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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**

1. The sentence
   - Sentence word order 1
   - The simple sentence 4
   - The compound sentence 10
   - The complex sentence 12
   - Introduction 12
   - Noun clauses 13
   - Relative pronouns and clauses 16
   - Adverbial clauses 24
   - Participle constructions 30

2. Nouns
   - One-word nouns 34
   - Compound nouns 35
   - Countable/uncountable nouns 38
   - Number (singular and plural) 43
   - Gender 49
   - The genitive 51

3. Articles
   - General information 55
     - The indefinite article a/an 57
     - The definite article the 61
     - The zero article 65

4. Pronouns
   - General information 72
     - Personal pronouns 73
     - One 76
     - It 78
     - Possessive adjectives/pronouns 80
     - Reflexive pronouns 82
     - Demonstrative adjectives/pronouns 85
     - Indefinite pronouns 86

5. Quantity
   - General introduction 88
     - Particular quantifiers 91
     - Distributives 98

6. Adjectives
   - Formation of adjectives 106
     - Types of adjectives and their uses 107
     - The comparison of adjectives 116

7. Adverbs
   - General information 122
     - The comparison of adverbs 123
     - Adverbs of manner 124
     - Adverbs of place 127
     - Adverbs of time 128
   - Adverbs of frequency 133
   - Adverbs of degree 135
   - Intensifies 139
   - Focus adverbs 141
   - Viewpoint adverbs and connectives 142
   - Inversion after adverbs 142

8. Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs
   - General information 144
     - Movement and position 146
     - Time 149
     - Particular uses 150
     - Verb + preposition/particle 152

9. Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives
   - General information 159
     - The sequence of tenses 161
     - Simple present 162
     - Present progressive 164
     - Simple past 166
     - Past progressive 170
     - Simple present perfect 171
     - Simple past perfect 174
     - Present/past perfect progressive 176
     - Simple future 178
     - Future progressive 180
     - Future perfect simple/progressive 181
     - The ‘going to’ future 181
     - Other ways of expressing the future 183
     - Future-in-the-past 184
     - The imperative 184

10. Be, Have, Do
    - General introduction 187
       - Be, Have, Do as auxiliary verbs 187
       - Be as a full verb 188
       - There + be 194
       - Verbs related in meaning to be 196
       - Have (‘possess’) and have got 198
       - Have (something other than ‘possess’) 201
       - Do as a full verb 204

11. Modal auxiliaries and related verbs
    - General characteristics 207
       - Ability 212
       - Permission and prohibition 215
       - Certainty and possibility 216
       - Deduction 221
Offers, requests, suggestions 222
Wishes wish and if only 224
Preference would rather/would sooner 226
Advisability, duty, necessity 227
Lack of necessity, prohibition 231
Habit 234
Dare 236
Other uses of modal auxiliaries 237

The passive and the causative 241
General information about form 243
Uses of the passive 246
The causative 249

Questions, answers, negatives 249
Yes/No questions negative statements 252
Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers 255
Alternative negative forms 258
Negative questions and Yes/No short answers 262
Tag questions and Yes/No short answers 265
Statement questions and Yes/No short answers 268
Echo tags 271
Additions and responses 274
Question-word questions form and use 277
Particular question-words and their uses 279
Question-word questions subject-questions 282
Questions about alternatives 284
Emphatic questions with ever 287

Conditional sentences 273
General information 276
Type 1 conditionals 279
Type 2 conditionals 282
Type 3 conditionals 285
Other uses of if and similar conjunctions 288
Will and would after if 290

Direct and indirect speech 284
Direct speech 287
Say, tell and ask 289
Indirect statements reporting verb in the present 292
Indirect statements with tense changes 295
Indirect statements with mixed tense sequences 297
Indirect Yes/No questions 299
Indirect question-word questions 301
Indirect subject-questions 303
Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech 305
When we use indirect speech 307

The infinitive and the -ing form 291
The bare infinitive 294
The infinitive with or without to 296
Bare infinitive or -ing form? 298
The to-infinitive 299
Verb (+ noun/pronoun) + to-infinitive 301
Verb + to-infinitive or (that-) clause 303
Adjective + to-infinitive 305
Noun + to-infinitive 307
The -ing form 309
Verb + -ing form 311
Adjectives and nouns + -ing form 313
Prepositions + -ing form 315
To-infinitive or -ing form? 317

Appendix 322
1 Transitive/intransitive verbs 324
Nouns endings 326 Nouns/verbs distinguished by stress 328
5 Partitives 330 Collective nouns + of 332
7 Uses of this/that 334 Adjectives formed with suffixes 336
The + adjective 338 ed/ing adjectival participles 338
Adjectives easily confused and misused 340
Comparatives/superlatives 341
Expressions with as + adjective as or as 343
Adjectives + adverbs with same form 344
Adjectives easily confused 346
Comparatives/superlatives confused and misused 348
Emphatic questions with ever 349
Connecting words and phrases 351
Ending words

Index 353
Acknowledgements

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

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

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

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

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

L G A
Introduction

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

The primary aim of this book is to present a manageable coverage of grammar at intermediate and advanced levels, which will serve two purposes:
1. To present information which can be consulted for reference.
2. To suggest the range of structures that a student would need to be familiar with receptively and (to a lesser extent) productively to be able to communicate effectively.

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

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

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

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

**Style**

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

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

**Technical terms**

The book defines common technical terms, such as noun, verb, etc. that are probably familiar to the user. While it avoids complex terms, it does introduce (and define) terms which are necessary for an accurate description of what is happening. The index uses the symbol D to refer 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>key</strong></td>
<td><strong>key</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>word</strong></td>
<td><strong>other common word</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>spellings</strong></td>
<td><strong>spellings</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>p</strong></td>
<td><strong>i:</strong> sheep field team key scene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pen</strong></td>
<td><strong>amoeba</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>happy</strong></td>
<td><strong>i:</strong> ship savage guilt system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>b</strong></td>
<td><strong>women</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>back</strong></td>
<td><strong>bed</strong> any said bread bury friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>rubber</strong></td>
<td><strong>æ</strong> bad plaid laugh (AmE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>t</strong></td>
<td><strong>call (AmE)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tea</strong></td>
<td><strong>a:</strong> father calm heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>butter</strong></td>
<td><strong>laugh (BrE) bother (AmE)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>walked</strong></td>
<td><strong>o</strong> pot watch cough (BrE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>doubt</strong></td>
<td><strong>laurel (BrE)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>k</strong></td>
<td><strong>caught</strong> ball board draw four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>key</strong></td>
<td><strong>floor cough (AmE)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cool</strong></td>
<td><strong>U</strong> put wood wolf could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>soccer</strong></td>
<td><strong>u:</strong> boot move shoe group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lock</strong></td>
<td><strong>flew</strong> blue rude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>school cheque</strong></td>
<td><strong>ʌ</strong> cut some blood does</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>g</strong></td>
<td><strong>a:</strong> bird burn fern worm earn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>get</strong></td>
<td><strong>journal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>bigger ghost</strong></td>
<td><strong>example (Ipz)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ʧ</strong></td>
<td><strong>e:</strong> cupboard the colour actor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cheer</strong></td>
<td><strong>nation danger asleep</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>match nature</strong></td>
<td><strong>ei</strong> make pray prey steak vein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>question cello</strong></td>
<td><strong>gauge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ʤ</strong></td>
<td><strong>oa:</strong> note soap soul sew toe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>jump</strong></td>
<td><strong>oi</strong> bite pie buy try guide sigh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>age</strong></td>
<td><strong>A:</strong> now spout plough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>edge</strong></td>
<td><strong>oi</strong> boy poison lawyer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>soldier</strong></td>
<td><strong>ia:</strong> here beer weir appear fierce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>gradual</strong></td>
<td><strong>ə:</strong> there hair bear bare their prayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>g</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ui</strong> poor tour sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>get</strong></td>
<td><strong>ei:</strong> player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>bigger ghost</strong></td>
<td><strong>ao:</strong> tower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ʧ</strong></td>
<td><strong>aia:</strong> tire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cheer</strong></td>
<td><strong>ai</strong> tower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>match nature</strong></td>
<td><strong>oa:</strong> employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>question cello</strong></td>
<td><strong>oa:</strong> employer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
## Symbols and conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AmE</td>
<td>American English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BrE</td>
<td>British English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not **</td>
<td>likely student error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>zero article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(</td>
<td>optional element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>phonetic transcription</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[&gt; ]</td>
<td>cross-reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[&gt; App]</td>
<td>Appendix reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>definition of technical terms&lt;br&gt;(used only in the index)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'</td>
<td>(as in 'progress) stress mark</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 ("He/She/it works") where the -s ending identifies the third person, or in the comparative and superlative forms of many adjectives (nicer, nicest). There are only six words in the English language which have different subject and object forms: I/me, he/him, she/her, we/us, they/them, and who/whom. This lack of inflexions in English tempts some people to observe (quite wrongly) that the language has "hardly any grammar." It would be more accurate to say that English no longer has a grammar like that of Latin or German, but it has certainly evolved a grammar of its own, as this book testifies.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A sentence which contains one clause is called a simple sentence
  Stephen apologized at once (> 1.7)
Or it may contain more than one clause, in which case it is either a compound sentence (> 1.17)
  Stephen realized his mistake and (he) apologized at once
or a complex sentence (> 1.21)
  When he realized his mistake Stephen apologized at once

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

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

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

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

1.3 Basic word order in an English sentence

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject group</th>
<th>verb group (predicate)</th>
<th>adverbials [usually optional &gt; 7.1]</th>
<th>time [&gt; 7.19.1]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>object</td>
<td>manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The children</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The taxi driver</td>
<td>shouted at</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>angrily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>our meal</td>
<td>in silence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The car</td>
<td>stopped</td>
<td>suddenly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A young girl</td>
<td>walked</td>
<td>confidently</td>
<td>across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with long</td>
<td>black hair</td>
<td>the room</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4 Word order: definitions of key terms

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

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

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

1.5 Making the parts of a sentence longer

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

1.6 Some common variations on the basic word order

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

- questions (> Chapter 13)
  Did you take your car in for a service?
  When did you take your car in for a service?
- reporting verbs in direct speech (> 15.3n4)
  You've eaten the lot' cried Frank
- certain conditional sentences (> 14.8, 14.18.3)
  Should you see him please give him my regards
- time references requiring special emphasis (> 7.22, 7.24)
  Last night we went to the cinema
  The whole building suddenly began to shake
- adverbs of manner/indefinite time (> 7.16.3, 7.24)
  Suddenly the whole building began to shake
- adverbs of indefinite frequency (> 7.40)
  We often played dangerous games when we were children
- adverb phrases (> 7.19.2, 7.59.2)
  Inside the parcel (there) was a letter
- adverb particles (e.g., back) and here there (> 7.59.1)
  Back came the answer - no'
  Here/There is your coat Here/There it is.
- negative adverbs (> 7.59.3)
  Never in world history has there been such a conflict
- ‘fronting’
  Items in a sentence can be put at the front for special emphasis
  A fine mess you've made of this!

The simple sentence

1.7 The simple sentence

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

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

1.8 Five simple sentence patterns

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

1 subject + verb
  My head aches
The simple sentence

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

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

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

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

The examples listed above are reduced to a bare minimum. To this minimum, we can add adjectives and adverbs.

His old firm gave Sam a beautiful gold watch on his retirement

1.9 Sentence patterns: definitions of key terms

Any discussion of sentence patterns depends on a clear understanding of the terms 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)

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

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

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

My head aches. The plane touched down

Some verbs, like enjoy, can only be used transitively and must always be followed by an object, others, like ache, are always intransitive.
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
  Quick’ 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 bum close drop fly hurt move open ring shake shut understand
- with an object I rang the bell I rang it repeatedly
- without an object The phone rang It rang repeatedly

Other examples
  The fire burnt furiously Your essay reads well
Sometimes the object is implied
  William smokes/eats/Drinks too much

1.11 Pattern 2: subject + verb + complement

Frank + is + clever/an architect

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

1.11.1 Subject + ‘be’ + complement

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

1.12 Pattern 3: subject + verb + direct object

My sister + answered + the phone

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

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

1.12.1 Verb + object + ‘to’ or ‘for’ + noun or pronoun [> 1.9.1, 13.2-3]
The following verbs can have a direct object followed by to + noun or pronoun, or (where the sense permits) for + noun or pronoun They do not take an indirect object admit announce confess confide declare demonstrate describe entrust explain introduce mention propose prove repeat report say state and suggest

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

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

Gerald explained the situation to me (Not ‘explained me’)
He explained it to me (Not ‘explained me’)
Say it to me (Not ‘say me’)
I can’t describe this Would you describe it for me please?
The passive is formed as follows [compare > 1.13.2]
The guests were introduced to Jane
The situation was explained to me
To + noun or pronoun normally precedes a that-clause or an indirect question when the object is very long
Catherine explained to me what the situation was

1.13 Pattern 4: subject + verb + indirect object + direct object
They gave him a watch

1.13.1 General information about Pattern 4 [compare > 12.3n4]
Verbs like bring buy and give can have two objects The indirect object always follows the verb and usually refers to a person

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

The firm gave a watch with a beautiful inscription on it to Sam
They bought a beautiful gold watch for Sam
The indirect object does not have to be a person

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

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

Give me it Show me it
Give it me Show it me
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'

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject + verb</th>
<th>direct object + to + noun or pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>showed</td>
<td>the photo to me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

*The photo was shown to me*

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject + verb</th>
<th>direct object + for + noun or pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bought</td>
<td>a present for Jane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These sentences can be put into the passive in two ways

*Jane was bought a present*

*A present was bought for Jane*

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

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

*Barbara made a beautiful dress for her daughter*

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

*For* can be ambiguous and its meaning depends on context The emphasis can be on 'the recipient'

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

or on the person acting on the recipient's behalf

*I'll cook the dinner for you (= on your behalf/instead of you)*

*For* can be ambiguous when used after most of the verbs listed in 1.13.3, *for* can refer to the person acting on the recipient's behalf when used after most of the verbs in 1.13.2
1.13.4 Pattern 4: Category 3: verbs that can be used without 'to' or 'for'

subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

I'll tell you the truth soon.

subject + verb + indirect object only

I'll tell you soon.

The passive can be formed in two ways:

You will be told the truth soon. (active)
The truth will be told to you soon. (passive)

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) cool/fresh/shut leave (it) clean/dirty open/shut like (it) hot make (it) easy/plain/safe open/shut 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.
1.16 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 both Jane and her husband
I didn't meet Jane I didn't meet her husband
I didn't meet either Jane or her husband
I met neither Jane nor her husband

Adjective complements can be joined in the same way:

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

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

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

The compound sentence

1.17 The compound sentence

We often need to join ideas. One way we can do this is to link simple sentences to form compound sentences. This linking is achieved by any of the following:

- a semi-colon:
  We fished all day, we didn't catch a thing
- a semi-colon, followed by a connecting adverb [> App 18]:
  We fished all day, however, we didn't catch a thing
- a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g. and, but, so yet) often preceded by a comma:
  We fished all day but (we) didn't catch a thing

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

1.18 Word order and co-ordinating conjunctions

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

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

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

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

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

### 1.19 Joining sentence patterns to make compound sentences

The five simple sentence patterns [1 8] can be joined by means of co-ordinating conjunctions (P1 = Pattern 1, etc.):

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

### 1.20 The use of co-ordinating conjunctions

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

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

- He washed the car 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
The sentence

1.20.4 Result: ‘so’

*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, 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, I put it in the smk(), and turned the tap on.*

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.*

A second question can be avoided by the use of *or not* *Does the price include breakfast only or dinner as well?* (= 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
When she got on the tram Mrs Tomkins realized she had made a dreadful mistake

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

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

The complex sentence: noun clauses

1.22 How to identify a noun clause

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

1.23 Noun clauses derived from statements

Noun clauses derived from statements are usually that-clauses (sometimes what -clauses), though the conjunction that is often omitted
Look at the following statement
Money doesn t grow on trees
By putting *that* in front of a statement, we turn it into a subordinate noun clause which can be joined to another clause. As such, it will do the same work as a noun and can be used as follows:

### 1.23.1 Noun clause as the subject of a verb

*Money doesn’t grow on trees*  *This should be obvious*

*That money doesn’t grow on trees*  *should be obvious*

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

*It is obvious (that) money doesn’t grow on trees*

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

### 1.23.2 Noun clause as the object of a verb

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

*Everybody knows (that) money doesn’t grow on trees*

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

After some verbs (e.g. *answer imply*) *that* is generally required. *That* is also usual after ‘reporting verbs’, such as *assure inform*, which require an indirect object [> App 45.2]  *That* is usually obligatory in longer sentences, especially when the *if/ab-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 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
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative pronouns as subject:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is the man who (or that) lives next door</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the photo which (or that) shows my house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is the man whose car was stolen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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 |
| feminime    | 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
1.29.1 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

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 which 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 The sentence

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular:</th>
<th>Plural:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is the photo that/which I took</td>
<td>These are the photos that/which I took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the photo I took</td>
<td>These are the photos I took</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the cat that/which I photographed</td>
<td>These are the cats that/which I photographed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the cat I photographed</td>
<td>These are the cats I photographed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
1.38 Relative clauses of time, place and reason

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

1.38.1 Time defining: 1979 was the year (in which) my son was born
1979 was (the year) when my son was born

non-defining: The summer of 1969, the year (in which) men first set foot on the moon, will never be forgotten
The summer of 1969, (the year) when men first set foot on the moon, will never be forgotten.

1.38.2 Place defining: This is the place in which I grew up
This is the place which I grew up in
This is the place I grew up in
This is (the place) where I grew up

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

1.38.3 Reason defining: That's the reason (for which) he dislikes me
That's (the reason) why he dislikes me

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

1.38.4 ('That') in place of 'when', 'where', 'why'

That is possible (but optional) in place of when, where and why but only in defining clauses:

| I still remember the summer (that) we had the big drought ((That) can be replaced by when or during which.) |
| I don't know any place (that) you can get a better exchange rate ((That) can be replaced by where or at which.) |
| That wasn't the reason (that) he lied to you ((That) can be replaced by why or for which.) |

For relatives after it [> 4.14].

1.39 Relative clauses abbreviated by 'apposition'

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

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

- My neighbour Mr Watkins never misses the opportunity to tell me the latest news (defining, without commas)
- Mr Watkins, a neighbour of mine, never misses the opportunity to tell me the latest news (non-defining, with commas)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- It's the silliest argument (that) I've ever heard
- But not optional when it refers to the subject:
  - Bach's the greatest composer that's (or who's) ever lived.

1.41 'Of' + relative referring to number/quantity

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

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

1.42 'Which' in place of a clause

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

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

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

- I may have to work late, in which case I'll telephone
- The speaker paused to examine his notes, at which point a loud crash was heard

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

- He was fined £500 Which we all thought served him right
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 long as as soon as before by the time (that) directly immediately the moment (that) now (that) once since until/till whenever, and while We generally use a comma when the adverbial clause comes first:

You didn't look very well when you got up this morning

After she got married Madeleine changed completely

I pulled a muscle as I was lifting a heavy suitcase

You can keep these records as long as you like [compare as long as in conditional sentences > 14.21]

Once you've seen one penguin you've seen them all

He hasn't stopped complaining since he got back from his holidays [compare since in clauses of reason > 1.48]

We always have to wait till/until the last customer has left

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

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

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

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

The present perfect is often used after *once* and *now that*.

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

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

**1.45.3 Will’ after when’**

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

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

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

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

**1.46 Adverbial clauses of place**

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

*You can’t camp where/wherever/anywhere you like* these days.

*Anywhere wherever 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*.*
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
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
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):

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 (> 11.75.1) 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, tittle, etc.*:

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

They can also be used after such a *lot of*:

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

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

*He was so angry* (i.e. that there were consequences)

*The children made such a mess*! (i.e. that there were consequences)

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

*It was that cold, (that) I could hardly get to sleep*

*The roads were that icy*! (i.e. that there were consequences)

### 1.52.2 Clauses of purpose compared with clauses of result

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

*We arrived early so that (or in order that) we could/should/might/would get good seats* (i.e. we arrived early for that purpose)

*We arrived early so (that) we got good seats* (i.e. we got good seats as a result of arriving early)

*Or: We arrived so early that we got good seats*

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

*So that I shouldn't worry he phoned me on arrival*

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

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

These clauses often answer *How?* followed by or implying in relation to or compared with *How quick is he in relation to/compared with ...*.

They involve the use of *as + adjective + as (as quick as), as + adverb + as (as quickly as) not so/as -er than, more than, less than 'the. the. When continuing with the same verb in the same tense, we can omit the second verb, so the clause of comparison is implied:

*He is as quick in answering as his sister (is)*

*He answers as quickly as his sister (does)*

*He is not so/as quick in answering as his sister (is)*

*His sister is quicker than he (is)*

*The more you practise the better you get*

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

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

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

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

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

*You've made just as (Not *so*) many mistakes as I have*
1.54 Limiting clauses
A main clause can be qualified or limited by clauses introduced by in
that in so far as and inasmuch as

*The demonstration was fairly peaceful in that/in so far as there
were only one or two clashes with the police*

*Inasmuch as* can be used like *in so far as* but is formal and rare

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

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

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

The complex sentence: participle constructions

1.56 Form of participles [compare > 16.41]

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

1.57 Joining sentences with participles
Simple sentences can be combined into one sentence that contains a
main clause + a participle or an infinitive construction [> 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  | He walked out of the room He slammed the door behind him |
| compound sentence | He walked out of the room and slammed the door behind him |
| participle construction | He walked out of the room slamming the door behind him |
| simple sentences  | You want to order a vehicle You have to pay a deposit |
| complex sentence  | if you want to order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit |
| infinitive construction | To order a vehicle you have to pay a deposit |
| participle construction | When ordering a vehicle you have to pay a deposit |
Participle constructions can come before or after the main clause, depending on the emphasis we wish to make.

Making sure I had the right number I phoned again
Or phoned again making sure I had the right number

More than one participle construction is possible in a sentence
After looking up their number in the phone book and making sure I had got it right I phoned again

1.58 Present participles in place of clauses

1.58.1 Participle constructions in place of co-ordinate clauses
The co-ordinating conjunction and must be dropped
She lay awake all night and recalled the events of the day
She lay awake all night recalling the events of the day

1.58.2 Present participle constructions in place of clauses of time
Present participles can be used after the time conjunctions after, before, since, when, 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 1750 from Crewe
The train arriving at Platform 8 is the 1750 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 leaving 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 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 / 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 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

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/, /ɵ/, /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/advise  
house/house  
use/use

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

/ɵ/ and /ð/  
cloth/clothe  
teeth/teethe

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

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

*I’m not a university *graduate* /grədʒət/ yet*

*I hope to *graduate* /grədʒət/ next summer*

### 2.3.3 Nouns and verbs with the same spelling and pronunciation

*eg* answer change dream end hope offer trouble

## 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. They are usually pronounced with the stress on the first syllable, but there are exceptions noted below.

### 2.5 Single-word compound nouns

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

*eg*  
a ‘cupboard’  
a ‘raincoat’  
a ‘sausage’  
a ‘seaside’  
a ‘typewriter’

### 2.6 Nouns formed with adjective + noun

*eg*  
a ‘greenhouse’  
a ‘heavyweight’  
*a 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)*
2.7 **Nouns formed with gerund + noun**

Example: 'drinking water', 'frying pan', 'walking stick' [> 2.11n3]

The meaning is 'something which is used for doing something'

Example: 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**

Example: '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 eg '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'**

Example: 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. eg *the bank*, *safe*, *a personal computer*, *a kitchen sink*

Also note place names 'London', 'Airport', 'Moscow', 'Stadium', etc

2.10.3 **Compound nouns which refer to streets and roads**

Where the word *street* occurs, the stress is on the first syllable eg 'Baker Street', 'Oxford Street'. Where the word *road* occurs, both parts are stressed eg 'Canterbury Road', 'The Oxford road'. Compound place names are not hyphenated

2.10.4 **Compound nouns which tell us about purpose** [compare > 2.7]

Example: 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. a 'morning coffee'
   the 'Sunday lunch' a 'two-hour walk'. Also note other
   nouns relating to time an 'evening dress' a 'night nurse

2.10-9 Compound nouns formed with 'self', 'man', 'woman' and 'person'
   *self-* (stress on some part of the second word)
   e.g. self-'consciousness self-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
   e.g. 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 wherever possible
2 Nouns

Countable and uncountable nouns

2.12 Types of nouns

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

2.13 Proper nouns and common nouns

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

2.13.1 Proper nouns

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

- Personal names (with or without titles) Andrew Andrew Smith Mr Andrew Smith President Kennedy
- Forms of address Mum Dad Auntie Uncle Fred
- Geographical names Asia Berkshire India Wisconsin
- Place names Madison Avenue Regent Street
- Months, days of the week, festivals and seasons April Monday Easter Christmas April April Easter Easter
- 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 a girl a horse a geranium
Groups an army a crowd a herd
Units of measurement a franc a kilo a litre a metre
Parts of a mass a bit a packet a piece a slice

Concrete uncountable nouns (sometimes having physical but not 'individual' existence) include words like
Materials, liquids, gases cotton milk air
'Grains' and 'powder' barley rice dust flour
Activities camping drinking eating sailing
Languages Arabic Italian Japanese Turkish
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'

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

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

**Example**

- He ate a whole chicken!
- Would you like some chicken?
- I had a boiled egg for breakfast.
- There's egg on your face.
- I tied it up with a ribbon.
- I bought a metre of ribbon.

#### 2.16.2 Nouns which refer to objects or material

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

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.

**Example**

- I broke a glass this morning.
- Would you like an ice?
- I've got a new iron.
- What do the papers say?
- Glass is made from sand.
- Ice floats.
- Steel is an alloy of iron.
- Paper is made from wood.

#### 2.16.3 Normally uncountable nouns used as countables

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 2.16.4 Nouns which can refer to something specific or general

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

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

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

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

### 2.16.5 Nouns ending in ‘-ing’

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

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

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

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

### 2.16.6 Selected uncountable nouns and their countable equivalents

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

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

Nouns for animals are countable; nouns for meat are uncountable: a cow/beef a deer/venison a pig/pork, a sheep/mutton

### 2.17 Nouns not normally countable in English

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

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

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

2.18 Partitives: nouns which refer to part of a whole

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

2.18.1 General partitives

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

singular: a piece of/bit of chalk/cloth/information/meat/plastic
plural: pieces of/bits of chalk/cloth/information/meat/plastic.

2.18.2 Specific partitives

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

Single items or amounts:
- a ball of string, a bar of chocolate, a cube of ice,
- a lump of sugar; a sheet of paper, a slice of bread
A few of these can be re-expressed as compounds:
- e.g. a sugar lump, ice cubes

'Containers' used as partitives:
- a bag of flour; a box of matches, a cup of coffee; a jar of jam,
- a packet of biscuits, a pot of tea; a tube of toothpaste
Most of these can be re-expressed as compounds: e.g. a jam-jar a

Small quantities: a drop of water, a pinch of salt
Measure: a kilo of sugar, a metre of cloth
'a game of: a game of football
Abstract concepts: a period of calm, a spell of work
Types and species: a make of car, a sort of cake
'a pair of: a pair of gloves, a pair of jeans [> App 5.8]

2.19 Collective nouns followed by 'of'

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

People: an army of soldiers a board of directors
Animals, birds, insects: a flock of birds/sheep, a swarm of bees
Plants and fruit: a bunch of flowers; a crop of apples
Things: a set of cutlery, a suit of clothes

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

2.20 Singular and plural forms of nouns

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

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

Proper nouns ending in -y add -s in the plural:
- Fry the Fryes [> 2.36]
- Kennedy the Kennedys

irregular spelling

Some endings in -f/-fe take -ves. | wife | wives [> 2.23]
Internal vowel change | man | men [> 2.26]
Nouns with plurals in -en: | ox | oxen [> 2.26]
No change: | sheep | sheep [> 2.27]
Foreign plurals, e.g. | analysis | analyses [> 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]:
- /ʃ/ 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, names
- /dʒ/ bridges, oranges, pages
- /s/ buses, classes, masses
- /ʃ/ bushes, crashes, dishes
- /tʃ/ matches, patches, speeches
- /ks/ axes, boxes, taxes
2.22 **Nouns with regular spelling/irregular pronunciation**
The ending of the following nouns is pronounced /z/ in the plural:
- baths
- mouths
- oaths
- paths
- truths
- wreaths
- youths

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

2.23 **Nouns with irregular pronunciation and spelling**
The following thirteen nouns with spellings ending in -for/-fe (pronounced /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
- orscarves
- wharf/wharfs
- orwharves

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 1980s
- abbreviations: VIPs or VIP’s (Very Important Persons) MP’s or MPs (Members of Parliament)

Note the finals is a small letter

2.25 **The plural of nouns ending in -o**
Many commonly used nouns ending in -o are spelt -oes in the plural:
- techo hero potato tomato

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:
  - bambooos
  - folios
  - kangaroos
  - oratorios
  - radios
  - studios
  - videos
  - zoos
- abbreviations:
  - kilos (for kilograms)
  - photos (for photographs)
- Italian musical terms:
  - 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 /mən/
Other survivals from the past are a few nouns which form their plurals with -en brother brethren child/children ox/oxen Brethren is used in religious contexts, otherwise brothers is the normal plural of brother Penny can have a regular plural pennies when we are referring to separate coins (ten pennies) or a collective plural, pence, when we are referring to a total amount (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 plaise 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 He is a Vietnamese The Vietnamese are noted for their cookery

Note that some names of fish, etc can form a regular plural Herrings were (or Herring were) once very plentiful Fish is the normal plural of fish (singular), but fishes can also be used, especially to refer to species of fish My goldfish has died (one) My goldfish have died (more than one) You'll see many kinds of fish(es) in the fish market

2.28 Collective noun + singular or plural verb

2.28.1 Collective nouns which have plural forms

Some collective nouns such as audience class club committee company congregation council crew crowd family gang government group jury mob staff team and union can be used with singular or plural verbs They are singular and can combine with the relative pronouns which/that and be replaced by it when we think of them in an impersonal fashion, i e as a whole group
The present government, which hasn't been in power long is trying to control inflation It isn't having much success

They are plural and can combine with who and be replaced by they or them when we think of them in a more personal way, i e as the individuals that make up the group

The government, who are looking for a quick victory are calling for a general election soon They expect to be re-elected A lot of people are giving them their support

These collective nouns can also have regular plural forms

Governments in all countries are trying to control inflation

For plural nouns in a collective sense (e g the workers) [> 3.19.4]
Some proper nouns (e g football teams) can be used as collectives

Arsenal is/are playing away on Saturday
2 Nouns

2.28.2 Collective nouns which do not have plural forms
The following collective nouns have no regular plural but can be followed by a singular or plural verb: the aristocracy, the gentry the proletariat, the majority, the minority, the public, the youth of today

Give the public what it wants/they want

Offspring has no plural form but can be followed by a singular verb to refer to one or a plural verb to refer to more than one:
Her offspring is like her in every respect (one child)
Her offspring are like her in every respect (more than one child)
The youth of today (= all young people) should not be confused with a/the youth (= a/the young man), which has a regular plural youths.
The youth of today is/are better off than we used to be
The witness said he saw a youth/five youths outside the shop
Youth (= a time of life) is used with singular verbs:
Youth is the time for action; age is the time for repose

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

Some people are never satisfied
The police/the military have surrounded the building
People should not be confused with a/the people, meaning 'nation' or 'tribe', which is countable:
The British are a sea-faring people
The English-speaking peoples share a common language

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

2.30 Nouns with a plural form + singular verb
The following nouns, though plural in form, are always followed by a verb in the singular:
- the noun news, as in: The news on TV is always depressing
- games, such as billiards, bowls, darts dominoes
Billiards is becoming more and more popular
- names of cities such as Athens Brussels Naples
Athens has grown rapidly in the past decade

2.31 Nouns with a plural form + singular or plural verb
The following nouns ending in -ics take a singular verb:
athletics gymnastics, linguistics mathematics and physics:
Mathematics is a compulsory subject at school
However, some words ending in -ics, such as acoustics, economics ethics, phonetics and statistics take a singular or plural verb. When the reference is to an academic subject (e.g. acoustics = the scientific study of sound) then the verb must be singular:
Acoustics is a branch of physics
When the reference is specific, (e.g. acoustics = sound quality) then the verb must be plural:
The acoustics in the Festival Hall are extremely good.
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 Nouns

2.34 Nouns with foreign plurals
There is a natural tendency to make all nouns conform to the regular rules for the pronunciation and spelling of English plurals. The more commonly a noun is used, the more likely this is to happen. Some native English speakers avoid foreign plurals in everyday speech and use them only in scientific and technical contexts.

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

2.34.2 Nouns with both foreign and anglicized plurals, e.g.
-us: cactus/cacti/cactuses, -a: antenna/antennae/antennas
-ex/ix: index/indexes/indexes appendix/appendices/appendixes
-on: medium/media/mediums, -on: automaton/automata/automata'
eu/-eau: adieu/adieux/adieus, plateau/plateaus/plateaux (l2l).
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/straata,
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 spoonsfuls).

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

In many European languages the names of things, such as book chair, radio, table have gender: that is they are classified grammatically as masculine, feminine or neuter, although very often gender doesn't relate to sex. Grammatical gender barely concerns nouns in English. It mainly concerns personal pronouns, where a distinction is drawn between e.g. he she and It; possessive
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 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/heiress host/hostess,
prince/princess steward/stewardess, waiter/waitress.
This distinction is becoming rarer so that words like author instructor
and manager are now commonly used for both sexes. Some words,
such as poetess, are falling into disuse because they are considered
disparaging by both sexes. In a few cases, -ess endings are used for
female animals, e.g. leopard/leopardess, lion/lioness, tiger/tigress
Or he-'she- (stressed) is used as a prefix in e.g. he-goat/she-goat, or
wolf/she-wolf

Similar references can be made with other endings, etc. as well:
begroom/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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>New Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>child's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actress</td>
<td>actress's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>children's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
<td>girls'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>James's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add 's to the plural of irregular personal nouns:

- add 's to some names ending in -s:
  - James + ' James's

Add 's to singular personal nouns ending in -s:

- add 's to singular personal 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

2.43 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 Nouns

2.44.2 ‘s with compound nouns
With compound nouns the s comes after the last word:
My sister-in-law’s father is a pilot
The rule also applies to titles, as in: Henry the Eighth’s marriages
the Secretary of State’s visit
Two genitives are also possible, as in:
My brother’s neighbour’s sister is a nurse

2.44.3 The use of the apostrophe after names ending in -s
We add ‘s to names ending in -s: Charles’s address Doris’s party
However, we can sometimes use ‘ or s: St James’ (or St James’s)
Park, Mr Jones (or Jones’s) car St Thomas’ (or St Thomas’s) Hospital. No matter how we write the genitive in such cases, we
normally pronounce it as /iz/. With some (especially famous) names
ending in -s we normally add an apostrophe after the -s (pronounced
/s/ or /iz/: Keats’ works Yeats’ poetry
We can show possession in the plural forms of names ending in -s by
adding an apostrophe at the end: the Joneses’ houses, etc.
With ancient Greek names we add an apostrophe after the -s, but
there is no change in pronunciation, Archimedes’ being pronounced
the same as Archimedes- Archimedes’ Principle

Initials can be followed by s when the reference is singular: an MPs
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 and s’ depends on the sound that precedes
them and follows the same rules as for plural nouns [> 2.21]: e.g.
/s/: Geoff’s hat Jacks’/ob a months salary. Pats handbag
/iz/: Ben’s opinion Bill’s place Bob’s house the workers club
/iz/: an actress’s career, the boss’s office, Mrs Page’s jam

2.46 The use of ‘s/s’ for purposes other than possession
While the genitive is generally associated with possession (usually
answering the question Whose ?), apostrophe s serves other
purposes as well, for example:
Regular use: Fathers 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: Johns’ stammer (i.e. John has a stammer)
Others: Building oil rigs is a man’s work (= suitable for)

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

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

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

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

2.48 The use of s and 's with living things

We may use s or 's after:

- Personal names: Gus's Restaurant, Jones'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 ants' nest, a bees' sting

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

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

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

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

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

- Place noun + superlative: New York's tallest skyscraper
- Churches and cathedrals: St Paul's Church, St Stephen's Cathedral
- Time references: a day's work, an hour's delay, a month's 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
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 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*

*A noun + of can sometimes be used in place of an infinitive:*

*The removal of books from this reference library is forbidden*  

### 2.51 Omission of the noun after 's and s'

The 's/s' construction can be used on its own when we refer to:

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

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

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

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

Churches and colleges (often named after saints) are frequently referred to in the same way, always with 's:  

*They were married in St Bartholomew's*

### 2.52 The double genitive

The 's construction can be used after the of-construction in: e.g. *a friend of my 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: / bought a new shirt yesterday
     (but it's not necessary to say which)
   - definite article: The shirt I am wearing is new.
     (i.e. I am telling you which)
   - demonstratives [> 4.32]: / bought this/that shirt yesterday
     (i.e. the one I am showing you)
   - possessives [> 4.19]: Do you like my new shirt?
     (i.e. the one that belongs to me)

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

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

John is flying to Helsinki on Tuesday.

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

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

We often use no article at all in English. This non-use of the article is so important that we give it a name, the zero article [> 3.24]. The problems of choice can be summarized as follows:
   - whether to use a/an or the-
   - whether to use a/an or nothing (zero).
   - whether to use the or nothing (zero).
In addition we have to decide:
- whether to use zero or some.
- whether to use the or some.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Countable</th>
<th>Uncountable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a/an</td>
<td>a, the</td>
<td>a, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>not used</td>
<td>not used</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rules for the use of a/an, the and zero + countable or uncountable can be summarized as follows:

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

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

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

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

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

3.4 Word order and determiners

We usually put only one determiner in front of a noun or noun phrase; and the determiner is nearly always the first word in a noun phrase: e.g. a new pen. We can never use two of the following before a noun: a, the, this, that, these, those, my your, his, her, Susan's, etc. So, for example, we can say:
- the pen or my pen
- but we cannot use the and my together in front of a noun or noun phrase. Some words (called pre-determiners) can come before articles and other determiners: for example both and all [> 5.18].
The indefinite article: 'a/an'

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a/an and</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>books</td>
<td>It's a</td>
<td>They're books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero for</td>
<td>egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
<td>It's an</td>
<td>They're eggs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classification/identification [&gt; 3.9]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/an</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>books</td>
<td>It's a</td>
<td>They're books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
<td>It's an</td>
<td>They're eggs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some referring to quantity [&gt; 3.10]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/an</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>books</td>
<td>I've got a book</td>
<td>I've got some books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>egg</td>
<td>eggs</td>
<td>I've got an egg</td>
<td>I've got some eggs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 How we refer to singular and plural

To classify or identify something, we can say:

It's a book  (a/an + singular noun)

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 /a:/ 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: a B.A. (a Bachelor of Arts), or by an: an I.Q. (an Intelligence Quotient).

The pronunciation /ei/ instead of /ə/ fora is often used when we are speaking with special emphasis, with or without a pause:

*He still refers to his record-player as 'a /ei/ gramophone'.*

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

### 3.8 Basic uses of ‘a/an’

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

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

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

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

#### 3.9.1 Classification: general statements and descriptive labels

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

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

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

#### 3.9.2 Classification by means of general statements

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

A cat is a domestic animal.

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

Cats are domestic animals.

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

*This is a very good coffee Is it Brazilian?*

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

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

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

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

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

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

Things, animals, etc. can also be classified with a/an:
**Objects:** It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) bottle-opener
**Insects:** It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) beetle
**Plants:** It's a (kind of/sort of/type of) rose

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

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

It's a kind of (sort of/type of) beetle
(= It's a member of a particular class of beetle.)

### 3.9.4 The uses of 'a/an' to classify people, etc.

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

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

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

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

The phrase a certain, to refer to people whose identity is not yet known, is common in fables and folk stories:

**Many years ago a certain merchant arrived in Baghdad**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

It was one coffee we ordered, not two

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

What a surprise! What an interesting story!

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

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

What a lot of flowers! What a lot of trouble’

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The definite article: 'the'

3.16 Form of the'

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

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

3.17 The pronunciation of 'the'

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

When we wish to draw attention to the noun that follows, we use the pronunciation /ði:/ = 'the one and only' or 'the main one':
Do you mean the Richard Burton, the actor?
If you get into difficulties, Monica is the person to ask.
Mykonos has become the place for holidays in the Aegean.
3 Articles

Some common abbreviations are preceded by the, pronounced: /ðə/ the BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation) or /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 axe given to particular groups to emphasize their identity: e.g. the Beatles, the Jesuits.

3.19.4 Specified groups: 'the' + collective noun or plural countable

We can make general statements about specified groups with the + collective nouns, such as the police, the public [> 2.28.2, 2.29]:
This new increase in fares won't please the public
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 like the country, the mountains, the seaside. Locations which are ‘one of a kind’ always require the: e.g. the earth, the sea, the sky, the sun, the moon, the solar system, the galaxy, the universe [compare > 3.22, 3.31].
- things: Pass me the salt, please.
- parts of a whole. When we know what is being referred to (‘the whole’) we can use the to name its parts. Assuming the listener or reader knows that we are talking about: e.g.
  - a human being, we can refer to the body, the brain, the head, the heart, the lungs, the mind, the stomach, the veins.
  - a room, we can refer to the ceiling, the door, the floor.
  - an object, we can refer to the back/the front, the centre, the inside/the outside, the top/the bottom.
  - a town, we can refer to the shops, the street.
  - an appliance, we can refer to the on/off switch
3.21 **The use of 'the' in time expressions** [> App 48]

3.21.1 **The use of 'the' in time sequences**
- *e.g.* the beginning, the middle, the end; the first/last; the next; the following day, the present, the past, the future

*In the past,* people had fewer expectations

3.21.2 **The use of 'the' with parts of the day** [compare > 8.13]
- *e.g.* in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, etc.

*We spent the day* at home *in the evening,* we went out.

Note that though many time references require *the,* many do not: *e.g.* next week, on Tuesday, last year

3.21.3 **The use of 'the' with the seasons** [> App 24]
- *(The)* spring/summer/autumn/winter. *The* is optional:

*We get a good crop of apples in (the) autumn*

3.21.4 **The use of 'the' in dates** [> App 47. 4]
- Ordinal numbers usually require *the* when they are spoken, but not when they are written.

Compare:
- *I'll see you on May 24th* *(spoken as May the 24th)*
- *(e.g. on a letter): 24(th) May* *(spoken as the 24th of May)*

3.21.5 **The use of 'the' in fixed time expressions**
- all the while, at the moment, for the time being, in the end, etc.: *I'm afraid Mr Jay can't speak to you at the moment.*

3.22 **The use of 'the' with unique items other than place names**

We often use *the* with 'unique items' (i.e. where there is only one of a kind). A few examples [> 3.31 for place names]:

Institutions and organizations: *the Boy Scouts, the United Nations*

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plural countables</td>
<td>0Girls do better than 0 boys at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some people want 0 chips with everything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncountables</td>
<td>0Butter makes you fat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proper nouns</td>
<td>0 Honesty is the best policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 John lives in 0 London</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of nouns on their own without an article is so fundamental in English that we should not regard this merely as 'the omission of the article', i.e. as something negative. We should think of the non-use of the article as something positive and give it a name: the zero article, which is usually given the symbol 0.

Abbreviations with zero, often acronyms (i.e. words made from the first letters of other words), include:
Chemical symbols: H2O (water).
Acronyms which form 'real words': BASIC (Beginners' All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code); radar (Radio Detection And Ranging).

3.25 Basic uses of the zero article

We use the zero article before three types of nouns:
1 Plural countable nouns: e.g. beans.
2 Uncountable nouns (always singular): e.g. water.
3 Proper nouns [> 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 /məz/, a recent innovation, is rarely heard in speech, but is common nowadays in the written language to apply to both married and unmarried women. Dr is usually followed by a surname and is abbreviated in writing (This is Dr Brown), but can also be used on its own as a form of address (written in full):
It's my liver, Doctor

Some other titles that can be used with surnames or on their own are:
Captain, Colonel, Major, Professor.
May I introduce you to Captain/Colonel/Major Rogers?
Yes, Captain/Colonel/Major!

Headmaster and Matron are not used with a name after them: Thank you, Headmaster; Yes, Matron

Madam and Sir are often used in BrE as a form of address (e.g. by shop-assistants in Can I help you, Madam/Sir?). Sir is common in AmE when we are speaking to strangers. In formal letter-writing we use Dear Sir and Dear Madam as salutations to address people whose names we do not know.

Given titles (e.g. Sir + first name + surname or Lord + surname) are peculiar to BrE: Lord Mowbray, Queen Elizabeth, Sir (unstressed) John Falstaff (Sir John, but not *Sir Falstaff*). And note also:
Chancellor Adenauer, Pope John, President Lincoln, etc.

The only titles applied to relations which can be used with names or on their own as forms of address are uncle and aunt (or auntie):
Here comes Uncle Charlie/Aunt Alice (Note: first names only.)
Thank you, Uncle/Aunt/Auntie

Some other titles that are used on their own as forms of address are:
Mother, Mum (BrE), Mom (AmE), Mummy (BrE), Mommy (AmE), Father, Dad (BrE), Pop (AmE), Pa, Daddy, Granddad, Grandpa, Grandma, Baby. Words like cousin, sister, brother are no longer used as forms of address with reference to relations. Mother and Sister can be used for nuns and Brother for monks. Sister can sometimes be used for nurses, like Nurse. Mother + surname occurs as a nickname (Mother Reilly) and Father is used as a form of address for Roman Catholic priests (Father O’Brien). People often refer to (but do not usually address) grandparents as Grandpa Jenkins or Grandma Jenkins to distinguish them from another set of grandparents with a different surname.

Adjectives can be used in front of many titles: kind Aunt Lucy, old Mrs Reilly, mad Uncle Bill, in some contexts, the adjective can be capitalized so that it is part of the name: Old Mrs Reilly. No article is required in familiar reference (Good old/Poor old George), but other adjectives need the definite article (the illustrious Dr Schweitzer, the notorious Mr Hyde). The is optional and often omitted when the title is a complement:
Wilson became (the) President of the USA
The is omitted when as is used or implied:
Wilson was elected President of the USA.
3.27.3 Zero article for days, months, seasons and holidays [> Apps 24, 48]
Mondays are always difficult. Monday is always a difficult day
June is my favourite month. Spring is a lovely season
Christmas is the time for family reunions
For next, last [> 3.21.2, 8.12]; for all [> 5.22.2].

3.27.4 Zero article for artists and their work [compare > 3.9.4]
The names of artists can represent their work as a whole:
e.g. Brahms, Keats, Leonardo, Lorca, Rembrandt:
Bach gives me a lot of pleasure (i.e. Bach's music)
Chaucer is very entertaining (i.e. Chaucer's writing)
Adjectival combinations: early Beethoven, late Schubert, etc.

3.27.5 Zero article for academic subjects and related topics
Art, Biology, Chemistry, Geography, History, Physics, etc.:
According to Henry Ford, History is bunk'
English is a difficult language to learn well.
Adjectival combinations: e.g. Renaissance Art American History

3.28 Other combinations with the zero article

3.28.1 Zero article for times of the day and night [> 8.11-13, App 48]
Combinations are common with at, by, after and before: at
dawn/daybreak, at sunrise/sunset/noon/midnight/dusk/night, by
day/night, before morning, at/by/before/after 4 o'clock.
We got up at dawn to climb to the summit

3.28.2 Zero article for meals
breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, supper.
Dinner is served Michael's at lunch Let's have breakfast
The zero article is used after have [> App 42.1.1], but note the use of
the where a meal is specified [> 3.20]:
The breakfast I ordered still hasn't arrived
and the use of a when classifying:
That was a very nice dinner

3.28.3 Zero article for nouns like 'school', 'hospital', etc.
The following nouns are used with the zero article when we refer to
their 'primary purpose', that is the activity associated with them:
e.g. He's in bed (for the purpose of sleeping): bed, church, class,
college, court, hospital, market prison, school, sea, town, university,
work [> 10.9.7, 10.13 4 for home ] They frequently combine with be
in/at, have been/gone to [> Apps 21-23]:
He was sent to prison for four years
The children went to school early this morning
But note the use of the when the item, etc. is specified:
Your bag is under the bed There's a meeting at the school at 6
Words such as cathedral, factory, mosque, office, etc. are always
used with a or the.

3.28.4 Zero article for transport
by air by bicycle, by bike, by boat, by bus, by car, by coach, by
land, by plane, by sea, by ship, by tram, by tube, on foot-
We travelled all over Europe by bus
The zero article

By + noun is used in fixed expressions of this kind, but not where the means of transport is specified:

I came here on the local bus. You won’t go far on that old bike.

3.28.5 Zero article in fixed phrases

e.g. arm in arm, come to light, face to face, from top to bottom, hand in hand, keep in mind, make friends, make fun of

3.28.6 Zero article for ‘pairs’ joined by ‘and’ [compare > 2.38, 3.14, 6.12.2]

e.g. day and night, father and son, husband and wife, light and dark, young and old, pen and ink, sun and moon

This business has been run by father and son for 20 years.

3.28.7 Zero article after ‘what’ and ‘such’ [> 3.13]

The noun is stressed after What ; such is stressed before the noun:

- + plural countable:
  What fools they are!
  We had such problems getting through Customs!

- + (singular) uncountable:
  What freedom young people enjoy nowadays!
  Young people enjoy such freedom nowadays!

3.28.8 Zero article for unspecified quantity [> 3.6, 5.3, 5.10]

Sometimes we do not use some or any to refer to indefinite number or amount:

I have presents for the children. I have news for you.
Are there presents for me too? Is there news for me too?

3.29 Deliberate omission of ‘a/an’ and ‘the’

There are many instances in everyday life when we deliberately omit both definite and indefinite articles to save space, time and money. For example:

Newspaper headlines: HOTEL FIRE DISASTER

Nouns in apposition: e.g. Film star Brett Ekland ‘War hero Douglas Bader’, Miracle heart-swap man Keith Castle (no commas)

‘Small ads’: 1st fl fit in mod blk close West End, dble recep (= A first floor flat in a modern block close to the West End with a double reception room...)

Notes:

Causes of 2nd World War- massive re-armament, invasion Czechoslovakia, etc. (= The causes of the Second World War: massive re-armament, the invasion of Czechoslovakia, etc.)

(Shopping) lists: Cleaner’s collect skirt
Supermarket: meat, eggs, sugar, melon

Instructions: Cut along dotted line (= Cut along the dotted line.)
Notices: Lift out of order (= The lift is out of order.)
Labels: Beside e.g. a picture of a bicycle, an arrow pointing to the ‘frame’, with the label FRAME (for the frame)

Some dictionary filling material used to fill cavity in tooth (= filling: a definition: material used to fill a cavity in a tooth.)
### 3.30 'A/an', 'the', zero article + nouns in apposition

When two nouns or noun phrases are used in apposition [> 1.39], the use of the indefinite, definite and zero articles before the second noun or noun phrase sometimes affects the meaning:

- **D H Lawrence, an author from Nottingham,** wrote a book called 'Sons and Lovers' (This implies that the reader may not have heard of D.H. Lawrence.)
- **D H Lawrence, the author of 'Sons and Lovers', died in 1930** (This implies that many people have heard of D.H. Lawrence, or, if not, of "Sons and Lovers").
- **D H Lawrence, author of 'Sons and Lovers', died in 1930** (This implies that everyone has heard of D.H. Lawrence.)

### 3.31 Zero article or 'the' with place names

Most place names are used with zero, but there is some variation. In particular, the is used when a countable noun like one of the following appears in the title: bay, canal, channel, gulf, kingdom, ocean, republic, river, sea, strait, union. The is often omitted on maps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continents</td>
<td>Africa, Asia, Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical areas</td>
<td>Central Asia, Inner London, Lower Egypt, Outer Mongolia, Upper Austria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical references</td>
<td>Ancient Greece, Medieval Europe, pre-war/post-war Germany, Roman Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakes</td>
<td>Lake Constance, Lake Erie, Lake Geneva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceans/seas/rivers</td>
<td>Lake Constance, Lake Erie, Lake Geneva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountains</td>
<td>Everest Mont Blanc, the Jungfrau, the Matterhorn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain ranges</td>
<td>Mont Blanc, the Alps, the Himalayas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islands</td>
<td>Christmas Island, the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups of islands</td>
<td>Christmas Island, the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deserts</td>
<td>Christmas Island, the Isle of Capri, the Isle of Man</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### The zero article

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries:</th>
<th>zero</th>
<th>the</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most countries.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Unions and associations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland, Germany</td>
<td>the ARE (the Arab Republic of Egypt)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey, etc.</td>
<td>the UK (the United Kingdom)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the USA (the United States of America)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the USSR (the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A few countries:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the Argentine (or Argentina),</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the Netherlands, the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philippines, (the) Sudan, (the) Yemen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>States/counties.</td>
<td>Most states/counties:</td>
<td>the Vatican</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavaria, Ohio, Surrey</td>
<td>Cities:</td>
<td>the City (of London), The</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Most cities:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denver, London, Lyons Hague</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities.</td>
<td>Cambridge University</td>
<td>the University of Cambridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streets, etc:</td>
<td>Most streets:</td>
<td>the High Street, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London Road, Madison Avenue, Oxford Street, Piccadilly Circus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note:</td>
<td>the London road (= the road that leads to London)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks:</td>
<td>Central Park, Hyde Park</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addresses.</td>
<td>49 Albert Place, 3 West Street, 2 Gordon Square Crescent</td>
<td>25 The Drive, 74 The</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings.</td>
<td>Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey</td>
<td>the British Museum, the Library of Congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other locations’</td>
<td>The is sometimes part of the title, sometimes not:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridges</td>
<td>London Bridge</td>
<td>The Golden Gate Bridge</td>
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<td>The Coliseum (Theatre)</td>
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4 Pronouns

General information about pronouns, possessives and determiners

4.1 Form of personal/reflexive pronouns and possessives

<table>
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<tr>
<th>personal pronouns:</th>
<th>possessives:</th>
<th>reflexive pronouns:</th>
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<td>subject:</td>
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- 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:

/ want some milk, (some + noun, functioning as determiner)
/ want this book (this + noun, functioning as determiner)
/ want this (this on its own, functioning as pronoun)
4.3 Form of personal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>you</th>
<th>he</th>
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<th>one</th>
<th>we</th>
<th>you</th>
<th>they</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>you</td>
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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 her 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 / 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’re coming round this evening

Look at those cows! They never stop eating

Our curtains look dirty They need a good wash
Personal pronouns

They can be used in general statements to mean 'people'

*They* say (or *People* say) oil prices will be going up soon

They is also commonly used to refer to 'the authorities'

*They* re putting up oil prices again soon

They is also used to mean 'someone else, not me’

*If you ask at Reception they* will tell you where it is

For *they* in place of anyone, etc [> 4.40]

For the use of *we you* and *they with both* and *all* [> 5.19-20]

4.5.8 Omission of subject in abbreviated statements

In everyday speech, we sometimes omit subject pronouns

*Found this in the garden* Know who it belongs to?

(= *I found this in the garden* Do you know who it belongs to?)

4.6 Object pronouns

Object pronouns replace nouns in object positions. They can be
- direct objects [> 1.9] *Have you met Marilyn? I've never met her*
- indirect objects [> 1.9] *If you see Jim give him my regards*
- objects of prepositions [> 8.1] *I really feel sorry for them*

In polite usage it is usual to avoid mentioning yourself first

*They were met by John and me* (in preference to *me and John*)

We often use *both* and *all* with you to avoid ambiguity (since you can refer to *both* or *all*) [> 5.19-20]

*Good luck to you both/all*

*Us* is often used very informally in place of *me*, particularly after the imperatives of verbs like *give* and *pass*

*Give us a hand with this trunk will you?*

In everyday speech, it is normal for unstressed *him her* and *them* to be pronounced *im er* and *em*

*Give 'im the money* *Give 'er a kiss* *Give 'em all you've got*

4.7 Subject or object pronoun?

Here are a few exceptions to the rules for using subject and object pronouns outlined in 4.5 and 4.6

4.7.1 Object pronouns after *be*

Object pronouns are normally used in preference to subject pronouns after *be* in everyday speech

*Who is it? - It's me/him/her/us/them*

4.7.2 Object pronouns (especially *'me'*) as subjects [> 13.29.3, 13.42n2]

Subject pronouns (*'she', etc*) are not normally used by themselves or in short answers with *not* Object pronouns are used instead

*Who wants a ride on my bike? - Me/Not me!*

An object pronoun can also occur as the subject of a particular kind of exclamatory question for stress or emphasis

*You can tell him - Me tell him*. Not likely!

*Me occurs very informally in 'cleft sentences' [> 4.14]*

*Don't blame Harry It was me who opened the letter*

where careful usage would require

*It was I who* (Or *I was the one who*)
4 Pronouns

4.7.3 Object or subject pronouns after comparatives with 'as' and 'than'
Object pronouns are commonly used in statements like the following when *as* and *than* function as prepositions:

- *She's as old as me/ as him* You're taller *than me/ than her*

However, subject pronouns are used if *as* or *than* function as conjunctions, i.e. when they are followed by a clause (> 1.53, 6.27.1):

- *She's as old as I am/ he is* You're taller *than I am/ she is*

4.7.4 Object pronouns in exclamations
Object pronouns often occur in exclamations like the following:

- *He's got to repay the money - Poor him! (= Isn't he unlucky!)*
- *She's been promoted - Lucky her! (= Isn't she lucky!)*

4.8 Gender in relation to animals, things and countries
Animals are usually referred to with *it* as if they were things (> 4.5.5). We only use *he, she, who, etc.* when there is a reason for doing so. For example, animals may be 'personalized' as pets, as farm animals, or in folk tales, and referred to as male or female:

- *What kind of dog is Spot? He's a mongrel.*

Other 'lower animals' and insects are only referred to as *he, she, etc.* when we describe their biological roles:

- *The cuckoo lays her eggs in other birds' nests*
- *or, sometimes, when we regard their activities with interest: Look at that frog! Look at the way he jumps!*

Ships, cars, motorbikes and other machines are sometimes referred to as if they were feminine when the reference is affectionate:

- *My cars not fast, but she does 50 miles to the gallon*

Countries can also be 'personified' as feminine: e.g.

- *In 1941 America assumed her role as a world power*

'One'

4.9 General statements with 'one' and 'you'
*One*, used as an indefinite pronoun meaning 'everyone/anyone' (> 4.37), is sometimes used (formally) in general statements:

- *World trade is improving, but one cannot expect miracles*

In everyday speech, the informal you is preferred:

- *Can you buy refrigerators in Lapland? (= Can anyone ...?)*

One may be used to replace *I*, but this tends to sound pompous:

- *One likes to have one's breakfast in bed now and again.*

One can be linked with one's, just as you can be linked with your-

However, constructions with one, one's and oneself are often awkward because of the repetition of one-

- *One should do one's best at all times*  
  (For: *You should do your best at all times*)

- *One shouldn't be too hard on oneself*  
  (For: *You shouldn't be too hard on yourself*)

In AmE one's/ oneself can be replaced by his/her, himself/herself-

- *One should give himself/herself a holiday from time to time*

For the use of the passive in place of one (> 12.4.3).
4.10 ‘One’ as a 'prop word' after a determiner [compare > 4.16, 5.30]

One and ones are frequently used as substitution words after a
determiner (that one, etc). One(s) is sometimes called a prop word
because it 'supports' the meaning of the noun it replaces. One is used
to replace a countable noun in the singular and ones to replace a
plural countable. One and ones can refer to people or things and we
use them when we wish to avoid repeating a noun:

Things: Have you seen this dictionary? (singular countable)
- Is that the one that was published recently?

People: Have you met our German neighbours? (plural countable)
- Are they the ones who moved here recently?

We cannot use one when referring to an uncountable noun:
Don't use powdered milk Use this fresh milk (Not *one*)

One and ones as prop words are most commonly used when we are
identifying people and things, particularly after Which?, this/that, and
adjectives [compare > 6.6]. One and ones are optional after Which?,
after this/that and after superlatives. Ones can be used after these’
those, though it is usually avoided:
Which (one) would you like? - This (one) or that (one)?
Which (ones) would you like? - These (ones) or those (ones)?
Which (one/ones) do you want? - The cheapest (one/ones)

We normally use one/ones after the positive form of adjectives:
Which (one/ones) do you want? - The large one/ones

After colour adjectives, one and ones may be omitted in answers:
Which (one/ones) do you want? - I’ll have the red (one/ones)

In statements, requests, etc. one and ones must be used after
this/that/these/those + adjective:
I’ll try on a few of these shirts Please pass me that white one

One and ones can be used in specific references after the definite
article (the one/the ones), demonstratives (this one) or with defining
phrases (the one/ones with pink ribbons) to identify or to indicate the
location of people and things:

Which woman do you mean? - The one in the green dress
Which boys rang the doorbell? - The ones in the street
Which shirt(s) do you want? - The one(s) in the window

4.11 Reference to two: ‘the one...the other’

We can refer to two people or things (or to two groups) through the
following combinations: (the) one the other, the first the second, or
more formally, the former the latter

You shouldn’t get Botticelli and Bocchenni mixed up
(The) one the other
The first is a painter 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
4 Pronouns

'It'

4.12 'It' as an 'empty subject'

We often use *it* in sentences referring to time, the weather, temperature or distance. When used in this way, *it* is sometimes called an **empty subject** because it carries no real information. It is present because every English sentence has to contain a subject and a verb [*4.5*]:

**Time:**
- *It's 8 o'clock *
- *It's Tuesday *
- *It's May 25th.*
- *It's time...* [*11.43*]: *It's time (for us) to leave*

**Weather:**
- *It's hot*
- *It's raining*
- *It rains a lot here*
- *It's raining a lot here*

**Temperature:**
- *It's 37° centigrade/Celsius*

**Distance:**
- *It's 20 miles to/from London*

**The tides:**
- *It's high tide at 11 44*

**Environment:**
- *It's noisy/smoky in here*

**Present situation:**
- *Isn't it awful? Isn't it a shame?*
- *Isn't it awful? Isn't it a shame?*

**With since:**
- *It's three years since we last met*

**With says:**
- *It says here there was a big fire in Hove*

**With take [*16.21*]:
- *It takes (us) half an hour to get to work*

And note many expressions with *it*, e.g. *it doesn't matter, it's no use, (it as subject); I've had it; That does it? (it as object).*

4.13 'It' as a 'preparatory subject'

Sometimes sentences beginning with *it* continue with an infinitive, a gerund or a noun clause [*1.23.1,16.27.2, 16.47*]. It is possible to begin such sentences with an infinitive or gerund, but we generally prefer *it*:

- *It's pleasant to lie in the sun* (To lie in the sun is pleasant)
- *It's 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:
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)
- Yes, they came this morning, (the + plural noun = they)

One and some, functioning on their own as pronouns, can be used as subjects if the reference is non-specific:

non-specific: Did a letter come for me?

- Yes, one came/some came for you this morning (a/an + singular noun = one)

Did any letters come for me?

- Yes, some came/one came for you this morning (any/some + plural noun = some in a positive answer or none in a negative answer)

16.2 Obligatory objects: 'it', 'them', 'one', 'some', 'any' (for things)

An object is obligatory after transitive verbs, such as enjoy or make, and verbs which are being used transitively, such as play [> App 1]. It, them or a noun must be used as objects when the reference is specific [> 4.16.1]:

What do you think of this cake?

- I like it/I don't like it (Not */I like/don't like*)

What do you think of these cakes?

- I like them/I don't like them (Not */I like/don't like*)

One must be used as an object when it stands for a/an + countable noun (i.e. the reference is non-specific) [> 4.16.1]:

Have a biscuit - I've had one/I don't want one thank you
Would you like a drink? - I'd love one thank you

Some and any [> 5 10] must be used as objects when there is a non-specific reference to uncountable nouns and plural countables:

Have you got any sugar? Can you lend me some please9

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

Have you got any drawing-pins? Can I borrow some please9

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

4.17 'So', not 'it' with certain verbs [compare > 1.23.5]
After verbs such as believe, expect, fear, guess (especially AmE: I guess so), hope, imagine, presume, say, suppose, tell someone 'think (also after I'm afraid and it seems/appears), it is usual to follow with so (never, t) in affirmative responses, so that we do not repeat a whole clause:
Is it true that Geoff has had a heart attack?
- I am afraid so/ I believe so/ I think so It seems so

In negative responses, not can be used directly after be afraid believe, expect, fear guess (especially AmE: I guess not) hope imagine, presume, suppose, think (and it seems/appears):
Has Anne got into university?
- I am afraid not/ I believe not/ I think not It seems not

Alternative responses using not so are possible with believe expect imagine, say, suppose and think:
I don't believe so/ I imagine so/ I suppose so/ I 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
- with verbs like say, tell, seem, appear
  So you said So he told me So it seems So it appears
- before or after (!) should/would + verbs like expect, hope say
  think (implying 'this is what ought to happen')-
  So I should (or would) hope I Or: I should (or would) hope so'

4.18 'So' or 'it' after certain verbs

So and it are normally interchangeable after do, when do substitutes for another verb which has already been used and when it reflects an action that has been deliberately performed-
Please lay the table - I ve just done so I've just done it

After verbs like guess, know, remember, it can be used or omitted-
Jack and Jill were secretly married - Yes, I know I had guessed
(= I know it. I had guessed it.)

Possessive adjectives/possessive pronouns

4.19 Form of possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns
adjectives my your his her its one's our your their pronouns mine yours his hers - - ours yours theirs

4.20 Notes on form (possessive adjectives/pronouns)
1 With the exception of one's, the apostrophe s ('s) is unacceptable with possessive adjectives and pronouns. We should not confuse its (possessive) with it's = it is [> 10.6] or it has [> 10.29]
Possessive adjectives/pronouns

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 said / John said
Here is your tea, Sally/John, ' mother said
The boys' coats are here and their caps are there
The girls' coats are here and their berets are there
Their can also refer to possession by animals or things, as in:

Dogs should have their own kennels outside the house
Cars with their engines at the back are very noisy

The possessive pronouns mine, yours, etc. are never used in front of nouns and are stressed in speech. They refer equally to persons and things, singular or plural. Its is never used as a pronoun.

I can't find my pen Can you lend me yours?
Possessive pronouns can come at the beginning of a sentence:

This is my cup Yours is the one that's chipped
My father/My mother is a lawyer - Mine is a doctor
For 's/s' possession without a noun [> 2.44, 2.51].
Noun + of it can sometimes be used in place of its + noun [compare > 2.50]:
How much is that book? I've forgotten the price of it/its price
For the use of of + possessive pronoun [> 2.52].

4.22 The use of 'my own'

Extra emphasis can be given to the idea of possession by the addition of own to all possessive adjectives (not pronouns). The resulting combinations can function as possessive adjectives (my own room) or possessive pronouns (it is my own). Instead of (my) own + noun we often use a/an + noun of (my) own-.

I'd love to have my own room/a room of my own
Our cat has its own corner/a corner of its own in this room
Further emphasis can be given with very-
I'd love to have my very own room/a room of my very own
4 Pronouns

We can say one's own room or a room of one's own, but we do not use one as a prop word (> 4.10) after (my) own:

Don't use my comb Use your own (Not "your own one")

4.23 The use of 'the' in place of possessive adjectives

The is never used with possessive adjectives and pronouns:

This is my car This car is mine, (no the) (> 3.4)

However, sometimes the is used where we might expect a possessive adjective, e.g. with parts of the body after prepositions:

He punched me in the face A bee stung her on the nose

This use can be extended to hair and clothes (i.e. things which are 'attached' to the body):

Miss Pingle pulled Clannda by the hair/ by the sleeve

Possessive adjectives (not "the") must be used in most other cases:

She shook her head/cleaned her teeth I've hurt my finger

In informal contexts, the can be used instead of (usually) my/ your/ our children, family, kids, as in:

How's the family? Where are the children?

But e.g. Meet the wife is familiar but not universally acceptable.

Reflexive pronouns

4.24 Form of reflexive pronouns

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 home, Don't upset yourself; and also a few fixed expressions: e.g. hear (yourself) speak, make (yourself) heard

I couldn't make myself heard above the noise

There is a difference in meaning between themselves and each other after verbs such as accuse, blame, help, look at [compare > 5.28]:

The two bank clerks blamed themselves for the mistake

(= They both took the blame.)

The two bank clerks blamed each other for the mistake

(= The one blamed the other.)

4.29 Reflexive pronouns as objects of prepositions

Reflexive pronouns can occur after prepositions which often follow verbs, nouns or adjectives [App 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/myself?

4.30 Reflexive pronouns used for emphasis

Reflexive pronouns can be used freely (but optionally) after nouns and pronouns for emphasis to mean 'that person/thing and only that person/thing' (/ 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
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].

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

Form of indefinite pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compounds of some, any, no and every</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>some-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somebody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>something</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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].

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...)
Indefinite pronouns

4.40 Personal pronoun reference with indefinite pronouns

The main problem (also for native speakers) is to know which personal pronouns to use to 'replace' the indefinite pronouns referring to people (someone anyone no one everyone). This is because English has no singular personal pronouns for both male and female. If we want to use personal pronouns (in place of the gaps) in a sentence like:

Everyone knows what has to do doesn't he?

the traditional rule is to use masculine pronouns, unless the context is definitely female (e.g. a girls' school):

Everyone knows what he has to do doesn't he?

However, in practice, the plural pronouns, they them, etc. (which refer to both sexes) are used instead without a plural meaning:

Everyone knows what they have to do don't they?

This has the advantage of avoiding clumsy combinations like he or she and does not annoy mixed groups of people. However, it is not considered acceptable by some native speakers [compare > 2.41,5.31].

4.41 Indefinite pronouns + adjectives and/or the infinitive

Indefinite pronouns can combine with:
- positive adjectives:  This is something special
  This isn't anything important
- comparative adjectives:  I'd like something cheaper
- the infinitive:  Haven't you got anything to do?
- for (me) + infinitive:  Is there anything for me to sit on?

(Note that adjectives come after indefinite pronouns.)

4.42 Indefinite pronouns + 'else'

Like question-words (What Who, etc. [> 13.31n8]), indefinite pronouns readily combine with else (everyone else someone else, anything else, etc.); else can mean 'additional/more' or 'different':
- 'more':  We need one more helper Can you find anyone else?
- 'different':  Take this back and exchange it for something else

Anything (else) and nothing (else) can be followed by but

Nothing (else) but a major disaster will get us to realize that we can't go on destroying the ram forests of the world

Else than is also heard, but this is usually replaced by other than, especially with reference to people:

Someone other than your brother should be appointed manager

Indefinite pronouns referring to people can combine with else s

This isn't mine It'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 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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural countable nouns</th>
<th>Uncountable nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximately <strong>how many</strong></td>
<td>Approximately <strong>how much</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are <strong>too many</strong> eggs</td>
<td>There is <strong>too much</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plenty of</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>Plenty of</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A lot of/lots of</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>A lot of/lots of</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(Not) enough</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>(Not) enough</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A few</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>A little</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very few</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>Very little</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not many</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>Not much</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hardly any</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>Hardly any</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong> eggs</td>
<td><strong>No</strong> milk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4 Distributives: whole amounts and separate items

Words like all both each every either and neither are sometimes called distributives. They refer to whole amounts (all/both the children all both the books all the cheese), or to separate items (each child either of the books) (> 5.18-31).

5.5 The use of ‘of’ after quantifiers

Some quantity phrases used as determiners always take of.

*We’ve had a lot of answers. (a lot of answers = determiner + noun)*

But when they are used as pronouns, of is dropped.

*We’ve had a lot (a lot as a pronoun)*

5.5.1 General references with quantifiers

Quantifiers which always take of before nouns/pronouns include a couple of dozens of hundreds of people’s 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 books cheese (plural countable or uncountable)
lots of
plenty of

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 eg  (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 is some bread in the bread-bin (unspecified amount)

How much (bread is there)? Half a loaf (amount specified)

It is sometimes possible to omit some or any [> 3.28.8, 5.3]

My wife bought me medicine and pastilles for my cough

Some (= indefinite quantity or amount) is normally used

- in the affirmative

There are some eggs in the fridge (i.e. an unstated number)

There is some milk in the fridge (i.e. an unstated quantity)

- in questions when we expect (or hope to get) the answer ‘Yes’

Have you got some paper-clips in that box? (i.e. I know or I think you’ve got some and expect you to say ‘Yes’)

- in offers, requests, invitations and suggestions when we expect the answer ‘Yes’ or expect implied agreement
Particular quantifiers and their uses

The following are in the form of questions though we are not seeking information [> 11.35-36]
Would you like some (more) coffee? (expecting 'Yes)
May I have some (more) coffee? (expecting 'Yes')
- to mean "certain but not all
Some people believe anything they read in the papers
Not some can be used in certain contexts to mean not all
I didn't understand some of the lectures some of the information

Some + countable or uncountable noun is normally unstressed in fluent speech and is pronounced /səm/
There are some /səm/ letters for you
As a pronoun some is pronounced /səm/ but not usually stressed
Would you like any sugar? – I've had some /səm/ thank you
Some, meaning certain but not all (see note above) is usually stressed and is pronounced /səm/. It can be stressed at the beginning of a statement to emphasize a contrast

Some /səm/ people have no manners
It can be stressed to refer to an unspecified person/thing
Some /səm/ boy left his shirt in the cloakroom [>5.12.1]

Any (= indefinite quantity or amount) is normally used
- in negative statements containing not or n't
We haven't got any shirts in your size
There isn't any milk in the fridge
- in questions when we are not sure about the answer or expect No
Have you got any paper-clips in the box? (i.e. I don't know if you've got any and wouldn't be surprised if you said 'No')
- in sentences containing a negative word other than not such as hardly never seldom or without or when there is any suggestion of doubt e.g. with if or whether [implied negatives > 13.8]
There's hardly any petrol in the tank
We got to Paris without any problems
I don't know if/whether there's any news from Harry
- with at all and (more formally) whatever for special emphasis
I haven't got any idea at all/whatever about what happened

5.11 The use of 'not...any', 'no' and 'none'

5.11.1 Not...any and no'
An alternative way of forming a negative is with no [compare > 13.9]
not any There aren't any buses after midnight
no There are no buses after midnight

A clause can contain only one negative word so that not and e.g. no or never cannot be used together [> 7.39, 13.10]
I could get no information (Not 'I couldn't')
When used in preference to not any no is slightly more formal and makes a negative idea more emphatic. Negatives with not any are used in normal conversation but we must always use no (Never 'not any') if we wish to begin a sentence with a negative
No department stores open on Sundays
5 Quantity

No can combine with a singular noun:
- There's no letter for you (= There isn't a letter for you.)
- I'm no expert but I think this painting is a fake

No at the beginning of a statement strongly emphasizes a negative idea [compare > 13.9].

5.11.2 'No' and 'none' [compare 'none of, > 5.5.2]
No meaning not any is a determiner and can only be used before a noun; none stands on its own as a pronoun:
- There isn't any bread There's no bread There's none
- There aren't any sweets There are no sweets There are none

Like no, none is more emphatic than not any. When no or none are used, not cannot be used as well [> 7.39, 13.10]:
- I couldn't get any information about flights to the USA
- I could get no information about flights to the USA
- Do you have any new diaries? – We've got none at the moment

5.12 Special uses of 'some', 'any' and 'no''

5.12.1 'Some'
Apart from its common use as a quantifier, some can be used to refer to an unspecified person or thing, etc. When used in this way it is generally stressed [> 5.10] and can mean:
- 'several': I haven't seen Tom for some years
- 'approximately': There were some 400 demonstrators
- 'extraordinary': That's some radio you've bought' (informal)
- 'an unknown': There must be some book which could help
- 'no kind of': That's some consolation I must say' (ironic)

With abstract nouns some can be used to mean 'an amount of:
- We've given some thought to your idea and find it interesting

5.12.2 Any'
Apart from its common use as a quantifier, any can be used to refer to an unspecified person or thing and can occur in affirmative statements. When used in this way it is stressed and can mean:
- 'usual': This isn't just any cake (it's special)
- 'the minimum/maximum': He'll need any help he can get
- 'I don't care which': Give me a plate Any plate/one will do

5.12.3 'Any' and 'no' + adjective or adverb
Any and no, used as adverbs to mean 'at all', will combine with adjectives and adverbs in the comparative:
- Is he any better this morning? No he's no better

Any and no, used as adverbs, combine with a few positive adjectives, e.g. good (any good) and different (any different)
- Is that book any good? - It's no good at all

5.13 Common uses of 'much' and 'many' [also > 6.24, 7.4]
We normally use much (+ uncountable) and many (+ plural countable):
- in negative statements:
  - I haven't much time There aren't many pandas in China
Particular quantifiers and their uses

- in questions: (For questions with How much many? [\text{> 13.40.1}])
  
  \textit{Is there much milk} in that carton? \textit{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 [\text{> 5.14}]. Much and many occur in formal affirmative statements:

  \textit{Much has been done to improve conditions of work}

  \textit{Many teachers dislike marking piles of exercise books}

  Combinations like \textit{as much as} and \textit{as many as} are used in the affirmative or negative:

  \textit{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:

  \textit{Your son gets much/far too much pocket money}

  \textit{There are far too many accidents at this junction}

  Many in time expressions occurs in the affirmative or negative:

  \textit{I have lived here/haven t lived here (for) many years}

  Not much and not many commonly occur in short answers:

  \textit{Have you brought much luggage?} \textit{No not much}

  \textit{Have you written many letters?} \textit{No not many}

  Not much and not many can be subjects or part of the subject:

  \textit{Not much is really known about dinosaurs}

  \textit{Not many people know about Delia’s past}

  Much occurs in a number of expressions (e.g. \textit{there s not much point in it s a bit much, he’s not much of a }):

  \textit{There’s not much point in telling the same story again}

  Not so much occurs in comparisons:

  \textit{It s not so much a bedroom, more a studio}

  \textit{Dennis is not so much a nuisance as a menace}

  \textit{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 [\text{> 5.15.1}]) can be modified by the my your, etc.:

  \textit{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 [\text{> 5.13}]. Instead, we use a lot of and (informally) lots of:

  I’ve got a \textit{lot of/lots of time} I’ve got a \textit{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”:

  \textit{i met a lot of/lots of interesting people on holiday}

  \textit{Don’t worry} \textit{We ve got plenty of time before the tram leaves}

  \textit{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:

  \textit{haven’t got a lot of patience with hypochondriacs}
5 Quantity

A lot of **(not lots of or plenty of)** can be modified by quite/rather:

- Jimmy's caused **quite a lot of trouble** at his new school.
- The new law has affected **rather a lot of people**.

Plenty of a lot of and lots of can be used with singular or plural verbs depending on the noun that follows them:

- **There has been a lot of/lots of/plenty of gossip** about her (uncountable noun, so singular verb)
- **There have been a lot of/lots of/plenty of inquiries** (plural countable, so plural verb)

Several can only be used with plural countables in the affirmative:

- **We've already had several offers for our flat**
- **Several hundred people** took part in the demonstration.

A lot of/lots of are often considered unsuitable in formal style. Instead, we use much/many [§ 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.

Few can also convey the idea of 'not as many as were expected':

- **A lot of guests were expected but few came**.

Few can also be used to mean 'more than none, more than expected':

- **A few can be used to mean 'more than none, more than expected':**
  - **Have we run out of sardines'? - No there are a few tins left**

A few can also combine with other words: e.g.

- **Just** How many do you want? **Just a few please** (i.e. a limited number, not many)
- **Only** There are **only a few seats left** (i.e. very few, hardly any)
- **Quite** How many do you want? **Quite a few please** (i.e. quite a lot)
Particular quantifiers and their uses

- Good: We had a good few letters this morning (i.e. quite a lot)
- Dozen: The film director employed a few hundred people as extras (i.e. several hundred)
- The, my etc.: The few people who saw the film enjoyed it
- Her few possessions were sold after her death (i.e. the small number of)

5.15.2 Little' and a little'

Little and a little are used with (singular) uncountables.

- Little (like few) is negative, suggesting 'hardly any at all' and is often used after very:
  - He has very little hope of winning this race
- In everyday speech we prefer not much or hardly any:
  - He hasn't much hope of winning this race
  - He has hardly any hope of winning this race
- Little can also convey the idea of 'not as much as was expected':
  - 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Both books are expensive</th>
<th>All books are expensive</th>
<th>Half the my these books are expensive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both the/my these books are expensive</td>
<td>All the/my these books are expensive</td>
<td>Half the/my these eggs are bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both of the/my these books are expensive</td>
<td>All of the/my these books are expensive</td>
<td>Half of the/my these eggs are bad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Both all and half can be used equally with:
- people: both (the) women all (the) women half the women
- things: both (the) forks all (the) forks half the forks
Distributives

2. Both refers to two people, things, etc. only:
e.g. both books/both the books/both of the books (interchangeable).
The reference is to specific items (e.g. the books on this subject).
Both means 'not only one, but also the other' and refers to two things together. By comparison, the two (the two things are different) refers to the two considered separately.

3. Half + plural countable refers to 'more than two':
e.g. half the eggs/half of the eggs (interchangeable).
Half (of) cannot be used without a determiner (the this my, etc.) before plural countables [compare > 5.18.3n1].

4. All refers to 'the whole number of people, things, etc.:
e.g. all the books all of the books (interchangeable).
With the, the reference is to specific items: (e.g. the books on this subject). However, all books is general, referring to e.g. all (the) books in the world. It is not interchangeable with all the books all of the books.

5. All with or without the, however, refers to specific items when it is followed by a number before a plural countable:
All (the) thirty passengers on the boat were saved

5.18.2 'All' and 'half + uncountable nouns
- examples and note

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All bread gets stale quickly</th>
<th>-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All the bread was stale</td>
<td>Half the bread was stale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of the bread was stale</td>
<td>Half of the bread was stale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first statement with all is general; the second and third are interchangeable and refer to a specific amount of bread. The two statements with half are interchangeable and refer to a specific amount of bread. The word both cannot be used with uncountable nouns because it refers to two units.

5.18.3 'All' and 'half + singular countable nouns
- examples and notes

| All the country was against it | Half the country was against it |
| All of the country was against it | Half of the country was against it |

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
- Have you finished? - Yes we both have
- Do you like it? - Yes we both do
- Can you see it? - Yes we both 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 uncountables.

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 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, 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 references.

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 Quantity

5.24 'All' compared with 'everyone/everybody/anyone/anybody'

All, meaning 'everybody', is uncommon in modern English:

Everyone/Everybody wanted Marilyn’s autograph (Not "All")

In older English, all (= everybody) can occur:

All but Emily had guessed the truth

All can occur in formal contexts to mean 'all the people', but it generally needs to be qualified by e.g. a relative clause [> 1.40]:

All (those) who wish to apply must do so in writing

All could be replaced by anyone/anybody:

Anyone/Anybody who wishes to apply must do so in writing

Anyone/anybody is the equivalent of whoever here and is preferable to everyone/everybody. All, used on its own to mean 'all the people', occurs in a few fixed expressions:

A good time was had by all The law applies equally to all

5.25 'All' compared with 'everything'

All and everything + singular verb can be used interchangeably, though all is more formal and usually requires qualification:

All/Everything I have belongs to you

All, used to mean 'everything', occurs in a few fixed phrases:

Winner takes all

All, but not everything, can be used to mean 'the only thing':

All he wants is more pay for less work

5.26 'Every' compared with 'each'

5.26.1 'Every' and 'each' with reference to 'more than two'

Every and each refer to particular people or things. They can point to more than two Each is more individual and suggests 'one by one' or 'separately'. We use it to refer to a definite and usually limited number:

Each child in the school was questioned

Every child is less individual and is used in much the same way as all children [> 5 18 1] to refer to a large indefinite number:

Every child enjoys Christmas (All children enjoy Christmas.)

This difference is not always important and the two words are often used interchangeably, as in:

Every/Each time I wash the car it rains

Each cannot be modified; every can be modified by almost nearly, and practically and can be followed by single:

Almost every building was damaged in the earthquake

I answer every single letter I receive

We can use not in front of every, but not in front of each:

Not every house on the island has electricity

Every, but not each, can be used in front of a few uncountables such as assistance, encouragement, etc. though this is unusual:

My parents gave me every encouragement when I was a child

5.26.2 'Each' referring to both members of a pair

Each, but not every, can refer to both the members of a pair:

As they had both worked so hard they each received a bonus
Distributives

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 own actions [> 4.40]

Each can also occur at the end of a statement:

Give the delivery-men $5 each

5.27 'Another' compared with '(the) other(s)'

Another can have two meanings:

- 'additional'?similar': Do you need another cup? No I have enough
- 'different': Give me another cup. This one's cracked

Another and others are indefinite; the (or my your, etc.) other and the others are definite. Another, as a determiner, always goes with a singular noun unless it is followed by a cardinal number or by few:

I need another three driving lessons before my test
I need another few days before I can make up my mind

The other can be followed by a singular or plural noun:

This seat is free, the other seat is taken
These seats are free the other seats are taken

Another is followed by a singular noun; other by a plural noun:

There must be another way of solving the problem that can't be the only way There must be other ways of solving the problem

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:

I'll 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?
Distributives

5.28 'Each other' and 'one another' [compare > 4.28]
Sometimes a distinction is drawn between each other (used to refer to
two people) and one another (used to refer to more than two). In
everyday speech, both phrases are normally interchangeable.
Karen and Dave are deeply in love with each other/one another

Both phrases can be used with an 's
Those two are always copying each other's/one another's homework

5.29 'Either' compared with 'neither'
Either and neither refer to two people things, etc (singular nouns)
only Either means 'one or the other' and neither means 'not one and
not the other' Constructions with neither are generally more emphatic
than those with not either
Do you want an appointment at 9 or at 10?
- Either time is difficult Neither time is convenient

5.29.1 Either' and 'neither' + 'of'
When followed by of, either and neither refer to each of two items
Which pot shall I use? - Either (of them) It doesn't matter which
Which pot shall I use? - Neither (of them) Use this frying pan

5.29.2 'Either + or'; 'neither + nor' [> 1.15, 5.31]
You can have either this one or that one
Neither this house nor the house next door has central heating

5.29.3 Either' and 'both' compared
Either refers to two things considered separately Compare
You can't have either of them (= you can't have one or the other)
You can't have both of them (= you can have only one of them)

5.30 The use of 'one (of)' after distributives [compare > 4.10]
We may use one of 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
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’s 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. a 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-two-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 ill and poorly combine with some past participles -advised -educated informed paid etc

Types of adjectives and their uses

6.4 Form and use of adjectives

An adjective never varies in form no matter whether it refers to people or things etc in the singular or plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular:</th>
<th>Bob is tall</th>
<th>He is tall</th>
<th>He is a tall man</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a tall man</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tall woman</td>
<td>Maggie is tall</td>
<td>She is tall</td>
<td>She is a tall woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tall horse</td>
<td></td>
<td>It is tall</td>
<td>It is a tall horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tall tree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>plural:</th>
<th></th>
<th>They are tall</th>
<th>They are tall men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tall men</td>
<td></td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall women</td>
<td></td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall people</td>
<td></td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall horses</td>
<td></td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall horses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall trees</td>
<td></td>
<td>They are tall</td>
<td>They are tall trees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6 Adjectives

6.5 Gradelable 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].
- the verbs be seem, etc. combine with adjectives like afraid, cold hot hungry lucky, right sleepy thirsty, unlucky, wrong, where in some European languages such words are used as nouns after have, or an idea can be expressed by a verb. So, in English, depending on context, *she is cold* may relate to temperature (i.e. not warm) or attitude (i.e. not friendly)- Nor do adjectives like cold hot, etc. combine with make to refer to the weather:  
  It (i.e. the weather) is cold/hot/windy  
- for adjectives and adverbs often confused (fast, etc.) [> App 14].

6.7 Attributive and predicative adjectives

The terms **attributive** and **predicative** refer to the position of an adjective in a phrase or sentence. We say that an adjective is attributive or is used attributively when it comes before a noun (and is therefore part of the **noun phrase** [> 2.1]):  
  an old ticket a young shop-assistant he is an old man

We say that an adjective is predicative or that it is used predicatively when it comes directly after be seem, etc. It can be used on its own as the **complement** [> 1.9, 1.11.1, 6.17]:

  This ticket is **old** Your mother **seems** angry

For predicative adjectives after verbs other than be seem etc: turn yellow> 10. 26.1]. Most adjectives can be used either attributively or predicatively. A few can be used in one way and not in the other.
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 wanteed)

Other adjectives which can have the sense of very when used attributively are: close (a close friend); complete perfect total (a complete perfect total fool); pure (pure nonsense); and strong (a strong supporter). Most of these can be attributive or predicative in their normal meanings:

Pure drinking water is best This water is pure
Types of adjectives and their uses

Some -ing adjectives can qualify other adjectives. They have an intensifying effect equivalent to very in (often) fixed phrases like boiling hot, freezing cold, hopping mad, soaking wet

Adjectives which restrict the reference of the noun are always attributive: certain (a woman of a certain age); chief (my chief complaint); main (my main concern); only (the only explanation); particular (my particular aim); principal (the principal reason); sole (my sole interest) and very itself (the very man I wanted to see). These adjectives cannot be used predicatively, except for certain and particular, which then change in meaning:

You should be certain of your facts before you rush into print
Some people aren’t very particular about the food they eat

6.10 Adjectives after nouns in official titles, etc.
The adjective follows the noun in a number of 'titles': e.g. Attorney General Governor General Heir Apparent, Poet Laureate Postmaster General, President Elect (or elect), Sergeant Major
And note: Asia Minor, and a number of fixed phrases, such as body politic, Goodness gracious, hope eternal, penny dreadful, sum total time immemorial

6.11 Adjectives which can come before or after nouns
6.11.1 Adjectives before or after nouns with no change in meaning
A limited number of adjectives, mostly ending in -able and -ible, can come before or after nouns, usually with no change of meaning. Some of these are: available eligible, imaginable, taxable

I doubt whether we can complete our contract in the time available/in the available time

6.11.2 Adjectives before or after nouns with a change in meaning
A few adjectives change in meaning depending on whether they are used before or after a noun. Some of these are: concerned elect involved present, proper responsible

The concerned (= worried) doctor rang for an ambulance
The doctor concerned (= responsible) is on holiday
This elect (= specially chosen) body meets once a year
The president elect (= who has been elected) takes over in May
It was a very involved (= complicated) explanation
The boy involved (= connected with this) has left

Present employees (= those currently employed) number 3 000
Employees present (= those here now) should vote on the issue
It was a proper (= correct) question
The question proper (= itself) has not been answered
Janet is a responsible girl (= She has a sense of duty.)
The girl responsible (= who can be blamed) was expelled

6.12 Adjectives which can be used as if they were nouns
6.12.1 Adjectives used as nouns
A few adjectives can be used as if they were nouns (e.g. after a an)
and can sometimes have a plural The listener mentally supplies the missing noun

'I've got my medical on Thursday (= medical examination)
Don't be such a silly! (= a silly fool)

There's something the matter with the electrics in my car (= the electrical system)

Other words which are both adjectives and nouns are e.g.

a black/blacks a red/red a white/whites

6.12.2 'The' + adjective: e.g. 'the young' [> App 9]
Adjectives like the following are used after the never after a/an to represent a group as a whole e.g. the blind the deaf the living/the dead the rich/the poor the young/the old the unemployed. So the deaf means a group of people who are all deaf.

Andrew was sent to a special school for the deaf
These adjectives are followed by a plural verb

You can always judge a society by the way the old are cared for.
We can never use these adjectives on their own to refer to a single individual (Not * he is a young * * they are youngs *) If we wish to refer to single individuals, we must use an adjective + noun [> 6.6]

He'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)

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 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjectives: usual order</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quality size/age/shape colour</td>
<td>origin past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beautiful old brown French handmade</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cupboard kitchen cupbocr teak cupboard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that general qualities go before particular qualities. The more particular the quality, the closer the adjective is to the noun. Let’s begin with the noun and work backwards:
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>cleaner</td>
<td>cleanest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nice</td>
<td>nicer</td>
<td>nicest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tidy</td>
<td>tidier</td>
<td>tidiest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>narrow</td>
<td>narrower</td>
<td>narrowest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.23 Notes on the comparison of shorter adjectives

6.23.1 Spelling of comparative and superlative forms

1 Most one-syllable adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives like clean: -er and -est are added to their basic forms. Other examples like clean are: cold cool great hard, high low neat new short small thick weak.

2 Many one-syllable adjectives end with a single consonant after a single vowel-letter. This consonant doubles in the comparative and superlative, as in the case of big. Other examples like big are: fa’ fatter fattest sad sadder saddest thin thinner thinnest wet wetter wettest. Compare adjectives like full small tall, etc. which end with a double consonant and form their comparatives and superlatives like clean: tall taller tallest.

3 Many one-syllable adjectives end in -e, like nice. These add -r and -st to the basic form, pronounced e.g. /naisəst/. 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, fay, and these simply take the endings -er and -est.

5 Some other two-syllable adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives regularly. Other examples like narrow are: clever, common, gentle, simple (> 6.26n.1).

6.23.2 Pronunciation of comparative and superlative forms

In comparatives and superlatives containing the letters ng, /ŋ/ is pronounced /ŋ/after e.g. younger, longer, strongest. In other words containing ng /ŋ/ is not pronounced: e.g. singer /sɪŋə/

6.24 Some irregular comparative and superlative forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther</td>
<td>farthest [&gt; 7.5n.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>further</td>
<td>furthest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>older</td>
<td>oldest [&gt; App 12.3-4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elder</td>
<td></td>
<td>eldest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

quantifier [> 5.13] comparative superlative

| much      | more        | most        |
| many      | less        | least       |
| little    |             |             |

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 normally not used in this way. More is occasionally used with one-syllable adjectives (e.g. It's more true to say that British English is influenced by American, rather than the other way round.) More/less can never be used in front of a comparative (e.g. happier), nor can most/least be used in front of a superlative (e.g. happiest).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pleasant</td>
<td>more pleasant</td>
<td>most pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less pleasant</td>
<td>least pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful</td>
<td>more careful</td>
<td>most careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less careful</td>
<td>least careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>more expensive</td>
<td>most expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less expensive</td>
<td>least expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored</td>
<td>more bored/boring</td>
<td>most bored/boring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less bored/boring</td>
<td>least bored/boring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.26 Notes on the comparison of longer adjectives

1 Some two-syllable adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives either with -er and -est or with more less and most/least
Other examples like pleasant are: clever common, gentle handsome happy, narrow quiet, shallow simple stupid tired [6 23 in.5]. The opposites of such words, when formed with the prefix un-, can also form their comparatives and superlatives in two ways—e.g. uncommon unhappy unpleasant unhappiest or more unhappy unhappiest or most unhappy. Where there is uncertainty, it is safest to use more and most with two-syllable adjectives.

2 The comparatives and superlatives of other two-syllable adjectives must always be with more/less and most/least. These include all adjectives ending in -ful or -less (careful careless useful, useless).

Other examples of adjectives which form comparisons in this way are: (un)certam (in)correct (in)famous foolish (in)frequent modern, (ab)normal. Adjectives with more than two syllables compare with more/most and less, least beautiful (un)comfortable dangerous expensive, (un)important (un)natural, (un)necessary.

This applies to most compound adjectives as well, such as: quick-witted waterproof. But note compounds with good well 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 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:

1. *know him better than you* This could mean:
   1. *know him better than you know him* (than is a conjunction)
   2. *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.

- John is easily the tallest boy in our class
- Yesterday was the hottest day of the year

Other fixed prepositional phrases are possible:

- It's the oldest trick on earth/under the sun

Alternatively, we can use a relative clause (> 1.40) after a superlative. This is often accompanied by a present perfect with ever heard, met, read, seen, etc. (> 9.25.1):

- 'War and Peace' is the longest book (that) I have ever read
- Penfold is the most conceited man (that/whom) I have ever met

6.28.2 Modification of superlatives

Superlatives can be modified by adverbs of degree like almost altogether, by far far much, nearly practically quite the very

- This is quite(by) far the most expensive bicycle in the shop
- This is much the worst stretch of motorway in the country

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dons has left</th>
<th>Dons has just left</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have finished work</td>
<td>I have nearly finished work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
Onlygradableadverbs [compare > 6.5] can have comparative and superlative forms. Comparison is not possible with adverbs such as daily, extremely only really, then there, uniquely, because they are not gradable. Gradable adverbs form comparatives and superlatives as follows:

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

7.5 Notes on the comparison of adverbs [compare 6.22-26]
1 Many adverbs like early, fast, etc. [> App 14] form their comparatives and superlatives in the same way as shorter adjectives (e.g. earlier earliest).

2 As most adverbs of manner have two or more syllables, they form their comparatives and superlatives with more/less and most/least.
Other examples: more-'less/most/least briefly clearly quickly.
7 Adverbs

3 Some adverbs of frequency form their comparative and superlative with more/less most/least (e.g. more seldom, most seldom); often has two comparative forms: more often and (less common) oftener.

4 Compare latest/last: both words can be adjectives:
   I bought the latest (i.e. most recent) edition of today’s paper
   I bought the last (i.e. final) edition of today’s paper
But normally only last is used as an adverb:
   That was a difficult question so I answered it last
or before the main verb:
   It last rained eight months ago (= The last time it rained was…)
Both farther and further can be used to refer to distance:
   I drove ten miles farther/further than necessary
   Further, but not farther, can be used to mean 'in addition':
   We learnt further that he wasn’t a qualified doctor
   Note the irregular adverb well (related to the adjective good) which means 'in a pleasing or satisfactory way':
   Jane Somers writes well [compare bad/badly and > 6.8.1, 6.17]

7.6 How we make comparisons using adverbs
Adverbial comparisons can be made with the following [compare > 6.27-30]:

- as...as:
  Sylvia sings as sweetly as her sister
- not as/so...as:
  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:
  I work fastest when I'm under pressure
- superlative:
  Tim tries the hardest of all the boys in his class

We often use the comparative + than ever than anyone, than anything in: e.g.
Magnus concentrated harder than ever/than anyone

This is preferable to the superlative in: e.g.
Magnus concentrated the hardest

Adverbs of manner

7.7 Spelling and form of adverbs ending in '-ly'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 Add -ly to an adjective</th>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>badly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful</td>
<td>carefully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(day - noun)</td>
<td>daily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 -y becomes -ily: consonant + y</td>
<td>noble</td>
<td>nobly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare: vowel + y:</td>
<td>fantastic</td>
<td>fantastically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Delete -e and add -ly for endings in -le:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Adjectives ending in -ic take -ally.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adverbs of manner

7.8 Notes on the spelling and form of '-ly' adverbs

1 Most adverbs of manner are formed by adding -ly to adjectives, e.g. mad/madly, plain/plainly, sudden/suddenly. This applies to adjectives ending in -s so that the s is doubled: beautiful/beautifully, musical/musically. But note: fully

2 -y after a consonant becomes -ly. e.g. busy/busily, funny/funnily. Sometimes two formations are possible, e.g. dry/driply/dryly, but in e.g. sly/softly, -ly is the acceptable form

3 Delete -e and add -(l)y if an adjective ends in -te- e.g. able/ably, nimble/nimbly, possible/impossibly, whole/wholly. Other adjectives ending in -e retain the -e when adding -ly: extreme/extremely, tame/tamely. Exceptions: due/duly and true/truly.

4 Adjectives ending in -ic take -ally: e.g. basic/basically, systematic/systematically. Common exception: public/publicly

Some -ly adverbs (relating to manner/frequency) have the same form as adjectives: e.g. daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly, yearly. I receive quarterly bills I pay my bills quarterly

Early can be used as an adjective or an adverb, but unlike e.g. week/weekly is not formed from another word. I hope to catch an early train I want to arrive early

7.9 Suffixes other than -ly' used to form adverbs of manner

A few other suffixes can be added to adjectives (and to some nouns and adverbs) to form adverbs of manner (or in some cases direction): (Indian)-fashion; (American)-style, backwards, forwards, northwards, upwards; crossways, lengthways, sideways, clockwise, lengthwise. The suffix -wise is often used to make new adverbs meaning 'relating to (the noun)': moneywise, taxwise. (How do you manage taxwise?)

7.10 Adverbs of manner with dynamic and stative verbs

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

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,
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_cheaply*
  I bought this car *cheap/cheaply*

- different meanings e.g. *hard_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] eg

- after the object Sue watched the monkeys *curiously*
  Look at this photo *carefulY*

- after the verb It snowed *heavily* last January

- after an adverb particle He took the picture down *carefulY*

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 Gradgrind 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 Adverbs

7.19 Position of adverbs of place

Adverbs of place never go between subject and verb

7.19.1 Adverbs of place: after manner but before time

When there is more than one kind of adverb in a sentence, the usual position of adverbs of place is after manner, but before time (following a verb or verb + object [> 1.3])

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>manner</th>
<th>place</th>
<th>time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbara read</td>
<td>quietly</td>
<td>in the library</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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] 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 still [> 7.25] subsequently suddenly then these days ultimately and yet [> 7.27-28]

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:

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

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

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

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 this?* You just turn on that switch

7.30 Adverbials of duration

Duration (periods of time) can be expressed by adverbs (e.g. ago all (day) long, (not) any more (not) any longer, no longer no more), and by prepositional phrases functioning as adverbials (beginning with e.g. by, during, for from to/till, since throughout).

7.31 ‘Since’ and ‘ago’ [> 9.25.2, 9.29.1, 9.33.1, 10.13.5, 9.18]

Since combines with points of time to answer the question *Since when?* it is often associated with the present perfect to mark the beginning of a period lasting till now, or with the past perfect to mark the beginning of a period lasting till then:

I haven’t seen Tim since January/since last holidays
I met John last week I hadn’t seen him since 1984

Since can be used as an adverb on its own:

*saw your mother last January, but I haven’t seen her since*

Period of time + ago (answering How long ago? or When?) marks the start of a period going back from now:

I started working at Lawson’s seven months ago

Note that since is placed before the point in time it refers to; ago is placed after the period it refers to.

7.32 ‘For’ [> App 25.20]

For (+ period of time, answering How long?) marks the duration of a period of time in the past or in the future, or up to the present:

The Kenways lived here for five years (They no longer live here.)
The Kenways have lived here for five years (They are still here.)

For combines with e.g. ages, hours days, weeks, months, years, etc. to emphasize or exaggerate duration:

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/untill 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-infinite, 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

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
weakening the effect of the word they modify. In speech, the information they provide can vary according to stress:

The film was quite good (rising tone: = I enjoyed it on the whole)
The film was quite good (falling tone: = I didn't particularly enjoy it)

For adverbs of degree which will combine with the comparative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs (> 6.27.5, 6.28.2).

Some quantifiers, such as a little, a lot, much, etc. can be used as adverbs of degree (> 7.45-46). Compare:

I don't like coffee very much (degree)
I don't drink much coffee (quantity)

Fractions and percentages also function as adverbs to show degree:

Business is so bad that the department stores are half empty
We have a 60% chance of winning the next election

Some adverbs of degree (almost, nearly, etc.) do not pose problems in usage; others (fairly, rather, etc.) are more complicated. Details follow.

7.42 'Quite'

The meaning of quite depends on the kind of word it modifies. With adjectives and adverbs which are gradable (> 6.5) quite means 'less than the highest degree', or it can mean 'better than expected'. This use of quite (- less than, etc.) is not very common in AmE.

The lecture was quite good He lectured quite well (= less than)
However, with ungradable words (dead, perfectly, uniquely) and 'strong' gradable words (amazingly, astounding), quite means 'absolutely' or 'completely':
The news is quite amazing. She plays quite amazingly

Not quite, roughly meaning 'not completely', is normally used with ungradable words only (not quite dead, not quite perfect, etc.): Your answer is not quite right.

Quite is not used with the comparative but can modify a few verbs:

I quite enjoy mountain holidays (i.e. to a certain extent)
I quite forgot to post your letter (i.e. completely)

And note: He's quite better (= He has completely recovered.)

Quite is often used in BrE in understatements. Thus, if a speaker says, He's quite clever, he might mean, 'He's very intelligent'. Where a slightly different emphasis is required, quite can be replaced by not all + a negative word: He's not at all stupid [compare > 5.8]

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

Quite 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 an (or a quite) + adjective + noun is positive in its effect:

It is quite an interesting film/a quite interesting film

Quite the (= e.g. 'certainly') can combine with:

- superlatives: It's quite the worst play I have ever seen
- nouns: Wide lapels are quite the fashion this spring
Adverbs of degree

7.43 ‘Fairly’

Fairly suggests 'less than the highest degree' and often combines with adjectives/adverbs that suggest a good state of affairs (e.g. good nice well). It is less ‘complimentary’ than quite:

The lecture was fairly good He lectured fairly well

Fairly does not combine with comparatives. Compared with quite and rather, it combines with verbs in restricted contexts:

You fairly drive me mad with your nagging (= very nearly)

A fairly combines with adjective + noun:

He’s a fairly good speaker (less complimentary than quite a/an)

7.44 ‘Rather’

Rather can be stronger than quite and fairly and suggests 'inclined to be'. It can combine with adjectives which suggest a good state of affairs or a bad one:

- inclined to be good: good, nice clever, well
- inclined to be bad: bad, nasty, stupid, ill

Rather combines with:

- adjectives: This jackets getting rather old
- adverbs: I did rather badly in the competition
- some verbs: I rather like raw fish
- comparatives: Clive earns rather more than his father

Rather tends to combine with 'negative' adjectives:

Frank is clever but rather lazy

With 'positive' adjectives, rather often suggests 'surprisingly':

Your results are rather good - better than I expected

In BrE rather, like quite [> 7.42], is used in understatements:

Professor Boffin was rather pleased when he won the Nobel Prize

7.44.1 ‘Rather a/an’ and ‘a rather’

Rather a/an combines with a noun:

Old Fortescue’s rather a bore (= he’s inclined to be a bore)

Rather a/an or a rather can precede adjective + noun:

It’s rather a sad story = It’s a rather sad story

7.45 ‘Much’, far’ and ‘a lot’

Normally, much and far combine with comparative/superlative forms [> 6.27.5, 6.28.2]: much bigger far better, far the best; and a lot combines with comparatives: a lot more expensive-

Much can be used like very [> 7.51] and any [> 5.12.3] with a few positive (i.e. not comparative or superlative) forms such as good and different. It is normally used with a negative:

I don’t think this battery is much good/much different

A lot and far combine with different, but not with good:

This edition is a lot far different from the earlier one

Not much and a lot combine with verbs like like and enjoy-

I don’t much like fish I don’t like fish (very) much/a lot

Far combines with verbs like prefer and would rather [>11.44]:

I far prefer swimming to cycling
7 Adverbs

7.46 'A (little) bit', 'a little', 'somewhat'

A bit (or a little bit), a little and somewhat combine with
- adjectives I t’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 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

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**

*Very* + noun  **Boris is not a very nice person**

*Very* + 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’).

Byron is **very much** admire in Athens.

*Very* can be replaced by *most* before some adjectives describing personal feelings and 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 mistakenly injured perfectly planned, etc.}.

In the passive -/adverbs can come before or after past participles:

He was unexpectedly delayed/delayed unexpectedly

7.53.1 Limited combinations with -ly adverbs

Some -ly adverbs, such as badly deeply, lightly sharply strikingly utterly, combine with relatively small sets of words: e.g. badly needed deep 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].
7 Adverbs

Viewpoint adverbs and connectives

7.57 Expressing a viewpoint [> App 17]

Many adverbs and adverbial phrases tell us something about a speaker's (or writer's) attitude to what he is saying or to the person he is talking to (or writing to or for). We call these 'viewpoint' or 'sentence' adverbs because they qualify what is being said (or written), but do not affect its grammatical structure. For example, a speaker or writer may use adverbs such as clearly or evidently to tell us he is drawing conclusions; frankly or honestly to impress us with his sincerity; generally or normally to make generalizations; briefly or in short to suggest he will not be tedious or go into details. Viewpoint adverbs may come at the very beginning of a sentence, and are followed by a brief pause in speech or a comma in writing. They then modify the sentence or sentences that follow:

- **Frankly** I am not satisfied with your work
- Some viewpoint adverbs may also come in mid-position:
  - He smiled nastily He **evidently** knew something I didn't
- **Hopefully** is an adverb of manner in:
  - To travel **hopefully** is better than to arrive
- Nowadays, **hopefully** is often used as a viewpoint adverb, though not all native speakers approve of this use:
  - **Hopefully** (= I hope) I'll see you sometime tomorrow
  - **Hopefully**, (= it is hoped) they'll arrive at an agreement

7.58 Connecting words and phrases [> App 18]

Numerous adverbs introduce additions to, modifications or summaries of what has already been said. They are essential when we wish to present information in a coherent fashion in speech or writing. For example, a speaker or writer may use adverbs such as however or on the contrary to draw a contrast; at the same time or meanwhile to tell us about something else that was happening at the same time; as a result or consequently to draw our attention to results; furthermore or moreover to add information.

Connectives may come at the beginning, followed by a pause in speech or a comma in writing:

- The police were sure Griffiths was lying. They had found his fingerprints everywhere **Furthermore** they knew for a fact that he hadn't been at his mother's at the time of the crime
- Some connectives may also come in mid-position and are then separated from the rest of the sentence by commas:
  - Penrose gambled heavily and **as a result** lost a lot of money

Inversion after adverbs

7.59 Inversion after adverbs

Sometimes the normal subject-verb order in a sentence is reversed if a sentence begins with an adverb. This can happen as follows:
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 / 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
- prepositions ending in -ing such as excepting regarding

A few phrasal verbs [> 8.23] are formed with verb + to as an adverb particle:

- e.g. *come to pull to.*

8.4.3 Words that are used as adverb particles, but not as prepositions
The following words are used only as particles (that is, they do not take an object):

- away back backward(s) downward(s) forward(s) out [except informally > App 25.31] and upward(s).

*The children rang the bell and ran away.*

BAA Words that can be used as prepositions or conjunctions
Some words can be used as prepositions (when followed by an object) or as conjunctions (when followed by a clause): e.g. *after as before since, till until [> 1.44-53]*:

- *I haven’t seen him since this morning* (preposition)
- *I haven’t seen him since he left this morning* (conjunction)

When used as conjunctions, *as well as but, except and than* can be followed by a bare infinitive [> 16.1]:

- *I’ve done everything you wanted except (or but) make the beds*

8.5 Some problems for the learner in the use of prepositions
English uses more prepositions than most other European languages, partly because 'case' [> 1.1] is no longer expressed by noun endings. This may cause problems of choice because:

- many English prepositions have nearly the same meaning:
  - e.g. *beside by near next to, or: above on top of over*
- a single preposition in the student’s mother tongue may do the work of several English prepositions. So, for example, there may be one
8 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

A single place (e.g. river) can be viewed from different angles:

* We went to the river
* Greenwich is down the river
* The paper boat floated on the river
* We swam in the river

8.7 Prepositions reflecting movement or lack of movement

A preposition takes on the idea of movement (*fly* under) or lack of movement (*stop* under) from the verb in the sentence. Some prepositions combine either with 'movement verbs' (e.g. *bring drive fly get go move pull run take walk*) or with 'position verbs' (e.g. *be live keep meet stay stop work*).
Movement and position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>movement</th>
<th>position (lack of movement)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>above</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>across</td>
<td>+ object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>along</td>
<td>+ object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We drove behind the object.  
We saw towards the object.

Some prepositions, such as *into* *onto* *out of* *to*, etc., normally combine only with 'movement verbs':

A *bird flew into my bedroom* this morning  
I *drove out of the car park*  

Other prepositions, such as *at* *in* *on* etc. normally combine only with 'position verbs':

The *bird perched on the curtain rail*  
I *waited in the hotel lobby*  

Verbs which describe 'movement with an end': e.g. *lay* *place* *sit* *stand* do not combine with prepositions like *into* *onto* or *to*:

She *laid the letter on the table*  
She *sat the baby on the table*  

We can often use the verb *be* with prepositions that normally combine with 'movement verbs' to convey the idea of 'having reached a destination' (real or metaphorical):

At last we were *into/out of the forest/over the river*  
At last we were *out of/over our difficulties*  

8.8 Adverb particles reflecting movement or lack of movement

The same contrast between movement and lack of movement can also be expressed by verb + adverb particle:

**movement**: We went away/back/inside-outside/up down  
**position**: We stayed away/back/inside/outside/up down  

Compare:

Where’s Jim? I don’t know He went out (movement)  
Where’s Jim? - I don’t know He’s out (position)  

8.9 Prepositions reflecting direction and destination

The difference between direction and destination can often be expressed by contrasting prepositions. The choice depends on whether we are referring to a point, a surface or an area [> 8.6].

8.9.1 'To/from a point' compared with 'at a point' [> 8.6]

*To* and *from* a point (indicating direction) may contrast with *at* a point (indicating destination or position after movement):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction to or from</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>The Grand Hotel school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has come from</td>
<td>and now he’s at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my brother’s</td>
<td>London Airport</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction to or from</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bed</td>
<td>and now he's in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To and in combine with a variety of nouns [> App 22].

8.9.3 'To/from a point' compared with 'at a point/in an area' [> App 23]

With certain nouns, the destination after movement may be at or in depending on whether the location is seen as a point or an area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction to or from</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim has gone to</td>
<td>the hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the restaurant</td>
<td>and now he's at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the bank</td>
<td>the hotel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At cannot replace in for words that represent very wide areas: e.g. in the sky, in the universe, in the world. Note that the use of at or in after the verb arrive depends on which preposition the noun is normally used with (arrive at a party, arrive in the country). Sometimes either preposition is possible depending on whether we regard the location as a point or an area [> 8.6]: arrive at Brighton or arrive in Brighton.

8.9.4 'On(to) a line or surface', 'off a line or surface'

On(to) (direction) and on (destination or location) can be used to indicate 'being supported by' a line or surface:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction on(to)</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I put the pen on(to) the table</td>
<td>and now it is on the table</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Onto is spelt as one word or two: on to. On (without to) can sometimes indicate direction, often with a change of level:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I put the pen on the table</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I took the plate off the table and now it is off the table</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.9.5 'In(to) and in an area or volume'

Into always reflects movement and is never used for destination or position. In usually reflects position, but with some movement verbs like drop, fall and put it can also reflect movement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction in(to)</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have put the com in(to) my pocket</td>
<td>and now it is in my pocket</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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:

/ // meet you **inside/in** the restaurant.

### 8.9.6 'Out of an area or volume'

**Out of** can reflect direction and destination:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>direction</th>
<th>destination after movement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>out of the building</td>
<td>and then we were out of the building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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 Prepositions, adverb particles and phrasal verbs

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 // 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
Particular uses of prepositions/particles

Some prepositions function as contrasting pairs:

*Please don't keep running up and down (the stairs)*

Or the second word adds something to the meaning of the first:

*Martha was ill for a long time, but she's up and about now*

8.17 Prepositional phrases

A large number of fixed prepositional phrases are in common use: e.g. *by right in debt, on time, out of breath*, etc. Some of these phrases have metaphorical or idiomatic uses which extend their time/place associations: e.g. *above average beneath contempt beyond belief*. Many phrases follow the pattern preposition + noun + preposition: e.g. *in danger of, on account of* [> Apps 20.3, 26].

8.18 Combinations of particles and prepositions

Prepositions often follow particles, e.g. *across/along/back/down/off 'on + to for, etc. [also > 8.30.2]:*

*I'm just off for a swim I'm going down to the beach*

Prepositions sometimes combine directly with each other, as in:

*That's the boy from over the road*

*Come out from under there will you?*

8.19 Adjectives + prepositions

Many adjectives used predicatively [*> 6.7, 6.8.4] are followed by particular prepositions: *absent from, certain of, etc.*

*Simon 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].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>embarrassed</td>
<td>embarrassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>about/at/for</td>
<td>about/at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keen</td>
<td>keenness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>successful</td>
<td>success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emerge from</td>
<td>emergence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object to</td>
<td>objection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This correlation does not always apply: e.g. *be proud of/take pride in*

Or a noun takes a preposition and the verb does not:

*I fear something My fear of something I influence somebody My influence on somebody*

8.21 Modification of prepositions and adverb particles

Prepositions and adverb particles can be modified by adverbs: *directly above our heads, quite out of his mind right off the main road, well over $200, in particular, all, to mean 'entirely', can combine*
with numerous prepositions and particles, such as about along
down during round through

Our baby went on crying all through the night
Straight (= immediately) is frequently used with movement and right
(= in the exact location) is commonly associated with destination
He went straight to bed/into my office/up to his room
He lives right at the end of the street/across the 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? [> 13.31 n 4]
Relative clauses The painting you're looking at has been sold [> 1.35-38]
Wh-clauses What he asked me about is something I can't discuss (Separation is obligatory here)
Indirect speech Tell me where you bought that (from) (optional)
Exclamations What a lot of trouble he put me to'
Passives Our house was broken into last night (The end-position is obligatory in the passive)
Infinitives I need someone to talk to [> 16.36]

Nowadays not many native speakers believe that it is 'bad style' to end a sentence with a preposition, though the choice of position does depend to some extent on style and balance

Verb + preposition/particle: non-phrasal and phrasal

8.23 General information about phrasal verbs

One of the most common characteristics of the English verb is that it can combine with prepositions and adverb particles [> 7.3.4] Broadly speaking, we call these combinations phrasal verbs. Though grammarians differ about the exact definition of a phrasal verb, we may use the term to describe any commonly-used combination of verb + preposition or verb + adverb particle.

Essential combinations
Sometimes this combination is essential to the use of the verb 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
when it combines with a preposition or particle a new verb is formed, which may have a totally different idiomatic meaning, or even several meanings. For example, there are numerous combinations with make: make for (a place) (= go towards), make off (= run away), make up (= invent), etc. See examples in 8.23.2.

8.23.1 The use of phrasal verbs in English
There is a strong tendency (especially in informal, idiomatic English) to use phrasal verbs instead of their one-word equivalents. It would be very unusual, for instance, to say *Enter*’ instead of *Come in*’ in response to a knock at the door. Similarly, *blow up* might be preferred to *explode*, *give in* to *surrender*, etc. Moreover, new combinations (or new meanings for existing ones) are constantly evolving.

*Share prices bottomed out* (= reached their lowest level) in 1974.

*The book took off* (= became successful) *as soon as it appeared*.

8.23.2 How common phrasal verbs are formed

The most common phrasal verbs are formed from the shortest and simplest verbs in the language, e.g., *be break bring come do fall find get give help let make put send stand take tear throw turn*, which combine with words that often indicate position or direction, such as *along down in off on out over under up*.

Not only can a single verb like *put* combine with a large number of prepositions or particles to form new verbs (*put off, put out, put up with*, etc.) but even a single combination can have different meanings.

*Put out* your cigarettes (= extinguish).
*I felt quite put out* (= annoyed).
*We put out a request for volunteers* (= issued).
*They’re putting the programme out tomorrow* (= broadcasting).
*This stuff will put you out in no time* (= make you unconscious).
*Martha’s put out her hip again* (= dislocated).

8.24 Some problems in the use of verb + preposition/particle

Apart from the obvious problem that the use of phrasal verbs is extremely common and a standard feature of good idiomatic English, interference with the learner’s own language may arise from:

1. Verbs which may be followed by an infinitive in the learner’s language, but which in English can be followed by a preposition or particle + object, but never by an infinitive. E.g., *dream of, insist on, succeed in, think of*.

   *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)
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*

Some combinations can go into the passive [*App 28-30]*
   *Every problem that came up was dealt with efficiently*

e An adverb may come after the object
   *Look at this drawing carefully*
   *or, for emphasis, immediately before or after the verb [*7.16]*
   *Look carefully at this drawing*

f Monosyllabic prepositions are not usually stressed
   *This cake consists of a few common ingredients*

Three sub-groups can be identified

8.27.2 Verb + preposition: non-idiomatic meanings
   *e.g.* approve of, associate with, believe in, emerge from, fight against, hope for, listen to, etc [*App 28]*
   The verbs are used in their normal sense. The problem is to remember which preposition(s) are associated with them. Sometimes different prepositions are possible e.g. *consist of, consist in* where the meaning of the verb remains broadly unchanged.
   *Cement consists of sand and lime* *(ie what the subject (cement) is made of)*
   *Happiness consists in having a cheerful outlook* *(ie consists defines the subject, happiness)*

8.27.3 Verb + object + preposition: non-idiomatic meanings
   *e.g.* remind, someone of, tell someone about, thank someone for
   *Tell us about your travels in China, grandpa*
   Most of these verbs can be used in the passive [*App 29]*

8.27.4 Verb + preposition: idiomatic meanings
   The parts of such verbs cannot be so easily related to their literal meanings. Relatively few of these verbs can go into the passive, and the preposition can hardly ever be separated from the verb. (See 8.27.1 note b above.)
   *e.g. come over (= affect), get over (= recover), go for (= attack), run into (= meet by accident) [*App 30]*
   *I can't explain why I did it. I don't know what came over me.*
   *Has Martha got over her illness yet?*
   *Our dog went for the postman this morning.*

8.28 Type 2: Verb + particle (transitive)

8.28.1 General characteristics of Type 2 verbs [*compare > 12.3n7]*
   a These verbs are followed by particles or words that can be used as prepositions or particles [*8.4*] A word following a verb may in
some cases function as a preposition in one context and as a particle in another

\[ \text{Come up the stairs (preposition)} \]
\[ \text{Come up (particle)} \]

b These verbs are transitive \textit{Drink up your milk}\footnote{though some of them can be used intransitively \textit{Drink up}}

c The particle can be separated from its verb and can go immediately after the noun or noun-phrase object [\( \text{8.28.2} \)]

\[ \text{Please turn every light in the house off} \]

With long objects, we avoid separating the particle from the verb

\[ \text{She turned off all the lights which had been left on} \]

d All transitive verbs can be used in the passive

\[ \text{All the lights in the house have been turned off} \]

e When the particle comes at the end of the sentence, it is stressed

\[ \text{He took off his coat He took his coat off} \]

f Often a verb + particle can be transitive with one meaning

\[ \text{We have to turn our essays in/turn in our essays by Friday} \]

and intransitive, therefore Type 3 [\( \text{8.29} \)] with another meaning

\[ \text{I feel sleepy so I think Ill turn in (= go to bed)} \]

g Nouns can be formed from many verbs of this type e.g.

\[ \text{a breakdown a knockout a follow up a setback [\( \text{App 31} \)]} \]

8.28.2 \textbf{Type 2 verbs: word order}

When there is a noun object, the particle can go

- \textit{before the object} \textit{she gave away all her possessions}

- \textit{or after the object} \textit{She gave all her possessions away}

Even though we may put an object after e.g. \textit{away} as in the first example above, \textit{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 [\( \text{8.4} \)] 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

\[ \text{She gave them away She let me/him/her/it/us/them out} \]

In some cases, the particle comes only after the object [\( \text{App 32} \)]

\[ \text{We can allow the children out till 9} \]

Three sub-groups can be identified

8.28.3 \textbf{Non-phrasal verbs with obvious meanings ('free association')}

Verbs in this group can be used with their literal meanings [\( \text{8.25} \)]

\[ \text{You d better pull in that fishing line} \]

\[ \text{You d better pull that fishing line in} \]

8.28.4 \textbf{Particles that strengthen or extend the effect of the verb}

e.g. \textit{call out eat up stick on write down} The verbs in this group retain their literal meanings [\( \text{App 32} \)] In some cases, the particle can be omitted altogether

\[ \text{Write their names} \]

or it can have a strengthening effect on the verb

\[ \text{Write down their names /Write their names down} \]

In other cases, the particle can extend the meaning of a verb

\[ \text{Give out these leaflets (i.e distribute)} \]
The difference between 'literal (non-idiomatic) meanings' and 'extended meanings' is often hard to draw.

8.28.5 Type 2 verbs with idiomatic meanings
This is a very large category [► App 33] in which the verb + particle have little or no relation to their literal meanings for example, make up can mean 'invent', as in make up a story, take off can mean 'imitate', as in take off the Prime Minister Verb combinations, therefore, can have many different meanings, depending on the particles used. Here are just a few examples of the combinations possible with bring:

- bring up the children (= train/educate)
- bring off a deal (= complete successfully)
- bring on an attack of asthma (= cause)
- bring somebody round to our point of view (= persuade)
- bring someone round (= revive)
- bring down the house (= receive enthusiastic applause)

There is also a large category of fixed expressions with nouns. These remain invariable at all times e.g. make up your mind (where mind cannot be replaced by another word), push the boat out (= take risks), etc. Such expressions are too numerous to list and can only be found in good dictionaries [but > App 34].

8.29 Type 3: Verb + particle (intransitive)

8.29.1 General characteristics of Type 3 verbs

a The verbs in this category are intransitive, that is they cannot be followed by an object.

- Hazel is out
- We set off early etc

b Passive constructions are not possible

c The same combination of verb + particle can sometimes belong to Type 2 (with an object We broke down the fence) and Type 3 (without an object The car broke down) [compare > 8.28.1f]

d Nouns can be formed from verbs of this type e.g. a climb down a dropout an outbreak an onlooker [► App 35]

Two sub-groups can be identified

8.29.2 Non-phrasal verbs with obvious meanings ('free association')

Verbs in this group can be used with their literal meanings [► 8.25]. Combinations with be are common, but occur with many other verbs, often in the imperative e.g. hurry along go away sit down keep on drive over [► App 32] for particle meanings). The 'strengthening effect' noted in 8.28.4 can apply to some of these verbs too, as in hurry up move out, etc.

8.29.3 Type 3 verbs with idiomatic meanings

The verbs in this category [► App 36] often have little or no relation to their literal meanings e.g. break down (collapse), die away (become quiet), pull up (stop when driving a car), turn up (appear unexpectedly)

- Mrs Sims broke down completely when she heard the news
- The echoes died away in the distance
- The bus pulled up sharply at the traffic lights
- Harry turned up after the party when everyone had left
8.30 Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition (transitive)

8.30.1 General characteristics of Type 4 verbs [compare > 12.3n7]
a These are three-part verbs (e.g., put up with)- They are transitive because they end with prepositions and must therefore be followed by an object:
  I don’t know how you put up with these conditions
Some of these verbs take a personal object: take someone up on something (pursue a suggestion someone has made):
  May I take you up on your offer to put me up for the night?
b Some verbs can go into the passive and others cannot:
  All the old regulations were done away with (passive)
  I find it difficult to keep up with you (no passive)
c Two-part nouns can be formed from some three-part verbs: e.g. 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>simple</th>
<th>progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present:</td>
<td>‘work’</td>
<td>I am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past:</td>
<td>‘worked’</td>
<td>I was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect:</td>
<td>I have worked</td>
<td>I have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect:</td>
<td>I had worked</td>
<td>I had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future:</td>
<td>I will work</td>
<td>I will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect:</td>
<td>I will have worked</td>
<td>I will have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple forms and progressive combinations can also occur with:

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

Both simple and progressive forms usually give a general idea of when an action takes place. But the progressive forms also tell us that
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

an activity is (or was, or will be, etc.) in progress, or thought of as being in progress.

This activity may be in progress at the moment of speaking:

*What are you doing?*  *I'm making a cake*

or not in progress at the moment of speaking:

*I'm learning to type* (i.e. but not at the moment of speaking)

Or the activity may be temporary or changeable:

*Fred was wearing a blue shirt yesterday*

Or the activity may be uncompleted:

*Vera has been trying to learn Chinese for years*

Our decision about which tense to use depends on the context and the impression we wish to convey.

9.3 Stative and dynamic verbs

Some verbs are not generally used in progressive forms. They are called *stative* because they refer to *states* (e.g. experiences, conditions) rather than to actions. In a sentence like:

*She loves/loved her baby more than anything in the world*  loves (or loved) describes a state over which the mother has no control: it is an involuntary feeling. We could not use the progressive forms (is/was loving) here.

Dynamic verbs, on the other hand, usually refer to *actions* which are deliberate or voluntary (*I'm making a cake*) or they refer to changing situations (*He's growing old*), that is, to activities, etc., which have a beginning and an end. Dynamic verbs can be used in progressive as well as simple forms. Compare the following:

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

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]:

\[ \text{I can smell gas} = \text{I smell gas} \]

9.4 Time references with adverbs [> App 48]

Some adverbs like yesterday and tomorrow refer to past or future:

\[ \text{I saw Jim yesterday} \quad \text{I'll be seeing Isabel tomorrow} \]

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:

\[ \text{We always have breakfast at 7.30} \]
\[ \text{Roland always took me out to dinner on my birthday} \]

But it can be used with other tenses as well:

\[ \text{I shall always remember this holiday (future)} \]
\[ \text{Natasha has always been generous, (present perfect)} \]
\[ \text{Mr Biggs said he had always travelled first class (past perfect)} \]

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:

\[ \text{Our postman usually delivers our mail at 7 every morning} \]
\[ \text{It's nearly lunch-time and the mail still hasn't arrived I suppose} \]

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:

\[ \text{When I lived in London the postman usually delivered our mail at 7} \]
\[ \text{every morning Usually no one in our household had got up when} \]
\[ \text{the mail arrived} \]

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:

\[ \text{He tells me he's a good tennis-player} \]

A past tense normally attracts another past:

\[ \text{He told me he was a good tennis-player} \]
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]
- Clauses of purpose [> 1.51]

### The simple present tense

#### 9.6 Form of the simple present tense

We add *s* or *es* to the base form of the verb in the third person singular:

- I work
- You work
- He works
- She works
- It works
- We work
- You work
- They work

#### 9.7 The third person singular: pronunciation and spelling

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

- *lz* after /fl/, /tʃl/, /kl/, /lʃ/ - laughs puffs drops kicks lets
- Verbs ending in /z/, /dz/, /s/, /ʃ/, /ʧ/ and /ks/ take an extra syllable in the third person which is pronounced /lz/ - loses manages passes pushes stitches mixes
- Other verbs are pronounced with a /lz/ in the third person after / b/ robs after/d/ adds after /g/ digs after /l/ fills after/ml/ dreams after/n/ runs after/r/ rings after vowel + w or r draws st rs after /lv/ loves after vowels sees pays Says is normally pronounced /sez/ and does is pronounced /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_?

_How often do you go to the dentist? - I go every six months_

Questions relating to habit can be asked with _ever_ and answered with e.g _never_ and sometimes _not ever_[> 7.40.5]

_Do you ever eat meat? - No I never eat meat_

9.8.4 Future reference
This use is often related to timetables and programmes or to events in the calendar

_The exhibition opens on January 1st and closes on January 31st_

_The concert begins at 7.30 and ends at 9.30_

_We leave tomorrow at 11.15 and arrive at 17.50_

_Wednesday, May 24th marks our 25th wedding anniversary_

For the use of the simple present after _when_ etc[> 1.45.2]

9.8.5 Observations and declarations
We commonly use the simple present with stative and other verbs to make observations and declarations in the course of conversation e.g

*I hope/assume/suppose/promise everything will be all right*

*I bet you were nervous just before your driving test*

*It says here that the police expect more trouble in the city*

*I declare this exhibition open*

*I see/hear there are roadworks in the street again*

*I love you I hate him*

*We live in difficult times - I agree*
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]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am</th>
<th>waiting</th>
<th>You’re</th>
<th>waiting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td></td>
<td>He’s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>She’s</td>
<td>running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is</td>
<td></td>
<td>It’s</td>
<td>beginning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is</td>
<td></td>
<td>We’re</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are</td>
<td>lying</td>
<td>You’re</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td></td>
<td>They’re</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.10 Spelling: how to add ‘-ing’ to a verb

**wait/waiting**

We can add -ing to most verbs without changing the spelling of their base forms. Other examples: beat/beating, carry/carrying, catch/catching, drink/drinking, enjoy/enjoying, hurry/hurrying

**write/writing**

If a verb ends in -e, omit the -e and add -ing. Other examples: come/coming, have/having, make/making, ride/riding, use/using This rule does not apply to verbs ending in double e: agree/agreeing, see/seeing; or to age/ageing and singe/singeing

**run/running**

A verb that is spelt with a single vowel followed by a single consonant doubles its final consonant. Other examples: hit/hitting, let/letting put/putting, run/running, sit/sitting

Compare: e.g. beat/beat 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’er/prefering, up’set/upsetting Compare: *benefit/benefiting, *differ/differing and *profit/profiling which are stressed on their first syllables and do not double their final consonants. Note *label/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/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
CABINET MINISTER RESIGNING SOON (or: TO RESIGN SOON)

The simple past tense

9.13 Form of the simple past tense with regular verbs
The form is the same for all persons [> App 39].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Spelling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>played</td>
<td>/plaʊd/</td>
<td>/plaʊdt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, She</td>
<td>arrived</td>
<td>/ərˈvɪst/</td>
<td>/ərˈvɪst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>worked</td>
<td>/wɜrkt/</td>
<td>/wɜrkt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>dreamed</td>
<td>/drəˈmiːd/</td>
<td>/drəˈmiːt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>posted</td>
<td>/ˈpəʊstɪd/</td>
<td>/ˈpəʊstɪd/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives
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 -ed in their spelling, but the pronunciation of the past ending is not always the same:

**play**/**played** /ɪ ɪd/

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: / nɔkt/, stayed: /steɪd/, etc.

**arrive**/**arrived** /ɜɪvəd/

Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /ɪl/ : Ibl rubbed; Igl tugged; / ʌ ʌ / managed; IʃI filled; Iml dimmed; Ini listened; vowel + IlI stirred; Ivl loved; Izl seized. The -ed ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

**work**/**worked** /wɜːk/ 

Verbs which end in the following sounds have their past endings pronounced /ɪtI/ : IkI packed; I s /as / passed; IʃI watched; IʃI washed; IʃI laughed; IplI tipped. The -ed ending is not pronounced as an extra syllable.

**dream**/**dreamed** /dɹɪm/ or **dreamt** /dɹɪmt/

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

**post**/**posted** /pɔst/ 

Verbs which end in the sounds /ɪtI/ or /ɪd/ 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/preferences, re'erferred- 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 l 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
It
We
You
They

shut the suitcase
sat on

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 eg cut/cut hit hit put put 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

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

I saw him as recently as last week

as + adverb + as:
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

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 [p. 10.8] for details about form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>was waiting [For spelling, &gt; 9.10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>was</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>was</td>
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<td>It</td>
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<td>We</td>
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<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>were</td>
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<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.20 Uses of the past progressive tense

9.20.1 Actions in progress in the past
We use the past progressive to describe past situations or actions that were in progress at some time in the past:

- I was living abroad in 1987, so I missed the general election.
- Philippa was working on her essay last night

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

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

In the same way, still can emphasize duration [p. 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Have</th>
<th>(I've)</th>
<th>(You've)</th>
<th>(He's)</th>
<th>(She's)</th>
<th>(It's)</th>
<th>(We've)</th>
<th>(They've)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have</td>
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9.23 Present time and past time

Students speaking other European languages sometimes misuse the present perfect tense in English because of interference from their mother tongue. The present perfect is often wrongly seen as an alternative to the past, so that a student might think that I’ve had lunch and I had lunch are interchangeable. It is also confused with the present, so that an idea like I’ve been here since February is wrongly expressed in the present with I am.
The present perfect always suggests a relationship between present time and past time. So I've had lunch (probably) implies that I did so very recently. However, if I say I had lunch, I also have to say or imply when: e.g. I had lunch an hour ago. Similarly, I've been here since February shows a connexion between past and present, whereas I am here can only relate to the present and cannot be followed by a phrase like since February.

In the present perfect tense, the time reference is sometimes undefined; often we are interested in present results, or in the way something that happened in the past affects the present situation. The present perfect can therefore be seen as a present tense which looks backwards into the past (just as the past perfect [> 9.29] is a past tense which looks backwards into an earlier past). Compare the simple past tense, where the time reference is defined because we are interested in past time or past results. The following pairs of sentences illustrate this difference between present time and past time:

I haven't seen him this morning (i.e. up to the present time: it is still morning)
I didn't see him this morning (i.e. the morning has now passed)

Have you ever flown in Concorde? (i.e. up to the present time)
When did you fly in Concorde? (i.e. when, precisely, in the past)

9.24 Uses of the simple present perfect tense [compare > 10.13]

The present perfect is used in two ways in English:
1 To describe actions beginning in the past and continuing up to the present moment (and possibly into the future).
2 To refer to actions occurring or not occurring at an unspecified time in the past with some kind of connexion to the present.

These two uses are discussed in detail in the sections below.

9.25 Actions, etc. continuing into the present

9.25.1 The present perfect + adverbials that suggest 'up to the present'

We do not use the present perfect with adverbs relating to past time (ago, yesterday, etc.) [> 9 18, App 48]. Adverbial phrases like the following are used with the present perfect because they clearly connect the past with the present moment: before (now), It's the first time so far, so far this morning, up till now, up to the present Adverbs like ever (in questions), and not ever or never (in statements) are commonly (but not exclusively) used with the present perfect:

I've planted fourteen rose-bushes so far this morning
She's never eaten a mango before Have you ever eaten a mango?
It's the most interesting book I've ever read [compare > 6.28.1]
Olga hasn't appeared on TV before now

9.25.2 The present perfect with 'since' and 'for' [> 7.31-32, 10.13.5]

We often use since and for with the present perfect to refer to periods of time up to the present. Since (+ point of time) can be:
- a conjunction: Tom hasn't been home since he was a boy
The simple present perfect tense

- an adverb:  I saw Fiona in May and I haven't seen her since
- a preposition:  I've lived here since 1980

Since, as a conjunction, can be followed by the simple past or present perfect:
- I retired in 1980 and came to live here I've lived here since I retired (i.e. the point when I retired: 1980)
- I have lived here for several years now and I've made many new friends since I have lived here (i.e. up to now)

For + period of time often occurs with the present perfect but can be used with any tense. Compare:
- I've lived here for five years (and I still live here)
- I lived here for five years (I don't live here now)
- I am here for six weeks (that's how long I'm going to stay)

9.26 Actions, etc. occurring at an unspecified time

9.26.1 The present perfect without a time adverbial

We often use the present perfect without a time adverbial, especially in conversation. We do not always need one, for often we are concerned with the consequences now of something which took place then, whether 'then' was very recently or a long time ago. If further details are required (e.g. precise answers to questions like When?, Where?) we must generally use the simple past:

Have you passed your driving test? (Depending on context, this can mean 'at any time up to now' or 'after the test you've just taken'.)
- yes, I passed when I was 17 (simple past: exact time reference)

Jason Vilhers has been arrested (Depending on context, this can imply 'today' or 'recently' or 'at last'.) He was seen by a Customs Officer who alerted the police (simple past with details)

However, adverbs like just, used with the present perfect, can provide more information about actions in 'unspecified time'. Details follow.

9.26.2 The present perfect for recent actions

The following adverbs can refer to actions, etc. in recent time:
- just (> 7.29): I've just tidied up the kitchen
- recently, etc: He's recently arrived from New York
- already in questions and affirmative statements (> 7.26, 7.28): Have you typed my letter already? - Yes, I've already typed it
- yet, in questions, for events we are expecting to hear about: Have you passed your driving test yet? (> 7.27-28)
- or in negatives, for things we haven't done, but expect to do: I haven't passed my driving test yet
- still (> 7.25), at last, finally
- I still haven't passed my driving test (despite my efforts)
- I have passed my driving test at last (after all my efforts)

9.26.3 The present perfect for repeated and habitual actions

This use is associated with frequency adverbs (often, frequently) and expressions like three/four/several times (> 7.38-39):

I've watched him on TV several times (i.e. and I expect to again)
I've often wondered why I get such a poor reception on my radio
She's attended classes regularly She's always worked hard
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.27 The simple present perfect tense in typical contexts

The present perfect is never used in past narrative (e.g. stories told in the past, history books). Apart from its common use in conversation, it is most often used in broadcast news, newspapers, letters and any kind of language-use which has connexion with the present.

Examples:

9.27.1 Broadcast reports, newspaper reports
Interest rates rose again today and the price of gold has fallen by $10 an ounce Industrial leaders have complained that high interest rates will make borrowing expensive for industry

9.27.2 Implied in newspaper headlines
VILLAGES DESTROYED IN EARTHQUAKE (= have been destroyed)

9.27.3 Letters, postcards, etc.
We’ve just arrived in Hong Kong, and though we haven’t had time to see much yet, we’re sure we’re going to enjoy ourselves

The simple past perfect tense

9.28 Form of the simple past perfect tense

The past perfect is formed with had + the past participle See under have
[> 10.28] for details about form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>had</th>
<th>(I’d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(You’d) arrived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(He’d) finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(She’d) started [&gt; 9.22]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(It’d) shut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(We’d) lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(You’d) drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>(They’d)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.29 Uses of the past perfect tense

It is sometimes supposed that we use the past perfect simply to describe ‘events that happened a long time ago’. This is not the case. We use the simple past for this purpose [> 9.17.1]:

Anthony and Cleopatra died in 30 B.C

9.29.1 The past perfect referring to an earlier past

The main use of the past perfect is to show which of two events happened first. Here are two past events:

The patient died The doctor arrived

We can combine these two sentences in different ways to show their relationship in the past:

The patient died when the doctor arrived (i.e. the patient died at the time or just after the doctor arrived)

The patient had died when the doctor arrived (i.e. the patient was already dead when the doctor arrived)

The event that happened first need not be mentioned first:

The doctor arrived quickly, but the patient had already died
The simple past perfect tense

Some typical conjunctions used before a past perfect to refer to ‘an earlier past’ are: when and after, as soon as, by the time that. They often imply a cause-and-effect relationship:

*We cleared up as soon as our guests had left*

Adverbs often associated with the present perfect (> 9.25-26): already ever for (+ period of time), just, never never before since (+ point of time) are often used with the past perfect to emphasize the sequence of events:

*When I rang, Jim had already left
The boys loved the zoo They had never seen wild animals before*

**9.29.2 The past perfect as the past equivalent of the present perfect**
The past perfect sometimes functions simply as the past form of the present perfect:

*Juliet is excited because she has never been to a dance before
Juliet was excited because she had never been to a dance before*

This is particularly the case in indirect speech (> 15.13n.3)

Used in this way, the past perfect can emphasize completion:

*I began collecting stamps in February and by November I had collected more than 2000*

Yet can be used with the past perfect, but we often prefer expressions like until then or by that time. Compare:

*He hasn't finished yet
He hadn't finished by yesterday evening*

**9.29.3 The past perfect for unfulfilled hopes and wishes**
We can use the past perfect (or the past simple or progressive) with verbs like expect hope, mean, suppose, think want, to describe things we hoped or wished to do but didn't (> 11.42.3):

*I had hoped to send him a telegram to congratulate him on his marriage, but I didn't manage it*

**9.30 Obligatory and non-obligatory uses of the past perfect**
We do not always need to use the past perfect to describe which event came first. Sometimes this is perfectly clear, as in:

*After I finished, I went home*

The sequence is often clear in relative clauses (> 1.27) as well:

*I wore the necklace (which) my grandmother (had) left me*

We normally use the simple past for events that occur in sequence:

*I got out of the taxi, paid the fare, tipped the driver and dashed into the station
7 came, I saw, I conquered;’ Julius Caesar declared*

But there are instances when we need to be very precise in our use of past or past perfect, particularly with when:

*When I arrived, Anne left (i.e. at that moment)
When I arrived, Anne had left (i.e. before I got there)*

In the first sentence, I saw Anne, however briefly. In the second, I didn't see her at all. See also indirect speech (> 15.12).
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

We normally use the past perfect with conjunctions like no sooner than or hardly/scarcely/barely when

Mrs Winthrop had no sooner left the room than they began to gossip about her
Mr Jenkins had hardly/scarcely/barely begun his speech when he was interrupted

9.31 Simple past and simple past perfect in typical contexts

The past perfect combines with other past tenses (simple past, past progressive, past perfect progressive) when we are talking or writing about the past. It is used in story-telling, biography, autobiography, reports, eye-witness accounts, etc and is especially useful for establishing the sequence of events:

When we returned from our holidays, we found our house in a mess. What had happened while we had been away? A burglar had broken into the house and had stolen a lot of our things (Now that the time of the burglary has been established relative to our return, the story can continue in the simple past). The burglar got in through the kitchen window He had no difficulty in forcing it open Then he went into the living-room

Note the reference to an earlier past in the following narrative:

Silas Badley inherited several old cottages in our village He wanted to pull them down and build new houses which he could sell for high prices. He wrote to Mr Harrison, now blind and nearly eighty, asking him to leave his cottage within a month. Old Mr Harrison was very distressed. (The situation has been established through the use of the simple past. What follows now is a reference to an earlier past through the use of the simple past perfect.) He had been born in the cottage and stayed there all his life. His children had grown up there, his wife had died there and now he lived there all alone.

The present perfect progressive and past perfect progressive tenses

9.32 Form of the present/past perfect progressive tenses

The present perfect progressive is formed with have been + the -ing form. The past perfect progressive is formed with had been + the -ing form. See under be (> 10.12) for details about form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Present perfect progressive</th>
<th>Past perfect progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have (I've)</td>
<td>had (I'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have (You've)</td>
<td>had (You'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>has (He's)</td>
<td>had (He'd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has (She's) been waiting</td>
<td>had (She'd) been waiting</td>
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<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>has (It's)</td>
<td>had (It'd)</td>
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<td>We</td>
<td>have (We've)</td>
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<td>have (You've)</td>
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<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>have (They've)</td>
<td>had (They'd)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(For spelling see > 9.10)
9.33 Uses of the present/past perfect progressive tenses

9.33.1 Actions in progress throughout a period
We use the present perfect progressive when we wish to emphasize that an activity has been in progress throughout a period, often with consequences now. Depending on context, this activity may or may not still be in progress at the present time. This use often occurs with all + time references: e.g. all day [compare > 9.20.1]:
She is very tired She's been typing letters all day (Depending on context, she is still typing or has recently stopped.)
The past perfect progressive, in the same way, is used for activities in progress during an earlier past, often with consequences then:
She was very tired She had been typing letters all day (Depending on context, she was still typing or had recently stopped.)
Some verbs like learn, lie, live, rain, sit, sleep stand, study wait, work naturally suggest continuity and often occur with perfect progressives with since or for [> 7.31-32, 9.25.2] and also in questions beginning with How long [> 10.13.5]:
I've been working for Exxon for 15 years (Depending on context, I am still now, or I may have recently changed jobs or retired.)
When I first met Ann, she had been working for Exxon for 15 years (Depending on context, Ann was still working for Exxon then or she had recently changed jobs or retired.)
With 'continuity verbs', simple and progressive forms are often interchangeable, so in the above examples 'I've worked' and 'she had worked' could be used. The only difference is that the progressive puts more emphasis on continuity.

9.33.2 The present/past perfect progressive for repeated actions
The perfect progressive forms are often used to show that an action is (or was) frequently repeated:
Jim has been phoning Jenny every night for the past week
Jenny was annoyed Jim had been phoning her every night for a whole week

9.33.3 The present/past perfect progressive for drawing conclusions
We use the progressive (seldom the simple) forms to show that we have come to a conclusion based on direct or indirect evidence:
Your eyes are red You've been crying
Her eyes were red It was obvious she had been crying
The present perfect progressive often occurs in complaints:
This room stinks Someone's been smoking in here

9.34 The present/past perfect simple and progressive compared
The difference between an activity still in progress and one that has definitely been completed is marked by context and by the verbs we use. The simple and progressive forms are not interchangeable here:
a I've been painting this room
I've painted this room
In the first example, the activity is uncompleted. In the second example, the job is definitely finished.
When I got home, I found that Jill had been painting her room. When I got home, I found that Jill had painted her room. In the first example, the activity was uncompleted then. In the second example, the job was definitely finished then.

The simple future tense

9.35 Form of the simple future tense

The simple future is formed with will [but > 9.36] and the base form of the verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will</td>
<td>I'll</td>
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<td>You will</td>
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9.36 Notes on the form of the simple future tense

1 Shall and will

Will is used with all persons, but shall can be used as an alternative with I and we in pure future reference [> 9.37.1]

Shall is usually avoided with you and I:

You and I will work in the same office.

2 Contractions

Shall weakens to / Jal/ in speech, but does not contract to 'll in writing. Will contracts to 'll in writing and in fluent, rapid speech after vowels ('ll, we'll, you'll, etc.) but 'll can also occur after consonants. So we might find 'll used: e.g.

- after names: Tom will be here soon
- after common nouns: The concert will start in a minute
- after question-words: When will they arrive?

3 Negatives

Will not contracts to / not or won t, shall not contracts to shan t:

I/We won't or shan't go (I/We will not or shall not go)

In AmE shan't is rare and shall with a future reference is unusual.

4 Future tense

When we use will/shall for simple prediction, they combine with verbs to form tenses in the ordinary way [> 9.2, 11.7]:

simple future: I will see
future progressive: I will be seeing
future perfect: I will have seen
future perfect progressive: I will have been seeing

9.37 Uses of the 'will/shall' future

9.37.1 'Will/shall' for prediction briefly compared with other uses

Will and shall can be used to predict events, for example, to say what
The simple future tense

we think will happen, or to invite prediction:

- **Tottenham will win** on Saturday
- **It will rain** tomorrow
- **Will house prices rise** again next year?
- **I don’t know if I shall see** you next week

This is sometimes called ‘the pure future’, and it should be distinguished from many other uses of *will* and *shall*: e.g.

- *I’ll buy you a bicycle for your birthday* [promise, > 11.73]
- *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.
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

The future progressive tense

9.40 Form of the future progressive tense

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

/ | will/shall | (I'll) | be
You | will | (You'll) | be
He | will | (He'll) | be
She | will | (She'll) | be
It | will | (It'll) | be      [For spelling, > 9.10]
We | will/shall | (We'll) | be
You | will | (You'll) | be
They | will | (They'll) | be

9.41 Uses of the future progressive tense

9.41.1 Actions in progress in the future

The most common use of the progressive form is to describe actions which will be in progress in the immediate or distant future:

Hurry up! The guests will be arriving at any minute!
A space vehicle will be circling Jupiter in five years' time

It is often used for visualizing a future activity already planned:
By this time tomorrow, I'll be lying on the beach.

9.41.2 The 'softening effect' of the future progressive

Sometimes the future progressive is used to describe simple futurity, but with a 'softening effect' that takes away the element of deliberate intention often implied by will:

I'll work on this tomorrow, (intention, possibly a promise)
I'll be working on this tomorrow, (futurity)

In some contexts, the future progressive sounds more polite than will, especially in questions when we do not wish to appear to be pressing for a definite answer:

When will you finish these letters? (e.g. boss to assistant)
When will you be seeing Mr White? (e.g. assistant to boss)

Sometimes there really is a difference in meaning:

Mary won't pay this bill (she refuses to)
Mary won't be paying this bill (futurity)
Will you join us for dinner? (invitation)
Will you be joining us for dinner? (futurity)
Won't you come with us? (invitation)
Won't you be coming with us? (futurity)

9.41.3 Arrangements and plans [compare > 9.11.3]

The future progressive can be used like the present progressive to refer to planned events, particularly in connexion with travel:
We'll be spending the winter in Australia (= we are spending)
Professor Craig will be giving a lecture on Etruscan pottery tomorrow evening (= is giving)
The future perfect simple and future perfect progressive tenses

9.42 Form of the future perfect simple and progressive tenses

The future perfect simple is formed with will have + the past participle. The future perfect progressive is formed with will have been + the -ing form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future perfect simple</th>
<th>Future perfect progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>will/shall have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>will have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>will have</td>
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<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>will have received</td>
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<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>will have by then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>will/shall have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>will have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>will have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use of the future perfect simple and future perfect progressive

9.43 Uses of the future perfect simple and future perfect progressive

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am</th>
<th>You are</th>
<th>He is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>going to arrive tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9 Verbs, verb tenses, imperatives

9.45 The pronunciation of 'going to'
There can be a difference in pronunciation between be going to (which has no connexion with the ordinary verb go) and the progressive form of the verb go.
In: I'm going to have a wonderful time' going to is often pronounced in everyday speech. [gənə]
In: I'm going to Chicago' going to can only be pronounced or [gəuintə]

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 ram 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 am/You are, etc. to see Mr Jones tomorrow
I am/You are, etc due to leave at 7 30
I am/You are, etc about to get a big surprise
I am/You are, etc on the point of leaving
I am/You are, etc leaving immediately [> 9.11.3]
I/You, etc - leave at 7 tomorrow [> 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): Wait!
Negative short form (Don't + base form): Don't wait!
Emphatic form (Do + base form): Do wait a moment!
Addressing someone (e.g. pronoun + base form): You wait here!
Imperative + question tag: Wait here will you?
Imperatives joined by and: Go and play outside
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 reponse to requests for permission, offers, etc. do and don't can be used in place of a full imperative:
- May/Shall I switch the light off? - Yes, do. No, don't.

9.54 The use of the imperative to address particular people
The imperative, e.g. Wait here!, might be addressed to one person or several people: you is implied. However, we can get the attention of the person or people spoken to in the following ways. (For 1st person plural imperative with let's [> 16.4.1]):
1. You + imperative:
   - You wait here for a moment.
   Intonation and stress are important. If, in the above example, you is unstressed, the sentence means 'this is where you wait'. If it is
stressed, it means 'this is what I want you to do'. When you is stressed, it might also convey anger, hostility or rudeness:

'You mind your own business!'

You try teaching 40 noisy children five days a week'

Don't (not you) is stressed in the negative:

'Don't you speak to me like that!'

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 [> 12.2n.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/l have been eating [> 9.2]

3. Have + been + past participle forms passives: e.g.
   It has been eaten [> 12.2n1]
   She must have been delayed [> 12.2n.2]

Questions/negatives with 'be' and 'have' as auxiliary verbs follow the same pattern as those for 'be' as a full verb [> Chapter 13]. 'Have' can function as an auxiliary and full verb in the same sentence [> 10.34-36].

10.4 Uses of 'do' as an auxiliary verb

1. The most important use of 'do' as an auxiliary verb is that it combines with the base form of verbs to make questions and negatives in the simple present and simple past tenses, and is used in place of a verb in short answers and question tags [> Chapter 13]. Note that 'do' can function both as an auxiliary verb and as a full verb in the same sentence [> 10.41-42].
   Do (auxiliary verb) you do (full verb) your shopping once a week?

2. 'Do' is also used for emphasis [compare > 9.53]:
   Do sit down I did turn the gas off
   Drive carefully! - I do drive carefully

3. 'Do' is used in place of a verb in: e.g.
   I like ice-cream and Ann does too [> 4.18, 10.44.2, 11.31, 13.28]
'Be' as a full verb

10.5 Uses of 'be' in the imperative [compare > 9.51]

The imperative of be is restricted to the following combinations:

10.5.1 'Be' + noun

Many combinations of be (affirmative) + noun are idiomatic:

- Be a man!
- Be an angel and fetch me my slippers please
- Go on! Have another slice! Be a devil!

Don't be + noun is much more common and very often refers to (foolish) behaviour. The negative response is I'm not!
- Don't be an ass/a clown/a fool/an idiot/an Imbecile! etc

And note combinations of be + adjective + noun:

- Be a good girl at school. Don't be a silly idiot!

Be can have the sense of 'become' especially in advertisements:

- Be a better cook! Be the envy of your friends!

Agreement is expressed with / won't (be).:

- Don't be a racing driver! It's so dangerous.

Be is also used to mean 'pretend to be', especially after you:

- (You) be the fairy godmother and I'll be Cinderella
- Be a monster, granddad!

And note:

- Now be yourself again!

10.5.2 'Be' + adjective

Only adjectives referring to passing behaviour can be used after be/don't be. e.g. careful/careless, patient/impatient, quiet, silly [> App 41]

(Be/Don't be will not usually combine with adjectives describing states, e.g. hungry/thirsty, pretty):

- Be quiet! (negative response: I 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?
10.6 The simple present form of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I'm</td>
<td>I'm not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are</td>
<td>You're</td>
<td>You're not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom is</td>
<td>He is</td>
<td>He's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann is</td>
<td>She is</td>
<td>She's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My ticket is</td>
<td>It is</td>
<td>It's not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I are</td>
<td>We are</td>
<td>We're not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann and you are</td>
<td>You are</td>
<td>You're not = You aren't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Ann are</td>
<td>They are</td>
<td>They're not = They aren't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.7 Notes on the present form of 'be'

1. Short forms never occur at the end of a sentence:
   I don't know where they are

2. There are two negative short forms (e.g. You aren't and You're not) and there is no difference in their use. The short negative forms can stand on their own (I'm not/They aren't). The affirmative short forms (I'm, etc.) cannot stand on their own. Only the full affirmative forms can do this:
   Are you ready? - Yes, I am No, I'm not

3. Note the formation of negative questions and negative question tags (\[13.14, 13.18\]) with I. The (rare) full form is Am I not ?, but this contracts to Aren't I ?. (Not *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?

4. The non-standard form aint', in place of am not, is not and are not [also > 10.30n8], is frequently heard in all persons and is avoided by educated speakers (except perhaps in joking):
   Ain't you late? He ain't late.
   I ain't late. They ain't late.

10.8 The simple past form of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was</td>
<td>I was not</td>
<td>I wasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were</td>
<td>You were not</td>
<td>You weren't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was</td>
<td>He was not</td>
<td>He wasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She was</td>
<td>She was not</td>
<td>She wasn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was late</td>
<td>It was not late</td>
<td>It wasn't late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We were</td>
<td>We were not</td>
<td>We weren't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were</td>
<td>You were not</td>
<td>You weren't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They were</td>
<td>They were not</td>
<td>They weren't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 Be, Have, Do

10.9 Uses of ‘be’ in the simple present and simple past

We use the present and past of be when we are identifying people and things or giving information about them, and when we are talking about existence with There. [> 10.17]. For verbs related in meaning to be, such as seem, look, appear [> 10.23].

10.9.1 'Be' + names/nouns/pronouns: identification/information

Her name is/was Helen This is Tom That was Harry
Who’s that? - It’s me Who was that? - It was Jane
Which one is Mary? ~ That’s her on the left
The capital of England is London In the past it was Winchester
She is/was a doctor They are/were doctors
He is/was an American They are/were Americans

10.9.2 'Be' + adjective

He is hungry They are hungry (state)
He was angry They were naughty (mood, behaviour)
She was tall Her eyes are green (description, colour)
She is French They are French (nationality)
it was fine/wet/cold/windy (weather)

10.9.3 'Be' + adjective(s) + noun

He is an interesting man They are interesting men
It is a blue jacket They are blue jackets

10.9.4 'Be': time references, price, age, etc.

It is Monday/July 23/1992 It is £5.50 Tom is 14

10.9.5 'Be' + possessives

It’s mine/Tom’s. They are mine/Tom’s

10.9.6 'Be' + adverbs and prepositional phrases [> 7.3.3]

She is here/there They are upstairs
The play is next Wednesday (future reference)
He is in the kitchen They are at the door

10.9.7 'Be' + adverb particle and 'home' [compare > 8.29.2, 10.13.4]

Be combines with adverb particles (away in out, etc. [> 8.4]);
Is Tim in? No, he’s out He’s back in an hour
Be combines with home [at is optional):
Where was Tim? Was he home?/Was he at home?

Compare: Tim’s home now (= he has arrived at his home)
Tim’s at home now (= he may not have left home at all)

10.9.8 'Be' in the present and past replacing 'have/had'

In informal English, the present and past of be can replace have/had [present and past perfect, > 9.22, 9.28] with verbs like do, finish, go.
I’m done with all that nonsense (= I have done, i.e. finished)
I left my keys just there and next moment they were (had) gone
Have you finished with the paper? - I’m (have) nearly finished

10.9.9 'Empty subject' + 'be' [> 4.12]

It’s foggy It’s 20 miles to London

10.9.10 'Be' + infinitive [> 9.47-48, 16.16]

My aim is to start up my own company
'Be' as a full verb

10.10 Form of the present and past progressive of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present progressive</th>
<th>past progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am (I'm) being</td>
<td>I was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are (You're) being</td>
<td>You were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is (He's) being</td>
<td>He was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is (She's) being silly</td>
<td>She was being silly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(It is (It's) being)</td>
<td>(It was being)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are (You're) being</td>
<td>You were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are (They're) being</td>
<td>They were being</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms He is being silly and He has been silly [> 10.12] should not be confused.

10.11 The use of 'be' + 'being' to describe temporary behaviour

The progressive forms normally occur only with the present and the past forms of be. They are used with a few adjectives and nouns [> App 41] (or adjective and noun combinations). The progressive is possible with adjectives such as naughty silly, referring to passing behaviour, but is not possible with adjectives describing states (hungry, thirsty, etc.) With some combinations there is a strong implication that the behaviour is deliberate. Compare temporary and usual behaviour in the following:

- Your brother is being very annoying this evening
- He isn't usually so annoying
- Your brother was being a (silly) fool yesterday
- He isn't usually such a (silly) fool

10.12 Form of the present perfect and past perfect of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present perfect</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>past perfect</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been</td>
<td>I've</td>
<td>I had been</td>
<td>I'd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have been</td>
<td>You've</td>
<td>You had been</td>
<td>You'd</td>
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<tr>
<td>He has been</td>
<td>He's</td>
<td>He had been</td>
<td>He'd</td>
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<tr>
<td>She has been</td>
<td>She's</td>
<td>She had been</td>
<td>She'd</td>
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<td>(It) has been</td>
<td>(It's)</td>
<td>(It) had been</td>
<td>(It) had</td>
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<tr>
<td>We have been</td>
<td>We've</td>
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<td>We'd</td>
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<td>You've</td>
<td>You had been</td>
<td>You'd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have been</td>
<td>They've</td>
<td>They had been</td>
<td>They'd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms He has been silly and He is being silly [> 10.10] should not be confused.

10.13 Uses of 'have been' and 'had been' [compare > 9 24]

In many of the uses described below, other languages require the present or past of be where English requires has been or had been.

10.13.1 'Have been/had been' + adjective: behaviour and states

Have been and had been will combine not only with adjectives describing temporary behaviour (annoying, etc., [> 10.11]), but also with those describing states and moods continuing up till now or till
then. *Have been* is common in conversation and *had been* in reported speech and written narrative:

**Behaviour:** She's been very quiet  I said she had been very quiet

**States:** I've never been so tired  I said I'd never been so tired

**Moods:** He's been very gloomy  I said he'd been very gloomy

Some participles used as adjectives combine with *have/had been*:
- *My uncle has been retired* for more than two years
- *Their dog has been missing* for three days
- And notice especially: *She's been gone (= away) for half an hour*

### 10.13.2 'Have been/had been' + adjective: weather, etc.

*Have been* and *had been* also combine with adjectives describing the weather (i.e., states):

- It's been very cold lately I said it had been very cold

In certain contexts other adjectives (e.g., numbers) are possible:

- You're speaking as if *you'd never been 15 years old* in your life

### 10.13.3 'Have been/had been' + noun: professions, behaviour

*Have been* and *had been* will combine with noun (or with adjective + noun) to ask about or describe professions:

- *I've been a teacher,* but now I'm a computer salesman
- How long *have you been a computer salesman?*

Nouns referring to behaviour will also combine with *have been*:

- *What a good girl you are!*  *You've been an angel!*

All the above examples can be transferred to the past perfect:

- *He told me he had been a waiter* before he became a taxi-driver

### 10.13.4 'Have been/had been' and 'have gone/had gone'

*Have been* (generally + to or in [>] Apps 21-23]) has the sense of 'visit a place and come back'. *Have gone* (followed by to and never by in) has the sense of 'be at a place or on the way to a place':

- *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* . . . , *have been* can be used in the sense have lived/worked/waited or have been living/working/waiting

- *I've been here* since January/for six months
- *How long have you been* with IBM? (i.e. worked/been working)
- *I've been with them* since November/for three months
- *How long have you been* in this waiting-room? (waited/been waiting)
- *I've been* here since 3 o'clock/for half an hour

The past perfect replaces the present perfect in reported speech:

*She told me she had been* with IBM for three months

10.14 Form of the future and future perfect of 'be'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>full form</td>
<td>short form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will/shall be</td>
<td>I'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be</td>
<td>You'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will be</td>
<td>He'll be</td>
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<tr>
<td>She will be</td>
<td>She'll be</td>
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<tr>
<td>late</td>
<td>It will be</td>
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<tr>
<td>We will/shall be</td>
<td>We'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be</td>
<td>You'll be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will be</td>
<td>They'll be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.15 The future of 'be' as a full verb

*Will be* combines with many of the nouns and adjectives possible after the simple present/past of *be* for normal will-future uses:

*It will be sunny* tomorrow *I'll be here* by 7 [*9.35-37]*

*Will be* can be used for deduction: *That will be Helen* [*11.33]*

10.16 The future perfect of 'be' as a full verb

*Will have been* combines with the same nouns and adjectives possible after *have been* for normal uses in the future perfect [*9.43]*:

*How long will you have been a teacher?*

*By the end of next week, I will have been a teacher* for 25 years

*Will have been* can be used to mean 'lived, worked, waited':

*How long will you have been with IBM?*

*By the end of January I will have been with IBM* for six months

*Will have been* can also be used for deduction [*11.33]*:

*That will have been Roland* he said he'd be back at 7
10 Be, Have, Do

'There' + 'be'

10.17 Some forms of 'there' + 'be' [For there + modals > 11.76]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the simple present</th>
<th>the simple past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is a man at the door</td>
<td>There was someone to see you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are two men at the door</td>
<td>There were some people to see you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the present perfect</th>
<th>the past perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There has been an accident</td>
<td>He said there had been an accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There have been a lot of enquiries</td>
<td>a lot of enquiries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the simple future</th>
<th>the future perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There will be a letter for you tomorrow</td>
<td>There will have been a definite result before Friday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tag questions [> 13.17-22]
There is a big match on TV tonight isn't there?
There has been some awful weather lately hasn't there?

Common contractions

| There is | = | There's |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| There has | = | There's |
| There have | = | There've |
| There had | = | There'd |
| There would | = | There'd |
| There will | = | There'll |

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

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 a man at the door
There's lots of cars on the roads these days

2 When we are talking about existence, There is/There's and There are are unstressed and pronounced [ðeəris] [ðez] and [ðeəraː]
Compare the stressed form to show we have just seen something:
Look! There's 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  
- 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

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

- 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 

| Verb | Meaning | Example
|------|---------|---------
| present of 'be': | He is quite rich | He appears/seems (to be) quite rich
| | It is quite dark | It appears/seems (to be) quite dark
| past of 'be': | He was quite rich | He appeared/seemed (to be) quite rich
| | It was quite dark | It appeared/seemed (to be) quite dark
| present progressive: | He is working hard | He appears/seems to be working hard
| | It's working | It appears/seems to be working
| past progressive: | He was working hard | He appeared/seemed to be working hard
| | It was working | It appeared/seemed to be working
| present perfect: | He has been hurt | He appears/seems to have been hurt
| | It has been broken | It appears seems to have been broken

10.24 Expressing uncertainty with verbs related to 'be'

We can express certainty about states with be:

*He is ill*

We can express less certainty about states with modals [> 11.27-28]:

*He may/might/could be ill*

or through the use of verbs related to be:

*He seems (to be) ill*

Some common verbs related in meaning and function to be are:

appear feel look seem smell sound and taste [> 9.3, App 38.5]; chance happen and prove can also be used in certain patterns.

10.25 Some possible constructions with verbs related to 'be'

We cannot normally omit to be after appear and seem except in the simple present and simple past:

*He appears/seems (to be) ill*  *He seems (to be) a fool*

*It seems/seemed (to be) a real bargain*

To be is usually included before predicative adjectives beginning with a

[>6.8.2]:

*The children appear/seem to be asleep*

*The children seemed to be awake* when I went into their room

We can use other infinitives after appear happen prove and seem:

*You seem to know a lot about steam engines*

*Juan happens to own a castle in Toledo*

We cannot use to be after feel look smell sound or taste:

*He feels/looks hot*  *You smell nice*

*Gillian sounded very confident when she spoke to me*

*I like your new jacket It looks comfortable*

*It feels cold in here*  *It smells funny in here*

Feel look seem smell sound and taste can be followed by like + noun or adjective + noun:

*This looks/tastes/smells/feels like an orange (obligatory like)*

*Jennifer seems/sounds/looks (like) the right person for the job*
Verbs related in meaning to ‘be’

To + object pronoun is commonly used after an adjective:
He seems/appears/looks tired to me  (Not ‘seems to me’)
This material feels quite rough to me  (Not ‘feels to me’)

Or to + object pronoun can come immediately before an infinitive:
He seems to me to be rather impatient

We can use that after it + appear, chance happen and seem;
It seemed (that) no one knew where the village was

For the use of as if after verbs [> 1.47.2],
There will combine with appear, chance happen prove and seem + to be and to have been;
There seems to be a mistake in these figures
There appears to have been an accident

10.26 Process verbs related to ‘be’ and ‘become’
10.26-1 Process verb + adjective complement [> 1 9, 1 11]
Process verbs (e.g. become, come, fall, go, get grow, run, turn, wear) + adjective complement describe a change of state. Unlike appear, seem, etc. they can be used in the progressive to emphasize the idea that change is actively in progress:
It was gradually growing dark
As she waited to be served, she became very impatient
Old Mr Parsons gets tired very easily since his operation
The milk in this jug has gone bad
The leaves are turning yellow early this year
My shoelaces have come undone
The River Wey ran dry during the recent drought
My pyjamas are wearing rather thin

The most common process verbs are get, become and grow.
Get is used informally with a variety of adjectives: get annoyed get bored, get depressed, get ill, get tired, get wet [compare > 12.6]
Used to is common after get (and to a lesser extent after become) to describe the acquisition of a habit. In such cases, used to functions as an adjective and can be replaced by accustomed to [> 16.56]:
I hated jogging at first, but I eventually got used to it

Process verbs are often used in fixed phrases: e.g. come right come true, fall ill go mad, run wild, turn nasty, wear thin

10.26.2 Process verb + noun complement
Nouns are not so common after process verbs, but note that:
- become + noun can describe a change of state or occupation:
The ugly frog became a handsome prince
Jim became a pilot/a Buddhist/a CND supporter
- make + noun can be used to suggest a change of state:
I’m sure Cynthia will make a good nurse one day
This piece of wood will make a very good shelf

10.26.3 Process verb + infinitive
Come get and grow can be followed directly by a to-infinitive:
We didn’t trust Max at first but we soon grew to like him
10 Be, Have, Do

‘Have’ as a full verb = ‘possess’; ‘have got’ = ‘possess’

10.27 The present form of ‘have’ as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have</td>
<td>I've</td>
<td>I haven’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have</td>
<td>You’ve</td>
<td>You haven’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom has</td>
<td>He has</td>
<td>He hasn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary has</td>
<td>She has</td>
<td>She hasn’t a chance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car has</td>
<td>It has</td>
<td>It hasn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I have</td>
<td>We have</td>
<td>We haven’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you have</td>
<td>You have</td>
<td>You haven’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary have</td>
<td>They have</td>
<td>They haven’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.28 The past form of ‘have’ as a full verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had</td>
<td>I’d</td>
<td>I hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You had</td>
<td>You’d</td>
<td>You hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom had</td>
<td>He had</td>
<td>He hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary had</td>
<td>She had</td>
<td>She hadn’t a chance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car had</td>
<td>It had</td>
<td>It hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I had</td>
<td>We had</td>
<td>We hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you had</td>
<td>You had</td>
<td>You hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary had</td>
<td>They had</td>
<td>They hadn’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.29 The present form of ‘have got’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have got</td>
<td>I’ve</td>
<td>I haven’t (I’ve not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have got</td>
<td>You’ve</td>
<td>You haven’t (You’ve not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom has got</td>
<td>Tom’s has got</td>
<td>He hasn’t (He’s not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary has got</td>
<td>Mary’s has got</td>
<td>She hasn’t (She’s not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My car has got</td>
<td>My car’s has got</td>
<td>It hasn’t (It’s not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and I have got</td>
<td>We have got</td>
<td>We haven’t (We’ve not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and you have got</td>
<td>You have got</td>
<td>You haven’t (You’ve not) got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom and Mary have got</td>
<td>They have got</td>
<td>They haven’t (They’ve not) got</td>
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10.30 Notes on the forms of ‘have’ and ‘have got’ = ‘possess’

Have and have got (= possess) are often interchangeable, but there are differences between British and American usage.

1. Have got is basically a perfect form. Compare the following:
   a) get (= obtain)               b) have got (= possess)
   A Go and get the tickets       A Have you got the tickets?
   B I’ve got the tickets          B Yes, I’ve got the tickets
      (= I have obtained them.)     (= I possess them.)

   In BrE, have got can be used as the perfect form of get to mean ‘have obtained’, as in a) above. This meaning is emphasized in the
'Have'/have got' = 'possess'

AmE form have gotten, which always means 'have obtained'. However, in BrE (more rarely in AmE) have got can also mean 'possess' - as in b) above, so that e.g. I have the tickets and I've got the tickets are equivalents. Indeed, in spoken, idiomatic BrE, I've got, etc. is more common than I have, etc.

2 In BrE, questions and negatives with have = 'possess' can be formed in the same way as for be:

Are you ready? Have you a pen? (= Have you got...?)
Aren't you ready? Haven't you a pen? (= Haven't you got...?)

You aren't ready You haven't a pen (= You haven't got...)

There is an alternative negative form for have got - I've not got, etc., but this is less common than 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

Hadhn'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?
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 (/ 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 minci
patience a quick temper, to describe character:
She has (got) nice manners but she has (got) a quick temper
'Have' (= something other than 'possess')

6 Family relationships:
   I have (got) two sisters

7 Contacts with other people:
   I have (got) a good dentist (i.e. whom I can recommend to you)

8 In the sense of 'wear' [> App 25.37]:
   That's a nice dress you have (you've got)
   In this sense, have often combines with on: have something on
   have got something on
   That's a nice dress you have on (you've got on)
   I can't answer the door I have (got) nothing on

9 Illnesses [> App 42.1.7]:
   Have and have got combine with nouns describing pains and
   illnesses. For the use of a/an with such nouns [> 3.15]:
   I have (got) a cold/a bad headache
   The baby has (got) measles

10 Arrangements [> App 42.1.4]:
   Have and have got combine with nouns like:
   an appointment a conference, a date, an interview a meeting, time, etc.: 
   I have (got) an appointment with my dentist tomorrow morning
   Sally has (got) an interview for a job today

11 Opinions [> App 42.1.10]:
   Have and have got combine with nouns like:
   an idea, influence, an objection, an opinion a point of view, a proposal, a suggestion
   I have (got) an idea
   Have you (got) any objection to this proposal?

12 In the sense of 'there is':
   You have (got) a stain on your tie (= There is a stain on your tie.)
   You have (got) sand in your hair (= There is sand in your hair.)

'Have' as a full verb meaning something other than 'possess'

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>imperative:</td>
<td>Have a cup of coffee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple present.</td>
<td>I always have milk in my tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present progressive:</td>
<td>We're having a nice time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple past</td>
<td>We had a lovely holiday last summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past progressive:</td>
<td>I was having a bath when the phone rang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect</td>
<td>Poor Jim has just had an accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present perfect progressive</td>
<td>The children have been having a lot of fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect</td>
<td>I woke up, I had been having a bad dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect progressive</td>
<td>I'll have a haircut tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple future.</td>
<td>If anyone phones, I'll be having a bath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future progressive:</td>
<td>You'll have had an answer by tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect</td>
<td>She will have been having treatment all her life e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect progressive</td>
<td>You could have a cup of tea if you like</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.33 The forms 'have' (= possess) and 'have' (other meanings)

1 Have, in the sense of 'eat, enjoy, experience, drink, take', etc., is a dynamic verb (> 9.3) so it is concerned with actions (e.g. have a walk), not states like have in the sense of 'possess' (e.g. I have (got) a car) Because of this, it can be used in the progressive form of all the tenses. Compare:

I have (= I've got) a drink, thanks
(i.e. it's in my hand: stative)

I'm having a drink
(= I'm drinking: dynamic)

I have a drink every evening before dinner.
(= I drink: dynamic)

Have got can never replace have used as a dynamic verb.

2 Have in the sense of 'take', etc. is used like any other English verb. This means that:
- questions and negatives in the simple present and simple past must be formed with do, does and did:

Do you have milk in your tea? I don't have milk in my tea
Did you have a nice holiday? I didn't have a nice holiday

- it occurs freely in all active tenses as the context permits, but passive forms are rare: e.g. a good time was had by all
- the passive infinitive sometimes occurs in: e.g.

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'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have had</td>
<td>I've had</td>
<td>I've not had = I haven't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have had</td>
<td>You've had</td>
<td>You've not had = You haven't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has had</td>
<td>He's had</td>
<td>He's not had = He hasn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She has had</td>
<td>She's had</td>
<td>She's not had = She hasn't had lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has had</td>
<td>Its had</td>
<td>It's not had = It hasn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have had</td>
<td>You've had</td>
<td>You've not had = You haven't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have had</td>
<td>They've had</td>
<td>They've not had = They haven't had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.35 Form of the simple past perfect of 'have' = 'take'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>short form negative short forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had had You'd had I'd not had = I hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>had had He'd had He'd not had = He hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>had had She'd had She'd not had = She hadn't had lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>had had It'd had It'd not had = It hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had had You'd had You'd not had = You hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>had had He'd had He'd not had = He hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>had had She'd had She'd not had = She hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>had had It'd had It'd not had = It hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>had had We'd had We'd not had = We hadn't had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>had had They'd had They'd not had = They hadn't had</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.36 Notes on the forms 'have had' and 'had had'

1 These forms are, of course, quite regular: I have had my lunch and I had had my lunch work in the same way as I have eaten my lunch and I had eaten my lunch.

Here are a few more examples of have as a full verb in the present perfect and past perfect:

- Have you ever had lunch at Maxim's?
- That boy looks as if he's never had a haircut
- I had never had a ride on an elephant before I went to India.

2 In general, the negative forms 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 [\( \geq 9.53 \)] 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! |

(固定表达)

There are no direct references to appetite, digestion, etc. (like Bon appetit! in French or Guten Appetit! in German), but expressions with have can be coined to suit particular occasions:

- Have a really good meal! Have a lovely party!
- Have a really restful holiday!
- Have a really interesting debate! etc.

'Do' as a full verb

10.40 Forms of 'do' as a full verb

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
<th>Negative Full Form</th>
<th>Negative Short Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>does</td>
<td>does not</td>
<td>doesn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>does the work</td>
<td>does not</td>
<td>doesn't do the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>does</td>
<td>does not</td>
<td>doesn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>don't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
'Do' as a full verb

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative full form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>did not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>did not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>did the work</td>
<td>didn't do the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>did not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>didn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>didn't</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You did You did not You didn't
He did He did not He didn't
She did the work she did not She didn't do the work
It did It did not It didn't
We did We did not We didn't
You did You did not You didn't
They did They did not They didn't

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative full form</th>
<th>negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>haven't (I've not)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>have not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>has not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>has not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>has done</td>
<td>has not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>have not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>have not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>have not done</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You have done You have not done You haven't (You've not) done
He has done He has not done He hasn't (He's not) done
She has done She has not done She hasn't (She's not) done
It has done It has not done It hasn't (It's not) done
We have done We have not done We haven't (We've not) done
You have done You have not done You haven't (You've not) done
They have done They have not done They haven't (They've not) done

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)
- I wrote some letters (i.e. that's what I did)
- 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
- make + an accusation against (someone), an agreement with (someone), an appointment: an arrangement; a bed, etc.

Sometimes both make and do are possible:
  * I'll make/I'll do the beds this morning, if you like

10.46 'Do' in fixed expressions
Do occurs in numerous fixed expressions, such as:
- What does he do? (i.e. What work does he do for a living?)
- How do you do? (i.e. 13.40.6)
- That'll do' (e.g. That will be enough.)
- How many miles does it do to the gallon? (doin the sense of 'go')
- This simply won't do (i.e. It's unacceptable.)
- How did you do? (i.e. How did you manage?)
- I could do with a drink (i.e. I would like a drink.)
- It's got nothing to do with me (i.e. It doesn't concern me.)
- I can do without a car (i.e. manage without a car)
- I was done! (i.e. I was cheated.)
- Shall I do your room out? (i.e. clean it)
- You did me out of my share (i.e. cheated me)
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

General characteristics of modal verbs

11.1 Which verbs are modal auxiliaries and what do they do?

Verbs like can and may are called modal auxiliaries, though we often refer to them simply as modal verbs or modals. We frequently use modals when we are concerned with our relationship with someone else. We may, for example, ask for permission to do something; grant permission to someone; give or receive advice; make or respond to requests and offers, etc. We can express different levels of politeness both by the forms we choose and the way we say things. The bluntest command (You must see a doctor), with a certain kind of stress, might be more kindly and persuasive than the most complicated utterance (/I think it might possibly be advisable for you to see a doctor).

Modals sharing the same grammatical characteristics [> 11.5-6] are:
- can - could
- may - might
- will - would
- shall - should
- must - ought to

Verbs which share some of the grammatical characteristics of modals are: need [> 11.49], dare [> 11.65], used to [> 11.58].

By comparison, need to and dare to are full verbs.

Modals have two major functions which can be defined as primary and secondary.

11.2 Primary function of modal verbs

In their primary function, modal verbs closely reflect the meanings often given first in most dictionaries, so that:
- can/could relate mainly to ability: I can lift 25 kg/I can type
- may/might relate mainly to permission: You may leave early
- will/would relate mainly to prediction [> 9.35]: it will rain soon
- shall after I/We [> 9.36n1] relates mainly to prediction: Can we find our way home? - I'm sure we shall
- should/ought to relate mainly to escapable obligation or duty: You should do (or ought to do) as you're told
- must relates mainly to inescapable obligation: You must be quiet
- needn't relates to absence of obligation: You needn't wait
Secondary function of modal verbs

In their secondary function, nine of the modal auxiliaries (not shall) can be used to express the degree of certainty/uncertainty a speaker feels about a possibility. They can be arranged on a scale from the greatest uncertainty (might) to the greatest certainty (must). The order of modals between might and must is not fixed absolutely. It varies according to situation. For example, one arrangement might be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very uncertain</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>should</td>
<td>be right</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td></td>
<td>have been right</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>right</td>
<td>certain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Can requires qualification to be used in this way [> 11.29ns2.4]:

He can hardly be right
Do you think he can be right?
I don’t think he can be right

Primary and secondary functions of ‘must’ compared

This example of must shows that it is ‘defective’ [> 11.6.1]:

1 In its primary function it requires another full verb (have to) to make up its ‘missing parts’. (In the same way can, for example, in its primary function requires the full verb be able to to make up its missing parts.)

2 In its secondary function must (like the other modals listed in 11.1) has only two basic forms: a form which relates to the present and a form which relates to the perfect or past [> 11.8.4],

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>primary (inescapable obligation)</th>
<th>secondary (certainty)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>infinitive:</td>
<td>to have to leave</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing form:</td>
<td>having to leave</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present:</td>
<td>They must leave</td>
<td>They must be right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future:</td>
<td>They must leave tomorrow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect:</td>
<td>They have had to leave</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past:</td>
<td>They had to leave</td>
<td>They must have been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past perfect:</td>
<td>They had had to leave</td>
<td>right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect:</td>
<td>They will have had to leave</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘conditional’:</td>
<td>They would have had to leave</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some ways in which modals resemble ’be’, ’have’, ’do’

Structurally, modal auxiliaries resemble the auxiliaries be, have and do in some ways and differ completely from them in others. Some of the most important similarities are noted in this section and some differences are explained in 11.6.
General characteristics of modal verbs

11.5.1 The negative [> 13.1-2]
The negative is formed (as it is for be, have and do) by the addition of not after the modal. In informal spoken English not is often reduced to the unemphatic n’t:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
<th>Contracted Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>(is) not</td>
<td>(is)n’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>(have) not</td>
<td>(have)nt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>(do) not</td>
<td>(do)n’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>cannot</td>
<td>can’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>could not</td>
<td>couldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>may not</td>
<td>mayn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>might not</td>
<td>mightn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td>will not</td>
<td>won’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>would not</td>
<td>wouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>shall not</td>
<td>shan’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>should not</td>
<td>shouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>must not</td>
<td>mustn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>ought not to</td>
<td>oughtn’t to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>need not</td>
<td>needn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dare</td>
<td>dare not</td>
<td>daren’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The full form cannot is written as one word. 
Mayn’t is rare, but does occur. For used not and usedn’t [> 11.59n2],

11.5.2 Questions [> 13.1-3, 13.30, 13.41]
Yes/No questions are formed as for be, have and do. We begin with the modal, followed by the subject and then the predicate.

May we leave early?

In question-word questions, the question-word precedes the modal:

When may we leave?

With Yes/No questions, the modal used in the answer is normally the same as the one used in the question [> 11.31, 13.6n.1]:

Can you come and see me tomorrow? - Yes I can ‘No, I can’t

Modals also behave like be have and do in tag questions [> 13.17]:

You can do it, can’t you?

11.5.3 Negative questions [> 13.14]
As with be, have and do, the full form of negative questions with modals requires not after the subject (Can you not help me?). This is formal and rare. Contracted forms are normally used:

Can’t you help me? [compare > 13.16]

Shouldn’t (you) ? 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 ['l'll, I’d > 9.35, 14.17n3]. In speech, can, could and shall are ‘contracted’ by means of unemphatic pronunciation:
   /, (etc.) can /kæn/, /, (etc.) could /kəd/, /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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>will see</td>
<td>I may see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will be seeing</td>
<td>I may be seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will have seen</td>
<td>- [but &gt; 12.3n.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will have been seeing</td>
<td>I may have been seen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 fiance (present progressive)
Meg may be phoning her fiance (modal + be + verb-ing)
Meg may have been phoning her fiance (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 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.9 Modal + verb and modal + 'be/have been' + progressive

Two observations need to be made here:
1 Modal + be/have been + progressive is not always possible in the primary function. For example:
   *He can’t leave yet* (= it’s not possible for him to leave yet)
   is quite different from the secondary function:
   *He can’t be leaving yet* (= I don’t think he is)
   But compare the primary and secondary functions of must in:
   **primary:** *You must be working when the inspector comes in*
   (i.e. it is necessary (for you) to be working.)
   **secondary:** *You must be joking*
   (i.e. I’m almost certain you are joking.)
2 Occasionally, in the primary function, a modal + be + progressive has a ‘softening effect’ similar to the use of the future progressive (> 9.41.2). So:
   *We must/may/should (etc.) be leaving soon*
   is more polite and tentative than:
   *We must/may/should (etc.) leave soon*

Uses of modals, etc. to express ability

11.10 Form of modals and related verbs expressing ability

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
**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 pb
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 to is less common:
   *Billy is only 9 months old and he can already stand up*
   *Billy is only 9 months old and he is already able to stand up*

However, am/is/are able to would be unusual when we are
commenting on something that is happening at the time of speaking:
   *Look’ I can stand on my hands’*
Modals, etc to express ability
11.11.2 'Can' + verb (learned ability or 'know-how')
   Learned ability can be expressed as follows:
   **Can you drive a car?**
   (= Do you know how to? Have you learnt how to?)
   / can/cannot/can't drive a car
   Verbs such as drive, play, speak, understand indicate skills or learned 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' 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 weren't able to, didn't manage to etc)

   Could can be used when we are asking about a specific action (as opposed to describing it):

   **Could they rescue the cat on the roof?** (= did they manage to?)
   - No, they couldn't. It was too difficult
   However, an affirmative response requires an alternative to could
   - Yes, they managed to (Not 'could')

11.13 Can/could' + verbs of perception [>] APP 38.4]

Verbs of perception [>] 9.3, like see hear, smell rarely occur progressive Can, and to a lesser extent, am/is/are able to combine
with such verbs to indicate that we can see, hear, etc. something happening at the moment of speaking. In such cases can has a grammatical function equivalent to the simple present in statements and to do/does in questions and negatives:

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:

If you can pass (or are able to pass) your driving test at the first attempt, I'll be very surprised
11.17 Expressing ability with 'can' and 'could' in the passive

Passive constructions with can and could, indicating ability, are possible where the sense allows:

- This car can only be driven by a midget
- The lecture couldn't be understood by anyone present
- The injured men could have been reached if heavy equipment had been available during the rescue operation

11.18 'Can/could' = capability/possibility

Can + be + adjective or noun has the effect of 'is sometimes' or 'is often' and refers to capability or possibility. It can be replaced by be capable of + -ing, but not by am/is/are able to:

- It can be quite cold in Cairo in January
  (= It is sometimes - or often - quite cold.)
- He can be very naughty, (or 'a very naughty boy') [> 10.11]
  (When used for people, the effect is generally negative, even when the adjective is favourable: She can look quite attractive when she wants to — which implies she doesn't usually look attractive.)

Could has the same effect in the past:

- It could be quite cold in Cairo in January when I lived there
  (= It was sometimes - or often - quite cold.)
- He could be very naughty when he was a little boy

Could can also have a future reference in this kind of context:

- It could be quite cold when you get to Cairo

Uses of modals, etc. to express permission and prohibition

11.19 Form of modals and related verbs: permission/prohibition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>can/could/may/might [compare &gt; 11.34, 11.36-38]:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can I stay out late?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could I stay out late?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May I stay out late?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might I stay out late?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 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 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.20 Asking for permission/responding: 'can/could/may/might'

Requests for permission can be graded on a 'hesitancy scale', ranging from a blunt request to an extremely hesitant one. Requests for permission can refer to the present or future. The basic forms are:

**Can**
- *Could* I borrow your umbrella (please)?
**May**
- *Might* I borrow your umbrella (please)?

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.
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) use your phone?
- Do you think I could/might
- I wonder if I could/might

Or they may be over-cautious or obsequious:
- Might I (possibly) be allowed to...?

11.23 Granting and refusing permission

Permission can be granted or refused as follows:

- **You** can(not) watch TV for as long as you like (Not "could")
- **may (not)** (Not "might")

You may/may not carries the authority of the speaker and is the equivalent of 'I (personally) give you permission'. You can/cannot is more general and does not necessarily imply personal permission

Permission issuing from some other authority can be granted or withheld more emphatically with be allowed to, be permitted to and be forbidden to, as follows:

- You can/cannot or You're allowed to/not allowed to
- You can/cannot or You're permitted to/not permitted
- You mustn't or You're forbidden to smoke here.

Granting/refusing permission is not confined to 1st and 2nd persons

- **Johnny/Frankie** can/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 anyth mild refusal {I'd rather you didn't if you don't mind) to strong prohibition (I forbid you to.) Formal and strong statements with non-modal forms are often found in public notices [compare > 12.9.1

- Thank you for not smoking (i.e. please don't)
- Passengers are requested to remain seated till the aircraft stops
- Trespassing is strictly forbidden
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.24 Permission/prohibition in other tenses
The gaps in the 'defective' verbs *may* and *must* [> 11.4, 11.6.1] can be filled with the verb phrases *be allowed to* and the more formal *be permitted to*. Examples of other tenses:

**present perfect:** Mrs James is in hospital and *hasn't been allowed to* have any visitors.

**past:** *We were allowed to* stay up till 11 last night

*Could* can only express past 'permission in general'[compare > 11.12.1]:

*When we were children we could watch* (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)

/ *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)

/ *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
Forms of tenses (certainty) versus modals (possibility)

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

Notes on modal forms expressing possibility

1. Should be and ought to be to express possibility
   - 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, they can be ambiguous, so are not used as much as may/might/could to express possibility. For example, He should have arrived (ought to have arrived) yesterday could mean 'I think he probably has arrived' or 'He failed in his duty to arrive yesterday'.

2. Questions about possibility
   - When we are asking about possibility, we may use Might, Could, and sometimes Can and (rarely) May. (We do not normally use should and ought to in affirmative questions about possibility because of the risk of confusion with obligation):
     - Might/Could/Can this be true?
     - Might/Could he know the answer?
     - Might/Could he still be working? (or be still working)
     - Might/Could he be leaving soon?
     - Might/Could 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. 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?
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.
*Can't be* often suggests disbelief:

*What you're saying can't be true* 1 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* 1 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He is here</th>
<th>He lives here</th>
<th>He is leaving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He isn't here</td>
<td>He doesn't live here</td>
<td>He isn't leaving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He must be here</th>
<th>He must live here</th>
<th>He must be leaving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He can't be here</td>
<td>He can't live here</td>
<td>He can't be leaving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**perfect and past reference.**

Certainty expressed by verb tenses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He was here</th>
<th>He has left/He left early</th>
<th>He has been/was working late</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Deduction expressed by **must have been** and **can't/couldn't have been**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He must have been here</th>
<th>He must have left early</th>
<th>He must have been working late</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He can't have been here</td>
<td>He can't have left early</td>
<td>He can't have been working late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He couldn't have been here</td>
<td>He couldn't have left early</td>
<td>He couldn't have been working late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 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 'fin answer to Will you have  ? could sound rude [> 11.74.1].

11.35.3 Typical offers with 'What'
What will you have? What would you like to have?
What would you prefer? What would you rather have?

11.36 Things and substances: requests with modals

11.36.1 Typical requests inviting Yes/No responses
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 somethina

11.38.1 Typical requests inviting Yes/No responses [> 11.19-20]
Will you ? Would you ? in these requests refer to willingness Can you ? Could you ? refer to ability.
Will you (please)

Can/Could you (please) open the window (for me)?
Would you (please)
Would you like to
Would you mind opening the window (for me)?

Will/Would you sounds even more polite with the addition of kindly and can/could with the addition of possibly [compare > 11.22]
Will/Would you kindly ? Can/Could you possibly ?
We cannot use May you...? in requests for help.
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.38.2 Typical responses
Yes of course (I will) No I’m afraid I can’t (at the moment)

11.39 Actions: using modals to offer to do things for others

11.39.1 Typical offers to do things
Offers beginning Shall I? Shall we? are very common
Can I/Could I/Shall I open the window (for you)?
Would you like me to open the window (for you)?
That’s the phone I’ll get it for you (shall I)?
What shall/can I do for you?

And note very polite offers with may in e.g. May I take your coat?

11.39.2 Typical responses
The usual responses are Yes please No thank you, or tag responses
like Can/Could/Would you? - that’s very kind, but not Yes, you can/No, you can’t, which could sound rude

11.40 Actions: suggestions that include the speaker

11.40.1 Typical suggestions inviting Yes/No responses
Shall we go for a swim? We can/could/might go for a swim

11.40.2 Typical responses
Yes let’s (shall we)? [compare > 16.4.1]
Wo 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 it’s only often to express longing or regret
- the phrases it’s (high) time and it’s about time to express future
  wishes and impatience that a course of action is overdue

After wish if only it’s (high) time it’s about time, we use
- the past tense to refer to present time
- the past perfect tense to refer to past time
- would and could to make general wishes or refer to the future
In other words, we ‘go one tense back’ [compare > 15.13n3]

Though wish and if only are often used interchangeably, if only
expresses more strongly the idea that the situation wished for does
not exist, whereas wish is used for something that might happen
Details follow
Expressing wishes with 'wish', 'if only' etc

11.42 The verb 'wish' and the phrase 'if only'

1.42.1 Present reference: 'wish/if only' with 'be' + complement

After wish and if only we may use
- the simple past of be
  - I wish/if only Tessa was here now
- the subjunctive [> 11.75.1] of be, i.e., were after all persons
  - 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! knew' Would to God I had known')
11.42.5 The position of 'only' after 'if'

- 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/she 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 if s (high) time and if s about time

Short responses are possible with these expressions

- I still haven't thanked Aunt Lucy for her present
- It's time you did. (you're taking too long over it)

Compare the use of if s time in

- We've enjoyed the evening but it's time (for us) to go
  (= the time has now arrived for us to go)
- We've enjoyed the evening but it's time we went
  (= we should probably have left before this)

Expressing preferences with 'would rather' and 'would sooner'

11.44 'Would rather/sooner' to express preference

Would + rather/sooner + bare infinitive [> 16.5] expresses our personal preference, or enables us to talk about someone else's. This can refer to present time

- I'd rather/sooner be a miner than a bank clerk
- He'd rather (not) go by car

or to past time

- If I'd lived in 1400 I'd rather have been a knight than a monk
- If she'd had the chance she'd rather have lived 100 years ago
Advisability, duty/obligation and necessity

In negative responses, we can omit the infinitive
Are you coming with us? - I'd rather not
Would you rather have been a knight? - I'd rather not (have been)

Would rather/sooner can be modified by far and (very) much
I'd far (or much) rather be happy than rich
I'd far (or much) sooner be young than old

1.45 '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 Jack left on an earlier train

Note the use of past tenses after /d rather + clause
- the past with present or future reference
  I'd rather you were happy (or weren't unhappy)
  I'd rather she sat (or didn't sit) next to me
- the past perfect with past reference
  I'd rather you had been/hadn't been present
  I'd rather he had told/hadn't told me about it

When expressing negative preferences (to refer to the present or future), we can use didn't to avoid repeating the main verb
You always go without me and I'd rather you didn't
We can use hadn't in the same way to refer to the past
Katie went by car and I'd rather she hadn't

Short responses to express preferences are possible as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present and future</th>
<th>Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frank wants to buy a motorbike - I'd rather he didn't tell everyone about it - I'd rather you hadn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Advisability, duty/obligation and necessity

11.46 Examples of forms expressing advisability, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present advisability</th>
<th>Past advisability not acted upon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i ought to stop smoking</td>
<td>i should have stopped smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i d better stop smoking</td>
<td>(i was advised to stop but ignored the advice )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i still smoke )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present inescapable obligation</th>
<th>Past inescapable obligation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i must stop smoking</td>
<td>i had to stop smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i am obliged to stop smoking and i shall it is my duty)</td>
<td>(i was obliged to stop smoking and i did it was my duty )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For should and ought to in indirect speech [> 15.13n 6]
For the ambiguity of should have and ought to have [> 11.29m1 ]
For the uses of must and had to in indirect speech [15.13n6]
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.47 Advisability —> necessity: 'a scale of choice'

We can use modals and other verbs to express advisability on a scale which reflects a degree of choice. This scale may vary according to the subjective point of view of the speaker.

advisability **should**: generally means 'in my opinion, it is advisable to' or 'it is (your) duty'.

**ought to**: can be slightly stronger than **should** in that it is sometimes used to refer to regulations or duties imposed from the outside: You **ought to vote** (= it is your public duty). **Should** is more likely than **ought to** in questions and negatives.

**had better**: is stronger than **should** and **ought to**.

It is used to recommend future action on a particular occasion, not in general.

It carries a hint of threat, warning or urgency: You'd better see a doctor.

**am/is/are to**: can be used for instructions [compare > 9.48.1]: You're to report for duty at 7

**need (to)**: (= it is necessary to).

**have to**: is an alternative to **must** and fills the gaps in that defective verb [> 11.4],

**have got to**: like **have to**, but more informal.

**necessity** **must**: like **have to** and **have got to**, suggests inescapable obligation. In the speaker's opinion there is no choice at all.

11.48 'Must', 'have to' and 'have got to'

As far as meaning is concerned, these three forms are largely interchangeable. However, there are differences between them. When used in the first person, **have to** and **have got to** (often pronounced / haevtə/ 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:

/ **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:

/ **have to/ 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/needed to go to the dentist this morning**

**I don't need to/didn't need to go to the dentist**

**When will you next need to go to the dentist?**

**Why did you need to go to the dentist?** etc.
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

### 11.50 Advisability/necessity: the present and future

*Should* *ought to*, etc refer to present time (except in indirect speech [*> 15.13n6*]) With the addition of adverbials such as *this afternoon tomorrow*, etc, they refer to future time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should</th>
<th>ought to</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>must</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>at the office</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(before 9 tomorrow)</td>
<td>(before 9 tomorrow)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>need to</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>at the office before 9 (tomorrow)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’ll</td>
<td>leave</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>London before 9 (tomorrow)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be leaving</td>
<td></td>
<td>London before 9 (tomorrow)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 11.51 Advisability/necessity: the perfect and past

Reference to the past can be made in the following ways

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should have</th>
<th>have to</th>
<th>been</th>
<th>at the office before 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>had to</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>at the office before 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>leave</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be leaving</td>
<td>London before 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Should have* and *ought to have* could be followed (here) by *but I wasn’t / didn’t* to suggest that whatever was advisable or necessary did not happen

*Had to* suggests that the action was performed in the past because this was necessary It could be followed by *and I was did*

*I had to leave London before 9 and I did*

The form *had got to* also exists, but it is not always suitable, *had to* is generally preferred

When other tenses are required, appropriate forms of *have to* must be used to fill the gaps of the defective modal *must* [*> 11.4*]

*I have had to remind* him several times to return my book

*Because of the bus strike I’ve been having to walk* to work every day

*The reason for our late arrival was that we had had to wait for hours while they checked the plane before take off*

*If he had asked me I would have had to tell him* the truth
Lack of necessity, inadvisability, prohibition

1.52 Examples of modal forms to express inadvisability, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present lack of necessity</th>
<th>Past lack of necessity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You needn't go there</td>
<td>You needn't have gone there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or You don't need to go there</td>
<td>You didn't have to go there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You haven't got to go there</td>
<td>Or You didn't need to go there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(= you went there unnecessarily)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present inadvisability</th>
<th>Past inadvisability, not acted upon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You shouldn't start smoking</td>
<td>You shouldn't have started smoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You ought not to start smoking</td>
<td>You oughtn't to have started smoking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(= there was no necessity to go there, whether you did go or not)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present prohibition</th>
<th>Failure to observe a prohibition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You can't park here</td>
<td>You shouldn't have parked there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You mustn't park here</td>
<td>You oughtn't to have parked there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For shouldn't and ought(n't) to in indirect speech (> 15.13n6)
Shouldn't have and oughtn't to have are not ambiguous in the way that should have and ought to have can sometimes be ambiguous [compare > 11.29n1]
For the use of must(n't) in indirect speech (> 15.13n6)
Have to can replace must in the present (> 11.48, 11.50) but don't/didn't have to cannot replace mustn't in the present and past (> 11.55, 11.57.1)

1.53 Lack of necessity: 'needn't/don't have to/haven't got to'

Lack of necessity can be expressed by needn't don't have to and the more informal haven't got to (where got is often stressed)

You needn't
You don't have to work such long hours
You haven't got to
(= you can work fewer hours, if you choose to)

The above forms can be used to express the subjective point of view of the speaker that the listener has a choice or has permission not to do something Note that (You) haven't to is a regional BrE variation of (You) don't have to

11.54 Inadvisability —> prohibition: 'a scale of choice'

We can use modals and other verbs to express inadvisability —> prohibition on a scale which reflects a degree of choice This scale may vary according to the subjective view of the speaker This is particularly the case when we are addressing others directly with you, or when we are referring to others with he she, and they At one end of the scale (see next page) the advice (however strong) can be ignored At the other end of the scale, the prohibition is total and, in the speaker's opinion, there is no choice at all
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

**inadvisability** shouldn't
generally means 'in my opinion, it is
inadvisable to/it is (your) duty not to'

oughtn't
can be slightly stronger than
shouldn't. It is sometimes used to refer
to regulations and duties imposed from
the outside. You oughtn't to park so
near the crossing suggests 'it's your
public duty not to do this'.

had better not
is stronger than shouldn't and
oughtn't. It is used to recommend
future action on a particular occasion
not in general. It carries a hint of
threat, warning, or urgency. You'd
better not overtake here.

am/is/are not to can be used for instructions [> 9.48.1]
can't
is nearly as strong as mustn't to
suggest something is prohibited

You can't park here

prohibition  mustn't
conveys absolute prohibition. In
the opinion of the speaker, there
is no choice at all. This opinion
may be subjective or may be
supported by some outside authority
as in You mustn't turn left (e.g.
there's a road sign forbidding it).

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 leave the office (until 9 tomorrow)

I don't have to be leaving until 9 (tomorrow)

(Haven't got to is not generally used with progressive forms)

Won't (and shan't in BrE [> 9.36n3]) will combine with have to and need to (full verb) for explicit reference to the future

I won't need to/have to be at the office before 9 tomorrow

11.56 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)

You shouldn't/toughtn't to/had better not/can't/mustn't be late tomorrow (future)

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)

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 groundsof 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 *"/ 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

/ collected stamps when I was a child (simple past + time reference)
I used to collect stamps (when I was a child) (time reference not necessary with used to, but may be included)
Used to is not possible with since [> 7.31] and for [> 7.32]:
I lived in the country for three years (Not 'used to live*)

For the past progressive referring to repeated actions [> 9.20.4],

11.61 Past habit: 'used to', 'would' and the simple past

We can refer to past habit in the following ways:
When I worked on a farm I always used to get up at 5 a.m.
When I worked on a farm, I would always get up at 5 a.m.
When I worked on a farm, I always got up at 5 a.m.

Would can be used in place of used to, but, like the simple past, it always requires a time reference. We often use it to talk about regular activities, particularly in narrative, or when we are reminiscing.
Would is never used at the beginning of a story: the scene must first be set with the simple past or used to- In familiar narrative, would can be reduced to y:
When I was a boy we always spent (or used to spend) our holidays on a farm. We'd get up at 5 and we'd help milk the cows. Then we'd return to the farm kitchen, where we would eat a huge breakfast.

11.62 'Used to' to describe past states, etc.

Used to (not would) combines with be, have (possession) and other stative verbs [> 9.3] to describe past states:
I used to be a waiter, but now I'm a taxi-driver (past state)
I used to have a beard, but I've shaved it off (past possession)
If we use past tenses instead of used to, we need a time reference:
I was a waiter years ago, but now I'm a taxi-driver

11.63 'Will/would' to describe characteristic habit/behaviour

Will can sometimes be used in place of the simple present and would in place of the simple past to refer to a person's characteristic habits or behaviour. Will and would are unstressed when used in this way:
In fine weather, he will often sit in the sun for hours.
As he grew older, he would often talk about his war experiences.
And note common fixed phrases with will-
Boys will be boys. Accidents will happen.

Will and would (usually with heavy stress) are often used accusingly to criticize a person's characteristic behaviour:
Harriet will keep leaving her things all over the floor.
That's just typical of Harry. He would say a thing like that.

Sometimes will used in this way implies insistence, or wilful refusal to follow advice. Note that although will is not normally used after if [> 14.4-6, 14.24.2], it can be in this sense:
If you will (stressed) go to bed so late no wonder you're tired.
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.64 'Will' and 'would' to describe natural tendency

Like the simple present tense (> 9.6-8) will (with a 3rd person subject) can refer to general truths or to the qualities of things; would can sometimes refer to the past.

Water will boil at 100°C. 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present reference</th>
<th>past reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>modal verb</td>
<td>modal verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dare, don’t dare + go</td>
<td>dared/dared not/didn’t dare + go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>full regular verb</td>
<td>full regular verb:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dare don’t dare + to go</td>
<td>dared/didn’t dare + to go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.66 Notes on the forms of 'dare'

Dare as a modal is not nearly as common as need and used to as modals. Its function is generally filled by verb phrases like (not) be afraid to or (not) have the courage to (> 11.67),

Like modal need (> 11.49), modal dare occurs in questions and negatives and is rare in the affirmative, unless a negative is expressed or implied:

Dare you do it? - I daren’t do it
I hardly dare tell him what happened (implied negative)

Questions/negatives are more commonly formed with do’does did

Do you dare tell him? I don’t dare tell him
Did you dare tell him? I didn’t dare tell him

Such forms are anomalous because dare is like a full verb in taking do, but like an auxiliary in taking a bare infinitive.

To can be used after dare in the examples with do don’t and d’d d’don’t, making it a full verb, but not changing its meaning:

Do you dare to tell him? I don’t dare to tell him etc.
Both dare not and dared not can be used to refer to the past, though this is more formal:

Mother dare(d) not tell father she d given away his old jacket

Dare cannot combine with be + progressive, but it can combine with Have + past participle, though this is not very common:
I didn’t like their new house though I daren’t have said so
Other uses of modal auxiliaries

11.67 The use of 'dare' to express courage or lack of courage

*Daren't* is used in the present (to refer to present or future time) and can be replaced by *am/is/are afraid to:*

*I'd like to ask for the day off, but *I daren't* (= I'm afraid to)*

*Don't dare* to (regular verb) is acceptable in the present:

*I'd like to ask for the day off, but *I don't dare* (to)*

*Didn't dare* to is used in the past:

*I wanted to ask for the day off, but *I didn't dare* (to)*

*Dare* can also be used in the affirmative, but this is less common:

*Sally is the only person in our class who *dares* (to) answer Miss Thompson back*

11.68 'Dare' for 'challenging'

*Dare* as a full transitive verb is used especially by children when challenging each other to do something dangerous:

*I dare you to jump off that wall*

*I didn't want to do it, but *he dared me* (to)*

11.69 'Dare' for expressing outrage

*Dare* as a modal, is often used to reprimand and express outrage or strong disapproval. It is especially common after *How:*

*How dare you! How dare she suggest such a thing?*

*Don't you dare speak to me like that again'*

*You dare raise your voice!* [imperative, > 9.54]

*I'm going to smash this vase! - *Just you dare!*

*Dared* can be used after *How* in: e.g.

*How dared he tell everybody I was looking for a new job?*

11.70 The use of 'daresay'

The verbs *dare* and *say* can combine into a single verb, *daresay,* (sometimes spelt as two separate words, *dare say*) which can be used in the first person singular and plural (present tense only) to mean *I suppose or it's possible:*

*I daresay you'll phone me if you're going to be late tonight*

Or in the sense of 'accept what you say':

*This is supposed to be a cheap restaurant It says so in this guidebook - *I daresay* it does, but look at these prices'*

Other uses of modal auxiliaries

11.71 'May' in formulas for expressing wishes

*May* occurs in fixed phrases like:

*May God be with you! May you live to be a hundred!*

*May* can also be used in the sense of 'We hope very much that...':

*May there never be a nuclear war'*
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.72 'May/might'

11.72.1 'May/might (just) as well'

May as well and might as well can be used interchangeably to express the idea 'it makes no difference'.

It's not very far, so we may/might as well go on foot

May as well and might as well can differ as follows:

Shall we walk or take a bus?

- We may/might as well walk (i.e. it makes no difference)
- What a slow bus this is!
- Yes, we might (Not *may*) just as well walk (i.e. we'd get there more quickly)

11.72.2 'May/might/could well' = 'it is extremely likely'

May well might well and could well can be used interchangeably:

He may/might/could well find that the course is too difficult

11.72.3 'May/might' in the sense of I grant you...

This construction is often used in discussion and argument.

Your typewriter may/might be a wonderful machine, but it's still old-fashioned compared with a word-processor

11.72.4 'Might/could (at least)' in nagging complaints/reproach

You might (at least) clean the bathtub after you've used it

(I) might have + past participle of verbs like guess, know and suspect can reinforce complaint:

I might have guessed he'd fail to read the instructions

11.72.5 'Might' in requests

Might can replace the imperative [> 9.52] in:

While you're out you might (no stress) post this letter for me

11.73 'Shall'

Apart from its main uses with I/we to refer to the future [> 9.36], and to make offers/suggestions [> 11.39-40], shall can be used with other persons (you, he, they, etc.) in e.g. the following ways [compare > 11.23]:

You shall pay for this (threat)
You shall (stressed) have a car for your birthday (promise)
They shall not pass! (determination)

When he comes in nobody shall say a word [> 9.54n5] (order)

11.74 'Won't/wouldn't' and 'would/wouldn't'

11.74.1 'Won't' and 'wouldn't' for 'refusal'

Won't and wouldn't are commonly used to express refusal in the present and the past:

Drink your milk, Jimmy! - I won't (Also, BrE: I shan't!)

I offered Jimmy some milk, but he wouldn't drink it

'Refusal' (or resistance to effort) can be extended to things:

The car won't start 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
Other uses of modal auxiliaries

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

- That **seems** the best solution to me (definite)
- That **would seem** the best solution to me (less definite)
- Friday evening **is not** (or **won’t be**) very convenient (definite)
- Friday evening **wouldn’t be** very convenient (less definite)

11.75 'Should'

11.75.1 Noun clauses with 'should'

There are two classes here:

1. Many verbs, particularly reporting verbs: say, etc. [> App 45] can be followed by (that) should or (that) ought to referring to obligation, advice, etc.:

   He said (**that** I **should** (or **ought to**) see a doctor

2. After verbs referring to proposals, suggestions, requests and orders (e.g. propose, suggest), we may follow with (that) should (not ought to), the simple present, or the subjunctive [> App 45.3]. The subjunctive (rare in English) refers to what could or should happen in hypothetical situations.

   In the present, the base form of the verb remains the same in all persons: If I/you/he (etc.) be; It is important that you/he (etc.) go
   The past subjunctive of be is were: If I/you/he (etc.) were; I wish 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 suggest (**that**) he **should**/**shouldn’t apply** for the job (should)
    I suggest (**that**) he **applies**/**doesn’t apply** for the job (present)
    I suggest (**that**) he **apply**/**not apply** for the job (subjunctive)

- **past reference**: affirmative/negative after (that):

  In past reported suggestions, the (that) should construction and the subjunctive can be replaced by a past tense:

    I **suggested** (**that**) they **should**/**shouldn’t drive** along the coast
    I **suggested** (**that**) they **drive**/**not drive** along the coast
    I **suggested** (**that**) they **drove**/**didn’t drive** along the coast

11.75.3 That...should' after certain adjectives

Adjectives referring to desirability or urgency, such as essential and urgent, can be used in the same way [> App 44]:

- It is vital (**that**) we **should be** present (should)
- It is vital (**that**) we **are** present (present)
- It is vital (**that**) we **be** present (subjunctive)

The reference may also be to the past:

- It was important (**that**) he **should apply**/**apply**/**applied** for the job
11 Modal auxiliaries and related verbs

11.75.4 That...should' after I'm surprised', etc.
That _should_ can be used after phrases with adjectives and nouns expressing feelings and emotions: e.g. I'm annoyed, I'm surprised, It's funny, It's a pity.
_I'm surprised that he should feel_ like that.
If we wish to be more emphatic, we may use the simple present:
_I'm surprised that he feels_ like that.
_Shouldn't_ is possible but often avoided (because of its ambiguity) in such cases and the negative present or past are preferred:
present reference: I'm surprised that he _doesn't feel_ any remorse
past reference: I'm surprised that he _didn't feel_ any remorse
The past or _should have_ can be used in: e.g. I was surprised that he made/should have made the same mistake

11.76 'There' + modal auxiliaries
Parallel structures to _there is/_there are, etc. [> 10.17] can be formed with modal auxiliaries in various combinations. Here are some examples:

11.76.1 'There' + modal + 'be'
- There _could be_ no doubt about it
- There _won't be_ an election in June
- There _must be_ a mistake

11.76.2 'There' + modal + 'have been' + complement
- There _can't have been_ any doubt about it.
- There _might have been_ a strike
- There _oughtn't to have been_ any difficulty about it.

11.76.3 'There' + modal + 'be' + complement + verb'-ing'
- There _can't be_ anyone waiting outside
- There _never used to be_ anyone living next door
- There _could be something blocking_ the pipe.

11.76.4 'There' + modal + 'have been' + complement + verb'-ing'
- There _might have been_ someone waiting outside
- There _must have been 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 mistake?
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/ta have been + past participle:
   active: He is/was to cook the food
   passive: The food is to be/was to have been + cooked

4 -ing form [16.41]: being/having been + past participle:
   active: Cooking/Having cooked
   passive: Being/Having been + cooked

12.3 Notes on the form of the passive

1 Formation: regular and irregular past participles
   We form the passive with a form of be and a past participle. The past participle does not necessarily refer to past time. For regular and irregular past participles [Apps 39, 40]. (The past participle is used to form perfect active tenses, e.g. He has left [9.22], as well as all passives). Rules applying to the use of tenses in the active [9.2] apply in the passive. For example, an action in progress now requires the present progressive in: e.g.
   Your steak is being grilled and will be ready in a minute

2 Transitive and intransitive verbs
   The passive occurs only with verbs used transitively, that is, verbs
12 The passive and the causative

that can be followed by an object (> 1.9):

**active:** Someone found this wallet in the street
**passive:** This wallet was found in the street

Many verbs can be used transitively or intransitively.
The door opened (perhaps by itself)
The door was opened (perhaps by someone)

3 Personal and impersonal subjects

The passive can refer to things (a letter was written, etc.) or people:

**active:** The company has sent Smithers to California for a year
**passive:** Smithers has been sent to California for a year.

4 Direct and indirect objects (> 1.9, 1.13)

Verbs like bring and give, which can have two objects, e.g. Tom gave me (indirect) a pen (direct), can have two passive forms:

*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, *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):
Jim was in a fight and his shirt was torn in the struggle
We do not normally use the passive when responding spontaneously:
What's the matter? - I've burnt/cut/hurt, etc. myself.

13 We often use abbreviated passive constructions when expressing:
- wishes: I'd like it (to be) fried/cleaned/repaired, etc.
- preferences: I like it (when it is) fried/boiled etc.

Uses of the passive

12.4 Uses of the passive

12.4.1 Spontaneous and deliberate use of the passive
In fluent English, passives occur naturally and spontaneously, without a conscious change from 'active' to 'passive'. In fact, active equivalents would be hard to produce for sentences like:
The origin of the universe will probably never be explained
Rome was not built in a day
The passive is sometimes deliberately chosen in preference to the active, especially when speakers do not wish to commit themselves to actions, opinions, or statements of fact of which they are not completely certain:
This matter will be dealt with as soon as possible
Thousands of books are published every year and very few of them are noticed Even those that are reviewed in the papers rarely reach large audiences

12.4.2 The passive for focus
We use the passive when we wish to focus on a happening which is more important to us than who or what causes the happening - or
12 The passive and the causative

when there is simply no need to mention the doer. If we say:  
Our roof was damaged in last night’s storm
we are mainly concerned with the roof and what happened to it.  
Similarly:  
My cars been scratched’ 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
Uses of the passive

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 If (+ passive + that-clause) with verbs like agree, allege, arrange,
  assume, believe, consider, decide, declare, discover, expect, fear,
  feel, find, hope, imagine, know, observe, presume, prove, report,
  say, show, suggest, suppose, think, understand
  It is said that there is plenty of oil off our coast
  It is feared that many lives have been lost in the train crash
2 There (+ passive + to be + complement) with a limited selection of
  verbs: e.g. acknowledge, allege, believe consider, fear, feel, know,
  presume, report, say, suppose, think, understand:
  There is said to be plenty of oil off our coast
  There are known to be thousands of different species of beetles
12 The passive and the causative

3 Subject other than it (+ passive + to-infinitive) with a few verbs:
e.g. acknowledge, allege believe, consider declare, know, recognize, report, say, suppose, think, understand
Mandy is said to be some kind of secret agent
Turner was considered to be a genius even in his lifetime
Homeopathic remedies are believed to be very effective
Other verbs beside be are possible in the infinitive:
Jane is said to know all there is to know about chimpanzees
Note how suppose has two different meanings in:
He is supposed to be at work at the moment
This can mean 'People think he is at work' or 'It is his duty to be at work'. There + be also combines with suppose
There is supposed to be a train at 12 37

12.9 Some typical contexts for the passive

12.9.1 Formal notices and announcements
Candidates are required to present themselves fifteen minutes before the examination begins. They are asked to be punctual
Passengers are requested to remain seated until the aircraft comes to a complete stop [compare > 11.23].

12.9.2 Press reports
Often the agent is not known or does not need to be mentioned:
The search for the bank robbers continues. Meanwhile many people have been questioned and the owner of the stolen getaway car has been traced

12.9.3 Headlines, advertisements, notices, etc.
KENNEDY ASSASSINATED TRADE AGREEMENTS BROKEN
PRICES SLASHED ALL GOODS GREATLY REDUCED
PETROL COUPONS ACCEPTED

12.9.4 Scientific writing (to describe 'process')
The mixture is placed in a crucible and is heated to a temperature of 300°C. It is then allowed to cool before it can be analysed

The causative

12.10 Form of the causative

The causative is formed with have + object + past participle: e.g.
Tenses:
present: We have our house decorated every year
We are having our house decorated soon
past: We had our house decorated last year
present perfect: We have just had our house decorated
future: We will have our house decorated next year
We'll be having our house decorated next year

Modals:
'present': We may have our house decorated next year
We may be having our house decorated soon
The causative

12.11 Notes on the form of the causative

1 Formation: regular and irregular past participles
We form the causative with have + noun or pronoun object + the
past participle of a verb, regular or irregular [> Apps 39, 40]:
I've just had my car repaired I'm going to have my hair cut
What about the children? I'm having them collected at 6
Get can be used in place of have, but it has a more limited use and
often conveys a slightly different meaning [> 12.13].
Care must be taken with the word order to avoid confusion:
I had built a house (past perfect)
I had a house built (causative: simple past)

2 Phrasal verbs
A sentence can end in a preposition or adverb particle [> 8.22]:
The fridge isn't working properly I'm having it looked at
There are instances where the past participle can be omitted:
I had a tooth out this morning (for pulled out)

12.12 The causative used for focus

12.12.1 The use of the causative for things
The causative is similar to the passive. We focus on what is done to
something or someone, not on what someone does:
active: I'm servicing my car 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 The passive and the causative

12.12.3 Other related uses of 'have' + object + past participle
In the sense of 'experience'
You should understand by now You've had it explained often enough (= it has been explained to you)
When he got up to speak the minister had eggs thrown at him

In the sense of allow [compare > 10.38]
I refuse to have my house used as a hotel

To describe the present result of past action
We now have the problem solved

12.13 'Get' + object + past participle or infinitive

12.13.1 Causative 'have' and 'get' compared
Though have and get are often used interchangeably in the causative [> 12.11n1], get is more limited They are not interchangeable in e.g.
I had a tooth out this afternoon

Get is stronger than have (and contains a stronger idea of action by the subject) in e.g.
I must get this car serviced soon

In e.g.
I finally got my roof repaired

there is a suggestion of difficulty, which would not be conveyed by had

Get sounds more natural than have in the imperative
Get your hair cut' Get your eyes tested'

In suggestions with Why don't you...? get is much stronger than have
Why don't you have your hair cut? (neutral suggestion)
Why don't you get your hair cut? (almost an order)

12.13.2 'Get' + to-infinitive to mean 'persuade', 'manage to', etc.
Get with an object before a to-infinitive conveys the idea of 'persuade' or 'manage to'
I finally got the car to start by asking everyone to push it

Sometimes we use get + object + past participle to say that we managed to do something ourselves The stress is different from the stress in causative sentences Compare
I got the job done (stress on object = I did it myself)
I got (or had) the job done, (stress on participle someone else did it)

In the first of these examples, got could not be replaced by had and is not causative

12.13.3 Non-causative 'get' and 'have' + object + past participle
Get + object + past participle can be used in a non-causative way for accidents, disasters, etc that happen beyond our control

Don't join in their argument or you might get your nose punched (i.e. that's what might happen to you)

Non-causative have can be used in the same way [> 16.10]
She had her house destroyed in an earthquake
Yes/No questions and negative statements

13.1 Questions/negatives with 'be', 'have' and modals [> 11.5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>questions</th>
<th>(I am late)</th>
<th>am late</th>
<th>Am I late?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(He was going)</td>
<td>He was going</td>
<td>Was he going?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(He has won)</td>
<td>He has won</td>
<td>Has he won?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(She can swim)</td>
<td>She can swim</td>
<td>Can she swim?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(It will rain)</td>
<td>It will rain</td>
<td>Will it rain?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I am ready)</td>
<td>I am not ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(He is late)</td>
<td>He is not late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(We are going)</td>
<td>We are not going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I can see you)</td>
<td>I cannot see you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(It will rain)</td>
<td>It will not rain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>questions</th>
<th>(I You We/They dance well)</th>
<th>dance well?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>I you we they dance well?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(He She It works well)</td>
<td>works well?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does</td>
<td>he she it work well?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I You/He/She/It We/They ran fast)</td>
<td>ran fast?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>full form</th>
<th>short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I You They work)</td>
<td>I do not work (full form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(He She It works)</td>
<td>(He She It) does not work (full form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I You He She It We They went)</td>
<td>I (etc) did not go (full form)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.3 Yes/No questions: what they are and how they are formed

A Yes/No question is one which asks for Yes or No in the answer

Have you ever been to Egypt?  Haven t you ever been there?  Does he like fish?  Doesn t he like fish?

Yes I have No I haven t  Yes I have No I haven t
Yes he does No he doesn t  Yes he does No he doesn t
13 Questions answers negatives

13.3.1 The formation of Yes/No questions with 'be', 'have' and modals

Statements with be [auxiliary or full verb > 10.6-7], have (auxiliary or sometimes full verb when have = 'have got [> 10.27-30]) and modal verbs like can [> 11.5.2] can be turned into Yes/No questions by inversion. That is, the appropriate form of be have or the modal verb goes in front of the subject.

statement He is leaving
inversion He is leaving
question Is he leaving?

13.3.2 The formation of Yes/No questions with 'Do', 'Does', and 'Did'

With all other verbs we form Yes/No questions with Do ? Does ? (simple present) and Did ? (simple past). The form of the verb that follows Do Does or Did (+ subject) is always the bare infinitive (e.g. go play think [> 16.1])

Do goes before I/you/we/they for questions in the simple present

statement I/You/We/They turn left here
Yes/No question Do I/you/we/they turn left here?

Does goes before he/she/it for questions in the simple present

statement He/She/It works well
Yes/No question Does he/she/it work well?

Did is used in all persons to form questions in the simple past

statement I/You/He/She/It/We/They arrived late
Yes/No question Did I/you/he/she/it/We/they arrive late?

13.3.3 General points about Yes/No questions

1. A noun subject is not normally used in front of the auxiliary (Not *James is he leaving?*) unless we are addressing someone.

James are you going into the town? Susan do you like fish?

2. If there are a number of auxiliaries in the same sentence it is always the first one that goes in front of the subject.

statement He could have been delayed
question Could he have been delayed?

3. The whole subject comes after the auxiliary however long it is.

Can everyone in the room hear me?
Does everyone in the room agree?

4. Questions like the following are possible in conversation when we wish to make it quite clear who or what we are referring to.

Has she caught a cold your mother? Is it all right that coffee?
Does he play football your brother?

5. In everyday speech some Yes/No questions can be abbreviated.

Leaving already? (For Are you ?)
Like another cup of tea? (For Would you ?)
Enjoy the party? (For Did you ?)

6. We generally ask Yes/No questions with a rising intonation

Have you finished your supper? Did you phone your mother?

7. Yes/No questions (exaggerated intonation) can be exclamations.

Is he mad? Can she type? Did he annoy me? (no answers expected)
13.4 Negative statements: what they are/how they are formed

A negative statement is the opposite of an affirmative statement. It says or means 'no' and contains a negative word such as not or never. Full negative forms (do not etc.) occur in formal style (written and spoken) and in emphatic speech. Contracted forms (e.g., don't) are normal in conversational style. In written contracted forms, the apostrophe is used where a vowel has been omitted, so for example in the negative it will go between the n and the t, 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)

   - **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.

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**
   - You | re | working too hard
   - You | ve | eaten too much
   - You | may | stop now
   - You | - | work too hard
   - You | - | ate too much yesterday

   - **Questions**

   - **Auxiliary** | **Subject** | **Predicate**
   - Are | you | working too hard?
   - Have | you | eaten too much?
   - May | I | stop now?
   - Do | I | work too hard?
   - Did | I | eat too much yesterday?
13 Questions answers negatives

3 Negative statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>not</th>
<th>predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>working too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>eaten too much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>may</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>go out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>work too hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>eat too much yesterday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yes/No questions and Yes/No short answers

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be[&gt;10 6]</th>
<th>Yes/No questions</th>
<th>affirmative and negative short answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you ready?</td>
<td>Yes I am No I'm not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is he leaving?</td>
<td>Yes he is No he's not/he isn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were you ill?</td>
<td>Yes we were No we weren't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>have[&gt;10 27]</th>
<th>Have you finished?</th>
<th>Yes I have No I haven't</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Has she left?</td>
<td>Yes she has No she hasn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>do[&gt;10 41]</th>
<th>Do you like it?</th>
<th>Yes I do No I don't</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does it work?</td>
<td>Yes it does No it doesn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>did</th>
<th>Did you paint it?</th>
<th>Yes I did No I didn't</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 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]

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

3. Full negative short answers (e.g., No I do not) only occur in emphatic or formal speech in ordinary conversation, contracted forms (e.g., No I don't) are normal.

4. Of course, many other answers are possible in response to Yes/No questions, and sometimes Yes and No can be omitted.
   - Did you watch the news on TV last night?
   - Yes but not all of it No I never watch TV
   - I watched some of it I watched a cartoon instead
   - Of course I can't remember I think so Not really

Other examples of expressions used in place of Yes No are certainly naturally I think so I expect so perhaps maybe I don't think so of course not at all
Alternative negative forms

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's raining</td>
<td>Yes it is</td>
<td>No it isn't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It isn't raining</td>
<td>No it isn't</td>
<td>Yes it is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- for expressing confirmation in response to statements

*It was a very good performance* - Yes it was
*It wasn’t a very good performance* - No it wasn’t

- in response to the imperative

*Drive carefully* - (Yes) I will

*Don’t take any risks* - (No) I won’t [compare > 10.5.1]

We answer with will/won’t because the imperative points to the future

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'No' and 'no'-compounds</th>
<th>'Any' and 'any'-compounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>affirmative verb</td>
<td>negative verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| I've got no time        | I haven't got any time   |
| I've seen no one/nobody | I haven't seen any one/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 |

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 no 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
13.14 **Form of negative questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Negative full form</th>
<th>Negative short form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>foe</strong> (&gt; 10.6)</td>
<td>Am I not late?</td>
<td>Aren’t I late?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are they not waiting?</td>
<td>Aren’t they waiting?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Was I not ill?</td>
<td>Wasn’t I ill?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>have</strong> (&gt; 10.27)</td>
<td>Have I not finished?</td>
<td>Haven’t I finished?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has she not left?</td>
<td>Hasn’t she left?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>do</strong> (&gt; 10.41)</td>
<td>Do you not like it?</td>
<td>Don’t you like it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does it not work?</td>
<td>Doesn’t it work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>did</strong></td>
<td>Did you not paint it?</td>
<td>Didn’t you paint it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>modals</strong> (&gt; 11.5)</td>
<td>Can I not see him?</td>
<td>Can’t I see him?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.15 **Notes on the form of negative questions**

In negative Yes/No questions there is a difference in word order between the full form and the short form:

**full form**  
Did he not invite you out? (not comes after the subject)

**short form**  
Didn’t he invite you out? (auxiliary + n’t before verb)

Sometimes the subject may be repeated at the end especially in everyday conversation, when we want to make it quite clear who or what we are referring to [compare > 13.3.3n4]

**Aren’t they a nuisance these roadworks?**

13.16 **When we ask negative questions**

We generally ask negative questions:

- when we are expecting, inviting or hoping for the answer Yes
  
  *Don’t you remember that holiday we had in Spain?*
  - *Yes I do* (No I don’t would be possible but unexpected )

- when we wish to express surprise, disbelief or exasperation

  *Can’t you (really) ride a bicycle? ~ No I can’t*

- when we wish to persuade someone

  *Won’t you help me? (= Please help me ) [compare > 11.21]*
  - *Oh all right then /No I’m afraid I can’t/won’t etc*

- when we want to criticize or to express annoyance or sarcasm

  *Can’t you shut the door behind you?* (no answer expected)

- in exclamations (with falling intonation)

  *Didn’t he do well? Isn’t it hot in here?*

  An exclamation can also be used as a reply to a statement

  *He has been very successful - Yes hasn’t he?*

We use the full form in formal questions or when we require special emphasis to express anger, surprise, etc

*Have I not asked you again and again to be here on time?*

and in rhetorical questions not requiring an answer

*Are there not more than enough weapons of destruction on earth?*
13 Questions, answers, negatives

Where the subject is a noun not can come after the auxiliary:
Are not more people dying of cancer these days?

Full form and short form questions can be answered with Yes/No short answers. The auxiliary does not echo the form of the question (i.e. Did you? - Yes, I did /No, I didn’t), but indicates what the facts are:
Didn’t you (or Did you not) go to a party last night?
- Yes, I did (i.e. I did go to a party last night.)
- No, I didn’t (i.e. I didn’t go to a party last night.)
- No, I did not (emphatic denial)

Tag questions and Yes/No short answers

13.17 Form of tag questions: affirmative - negative

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

13.18 Form of tag questions: negative - affirmative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be [&gt; 10.6]:</td>
<td>I'm not late, I</td>
<td>am I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I wasn't late,</td>
<td>was I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have [&gt; 10.27]:</td>
<td>I haven't finished,</td>
<td>have it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He hasn't left,</td>
<td>has he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do [&gt; 10.41]:</td>
<td>You don't like it,</td>
<td>do you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does:</td>
<td>It doesn't work,</td>
<td>does it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>did</td>
<td>You didn't paint it,</td>
<td>did you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modals [&gt; 11.5]:</td>
<td>I can't see him,</td>
<td>can I?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.19 Notes on the form of tag questions

1 A tag question is a short question (e.g. have you?/haven’t you?) that follows a statement. Auxiliaries (be have, can, may, etc.) used in the statement are repeated at the end followed by the subject (always a pronoun):
John was annoyed, wasn’t he? (affirmative - negative)
He wasn’t annoyed, was he? (negative - affirmative)
Tag questions and Yes/No short answers

2 With all other verbs, tag questions are formed with do/don't and does/doesn't (simple present) and did/didn't (simple past):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(affirmative - negative)</th>
<th>(negative - affirmative)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>You like fish, don't you?</strong></td>
<td><strong>You don't like fish, do you?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>He likes fish, doesn't he?</strong></td>
<td><strong>He doesn't like fish, does he?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>She ate it all, didn't she?</strong></td>
<td><strong>She didn't eat it all, did she?</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This also applies to have and do as full verbs:

| **You have tea at 4, don't you?** | **You don't have tea at 4, do you?** |
| **He does his job, doesn't he?** | **He doesn't do his job, does he?** |

3 The negative tag at the end can be unabbreviated in formal style or for special emphasis, though this form is not very usual:

**Julia runs five miles a day to keep fit, does she not?**

4 Tag questions are also possible with there.

**There'll be a rail strike tomorrow, won't there?**

5 Affirmative tags can follow other statements that are negative in meaning [> 13.8]:

**You never/seldom work on Sundays, do you?**

6 Tags can be used after indefinite pronouns [> 4.40]:

**Nobody's been told, have they?**

**Everyone's ready to leave now, aren't they?**

7 Note that this and that are replaced by it [> 4.36]:

**This/That (suit) is expensive, isn't it?**

13.20 Form of tag questions: affirmative - affirmative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>toe [&gt; 10.6]</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm rude.</td>
<td>am I?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He's leaving.</td>
<td>is he?</td>
<td>was I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was impatient,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| have [> 10.27]. | I've finished, | have I? |
|                 | She's left,    | has she? |

| do [> 10.41]. | You like it,   | do you?  |
|               | It works,      | does it? |

| did.          | You painted it,| did you? |

| modals [> 11.5]. | I can see him,| can 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 is 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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be/have:</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He's resigning</td>
<td>He isn't resigning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I'm not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is</td>
<td>He isn't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He is he?</td>
<td>He isn't, is he?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>do/does/did</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I work all night</td>
<td>I don't work all night</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you? You do?</td>
<td>Don't you? You don't?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You do, don't you?</td>
<td>You don't do you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>modals:</th>
<th>affirmative</th>
<th>negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can wait till tomorrow</td>
<td>I can't wait till tomorrow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you? You can?</td>
<td>Can't you? You can't?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You can't, can you?</td>
<td>You can, can you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**13.25 Notes on the form of echo tags**

1. An echo tag is a response, in tag form, to an affirmative or negative statement by which we may or may not request further information depending on the intonation we use.

   He has resigned
   Has he? etc.
   He hasn't resigned
   - Hasn't he? etc.

2. Where there is no auxiliary (i.e. in the affirmative), do does or did must be used:

   She works all night
   Does she?
   She doesn't work all night
   Doesn't she?
13 Questions, answers, negatives

3 Echo tags can be formed with there:

There'll be a strike soon.  There won't be a strike tomorrow
Will there?  - Won't there?

4 Negative - negative combinations (He won't, won't he?) may be used to express anger or menace, but are very unusual.

13.26 When we use echo tags

Echo tags are used constantly in everyday conversation to request further information, seek confirmation, to express interest, concern, anger, surprise, disbelief, suspicion, etc., or to show that we are listening.

1 To request more information, express interest, etc., rising tone:

I've just won £500! - Have you?/You have?
- You haven't, have you? (= How interesting! Tell me more!)

2 To confirm what might already be known/guessed, falling tone:

I'm afraid he's made a bad mistake - He has, hasn't he?

3 To express anger, disbelief, suspicion, etc.:

I've got the sack' - You haven't! (falling tone)
Falling tone on the statement, rising on the tag:
You haven't, have you? (= disbelief)
You have, have you? (= anger)

13.27 Reinforcement tags for emphasis

Reinforcement tags are similar to echo tags: they emphasize the speaker's point of view. They are usually affirmative - affirmative and are typical of colloquial English:

You're in trouble, you are
Gilbert annoyed me, he did
Jim's lied to me, he has
You're making a fool of yourself, you are

Tags can also be added to abbreviated statements:

Likes her comfort, she does
He likes his beer, does Fred/Fred does

A noun or noun phrase can serve as a tag in: e.g.

They're all the same men
Very nice, these cakes

Additions and responses

13.28 Form of additions and responses

These additions, etc. work with be, have, do and some modals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel addition</th>
<th>contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>and I can, too</td>
<td>but I can't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can't speak French</td>
<td>and I can't, either</td>
<td>but I can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>and I do, too</td>
<td>but I don't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn't speak French</td>
<td>and I don't either</td>
<td>but I do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additions and responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel addition</th>
<th>contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>and so can I</td>
<td>but I can’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can’t speak French</td>
<td>and neither/nor can I</td>
<td>but I can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>and so do I</td>
<td>but I don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn’t speak French</td>
<td>and neither/nor do I</td>
<td>but I do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>parallel response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John can speak French</td>
<td>I can, too or So can I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John can’t speak French</td>
<td>I can’t, either or Neither/Nor can I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John speaks French</td>
<td>I do, too or So do I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John doesn’t speak French</td>
<td>I don’t, either or Neither/Nor do I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>confirmation, surprised agreement, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She’s going to help us</td>
<td>So she is!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean retires soon</td>
<td>So she does!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.29 When and how we use additions and responses

13.29.1 Contracted forms with 'so', 'nor', etc.

Additions and responses with so, neither and nor are contracted where possible. These contractions do not normally occur in writing, even in written dialogue, but they are often used in speech: So’m I, Neither m I, Nor’m I. So’s he (So is he/So has he); Nor’s he (Nor is he/Nor has he). So’ve I, Neither’ve I, Nor’ve I So’ll I, Neither’ll I, Nor’ll I If 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, e.g. *Who came? What happened?* [> 13.41]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>question-word</th>
<th>auxiliary</th>
<th>subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who(m)</td>
<td>are/aren’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>have/haven’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>has/hasn’t</td>
<td>she ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why</td>
<td>do/don’t</td>
<td>you ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>does/doesn’t</td>
<td>she ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose</td>
<td>did/didn’t</td>
<td>we ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How</td>
<td>can/can’t</td>
<td>I ?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.41 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 isn’t working
   - **inversion:** He is/Isn’t he working?
   - **Yes/No question:** Is he isn’t he working?

2. In the simple present of verbs other than *be*, question-word questions are formed with *do* or *does*, and in the simple past with *did*:
   - **statement:** We arrive at 8
   - **Yes/No question:** Do we arrive at 8? Don’t we arrive at 8?

3. Question words + auxiliaries are frequently contracted in everyday speech and written dialogue. This is more common when the question-word ends with a vowel sound (*Who’s*) than when it ends with a consonant (*Which*). Those marked * commonly occur in informal writing:
   - **Who**
     - *Who’s ?* = *Who is ?* or *Who has ?*
     - *Who’ve ?* = *Who had ?* or *Who would ?*
     - *Who’ll ?* = *Who will ?*
   - **What**
     - *What’s ?* = *What is ?* or *What has ?*
     - *What’ve ?* = *What have ?*
     - *What’ll ?* = *What will ?*
Question-word questions form and use

```
*When's ? = When is ? or When has ?
When've ? = When have ?

Which
Which'll ? = When will ?
Which've ? = Which have ?

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

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

*Where's ? = Where is ? or Where has?

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

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

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?

To whom should I apply for more information?
In which hall will the recital be given?

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 What9), brief information or clarification
We re off to Chicago - When?
This old lady came up to me and said - Which (old) lady?
This old lady came up to me and said - She said what?

7 Question-word questions can echo statements to express surprise,
anger, concern, etc
I'm afraid I used your comb on the dog - You did what with it?

8 All question-words except Which and Whose can combine with else
to refer to people, things, places, etc
What else have you bought? Where else did you go?

How we use question-words

We ask question-word + inversion-type questions to elicit any element
in a sentence other than the identity of the subject
statement Elaine went to her mothers by bus yesterday because
the trains weren't running
```
13 Questions, answers, negatives

Note the 'target' of each of the following questions None of them produces the answer 'Elaine' The answer may be a single word, a phrase, a clause, or even a whole sentence [but > 13.41-42]

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

Sometimes two or more question-words are used in a question

When 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frank</td>
<td>met</td>
<td>Alice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who(m)-question</td>
<td>Who(m) did Frank meet?</td>
<td>- Alice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am reading</td>
<td>'Kim'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What-question</td>
<td>What are you reading?</td>
<td>'Kim'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What? can also be used in a variety of combinations, such as

13.34.1 'What book/books…?' 'What boy/boys…?' [compare > 13.36.1 ]

What + noun asks about things (singular or plural) or substances

What book/books did you buy? What soap do you use?

What + noun can sometimes ask about the identity of people, male or female, singular or plural

What book/books did you buy? What soap do you use?

but this is less common, since we generally ask about people with

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 eg
- people or things, appearance or characteristics
  What's your brother like? (= 'to look at' or 'as a person')
  What's your car like? (= 'to look at' or 'as a vehicle/to drive')
- the weather, climate, etc
  What's the weather like today? What's it like today?

13.34.3 'What...?': names, etc.
- people What's he called? (= What's his name?) He's called John
- technical terms, etc What's this called? It's called microchip
- foreign words What's this called in English? It's called chalk
- What + make What make is your car? - It's a Volvo

13.34.4 'What...?': nationality, jobs, etc.
- What nationality are you? - I'm Spanish (= I'm from Spain )
- What does she do (for a living)? - She's an optician
  And what's her husband? (= What does her husband do?)

13.34.5 'What time/date/year?'
These combinations are broadly the equivalent of When? except that they ask for more specific information
  What time/date will he arrive? - At 4 / On June 14th

13.34.6 'What...for?'
This combination asks for a description of the use or purpose of things or substances
  What's this (thing) for? - (It's for) peeling potatoes
  What + clause + for can act as the equivalent of why? The answer often begins with Because or has a to-infinitive
  What did you do that for? (= Why did you do that?)
  Because I was signalling that I'm turning left
- To signal that I'm turning left

13.34.7 'What kind(s)/sort(s) of...? ' [compare > App 7.16-17]
This combination asks for precise information and we expect a description in the answer
  What kind(s)/sort(s) of picture do you like best?
  What kinds/sorts of pictures do you like best?
  What kind of pictures? is often heard in speech

13.34.8 'What colour...?', 'What size...?' 
What colour? and What colours? are used to inquire about colour
  What colour is your new tie? - It's red
What combines with nouns such as size height age length breadth width depth, to inquire about dimension, etc The structure is parallel to How big/high/old/long? etc [> 13.40.2, 6.16]
  What size shoes do you take? - (Size) 41
  What's the height of Everest? What height is Everest?
13 Questions answers negatives

13.35 'When...?' as a question-word
We use When to inquire about time (either precise references or general periods of time) in the present, past or future. The answers are usually adverbs of time or prepositional phrases.

adverb of time  
When is your flight? - Tomorrow morning

prepositional phrase  
When will he arrive? - At 4

13.36 'Which...?' as a question-word

Questions with Which can ask about the object of a sentence.

statement  
subject  
verb  
object  
Which-question  
Which novel are you reading? - 'Kim'

Which + noun can be used in a variety of combinations.

13.36.1 'Which book/books...?'
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. 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 can be used just as easily to ask about the identity of people, male or female, singular or plural.

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...?'[compare > 'When...?']
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’)
Particular question words and their uses

13.37.2 Why don’t/doesn’t...?’ and Why not?’
Why + don 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 Questions, answers, negatives

13.40  'How ...?' as a question-word

13.40.1 'How much...?/How many...?'
How can combine with much to inquire about the quantity of a substance or the volume of a liquid [uncountable nouns > 2.14].

*How much sugar/milk do you want in your tea?*
How much can combine with abstract uncountable nouns as well:

*How much time have we? How much space is there on that shelf?*
How much can also refer to cost:

*How much does this cost? (i.e. How much money?)*
How can combine with many to inquire about number (people and things: i.e. plural countable nouns) [> 5.13]:

*How many people are invited? How many windows are broken?*

13.40.2 'How...?' + adjective or adverb
How will combine with a variety of adjectives, some of which can also function as adverbs, such as: big, deep, far, hard, long, old, sharp wide [> 7.13-14 and compare > 6.16];

*How far is it to Banbury? How far did you drive today?*
How combines more readily with adjectives expressing a higher, rather than a lower, degree: How long/old, etc. rather than How little/short/young. We only use How + lower degree adjectives when we are particularly concerned about smallness, etc.:

*I think he’s too young for the job - How young is he then?*

*We need a short article to fill the paper - How short must it be?*
How + adjectives referring to dimension (e.g. How long?) are similar in meaning to What + nouns (dimension) e.g. *What length? [> 13.34.8]*:

*How long is this pool? (= What length is this pool?)*

13.40.3 'How...?' + adverb
How combines with adverbs to ask about:

- frequency: *How often do you visit your mother?* - Once a week
- degree: *How well do you know him?* - Nor very well
- time: *How quickly can you do it for me?* - In two days

13.40.4 'How...?': manner and process
How questions can ask about manner or process. Some questions need a whole sentence in reply:

*How did you spend your time while you were on holiday?*
Some questions like this can be answered with by + -ing:

*How did you finish the job so soon? - By climbing on to the roof*
How combines with modals in:

- rude responses: *Why ask me? How should I know?*
- argument/reproof: *How can you say a thing like that?*
- exclamations: *How could she do such a thing?*

Adverbs of manner can sometimes answer How? questions:

*How did he speak? - (Rather) well/inaudibly*
It isn't always clear what kind of answer a How? question requires:

*How did she cut Sue’s hair? - Beautifully /Very short /With a fringe /With the kitchen scissors*

13.40.5 'How long...?': time
How long? (with optional for) asks about duration:


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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject-questions with 'Who?'</th>
<th>subject-answer + auxiliary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who's ready?</td>
<td>I am/John is etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who's got my keys?</td>
<td>I have/John has etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who makes the decisions?</td>
<td>I do/John does etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who paid the waiter?</td>
<td>I did/John did etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who can explain this?</td>
<td>I can/John can etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject-questions with 'What?', 'Which?' and 'Whose?'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What made you jump?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one suits me best?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose telephone rang?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cat did</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The red one does</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mine did</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 > 13.3 ins 1.2]:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>subject-answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>statement:</td>
<td>Someone</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject-question.</td>
<td>Who</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>object-answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>statement:</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>the waiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes/No question</td>
<td>Did John</td>
<td>pay</td>
<td>the waiter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who(m)-question.</td>
<td>Who(m) did John</td>
<td>pay</td>
<td>The waiter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Answers to subject-questions often echo the auxiliary used in the question, either in the affirmative or the negative:

*Who can play the piano? ~ I can / I can't*

When the subject question-word is followed by a verb in the simple present or past, then do, does or did may be used in the answer:

*Who wants a lift? ~ 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? even when we are asking for a plural answer:

*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?
- 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 drink?
- 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 Questions, answers, negatives

13.47 When we ask emphatic questions

We ask emphatic questions to express admiration, anger, concern, etc. *Ever* is written as a separate word from question-words. It can be used after all question-words except *Which?* and *Whose?*. It is often heavily stressed in questions:

*Where ever did you pick that up?*

(But note that *ever* also combines with words like *who*, *what*, *when* *how* (not *why*) to form adverbs (*However*), or pronouns (*Bring whoever you like*), or to form conjunctions (*Come whenever you like*).

*Ever* questions can ask for the subject or object of a sentence:

**subject:** *What ever made you so late?*  -  *The traffic (made me late)*

**object:** *What ever did he tell you?*  -  *(He told me) a secret*

*Ever* can sometimes be transposed:

*Why ever did you go there? Why did you ever go there?*

Short responses express surprised reactions:

*i didn’t vote on polling day*  -  *Why ever not?*

*i sent them a donation*  -  *What ever for?*

In everyday speech stronger emphasis in questions can be conveyed by using the expression *on earth* in place of *ever* after the question-word:

*How on earth did you find out my telephone number?*

Even stronger expression is possible if *on earth* is replaced by, e.g. *the blazes, the devil, the dickens, the hell* and by taboo words:

*Who the hell do you think you are anyway?*

*Why* and *Where* can be made more emphatic by simple repetition, often with *oh;*

*Why, (oh) why did you do it? Where, (oh) where has he gone?*
14 Conditional sentences

General information about conditionals

14.1 Conditions: 'if... (then...)'

A condition is something that has to be fulfilled before something else can happen. *If*, normally meaning 'provided that', is sometimes followed by *then*. If *then* is not stated, it is implied: *If X happens (then) Y follows:*

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 rain stops, we'll be able to go for a walk.*

Sometimes they are impossible (they did not or cannot happen):

- *If my horse had won, I would have made a lot of money.*

Conditions are often introduced by *if*, but can be introduced by other words [> 14.21]. They can also be implied [> 14.22]:

- *I wouldn't (or shouldn't) go that way* (i.e. if I were you)

14.2 Types of conditional sentences

Conditional sentences are usually divided into three basic types referred to as Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3. Each has its own variations, but the elements are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type 1: What will you do if you lose your job?</th>
<th>Asking/talking about something that is quite possible:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>if</em> + <em>present</em> + <em>‘will’</em></td>
<td><em>I lose my job, I will go abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type 2: What would you do if you lost your job?</th>
<th>Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences now:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>if</em> + <em>past</em> + <em>‘would’</em></td>
<td><em>I lost my job, I would go abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type 3: What would you have done if you had lost your job?</th>
<th>Asking/talking about imagined situations/consequences then:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>if</em> + <em>past perfect</em> + <em>‘would have’</em></td>
<td><em>I had lost my job, I would have gone abroad</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The abbreviation // can be used instead of *will* in all persons, and *shall* can be used instead of *will* after *if* 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 *if* and *we*.

The conditional can be expressed with other modal verbs [e.g. > 14.19], as well as with *shall will should* and *would*:

- *We could have had a good time* (e.g. if we had had the money)
14 Conditional sentences

14.3 Mixed tense sequences in conditional sentences
Sense and context permitting, any tense sequence is possible:

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

Type 1 conditionals

14.4 Basic form of Type 1 conditionals

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

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 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
4.6 When we use Type 1 conditionals

We use Type 1 conditionals to describe what will or won’t happen if we think a future event is probable:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If the weather clears,</td>
<td>we'll go for a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the weather doesn't clear,</td>
<td>we won't go for a walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The condition to be satisfied is real: the weather may really clear up, and if it does, it will have a real effect. That is why such statements are often called 'open' or 'real' conditionals.

14.7 Type 1, Variation 1: 'If + present + modal'

<p>| 'if'-clause: present tenses | main clause: modal |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>simple present.</td>
<td>can/could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she finishes early,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td>may/might</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she is arriving today,</td>
<td>phone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she has arrived</td>
<td>she.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect progressive</td>
<td>should/ought to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she has been waiting,</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modal must.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If she can’t understand it,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we do not feel 'certain' enough to use will, or if we want to express the idea of e.g. necessity, we can use another modal instead:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>(we are free to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>(we would be able to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>(it's possible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>might</td>
<td>(it's possible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>(it's advisable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ought to</td>
<td>(it's advisable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>(it's necessary)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14.8 Type 1, Variation 2: 'If + should' + e.g. imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause or variation</th>
<th>main clause: e.g. imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>request, suggestion, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you (should) see him,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you see him, please give him my regards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you (should) happen to see him,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you happen to see him,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you</th>
<th>see him</th>
<th>fairly likely: neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If you should</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you happen to</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you should happen to</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you happen to</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you by any chance happen to</td>
<td>see him</td>
<td>unlikely: very tactful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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 to in speech but not contracted to 'd in writing) can be used instead of would after / and we. Would is generally contracted to 'd in all persons in the main clause. Compare shall and will [> 9.36]. If is followed only exceptionally by would [> 14.24.1].

2 An unnecessary extra negative can occur in Type 2 conditionals:
   I wouldn't be surprised if he didn't try to blackmail you
   (i.e. if he tried to blackmail you)
   The not in the If-clause does not make a true negative.

14.12 When we use Type 2 conditionals

Type 2 conditionals talk about imaginary situations in the If-clause and speculate about their imaginary consequences in the main clause. Though past tenses are used, the reference is not to past time. (That is why this use of the past tense after if is often called 'the unreal past'.) By comparison, Type 1 conditionals [> 14.4] talk about things which will possibly happen and consider their real consequences for the future.

Depending on the attitude of the speaker, a Type 2 conditional can be used in place of a Type 1 to describe something that is reasonably possible. So:

If you went by train, you would get there earlier
If you didn't stay up so late every evening, you wouldn't feel so sleepy in the morning

mean the same, but are more 'tentative' than:

If you go by train, you will get there earlier
If you don't stay up so late every evening, you won't feel so sleepy in the morning

However, Type 2 conditionals more often describe what is totally impossible:

If I had longer legs, I'd be able to run faster
14 Conditional sentences

14.13 Type 2, Variation 1: 'If + were/was' + 'would/should'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'if'-clause: 'were/was'</th>
<th>main clause: 'would/should'</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>I/he/she/it</td>
<td>were/was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if you/we/they were ready</td>
<td>we would (or should) go</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'If'-clause: past tense</th>
<th>main clause: modal [&gt; 11.1]</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>he knew the facts,</td>
<td>he could tell us what to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could get the facts,</td>
<td>if he were here,</td>
<td>he could help us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another modal can replace would in Type 2 conditionals, e.g. when we feel the imaginary consequences are less likely, or when we are referring to ability [> 11.14], possibility [> 11.28], etc.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>condition to be satisfied</th>
<th>likely outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if he were here</td>
<td>he could help us (ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he were here</td>
<td>he might help us (possibility)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if he failed,</td>
<td>he ought to/should try again (duty)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
14.15 Type 2, Variation 3: ‘If + were to/was to’ + ‘would’, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>if-clause: ‘were to/was to’</th>
<th>main clause: ‘would/should’, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>condition to be satisfied</td>
<td>likely outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the/she/it were to ask,</td>
<td>I/we would/should, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you/we/they were to ask,</td>
<td>he/she/it you/they would, etc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instead of an ordinary verb in the simple past, we can use were or was + to-infinitive in Type 2 conditional clauses:

If I were to (or was to) ask, would you help me?

Were to is more common than was to after the/she/it and makes a suggestion sound more tentative and polite. Compare:

If I asked him, I’m sure he’d help us

If I were to ask him nicely

Modal 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’)

14.16 Basic form of Type 3 conditionals

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

14.17 Notes on the form of Type 3 conditionals

1. The most commonly used form is:

‘if + past perfect + ‘would have’ [for should (have), > 14.11n1]

If it had rained, we would have stayed at home

Progressive forms are possible in the ‘if’-clause and/or main clause:

If it had been raining this morning we would have stayed at home

If I had not got married, I would still have been living abroad
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
If he had known the facts
If he could have got the facts

main clause: modal [> 11.1]
imagined outcome
he could have told us what to do
might

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
If he had been here yesterday
If he had received a present

imagined outcome
he could have told us (ability)
he should have thanked her (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 Conditional sentences

14.20.4 'If and 'unless' clauses in short answers
Note how if-clauses and un/ess-clauses can occur in short answers:
*Will you help us with all this re-decorating?*
- Yes, *if I can*
- No, *not unless you pay me*

14.21 Conjunctions that can sometimes be used in place of 'if'
Conditionals can also be introduced by the following conjunctions, which do not always have precisely the same meaning as *if*. *as long as*, *assuming (that)*, *even if*, *if only* [*> 11.41-42*], *on (the) condition (that)* *provided/providing (that)*, *so long as* and *unless* [*> 14.20*]; also *suppose (that)* and *supposing (that)*, which normally introduce questions:
*He'll definitely win, even if he falls over*
*They'll lend us their flat on (the) condition (that) we look after it*
*Providing/Provided (that) or So/As long as you clear your desk by this evening, you can have tomorrow off*
*Suppose/Supposing (that) we miss the train what shall we do?*

*What if* and *Say* can be used in the sense of 'Let us suppose':
*What if/Say he gets home before us and can't get in? What will he do then?*
*What if/Say you were to run out of money? What would you do?*

We can abbreviate a condition if we begin a new sentence with *If so* or *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/would follow me, I'll show you the way*
  *Give me a moment if you would* (or, sometimes, will)
- in direct references to willingness/unwillingness:
  *If you will/would agree to pay us compensation we will/would agree not to take the matter any further* (i.e. if you're willing)
  *If you won't stop smoking, you can only expect to have a bad cough i.e. if you are unwilling to stop smoking - Not "wouldn't")

14.24.2 'If + will' in Type 1 conditionals

We do not normally use a pure future will after if. However, though rare, it is just possible when we wish to emphasize the idea of 'not now, but later'. Compare:

If it suits you, I'll change the date of our meeting (Type 1)
If it will suit you, (i.e. not now, but later) I'll change the date of our meeting
15 Direct and indirect speech

Direct speech

15.1 When do we use direct speech?
We use direct speech whenever we speak. We use the term **direct speech** to describe the way we represent the spoken word in writing.

15.2 Form of direct speech in writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken statement</th>
<th>Direct statement in writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm waiting</td>
<td>'I'm waiting,' John said</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken question</th>
<th>Direct question in writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'When did you arrive, John?'</td>
<td>'When did you arrive, John?' Mary asked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.3 Notes on the use of punctuation marks

1. Quotation marks (or 'inverted commas') go round what is actually spoken and enclose other punctuation marks such as commas (,), full stops (.), question marks (?) and exclamation marks (!). They may be single ("...") or double ("...") and are placed high above the base-line at the beginning and end of each quotation:
   - 'Is that you, Jane?' Bob asked
   - "Is that you, Jane?" Bob asked

2. What is said, plus reporting verb and its subject, is considered as a whole unit. When the subject + reporting verb comes at the beginning of a sentence, the reporting verb is always followed by a comma (sometimes by a colon (:)) 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 ii, whether and can serve as reporting verbs [> App 45]. A number of these do not strictly 'report speech' (actual spoken words), but thoughts, feelings, etc. That is why 'indirect speech', as a term, is preferable to 'reported speech’. Similarly, a number of adjectives, such as certain, sure [> App 44] can be followed by that if, whether (whether) to and question-words.

15.7 The verbs 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'
15.7.1 Basic uses of 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'
These three verbs do not follow the same pattern. The most important thing to remember is that fe/must be followed by a personal indirect object (tell somebody). Say can be followed by an optional to+ the person who is addressed:

You haven't got much time, he told me/he said (to me)
"Say", "tell" and "ask"

Ask can be followed by an indirect object [> 15.17, 16.20]:

'Are you comfortable?' **he asked (me)**

**He asked (me) if I was comfortable**

In reported requests [> 15.24, 16.20] the inclusion or not of an object affects the meaning:

*She asked to go*  (actual spoken words: 'May I go?')

*She asked me to go*  (actual spoken words: 'Will you go?')

The following references give further details about say, tell and ask:

- say in direct speech in writing [> 15.2-3, 15.8].
- say + that-clause, indirect statement [> 15.9-16].
- say if/whether + indirect Yes/No question [> 15.18n3,8].
- say + indirect Wh-question [> 15.20n3],
- say + to-infinitive [> 15.24.1].
- tell somebody in direct speech in writing [> 15.2-3, 15.8].
- tell somebody + that-clause, indirect statement [> 15.9-16].
- tell somebody + if/whether + indirect Yes/No question [> 15.18n8].
- tell somebody + indirect Wh-question [> 15.20n3],
- tell somebody + to-infinitive [> 15.23-24, 16.21, 16.25].
- ask (somebody) in direct speech in writing [> 15.2-3, 15.8],
- ask (somebody) + if/whether + indirect Yes/No question [> 15.9, 15.17-18].
- ask (somebody) + Wh-question [> 15.20, 15.18].
- 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?' 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 would help me

actual spoken statements with the past or conditional form of modals
I could see you tomorrow I would complain if I were you
indirect statements: the past or conditional modal does not change
He said (that) he could see me the next day
She said (that) she would complain if she were me
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.13 Notes on the form of indirect speech with tense changes

1 'Rules' in indirect speech
Tense changes often occur in indirect speech because there is an interval between the original spoken words and the time when they are reported, but these changes are not always obligatory [> 15.10, 15.14-16]. It is the changing viewpoint of the reporting speaker or writer that decides the choice of appropriate forms, not complicated rules. The notes that follow are not 'rules', but are based on observation of what often happens in practice.

2 Linking phrases
Indirect speech rarely occurs in sets of unrelated sentences, but is found in continuous paragraphs of reported language. Continuity is achieved by the use of linking phrases, such as: she went on to say, he continued, he added that, and by varying the reporting verbs: he observed, noted, remarked, etc. Such forms remind the reader that the language is reported. Many features present in direct speech, such as Yes/No short answers and speech 'fillers', such as Well, etc., disappear in indirect speech.

3 Tense changes [> 9.5]
In indirect speech we do not usually repeat the speaker's exact words. Reporting usually takes place in the past, so the reporting verb is often in the past. As a result, the tenses of the reported clause are usually 'moved back'. This 'moving back' of tenses is called backshift. A useful general rule is 'present becomes past and past becomes past perfect'. 'Past' modals and the past perfect are unchanged when reported, since no further backshift is possible [> 15.12]. We must normally use the past perfect to report a statement whose verb was in the present perfect:

7 have lived in the south for years.' Mrs Duncan said
Mrs Duncan told me (that) she had lived in the south for years
If the verb in the original statement was in the simple past, we do not usually need to change it to the past perfect (unless we wish to emphasize that one event happened before another):

I lived in Scotland in the 1970's Mrs Duncan said
Mrs Duncan said that she (had) lived in Scotland in the 1970's

4 Pronoun changes
Pronouns change (or not) depending on the view of the reporter:
'I'll send you a card Sue.' (actual words spoken by Ann)
Ann told Sue she would 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 he/she me you him her my his/her we they us them our their mine his hers ours theirs myself himself herself

5 Time and place changes
It is often necessary to make time and place changes in relation to
Indirect statements with tense changes

tense changes. For example, on Tuesday, A says:
‘A card came yesterday saying Sue will arrive tomorrow’
B, reporting this on Wednesday, might say:
A told me a card had come the day before yesterday/on Monday saying Sue would arrive today/on Wednesday
But time and place changes are not always necessary. If, for example, it was still Tuesday when the statement above was reported, B might say:
A told me a card came (or had come) yesterday saying Sue will (or would) arrive tomorrow
Examples of possible time and place changes:
time: now immediately/then
two days ago two days before/earlier
today that day
tonight that night
tomorrow the next/the following day
yesterday the previous day/the day before
last night the night before
place: here there when what is referred to is clear
this place that place
these places those places
verbs: come/bring go/take

6 Modal verbs
‘Modal present’ becomes ‘modal past’ [> 11.8.3]:
e.g. can becomes could; will becomes would; may becomes might:
He said he could/would/might see me later
shall
When shall is used with future reference for prediction, speculation, etc. it becomes would in indirect speech:
I shall tell him exactly what I think, she said
She said she would tell him exactly what she thought
When shall is used in offers, suggestions or requests for advice it becomes should (even after the second and third persons):
Shall I speak to him in person?’ she asked
She asked whether she should speak to him in person
should/shouldn’t
When should or shouldn’t refer to desirability, obligation or likelihood, they remain unchanged in indirect speech:
‘You should see a specialist,’ he told me
He told me I should see a specialist.
Should used in place of would, e.g. in conditional sentences [> 14.2. 14.11n1], becomes would [compare shall above]:
‘If I were you, I should get another lawyer’
She said (that) if she were me, she would get another lawyer
would, could, might, ought to, needn’t have, used to
These (including negative forms where applicable) remain unchanged in indirect speech in all combinations:
15 Direct and indirect speech

'I would like an appointment tomorrow, I said to my dentist
I told my dentist (that) I would like an appointment the next day
'You ought to slow down a bit, the doctor told him
The doctor told him (that) he ought to slow down a bit

'perfect' and 'past' modal forms [> 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'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
be: 'Are you ready?'
have: 'Have you finished'
do: 'Do you play chess'
modals: 'Can I have it'

Indirect questions
He asked (me) if/whether I am/was ready
He asked (me) if/whether I have/had finished
He asked (me) if/whether I play/played chess
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?' He asked me if/whether
  - 'You don't play chess, do you?' I played chess
  - 'You play chess, don't you?' etc.

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')
Indirect question-word questions

8 Indirect Yes/No questions with reporting verbs other than ask

Many reporting verbs can be used other than ask, want to know, etc. in combinations with whether and (sometimes) if [App 45]:

He didn’t tell me if/whether he would be arriving early or late
She didn’t say if/whether she was coming to lunch
I don’t know if/whether I’ve passed my exam yet
I wonder if/whether they’ve heard the news yet

Indirect question-word questions

15.19 Form of indirect question-word questions

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual spoken questions</th>
<th>Indirect questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>‘Where are you going?’ He asked (me) where I was going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>‘Why haven’t you finished? He wanted to know why I (haven’t)/hadn’t finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>‘What do you think of it?’ He wanted to know what I (think/thought of it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modals ‘When must I be there?’</td>
<td>He asked (me) when I must be/had to be there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

15.22 Note on the form of indirect subject-questions

Tense changes and changes in modals occur in the usual way, but the word order of the direct question is retained in the indirect question. Reporting verbs other than *ask* can be used to introduce indirect subject questions. Please *tell me who delivered* this package. I *want to know which piece fits* in this puzzle.

Uses of the to-infinitive in indirect speech

15.23 Form of the to-infinitive in indirect speech

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

15.24 Form and use of the infinitive in indirect speech

15.24.1 The imperative: affirmative and negative

Imperatives (usually orders, requests, advice, etc.) are reported with appropriate verbs followed by a to-infinitive. Commonly-used verbs (always followed by a personal object in indirect speech) are: *advise 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 |
*remind:* She reminded me to switch off all the lights | *she said* |

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:

\( \text{i have been told/was told to wait for him} \)

Note the informal use of say in: \( \text{He said (not) to wait for him} \)

Ask, when a speaker is asking permission or making a request, may be followed by the infinitive:

\( \text{i asked to speak to the manager} \)

and by the passive infinitive [\( \text{> 12.2} \)]:

\( \text{He asked to be kept informed about developments} \)

\( \text{i asked for two items to be added to the list} \)

15.24.2 The infinitive after question-words [compare \( \text{> 16.24} \)]

Direct suggestions and requests for advice and information with \( \text{Shall I? Should I?, Do you want me to? etc. (expecting Yes/No answers)} \) can be reported in two ways:

| direct request: | \( \text{Shall/Should I phone her?} \) |
| indirect request: | \( \text{He wanted to know if/whether he should phone her} \) |
| whether + infinitive: | \( \text{He wanted to know whether to phone her} \) |

Requests, etc. with question-words can also be reported in two ways:

| direct request: | \( \text{How shall I prepare the sauce?} \) |
| indirect request: | \( \text{He wanted to know how he should prepare it} \) |
| question-word + infinitive: | \( \text{He wanted to know how to prepare it} \) |

Other examples:

\( \text{when she should be/to be at the station} \)
\( \text{where she should park/to park} \)
\( \text{She wanted to know which she should choose/to choose} \)
\( \text{who(m) she should ask/to ask} \)
\( \text{what she should do/to do} \)

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:

\( \text{You really must let me pay the bill,} \) Andrew said
\( \text{Andrew insisted on paying the bill.} \)
\( \text{Why don't we go sailing?} \) Diana said
\( \text{Diana suggested they should go sailing.} \)
\( \text{You've just won a lottery!} \) Tom said
\( \text{Really?} \) Jennifer exclaimed
\( \text{Jennifer was amazed when Tom told her that she had won a lottery.} \)
15 Direct and indirect speech

15.26 Oral reporting
Oral reporting may be concerned with other people's conversations, gossip, instructions, conveying the gist of lectures and so on. In oral reporting, direct speech is often quoted and there may be sudden changes in the sequence of tenses. A few examples are:

15.26.1 Reporting everyday conversation
'Mrs Come asked me how we all are and I told her all our news Her eldest son has just got his exam results and has done very well, apparently "What do you expect?" I said to her, "he's always been a bright lad" "Oh, he is that," she says, "but he's really lazy" I told her I didn't think he was lazy'

15.26.2 Passing on instructions
'The boss wants you to go to the airport to pick up the company's guests She says you're to take the company car. Oh - and she asked me to tell you to phone if there are any flight delays '

15.26.3 Giving the gist of e.g. a lecture
'Or Barnaby gave us a very interesting talk on boat-building in ancient times. He explained how boat-building methods changed over a period of about 1500 years He also had some slides showing us how the ancient world lost most of its forests because so much wood was needed for boats. He began his talk by telling us about Ancient Greece at around 300 BC '

15.27 Written reporting
Written reporting includes newspaper reports, records of conferences, minutes of meetings, reports of debates and so on. Consistency in such matters as the sequence of tenses is carefully maintained, particularly in formal reporting. A few examples are:

15.27.1 Company reports
The Chairman opened his address to the shareholders by pointing out that pre-tax profits had fallen for the second year running, which was disappointing Market conditions were difficult for almost every company and the combination of high interest rates and the strong dollar had affected profit margins

15.27.2 Parliamentary reports
Mr Harry Greene said that airlines were losing money because of their cheap air fares policies We could only expect airlines to fail unless they were supported by massive government grants

15.27.3 'Free indirect speech'
The following is an example of fiction in which indirect speech is freely woven into the narrative to reveal a person's thoughts, motives, etc.: Opening his case he found a handkerchief inside it It was certainly not his for the initials M D B were stitched into the corner So that was their little game, he thought Someone had opened his case to plant this evidence But how did they open the case? How did they even know the case was his, he wondered, as he slowly unfolded the dead man's handkerchief
16 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

The bare infinitive

16.1 The infinitive and the '-ing' form

The base form of a verb (go) often functions as an infinitive. It is called the **bare infinitive** because it is used without to. We must distinguish it from the **to-infinitive**, where to is always used in front of the base form of the verb (to go). The -ing form of a verb (going) sometimes functions as a gerund (i.e. a kind of noun) and sometimes as a present participle [> 16.38]. Many verbs and adjectives, and some nouns, can be followed by one or other of these forms, and in some cases by more than one form. From the student's point of view, the problem is knowing which form is appropriate. This may be because only one form is grammatically correct, e.g. enjoy doing[> 16.42], fail to do [> 16.19]. Or it may be because only one form suits what we want to say, e.g. remember doing or remember to do[> 16.59].

16.2 Forms of the infinitive [compare -ing > 1.56, 16.41]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) ask</td>
<td>(to) be asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present progressive infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) be asking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect or past infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) have asked</td>
<td>(to) have been asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect/past progressive infinitive:</td>
<td>(to) have been asking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16.3 The bare infinitive after modal verbs

The main use of the bare infinitive is after modal verbs. All the modal verbs [except ought, > 11.6 in.2] must be followed by a bare infinitive (except in short responses like Yes, I can):

- I can/could/may/might/will/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 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's?
Other infinitive forms can combine in this way:
  - I'd like to be flying over the Alps and (to be) looking down and be looking down at the mountains
  - I'd like to have been offered the job and (to have been) given and been given the opportunity to prove myself
- Where the second infinitive follows on closely from the first, it is normal to omit to before the second infinitive:
  - I'd like to lie down and go to sleep  (Not *to go*)

The bare infinitive or the '-ing' form?

16.9 The bare infinitive or '-ing' after verbs of perception
16.9.1 Verbs without a noun or pronoun object + '-ing'
The verbs hear smell and watch can be followed by the -ing form without a noun/pronoun object when an action is perceived in a
The infinitive and the '-ing' form

16.9.2 Verb + noun or pronoun object + bare infinitive or '-ing'

These verbs can be followed by a noun or pronoun object + bare infinitive or the -ing form: feel, hear, listen to, look at, notice observe perceive see, smell, watch [compare > 16.45.1, App 38.4].

The bare infinitive generally refers to the complete action:

/ watched a pavement-artist draw a portrait in crayons
(i.e. probably from start to finish)

The -ing form generally refers to an action in progress:

/ 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:

/ heard someone unlock the door/unlocking the door.

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

/ heard him cough, (once) / can hear him coughing (repeatedly)

For a series of actions, we prefer the bare infinitive:

The crowd watched the fireman climb the ladder, break a window on the first floor, and enter the building

The passive -ing form [> 16.41] (but not the passive infinitive) can follow a verb of perception:

/ saw him being taken away by the police

The past participle can sometimes follow the object directly:

/ saw him taken away by the police

16.9.3 The passive of verbs of perception + '-ing' or to-infinitive

The verbs hear observe, perceive and see are often used in the passive followed by -ing or by a to-infinitive:

They were seen waiting on the corner (action in progress)

They were seen to climb through the window (action completed)

16.10 Have’ + bare infinitive or the '-ing' form

16.10.1 'Have’ + personal object + bare infinitive

We use this construction to show that one person is causing another to do something [compare the causative, > 12.10]:

/ 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

Bringing 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 The infinitive and the ‘-ing’ form

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)
If wasn’t a surprise to hear from him (I heard from him)
It was a surprise not to hear from him. (I didn’t hear from him)
Negatives are sometimes possible in both parts of a sentence:
/ can’t promise not to be late. My car is very unreliable
but this would generally be expressed more simply: e.g.
/ can’t promise to be on time

16.15 The split infinitive
‘Splitting an infinitive’ (i.e. putting an adverb or please between to and the verb) is usually considered unacceptable and should generally be avoided. For instance clearly could not come between to and read in the following:
/ want you to read that last sentence clearly
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, expect, hate, help, intend, like, love, need, prefer, promise, want, wish [App46.1]. (Trouble can also be used in this way, normally in questions and negatives.) Note how the meaning changes:

/ want to speak to the manager (= I will speak)  
/ 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 / promise to and / 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]:

/ like to keep everything tidy (refers to my actions)  
/ like you to keep everything tidy (refers to your actions)

These verbs can also be used after *would* to make specific offers, requests etc. [> 11.35, 11.37-39 and compare > 16.12.3]:

I'd like to find you a job (refers to my possible future action)  
I'd like you to find him a job (your possible future action)

16.21 **Verb + compulsory noun/pronoun + fo-infinitive**

Some verbs must normally always be followed by a noun or pronoun when used with a to-infinitive: advise, allow, assist, bribe, cause, caution, challenge, charge, command, compel, condemn, dare (= challenge), defy, direct, drive (= compel), enable, encourage, entitle, forbid, force, impel, incite, induce, instruct, invite, oblige, order, permit, persuade, press (= urge), recommend, remind, request, teach, tell, tempt, urge and warn. All these verbs can be used in the passive as well as the active:

/ 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:

/ 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, 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 to or 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

16.26 Adjective + to-infinitive

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 / 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)hkey to and sure to:

- He is bound/certain/likely/sure to sign the contract
- It can be used as a preparatory or empty subject [> 1.23.1, 4.12-13]:
- It's certain/likely/unlikely that he'll sign the contract.
- It's bound/sure to rain on our wedding day

16.29 Pattern 3: He is easy to please.
The infinitive in this pattern usually refers to things done to someone or something. The subject of the sentence is also the object of the infinitive; the it structure is very common here:

- He is easy to please /it is easy to please him
- Adjectives like the following fit into this pattern: agreeable, amusing, boring, difficult, easy, hard, impossible, nice
- She is amusing to be with Polyester is easy to iron
A negative infinitive (not to) is rare after he/she, but possible after it:

\[ \text{It is impossible not to offend Mrs Rumbold} \]

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:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Have a drive in my new car} & \quad \text{It (= the car) is easy to start} \\
\text{It}\,\text{[preparatory subject]} & \quad \text{is easy to start it (the car)}
\end{align*} \]

For + noun/pronoun can occur after many of these adjectives:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{It won't be easy for Tom to find a new job} & \\
\text{It is hard speaking in public} & \quad \text{Anumber of adjectives used in this pattern (e.g. advisable, important, necessary, vital) refer to advice, necessity, duties, and can also be followed by that, should [> 11.75.3]}:
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{It's important to reply to her letter} & \\
\text{It's important that we (should) reply to her letter} & \quad \text{The -ing form can occur after some of these adjectives [> 16.47]}:
\end{align*} \]

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):

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{She's always the first (guest) to arrive} & \\
\text{Is a solicitor the best person to advise me about buying a house?} & \quad \text{The only must always be followed by a noun or one(s)}:
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{You're the only person (the only one) to complain} & \quad \text{Note the optional for-phrase, and note that we never put an object after the infinitive in sentences like this (Not *This bread is too stale for me to eat it*).}
\end{align*} \]

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:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{He isn’t strong} & \quad \text{He can’t lift it} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{He is too weak to lift it}
\end{align*} \]

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:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{He’s too heavy I can’t lift him} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{He is too heavy (for me) to lift.}
\end{align*} \]

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:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{I’m too tired to stay up longer} & \quad \text{and -ing adjectives have an impersonal subject + too:}
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{The race was almost too exciting to watch} & \quad \text{Generally, -ed adjectives [> 6.15] have a personal subject + too:}
\end{align*} \]
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 is 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
The ‘-ing’ form

gerunds or as participles. The -ing form is usually called a gerund when it behaves like a noun and a participle when it behaves like an adjective. However, there is some overlap between these two main functions and it is often difficult (and unnecessary!) to make formal distinctions. The term the -ing form is used here to cover gerund and participle constructions and the term ‘participle’ is used in The sentence’ [> 1.56] to refer to part of a verb. In broad terms, the gerund can take the place of a noun, though it can, like a verb, have an object:

I like coffee John likes flying
swimming flying planes

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

This is a wide stream running

16.39 The ‘-ing’ form: gerund or present participle?

.16.39.1 The ‘-ing’ form as gerund

As a gerund, the -ing form often functions in general statements as an uncountable noun with no article. It can also be replaced by it:

Dancing is fun I love it [> 3.26.2]

Sometimes the -ing form functions as a countable noun which can be replaced by it (singular) or they (plural) [> 2.16.5]:

Dickens often gave readings of his work They were very popular
We can use a gerund after determiners like a, the this, a lot of and some, or after possessives and adjectives:

Brendel has made a new recording The recording was made live
The sinking of the Titanic has never been forgotten
I enjoy a little light reading when I go away on holiday
What’s all this arguing?
I did some/a lot of/a little shopping this morning
I appreciate your helping me Your quick thinking saved us all

The gerund also has some of the characteristics of a verb: e.g.

- it can be followed by an adverb or adverbial phrase:
  Walking quickly/Walking in step is difficult
- and it can take an object:
  Washing the car seems to be your main hobby
- 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 The infinitive and the ‘-ing’ form

16.40 Some common uses of the ‘-ing’ form (gerund)

The -ing form can be used in the active or passive in a large number of different ways. Here are some examples (note the formation of the negative with not + -ing):

16.40.1 As a noun complement to the verb ‘be’
My favourite pastime is bird-watching
As far as he's concerned, it’s not doing something wrong that matters, but not being caught doing something wrong

16.40.2 As the subject of a verb
Before be:
Jogging isn't much fun. Being lost can be a terrifying experience
Not being tall is not a serious disadvantage in life.
Before verbs other than be:
Rowing keeps you fit Not being punctual makes him unreliable

16.40.3 As the object of a verb
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 is used for cutting hedges
Compare a parallel use of the to-infinitive in: e.g. What's that for? - It’s to make holes in metal (with)

16.40.10 The ‘-ing’ form after adjectives and possessives
Slow cooking makes tough meat tender
Your denying everything will get you nowhere
Jenny's not having been trained as a dancer is her one regret

16.40.11 The ‘-ing’ form after ‘What about...?’, ‘How about...?’ [> 13.40.6]
What about/How about sending them a postcard?
Verb + '-ing' form

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]:

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal (accusative)</th>
<th>Formal (possessive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can’t imagine my mother approving</td>
<td>my mother’s approving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please excuse him not writing to you</td>
<td>his not writing to you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fancy you having noticed</td>
<td>your having noticed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
16 The infinitive and the ing form

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 conning 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 object to noise I object to smoking In the following expressions to is a preposition so we may use the -ing form after it accustomed (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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acceptable examples</th>
<th>comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a / love/to watch TV.</td>
<td>Same (general) meaning,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / love/to watching TV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a / hate to disturb you</td>
<td>(but I am just about to do so),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / hate disturbing you</td>
<td>(= I'm disturbing you and I'm sorry) or general use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a / dread to think what has happened to him</td>
<td>(so I dare not try to). <em>I dread thinking</em> is unacceptable,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / dread going to the dentist</td>
<td>(= whenever I go, I'm terrified).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a / prefer to wait here</td>
<td>(so I'll wait here if you don't mind),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / prefer waiting here</td>
<td>(I'm waiting here and I prefer doing that).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c / prefer swimming to cycling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a Would you like to eat out?</td>
<td>Not the gerund here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b I'd like to. I'd love to.</td>
<td>Or. I'd like it. I'd love it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c I'd love sailing if I could afford it</td>
<td>I'd love to sail if I could afford it Also acceptable,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d I'd hate to disturb him if he's busy</td>
<td>I'd hate disturbing him if...’ is doubtful,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e You'd hate to live on a desert island</td>
<td>You'd hate living on a desert island is also acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a / wouldn't like you to think</td>
<td>I wouldn't like you thinking...’ is doubtful,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b / I'd forgotten you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c / like him/his playing the guitar</td>
<td>I like him to play the guitar is also acceptable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 16.59 Verb + to- or '-ing': different meanings

The to-infinitive and -ing never mean the same when used after these verbs: *remember, forget, regret, try, stop and go on*:

*Remember* + fo-infinitive refers to an action in the future (or to a ‘future’ action as seen from the past):

*Remember to post the letters* (= don’t forget to)

*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' form

Forget + to-infinitive refers to future actions (or to a 'future' action as seen from the past):

- Don't forget to ask Tom I forgot to ask Tom

Forget + -ing refers to the past:

- Have you forgotten meeting/having met her? (i.e. you met her)

Regret + to-infinitive refers to future or present:

- We regret to inform you that your account is overdrawn

Regret + -ing refers to present or past:

- I regretted leaving the firm after twenty years
- (I regretted having left would refer to the past only.)

Try + to-infinitive means 'make an effort':

- You really must try to overcome your shyness

Try + -ing means 'experiment':

- Try holding your breath to stop sneezing

Stop + to-infinitive refers to purpose [> 16.12.1]:

- On the way to the station I stopped to buy a paper

Stop + -ing: -ing is the object of the verb, [compare > 16.42, 16.45.1].

- When he told us the story, we just couldn't stop laughing

Go on + to-infinitive refers to doing something different:

- After approving the agenda we went on to discuss finance

Go on + -ing means 'continue without interruption' [> App 32.9.1]:

- We went on talking till after midnight

16.60 Adjective/noun + to-or + preposition [compare > 8.20]

Some adjectives and nouns can be followed by a to-infinitive or by a preposition [> App 27].

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

Often there is little difference in meaning between the to- and -ing structures:

- I'm sorry (not) to mention it (more likely)
- I'm sorry for (not) mentioning it (less likely)
- I couldn't resist the opportunity to greet such a great actor
- I couldn't resist the opportunity of greeting such a great actor.

Sometimes there are differences in meaning between the to- and -ing structures:

- I'm interested to hear your opinion (it interests me)
- I'm interested in emigrating to Canada (I might do this)
- I'm sorry to interrupt (= I'm sorry, but I'm going to interrupt)
- I'm sorry for interrupting (= I'm sorry for what has happened)
Appendix

Appendix 1 > 1.9.1,10,112,4,16.2]
Transitive and intransitive verbs

1.1 Verbs which are always transitive:
afford, allow, blame, bring, contain, deny, enjoy, examine, excuse, fetch, fit, 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 (lay), lie (told), 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, many, 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.

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.

Appendix 3 > 2.3]
3.1 Nouns/verbs distinguished by stress: e.g.
abstract/abstract, broadcast/bridal, print/print, conduct/conduct, permit/permit, contest/contest, test/test, produce/produce, produce/produce, rebel/rebel, select/select, suspect/suspect, surprise/surprise, put/pout, record/record, cord/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, joking, 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, parliam, patience, permission, poetry, the post (= letters), produce, progress, rubbish, safety, scaffolding, scenery, seaside, sewing, shopping, smoking, soap, spaghetti, spelling, steam, strength, stuff, stupidity, sunshine, thunder, timber, toast (= bread), traffic, transport, travel, underwear, violence, vocabulary, wealth, weather, work, writing

Appendix 5 > 2.18,2.2,32]
5.1 Partitives: specific items or amounts:
a bar of chocolate, a cake of soap, a block of cement, a book of matches, a cake of soap, a cloud of dust, a flash of lightning, a head of hair, an item of news, a jet of water, a loaf of bread, a peal of thunder, a pile of earth, a portion of food, a roll of paper, a slice of meat

5.2 Partitives: "containers": e.g.
a barrel of beer, a basket of fruit, a bottle of milk, a can of beer, a carton of cigarettes, a flask of tea, a glass of water, a jug of water, a mug of cocoa, a tin of soup, a vase of flowers

5.3 Partitives: small quantities: e.g.
a blade of grass, a breath of air, a crust of bread, a dash of soda, a grain of rice, a lock of hair, a pat of butter, a scrap of paper

5.4 Partitives: measures: e.g.
a gallon of petrol, a length of cloth, a litre of oil

5.5 Partitives: "a game of": e.g.
a game of squash, table-tennis, tennis, volleyball

5.6 Partitives: abstract: e.g.
a brand of soap, a kind of biscuit, a species of insect, a type of drug, a variety of pasta

5.7 Partitives: types/species: e.g.
a breed 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.
a pair of: e.g.
boots, braces, glasses, knickers, pants, piers, pyjamas/pajamas, scissors, shears, shoes, shorts, skates, skis, slippers, socks, stockings, tights, tongs, trousers
Appendix 6 [> 2.19]
Collective nouns followed by 'of: e.g.
a band of soldiers, a bouquet of flowers, a
bunch of grapes, a circle of friends, a clump of
trees, a collection of coins, a colony of ants, a
crowd 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 is 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
777/s

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 an/a 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

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
Thus is often used to clarify
I'll arrive on the 2nd, that is, on Friday

7.13 'This' that + 'wh-'how' clauses
You're late That's why we're waiting
Sue lent me 50p This/That is how I got home

7.14 'Derogatory' reference with 'that'
It's that man again (let's avoid him)

7.15 'That' in advertisements, etc.
That is sometimes used colloquially to point to
common 'shared' knowledge
Bovril prevents that sinking feeling .

7.16 'This' and 'that' with kind' and 'sort'
I like this/that kind (or sort) of person/bicycle

7.17 'These' and 'those' with kinds'/sorts'
I enjoy these/those 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 (hose after of in, e.g.
I enjoy films of this/that kind (or sort)

7.18 'This' and 'that' to indicate 'degree'
Very informally this and that can be used like
so as intensifies [> 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)
-ible (like - able) possible, - ful
(full of, having) beautiful, -full-less: careful
- careless, - (a) in (historical period, etc.)
Victorian, - ish (have the - sometimes bad
quality) foolish, (colour) reddish, (age)
thinish, -ive (capable of doing or being this)
-tractive, - ess (without) lifeless, - like
(resembling) businesslike, - ly (have this
quality) friendly, (how often) hourly Others
- al: mechanical, - ant: hesitant, - ar: circular,
- ary: visionary, - ate: affectation, - ent:
sufficient, - eous: gorgeous, - esque:
picturesque, - ic: energetic, - ic: area:
- able: economic - economical, - ious: glorious, - ist: sexist, - ory:
sensory, - ous: humorous, - some: fearsome

8.2 Adjectives formed with prefixes: e.g.
dis-: dishonest, fl-: illegal, im-: impossible, in-
indefinite, ir-: irresponsible, non-: non-stick,
on-: unthinkable Others a-: amoral, anti-:
anaesthetic, super-:

Appendix 9 [> 6.3]
Appendix 9 [> 6.12.2]
The + adjective, e.g. ‘the young’
9.1 The group as a whole: e.g.
the aged, the blind, the deaf, the dumb, the elderly, the guilty, the handicapped, the healthy, the homeless, the innocent, the living, the middle-aged, the old, the poor, the rich, the sick, the unemployed, the young
9.2 Abstract combinations: e.g.
from the sublime to the ridiculous, take the rough with the smooth

Appendix 10 [> 6.15,7.51]
Some more ‘-ed/-ing’ adjectival participles:
alarmed/alarming, amused/amusing, appalled/appalling, astonished/astonishing, bewildered/bewildering, confused/confusing, depressed/depressing, disgusted/disgusting, distressed/distressing, embarrassed/embarrassing, exhausted/exhausting, frightened/fractening, horrified/horrifying, irritated/irritating, moved/moving, relaxed/relaxing, satisfied/satisfying, shocked/shocking, surprised/surprising, terrified/terrorizing, 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, a thick/thin material
11.3 ‘Fat’ for a few names of things
a fat dictionary
11.4 ‘Thick’ (= stupid) - people
Some of my students are really thick
11.5 ‘Tall/short’: people/height
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/young: people
an old/young man, an old/young woman
11.11 ‘Old/new’: things
an old/new handbag, an old/new house
New is used for a person who is a ‘newcomer’
a new secretary

Appendix 12 [> 6.24,6.29]
Comparatives/superlatives confused and misused e.g.
12.1 ‘Better/worse’
Better is the comparative of well, worse is the comparative of ill when referring to health
How’s Liz? She’s (much) better/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/oldest’, ‘older/oldest’
Elder and oldest 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/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

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

### 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, clearly/clearly, fair/fairly

close/closely, dearly/dearly, fair/fairly, finely/finely

firm/firmly, freely/freely, loudly/loudly

quickly, quietly/quietly

15.2 Two forms used in different ways: e.g.

depth/deeply: drink deep, deeply regarded

direct/directly: go direct, I'll come directly

easy/easily: go easy, win easily

flat/flatly: flat flat, flatter refuse

full/fully: full in the face, fully realize

hard/hardly: work hard, hardly any food

high/highly: aim high, think highly of you

just/justly: just finished, deal justly with

last/lastly: arrive late, lately I've seen

near/nearby: near go, nearly finished

pretty/prettily: sit pretty, smile prettily

real/really: real glad (AmE); I really like

rough/roughly: rough rough, roughly twenty

short/shortly: stop short, see you shortly

strong/strongly: going strong, strongly feel

sure/surely: I am sure (AmE), surely

wide/widely: open wide, widely believed

### 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

brilliantly clever, brilliantly designed

crucially important, I crucially care

dangerously ill, dangerously wounded

doubtedly true, I doubtless know

dreadfully late, dreadfully annoyed

dreadfully ugly, dreadfully expensive

dreadfully wrong, dreadfully bad

dreadfully bad, dreadfully bad

dreadfully bad, endlessly bad

exceedingly expensive, do something exceedingly badly

extremely interesting, extremely surprised

fearfully bored, fearfully confused

fully satisfied, I fully appreciate

grievously ill, grievously worried

grievously ill, grievously worried

horribly bad, hopelessly bad

hopelessly bad, hopelessly confused

hopelessly bad, hopelessly confused

hopelessly bad, hopelessly confused

hopelessly bad, hopelessly confused

incredibly beautiful, incredibly surprised

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
mortal[ly] ll, mortally offended
outstandingly good/well/original
painfully shy, painfully embarrassed
particularly clever, I particularly enjoyed
perfectly sweet, I perfectly understand
pleas[antly] agreeable, pleasantly surprised
richly deserved, richly rewarded
simply wonderful, I simply love
sharply accurate, sharply critical
seriously upset, seriously depressed
sharply accurate, sharply critical

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, 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, regrettable[s], sadly, unfortunately, unhappily, unwisely, wisely

Appendix 18 [{7.17, 7.58}
Connecting words and phrases

18.1 Enumerating/stressing facts: e.g. above all, chiefly, especially, firstly (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. admitted[ly], 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, in short, to all intents and purposes, to conclude, to summarize, ultimately

18.11 Moving to a different topic: e.g. this, owing to this, so, therefore, thus

18.12 Making a concession: 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

Appendix 19 [{7.59.3}
Some negative adverbs/advverb 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, in no case, on no condition, on no occasion, only sooner than, neither nor, not a, not only but, not until/until, nowhere, only after, only at that moment, only by, only if, only in some respects, only later, only on rare occasions, only then, only when, only with, rarely, scarcely 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", during, "except", for, from, in, inside, into, like, "minus", near, 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, "worth

20.2 Single-word prepositions with '-ing':
up, upon, "via, with, within, without, "worth

to, towards, under, underneath, 'unlike, until,
round, "since, than, through, 'throughout, till,
to, towards, under, underneath, unlike, until,
up, upon, "via, with, within, without, "worth

20.3 Prepositions of two or more words:
according to, ahead of, along with, apart from, as for, as from, as regards, as a result of as to, as well as, away from, because of, but for, by comparison with, by means of, due to, except for, for the sake of, from among, from under, in addition to, in between, in case of, in charge of, in common with, in comparison to/with, in connexion with, in favour of, in front of, in line with in place of, in spite of, instead of, in view of, near to, next to, on account of, on behalf of, on the left/right of, out of, owing to, regardless of, together with, up to, with the exception of, with reference to, with regard to

Appendix 21 [> 3.20, 3.28.3, 8.9.1, 10.13.4]
'to' + noun, 'at' + noun
(He's gone to/been to, He's 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 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, the Mediterranean, the Pacific

22.2 Towns/parts of towns, except when we think of them as points on a route [> 8.6]
Canterbury, Chelsea, Dallas, Manhattan, New York, Paris, the East End

22.3 Outside areas (go into is preferable with e.g garden, street)
the garden, the park, Hyde Park, the square, the street, Bond Street, the old town, the desert, the forest, the jungle, the mountains

22.4 Rooms (go into or go to)
the bathroom, his bedroom, the garage, the kitchen, Mr Jones’s office, the waiting room, the bar, the cloakroom, the lounge, the Gents’

22.5 Zero article + noun:
bed, chapel, church, hospital, prison

Appendix 23 [>3.20, 3.28.3, 8.9.3, 10.13.4]
'to' + noun, 'at' + 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 prison (as a prisoner), at/in the prison (as e.g. a visitor), in hospital (as a patient) at/in the hospital (as e.g. an outpatient)

Appendix 24 [>2.13, 1.3.21, 8.12-13]

24.1 Days of the week
Sunday Sun Thursday Thur(s)
Monday Mon Friday Fri
Tuesday Tue(s) Saturday Sat
Wednesday Wed

24.2 Months and seasons [> App 474 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

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 Pirm, 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 across/over the road without looking. (I.e not to cross) There is a newsagent’s over across the road. However, over cannot be used when we are referring to the surface of a wide area

They’re laying a pipeline across Siberia.

With verbs which can suggest ‘aimless movement’ (stroll wander, etc.) over can be used to describe movement inside an area (not necessarily from one side to another) suggesting ‘here and there’

We wandered across the fields.

We skated across the frozen lake.

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

Erna Hart swam across the Channel.

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.

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 (at)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.

[see also > App 32]
Appendix 25

25.7 ‘at’ (for time phrases > App 47 5]

At commonly follows
- adjectives associated with skill (good/bad, clever/better, worse at)
- a few nouns associated with skill (a dunce at, a genius at)

At’s opposite is ‘away’ (as in ‘be away from’)

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’.

Away is also used with reference to prices and speeds (away from)

Ron is driving at 100 miles an hour.

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.

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 front of (and its opposite, behind) refers to position or place.

Before is not possible in most ordinary contexts to refer to position.

Before 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 is 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 is 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.

The enemy must not be confused with again in, e.g.

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 is 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.
Appendix 25

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 £300.
Among (and the less common amongst) + plural noun refers to a mass of things, etc.
which cannot be viewed separately.
Were you among the members present?
It is often used to refer to three or more.
Professor Webster is among the world’s best authorities on Etruscan civilization.

25.14 ‘but (for)’ and ‘except (for)’
But for introduces a condition (UTC 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 (UTC 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 but 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 (UTC 8.21)
The hotel is right by close by the station.
On can mean ‘right next to’ or ‘beside’ when we refer to a line.
Our house is right on the road/on the river.
On my right I have Frank 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-upon-Avon

25.16 ‘by’ and ‘past’
Both words are often interchangeable with verbs of motion (go, run, walk, etc.) to mean ‘beyond a point in space or time’.
He went right by/past me without speaking.
Several days went by/past before I had news.

25.17 ‘by’, ‘with’ and ‘without’
By and with can be used to mean ‘by means of but they are not generally interchangeable.
By occurs in fixed phrases (UTC App 26.2) like by bus, and in passive constructions.
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/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 adjectival and must therefore be associated with a noun but 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
- reason: I’ve got news for you
- exchange: I bought it for £5
- meaning: What’s French for ‘cat’?
- (= instead of): I did it for a joke

(= in favour of)
- (= instead of): If I 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 is not used in (runt of a to-in 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 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. If you don’t want a holiday in Wales, why don’t you go to Scotland instead?
We use instead of in noun, pronoun or ing
We eat margarine instead of butter.

Why can’t Marion drive you into town instead of me?

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
(= by)
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
(= by)
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 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 if) is often used as a conjunction, especially in informal AmE which is influencing BrE in this respect. This use has not gained full acceptance in BrE.
Like I told you, it’s an offer I can’t refuse
(I as I told you)
She’s spending money like there was no tomorrow (I as I)

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.


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 participles of other verbs, e.g.*

25.27 ‘of and off’

*Of* and *off* are not interchangeable, but their similar spellings cause confusion.

*Of* never occurs as a particle, *off* is both preposition and particle.

*Of*

- for possessive uses [*> 2.47*]
  - origin Mrs Ray of Worthing
  - direction north/south/west/east of
  - institutions The University of London
*Off*

- separation It’s just off the motorway
- 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* can only be used as prepositions [*> App 25.22*]

*He is inside/outside* means ‘he is not here, he is somewhere else’

*We rushed inside/outside* means ‘he is (standing) immediately outside it’

*He is outside his office* means ‘he is not here, he is somewhere else’

*We rushed inside/outside* can also be taken to mean that 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* 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 [*> 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.

Each 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.
**Appendix 25**

Over and above have different figurative uses
Over means 'in charge of'
We don't want anyone like that over us
Above can mean 'a higher rank'
Major is above the rank of Captain
Over (and less commonly above) can mean 'more than'
He isn't over (above/more than) ten
Above (not over) is used to measure on a scale
His work is above average
Both over and above combine with see see over (= look at the next page), see above (= look further up the same page/refer to the previous page)
Over can combine with turn, in turn over (a page) and its opposite is turn back
25.33 'to' [= 8.9]
When to is associated with the infinitive it is not a preposition I want to go She began to cry, etc. However, after verbs such as object or adjectives such as accustomed, to is a preposition This means it can be followed by a noun or a gerund [= > 16.56]
I'm accustomed to hard work
I'm accustomed to working hard
25.34 'towards'
To in / go from X to 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 l ied 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'
think she's under seventeen
Below is also possible in certain contexts
Millie can't be below 40
Underneath means 'completely covered by (touching or not touching)'
Put a mat underneath that hot dish
Beneath is less common and more literary but it can replace under and underneath
Our possessions lie beneath the rubble
Below is the opposite of above It is interchangeable with under and underneath when it means 'at a lower level
He swam just below the surface
We camped below/underneath the summit
But it is not generally interchangeable when referring to place or position
The stone hit me just below the knee.

Under can be used to mean 'commanded by'
Our foreman has ten people under him
Below can be used figuratively to refer to rank
What's the rank below Captain?

25.36 'with' and 'without' [= 1.60, 16.51]
With and without can be used to mean 'accompanied by' or 'not accompanied by'
I 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]accompanyed by'
The camera comes with/without a case
With and without can be used to mean 'having or 'not having physical characteristics
He's a man with a big nose and red hair
This can be extended to external characteristics such as hairstyles and make-up, in e.g. the woman with pink lipstick
In can be used to mean 'wearing
Who's (the) woman in the green blouse? and can refer to voice-quality
He spoke in a low/loud voice/in a whisper
Of can be used to describe
- personal qualities He's a man of courage
- age He's a man of about 40
- wealth He's a man of means

25.38 with regard to', etc.
A number of prepositions can be used when we wish to make formal references or focus attention e.g. as far as is concerned, as for, as regards, as to regarding, with reference to with regard to
As regards your recent application for a job, we haven't made up our minds yet
We haven't had a reply from our neighbours regarding their proposal to build a garage
I am writing to you with reference to your inquiry of November 27th
However, informal uses can occur
I didn't ask too many questions as to his whereabouts
As for your interest in this business, I have no comment to make
As far as I'm concerned, you can do as you please
Appendix 26

Some prepositional phrases

26.1 Some phrases with 'at'
at + meals (lunch, etc)
at length
at + place (> Apps 21.23)
at a loss
at + points of time (> 8.11)
at all events
at most of
at all times
at any rate
at best/worst
at fault
at first
at first sight
at hand
at km per hour
at last
at table
at least
at leisure

26.2 Some phrases with 'by'
by + bus etc (> 3.28.4)
by hand
by heart
by + time (> 7.34)
by luck
by + accident
by marriage
by all means
by means of
by any/no means
by mistake
by name
by chance
by post
by cheque/credit card
by right(s)
by day/night
by stages
by degrees
by virtue of
by far
by the way
by force
by way of

26.3 Some phrases with 'for' and 'from'
for + period of time (> 7.32) from A to Z
for the better/best from bad to worse
for a change from the first
for ever from good to bad
for once from the heart
for sale from now on
for a walk, etc (> 10 13.4)

26.4 Some phrases with 'in'
in + place (> App 22-23)
in the end
in + time (> 8.13-14)
in full
in addition in general
in all
in any case, in any event
in brief
in business
in a minute
in no time
in the circumstances
in order
in comfort
in pain
in comparison
in person
in conclusion
in practice
in danger
in return
in debt
in short
in demand
in tears
in depth
in turn
in doubt

26.5 Some phrases with 'off'
off duty
off one's head
off the point
off the road
off the record
off school, off work

26.6 Some phrases with 'on'
on + day/date (> 8.12)
on holiday
on account of
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 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 a great extent
past care
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 the exception of
without fall
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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective noun</th>
<th>Key: sby = somebody, stg = something</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absent from a place absence from</td>
<td>noun</td>
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<tr>
<td>afraid of sbystg fear of sbystg</td>
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<td>amazed at/by sbystg amazement at</td>
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<td>angry at/about stg anger at/about stg</td>
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<td>angry with sbystg anger with sbystg</td>
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<td>annoyed at/about annoyance at/about</td>
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<td>anxious about/over sbystg/stg shame at stg</td>
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<td>ashamed of sbystg/stg awareness of</td>
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<td>awful at (doing) stg</td>
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<td>bad at (doing) stg</td>
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<td>bored by/with sbystg/stg boredom with</td>
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<td>capable of (doing) stg</td>
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<td>careful of/with sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>careless of danger</td>
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<td>certain of/about facts</td>
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<td>clever at (doing) stg dumbfounded about</td>
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<td>content with stg</td>
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<td>contrary to advice</td>
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<td>curious about sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>eager for stg</td>
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<td>easy/ - not worried about</td>
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<td>faithful to sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>famous for (doing) stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>fond of sbystg/stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>free from danger</td>
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<td>free of charge</td>
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<td>full of stg</td>
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<td>glad about stg</td>
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<td>good/no good at (doing) stg</td>
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<td>happy about/over/with</td>
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<td>interested in/by sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>keen on (doing) stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>kind to sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>late for work</td>
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<td>married to sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>nervous of sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>obliged to sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>pleased with sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>safe from stg/for sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>satisfied with sbystg/stg</td>
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<td>slow at (doing) stg</td>
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<td>sorry about/for (doing) stg</td>
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<td>surprised about/at/bysbystg/stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>terrible at (doing) stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>thankful to sbystg/stg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrong about sbystg/stg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 28 [> 1.9.4, 29.8.20.8.27.]

**Type 1 [8.27.2]: Verb + preposition**

**transitive (non-idiomatic)**

**Related nouns + most common prepositions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns can be formed with</th>
<th>verb + preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>Key: sby = somebody, stg = something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advise against doing stg</td>
<td>advise against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree about stg</td>
<td>agreement about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allow to a proposal</td>
<td>agreement to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply to sbystg</td>
<td>approval to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approve of sbystg</td>
<td>approval of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become of stg</td>
<td>belief in sbystg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin with stg/by doing</td>
<td>choice between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>believe in sbystg</td>
<td>confession to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belong to sbystg</td>
<td>depend on sbystg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borrow from sbystg</td>
<td>difference on/to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose between</td>
<td>dream of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confess to sbystg/stg</td>
<td>emergence from/to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consider to do stg</td>
<td>failure in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deal with stg/a problem</td>
<td>failure on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differ from sbystg/stg</td>
<td>difference from/to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dream about/of (doing)</td>
<td>dream of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emerge from a place</td>
<td>dream from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fail in an exam</td>
<td>dream off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feel about stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit with stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget about stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guess at the truth</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help in stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insist on (doing) stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knock at the door</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know about</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laugh at/about sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listen to sbystg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look after sbystg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look at sbystg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet with sbystg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object to sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pay for sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quarrel with sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reason with sbystg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
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<tr>
<td>refer to sbystg/stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>rely on sbystg/stg</td>
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<tr>
<td>report to sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>request from a job</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resign from one's job</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>search for sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succeed in (doing) stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffer from an illness</td>
<td>feel about</td>
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<tr>
<td>talk to sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
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<tr>
<td>taste of stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trade with sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trust in sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vote for/against sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
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<td>wait for sbystg/stg</td>
<td>feel about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wish for</td>
<td>feel about</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Verbs marked * are often passive
Appendix 29 [> 1.9, 4.29, 8.20, 8.27, 16.53-54]

Type 1 [8.27.3] Verb + object + preposition transitive (non-idiomatic)

Nouns can be formed with -ing [> 2 16 5 16 39 1]

A prepositional phrase is not always obligatory after the object. Nouns can be followed by of (= belonging to). All these verbs (not absent oneself) can be used in the passive.

Key

sby = somebody, stg = something

Related nouns + most common prepositions

-ing

Related verbs

-ing
Appendix 31 - 32

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.

Appendix 32 [> 1.9, 8.28.1, 8.28.4]

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

Appendix 31 [> 2.9, 8.28.1, 8.28.4]

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.

Appendix 32 [> 1.9, 8.28.1, 8.28.4]
Appendix 32

32.5.3 (= retaliation)
'hit sb back, "kick sb back
32.5.4 (= prevent from coming forwards)
hold sb/stg back, keep sb/stg back
32.5.5 (= repetition)
play sb/stg back, read sb/stg back
32.6.1 (= in a downwards (or southerly) direction)
bring sb/stg down, drop sb/stg down, "get sb/stg down, "help sb down, "invite sb down, press sb/stg down, put sb/stg down, "send sb/stg down, throw sb/stg down
32.6.2 (= to the ground - often intending destruction)
brake sb/stg down, burn sb/stg down, cut sb/stg down, knock sb/stg down, "pull sb/stg down, "push sb/stg down
32.6.3 (= securing firmly - often 'downwards')
fix sb/stg down, screw sb/stg down, strap sb/stg down
32.6.4 (= reduction)
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 sb/stg down, hunt sb/stg down, wipe sb/stg down
32.6.6 (= prevention)
copy sb/stg down, note sb/stg down, write sb/stg down
32.6.7 (= to the ground)
hold sb/stg down, "keep sb/stg down
32.7 in'
32.7.1 (= movement from outside to inside)
bring sb/stg in, collect sb/stg in, drive (a car) in, give (homework) in, "let sb/stg in, an animal in
32.7.2 (= arrival/location)
"book sb in, "find sb in (at home)
32.7.3 (= confine to an area)
fence sb/stg in, keep sb/stg in, "lock sb/stg in
32.7.4 (= inclusion/addition/attachment)
add sb/stg in, fit sb/stg in, leave sb/stg in, paint sb/stg in, plug sb/stg in, type sb/stg in, write sb/stg in
32.7.5 (= inwards-often intending destruction)
beat (a door) in, drive (a nail) in, smash sb/stg in
32.8 'Off'
32.8.1 (= detachment/removal from a surface)
blow (a hat) off, brush sb/stg off, cut sb/stg off, knock sb/stg off fa shell, "let sb off (a bus), pull sb/stg off, take sb/stg off (a surface), wash sb/stg off
32.8.2 (= distance)
beat (an animal/sects) off, frighten sb/stg off an animal off, keep sb/stg off, "take sb off (to a place)
32.8.3 (= division/disconnection)
divide sb/stg off, fence sb/stg off, shut (a street) off, switch (the lights) off
32.8.4 (= completion)
finish sb/stg off, read sb/stg off (a list), round sb/stg off (= complete sb/stg)
32.9 'on'
32.9.1 (= attachment/connection/continuity)
fit sb/stg on, 'get (a lid) on, have sb/stg on (wear), keep (a light) on, put (a coat) on, screw (a lid) on, stick sb/stg on, switch (a light) on
32.9.2 (= in a forward direction)
pass sb/stg on, "send sb/stg on, wind sb/stg on
32.10 'out'
32.10.1 (= movement inside to outside)
drive (a car) out, "help sb out (of a car), put (a cat) out, spit sb/stg out, throw sb/stg out (of a )
32.10.2 (= general idea of movement 'out')
call (a doctor) out, "find sb out (not at home), pay (money) out, pick sb/stg out (choose)
32.10.3 (= exclusion/prevention)
fence (animals) out, leave sb/stg out (not include)
32.10.4 (= removal/disappearance/disconnection)
clean (a stain) out, cross (a line) out, cut (a picture) out, shake (dust) out, turn (lights) out
32.10.5 (= extension)
hold (a hand) out, open (a newspaper) out, put (your hand) out, reach (your arm) out, roll (a map) out
32.10.6 (= making something audible or clear)
beat (a rhythm) out, call sb/stg out, copy sb/stg out, read sb/stg out, shout sb/stg out, write sb/stg out
32.10.7 (= thoroughly)
check sb/stg out, clean sb/stg out, empty sb/stg out, "hear sb/stg out, sort sb/stg out, wash (a basin) out
32.10.8 (= distribution)
divide things out, give things out, pass (exercise books) out, serve (food) out, share things out
32.10.9 (= to a conclusion)
"argue sb/stg out, "talk sb/stg out, "think sb/stg out
32.11 'over'
32.11.1 (= from one side to the other)
'carry sb/stg over, "help sb over
32.11.2 (= adverbs of 'inviting', etc )
"ask sb over, "bring sb/stg over, "fetch sb/stg over, "run (= drive) sb/stg over
32.11.3 (= thoroughness adverbs of 'checking')
check sb/stg over, 'do sb/stg over (= again), read sb/stg over (= again), "think (a problem) over
32.11.4 (= to the ground)
"knock sb/stg over, "push sb/stg over
32.12 'round'
32.12.1 (= circular movement/direction)
'drive (a car) round, "wave sb/stg round
32.12.2 (= enclosure)
fence (a garden) round, "put (things) round
32.12.3 (= division/disconnection)
'ask sb round, fetch sb/stg round, have sb/stg round, invite sb round, "show sb/stg round
32.12.4 (= distribution)
pass sb/stg round, share things round
32.12.5 (= changing position)
"change things round, "move things round
32.13 'through'
32.13.1 (= from one side/place to another)
'drive (a car) through, "knock sb/stg through, "let sb/stg through, "send sb/stg through, "show sb/stg through
32.13.2 (= to a conclusion/thoroughly)
"argue sb/stg through, "heat sb/stg through, "plan sb/stg through, sort sb/stg through, "think sb/stg through
32.13.3 (= in two pieces)
cut sb/stg through, saw sb/stg through, slice sb/stg through
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) m'lty 'gave themselves up? (= surrender) he's 'havng 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 in the dictionary) look me up when you're back (= contact me) I can't make him out (= understand him) I can just make him out (= see him) you've made that story up (= invented it) you've made yourself up (= used cosmetics) you've missed out my name (= not included) I'm packing in smoking (= stopping) she was 'passed over (= not chosen) I'll pay back for this (= get my revenge) point it out to me (= show or explain) we've pulled off a deal (= been successful) 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 "say me off (= say goodbye to me) he's sending me up (= ridiculing by imitating) the strike set us back (= delayed/cost us money) he set up the whole scheme (= organized it) I can't shake this cold off (= get rid of it) 'shut him up (= make him stop talking) sort this company out (= organize it) I'll 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

Type 3: Verb + particle

Intransitive (idiomatic)
that boy's acting up (behaving badly)
prices bottomed out (reached bottom)
my car's broken down (it won't go)
my plan came off (succeeded)
the subject came up again (was mentioned)
you'd better cough up (pay)
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)
there's a dress up (put on best/fancy clothes)
I'll drop by (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)
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)

Appendix 35

Some nouns formed from Type 3 verbs: e.g.

Some fixed expressions with verbs: e.g.

Typical verb + particle combinations are

Typical verb + particle combinations are

'make up your mind'

Some nouns formed from Type 3 verbs: e.g.

touchdown a walkout, a warm-up, washing-up
get-away, a get-together, goings on, a
climb-down, a cutback, a dropout, a flare up, a

Appendix 36

Appendix 34 [> 8 28 5]

Some fixed expressions with verbs: e.g.

Some fixed expressions with verbs: e.g.

Typical verb + particle combinations are

Appendix 35 [> 2.9 .2 .11 , 8.29.1.d]

Some nouns formed from Type 3 verbs: e.g.

Typical verb + particle combinations are

Appendix 36 [> 1.9,8,29.3]
Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition

Appendix 37: Type 4: Verb + particle + preposition

(italic) do's take in a risk (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(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)
faced 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)
I got back at me in the end (= retaliated)
I went down to work (= began to tackle)
I'd get on to him (= contact him)
he's getting up to something (= e.g. mischief)
our house gives on to the river (= overloeks)
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 in 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 a rise (= make a formal request)
who put you up to this (= gave you the idea)
I won't put up with it (= tolerate)
read up on its history (= improve knowledge)
his luck rubbed off on me (= benefited)
we've run out of rice (= used up all we had)
she's run out on him (= abandoned him)
I'm running up against problems (= meeting)
I've set up in business (= started a business)
he's shown me up as a liar (= revealed truth)
speak up for him (= state your support)
I'll stand in for you (= act in your place)
stand up for your principles (= defend)
don't start in on him (= criticize him)
stick out for more (= insist on receiving)
we'll stick up for you (= support you)
don't take it out on me(= treat me unfairly)
I'll take the matter up with Jim (= discuss it)
she'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: 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, "regret,"[it] respect, (can't) stand, "swear by, trust, "value

38.2 Thinking, believing (I know, etc.): e.g.
agree, "appreciate, "assume, believe, "bel (informal), "can't comprehend, (can't) conceive of "consider, (can't) credit, disagree, disbelieve, "estimate, "expect, "feel, figure (AmE), "find, "gather, get it (= understand, informal), "guess (AmE), "hearn bosses to be), 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 for(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 sb, "lack, "look (= see, can) "smell, (can) "taste, (it) taste (of), "tend "weigh

Appendix 39: Some common regular verbs

Key bold = spelling change from base form

39.1 Pronounced / d I in the past: e.g. "bribed, described, robbed, rubbed
"begged, dragged, plugged, tugged
"banged, belonged, longed
"arranged, changed, exchanged
"damaged, emerged, judged, managed
"called, filled, pulled, skimmed, travelled
"assumed, claimed, combed
"cleaned, explained, listened, opened
"vowel + 't answered, appeared, dared
V arrived, lived, loved, moved, proved
"accused, closed, excused, refused
### Appendix 40

#### 39.2 Pronounced /ʌ/ in the past: e.g.
- asked
- joked
- liked
- locked
- looked
- picked
- talked
- thanked
- walked
- worked

#### 39.3 Pronounced /ɪ/ in the past: e.g.
- added
- afforded
- attended
- avoided
- decided
- ended
- handed
- included
- mended
- minded
- needed
- provided
- reminded
- skidded

#### Appendix 40 [> 9.14.1, 9.15.9.22, 12.3n1, 12.11n1]

#### Some common irregular verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>arise</td>
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### 39.2 Pronounced /ɪ/ in the past: e.g.
- addressed
- crossed
- danced
- discussed
- faced
- guessed
- missed
- matched
- reached
- switched
- touched
- matched, reached, switched, touched
- crashed, finished, pushed, washed

### 39.3 Pronounced /ɪd/ in the past: e.g.
- 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

### Appendix 40 [> 9.14.1, 9.15.9.22, 12.3n1, 12.11n1]

#### Some common irregular verbs

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</table>

1 Also forbear overbear She s borne ten sons I was born in 1960
2 Also broadcast forecast miscast recast
3 Also overcome compare become
4 Note regular verb cost I ve costed the work
5 Also outdoredo redo undo redo undo
6 Also overdraw withdraw
7 Note the adjective drunken a drunken man
8 Also overeat
9 Also befall
10 Note regular verb fell We ve felled that tree
11 Also outgrow, overgrow
12 Also overhang, overhung overhung
13 Note hanged (= put to death)
14 Also behold, uphold withhold
15 Note knit (= make from wool) is regular
16 Also inflay mislay relay waylay
17 Also mislead Compare pronunciation of lead liv d (verb) and lead lied (noun)
18 Note the adjective lend (= lend a mid [> 6 14]
19 Note lie (lied lied) (regular) (= tell a lie)
20 Also remake unmake
21 Also overpay repay underpay
22 Also misunderstand
23 Also override
24 Also outrun overrun, run-run
25 Also foresee observe Compare see, saw, seen and saw sawed sawn sawed
26 Also outtell, reseil underseil
27 Also beset, reset, upset
28 Also outshine (= polish), can be regular, especially in AmE
29 Also override
30 Compare the adjective shrunken
31 Compare sunken a sunken ship
32 Also outscale
33 Also misspell
34 Also overspend, underspend
35 Also withstand, compare understand
36 Also aversestricken, poverty-stricken
37 Also betake, mistake overtake retake
38 Also foresee retell
39 Also overthrow
40 Also misunderstand
41 Also reind, unwind
42 Also rewrite, underwrite
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),
boiling, 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,
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 nusier, a nuisance, a problem,
a show-off, a silly, a snob, a threat, a worry.

Appendix 42 [> 3.28.2,10.37]
'Have', 'give', 'take': some common combinations

42.1 'Have' + noun
42.1.1 Eating/drinking (Have breakfast/a drink)
breakfast/lunch/tea/supper/dinner, a meal,
a snack, a drink, a/some coffee, a sandwich
42.1.2 Rest/sleep (Have a rest)
a rest/a sleep/a lie-down/a nap, a day off,
a holiday, a dream, a nightmare
42.1.3 Washing, etc (Have a bath)
a bath/a wash/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/trip
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
fairest 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 (= allow to go first).
42.3 'Take' + noun (Take action)
action, advice, aim (at), a bath/a shower, to
one's bed, something to bits, a break, care,
the chair (at a meeting), charge of, a class,
courage, somebody to court, a decision,
effect, an exam, exception to (= disapprove),
fright, heart (from something), a/the hint,
a holiday, a pike, liberties, a look, one's
medicine, note of, offence, the opportunity to,
pains to part in, a photograph, pity, place (= happen), possession of, pride in, a rest, risks,
roof, 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 work
43.1.3 (= household tasks)
the cooking, the gardening, the ironing,
the shopping, the washing, the washing-up
43.1.4 (= do the cooking, the

gardening, the ironing, the shopping,
the washing, the washing-up)
43.1.5 (= places the sights, Rome (in a day)
43.1.6 (= speed, distance)
This car does 100 miles an hour.
43.1.7 (= thirty miles to the gallon)
43.1.8 (= the kitchen, one's hair, one's nails, one's teeth
43.2 Some combinations with 'make': e.g.
43.2.1 'Make' + noun

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,
success of, a trip, trouble, use of, war,
one's way to a place (= go there), a will
Some adjectival combinations

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<th>(that)</th>
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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
8 Also (not) advisable whether/wh-+ clause
9 Also (not) advisable whether/wh-+ clause
10 Also (not) advisable whether/wh-+ clause
11 Also (not) advisable whether/wh-+ clause
### Appendix 45 - 46

#### Some reporting verbs

**45.1 Some reporting verbs (1)**

**Key:**
- `*` = that is not usually omitted
- `Q` = optional personal object before clause
- `sby` = object required before clause

### Appendix 45

1. **That**
   - That is the first verb that must be followed by a question.
   - Example: *He warned me that I'd better go.*

2. **Verb**
   - Example: *He asked if I were ready.*

3. **Verb**
   - Example: *He asked if I were ready.*

4. **Verb**
   - Example: *He asked if I were ready.*

5. **Verb**
   - Example: *He asked if I were ready.*

### Appendix 46

1. **Verb + to-infinitive**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

2. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

3. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

4. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

5. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

6. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

7. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

8. **Verb**
   - Example: *I bet you manage to do it.*

### Example

- *I bet you manage to do it.*
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 one 1st first

2 two 2nd second

3 three 3rd third

4 four 4th fourth

5 five 5th fifth

6 six 6th sixth

7 seven 7th seventh

8 eight 8th eighth

9 nine 9th ninth

10 ten 10th tenth

11 eleven 11th eleventh

12 twelve 12th twelfth

13 thirteen 13th thirteenth

14 fourteen 14th fourteenth

15 fifteen 15th fifteenth

16 sixteen 16th sixteenth

17 seventeen 17th seventeenth

18 eighteen 18th eighteenth

19 nineteen 19th nineteenth

20 twenty 20th twentieth

21 twenty-one 21st twenty-first

22 twenty-two 22nd twenty-second

23 twenty-three 23rd twenty-third

24 twenty-four 24th twenty-fourth

25 twenty-five 25th twenty-fifth

26 twenty-six 26th twenty-sixth

27 twenty-seven 27th twenty-seventh

28 twenty-eight 28th twenty-eighth

29 twenty-nine 29th twenty-ninth

30 thirty 30th thirtieth, etc

40 forty 40th fortieth, etc

50 fifty 50th fiftieth

60 sixty 60th sixtieth

70 seventy 70th seventieth

80 eighty 80th eightieth

90 ninety 90th ninetieth

100 one hundred 100th one/the hundredth

101 one hundred and one 101st one/the hundred and first

200 two hundred 200th the (wo) hundred

1,000 one thousand 1,000th one/the thousand

1,001 one thousand one 1,001st one/the thousand and one, etc

1,000,000 one million 1,000,000th one/the million

1,000,000,000 one billion 1,000,000,000th one/the billion

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

c) When giving the scores of most games, e.g. football, ° is pronounced nil or nothing. Hull 0 is said Hull six, Leeds nil (or nothing)

When giving the scores of a few other games, e.g. tennis we use love for 0 Becker leads by two sets to love (2-0)

2 -teen and -ty endings pronunciation

Even native speakers sometimes find it hard to hear the difference. Did you say thirteen or thirty? Note the stress. I said thirteen. Thirty 3 one hundred, one thousand, one million, etc

In ordinary speech, a is often used instead of one. However, one is preferable in calculations, etc because it sounds more accurate. For numbers between 1,000 and 1,900 it is common to say eleven hundred, etc instead of one thousand one hundred

4 Writing numbers of more than four figures

We separate large numbers with commas, not stops. Commas may be omitted from four-figure numbers, but they are important in numbers with five or more figures, since they make the structure of large numbers clear.

5 and in numbers over 100

In AmE this can be omitted, e.g. six hundred sixty-eight instead of six hundred and sixty-eight.

6 Numbers after people’s names

When writing the names of kings, we use Roman numerals. We write George IV (no -s), but we say George the Fourth. Some rich American families do the same. Henry Ford II.

7 A dozen (1 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 100 pounds)

She’s sixty odd (i.e. about 60 years old)

-ish, or so and thereabouts can also be used when giving approximate numbers

He’s sixtyish. I’ll meet you nineish.

It cost a hundred pounds or so

He’s arriving on the seventh or thereabouts

#### 47.2 Telephone numbers

Telephone numbers are written with gaps between each group of numbers, not usually with dashes or full stops e.g. 01 339 4867.

The first group is usually the dialling code for a particular place and is often in brackets (01) 339 4867. 0 in phone numbers is pronounced oh. Numbers are pronounced separately and double figures are usually given as e.g. double three oh one, double three (or three three) nine, four eight six seven.

Treble figures are normally spoken as follows: 6222 six two double two A number like 2222 would be spoken double two double two.

Other long numbers, like bank account numbers, national insurance numbers and so on are usually spoken in the same way.
Appendix 47

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 and 2 equals 4
  2 and 2 is four and 2 are 4
  2 and 2 make 4 and 2 makes 4
- (the plus sign)
  This is spoken as plus and 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
- (the multiplication sign)
  This is spoken as multiplied by or times
  9 x 3 = 27 could be spoken as
  9 multiplied by (or) 3 equals 27
  3 into nine (goes)/3
- (the division sign)
  This is spoken as divided by or over
  9 ÷ 3 = 3 could be spoken as
  9 divided by (or) 3 equals 3
  3 into nine (goes)/3
- (the percentage sign)
  This is usually said per cent
  3% = three per cent
  3 1/2% = three and a half per cent
  3 5/8% = three point five per cent

47.3.2 Fractions (> 5 9 3)

Fractions are usually printed and written with a horizontal line not a diagonal line
1/4 = a (or one) quarter, 2/4 = two and a quarter
1/2 = a (or one) half, 2 1/2 = two and a half
3/4 = three quarters
3 3/4 = three and three quarters

47.3.3 Decimals (> 5 9 4)

The decimal point is usually raised i.e. it is not written as if it was a full stop. A comma is never used. We say each number after the decimal point separately. 45.987 = forty-five point nine eight seven

47.4 Dates (> 3 2 1 4, 8.12, 8.13)

47.4.1 Centuries, years
35 BC (‘Before Christ’), A D 100 = AD one hundred (i.e. ‘Anno Domini’, ‘in the year of our Lord’ in Latin) A D is not usually necessary except with the early centuries to avoid possible confusion. BC is usually necessary. Pompey died in 48 B C
Tiberius died in A D 37
The 11th, the 20th century will always be taken to mean A D. The name of the century is ‘one ahead’ of the way the years in it are written. Said e.g. 1500-1599 is the sixteenth century. We can refer to the five ‘ties’, etc. and in this century to the fifties, etc. and specifically to the nineteenth century. 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 1901 to 1912 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, month/day/year, year/month/day/year, year/month/day/year.

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), 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 to (eleven) (ten). With all other combinations between the hour and past the hour, we say minutes, e.g. three minutes to ten, twenty minutes to eleven. In BrE after is commonly used in place of and 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 a quarter and half. Sometimes we say am (ante meridiem, i.e. before midday) or p.m. (post meridiem, i.e. after midday) for times before and after 12 noon. I’ll meet you at 5 p.m. 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 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 the ten eighteen
Appendix 48

Some adverbs of definite time: 'points of time'

- yesterday
- today
- tomorrow
- yesterday morning
- this morning
- tomorrow morning
- yesterday at noon
- at noon
- tomorrow at noon
- yesterday afternoon
- this afternoon
- tomorrow afternoon
- yesterday evening
- this evening
- tomorrow evening
- last night
- tonight
- tomorrow night
- the day before yesterday
- the day after tomorrow
- the night before last
- the night after next
- the day before yesterday in the morning/afternoon/evening
- the day after tomorrow in the morning/afternoon/evening
- last Monday
- this Monday
- next Monday
- last January
- this January
- next January
- last Christmas
- this Christmas
- next Christmas
- last week
- this week
- next week
- last month
- this month
- next month
- the month before last
- the month after next
- last year
- this year
- next year
- the year before last
- the year after next
- last century
- this century
- next century
- the century before last
- the century after next
- today
- week - a week from today
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) tomorrow = a week etc from tomorrow
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) yesterday = a week etc from yesterday
- a week/two weeks/a fortnight from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months last Tuesday etc
- a month/two months next Tuesday etc
- this time
- next week/next year etc
- this time last week/last year etc
- today week - a week from today
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) tomorrow = a week etc from tomorrow
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) yesterday = a week etc from yesterday
- a week/two weeks/a fortnight from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months last Tuesday etc
- a month/two months next Tuesday etc
- today
- week - a week from today
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) tomorrow = a week etc from tomorrow
- a week (or a fortnight two weeks a month) yesterday = a week etc from yesterday
- a week/two weeks/a fortnight from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months from today from tomorrow etc
- a month/two months last Tuesday etc
- a month/two months next Tuesday etc

NOTES

1. Last night is usually preferable to yesterday night
2. In everyday speech days of the week are often referred to without this last next or on
   'I'm seeing him Monday' (i.e. this next on) / saw him Monday (i.e. last on)
3. When we wish to draw attention to approaching time we may use the expression this coming
   'This coming week there are three good films on TV
4. This morning this afternoon this evening and tonight can refer to
   a) now / feel terrible this morning/today etc
   b) the morning which is passing or has just passed / spoke to him this morning (= earlier)
   c) later on today / I'll speak to him this morning
5. This Monday etc refers to the nearest Monday from now and can be replaced by next Monday
   'I'm seeing him this Monday/next Monday
6. This week this month this year 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 / I'm going to Majorca this week
7. This January etc refers to the one that is nearest to us and can be replaced by next
   'We're spending this/next January, Christmas etc' in Switzerland
8. The other + day Monday morning etc refers to one that has recently passed every
   other + day Monday morning etc refers to alternating ones
   'I got a letter from Jill the other morning [compare > 5.27]
9. Mrs Mopp comes in and cleans the house every other day [compare > 5.23]
10. This day Monday morning etc is often used in narrative [compare > 3.11]
11. For time references in indirect speech [> 15.13n5]
Appendix 49

Appendix 49 [> 2.27,3.9 3.3.19.2,6.12.2,6.20.3]  
Some nationality words

49.1 Group 1: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and noun have the same form  
   adjective: the Japanese language noun: Nakamura-san is (a) Japanese
2. There is no difference between singular and plural adjectives/nouns  
   singular: Nakamura-san is Japanese plural: Nakamura-san and Sanseido-san are Japanese
3. When referring to 'all the people', the is always required: The Japanese are very clever people

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable Noun</th>
<th>Plural or Collective Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>a Japanese (man/woman)</td>
<td>the Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>two Japanese (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable Noun</th>
<th>Plural or Collective Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>an Italian (man/woman)</td>
<td>(the) Italians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>two Italians (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly e.g.
a) -ian endings add -n to countries ending in -ia Argentina(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austria(n), Colombia(n), Indonesia(n), Afganistan(n), China(n), Vietnam(n), Tuvalu(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 -ian endings a) -ian: Argentina(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austria(n), Colombia(n), Indonesia(n), Afganistan(n), China(n), Vietnam(n), Tuvalu(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 -ian: Argentina(n), Asia(n), Australia(n), Austria(n), Colombia(n), Indonesia(n), Afganistan(n), China(n), Vietnam(n), Tuvalu(n) other -ian endings

49.3 Group 3: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and singular noun are different  
   adjective: Finnish timber noun: He is a Finn
2. The singular noun adds -s to form the plural, the is optional in the plural: (The) Finns often visit Sweden

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable Noun</th>
<th>Plural or Collective Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>an Arab</td>
<td>a Finn (man/woman), two Arabs (men)</td>
<td>(the) Arabs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabian (desert)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>a Dane (man/woman), two Danes (men)</td>
<td>(the) Danes or the Danish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>a Finn (man/woman), two Finns (men)</td>
<td>(the) Finns or the Finnish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Philippine</td>
<td>a Filipino (man/woman), two Filipinos (men)</td>
<td>(the) Filipinos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>a Pole (man/woman), two Poles (men)</td>
<td>(the) Poles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>a Spaniard/two Spaniards (men),</td>
<td>(the) Spaniards or the Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Spanish woman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>a Swede (man/woman), two Swedes (men)</td>
<td>(the) Swedes or the Swedish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>a Turk (man/woman), two Turks (men)</td>
<td>(the) Turks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

49.4 Group 4: Identifying characteristics
1. The adjective and plural noun (meaning 'all the people') are the same, the is always required  
   adjective: English customs noun: The English are very inventive
2. The singular noun is composed of the adjective + -man or -woman  
   adjective: English customs noun: The English are very inventive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable Noun</th>
<th>Plural or Collective Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>an Englishman (man/woman), two Englishmen (men)</td>
<td>the English (also)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>a Frenchman (man/woman), two Frenchmen (men)</td>
<td>the French (also)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland (or the Netherlands)</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>a Dutchman (man/woman), two Dutchmen (men)</td>
<td>the Dutch (also)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>an Irishman (man/woman), two Irishmen (men)</td>
<td>the Irish (also)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>a Welshman (man/woman), two Welshmen (men)</td>
<td>the Welsh (also)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

49.5 Group 5: Two exceptions
1. Britain: a Briton (man/woman), Britons (fairly rare) the British
2. Scotland: a Scot (man/woman), a Scotsman (man/woman), the Scots

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Countable Noun</th>
<th>Plural or Collective Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>a Briton (man/woman), Britons (fairly rare)</td>
<td>the British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a British (AmE)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>Scottish</td>
<td>a Scot (man/woman), a Scotsman (man/woman), the Scots</td>
<td>(the Scots)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>two Scotsmen (men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(And note Scotch whisky)