 3 You'll/You will 4 I'll/I will/I shall 5 I will/I shall 6 you will 7 won't 8 I'll/I will/I shall 9 everything'll/ everything will 10 When'll/When will/When shall 11 They'll/They will 12 You'll/You will

9.7C Context

1 shall/will/'ll 2 shan't/won't/will not/shall not 3 shan't/won't/will not/shall not 4 will 5 shan't/won't/will not/shall not 6 will (*we shall*, but not **My wife and I shall**) 7 shall/will/'ll 8 shall/will/'ll 9 will 10 will/shall/'ll 11 will not/won't/shan't 12 will/shall/'ll 13 will/'ll/shall 14 will/'ll/shall 15 will/'ll/shall 16 will/'ll/shall 17 will/shall

9.8 The simple future, the future progressive, the future perfect

9.8A Simple future 'I will work' and progressive 'I will be working' compared

Write 1:

- 1 *will be taking off* ('more polite') or *will take off* (arrangement [> 9.7B])
- 2 *will you be going* (referring to future time) or *will you go* (intention)
- 3 *you will still be working* here ('imagining')
- 4 They *will be sailing* (planned action) or *will sail* (more definite)
- 5 The President *will be meeting* (planned action) or *will meet* (more definite)
- 6 *will you be staying* (planned action) or *will you stay* (more definite)
- 7 We *will be driving* (planned action) or *will drive* (intention)
- 8 *will be writing* (imagining)
- 9 *will be circling* (imagining)
- 10 *will be seeing* (referring to future time) or *will see* (intention)

Write 2:

- 1 will you be leaving 2 we'll be leaving
- 3 you'll arrive 4 we'll check in 5 we'll have
- 6 you'll be lying 7 I'll be doing 8 we won't be sitting around

9.8B The future perfect simple and the future perfect progressive tenses

- 1 will have completed 2 will/shall have been waiting
- 3 will/shall have been living/have lived 4 will/shall have finished 5 will have left 6 will/shall have been flying 7 will have completed 8 will have been travelling/will have travelled

9.8C Context

- 1 will have built/will be building 2 will be circling/will circle 3 (will) probably be circling/will probably circle 4 will have established/will be establishing 5 will have increased/will be increasing 6 will be orbiting 7 will have 8 will stay/will be staying 9 will not be clearing up 10 will just be watching

9.9 'Going to' and other ways of expressing the future

9.9A Uses of the 'going to'-future compared with 'will'

- 1 are we going to spend 2 We're going to run out of
- 3 I'll stop 4 We're going to get stuck 5 We'll (or We're going to) have to walk 6 someone'll 7 It's going to rain 8 I'll wave 9 He's going to stop

9.9B 'am/is/are to', 'be about to', 'be due to'

- 1 are to 2 are to 3 are not to 4 is (just) about to 5 I'm (just) about to 6 is due to 7 not due to/isn't due to

9.9C The future-in-the-past

Possible answers

- 1 was to 2 was going to 3 would 4 was about to 5 was due to

9.9D Context

Possible answers

- 1 are we to do 2 We are going to/are to deliver 3 I'll just check/I'm just going to check 4 will be/is 5 are taking off/take off/are going to take off/will be taking off 6 would be/was to be/was going to be 7 would/was going to break loose 8 I'll take over

9.10 The imperative

9.10A Some uses of the imperative to express different functions

- 1 Do have 2 Do make 3 Do stop 4 Do hurry 5 Do try 6 Do help

9.10B The imperative to address particular people

Possible answers

- 1 Enjoy yourself/yourself 2 You try 3 You make/Make ... Meg/Meg, you make 4 Somebody turn off/Turn off ... somebody 5 Nobody turn/Don't ... anybody/Don't anybody turn 6 You carry/Carry ... John! 7 Everybody sit down/Sit down, everybody 8 Everybody have/Have ... everybody 9 Don't move anybody/Nobody move!/Don't anybody move! 10 John, you/John, post/You ... John 11 Don't anybody listen/Don't listen to her, anybody!/Nobody listen to her! 12 Enjoy yourselves, children!

9.10C The imperative with question tags

Possible answers

- 1 Stop whistling, will you? 2 Do something useful, can't you? 3 Stop asking questions, won't you? 4 Post this letter, could you? 5 Hold this bag, would you? 6 Get me some stamps, can you? 7 Come in, won't you? 8 Take a seat, will you?

9.10D Double imperatives joined by 'and'

Possible answers

- 1 Come and see us soon.
- 2 Try and lift it./Try to lift it.
- 3 Sit here and wait until the doctor is ready.
- 4 Wait and see what will happen.

9.10E Context

- 1 DO 2 KEEP 3 MIND 4 ASK 5 AVOID 6 COME AND ASK 7 DON'T WASTE 8 THINK!

10 Be, Have, Do

10.1 'Be' as a full verb (1)

10.1A Some uses of the imperative of 'be': 'Be careful'

Write 1:

1 *Be* an angel! 2 *Don't be* a silly idiot! 3 *Be* the proud owner ... 4 *Don't be* a writer. 5 You *be* Batman and I'll *be* Robin.

Write 2:

1 (Do) be quiet!	Don't be noisy!
2 (Do) be careful!	Don't be careless!
3 (Do) be generous!	Don't be mean!
4 (Do) be friendly!	Don't be critical!
5 (Do) be brave!	Don't be afraid!

10.1B The use of 'aren't'

1 aren't 2 aren't 3 aren't 4 isn't 5 aren't
6 aren't 7 wasn't 8 weren't

10.1C 'Be' in the simple present and simple past

1 was 2 was ... is 3 am 4 is 5 is ... was 6 is
7 is ... was 8 are ... were 9 are ... were ... are
10 is ... is 11 are ... are 12 is 13 Is ... was ... is
14 Were ... weren't ... are 15 is ... was 16 is ... was
17 was 18 is (or was)

10.1D Context

1 was 2 you're 3 aren't 4 I'm 5 aren't 6 You're
7 You're 8 I'm 9 I'm 10 be 11 Be 12 What's
13 I'm 14 Don's 15 be 16 Be 17 Are 18 I'm

10.2 'Be' as a full verb (2)

10.2A Progressive forms of 'be' for 'temporary behaviour'

The following sentences need ticks: 1, 3, 5

10.2B 'Has been', 'have been', 'had been' + adjectives and nouns

1 has/Your brother's 2 have/long've 3 have/I've
4 had/she'd 5 has/It's 6 has/She's ... has/She's
7 had/you'd 8 have/I've

10.2C 'Have been' and 'have gone'

1 has gone/he's gone 2 have been/I've been
3 have been 4 have gone 5 have been/you've
been 6 has gone/He's gone 7 has gone/He's gone
8 has been/He's been

10.2D 'Have been' with 'since' and 'for'

1 She has been waiting ...
2 I have worked/I have been working ...
3 We have lived/We have been living ...
4 How long have we been waiting ...?
5 How long has Silvia worked/been working ...?
6 How long has your brother lived/been living ...

10.2E Context

1 have gone 2 have been/They've been 3 have
been/I've been 4 have ever been/I've ever been
5 is being/She's being 6 were 7 were 8 have not
been/haven't been 9 has been/She's been 10 has
been/She's been 11 has been/It's been

10.3 'There' + 'be'

10.3A 'There + 'be' as a 'natural choice'

The following sentences need ticks: 1, 3, 6

2 *There is a good clothes shop* not far from here.
4 *There was a photograph of that girl* in last week's
magazine.
5 *There will be a new security system* in operation ...
7 *There is a public holiday* on May 1st.
8 *There will be a meeting* between the two world
leaders ...

10.3B 'There is', etc. compared with 'it is', etc.

1 There ... they 2 There's ... She's 3 There's ... it's
4 There'll ... He's 5 There ... It 6 There ... They
7 There's ... It's 8 There's ... It's 9 there ... it
10 there ... they

10.3C Combinations with 'there' + 'be'

1 There was 2 There are 3 Are there/Have there
been ... there are/there've been – There are
4 Is there ... there is 5 There are/There will be
6 There has been/There's 7 There will be
8 There's 9 there had/has been 10 ... isn't
there? 11 There seem 12 There seems/There
seemed

10.3D Context

1 There had been 2 it was first opened
3 There was 4 there were 5 there were
6 They were 7 There were 8 There was 9 It was
10 There has never been 11 there never will be

10.4 Verbs related in meaning to 'be'**10.4A Certainty and uncertainty with 'be', 'seem', etc.**

- 1 They *seem* (to be) very happy.
- 2 He *seemed* (to be) a genius at maths.
- 3 She *seems* to be finding the job difficult.
- 4 They *seemed to be* looking for something.
- 5 He *seems to have been* knocked out.
- 6 It *seems* (to be) very dark outside.
- 7 It *seems to be* raining very hard outside.
- 8 My watch *seems to have* stopped.

10.4B 'To be' or not 'to be'?

- 1 (to be) 2 (to be) 3 to be 4 (-) 5 (-) 6 (-) 7 (-)
8 (to be)

10.4C 'Process verbs' related to 'be' and 'become'

Possible answers

- 1 grow 2 get 3 has turned/is turning 4 goes
5 has run/is running 6 becoming 7 has come/
came 8 fell 9 are wearing/have worn 10 get
11 become 12 make

10.4D Context

- 1 seemed/appeared 2 looked 3 smelt
4 got/became 5 seemed/appeared 6 became/got
7 seems/looks 8 feel 9 proves 10 seems

10.5 'Have' as a full verb = 'possess'; 'have got' = 'possess'**10.5A 'Have got' = 'own' and 'have got' = 'obtain'**

- 1 have received 2 possess/own 3 possess/own
4 have obtained 5 possess/own 6 have obtained

10.5B Uses of 'have' and 'have got' to mean 'possess'

- 1 They have/They've got 2 I don't have/haven't got
3 Do you have/Have you got (*Have you* is possible, but less common) 4 My uncle had 5 I've had
6 We'll have 7 I will have had 8 she had had
9 I must have 10 he should have 11 Does your brother have/Has your brother got (*Has your brother* is possible but less common) 12 Will you have
13 Have you had 14 Do you have/Have you got (*Have you* is possible but less common)

10.5C Common uses of 'have' and 'have got'

- 1 Have you got/Do you have 2 have (got) 3 Have you got/Do you have
4 Have you got/Do you have 5 She has (got) 6 He has (got) 7 He has (got)
8 has (got) 9 haven't (got)/don't have
10 hasn't (got)/doesn't have 11 have you (got)/do you have 12 have (got) 13 have (got)
14 have (got) 15 has (got) on 16 had she got/did

- she have 17 I have (got) 18 did you last have
19 have (got) 20 has (got) 21 have (got)
22 Have you (got)/Do you have 23 have (got)
24 has (got). Note that *have you* is also possible, but less common, in 1, 3, 4 and 22.

10.5D Context

- 1 to have 2 doesn't have/hasn't (got) 3 has
4 has (got) 5 has (got) 6 haven't (got)/don't have
7 has (got) 8 had (got) 9 had 10 had 11 had
12 haven't (got)/don't have

10.6 'Have' as a full verb meaning 'eat', 'enjoy', etc.**10.6A 'Have' (= 'eat', 'enjoy', etc.) compared with 'have' (= 'possess')**

Write 1:

- 1 Do you have 2 They have (got) 3 We have (got)
4 She has 5 I've just had 6 We had 7 She has (got)
8 I have 9 I don't often have 10 Have you (got) (or Do you have) 11 they had had
12 did you have

Write 2:

- 1 Have 2 has 3 is having 4 had 5 were having
6 have had/have been having 7 has been having (or has had) 8 had ... had 9 had had/had been having or had 10 will be having 11 will have had
12 will have had

10.6B Common 'have' + noun combinations

Write 1:

Possible answers

- 1 We *had an awful meal* at the Station Hotel.
- 2 I *had a bad dream* last night.
- 3 When are you going to *have a haircut*?
- 4 I *have an appointment* to see Mr Jay at 10.
- 5 *Have a good trip* to America!
- 6 We *had a lovely day* for the wedding.
- 7 You'll *have a pain* if you eat any more apples.
- 8 Our teacher *has a wonderful sense of humour*.

Write 2:

- 1 are always having fights 2 Have a look at
3 have a rest 4 have a ride 5 I had a talk to/with Jim 6 have a swim 7 have a wash
8 Have a sleep

10.6C Context

- 1 has (got) 2 has had 3 has (got) 4 has (got)
5 'Has Worzel had?' 6 having 7 has/is having
8 have 9 has (got) 10 has (got) 11 aren't having
12 have (got)

10.7 'Do' as a full verb

10.7A Forms and uses of 'do' as an auxiliary and as a full verb

Write 1:

1l 2g 3j 4h 5k 6d 7a 8f 9m 10c 11e
12b 13i

Write 2:

1 What are you doing? 2 ... she never does the washing up 3 No, don't do that 4 What is that flowerpot doing ...? 5 do the/their washing 6 ... when you've done that 7 How does he do it? 8 he doesn't do any reading 9 What have you done? 10 What are those suitcases doing ...? 11 I've been doing a bit of gardening 12 What's that car doing ...? 13 I've already done so.

10.7B 'Do' and 'make' compared

do: one's best, business with someone, an experiment, research, one's hair, something for a living, an impression (= imitate), somebody a service.
make: an appointment, an arrangement, an attempt, a noise, something for a living, progress, an impression (= impress), a journey, a fortune, war.

Possible answers

- You should always try to *do your best*.
- I must *make an appointment* to see the dentist.
- We *do a lot of business* with your firm.
- We *did a very interesting experiment* in chemistry today.
- I've *made an arrangement* to meet him on Thursday.
- Mary *does research* into the causes of acid rain.
- Mr Stuart *does my hair* once a fortnight.
- I *made several attempts* to start the car before I phoned the garage.
- Don't *make a noise!* We don't want to wake the children.
- What does Tom *do for a living?* – Tom *makes toys for a living*.
- Janet *has made excellent progress* this term.
- He *does very funny impressions* of famous people. She *has made a good impression* in her new job.
- Will you *do me a service* and take this to the post office?
- He *has just made a journey* to the village where he was born.
- You can *make a fortune* in the antiques business these days.
- The Persians *were always making war* against the Greeks.

10.7C Context

1 did 2 don't 3 do 4 do 5 done 6 made
7 doing 8 do 9 make 10 do

11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.1 The two uses of modal verbs

11.1A The first use of modal verbs (1)

1c 2f 3d 4a 5b 6e

11.1B The first use of modal verbs (2)

Must is not possible in the following:
2 have had to 4 had had to 5 had to
6 haven't had to 7 having to

11.1C The second use of modal verbs

1 certain 2 very uncertain 3 fairly certain
4 almost certain 5 fairly certain 6 almost certain
7 fairly certain 8 very uncertain 9 almost certain

11.1D Context

1 May/Can 2 must be 3 am 4 must have
5 couldn't 6 can't 7 must/can 8 have had to
9 haven't been able to 10 can/may

11.2 Uses of modals (etc.) to express ability and inability

11.2A Expressing present and past ability: 'can' and 'be able to'

1 can 2 can't 3 can 4 could/was able to ... can
5 Can ... can't 6 couldn't 7 could/was able to/
managed to 8 was able to/managed to 9 couldn't/
wasn't able to 10 were able to/managed to

11.2B 'Can/could' with verbs of perception: 'I can see'

1 *Can* you see 2 I *can* smell 3 I *could* understand
4 *Could* you understand 5 I *can't* see 6 I *couldn't*
understand

11.2C Ability in tenses other than the present and the past

1 will be able to 2 haven't been able to
3 would have been able to 4 had been able to
5 will be able to 6 being able to 7 be able to
8 had been able to

11.2D 'Can/could' in place of 'is often' and 'was often'

1 The sea *can be* 2 She *can be* 3 She *could be*
4 It *can be* 5 He *could be*

11.2E Context

1 had not been able to/had been unable to
 2 could only/had only been able to 3 could
 4 were able to/managed to 5 could/would be able to/
 would manage to 6 could/was able to/were able to
 7 Can/Do

11.3 Uses of modals (etc.) to express permission and prohibition**11.3A Asking for permission with 'can', 'could', 'may' and 'might'**

Possible answers

- 1 Can I make myself some coffee (please)?
- 2 Could/May I use your/the lavatory, please?
- 3 I wonder if I might (possibly) see your garden?
- 4 Could I (possibly) make a phone call (please)?
- 5 Do you think I could (possibly) borrow your car?

11.3B Giving and refusing permission/Expressing prohibition

Possible answers

- 1 *You may not* smoke. (This notice is trying to sound polite.)
- 2 *You are not allowed to* camp or picnic here.
- 3 *You are forbidden to* fish here.
- 4 *You may* camp here.
- 5 This is private (property). *You are not permitted to* enter.
- 6 *You mustn't* lean out of the window.
- 7 *You can* leave your litter here.
- 8 *You can't* stop here.

11.3C Permission/prohibition in tenses other than present and future

1 were allowed to 2 was never allowed to 3 has only been allowed to 4 has just been allowed to
 5 have not been allowed to 6 had not allowed him to

11.3D 'Can' (= ability) and 'can/could' (= have permission, be free to)

Can is possible in the following:

- 2 We can go 3 She can drive 5 I can play
- 6 You can use

11.3E Context

Possible answers

- 1 Am I allowed to 2 can 3 can't 4 mustn't
- 5 will be allowed to 6 can't 7 could

11.4 Uses of modals (etc.) to express certainty and possibility**11.4A Certainty and possibility**

Write 1:

- 1C 2P 3C 4P 5C 6P 7C 8P 9C 10P
- 11C 12P 13C 14P

Write 2:

- 1 He *may/might/could* be at home now.
- 2 He *may/might/could* be at home tomorrow.
- 3 He *may/might/could have been* at home yesterday.
- 4 She *may/might/could* leave at 9.
- 5 She *may/might/could* leave tomorrow.
- 6 She *may/might/could have* left.
- 7 She *may/might/could have* left last night.
- 8 She *may/might/could have* left by 9.
- 9 He *may/might/could be* working today.
- 10 He *may/might/could be* working today.
- 11 He *may/might/could have been* working today.
- 12 He *may/might/could have been* working all day.

Write 3:

Possible answers

- 1 He *may/might/could* be at home.
- 2 He *may/might/could* have been at home.
- 3 He *may/might/could* be at home.
- 4 It *may/might/could* leave at 10.
- 5 It *may/might/could* have left at 10.
- 6 She *may/might/could* be working.
- 7 She *may/might/could* have been working.
- 8 She *may/might/could* be working.
- 9 She *may/might/could* have been working.
- 10 He *may/might/could* have had tea and toast.
- 11 She *may/might/could* have parked in the car park.
- 12 It *may/might/could* have cost £15,000.

11.4B Certain and uncertain answers to questions

Possible answers

- 1 (Yes,) she *may (do)*.
- 2 She *might live* in London.
- 3 (Yes,) he *could have (done)*.
- 4 He *might have caught* the 8.30.
- 5 (Yes,) they *might be*.
- 6 They *might be living* abroad.
- 7 (Yes,) he *may have (done)*.
- 8 He *could have finished* work at 4.30.
- 9 (Yes,) I *could (do)*.
- 10 I *may leave* tomorrow.

11.4C Context

Possible answers

- 1 can 2 may 3 may 4 might 5 might 6 could
- 7 could 8 might 9 might 10 could

11.5 Uses of modals to express deduction**11.5A Certainty or deduction?**

1C 2C 3C 4C 5C 6D 7D 8D 9D 10D
11D 12D

11.5B Two kinds of 'must be'

1 mustn't be (O) 2 must be (O) 3 can't be (D)
4 must be (D) 5 must be (D) 6 can't be (D)
7 must be (O) 8 mustn't be (O) 9 can't be (D)
10 mustn't be (O)

11.5C 'Must have been', 'can't/couldn't have been'; 'had to be/didn't have to be'

1 must have been 2 can't/couldn't have been
3 had to be 4 did she have to be 5 didn't have to
6 didn't have to 7 must have been 8 must have
been 9 can't have been 10 had to be
11 must have been 12 had to be

11.5D Context

1 didn't have to be 2 must be/must have been
3 can't be/can't have been 4 must be 5 must be
6 had to be 7 must have been imported
8 must have laid

11.6 Uses of modals for offers, requests and suggestions**11.6A Offering things and substances**

Possible answers

- 1 *Would you like* a sandwich?
- 2 *Wouldn't you like* some coffee?
- 3 *Would you like* a slice of toast?
- 4 *Would you like* some potatoes?
- 5 *Wouldn't you like* an orange?
- 6 *Would you like* some fruit?

11.6B Requests for things and substances

Possible answers

- 1 *Can I have* a sandwich, please?
- 2 *May I have* some coffee, please?
- 3 *Could I have* a slice of toast, please?
- 4 *May I have* some potatoes, please?
- 5 *Might I have* an orange, please?
- 6 *Could I have* some fruit, please?

11.6C Making suggestions, inviting actions

Possible answers

- 1 *Would you like to* stay with me?
- 2 *Would you like to* join us for a meal?
- 3 *Wouldn't you like to* come on an excursion?
- 4 *Would you like to* have a holiday with us?

11.6D Requesting others to do things for you

Possible answers

- 1 *Will/Would you* hold the door open for me, please?
- 2 Please *will/would you* dial a/this number for me?
- 3 *Will/Would you* please translate a/this letter for me?
- 4 *Will/Would you* deliver some/these flowers for me, please?

11.6E Offering to do things for others

Possible answers

- 1 *Shall I* put your suitcase on the rack (for you)?
- 2 *Shall I* close the window (for you)?
- 3 *Shall I* pick those up (for you)?

11.6F Making suggestions that include the speaker

- 1 *Shall we* drive to the coast?
- 2 *Shall we* have a meal out this evening?
- 3 *Shall we* travel first class?
- 4 *Shall we* have a holiday in Bahia?

11.6G Context

1 Would you 2 Shall I 3 Will/Would you
4 Would you 5 Can I/Could I (etc.) 6 Shall we
7 Shall I 8 Will/Would you 9 Would you

11.7 Expressing wishes, etc.: 'I wish', 'if only', 'it's (high) time'**11.7A Present and past reference with 'I wish', 'if only' and 'it's (high) time'**

1 present 2 present 3 present 4 past 5 past

11.7B Expressing wishes and regrets with 'I wish' and 'if only'

Possible answers

- 1 I wish/If only I *was/were* fit/fitter!
- 2 I wish/If only it *was/were* cooler!
- 3 I wish/If only it *wasn't/weren't* raining!
- 4 I wish/If only I *had been* less impatient/more patient!
- 5 I wish/If only I *hadn't wasted* a lot of/so much time watching TV!
- 6 I wish/If only they *had* more friends!
- 7 I wish/If only we *had locked* the back door!
- 8 I wish/If only he *wasn't/weren't* abroad!
- 9 I wish/If only she *hadn't read* it!
- 10 I wish/If only he *had taken* it!

11.7C 'Would' and 'could' after 'I wish' and 'if only'

1 would 2 wouldn't 3 could 4 could 5 would
6 could

11.7D 'It's (high) time' and 'It's (about) time'

Possible answers

- 1 It's high time they got married!
- 2 It's about time we went to the theatre!
- 3 It's high time you both left!
- 4 It's about time they tied it!

11.7E Context

- 1 was/were 2 contained 3 opened 4 was/were
- 5 could be 6 had/could have

11.8 Expressing preferences: 'would rather' and 'would sooner'**11.8A Expressing personal preference with 'I'd rather'/'I'd sooner'**

Write 1:

- 1 be 2 have been 3 have been 4 have lived
- 5 make 6 not have to 7 not have had to

Write 2:

- 1 I'd rather/sooner not. 2 I'd rather/sooner not (have been).
- 3 I'd rather/sooner not. 4 I'd rather/sooner not (have done).

11.8B Expressing preferences about other people's actions

- 1 caught 2 didn't wait up 3 hadn't done
- 4 asked/had asked 5 was/were 6 had been/were

11.8C 'I'd rather he didn't', etc.

- 1 I'd rather/sooner she *didn't*. 2 I'd rather/sooner you *hadn't*.
- 3 I'd rather/sooner she *hadn't*. 4 I'd rather/sooner he *didn't*.
- 5 I'd rather/sooner you *didn't*. 6 I'd rather/sooner he *hadn't*.
- 7 I'd rather/sooner they *didn't*.
- 8 I'd rather/sooner they *hadn't*. 9 ... I'd rather/sooner you *hadn't*.
- 10 ... I'd rather/sooner she *didn't*.
- 11 ... I'd rather/sooner he *hadn't*.

11.8D Context

- 1 would rather/sooner their children didn't decide
- 2 would rather/sooner their children chose
- 3 would rather/sooner do 4 would rather/sooner be
- 5 would rather/sooner talk, walk and behave
- 6 would rather/sooner be called 7 would rather/sooner have been called
- 8 would rather/sooner have lived 9 would rather/sooner be

11.9 'It's advisable ...'/'It's necessary ...'**11.9A 'It's advisable' → 'It's necessary': 'a scale of choice'**

- 1 advisable 2 necessary 3 advisable 4 advisable
- 5 necessary 6 advisable

11.9B 'Must', 'have to' and 'have got to'

- 1 must 2 have (got) to/must 3 must 4 have (got) to/must
- 5 have to/must always 6 MUST 7 Must 8 must

11.9C Expressing necessity in other tenses

- 1 He will have to 2 They have had to 3 she has been having to
- 4 We had already had to 5 I would have had to 6 We are having to/We have been having to

11.9D Context

- 1 have to/must 2 must/have to 3 has to/will have to
- 4 MUST 5 having to 6 should have 7 must/have to/should
- 8 will have to/must/should/has to 9 have to/must 10 should 11 had to

11.10 'It isn't advisable ...'/'It isn't necessary ...'/'It's forbidden ...'**11.10A 'It isn't advisable' → 'It's forbidden': 'a scale of choice'**

- 1b 2c 3d 4a

11.10B 'Mustn't', 'needn't', 'don't have to', 'haven't got to'

- 1 don't have to/needn't/haven't got to
- 2 needn't/don't have to/haven't got to
- 3 doesn't have to/needn't/hasn't got to 4 mustn't
- 5 mustn't 6 needn't always/don't always have to
- 7 needn't/don't have to/haven't got to
- 8 needn't/doesn't have to/hasn't got to
- 9 needn't/don't have to/haven't got to 10 mustn't
- 11 mustn't 12 needn't/don't have to/haven't got to
- 13 mustn't 14 needn't/don't have to/haven't got to
- 15 mustn't 16 needn't

11.10C 'Needn't have', 'didn't have to', 'didn't need to'

- 1 I needn't have phoned 2 I didn't have to phone
- 3 You needn't have brought 4 I didn't have to bring
- 5 I needn't have washed 6 I needn't have cooked

11.10D 'Shouldn't have' and 'oughtn't to have'

- 1 You shouldn't have done that. 2 He shouldn't have done that.
- 3 They shouldn't have done that. 4 She shouldn't have done that.
- 5 You shouldn't have done that

Note: in all these *oughtn't to have done that* can also be used.

11.10E Context

- 1 must not 2 didn't need to 3 shouldn't have
- 4 should have

11.11 Modals to express habit: 'used to', 'will' and 'would'**11.11A The form of 'used to'**

1 didn't 2 did 3 didn't use to/never used to
 4 Did you use to 5 did 6 did 7 did you use to
 8 didn't use to/never used to

11.11B Uses of 'used to'

1 used to go 2 didn't use to (or never used to) like
 3 Did you use to like 4 used to have to 5 I never
 used to enjoy 6 was having 7 used to be
 8 used to be 9 were working 10 Was it raining?

11.11C 'Would' in place of 'used to' and in place of the simple past

The first *used to* (*Gerald used to spend*) sets the scene. After that, the following should be underlined: used to get up (would get up), caught (would catch), put (would put), took ((would) take), always used to go, (would always go) was often (would often be)

11.11D 'Will/would' to describe 'usual behaviour'

1 would always tell 2 will still tell 3 would only discuss
 4 will play 5 would work
 6 won't always tell

11.11E Context

Possible answers

1 was 2 was 3 used to/would 4 loved/used to love
 5 never accepted/would never accept/never used to accept
 6 will always find 7 would/used to say 8 used to/would say
 9 would always be/was always/always used to be
 10 often used to visit/often visited
 11 never used to tire/never tired
 12 would say/said

11.12 'Need' and 'dare' as modals and as full verbs**11.12A 'Need' as a modal and as a full verb**

modal	full verb
1 Need you go ...?	Do you need to go ...?
2 Need I wait ...?	Do I need to wait ...?
3 They needn't wait ...	They don't need to wait ...
4 You needn't have said ...	You didn't need to say ...
5 I hardly need explain ...	I hardly need to explain ...
6 He needn't learn ...	He doesn't need to learn ...
7 All that you need do ...	All that you need to do ...
8 I don't think you need explain	I don't think you need to explain

11.12B The form of 'dare' as a modal and as a full verb

1 daren't/don't dare/don't dare to 2 daren't/didn't dare/didn't dare to/dare(d) not
 3 dare/dare to 4 Dare we/Do we dare/Do we dare to 5 didn't dare/didn't dare to/dare(d) not/daren't
 6 dare 7 daren't/doesn't dare/doesn't dare to 8 daren't have
 9 daren't/didn't dare to/dared not

11.12C Uses of 'dare'

1d 2c 3d 4a 5b 6c 7b 8a 9d 10b
 11b 12d

11.12D Context

1 dared not/did not dare (to) *move* 2 need not *have worried*
 3 dared (to) *breathe* 4 didn't dare to / dare not /dared not *open* 5 need (to) *tell*

11.13 'Would/wouldn't'; 'that ... should'; 'there' + modal**11.13A 'Would' and 'wouldn't' in place of the simple present tense or 'will' future**

1 would be 2 wouldn't be 3 would think
 4 wouldn't seem 5 would be 6 wouldn't imagine
 7 Would that seem

11.13B 'That ... should' after verbs like 'suggest'

Possible answers

1 we should buy (a) 2 we should avoid (a) 3 he not raise (c)
 4 they do not break (b) 5 she should do? (a) 6 we improve (b/c) 7 you take (b/c)
 8 not delay (c) 9 we take (b/c) 10 he should be allowed (a)

11.13C 'That ... should' after adjectives like 'essential'

1 we should send (a) 2 she return (c) 3 he is informed (b) 4 she be (c)

11.13D 'There' + modal auxiliaries

Possible answers

1 could be 2 must be 3 will never be
 4 Couldn't there be 5 Might there be
 6 should there be 7 can't there be

11.13E Context

Possible answers

1 you (should) take 2 you (should) get 3 you begin
 4 could be 5 you (should) follow 6 will be
 7 may be 8 would seem

12 The passive and the causative

12.1 General information about form

12.1A Basic forms of the passive

Write 1:

The following should have been marked P: 1, 3, 6, 9.

Write 2:

- 1 A lot of money is owed to the bank.
- 2 It has been proved that there is no life on the moon.
- 3 Videos like this one can be bought anywhere.
- 4 The history of the European Community has to be written one day.
- 5 The history of the European Community may already have been written.
- 6 When we arrived home, we found that one of our windows had been broken.
- 7 Their car has been sold to pay their debts.
- 8 A meeting is held in the village hall once a week.

12.1B The passive with progressive forms:

'She is being interviewed'

- 1 New employees *are always welcomed* by the manager.
- 2 A new supermarket *is being built* near the church.
- 3 The battle *was fought* in 1623.
- 4 The windows *were being cleaned* while I was there.
- 5 My desk *has been moved!*
- 6 The refugees *are being taken* to a camp outside the village.
- 7 All the documents *had been signed* before I arrived.
- 8 We *were being questioned* and our vehicle *was being searched* at the same time.
- 9 Our letters *will be posted* when the ship arrives at the next port of call.
- 10 The case *is being opened* again because they're not satisfied with the verdict.

12.1C Context

- 1 died 2 was given 3 was attended 4 be held
- 5 lined 6 was drawn 7 followed 8 was given
- 9 watched 10 could be heard 11 turned
- 12 whispered

12.2 Uses of the passive

12.2A Uses of the passive

Possible answers

- 1 has been damaged ... has widened/is widening ... has been investigated
- 2 are visited ... can be arranged

- 3 English Spoken ... Shoes Repaired ... are translated
- 4 are constantly reminded ... is becoming ... are flashed
- 5 are involved ... is hurt ... have to ... are damaged

12.2B The use of 'by' + agent (= 'doer') after a passive

- 1 was sold ... was shown by the general public.
- 2 was composed by Beethoven ... was written
- 3 are being replaced by modern ones ... is not controlled

12.2C The passive with verbs of 'saying' and 'believing': 'It is said (that) ...'

- 1 It is expected 2 It was feared
- 3 (Joyce) is supposed 4 (Jack Smith) is thought
- 5 It is thought 6 There is thought
- 7 (Jim) is considered 8 There are said 9 It is said
- 10 There is/was supposed

12.2D Context

- 1 have been seen 2 is supposed 3 to be shown
- 4 was bought 5 was eventually sold
- 6 was exhibited 7 is/was said 8 must have been disappointed 9 was/had been cleverly made
- 10 was/had been delicately sewn 11 was/had been so skilfully done 12 must have been required

12.3 Form and use of the causative

12.3A Form of the causative: 'have something done'

- 1 decorated 2 looked at 3 tested 4 cut
- 5 photocopied 6 written

12.3B The causative compared with the active and passive

Write 1:

- 1 I'm cleaning 2 It's being cleaned 3 I have it cleaned 4 we had it decorated
- 5 It's being decorated 6 must have your shoes repaired 7 have just been repaired
- 8 I repaired 9 (to have this film) developed and printed 10 to photocopy 11 mends
- 12 It's being photocopied

Write 2:

- 1a She had her best skirt cleaned yesterday.
 b She's having her eyes tested today.
 c She's going to have a tooth extracted tomorrow.
 2a She had two trees planted yesterday.
 b She's having a film developed today.
 c She's going to have two teeth filled tomorrow.
 3a She had her car serviced yesterday.
 b She's having some furniture delivered today.
 c She's going to have her hair done tomorrow.

12.3C 'Get' in the causative: 'get something done'

1 get 2 getting 3 getting 4 get 5 Get

12.3D Context

- 1 have/get it repaired 2 have/get a new washing machine installed 3 have/get it serviced
 4 having/getting films developed and printed
 5 have/get our eyes tested 6 (have/get) our teeth filled 7 (have/get) our chests X-rayed
 8 have/get my hair cut 9 have/get any jobs done

13 Questions, answers, negatives**13.1 Yes/No questions, negative statements, Yes/No answers****13.1A Yes/No questions (expecting 'Yes' or 'No' in the answer)**

- 1 Am I late?
 2 Is this the London train?
 3 Are my photos ready?
 4 Is John working in the garden?
 5 Are the children studying?
 6 Does Jane give piano lessons?
 7 Was Tony enjoying himself?
 8 Do they live in the south?
 9 Should she be here?
 10 Could she ask a question?
 11 Will it be fine tomorrow?
 12 Will your friend be staying?
 13 Would they like an invitation?
 14 Do they often argue like that?
 15 Do you run a mile every morning?
 16 Did Sheila go to the lecture?

13.1B Negative statements

- 1 No, I'm not ready.
 2 No, she isn't (she's not) right.
 3 No, they aren't (they're not) late.
 4 No, I'm not being silly.
 5 No, he isn't (he's not) working in London.
 6 No, they aren't (they're not) playing tennis.
 7 No, you aren't (you're not) going to fail.

- 8 No, she wasn't waiting for me.
 9 No, he can't speak Russian.
 10 No, he won't (he'll not) be leaving soon.
 11 No, it wouldn't be a very good idea.
 12 No, it doesn't look like rain.
 13 No, they don't always win.
 14 No, they didn't miss the last lesson.
 15 No, she hasn't (she's not) always been good at sport.
 16 No, I haven't (I've not) met her.

13.1C Yes/No short answers

Possible answers

- 1 Yes, I am. 2 No, she isn't (she's not). 3 No, they aren't (they're not). 4 Yes, I am. 5 No, she isn't (she's not). 6 Yes, we are. 7 Yes, I am.
 8 No, she wasn't. 9 Yes, they were.
 10 Yes, you should. 11 No, I won't.
 12 No, I wouldn't. 13 Yes, she (still) does.
 14 Yes, I do. 15 No, he didn't. 16 Yes, he has.
 17 No, I haven't. 18 No, she hasn't.

13.1D Context

- 1 Did we turn off/Have we turned off? 2 Yes, we did/Yes, we have 3 Are all the taps off?
 4 Yes, they are 5 haven't remembered/didn't remember 6 Yes, we have/Yes, we did
 7 Are there any windows open? 8 No, there aren't
 9 Are the front and back doors locked?
 10 Yes, they are 11 haven't got

13.2 Alternative negative forms and negative questions**13.2A Negative statements with 'negative adverbs': 'never', etc.**

- 1 I *never* go to the cinema.
 2 She *hardly ever* watches TV.
 3 I *can seldom* get him on the phone.
 4 They *barely* greeted me.
 5 We *scarcely ever* go out.
 6 We *can hardly* wait till tomorrow.
 7 We *rarely* see our neighbours.
 8 It's *scarcely worth* the trouble.
 9 I've *bought no* eggs.
 10 I *spoke to no one*.
 11 I *want none* of them.
 12 She *said nothing*.
 13 We *went nowhere*.
 14 Please *tell nobody*.
 15 She *hardly understands* English.

13.2B Cancelling what has just been said:**'No, not Wednesday'**

Possible answers

- 1 (No,) not Diana, Josephine.
- 2 (No,) not 5, 5.30.
- 3 (No,) not London, Luton.
- 4 (No,) not today, tomorrow.
- 5 (No,) not coffee, tea.
- 6 (No,) not the salt, the pepper.

13.2C Negative questions: 'Can't you ...?'

- 1 Aren't I 2 Isn't she 3 Aren't those 4 Isn't he
- 5 Aren't they 6 Wasn't she 7 Weren't you
- 8 Aren't you 9 Can't you 10 Couldn't you
- 11 Don't you 12 Doesn't she 13 Didn't he
- 14 Haven't you 15 Hasn't he 16 Haven't I
- 17 Shouldn't you 18 Aren't I

13.2D Context

- 1 everyone 2 no one 3 hardly ever 4 no
- 5 anywhere 6 anything 7 nothing

13.3 Tag questions and echo tags**13.3A Tag questions 1: 'It is ..., isn't it?'/ 'It isn't ..., is it?'**

- 1 isn't she? 2 aren't they? 3 aren't I?
- 4 wasn't she? 5 weren't we? 6 haven't you?
- 7 hasn't he? 8 don't I? 9 doesn't she? 10 is she?
- 11 are they? 12 am I? 13 was she? 14 were we?
- 15 have you? 16 has he? 17 do I? 18 does she?

13.3B Tag questions 2: 'You painted it yourself, did you?'

- 1 e 2 c 3 g 4 f 5 b 6 d 7 a

13.3C Echo tags: 'Is he?'/ 'He is?'

Possible answers

- 1 Is he? (rising tone: interest)
- 2 They aren't, are they? (falling tone: confirmation)
- 3 She wasn't was she? (rising tone: surprise, disbelief)
- 4 Weren't you? (rising tone: interest, sympathy)
- 5 He does, doesn't he? (falling tone: confirmation)
- 6 Don't they? (rising tone: interest)
- 7 I shouldn't, should I? (falling tone: confirmation)
- 8 You can, can you? (falling tone: disbelief)
- 9 Can't we? (rising tone: asks for more information)
- 10 There will, won't there? (falling tone: confirmation)

13.3D Context

Possible answers

- 1 do we? 2 has? 3 did you? 4 didn't you? or did you?
- 5 haven't I 6 shouldn't you?
- 7 don't you?

13.4 Additions and responses**13.4A Additions and contrasts: 'John can ... and I can, too/but I can't'**

Possible answers

- 1 Rudi can speak English, and Roxanne can, too.
- 2 Rudi can't speak Italian, but Roxanne can.
- 3 Rudi plays tennis, and so does Roxanne.
- 4 Rudi goes skiing, but Roxanne doesn't.
- 5 Rudi doesn't like classical music, and neither does Roxanne.
- 6 Rudi visited London last year, but Roxanne didn't.
- 7 Rudi doesn't speak Italian, but Roxanne does.
- 8 Rudi didn't visit Rome last year, but Roxanne did.
- 9 Rudi can speak English, and so can Roxanne.
- 10 Rudi plays tennis, and Roxanne does, too.
- 11 Rudi doesn't like classical music, and Roxanne doesn't, either.
- 12 Rudi speaks English, and Roxanne does, too.

13.4B Parallel responses: 'John can ...'/ 'I can, too/ So can I'

- 1 I can, too./So can I.
- 2 I can't, either./Neither (Nor) can I.
- 3 So should I./I should, too.
- 4 I won't, either./Neither (Nor) will I.
- 5 I do, too./So do I.
- 6 I don't, either./Neither (Nor) do I.
- 7 So did I./I did, too.
- 8 I didn't, either./Neither (Nor) did I.
- 9 I was, too./So was I.
- 10 So have I./I have, too.
- 11 Neither (Nor) have I./I haven't, either.
- 12 I did, too./So did I.

13.4C 'So have you' and 'So you have!'

- 1 confirmation/surprise 2 addition 3 addition
- 4 confirmation/surprise 5 confirmation/surprise
- 6 addition

Possible answers

- 7 Jane's got flu. – So have I. (addition)
- 8 She's got egg on her blouse! – So she has! (confirmation/surprise)
- 9 Jack's spoken to the boss. – So has Diana. (addition)
- 10 I've been to Russia. – So have I. (addition)
- 11 Sam's had a haircut at last. – So he has! (confirmation/surprise)
- 12 Jenny's new coat is exactly the same as yours! – So it is! (confirmation/surprise)

13.4D Context

Possible answers

- 1 'I'm not, either' or 'Neither/Nor am I' 2 'I will, too' or 'So will I'
- 3 '... so would I' or '... I would, too'
- 4 'So there is!' 5 'Neither/Nor can I' or 'I can't, either'

13.5 Question-word questions (1): 'Who(m) ...?', 'What ...?'

13.5A Form of question-word questions (except subject questions)

- 1a Is she arriving today? b When is she arriving?
 2a Has he written a letter? b Why has he written a letter?
 3a Can she help us? b How can she help us?
 4a Do they live in Jamaica? b Where do they live?
 5a Does he arrive at 10? b What time does he arrive?
 6a Can't you tell us? b What can't you tell us?

13.5B 'Who(m) ...?' as a question-word

- 1 Who(m) did you invite to your house?
- 2 Who(m) did Jane see this morning?
- 3 Who(m) did you speak to?
- 4 Who(m) did they employ?
- 5 Who(m) did she buy this present for?
- 6 Who(m) did John phone?
- 7 Who(m) did you complain to?
- 8 Who(m) did she write to?

13.5C 'What ...?' as a question-word

Possible answers

- 1 What are you doing?/What are you looking at?
- 2 What do you do (for a living)?
- 3 What (kind/make/sort of) shampoo do you use?
- 4 What's your boss like?
- 5 What was the weather like?
- 6 What's this (called) in English?
- 7 What (make/kind/sort of) car is that?
- 8 What nationality is Ibrahim?
- 9 What time are they leaving?
- 10 What date is it?/What's the date?
- 11 What's that (thing) (for)?

13.5D Context

- 1 What's his name? 2 What's he done this time?
 What did he do? 3 Who(m) did he steal it from?
 4 What date was it? 5 What did you do that for?
 6 What are the chances ... 7 What do you say ...?

13.6 Question-word questions (2): 'When?', 'Where?', 'Which?', 'Whose?'

13.6A 'When ...?' and 'Where ...?' as question-words

Possible answers

- 1 When is (or When's) Jim's birthday?
- 2 Where did you get that T-shirt, Alice?
- 3 When does the coach leave, Mary?
- 4 Where's Kyzy!

13.6B 'Which ...?' as a question-word

Possible answers

- 1 film did you go to?
- 2 books do you prefer?
- 3 soap does Amy use?
- 4 girls did you meet at the party?
- 5 is the longest river in the world?
- 6 desk is the cheapest?
- 7 of these three briefcases do you prefer?
- 8 year will you always remember?
- 9 month is the hottest in Italy?
- 10 way did the boys go?

13.6C 'Whose?'

- 1 Who 2 Whose 3 Who 4 Whose 5 Whose
 6 Whose 7 Whose 8 Whose 9 Who
 10 Whose (or Who)

13.6D Context

- 1 When 2 Who 3 which 4 Whose 5 Where
 6 when 7 Where 8 Which 9 who 10 When

13.7 Question-word questions (3): 'Why?', 'How?'

13.7A 'Why ...?' as a question-word

Possible answers

- 1 are you still downstairs?
- 2 don't we have a party?
- 3 didn't you ask me to help?
- 4 did you ring Jack just now?
- 5 have you bought me these flowers?
- 6 have you got to ring Tony?
- 7 are you in such a hurry?
- 8 don't you leave the job till tomorrow?/Why not leave ...?
- 9 did you go round the back?

13.7B 'How ...?' as a question-word; 'How much?'/ 'How many?'

- 1 How much 2 How much 3 How many
 4 How much 5 How many 6 How many

13.7C 'How' + adjective or adverb: 'How far?'

- 1 How old 2 How deep 3 How far 4 How big
 5 How long 6 How high

13.7D 'How long ... (for)?' and 'How long ago?'

- 1 How long ... (for)? 2 How long ago
 3 How long ago 4 How long ... (for)?

13.7E Social uses of 'How ...?'

- 1 d 2 g 3 c 4 h 5 f 6 e 7 b 8 a

13.7F Context

1 'What do you charge?' or 'What (price) do you charge/are you charging?' 2 'How much space do you want?' 3 'How long do you want it (for)?' 4 'Do you want a box ...?' 5 'Do you want ...?' 6 'How much have you made ...?' 7 'How's your leg ...?' 8 'Why do you ask?' or 'Why are you asking?'

13.8 Subject-questions: 'Who?', 'What?', 'Which', 'Whose?'**13.8A Subject or object?****Write 1:**

1 S 2 O 3 O 4 S 5 S 6 O 7 O 8 S
9 O 10 S 11 O 12 S

Write 2:

Possible answers

- 1 *Who* can play chess? – Mary can.
- 2 *Who* wants to have a day off? – We all do.
- 3 *Who* broke the big glass vase? – I didn't.
- 4 *Who*'ll help tomorrow? – I will.
- 5 *What* made this mark on the table? – A knife (made it)./A knife did.
- 6 *What* will make you happy? – A new car (will make me happy)./A new car will.
- 7 *Which/What* teacher took you for maths? – Mr Johnson (took us)./Mr Johnson did.
- 8 *Which/What* tie goes best with this shirt? – Your blue one (goes best)./Your blue one does.
- 9 *Whose* dog bit you? – My neighbour's (dog)./My neighbour's dog did.
- 10 *Which/What* dog bit you? – The dog which lives next door (did).
- 11 *Whose* suitcase got lost on the journey? – Janet's (suitcase) (did).

Write 3:

Possible answers

- 1 Who can play the guitar?/Which of you can ...?
- 2 Who would like some more coffee?
- 3 What happens in the film?
- 4 Who's coming? Which of you are coming? How many of you are coming?
- 5 Which actor impressed you the most?
- 6 Whose chair is squeaking? Which chair is squeaking?
- 7 Whose car is the blue Fiat?
- 8 Who's coming/Which of you are coming on an excursion with me?

13.8B Context

Possible answers

- 1 Who composed ...? 2 What songs did he compose? 3 Which party will/would win ...?
- 4 Who will/would be ...? 5 What are/were the papers saying? 6 Which papers are/were ...?
- 7 Which country has/had ...? 8 Whose system does/did ...? 9 What does/did Mr Berlin think ...?

13.9 Questions about alternatives; emphatic questions with 'ever'**13.9A Questions about alternatives (1): 'Did you laugh, or cry?'**

- 1 Did they listen to records, or go for a walk?
- 2 Can she dance, (or) sing, or play the piano?
- 3 Do you buy clothes when you need them, or wait for the summer sales?
- 4 Has she gone to church, or stayed at home?
- 5 Will you phone her, or wait till she rings back?

13.9B Questions about alternatives (2): 'Did you take it, or didn't you?'

- 1a Do you like fish, or don't you?
b Do you or don't you like fish?
c Do you like fish, or not?
- 2a Can you help me, or can't you?
b Can you or can't you help me?
c Can you help me, or not?
- 3a Have you sent a card, or haven't you?
b Have you or haven't you sent a card?
c Have you sent a card, or not?
- 4a Will you phone the plumber, or won't you?
b Will you or won't you phone the plumber?
c Will you phone the plumber, or not?

13.9C Emphatic questions with 'ever', etc.

- 1 Who ever 2 Why ever 3 When ever
- 4 What ever 5 Where ever 6 How ever
- 7 How ever

These answers could also be expressed with *Who on earth*, etc.

13.9D Context

Possible answers

- 1 What ever 2 What ever/on earth 3 whenever
- 4 'Have you broken down, or run out of petrol?'
- 5 'Have you tried to start it, or not?' 6 have you or haven't you?

14 Conditional sentences

14.1 Type 1 conditionals

14.1A Type 1 conditionals, basic uses: 'If the weather clears, we'll go for a walk'

1 is ... will go/will be going 2 have ... will finish
 3 rains ... will not (won't) be able to 4 is leaving ...
 will ask 5 has driven ... will be 6 have been
 working ... will probably need 7 can't finish ... will try
 8 is picked ... will be boasting 9 have forgotten ... will
 have gone 10 stay ... will have been living

14.1B 'If' + present + modal: 'If it's fine tomorrow, we may go for a swim'

Possible answers

1 are ... ought to 2 finish ... could 3 has ... must
 4 is not coming ... might 5 has only just
 arrived ... may 6 have been waiting ... must
 7 can't go ... should

14.1C 'If + should' instead of 'if + present'

1 If you *should* see him ... 2 If she *should* ask you ...
 3 If he *should* phone ... 4 If the temperature
should fall ... 5 If you *should* receive ... 6 If you
should go out ...

14.1D Imperative + 'and/or' + clause: 'Fail to pay and ...'

1 *Ask me* nicely and I'll ...
 2 *Crash* my car and I'll ...
 3 *Work* late tonight and ...
 4 *Hurry*, or you'll ...
 5 *Take* a taxi, or you'll ...
 6 *Stop* shouting, or I'll ...

14.1E Context

1 is 2 should be 3 might be 4 must be 5 Go

14.2 Type 2 conditionals

14.2A Type 2 conditionals, basic uses: 'If you went by train, you would ...'

1 If I *had* a spare ticket, I *could/would* take you to the
 concert.
 2 If she *didn't* drink too/so much coffee, she *would*
feel calm(er).
 3 If he *could* type, he *would be able* to operate a
 computer.
 4 If they *understood* (or *they could understand*) the
 problem, they *would find* a solution.
 5 If he *didn't* sit around too/so much, he *would be*
 fit(ter).

14.2B 'If + were/was' + 'would': 'If I were you, I would ...'

Possible answers

1 If she *were* in your position, she *would be able* to
 advise you.
 2 If I *wasn't/weren't* in a hurry, I *would stay* to dinner.
 3 If he *were* a millionaire, he *would(n't)* buy you a
 palace.
 4 If the weather *was/were* sunny, we *wouldn't* stay
 indoors.
 5 If I *was/were* fit, I *would* go climbing.
 Or: If I *wasn't/weren't* fit, I *wouldn't* go climbing.

14.2C 'If' + past + modal: 'If he knew the facts, he might ...'

Possible answers

1 *were* (or *was*) ... *could* give 2 *failed* ... *ought*
 to think 3 *could* play ... *could* help 4 *had* ... *might*
 be able to 5 *could* have ... *might* improve
 6 *ran* ... *could* be 7 *went* ... *ought* to visit
 8 *borrowed* ... *ought* to return 9 *wanted* ... *could* ask

14.2D Context

1 *would* we be doing 2 *was/were* not shining
 3 *wouldn't* be lying 4 *would* we do/*would*
 we be doing 5 *were* 6 *were* rich 7 *could*
 travel 8 *we had* 9 *could* drive 10 *we were*
 11 *We would* return 12 *would* put out/*would* be
 putting out 13 *would* prepare/*would* be preparing
 14 *would* 15 *we owned* 16 *we would* also have
 17 *we had* 18 *we could* swim 19 *we were* 20 *we*
 could lie/*we could* be lying

14.3 Type 3 conditionals

14.3A Type 3 conditionals, basic uses: 'If you had gone by train, ...'

Possible answers

1 If John *hadn't* eaten too/so much birthday cake, he
wouldn't have been sick.
 2 If we *hadn't* run out of money, we *wouldn't* have
 come home from our holiday early.
 3 If the fire brigade *hadn't* come immediately, the
 house *would have burnt* down.
 4 If the men *hadn't* been wearing protective clothing,
 they *wouldn't* have all been safe.
 5 If I *had been* watching the road, I *wouldn't* have
 had an accident.
 6 If it *hadn't* been so hot, I *wouldn't* have been
 sweating.
 7 If my father *had earned* more money, life *would*
 have been easy/easier for us.
 8 If I *had enjoyed* school, I *would have done* better.

14.3B 'If I had been you/If I had been in your position'

Possible answers

- 1 *If I had been Marie, I wouldn't have paid £200 for a/that dress.*
- 2 *If I had been Franz, I would have taken that job.*
- 3 *If I had been in Ali's position, I would have studied more.*
- 4 *If I had been Sandra, I wouldn't have walked to work in the rain.*

14.3C 'If' + past perfect + modal: 'If he had known the facts, he might have ...'

Possible answers

- 1 had managed ... could have driven
- 2 had known ... could have visited
- 3 had not wanted ... might have missed
- 4 had asked ... might have helped
- 5 had been ... could have stayed
- 6 might have been ... hadn't known
- 7 might have made ... had not read
- 8 could have had ... had not been
- 9 had fastened ... mightn't have been
- 10 mightn't have heard ... hadn't turned on
- 11 could have seen ... might have laughed
- 12 had told ... could have lent
- 13 could have saved ... had known
- 14 might have played ... had had

14.3D Context

- 1 had been
- 2 would/could/might have killed
- 3 had been driving
- 4 wouldn't have been
- 5 had known
- 6 would have kept
- 7 had known
- 8 wouldn't have been driving
- 9 hadn't been
- 10 would/might/could be (*or: would/might/could have been*)

14.4 Mixed conditionals; 'unless/if ... not', etc.**14.4A Mixed tenses in conditional sentences**

Possible answers

- 1 *If I were you ... I would have checked*
- 2 *If you are so hungry, you shouldn't have missed*
- 3 *If he didn't catch ... he won't arrive*
- 4 *He will be feeling ... if he played*
- 5 *If the snake bite had been poisonous, you'd feel*
- 6 *If I were ... I would have answered*

14.4B 'If not' and 'unless'**Write 1:**

The following sentences need ticks: 1, 2 and 5.

Write 2:

- 1 *Unless you tell me/If you don't tell me*
- 2 *if he didn't have*
- 3 *– unless we had broken*
- 4 *Unless management and unions become/If union and management do not become*
- 5 *unless I get held up/if I don't get held up*
- 6 *Unless we have/If we*

don't have 7 *If you hadn't warned***14.4C Conjunctions we can sometimes use in place of 'if'**

- 1 *Even if you gave me \$10,000, I still wouldn't go down a coal mine.*
- 2 *I'll lend you my book on (the) condition (that) you let me have it back by Monday.*
- 3 *Providing (that) you look after it, I'll let you keep my bicycle till the weekend.*
- 4 *So long as you don't tell anyone else, I'll tell you what happened.*
- 5 *Assuming (that) it's a holiday on Monday, we can drive to the seaside.*
- 6 *The children were never scolded, so long as they did what they were told.*

14.4D Context

- 1 are
- 2 (will) live
- 3 would/should have died (*or: might/could have died*)
- 4 will feel
- 5 will be
- 6 could live
- 7 would you do
- 8 would have eaten
- 9 could change/could have changed
- 10 would you change/would you have changed
- 11 had known
- 12 would have looked after

15 Direct and indirect speech**15.1 Direct speech****15.1A Quotation marks and other punctuation marks**

- 1 'John's in a hurry.'
- 2 'Have you been out?'
- 3 'Where are my glasses?'
- 4 'What a surprise!'
- 5 'How are you?'
- 6 'It's unbelievable!'
- 7 'There's someone at the door.'
- 8 'What a noise!'
- 9 'When did you arrive?'
- 10 'Tell me what happened.'
- 11 'Don't shout at me!'
- 12 'Have a cup of coffee.'
- 13 'How do you like your coffee?'
- 14 'Have you met Jean?'
- 15 'Keep quiet!'
- 16 'Stop!'
- 17 'Are you all right?'
- 18 'I'm waiting for a bus.'
- 19 'Here's a letter for you.'
- 20 'Haven't we met before?'

Note: double quotation marks (" ... ") can, of course, also be used.

15.1B Quotation marks and 'reporting verbs'

- 1 'Where do you come from?' John asked.
- 2 'It's here,' Bill said.
- 3 'I've got a good idea, (or !)' Mark said.
- 4 'Is it something,' she asked, 'that we all ought to know?'
- 5 'As I was leaving,' he explained, 'I heard someone shout.'
- 6 'Don't shout at me!' he cried.
- 7 John said, 'We're late.'
- 8 'We're late,' John said.
- 9 'What's the time?' Andrew asked.
- 10 Bill said, 'I'm hungry.'
- 11 'What is it?' Jill asked.
- 12 'You are stupid sometimes!' she said.
- 13 'Where is he?' Tom asked.
- 14 'What a surprise!' she exclaimed.
- 15 'Is there anyone in?' she inquired.
- 16 'Which way did they go?' he asked.
- 17 Tom said, 'She's ill.'
- 18 'She's ill,' Tom said.

Note: double quotation marks can also be used.

15.1C 'Quote within a quote'

- 1 'As I was leaving,' he explained, 'someone shouted, "Fire!"'
- 2 'Please don't keep asking me, "What's the time?"' Jim said crossly.
- 3 'Have you read "Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?"' my teacher asked.
- 4 'What do you mean, "Have you lost your way?"' the stranger asked me.
- 5 Where are they now, he wondered.

Note: double quotation marks can also be used for single and vice versa.

15.1D Context

- 1 'It's all lies!' Boyle cried.
- 2 'You think so?' Inspector Wiley asked mildly.
- 3 'Think so? I know it!' Boyle answered sharply.
- 4 'And no doubt,' the inspector continued, 'you can prove it. Where were you on Saturday night, the night of the robbery?'
- 5 'I was at the Roxy with my girlfriend,' Boyle replied. 'We saw "Gone with the Wind". The film lasted four hours.'
- 6 'But,' cried the inspector, 'the Roxy was closed all last weekend!'

Note: Double quotation marks can also be used for single and vice versa.

15.2 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask'**15.2A 'Say', 'tell' and 'ask'**

- 1 says 2 tells 3 ask 4 asked 5 said 6 said
- 7 asked 8 said 9 told 10 asked 11 asked
- 12 ask 13 tell 14 asked 15 tell 16 says 17 told
- 18 said 19 tells 20 ask

15.2B Fixed expressions with 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'

- 1 'I told you so' 2 Ask the price 3 Say no more
- 4 ask for 5 Say nothing 6 says so 7 tell the time
- 8 tell a lie

15.2C Indirect statements with the reporting verb in the present

- 1 she's going to America for six months.
- 2 they went to Rhodes last year.
- 3 she's not (or she isn't) feeling well.
- 4 she'll look at your work in a minute.
- 5 she's typed those letters.
- 6 we must investigate this case.
- 7 the last strike did no one any good.
- 8 turn off the electricity at the mains.
- 9 you have to rub down the walls.
- 10 she's good at flower arranging.

15.2D Context

- 1 are always saying 2 asked 3 said 4 told
- 5 says 6 asked 7 say 8 said 9 says 10 told
- 11 asked (or said) 12 said 13 told

15.3 Indirect statements with tense changes**15.3A Common indirect speech forms**

- 1 Mac said (*that*) *he needed a holiday.*
- 2 Sue said (*that*) *she wasn't wasting her time.*
- 3 Tom said (*that*) *he had had (or he'd had) some good news.*
- 4 Pam said (*that*) *she had (or she'd) been sleeping.*
- 5 Lou said (*that*) *(s)he went (or had gone) home early.*
- 6 Jan said (*that*) *(s)he was (or had been) waiting for me/us.*
- 7 Joe said (*that*) *he had (or he'd) eaten earlier.*
- 8 Pat said (*that*) *(s)he had (or (s)he'd) been waiting for me/us.*
- 9 Tim said (*that*) *he would (or he'd) see me/us later.*
- 10 Dot said (*that*) *she could speak French.*
- 11 Kim said (*that*) *(s)he might arrive later.*
- 12 Ron said (*that*) *he would (or he'd) speak to him.*
- 13 Meg asked whether *she should speak to him.*
- 14 Ted said (*that*) *he could help me/us.*
- 15 Ann said (*that*) *she might see him.*
- 16 Jim said (*that*) *he would (or he'd) enjoy that.*
- 17 Sam said (*that*) *he must have fainted.*

15.3A (continued)

- 18 Don said *(that) he couldn't have said that.*
 19 Ned said *(that) he needn't have gone there.*
 20 Lyn said *(that) she ought to have helped her.*
 21 Lee said *(that) (s)he should go to the dentist's.*
 22 Dan said *(that) if he were me he would get legal advice.*
 23 Paul said *(that) he must (or had to) catch an early train.*
 24 Jill said *(that) she must (or had to) speak to me/us.*
 25 Bill said *(that) he must (or would have to) leave tomorrow.*
 26 Jane said *(that) she must (or would have to) work till late.*
 27 Phil said *(that) John must be a fool.*
 28 Jean said *(that) she mustn't (or couldn't) eat meat.*
 29 Jeff said *(that) they mustn't (or couldn't) give up.*

15.3B Pronoun and adverb changes in indirect speech

No exercise here.

15.3C Context

- 1 Dr Grey said *(that) she had conducted a number of tests.*
 2 She told me *(that) she must (or had to/would have to) put me on a very strict diet.*
 3 She said *(that) I was putting on a lot of weight.*
 4 She added *(that) I had gained 5.5 kilos in six months.*
 5 She reminded me *(that) I (had) gained 10 kilos last year/the year before.*
 6 She told me *(that) I would get very fat if I went on like this/that.*
 7 She said *(that) I should eat very little.*
 8 I said nervously *(that) I would have to live on nuts and water.*
 9 She said *(that) I could live on nuts and water without the nuts.*

15.4 Indirect questions with tense changes**15.4A Indirect Yes/No questions: 'He asked me if I was ready'**

- 1 if/whether we were hungry.
 2 if/whether I was enjoying myself.
 3 if/whether I (or we) always went to church on Sunday.
 4 if/whether I had seen John recently.
 5 if/whether Debbie had been working (t)here long.
 6 if/whether I (or we) had studied hard for the exam.
 7 if/whether Ted and Alice would be at the party.
 8 if/whether I (or we) would be coming to the concert or not.
 9 if/whether I liked Italian food.
 10 if/whether I liked (or we liked) Italian food.

15.4B Indirect question-word questions: 'He asked me why I went there'

- 1 what the weather was like.
 2 what Frank did for a living.
 3 why Maria was crying.
 4 what kind of holiday Marco had had.
 5 how long we had both been living (t)here.
 6 where they had gone last week (or the week before).
 7 who I had been looking for.
 8 when lunch would be ready.
 9 which countries John would be visiting.
 10 how I could solve the problem.

15.4C Indirect subject-questions

- 1 who was next.
 2 what made (or makes) a noise like that.
 3 which of us was waiting to see him next.
 4 whose composition we hadn't heard yet.
 5 who left this bag here.
 6 what caused the accident?
 7 which newspaper carried the article.
 8 whose painting will win the competition.
 9 which firms have won prizes for exports.
 10 which number could/can be divided by three.

15.4D Context

- 1 was 2 what the problem was 3 was/had been
 4 kept/had kept/had been keeping
 5 hadn't/hadn't been 6 didn't keep/hadn't kept/hadn't been keeping 7 was/had been 8 I spent/had spent/had been spending 9 told 10 went/had gone/had been going 11 did not have/had not had 12 told 13 was/had been 14 smoked 15 smoked 16 took/had taken/had been taking 17 did not have/hadn't had

15.5 Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech**15.5A Reporting the imperative: 'He reminded me to post the letter'**

- 1 I *told him to wait for me.*
 2 She *advised him to go on holiday when the weather got (or gets) warmer.*
 3 She *warned them to keep out of this (or that) room at all times.*
 4 He *reminded me to post those letters.*
 5 He *asked them not to go into his study.*
 6 I *told him not to wait for me.*
 7 She *advised him not to go on holiday yet.*
 8 She *warned them never to enter this (or that) room.*

15.5B Offers, suggestions, requests for advice:**'He asked if he should ...'**

- 1 ... *if/whether she should fax* the information to them.
... *whether to fax* the information to them.
- 2 ... *if/whether he should leave* a message for her.
... *whether to leave* a message for her.
- 3 ... *if/whether she should heat* the food for him.
... *whether to heat* the food for him.
- 4 ... *if/whether he should phone* him now.
... *whether to phone* him now
- 5 ... *if/whether she should invite* them to dinner.
... *whether to invite* them to dinner.

15.5C Requests for advice with question-words:**'He wanted to know how ...'**

- 1 ... *when she should be* at the station.
... *when to be* at the station.
- 2 ... *where they should have their* meeting.
... *where to have* their meeting.
- 3 ... *which he should choose*.
... *which to choose*.
- 4 ... *who(m) she should ask*.
... *who(m) to ask*.
- 5 ... *what he should do*.
... *what to do*.
- 6 ... *why she should pay* this bill.
- 7 ... *whose car he should borrow*.
... *whose car to borrow*.
- 8 ... *why she should be* punished.

15.5D Context

1 what to do/what they should do 2 advised them to shovel 3 told them not to leave 4 how to get rid/how we should get rid 5 what to do/what we should do

15.6 When we use indirect speech**15.6A Interpreting direct speech**

Possible answers

- 1 Diana suggested (that) we (should) go sailing.
- 2 Tom told Jennifer (that) she had just won a lottery. She was amazed.
- 3 Gillian agreed with Frank when he observed that more money should be spent on education.
- 4 John told Jenny (that) he didn't think she should take up wind-surfing at her age. She disagreed, and said (that) she felt it was (*or is*) a sport that would suit all ages. When John pointed out that it required (*or requires*) great physical strength, Jenny asked, rather indignantly, who (had) told him she was short of that.

5 Billy's mother warned him not to go too near the lions' cage, but Billy protested that he wanted to see the lions close up. When his mother asked him if this wasn't close enough, he replied that it wasn't. She told him that she was sorry, but ordered him not to go any closer. When he continued to insist that he wanted to, she repeated the order.

6 Dr Grey told Mrs Flynn that she really must keep to her diet if she was serious about losing weight. When Dr Grey asked her if she had been keeping to it, she hesitated and muttered something in reply. After Dr Grey had repeated her question, Mrs Flynn confessed that she had occasionally had a bit extra. When asked to explain what she meant, she reluctantly admitted that she meant 'a cream cake or two'.

7 When Sandra asked Sam if/whether he (had) enjoyed the film, he replied that he wasn't sure. Sandra said she thought Gloria Glean's performance had been fantastic, but Sam hadn't liked it at all. Sandra was surprised to hear this.

15.6B Context

1 told 2 ... are/were 3 me 4 is/was 5 leave/left 6 advised 7 not to make 8 said 9 went 10 (had) recently checked out 11 (had) objected 12 was 13 was leaving 14 told 15 said/protested, etc. 16 said/pointed out, etc. 17 was/is

16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form**16.1 The bare infinitive and the to-infinitive****16.1A Forms of the infinitive**

1 leave 2 be studying 3 have done 4 have been waiting 5 be sent 6 have been done

16.1B 'Let', 'make', 'would rather/sooner' and 'had better'

1 go 2 not stay/Don't let's stay 3 go out 4 go/Let's not go 5 be 6 post 7 wear 8 clear up 9 look 10 to scrub 11 go ... do 12 not have 13 stay 14 not say 15 go

16.1C The infinitive with or without 'to' after 'help' and 'know'

- 1 *helped (me) (to) find* this book.
- 2 *(me) (to) fill in* this job application form?
- 3 *help you not to worry* so much.
- 4 *is known to be* a very generous man.
- 5 *to be* a ruthless businessman.
- 6 *known her (to) be* on time.

16.1D Context

1 made to wear 2 let us wear 3 made us change
4 (to) be 5 made me suffer 6 'Let's expand
7 made the shoes expand 8 helped me (to) get

16.2 The bare infinitive or the '-ing' form; the to-infinitive**16.2A Verbs of perception: 'Watch him draw/drawing'**

1 *her cross* the road.
2 *her crossing* the road.
3 *something burning*.
4 *sing* a song.
5 *her shouting* at the children.
6 *waiting* near the bank.

16.2B 'Have' + object: 'Have the next patient come in'

1 bring 2 drawing 3 know 4 believe 5 ringing
6 laughing 7 playing 8 look at 9 marching
10 happen (or happening)

16.2C '(Not) to', 'so as (not) to', 'in order (not) to'

1 to do/in order to do/so as to do 2 so as not to/in
order not to splash 3 to sit 4 to see 5 to find
6 never to return 7 to go 8 to have been 9 to see
10 to have forgotten 11 not to feed 12 didn't tell us
to feed

16.2D Context

1 running 2 bring 3 not to let 4 complaining
5 race/racing 6 disappear/disappearing
7 not to leave 8 to find

16.3 Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive**16.3A 'He can't afford to buy it'**

1 He *can't afford to buy* a car.
2 I *failed to pass* my driving test.
3 He's *offering to pay* for all of us.
4 Can you *manage to move* the desk on your own?
5 He's just *applied to join* the army.
6 I *refuse to apologize* to her.

16.3B 'I want (you) to speak to him'

Possible answers

1 you to speak to him.
2 her parents to pay.
3 you to write to them.
4 anyone to know about it.
5 you to listen to me?
6 two people to help me.
7 help (us) (to) move it.

16.3C 'He advised me to take out a loan'

1 me to take out a loan.
2 her to peel the potatoes.
3 us to work hard.
4 the soldiers to fire.
5 you to apply for free travel.
6 the public not to approach this man.
7 my wife and me to play tennis.

16.3D 'I know him to be an honest man'

1 People *know him to be* an honest man.
2 I *imagine him to work* very hard.
3 I *believe her to be* guilty.
4 I *found the job to be* too difficult.
5 We *discovered the claim to be* false.
6 I *know her to have* an interest in the company.

16.3E 'I agreed to accept their offer'

1 I *agreed to accept* the offer.
2 I *hope to succeed*.
3 I *expect to hear* from you.
4 He *claimed to have met* me.
5 I *arranged to be* there.
6 She *pretended not to know* me.

16.3F Context

1 wanted me to get rid of 2 failed to move
3 advised me to use 4 considered this to be
5 agreed to try 6 managed to get 7 proved to be
8 what to do 9 couldn't bear to shoot 10 took six of
us an hour to get

16.4 Adjectives and nouns + to-infinitive**16.4A Adjective + 'to': 'It was kind (of him) to help us'**

1 He was *foolish to leave* the firm.
2 You would be *stupid not to ask* for more money.
3 Would you be *so good as to ring* me later?
4 Would you be *good enough to open* the window?
5 It was *clever of him to work out* (or *to have worked out*) the answer.
6 It's *silly of them not to take any part in local life*.
7 It would *look rude to refuse* their invitation.
8 Wasn't it *good of her to work overtime*?
9 He's *eager to help us in any way he can*.
10 I was *careful not to offend* them.

16.4B Adjectives with 'too/enough': 'too weak/not strong enough to'

- 1a I'm *not strong enough* to lift it.
b I'm *too weak* to lift it.
- 2a I'm *not rich enough* to afford one.
b I'm *too poor* to afford one.
- 3a She *isn't old enough* to drive a car.
b She's *too young* to drive a car.
- 4a I *wasn't interested enough* to watch the film.
b I was *too bored* (or e.g. *uninterested*) to watch the film.
- 5a The pie *isn't cool enough* to eat.
b The pie is *too hot* to eat.
- 6a The film *wasn't interesting* (or e.g. *exciting*) *enough* to watch.
b The film was *too boring* to watch.

16.4C Noun + to-infinitive: 'My decision to wait was wise'

- 1 My *decision to wait* was wise.
2 His *refusal to help* surprised us.
3 Her *failure to get into college* disappointed her parents.
4 It's a *pleasure to be* with you.
5 Their *eagerness to help* pleased me.
6 My *determination to pass the test* helped me.
7 My *willingness to co-operate* was appreciated.

16.4D Context

- 1 to see 2 to see 3 to move 4 as to help me
5 to help 6 to please 7 to have disturbed
8 to run away 9 to give 10 to send

16.5 The '-ing' form**16.5A Basic information about the '-ing' form****A1 The gerund as an uncountable noun in general statements**

- 1 Dancing 2 Being 3 Not being 4 riding
5 reading 6 Driving 7 Not being 8 Running
9 cycling 10 Acting

A2 The gerund as an uncountable noun with 'some', 'a lot of', 'a little', etc.

- 1 reading 2 ironing 3 shopping 4 swimming
5 regretting 6 shouting 7 fighting 8 singing
9 encouraging 10 gardening

A3 The gerund as an uncountable noun after prepositions

- 1 cutting 2 digging 3 boxing 4 sleeping
5 making 6 computing 7 gardening 8 arguing
9 retiring 10 complaining

A4 The gerund as an uncountable noun after adjectives and possessives

- 1 thinking 2 thinking 3 refusing 4 not knowing
5 violin playing 6 cooking 7 training 8 shouting
9 singing 10 breathing

A5 The gerund as an uncountable noun after 'no' in prohibitions

- 1 parking 2 camping 3 waiting 4 smoking
5 trespassing 6 fishing

A6 The gerund as a countable noun in the singular and plural

- 1 a painting 2 paintings 3 A Leonardo drawing
4 Leonardo drawings 5 a new recording
6 a banging 7 a ringing 8 recordings 9 a turning
10 turnings

A7 The gerund after 'the', 'this' and 'these'

- 1 cooking 2 shopping 3 burning 4 writing
5 drawings 6 turning 7 making 8 recording
9 paintings 10 recordings

A8 The gerund followed by an object

- 1 repairing 2 Eating 3 Running 4 doing 5 giving
6 Digging 7 changing 8 Making 9 making
10 making

A9 Perfect gerund forms, active

- 1 having disturbed 2 having taken 3 having lost
4 your having helped 5 having worked

A10 Perfect gerund forms, passive

- 1 his having been fired 2 his having been promoted
3 having been dismissed 4 having been found out
5 having been posted

16.5B Context.

- 1 cooking 2 eating 3 Working 4 sitting
5 smoking 6 eating 7 smoking 8 breathing
9 Cultivating 10 exporting 11 flavouring
12 adding 13 shopping 14 using 15 having eaten
16 Being 17 living

16.6 Verb + the '-ing' form**16.6A 'I deny taking it'**

Possible answers

- 1 making 2 living 3 being questioned 4 taking
5 having missed 6 fishing ... fishing 7 cleaning
8 mending

16.6B 'Start him working'

- 1f 2c 3b 4d 5a 6e 7h 8g

16.6C 'We appreciate your helping us'

1f 2b 3d 4e 5a 6c

16.6D 'I can't imagine my mother(s) approving'

Possible answers

- 1 I can't excuse *her not answering* our invitation.
- 2 You must pardon *my/me not getting up*.
- 3 Would you mind *Jane/Jane's practising* in the room next to yours?
- 4 I can't bear *him/his whistling* when I'm trying to concentrate.
- 5 They can't prevent *us/our escaping*.
- 6 Please forgive *Jim/Jim's arriving* so late.
- 7 I really miss *you/your bringing* me breakfast in bed.
- 8 Fancy *you/your meeting* Miss Smithers!

16.6E Context

1 flying 2 letting 3 you flying 4 travelling
 5 learning 6 flying 7 doing 8 me (or my) asking
 9 your (or you) flying? 10 anyone (or anyone's) disapproving

16.7 Adjectives, nouns and prepositions + '-ing'**16.7A Adjectives + '-ing' form (gerund) or to-infinitive**

We can use *-ing* or the *to*-infinitive in all these sentences:

1 finding/to find 2 telling/to tell 3 being told/to be told 4 finding/to find 5 helping/to help 6 driving/to drive 7 finding/to find 8 arranging/to arrange

16.7B Adjective + '-ing' form (participle)

- 1 John gets *bored watching* TV all the time.
- 2 Sylvia is *frantic getting* ready for the wedding.
- 3 I got *tired waiting* so long for an answer.
- 4 Jane's *occupied making* lists.
- 5 We're *busy decorating* our house.

16.7C Common expressions followed by '-ing'

1 It's no good complaining 2 It's just not worth worrying 3 There's no point in trying 4 What's the use of apologizing? 5 There's nothing worse than owing

16.7D Preposition + '-ing'**D1 Preposition + '-ing'**

1 paying 2 shouting 3 pulling 4 trying

D2 Adjective + preposition + '-ing'

1 acting 2 playing 3 complaining 4 sailing
 5 riding 6 disturbing 7 sewing 8 missing
 9 finding 10 understanding

D3 Verb + preposition + '-ing'

1 doing 2 working 3 stealing 4 disturbing
 5 passing 6 trying 7 entering 8 entering
 9 helping 10 interrupting 11 losing 12 stealing
 13 succeeding 14 seeing 15 getting 16 asking

16.7E The '-ing' form after 'to' as a preposition

- 1 I'm *used to doing* all my own shopping.
- 2 I'm *accustomed to living* on my own.
- 3 I *object to being kept* waiting.
- 4 I *look forward to seeing* you soon.
- 5 He's *resorted to writing* begging letters.
- 6 I'm *resigned to being criticized*.

16.7F Context

1 to appreciate/appreciating 2 playing
 3 playing 4 playing 5 whispering 6 finding
 7 sitting 8 sitting 9 rattling

16.8 The to-infinitive or the '-ing' form?**16.8A Verb + to-infinitive or '-ing': no change in meaning: 'begin to read/reading'**

1 to work/working 2 to think 3 to talk/talking
 4 to eat/eating 5 to go/going 6 to see/seeing
 7 to play/playing 8 to tell/telling 9 to understand

16.8B Verb + to- or '-ing': some changes in meaning: 'I love to read/reading'

1 watching/to watch (same meaning)
 2 waiting (in general) is preferable 3 to tell
 4 waiting 5 eating ... eating 6 to have 7 to come

16.8C Verb + to- or '-ing': different meanings: 'remember to post/posting'

1a visiting 1b to lock 1c to phone 2a being
 2b to find out 2c to go 3a to stop 3b drinking
 4a to look 4b talking 5a dancing 5b to take
 6a to tell 6b staying

16.8D Context

1 delivering 2 pushing 3 to push 4 pushing
 5 having 6 opening 7 using