INTEGRAL UNIVERSITY, LUCKNOW

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

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GENERAL ENGLISH

CONTENTS

UNIT-1 SENTENCE AND TEXT

CONTENTS

Notes

Words

The words in the announcement are good, evening, ladies, and, gentlemen, on etc. NOTE For word-building, e.g. air + ways= **airways,** •

Phrases and clauses

We use phrases to build a clause. Here is an example.

Subject (noun phrase)	Verb (verb phrase)	Complement (noun phrase)
Our flight time	*will be*	*approximately forty-five minutes.*

Here the noun phrase *our flight time* is the subject of the clause. A clause has a subject and a verb. There can be other phrases, too. In this next example we use a prepositional phrase as an adverbial.

Adverbial (prepositional phrase)	Subject (noun phrase)	Verb (verb phrase)	Object (noun phrase)	Object (noun phrase)
On behalf of the airline	*we*	*wish*	*you*	*a pleasant flight.*

Sentences

A sentence can be a single clause.

On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald flight to Southampton. A written sentence begins with a capital letter (On) and ends with a mark such as a full stop. We can also combine two or more clauses in one sentence. For example, we can use and to link the clauses.

Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes, **and** we shall be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet **and** cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles an hour.

Word classes

There are different classes of word, sometimes called 'parts of speech'. The word come is a verb, letter is a noun and great is an adjective.

NOTE

Some words belong to more than one word class. For example, test can be a noun or a verb.

He passed the **test.** (noun)

He had to **test** the machine. (verb)

There are eight main word classes in English.

Verb: climb, eat, welcome, be

Noun: aircraft, country, lady, hour

Adjective: good, British, cold, quick

Adverb: quickly, always, approximately

Preposition: to, of, at, on

Determiner: the, his, some, forty-five

Pronoun: we, you, them, myself

Conjunction: and, but, so

Phrases

NOTE There is also a small class of words called 'interjections'. They include oh, ah and mhm.

Verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs are 'vocabulary words'. Learning vocabulary means learning verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs. Prepositions, determiners, pronouns and conjunctions belong to much smaller classes. These words are sometimes called 'grammatical words'. Most word classes can be divided into sub-classes. For example:

Verb Ordinary verb: go, like, think, apply

Auxiliary verb: is, had, can, must

Adverb Adverb of manner: suddenly, quickly

Adverb of frequency: always, often

Adverb of place: there, nearby

Linking adverb: too, also etc

Determiner Article: a, the

Possessive: my, his

Demonstrative: this, that

Quantifier: all, three

Phrases

There are five kinds of phrase.

1 Verb phrase: come, had thought, was left, will be climbing

A verb phrase has an ordinary verb (come, thought, left, climbing) and may also have an auxiliary (had, was, will).

Noun phrase: a good flight, his crew, we

A noun phrase has a noun (flight), which usually has a determiner (a) and/or adjective (good) in front of it. A noun phrase can also be a pronoun (we).

Adjective phrase: pleasant, very late
An adjective phrase has an adjective, sometimes with an adverb of degree (very).
Adverb phrase: quickly, almost certainly
An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree (almost).
Prepositional phrase: after lunch, on the aircraft
A prepositional phrase is a preposition + noun phrase.

Sentence elements

Each phrase plays a part in the clause or sentence. Here are some examples.
Subject Verb Adverbial
The flight is leaving shortly.
Subject Verb Complement
The weather is very good.
My father was a pilot.
Subject Verb Object
I was reading a newspaper.
Two stewards served lunch.
Subject Verb Object Adverbial
The aircraft left London at three o'clock.
We must book the tickets next week.
These are the elements of an English sentence and the kinds of phrase that we can use for each element.
Subject Noun phrase: the flight, I, two stewards
Verb Verb phrase: is, served, must book
Object Noun phrase: a newspaper, lunch
Complement Adjective phrase: very good
Noun phrase: a pilot
Adverbial Adverb phrase: shortly
Prepositional phrase: at three o'clock
Noun phrase: next week
The verb is central to the sentence and we use the word 'verb' for both the sentence element - 'The verb follows the subject' - and for the word class - 'Leave is a verb.' For more details about sentence patterns,

English compared with other languages

Endings

Unlike words in some other languages, English words do not have a lot of different endings. Nouns take s in the plural (mile**s**), but they do not have endings to show whether they are subject or object.

English compared with other languages

Verbs take a few endings such as ed for the past (started), but they do not take endings for person, except in the third person singular of the present tense (it starts).
Articles (e.g. the), Possessives (e.g. my) and adjectives (e.g. good) do not have endings for number or gender. Pronouns (e.g. lime) have fewer forms than in many languages.

Word order

Word order is very important in English. As nouns do not have endings for subject or object, it is the word order that shows which is which.

Subject Verb Object

The woman loved the man. (She loved him.)

The man loved the woman. (He loved her.)

The subject-verb order is fixed, and we can change it only if there is a special reason.

Verb phrases

A verb phrase can have a complex structure. There can be auxiliary verbs as well as the ordinary verb.

I **climbed** up the ladder.

I **was climbing** the mountain.

We **shall be climbing** to an altitude of eight thousand feet.

The use of tenses and auxiliary verbs can be difficult for speakers of other languages.

Prepositions

The use of prepositions in English can be a problem.

We flew here **on** Friday. We left **at** two o'clock.

Both prepositions and adverbs combine with verbs in an idiomatic way.

They were **waiting for** the flight. The plane **took off.**

There are many expressions involving prepositions that you need to learn as items of vocabulary.

The simple sentence

This story contains examples of different clause patterns.

A man walked into a hotel, saw a nice coat, put it over his arm and walked out again. Then he tried to hitch a lift out of town. While he was waiting, he put the coat on. At last a coach stopped and gave him a lift. It was carrying forty detectives on their way home from a conference on crime. One of them had recently become a detective inspector. He recognized the coat. It was his. He had left it in the hotel, and it had gone missing. The thief gave the inspector his coat. The inspector arrested him. 'It seemed a good idea at the time,' the man said. He thought himself rather unlucky. There are five elements that can be part of a clause. They are subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial.

Basic clause patterns

Intransitive and transitive verbs •

Subject Intransitive verb

A coach stopped.

Subject Transitive verb Object

The detective arrested the thief.

Linking verbs •

Subject Verb Complement

The thief was rather unlucky.

The detective became an inspector.

Subject Verb Adverbial

The coat was over his arm.
The conference is every year.

Intransitive and transitive verbs

Give, send etc •

Subject Verb Object Object
The thief gave the inspector his coat.

All these seven clause patterns contain a subject and verb in that order. The elements that come after the verb depend on the type of verb: for example, whether it is transitive or not. Some verbs belong to more than one type. For example, think can come in these three patterns.

Intransitive (without an object): I'm **thinking.**
Transitive (with an object): Yes, I **thought** the same.
With object and complement: People will **think** me stupid.

Extra adverbials •

We can always add an extra adverbial to a clause.
A man walked into a hotel.
One day a man walked **casually** into a hotel.

And and or •

We can join two phrases with and or or.
The inspector and the thief got out of the coach.

Phrases in apposition •

We can put one noun phrase after another.
Our neighbour Mr Bradshaw is a policeman.

Intransitive and transitive verbs

An intransitive verb cannot take an object, although there can be a prepositional phrase after it.
The man **was waiting** at the side of the road.
Something unfortunate **happened.**
The man **runs** along the beach every morning.

Intransitive verbs usually express actions (people doing things) and events (things happening). A verb can be intransitive in one meaning and transitive in another. For example, run is transitive when it means 'manage.

He **runs** his own business.
Subject Verb Object Complement
They called the inspector sir.
The thief thought himself rather unlucky.
Subject Verb Object Adverbial
He put the coat over his arm.

Call, put etc •

A transitive verb takes an object.
The man **stole a coat.**
Everyone **enjoyed the conference.**
The driver **saw the hitch-hiker** at the side of the road.
The man **had no money.**

Transitive verbs can express not only actions (stole) but also feelings (enjoyed),
perception (saw) and possession (had).

After some transitive verbs we can leave out the object when it would add little or nothing to the meaning.
The man opposite was **reading** (a book). We're going to **eat** (a meal).
A woman was **driving** (the coach).
We can also leave out the object after these verbs:
ask/answer (a question), **draw/paint** (a picture), **enter/leave (a** room/building), **pass/fail** (a test/exam), **play/win/lose** (a game), **practise** (a skill), **sing** (a song), **speak** (a few words), **study** (a subject). The following verbs can also be without an object if the context is clear: begin, choose, decide, hear, help, know, notice, see, start.
There must be an object after discuss and deny.
The committee **discussed the problem. He denied the accusation.**
Many verbs can be either transitive or intransitive.
Transitive Intransitive
The driver **stopped the coach.**
He opened the door.
I broke a cup.
Someone **rang the bell.**
The coach **stopped.**
The door **opened.**
The cup **broke.**
The bell **rang.**
The two sentences can describe the same event. The transitive sentence has as its subject the agent, the person who made the event happen (the driver). The intransitive sentence describes the event but does not mention the agent. Here are some common verbs that can be transitive or intransitive:
alter develop increase shine tear
begin divide join shut turn
bend drive melt slide weaken
boil dry mix smash unite
break end move soften
burn finish open sound
change fly pour spread
close freeze ring stand
cook hang roll start
combine harden sail stop
continue hurt separate strengthen
crash improve shake swing

Linking verbs

Linking verb + complement

A complement is an adjective phrase or a noun phrase. A complement relates to the subject: it describes the subject or identifies it (says who or what it is). Between the subject and complement is a linking verb, e.g. be.
The hotel **was quiet.** The thief **seemed depressed.**
The book has **become a best-seller.** It's **getting dark.**
A week in the Lake District would **make a nice break.**

These are the most common verbs in this pattern.
+ adjective or noun phrase: appear, be, become, look, prove, remain, seem, sound, stay
+ adjective: feel, get, go, grow, smell, taste, turn
+ noun phrase: make
There are also some idiomatic expressions which are a linking verb + complement, e.g. burn low, come good, come true, fall asleep, fall ill, fall silent, ring true, run dry, run wild, wear thin.
We can use some linking verbs in other patterns.
Linking: Your garden **looks nice.**
Intransitive: We **looked** at the exhibition.
a After seem, appear, look and sound, we use to be when the complement is a noun phrase
identifying the subject.
The woman **seemed to be** Lord Melbury's secretary.
NOT The woman seemed Lord Melbury's secretary.
But we can leave out to be when the noun phrase gives other kinds of information.
The woman **seemed** (to be) a real expert.
b There is a special pattern where a complement occurs with an action verb, not a linking verb.
We **arrived exhausted.**
He walked away **a free man.**
I **came** home **really tired** one evening.
We use this pattern in a very small number of contexts. We can express the same meaning in two clauses: We were exhausted when we arrived.

Linking verb + adverbial

An adverbial can be an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase or noun phrase. An adverbial after a linking verb relates to the subject. It often expresses place or time, but it can have other meanings.
The coat **was here.** The conference **is every year.**
The drawings **lay on the table. I'm on a diet.**
Joan Collins **lives in style.** The parcel **went by air.**
Linking verbs with adverbials are be, go, lie, live, sit, stand and stay.

Give, send etc

Verbs like give and send can have two objects, or they can have an object and an adverbial. There are some examples in this conversation, which takes place in a department store.
Customer: I've bought these sweaters, and I'm taking them home to Brazil.
I understand I can claim back the tax I pay.
Clerk: That's right. Have you filled in a form?
Customer: Yes, and I've got the receipts here.
Clerk: Right. Now, when you go through British Customs, you **give the customs officer the form** with the receipts.
Customer: I **give the form to the Customs** when I leave Britain?
Clerk: That's right. They'll **give you one copy** back and keep one themselves.
Customer: Uh-huh.

Clerk: Now I'll **give you this envelope.** You **send the copy** back **to us** in the
envelope.
Customer: I post it to you.

Notes

Clerk: That's right.
Customer: And how do I get the money?
Clerk: Oh, we **send you a cheque.** We'll **send it** off **to you** straight away.

Two objects

When the verb has two objects, the first is the indirect object and the second is the direct object.
Indirect object Direct object
You give the customs officer the form.
We send you a cheque.
The man bought the woman a diamond ring.
I can reserve you a seat.
Here the indirect object refers to the person receiving something, and the direct object refers to the thing that is given.

Object + adverbial

Instead of an indirect object, we can use a prepositional phrase with to or for. Direct object Prepositional phrase
I give the form **to** the Customs.
You send the copy **to** us.
The man bought a diamond ring **for** the woman.
I can reserve a seat **for** you.
The adverbial comes after the object.

Which pattern?

In a clause with give, send etc, there is a choice of pattern between give the customs officer the form and give the form to the customs officer. The choice depends on what information is new. The new information goes at the end of the clause.
I'll give you **this envelope.**
In the conversation Claiming back tax, this envelope is the point of interest, the new information, so it comes at the end. Compare the patterns in these sentences.
He left his children **five million pounds.**
(The amount of money is the point of interest.)
He left all his money to **a dog's home.**
(Who receives the money is the point of interest.)

Pronouns after give, send etc

When there is a pronoun, it usually comes before a phrase with a noun.
We send **you** a cheque.
He had lots of money, but he left **it** to a dogs' home.
When there are two pronouns after the verb, we normally use to or for.
We'll send it off **to** you straight away.
I've got a ticket for Wimbledon. Norman bought it **for** me.

To or for?

Some verbs go with to and some with for.
He handed the receipt **to** the customer.
Tom got drinks **for** everyone.
With to: award, bring, feed, give, grant, hand, leave (in a will), lend, offer, owe, pass, pay, post, promise, read, sell, send, show, take, teach, tell, throw, write.
With for: bring, buy, cook, fetch, find, get, keep, leave, make, order, pick, reserve, save, spare.

Call, put etc

Verb + object + complement

Compare these two kinds of complement.
Subject Subject Object Object
complement complement
The driver was tired. The journey made the driver tired.
He became president. They elected him president.
The subject complement relates to the subject of the clause; • 9. The object complement relates to the object of the clause. In both patterns tired relates to the driver, and president relates to he/him.
Here are some more sentences with an object complement.
The thief thought himself **rather unlucky.** They called the dog **Sasha.**
The court found him **guilty of robbery.** We painted the walls **bright yellow.**
I prefer my soup **hot.**
Here are some verbs in this pattern.
With adjective or noun phrase: believe, call, consider, declare, find, keep, leave, like,
make, paint, prefer, prove, think, want
With adjective: drive, get, hold, pull, push, send, turn
With noun phrase: appoint, elect, name, vote

Verb + object + adverbial

The adverbial in this pattern typically expresses place. The man put the coat **over his arm.** We keep the car **in the garage.** He got the screw **into the hole.** The path led us **through trees.**

Extra adverbials

Look at these clause patterns.
Subject Verb Adverbial
The conference is **every year.**
Subject Verb Object Adverbial
He put the coat **over his arm.**
These adverbials cannot be left out. They are necessary to complete the sentence.
We can add extra adverbials to any of the clause patterns.
At last a coach stopped.
The coach was carrying detectives **on their way home from a conference on crime.**
He had **recently** become a detective inspector.
The conference is every year, **presumably.**

At once the thief gave the inspector his coat.
He **probably** considered himself rather unlucky.
He **casually** put the coat over his arm.
These extra adverbials can be left out. They are not necessary to complete the sentence. For details about the position of adverbials, • 208. An extra adverbial does not affect the word order in the rest of the sentence, and the subject-verb order stays the same.
At last **a coach stopped.**

And and or

We can link two or more phrases with and or or. Here are some examples with noun phrases.
The man and the woman were waiting.
The man, the woman and the child were waiting.
Wednesday or Thursday would be all right.
Wednesday, Thursday or Friday would be all right.
And or or usually comes only once, before the last item.
We can use and and or with other kinds of words and phrases.
It was a **cold and windy** day. (adjective)
He waited **fifteen or twenty** minutes. (number)
The work went **smoothly, quietly and very efficiently.** (adverb phrase)

Phrases in apposition

Two noun phrases are in apposition when one comes after the other and both refer to the same thing.
Everyone visits **the White House, the home of the President. Joseph Conrad, the famous English novelist,** couldn't speak English until he was When the second phrase adds extra information, we use a comma. When the second phrase identifies the first one, we do not use a comma. **The novelist Joseph Conrad** couldn't speak English until he was 4 7. **Pretty 25-year-old secretary Linda Pilkington** has shocked her friends and neighbours. The sentence about Linda is typical of newspaper style. We can also use apposition to add emphasis. This happens in speech, too.
The man is **a fool, a complete idiot.**
Other kinds of phrases can be in apposition.
The place is **miles away, much too far to walk.**
The experts say the painting is **quite valuable, worth a lot of money.**

Statements, questions, imperatives and exclamations

There are four sentence types: statement, question, imperative and exclamation. Sentences can be positive or negative.

Statements

Form

For clause patterns in a statement, •

Use

This conversation contains a number of statements.
Stella: There's a programme about wildlife on the telly tonight.

Adrian: Uh-huh. Well, I might watch it.
Stella: I've got to go out tonight. It's my evening class.
Adrian: Well, I'll video the programme for you.
Stella: Oh, thanks. It's at eight o'clock. BBC2.
Adrian: We can watch it together when you get back.
Stella: OK, I should be back around ten.
The basic use of a statement is to give information: There's a programme about wildlife on the telly tonight. But some statements do more than give information. When Adrian says I'll video the programme for you, he is offering to video it. His statement is an offer to do something, which Stella accepts by thanking him. And We can watch it together is a suggestion to which Stella agrees. There are many different uses of statements. Here are some examples.
Expressing approval: You're doing the right thing.
Expressing sympathy: It was bad luck you didn't pass the exam.
Thanking someone: I'm very grateful.
Asking for information: I need to know your plans.
Giving orders: I want you to try harder.
In some situations we can use either a statement or another sentence type. Compare the statement I need to know your plans, the question What are your plans? and the imperative Tell me about your plans. All these are used to ask for information.

Performative verbs

Some present-simple verbs express the use of the statement, the action it performs.
Promising: I **promise** to be good.
Apologizing: It was my fault. I **apologize.**
Predicting: I **predict** a close game.
Requesting: You are **requested** to vacate your room by 10.00 am.
These are performative verbs: accept, admit, advise, agree, apologize, blame, confess, congratulate, declare, demand, deny, disagree, forbid, forgive, guarantee, insist, object, order, predict, promise, propose, protest, recommend, refuse, request, suggest, thank, warn.
Sometimes we use a modal verb or similar expression. This usually makes the statement less direct and so more tentative, more polite.
Advising: I'**d advise** you to see a solicitor.
Insisting: I **must insist** we keep to the rules.
Informing: I **have to inform** you that you have been unsuccessful.
Some typical examples are: must admit, would advise, would agree, must apologize, must confess, must disagree, can guarantee, have to inform you, must insist, must object, can promise, must protest, would suggest, must warn.

Negative statements

This text contains some negative statements.
In 1818 Mary Shelley wrote a famous book called 'Frankenstein'. But there was **no** monster called Frankenstein, as is popularly believed. Frankenstein was **not** the name of the monster but the name of the person who created the monster. The word

'Frankenstein' is often used to mean 'monster' by people who have **not** read the book.

Another mistake is to talk of 'Doctor Frankenstein'. Frankenstein was **never** a doctor. Mary Shelley's hero did **not** study medicine - he studied science and mathematics at the university of Ingolstadt in Bavaria. There really is a place called Ingolstadt. There is also a place called Frankenstein, which might or might **not** have given the author the idea for the name.

The negative statements correct a mistaken idea, such as the idea that the monster was called Frankenstein. In general, we use negative statements to inform someone that what they might think or expect is not so.

Not with a verb

a In the most basic kind of negative statement, not or n't comes after the (first) auxiliary. We write the auxiliary and n't together as one word. Some people **have not** read the book.

The monster **wasn't** called Frankenstein.

That might or **might not** have given the author the idea for the name.

b There must be an auxiliary before not. In simple tenses we use the auxiliary verb do.

I don't like horror films. NOT I like not horror films.

The hero **did not** study medicine. NOT The hero studied not medicine.

Be on its own also has not/n't after it.

East London **is not** on most tourist maps.

These shoes **aren't** very comfortable.

Look at these forms.

Positive Negative

Full form

Negative

Short form

was called

have read

might have given

like/do like

studied/did study

was **not** called

have **not** read

might **not** have given

do **not** like

did **not** study

wasn't called

haven't read

mightn't have given

don't like

didn't study

We cannot use no to make a negative verb form.

The bus didn't come. NOT The bus no came.

Not in other positions

Notes

Not can come before a word or phrase when the speaker is correcting it.
I ordered tea, **not coffee.**
That's a nice green. ~ It's blue, **not green.**
Is there a meeting today?~ **Not today** - tomorrow.
Not can also come before a noun phrase with an expression of quantity (many) or before a phrase of distance or time.
Not many people have their own aeroplane.
There's a cinema **not far from here.**
The business was explained to me **not long afterwards.**

Double negatives

We do not normally use not/n't or never with another negative word.
I **didn't** see **anyone.** NOT I didn't see no one.
That **will never** happen. NOT That won't never happen.
We've **hardly** started. NOT We haven't hardly started.
In non-standard English, a double negative means the same as a single negative.
I didn't see **no one.** (non-standard)
(= I didn't see anyone./I saw no one.)
In standard English a double negative has a different meaning.
I **didn't** see **no one.** I saw one of my friends. (= I saw someone.)
We can't do nothing. (= We must do something.)

The emphatic negative

We can stress not.
Frankenstein did not study medicine. If we use the short form n't, then we can stress the auxiliary (e.g. did). Frankenstein didn't study medicine. b We can use at all to emphasize a negative. Frankenstein wasn't the name of the monster **at all.**
There was **nowhere at all** to park.
Here are some other phrases with a similar meaning.
The operation was **not** a success **by any means. I'm not in the least** tired.
The project is **not nearly** complete. There is still a long way to go.
Her son's visits were **far from** frequent.
We can use absolutely before no and its compounds.
There was **absolutely nowhere** to park.
An adverbial with a negative meaning can come in front position for extra emphasis. This can happen with phrases containing the negative words no, never, neither, nor, seldom, rarely, hardly and the word only. There is inversion of subject and auxiliary.
At no time did the company break the law.
Compare: The company did not break the law at any time.
Under no circumstances should you travel alone.
Compare: You should not travel alone under any circumstances.
Never in my life have I seen such extraordinary behaviour.
Compare: I have never seen such extraordinary behaviour in my life.
The telephone had been disconnected. **Nor** was there any electricity.
Compare: There wasn't any electricity either.

Seldom did we have any time to ourselves.
Compare: We seldom had any time to ourselves.
Only in summer is it hot enough to sit outside.
Compare: It's only hot enough to sit outside in summer.
The pattern with inversion can sound formal and literary, although no way is informal.
No way am I going to let this happen.

Questions

This is a short introduction to questions. For more details about questions and answers,
Doctor: **Where does it hurt?**
Patient: Just here. When I lift my arm up.
Doctor: **Has this happened before?**
Patient: Well, yes, I do get a pain there sometimes, but it's never been as bad as this.
Doctor: I see. **Could you come over here and lie down, please?**
The most basic use of a question is to ask for information, e.g. Where does it hurt?
~ Just here. But questions can have other uses such as requesting, e.g. Could you come over here, please?
There are wh-questions and yes/no questions. Wh-questions begin with a question word, e.g. where, what. In most questions there is inversion of subject and auxiliary.
Statement Question
It hurts just here. wh-: Where **does it** hurt?
This has happened before. yes/no: **Has this** happened before?

The imperative

Form

The imperative form is the base form of the verb. It is a second-person form. When I say Come in, I mean that you should come in. The negative is do not/don't + base form, and for emphasis we use do + base form. Positive: Come in.
Read the instructions carefully.
Negative: **Do not remove** this book from the library.
Don't make so much fuss.
Emphatic: **Do** be careful.

Use

The basic use of the imperative is to give orders, to get someone to do something.
The speaker expects that the hearer will obey.
Teacher (to pupils): **Get** out your books, please.
Doctor (to patient): Just **keep** still a moment.
Boss (to employee): **Don't tell** anyone about this.
Traffic sign: **Stop.**
But an imperative can sound abrupt. There are other ways of expressing orders.
I want you to just keep still a moment.
You must hand the work in by the weekend.
You mustn't tell anyone about this.

We often make an order less abrupt by expressing it as a request in question form.
Can you get out your books, please?
Could you just keep still a moment?
It is generally safer to use a request form, but the imperative can be used informally between equals.
Give me a hand with these bags.
Hurry up, or we're going to be late.
When an imperative is used to tell someone to be quiet or to go away, it usually sounds abrupt and impolite.
Shut up. **Go** away - I'm busy. **Get** lost.
c If a number of actions are involved, the request form need not be repeated for every action.
Can you get out your books, please? **Open** them at page sixty and **look** at the photo. Then **think** about your reaction to it.

Other uses of the imperative

Slogans and advertisements:
Save the rainforests.
Visit historic Bath.
Suggestions and advice:
Why don't you spend a year working before you go to college? **Take** a year off from
your studies and learn something about the real world.
Warnings and reminders:
Look out! There's a car coming.
Always **switch** off the electricity first.
Don't forget your key.
Instructions and directions:
Select the programme you need by turning the dial to the correct number. **Pull** out
the knob. The light will come on and the machine will start.
Go along here and **turn** left at the lights.
Informal offers and invitations:
Have a chocolate.
Come to lunch with us.
Good wishes:
Have a nice holiday. **Enjoy** yourselves.

Imperative + question tag

After an imperative we can use these tags: will you? won't you? would you? can you? can't you? could you?
a We can use a positive tag after a positive imperative.
Teacher: Get out your books, **will/would/can/could you?**
The meaning is the same as Will you get out your books? but the pattern with the tag is more informal.
A negative tag expresses greater feeling.
Doctor: Keep still, **won't/can't you?**
This suggests that the doctor is especially anxious that the patient should keep still, or annoyed because the patient cannot keep still.
b In warnings, reminders and good wishes, the tag is won't you? after a positive imperative and will you? after a negative.

Have a nice holiday, **won't you?**
Don't forget your key, **will you?**
In offers and invitations the tag is will you? or won't you?
Have a chocolate, **will/won't you?**

Notes

These tags make the sentences more emphatic.

The imperative with a subject

We can mention the subject you when it contrasts with another person.
I'll wait here. **You** go round the back.
You can also make an order emphatic or even aggressive.
You be careful what you're saying.

Let

a Let's (= let us) + base form of the verb expresses a suggestion.
It's a lovely day. **Let's** sit outside.
Let's have some coffee (,**shall we?**).
Let's suggests an action by the speaker and the hearer. Let's sit outside means that we should sit outside.
The negative is let's not or don't let's, and for emphasis we use do let's.
Negative: **Let's not** waste any time./**Don't let's** waste any time.
Emphatic: Do let's get started. We've wasted enough time already.
Let me means that the speaker is telling him/herself what to do.
Let me think. Where did I put the letter?
Let me see what's in my diary. **Let me** explain.
Let me think means 'I'm going to think./Give me time to think.'
NOTE
Let can also have the meaning 'allow'.
Oh, you've got some photos. **Let** me see./May I see?
c After let we can put a phrase with a noun.
Let the person who made this mess **clean** it **up.**
Let the voters choose the government they want. **Let them decide.**
Let them decide means 'they should decide'.

Overview: imperative forms

Person Positive Negative Emphatic
FIRST Singular **Let** me **play** a record.
Plural Let's **play** tennis. **Let's not play/ Do let's play** soon.
Don't let's play here.
SECOND **Play** fair. **Don't play** that record. Do **play** a record. + subject You **play** the piano **Don't you play** that now. silly game.
Let the music **play.**

Exclamations

An exclamation is a sentence spoken with emphasis and feeling. We often use a pattern with how or what.

How and what

Compare these patterns.
Question: How warm **is the water?**
Exclamation: How warm **the water is!**
The exclamation means that the water is very warm. It expresses the speaker's

feeling about the degree of warmth.
After how there can be an adjective or adverb.
How lucky you are! **How quickly** the time passed!
How can also modify a verb.
How we laughed!
After what there can be a noun phrase with a/an or without an article.
What a journey we had! **What idiots** we've been!
The noun phrase often has an adjective.
What a **stupid** mistake you made! **What lovely** flowers these are!
An exclamation can also be just a phrase with how or what.
How lucky! **What** a **journey! What** lovely flowers!

Other exclamations

Any phrase or short sentence can be an exclamation.
Oh no! Lovely! You idiot! Stop! Look out! Oh, my God!
There is usually a greater rise or fall of the voice than in other types of sentences. In writing we use an exclamation mark (!).

Exclamations with a negative question form

Some exclamations have the form of a negative question. The voice rises then falls.**Aren't** you lucky! (= How lucky you are!) **Didn't** we laugh! (= How we laughed!)

Questions and answers

The use of questions

BUYING A TRAIN TICKET
Travel agent: **Can I help you?**
Customer: **Do you sell rail tickets?**
Travel agent: Yes, certainly.
Customer: I need a return ticket from Bristol to Paddington.
Travel agent: **You're travelling when?**
Customer: Tomorrow.
Travel agent: Tomorrow. That's Friday, **isn't it? And when are you coming back?**
Customer: Oh, I'm coming back the same day.
Travel agent: **Are you leaving before ten o'clock?**
Customer: It's cheaper after ten, **is it?**
Travel agent: Yes, it's cheaper if you leave after ten and return after six o'clock.
Customer: **What time is the next train after ten?**
Travel agent: Ten eleven.
Customer: Oh, fine. **Could you tell me how much the cheap ticket is?**
Travel agent: Twenty-one pounds.
Customer: **Can I have one then, please?**
The most basic use of a question is to ask for information.
What time is the next train?~ **Ten eleven.**
But we can use questions in other ways, such as getting people to do things. This happens especially with modal verbs, e.g. can, shall.
Requesting: Can I have one then, please?
Making suggestions: Shall we take the early train?
Offering: Can I help you?

Asking permission: May I take one of these timetables?
There are also 'rhetorical questions', which do not need an answer.
What do you think will happen?~ **Who knows?**
You're always criticizing me, but **have I ever criticized you?**
Fancy meeting you here. It's a small world, **isn't it?**

Inversion in questions

In most questions there is inversion of the subject and auxiliary.
Statement Question
You are leaving today. **Are you** leaving today?
The train has got a buffet. **Has the train** got a buffet?
We can sit here. Where **can we** sit?
If there is more than one auxiliary verb (e.g. could have), then only the first one comes before the subject.
Statement Question
I could have reserved a seat. **Could I** have reserved a seat?
In simple tenses we use the auxiliary verb do.
Statement Question
You like train journeys.
Ox: **You do** like train journeys. **Do you** like train journeys?
They arrived at six.
Or: **They did** arrive at six. **Did they** arrive at six?
Be on its own as an ordinary verb can also come before the subject.
Statement Question
The train was late. **Was the train** late?
My ticket is somewhere. Where **is my** ticket?
I thought something might go wrong. ~ And **did** it?~ I'm afraid so.
For questions without the auxiliary and you,
Leaving already? (= Are you leaving already?)

Yes/no questions and wh-questions

Ayes/no question can be answered yes or no.
Do you sell rail tickets? ~ **Yes,** we do./Certainly.
Will I need to change? ~ No, it's a direct service./I don't think so.
The question begins with an auxiliary (do, will).
A wh-question begins with a question word.
When are you going? **What** shall we do? **How** does this camera work?
There are nine question words: who, whom, what, which, whose, where, when, why and how. For an overview,
For intonation in yes/no and wh-questions,

Wh-questions: more details

A question word can be subject, object, complement or adverbial. Compare the positive statements (in brackets).
Subject: **Who** can give me some help?
(Someone can give me some help.)
Object: **What** will tomorrow bring?
(Tomorrow will bring **something.)**
Complement: **Whose** is this umbrella?
(This umbrella is **someone's.)**
Adverbial: When are you coming back?

(You are coming back **some time.)**
Where is this bus going?
(This bus is going **somewhere.)**
Why did everyone laugh?
(Everyone laughed **for some reason.)**
When a question word is the subject, there is no inversion. The word order is the same as in a statement.
Who can give me some help?
But when a question word is the object, complement or adverbial (not the subject), then there is inversion of the subject and auxiliary. For details,
What **will tomorrow** bring? Whose **is this umbrella?**
Wh-questions: more details
Compare who as subject and object of a question.
Subject: **Who invited** you to the party? ~ Laura did.
(Someone invited you.)
Object: **Who did** you **invite** to the party? ~ Oh, lots of people.
(You invited **someone.)**
Who **saw** the detective?
(Someone saw him.)
Who **did** the detective **see?**
(He saw someone.)
Here are some more examples of question words as subject.
What happens next? **Which** came first, the chicken or the egg?
Who is organizing the trip? **Which biscuits** taste the best?
Whose cat has been run over, did you say?
How many people know the secret?
A question word can also be the object of a preposition.
Who was the parcel addressed **to?**
(The parcel was addressed **to someone.)**
Where does Maria come **from?**
(Maria comes **from somewhere.)**
What are young people interested **in** these days?
(Young people are interested **in something** these days.)
In informal questions, the preposition comes in the same place as in a statement (addressed **to,** come **from).** But in more formal English it can come before the question word.
To whom was the parcel addressed?
On what evidence was it decided to make the arrest?

Question words: more details

What, which and whose before a noun

These question words can be pronouns, without a noun after them.
What will be the best train?
There are lots of books here. **Which** do you want?
Whose was the idea?
They can also be determiners, coming before a noun.
What train will you catch? (You will catch **a train.)**
Which books do you want? (You want **some of the books.)**
Whose idea was it? **(It** was **someone's idea.)**
Which can come before one/ones or before an of-phrase.

Which ones do you want? **Which of these postcards** shall we send to Angela?

The use of who, what and which

Who always refers to people. Which can refer to people or to something not human. What refers mostly to something not human, but it can refer to people when it comes before a noun.

Who is your maths teacher?

Which teacher do you have? **Which** supermarket is cheapest?

What idiot wrote this? **What** book are you reading?

What do you do in the evenings?

Who is a pronoun and cannot come before a noun or before an of-phrase. NOT Who teacher do you have? and NOT Who of the teachers do you have? There is a difference in meaning between what and which.

What do you do in your spare time? **What** sport do you play?

Which is the best route? **Which** way do we go now?

We use what when there is an indefinite (and often large) number of possible answers. We use which when there is a definite (and often small) number of possible answers. What relates to the indefinite word a, and which to the definite word the.

What sport...? (a sport)

(Tennis, or golf, or football, or...)

Which way...? (one of **the** ways)

(Right or left?)

The choice of what or which depends on how the speaker sees the number of possible answers. In some contexts either word is possible.

What newspaper/Which newspaper do you read?

What parts/Which parts of France have you visited?

What size/Which size do you take?

Question words: more details

Who and whom

When who is the object, we can use whom instead.

Who/Whom did you invite?

Whom is formal and rather old-fashioned. Who is more common in everyday speech. When who/whom is the object of a preposition, there are two possible patterns.

Who were you talking to?

To whom were you talking?

The pattern with whom is formal.

How

a How can express means or manner.

How do you open this bottle? (You open this bottle **somehow.)**

How did the children behave? (The children behaved **well/badly.)**

When it expresses degree, how can come before an adjective or adverb.

How wide is the river? **(20 metres/30 metres** wide?)

How soon can you let me know? **(very soon/quite** soon?)

We also use how as an adjective or adverb in friendly enquiries about someone's well-being, enjoyment or progress.
How are you? ~ Fine, thanks.
How did you like the party?— Oh, it was great.
How are you getting on at college? ~ Fine, thanks. I'm enjoying it.

A special pattern with why

Why (not) can come before a noun phrase or a verb.
Why the panic? (= What is the reason for the panic?)
Look at our prices - **why** pay more? (= Why should you pay more?)
Why not stay for a while? (= Why don't you stay for a while?)

Modifying a question word

We can use an adverb to modify a question word or phrase.
When **exactly** are you coming back?
Just what will tomorrow bring?
About how many people live here?
Else has the meaning 'other'.
What **else** should I do? (= What other things ... ?)
Who **else** did you invite? (= What other people ... ?)
We can emphasize the question by using on earth.
What on earth will tomorrow bring?
We can also use ever.
What ever/Whatever can the matter be?
How ever/However did you manage to find us?
Who ever/Whoever invited that awful man?
This means that the speaker has no idea what the answer is. The emphasis often expresses surprise. The speaker is surprised that someone invited that awful man.

Question phrases

What and how can combine with other words to form phrases.
What can come before a noun.
What time is the next train?~ Ten eleven.
What colour shirt was he wearing? ~ Blue, I think.
What kind of/type of/sort of computer have you got? ~ Oh, it's just a desktop machine.
What make is your car? ~ It's a BMW.
We use what about/how about to draw attention to something or to make a suggestion.
What about/How about all this rubbish? Who's going to take it away?
What about/How about some lunch? ~ Good idea.
How can come before an adjective or an adverb.
How old is this building? ~ About two hundred years old.
How far did you walk? ~ Miles.
How often does the machine need servicing? ~ Once a year.
How long can you stay? ~ Not long, I'm afraid.
It can also come before many or much.
How many people live in the building? ~ Twelve.
How much is the cheap ticket? ~ Fifteen pounds seventy-five.

Notes

Answering questions

How long is an answer?

Some questions you can answer in a word or phrase, but others need to be answered in one or more complete sentences. Here are some examples from real conversations.

Didn't you hear about the bank robbery? ~ **No**.
I've got a hat. ~ What colour? ~ **Brown.**
Do you like school? ~ **Yes, I do. It's OK.**
You haven't got central heating? ~ **No, we haven't.**
How long do you practise? ~ **About half an hour.**
Why did you sell the car? ~ **It was giving me too much trouble. I was spending more money on it than it was worth spending money on.** How is Lucy? ~ **She's a lot better now. In fact I think she'll be back at school next week.**

It is usually enough to give the relevant piece of information without repeating all the words of the question. There is no need to say No, I didn't hear about the bank robbery, or The hat is brown in answer to these questions.

Yes/no short answers

a We can sometimes answer with a simple yes or no, but English speakers often use a short answer like Yes, I do or No, we haven't. A short answer relates to the subject and auxiliary in the question. The patterns are yes + pronoun + auxiliary and no + pronoun + auxiliary + n't.

Positive Negative
Is it raining? **~ Yes, it is. No, it isn't.**
Have you finished? ~ **Yes, I have. No, I haven't.**
Can we turn right here? ~ **Yes, we can. No, we can't.**

In simple tenses we use the auxiliary do.

Do you play the piano? ~ **Yes, I do.** (NOT Yes I play.)
Did Roger cut the grass ~ **No, he didn't.**

In these examples the question has be on its own, as an ordinary verb.

Is the chemist's open today? ~ **No, it isn't.**
Are you warm enough? ~ **Yes, I am,** thanks.

We very often add relevant information or comment after a simple yes or no or after the short answer.

Were you late? ~ Yes, I **missed the bus.**
Were you late? ~ Yes, I was, I **missed the bus.**
Did Carl find his wallet? ~ No, **unfortunately.**
Did Carl find his wallet? ~ No, he didn't, **unfortunately.**

In some contexts yes/no or a short answer on its own can sound abrupt and not very polite. We can sometimes use another phrase instead of yes or no.

Were you late? ~ **I'm afraid** I was./**Of course** I wasn't.

In a negative short answer the strong form not is formal or emphatic.

Was the scheme a success? ~ No, it was **not.** It was a complete failure.

f We can also use a short answer to agree or disagree with a statement.
Agreeing: These shirts are nice. ~ **Yes, they are.**
The weather doesn't look very good. ~ **No, it doesn't.**
Disagreeing: I posted the letter. ~ **No, you didn't.** It's still here.
We can't afford a car. ~ **Yes, we can,** if we buy it on credit.
We often use a tag after the short answer.
These shirts are nice. — Yes, they are, **aren't they?**

Requests, offers, invitations and suggestions

We cannot usually answer these with just a short answer.
Can I borrow your pen, please? ~ **Sure./Of course.**
Would you like a chocolate? ~ **Yes, please. Thank you.**
Would you like to come to my party? ~ **Yes, I'd love to. Thank you very much.**
Shall we have some lunch? ~ **Good idea./Yes, why not?**
A negative answer to a request or invitation needs some explanation.
Can I borrow your pen ? — **Sorry, I'm using it to fill this form in.**
Would you like to come to my party on Saturday? — **I'm sorry. I'd like to, but I'm going to be away this weekend.**
A short answer (e.g. No, you can't) would sound very abrupt and impolite.

Short answers to who-questions

As When the question word is the subject, we can use a short answer with a subject + auxiliary.
Who's got a hair drier? ~ **Neil has.**
Who filled this crossword in? ~ **I did.**
Which shoes fit best? ~ **These do.**
We can leave out the auxiliary.
Who's got a hair drier? ~ **Neil.**
Who filled this crossword in? ~ Me. • 184(1b)

Pattern A: positive statement + negative tag

This kind of tag asks the hearer to agree that the statement in the main clause is true. It is sometimes obvious that the statement is true. For example, in the conversation both speakers know that it is colder today. The tag (isn't it) is not really a request for information but an invitation to the hearer to continue the conversation.
It's difficult to find your way around this building, **isn't it?~** Yes, I'm always getting lost in here. That was fun, **wasn't it?~** Yes, I really enjoyed it.
When the statement is clearly true, then the speaker uses a falling intonation on the tag.
It's cold, \ isn't it?
But when the speaker is not sure if the statement is true, then the tag is more like a real question, a request for information. The speaker's voice rises on the tag. You have central heating, & don't you? ~ Yes, we do. We're going the right way, & aren't we?~ I hope so.

Notes

Leaving out and replacing words

Avoiding repetition

We sometimes leave out a word or phrase, or we replace it by another word such as a pronoun. Here is part of a real conversation in a shop.

CHOOSING A JACKET

Assistant: There's this rather nice rose pink, or two or three nice blues, burgundy, and here is one that's a very nice colour. I can show it to you in the daylight. And this one runs at sixty-nine ninety-five.

Customer: Are they all the same price?

Assistant: Yes. These are cotton, the best cotton one can get. The best quality. And also a very nice green - I'm afraid I haven't the size fourteen.

Customer: It's a nice colour though.

(from M. Underwood and P. Barr Listeners)

When the customer went into the shop, she asked to look at jackets. While she and the assistant are looking at the jackets, there is no need to repeat the word jacket. It is clear from the situation what the topic of the conversation is.

. . . and here is **one** that's a very nice colour. (= here is **a jacket**...)

I can show **it** to you in the daylight. (= ... show **the jacket**...)

These are cotton. (= These **jackets** are ...)

But we sometimes repeat things for emphasis.

There's this rather **nice** rose pink, or two or three **nice** blues, burgundy, and here is one that's a very **nice** colour.

These are **cotton,** the best **cotton** one can get.

The assistant wants to emphasize that the colours are all nice and that the material is cotton. Repeating words in conversation can sometimes make things easier to express and to understand. 3 Sometimes the words that are left out or replaced come later, not earlier.

If you want to, you can pay by credit card.

(= If you want to **pay by credit card,**...)

After **she** had had a cup of tea, Phyllis felt much better.

(= After **Phyllis** had had...)

Here she refers forward to Phyllis, which comes later in the sentence.

Leaving out words after the auxiliary

1 A sentence can end with an auxiliary if the meaning is clear from the context.

I'm getting old. ~ Yes, I'm afraid you **are.**

Kate hadn't brought an umbrella. She was pleased to see that Sue **had.**

I don't want to answer this letter, but perhaps I **should.**

Can you get satellite TV? We **can.**

If the verb is in a simple tense, we use a form of do.

I don't enjoy parties as much as my wife **does.**

We can also end a sentence with the ordinary verb be.

It's a nice colour. At least, I think it **is.**

The stress can be on the auxiliary or the subject, whichever is the new information.

Yes, I'm afraid you 'are. (emphasis on the fact)
She was pleased to see that 'Sue had. (emphasis on the person)
NOTE The auxiliary cannot be a short form or weak form.
NOT She was pleased to see that Sue'd-.
Usually everything after the auxiliary is left out.
I'm getting old. ~ Yes, I'm afraid you are.
After are we leave out getting old. But there are some exceptions to this.
a We do not leave out not/n't.
What did you have for breakfast? ~ I **didn't.** I'm not eating today.
b Sometimes we have to use two auxiliary verbs. When the first is a new word, we cannot leave out the second.
Have the team won?~ Well, everyone's smiling, so they **must have.**
I don't know if Tom is still waiting. He **might be.**
When will the room be cleaned? ~ It just **has been.**
Here must, might and has are not in the previous sentence.
But when the two auxiliaries are both in the previous sentence, then we can leave out the second.
The corridor hasn't been cleaned, but the room **has (been).**
You could have hurt yourself. ~ Yes, I **could (have).**
c In British English do is sometimes used after an auxiliary.
I don't want to answer this letter, but perhaps I should (do).
Have the team won?~ Well, everyone's smiling, so they must have **(done).**
Here do = answer the letter, and done = won.
There can be an adverbial or a tag.
It's a nice colour though. ~ Yes, it is, **isn't it?**
Is there a market today? ~ I don't know. There was **yesterday.**
Here a market is left out of the answer, but yesterday's new information.
A short question consists of an auxiliary + subject.
I've seen the film before. **Have you?~** No, I haven't.
I wanted Helen to pass her test. ~ And **did she? ~** Yes.
Here it is clear from the context that And did she? = And did she pass her test?

Leaving out an infinitive clause

When there is no need to repeat a to-infinitive clause, we can leave it out.
To stands for the whole clause.
Would you like to join us for lunch? ~ Yes, I'd love **to.**
Jane got the job, although she didn't expect **to.**
You've switched the machine off. I told you not **to,** didn't I?
I haven't washed up yet, but I'm going **to.**
But we repeat an auxiliary after to.
I haven't done as much work today as I'd like **to have.**
Jane was chosen for the job, although she didn't expect **to be.**

Leaving out words at the beginning of a sentence

Sometimes we can also leave out to.
I don't work as hard as I ought (to).
Take one of these brochures if you want (to).

We usually leave out to after an adjective.
We need people to serve refreshments. Are you willing?
We can also leave out a bare infinitive (without to).
I wanted to borrow Tim's cassettes, but he wouldn't let me.
(= ... let me **borrow his cassettes.)**
We can go somewhere else if you'd rather.
(= ... if you'd rather **go somewhere else.)**

Leaving out words after a question word

We can leave out the words after a question word or phrase rather than repeat them.
The road is closed to traffic. No one knows **why.**
I'm going to the dentist this afternoon. ~ Oh, **what time?**
I put the certificate somewhere, and now I can't remember **where.**
When the question word is the subject, the auxiliary can come after it.
Something rather strange has happened. ~ What (has)?

Leaving out the verb

When there are two sentences with the same pattern and the same verb, then we do not need to repeat the verb. The new warehouse contains furniture and the old one electrical goods.
(= ... and the old one **contains** electrical goods.)
Everton have played ten games but Liverpool only eight.
(= ... but Liverpool **have** only **played** eight games.)
This happens only in rather formal English.

Leaving out words at the beginning of a sentence

In informal English we can leave out some kinds of words from the beginning of a sentence if the meaning is clear without them. Ready? ~ Sorry, no. Can't find my car keys. ~ Doesn't matter. We can go in my car. ~ OK. ~ Better get going, or we'll be late.
Ready? means 'Are you ready?', and it is clear that the question refers to the person spoken to. Doesn't matter means 'It doesn't matter', and the meaning is clear without it. The same thing happens in informal writing, for example in postcards.

Statements

We can leave out the subjects I and it.
Can't find my keys. (~ I can't find ...)
Hope you have a good time. (= I hope ...)
Feels colder today. (= It feels colder today.)

Yes/no questions

We can leave out the auxiliary or the ordinary verb be from a yes/no question. Your problem been sorted out? (= **Has** your problem ... ?)
Everything all right? (= Is everything... ?)
We can sometimes leave out both the subject and the auxiliary or the subject and
the ordinary verb be, especially if the subject is you or there.
Tired? (= **Are you** tired?)
Need to borrow money? Just give us a ring. (= Do **you** need ... ?)
Any free seats in here? (= **Are there** any free seats ... ?)

Leaving out a/an and the

We can sometimes leave out these words before the subject.
Cup of tea is what I need. (= **A** cup of tea...)
Television's broken down. (= **The** television ...)

Leaving out an imperative verb

We can sometimes leave out an imperative verb. The verb is usually be or expresses movement.
Careful. (= Be careful.)
This way, please. (= Come this way, please.)

Patterns with so, neither etc

Too, either, so and neither/nor

a After a clause there can be a short addition with too or either. The positive pattern is subject + auxiliary + too. The negative is subject + auxiliary + n't+ either. You're cheating. ~ **You are, too.**
Barbara can't drive, and **her husband can't either.**
In simple tenses we use the auxiliary verb do.
I like chocolate. ~ **I do, too.**
That torch doesn't work. ~ **This one doesn't either.**
We can also use be on its own as an ordinary verb.
I'm tired. ~ **I am, too.**
An addition to a positive statement can also have this pattern with 50.
I like chocolate. ~ So **do** I. You're beautiful. ~ **So are you.**
Children should behave themselves, and **so should adults.**
So here means the same as too.
There is inversion.
NOT I like chocolate. ~ So I do.
For So I do, • (4).
c An addition to a negative statement can also have this pattern with neither or nor.
Barbara can't drive, and **neither/nor can her husband.**
We haven't got a dishwasher. ~ **Neither/Nor have we.**
The ham didn't taste very nice. ~ **Neither/Nor did the eggs.**
Neither and nor mean the same as not... either.
In these examples a negative addition follows a positive statement, and vice versa.
I'm hungry now. ~ Well, I'm **not.**
We haven't got a dishwasher. ~ **We have.**

Do so, do it and do that

Do so and do it refer to an action which is clear from the context. Do so is a little formal.
Anna had often thought of murdering her husband, but she hesitated to actually **do so/do it.**
I wanted to jump, but I just couldn't **do it.**
Here the stress is on do, not on so/it. We are interested in whether or not someone does the action.
When do that refers to an action, the stress is usually on that.
I might murder my husband. ~ Oh, I wouldn't **do that** if I were you.
Here we are interested in or surprised at what kind of action it is.

So and not replacing a clause

So can stand for a whole clause.

Will you be going out? ~ Yes, I expect **so.**

I'm not sure if the shop stays open late, but I think **so.**

Can the machine be repaired?'~ I hope **so.**

Has the committee reached a decision?~ Well, it seems **so.**

I'm travelling round the world. ~ 7s that **so?**

Here I expect so means 'I expect I'll be going out.' We cannot leave out so or use it.

NOT Yes, I expect. and NOT Yes, I expect it.

We can use these verbs and expressions in this pattern with so: be afraid, it appears/appeared, assume, be, believe, do • (2), expect, guess, hope, imagine presume, say, it seems/seemed, suppose, suspect, tell (someone), think.

We do not use know or be sure in this pattern.

The shop stays open late. ~ Yes, I know. NOT Yes, I know so.

~ Are you sure? NOT Are you sure so?

There are two ways of forming a negative pattern.

Negative verb + so: Will you be going out? ~ I don't expect **so.**

Positive verb + not: Is this watch broken?~ I hope **not.**

Some verbs can form the negative with either pattern, e.g. I don't suppose so or

I suppose not. They are appear, believe, say, seem and suppose.

Expect, imagine and think usually form the negative with so. I don't think so is more usual than I think not, which is rather formal. Assume, be afraid, guess, hope, presume and suspect form the negative with not. Is this picture worth a lot of money? ~ I'm afraid **not.**

There's no use waiting any longer. ~ I guess **not.**

With a few verbs, so can come at the beginning of the sentence.

Mark and Susan are good friends. ~ **So it seems./So it appears.**

They're giving away free tickets. Or **so they say,** anyway. e So and not can replace a clause after if.

Do you want your money to work for you? **If so**, you'll be interested in our Super Savers account.

Have you got transport? **If not,** I can give you a lift. We can also use not after the adverbs certainly, of course, probably, perhaps, maybe and possibly.

Did you open my letter? ~ **Certainly not.**

So in short answers

A short answer with so can express agreement. The pattern is so + pronoun + auxiliary or be.

You've made a mistake here. ~ Oh, **so I have.** Thank you.

This pattern has a different meaning to a yes/no short answer.

This glass is cracked. ~ **So it is.** I hadn't noticed.

~ **Yes, it is.** I meant to throw it away.

So it is means here that the speaker notices the crack for the first time.

So, that way and the same

So can replace an adjective after become and remain. The situation is not yet serious, but it may become **so.** (= become **serious)** So is rather formal here. In informal English we use get/stay that way.
The situation isn't serious yet, but it might get **that way.**
We can use so with more or less.
It's generally pretty busy here - **more so** in summer, of course.
The same can replace a phrase or clause already mentioned.
Happy New Year! ~ Thank you. **(The) same** to you.
Monday was beautiful, and Tuesday was **the same.**
The others think we should give up the idea, and I think **the same.**
Do the same can refer to an action already mentioned.
When the mayor lifted his glass to drink, everyone else **did the same.**
(= everyone else lifted their glasses, too)

Some other ways of avoiding repetition

If the meaning is clear from the context, we can leave out a noun after a number or other quantifier, a demonstrative, or a superlative adjective.
It's got one pocket. ~ No, it's got **two,** look.
I've got some chocolate here. Would you like **some?**
How do you like the photos? ~ I think **this** is the **nicest.**
We cannot leave out the whole noun phrase.
NOT I've got some chocolate here. Would you like?
2 In some contexts we can use one/ones. • I wanted a big packet, not a small **one.**
3 We can use a personal pronoun or possessive pronoun instead of a noun phrase. When Monica got the invitation, **she** felt pleased.
I forgot my invitation, but Monica remembered **hers.**
It, this or that can replace a clause.
Terry can't get a job, but **it** doesn't seem to bother him.
(it = that Terry can't get a job)
I hear the shop is closing down. ~ Who told you **that?**
(that = that the shop is closing down)
The adverbs here, there, now and then can replace an expression of place or time. I left the bag on the seat, and when I got back, it wasn't **there.** (= on the seat) When I was young, we didn't have a television. Things were different **then.** (= when I was young)

Special styles

In some special styles of English, words are left out to save space.

1 Signs and labels

A sign or label identifies the thing it is written on or tells us something about it.

Meaning	
On a building	Town Hall 'This is the town hall.'
On a door	Office 'This room is the office.'
On a packet	Automatic dishwasher 'This packet contains automatic powder dishwasher powder.'
On a car	For sale 'This car is for sale.'

2 Newspaper headlines

Alan and the, auxiliary verbs and be are often left out of headlines.
Actor dies (= **An** actor has died.)
PM angry (= **The** Prime Minister **is** angry.)
Six arrested in raid (= Six people **have been** arrested in **a** raid.)

Instructions

The is sometimes left out of instructions. Here is an example from a camera instruction booklet.
Open battery compartment cover by pushing in direction of arrow.
(= Open **the** battery compartment cover by pushing in **the** direction of **the** arrow.)
When an instruction is written on the thing it refers to, then there is often no need
to use the noun.
Handle with care. (on a parcel)
Do not cover. (on a heater)

Postcards and diaries

Some kinds of words can be left out from a postcard or diary to avoid repetition or
to save space. They include I and we, a/an and the, auxiliary verbs, the verb be, and there is/are.
Arrived safely Saturday. Hotel OK, weather marvellous, sun shining. Been sunbathing. Lots to do here. Going on excursion tomorrow.

Note style

English can be written in note style when information must be given as briefly as possible. This information is about Edinburgh University.
Large and diverse university set in heart of historic city. Separate science campus with regular (free) minibus service. Buildings range from historic to high-tech.
Main accommodation in central Halls with wide range of renovated houses and student flats. Accommodation situation improving.
The words left out here are a/an and the, the verb be and there is/are.
We can also use note style when writing down the important parts of what is said, for example at a lecture or meeting.

Information and emphasis

Word order and information

Information in a statement

Imagine each of these statements as the start of a conversation.
(in a cafe) **This coffee** tastes awful.
(at a chemist's) I need something for a headache.
(at a railway station) **The next train** is at half past nine.
In each of these statements, the first phrase is the topic, what it is about. The topic is usually the subject. The speaker is giving information about this coffee, I and the next train. The topic is known or expected in the situation: coffee is what we are drinking, I am in the shop, the next train is what we are going to catch. The new information about the topic usually comes at or near the end of the sentence.

This coffee tastes **awful.**
I need something for **a headache.**
The next train is at **half past nine.**
The point of interest, the important part of the message, is awful, a headache and half past nine. It is also the part of the sentence where the voice rises or falls. For details about intonation,
Each of the statements starts with something known, old information and ends with something new. The listener knows that the speaker is drinking coffee, but he/she doesn't know the speaker's opinion of the coffee: that it tastes awful (not nice).

Information in a text

a In a text, old information usually comes first in the sentence and new information comes later. A subject can be in contrast with something mentioned before.
The towns were expanding rapidly. **The villages,** on the other hand,...
A subject can have an adverbial in front of it. **Previously,** towns had grown naturally. Previously is linked to this period. For more on adverbials in front position, • 49(1). When a sentence starts with something known, it is usually easier to understand. If the link is not clear at first, then the reader has to work harder to understand the meaning. In this example, the word order of the second sentence has been changed. ...in many towns, especially in London, Edinburgh, Bath, Cheltenham and **Brighton.** After 1784, when the Prince of Wales, later King George IV, went to **Brighton** regularly, and later when he built the Royal Pavilion,... The second sentence is now more difficult to read because the link with the previous sentence (Brighton) does not come at the beginning. **between 1700 and 1830 Britain's towns houses... designed three... periods... houses The houses of these periods Brighton This period** covers... **towns** had**... architects** planned... **The houses of these periods** are**... They** can**... Brighton** became...

The subject

The subject often makes a link with the previous sentence.
The man is in prison. **He** stole some jewellery.
There was a break-in. **Some jewellery** was stolen.
The girls did well. **Celia** got the first prize.
There were lots of prizes. **The first prize** went to Celia.
We can often express an idea in different ways, e.g. Celia got the prize./The prize went to Celia. It is best to choose a subject that relates to what went before.
The subject can express ideas such as time and place.
This has been an eventful year for us. **September** saw our move to new offices.
(= We moved to new offices **in September.)**
The house was empty, but **the garage** contained some old chairs.
(= There were some old chairs **in the garage.)**
They're building a new theme park. **It** will attract lots of visitors.
(= Lots of people will visit **it**.)

Sometimes we can use an abstract noun to refer back to the idea in the previous sentence.

Someone threw a stone through the window. **This incident** upset everyone.

Lucy had finally made up her mind. **The decision** had not been easy.

Brian is an impossible person. **His rudeness** puts people off.

The people here have nothing. **Their poverty** is extreme.

Front position

The subject often comes at the beginning of a statement, but not always. We sometimes put another phrase in front position before the subject. We do this to emphasize a phrase or to contrast it with phrases in other sentences. The phrase in front position is more prominent than in its normal position.

An adverbial in front position

This paragraph is about a man who is starting a forbidden love affair. **For a week after this,** life was like a restless dream. On **the next day** she did not appear in the canteen until he was leaving it, the whistle having already blown. **Presumably** she had been changed on to a later shift. They passed each other without a glance. **On the day after that** she was in the canteen at the usual time, but with three other girls and immediately under a telescreen. **Then for three dreadful days** she did not appear at all. The first phrase in the sentence usually relates to something that has gone before. Here the adverbials in front position make the sequence of events clearer. Compare an alternative order.

They passed each other without a glance. She was in the canteen at the usual time **on the day after that...**

This order is possible, but it is more difficult to read. You might not realize at first that the second sentence is about a different day.

Like a restless dream is the point of interest. Its best position is at the end of the sentence. If the adverbial is at the end, the important information is less prominent.

These kinds of adverbial often come in front position.

Time: **On the day after that** she was in the canteen at the usual time.

Linking: The path was stony. **Despite that** we made good progress.

Truth: **Presumably** she had been changed on to a later shift.

Comment: The car was a complete wreck. **Incredibly,** no one was hurt.

And these kinds of adverbial can be in front position for contrast or emphasis.

Place: It was warm and comfortable in the little cottage. **Outside,** it was getting dark.

Manner: **Slowly** the sun sank into the Pacific.

Frequency: Everyone shops at the big supermarket now. **Quite often** the little shop is empty for half an hour at a time.

An object or complement in front position

We can sometimes put an object in front position, especially when it makes a link or a contrast with what has gone before.

Dogs I love, but **cats** I can't stand.

Jason deals with the post every morning. **The routine letters** he answers
himself. **The rest** he passes on to the boss.
There is no inversion. NOT Dogs love I.
b We can also sometimes put a complement in front position.
They enjoyed the holiday. **Best of all** was the constant sunshine.
The scheme has many good points. **An advantage** is the low cost.
Here the subject (the low cost) is the important information and comes at the end.

Inversion after an adverbial

a In this sentence the pattern is subject + verb + adverbial of place. A furniture van was outside the house. When the adverbial of place is in front position, there is inversion of the subject and the ordinary verb be. Alan walked along Elmdale Avenue and found number sixteen without difficulty. **Outside the house was a furniture van.**
The adverbial (outside the house) is in front position to link with what has gone before. The new information (a furniture van) comes at the end of the sentence. We can do the same with other verbs of place and movement, e.g. come, go, lie, sit, stand.
The room contained a table and four chairs. **On the table lay a newspaper.** The palace is heavily guarded. Because **inside its walls sit the European leaders.** With such verbs, a pattern without inversion is possible but less usual. On the table a newspaper lay.
There is no inversion with most other kinds of verbs. Outside the house **two women were talking.**
NOT Outside the house were talking two women. We can use here and there in front position to draw attention to something in the situation.

The use of there

The verb be does not usually have a subject with a/an or some. A sentence like A Chinese restaurant is round the corner is possible but unusual. A phrase with a/an is usually new information, and so it comes later in the sentence.
Where can we eat? ~ **There's** a Chinese restaurant round the corner.
We put therein the subject position so that a Chinese restaurant can come after the verb. There + be expresses the idea that something exists.

There + be: more details

We use the pattern in sentences with adverbials of place, time and other meanings. There was a furniture van **outside the house.**
There's a concert **next** week.
There are some letters **for you.**
We can use there + be without an adverbial. This happens with nouns expressing a situation or event.
I'm afraid there's a problem. (= A problem **exists.)**
There's been an accident. (= An accident has **happened.)**
We normally use there + be before a noun phrase which is new information. This noun phrase has an indefinite meaning. It can have a/an, some, any, no or a number, or it can be a noun on its own. It

can also have one of these quantifiers: a lot of/lots of many, much, few, little; a good/great deal of, a number of, several; more, another, other, others; enough, plenty of.

There are **some** drawing-pins in my desk.

There are **seven** days in a week.

There was dust everywhere.

There's far too **much** traffic on the roads.

There will be **a number of** tasks to carry out.

Is there any **more** tea in the pot?

There isn't **enough** memory in the computer.

The noun phrase does not usually have the, this/that etc or my/your etc, which refer to definite things known from the context.

We form negatives and questions in the normal way.

There wasn't a van outside the house.

Are there any letters for me?

We can use there in a question tag.

There's a concert next week, isn't **there?**

After there, the verb agrees with its complement. (But • 153(6) Note.)

There **is a letter /** There **are some letters** for you.

There was a van **there** , outside the house. pronounced

There is not stressed and is normally spoken in its weak form subject there is not the same as the adverb there (= in that place). The adverb is (like the).

There can also be the subject of an infinitive or ing-form.

I didn't expect **there** to be such a crowd.

The village is very isolated, **there** being no bus service.

But this is rather literary. A finite clause is more usual.

/ didn't expect (that) **there would be** such a crowd. The village is very isolated because **there's** no bus service.

There + be with relative clauses

We can put an active or passive participle after the noun phrase.

There was a van **blocking** the road.

(= A van was blocking the road.)

There was a van **parked** outside the house.

(= A van was parked outside the house.)

But we use a finite relative clause for a single action.

There was a noise **that woke** me up.

We also use a finite clause when the pronoun is not the subject.

There's a small matter **which we need** to discuss.

There with other verbs

We use the subject there mostly with the verb be. Some other verbs are possible, but only in a formal or literary style.

On top of the hill **there stands** an ancient church tower.

There now **follows** a party political broadcast.

The next day **there occurred** a strange incident.

Verbs in this pattern are: arise, arrive, come, emerge, enter, exist, follow, lie, live, occur, remain, result, sit, stand, take place.

The empty subject it

A clause like to make new friends or that so few people came can be the subject of a sentence, but this is not very usual. Instead, we normally use it as subject, and the clause comes later in the sentence.
,
It's difficult to make new friends.
(= To make new friends is difficult.)
It was a pity so few people came.
(= That so few people came was a pity.)
It amazes me how much money some people earn.
(= How much money some people earn amazes me.)
Because the clause is long, it comes more naturally at the end of the sentence than at the beginning. With a gerund clause we use both patterns.
Making new friends is difficult./**It's** difficult making new friends.
It can also be an empty object in the pattern subject + verb + it + complement + clause.
I find **it** difficult to make new friends.
We all thought **it** a pity so few people came.
The government has made **it** clear that no money will be available.
c It can also be an empty subject before seem, appear, happen, chance, turn out and prove.
It seems the phone is out of order.
(= The phone seems to be out of order.)
It happened that I had my camera with me at the time.
(= I happened to have my camera with me at the time.)
This pattern with it is a little formal.
There is also the pattern it looks/seems as if/as though.
It looks as if we're going to get some snow.
For It is said that..., •
d We can use it+ be before a phrase in order to emphasize it. •
It's the phone (not the doorbell) that's out of order.
It can also refer to the environment, the weather, the time or distance.
It's getting dark. **It** was cold yesterday.
Is it five o'clock yet? **It's** only a short walk to the beach.

There or it?

There + be expresses the fact that something exists or happens. It + be identifies ordescribes something, says what it is or what it is like. We use there with a noun phrase of indefinite meaning, e.g. **a** young lady, something. It refers to something definite, e.g. **the** young lady, something known in the situation. It can also refer forward to a clause. there it
There's a young lady at the door. It's Lorraine.
(= A young lady is at the door.) (= **The** young lady is Lorraine.)
There's a wind today. Yes, **it's** windy.
(= A wind is blowing.) (= **The** weather is windy.)
There weren't any classes. **It** was Saturday.
(= No classes took place.) (= **The** day was Saturday.)

There isn't any truth in the story. **It** isn't true what they say.
(= The story has no truth in it). (= **What they say** isn't true.)

Emphasis

Emphatic stress

We can put emphatic stress on a word to contrast it with something else.
Are all the practices going to be on Tuesdays? ~ No, they're going to be on Thursdays. I wanted plain paper, not ruled.
b We can also use emphatic stress to give extra force to a word expressing an extreme quality or feeling.
I've got a terrible memory. The talk was extremely interesting.
It's a huge building. I'd love a cup of coffee.

The emphatic form of the verb

a We can stress the auxiliary or the ordinary verb be. You can dial direct to Brazil. Carlos said you couldn't. I haven't taken your calculator, I tell you. I haven't touched it.
Are you tired? ~ Yes, I am. I'm exhausted.
In a simple tense we use the auxiliary do.
I **do** want to be in the orchestra. The garden **does** look nice.
I **did** post the letter. I'm absolutely certain.
Do you want to fly in a balloon? ~ No, I **don't.** The idea terrifies me.
The emphatic forms emphasize the positive or negative meaning. In the conversation Music practice Emma is emphatic that yes, she wants to be in the orchestra. But sometimes the form emphasizes another part of the meaning rather than yes or no.
We might go away for the weekend. We haven't decided definitely.
(It is possible, not certain.)
I did have a personal organizer, but I lost it.
(in the past, not now)

The pattern with it

In the conversation Music practice, Susan wants to emphasize the identity of the person who told her about the practice.
It **was you** who told me.
The pattern is it + be + phrase + relative clause. The phrase that we want to emphasize (you) comes after be.
Look at this statement about England's football team.
England won the World Cup in 1966.
We can emphasize the subject, object or adverbial.
Subject: **It was England** who won the World Cup in 1966.
Object: **It was the World Cup** (that) England won in 1966.
Adverbial: **It was in 1966** (that) England won the World Cup.
We use who, which or that with the subject. With an object or adverbial we normally use that. (For relative pronouns, •
We can include a phrase with not.
It was England, **not** Germany, who won the World Cup in 1966.
It was in 1966, **not 1970,** that it happened.
When a pronoun comes after be, it is usually in the object form.
It was **me** who told you, remember?
The phrase that we emphasize often relates to what has gone before.

The Sixties was the decade of the Beatles and Swinging London. And **it was in 1966** that England won the World Cup.

The pattern with what

In the conversation Music practice, Susan wants to emphasize that Emma needs a personal organizer (and not anything else).

What you need is **a personal organizer.**

We can emphasize the new information with a what-clause + be. The new information comes after be.

Look at these examples.

A technical fault caused the delay.

The guests played mini-golf after tea.

We can emphasize different parts of the sentence.

What caused the delay was **a technical fault.**

What the guests played after tea was **mini-golf.**

What the guests did after tea was **(to) play mini-golf.**

What happened after tea was **(that) the guests played mini-golf.**

Spoken English and written English

Grammar in speech and writing

A speaker normally uses more words than a writer. For example, Tom repeats some words.

I had one appointment ...**I had** another **one**... **had another one... another one**...

In writing we might express the meaning like this.

I had appointments at nine o'clock, ten o'clock, half past twelve and quarter past four.

Tom uses separate clauses, and this gives him more time to remember the details of what he is saying. It also makes it easier for the listeners to take in the information because it does not come all at once. In writing, more information can be in fewer words.

In speech there are often a number of clauses with and one after the other. **So** I **got**... **and** we... **and** then we... **and** we...

This is less usual in writing.

b There are a number of words and phrases used only or mainly in spoken English. For example, the word well often comes at the beginning of a clause. Well, I'm not quite sure. (hesitating before answering) Well, wasn't that fun! (expressing feelings)

Well, I think I've done enough for today. (changing the topic) There are some vague expressions more typical of speech than writing. For example, a speaker uses you know when unsure of the best way to express something.

I was late for an appointment and I was feeling a bit impatient, **you know.**

Kind of/sort of is used when a word may not be exactly the right one.

There was a **kind of/sort of** sit-in at the college. Some of the students met there to protest about something.

The ribbon **kind of/sort of** slides in here.

The phrase or something makes the meaning more vague.

There was a sit-in **or something** at the college.

Are you drunk **or something?**

In informal speech we can use thing or stuff instead of a more exact word. (of a food mixer) This **thing** isn't working properly.
(of luggage) Put your stuff upstairs.
d The speaker sometimes stops to correct things.

Notes

So I got on the Underground at Green Park at about ten past five, **no, twenty past five.**
...at about ten past five, **I mean** twenty past five.
The speaker can also stop to go back and explain something that was missed out. So I timed it very carefully that I was going to leave at about ten past five – **this was in, er, this was in central London.**
One important difference is that a writer often expresses in a noun phrase what a speaker expresses in a clause.
Written Spoken
the rising cost of petrol ' the cost of petrol is going up' a popular recreation ' lots of people enjoy it'

Stress and intonation

Stress

In speech some words have greater stress than others; they are spoken with greater force.
I'll **'see** you next **'week.**
They've **'built** an e'**nor**mous new '**shop**ping centre.
The stress usually falls on the vocabulary items, the nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, e.g. week, built, enormous. It does not usually fall on the 'grammatical words', e.g. I'll, an. If the word has two or more syllables, there is still only one stressed syllable, e.g. e'**nor**mous.

Intonation

a Syllables with a fall or rise
The voice can rise or fall on a stressed syllable. The greatest movement of the voice is usually on a word near the end of the clause. I'll see you next m week.
They've built an enormous new m shopping centre.
Have we got k time'?
Here the voice falls on week and shopping and rises on time.
The greatest fall or rise is on the new and important information. Which word is important depends on the context. People round here are well off. Our neighbours have just bought a m **caravan.** If you want to know about caravans, ask our neighbours. They've just m **bought** a caravan.
I know someone who's got a caravan. Our m **neighbours** have just bought one. b Intonation in statements and questions These two sentences are the same except for the intonation.
I'll see you next m week.
I'll see you next k week?
The intonation shows that the first sentence is a statement and the second a yes/no question. A falling intonation is normal in a statement. A rising intonation means that the speaker is unsure if something is true or not. A yes/no question asking for information usually has a rising intonation. But a wh-question usually has a

falling Falling intonation because it is not about whether something is true or false.
Yes/no: Will I see you next k week? Do you sell k matches?
Wh-: When will I m see you? What does it m cost?
A fall on a yes/no question sounds abrupt and impatient.
Are you m ready? Come on, hurry up.
A rise on a wh-question sounds tentative.
What are you k doing? Please tell me.
Requests, suggestions, offers etc in the form of ayes/no question often have a falling intonation.
Can you pass me the m salt, please? Could you m wait for us?
The meaning of a tag depends on the intonation. • 34(3)
You'll be here next week, m won't you? (fairly sure)
You'll be here next week, k won't you? (less sure)
c Rising intonation in statements
A rising intonation shows that something is incomplete. The rise is not as great as in ayes/no question.
k Hopefully. (I'll be here next week.)
In k my opinion. (it's quite wrong.)
If you're k ready. (we can go.)
Even in a complete sentence, we can use a rising intonation.
It's a long way to k walk. I like your new k suit.
The meaning here is that the conversation is incomplete. The speaker expects the listener to respond.
It's a long way to k walk. (Do you think we ought to go by car?)
It's a long way to m walk. (I won't walk, and that's final.)
The rising intonation makes the statement more like a question. Compare these
replies. Have you heard the news? ~ k No. (What's happened?)
Have you heard the news? ~ m Yes.
I've got a new job. ~ Oh, k have you? (Where?)
I've got a new job. ~ Oh, m have you?
The fall suggests that the conversation is complete. In this context it sounds uninterested and so rather impolite.

Weak forms and short forms

A weak form is a spoken form such as the pronunciation of am as /m/ instead of /æm/. Weak forms are normal in speech. A short form is a written form, such as 'm instead of am in the sentence I'm sorry. We use short forms in informal writing.
Strong Weak
Spoken /æm/ /m/
Full Short
Written am 'm

Strong and weak forms

a In speech many words have both strong and weak forms. We use the strong form only in very careful speech, or when the word is stressed.

Full forms and short forms

Full form: It is easy to control.
Short form: It's easy to control.

In the short form, we miss out part of a word and use an apostrophe instead. We do not leave a space before the apostrophe. The short form corresponds to the spoken weak form: /itz/ instead of /it iz/. We use short forms in informal writing such as a letter to a friend. They can also be used in direct speech - in a filmscript or play, for example, when speech is written down. Full forms are used in more formal writing.

In short forms we use 'm (= am), 're (= are), 's (= is/has), 've (= have), 'd (= had/would) and n't (= not) in combination with other words. These are the main short forms. Pronoun + auxiliary verb

I'm you're we're they're he's she's it's; I've you've we've they've

I'd you'd he'd she'd we'd they'd; I'll you'll he'll she'll it'll we'll they'll

Here/There/That + auxiliary verb

here's there's there'll there'd that's

Question word + auxiliary verb

who's who'll who'd; what's what'll; where's; when's; how's Auxiliary verb + not

aren't isn't wasn't weren't; haven't hasn't hadn't don't doesn't didn't

won't wouldn't shan't shouldn't

couldn't mightn't mustn't needn't

oughtn't daren't

can't

A short form can also be with a noun, although this is less common than with a pronoun.

The bathroom's cold. This heater'**ll** soon warm it up.

Punctuation

The sentence

A sentence ends with a full stop, a question mark or an exclamation mark.

Punctuation Example

STATEMENT Full stop We've got the best bargains.

IMPERATIVE Full stop Send for our brochure today.

QUESTION Question mark Have you booked a holiday?

EXCLAMATION Exclamation mark What a bargain!

Punctuation between main clauses

a There are a number of ways of punctuating two main clauses. Full stop between separate sentences Shakespeare wrote plays. He also acted on the stage. Semi-colon between separate clauses Shakespeare wrote plays; he also acted on the stage.

Comma between clauses linked by and, but or so

Shakespeare wrote plays, **and** he also acted on the stage.

No punctuation when the verb follows and, but or so

Shakespeare wrote plays **and** acted on the stage.

A full stop or semi-colon shows that there are two separate pieces of information.

A comma or no punctuation shows the meanings as more closely linked.

b Clauses linked by and, but or so can be without a comma, especially if they are short. He wrote plays, and he also acted. He wrote plays and he also acted.

But if there is no linking word, we must put a full stop or semi-colon. NOT He wrote plays, he also acted. c We can use a dash between clauses, but it is rather informal.

Shakespeare wrote plays - he also acted on the stage.
We can use either a dash or a colon before a clause which is an explanation.
The theatre was full - there were several school parties there.
The theatre was full: there were several school parties there.

Punctuation

Sub clauses and phrases

The rules about commas with sub clauses and phrases are not very exact. In general, we can use commas around an adverbial phrase or clause. Commas are more likely around longer phrases. a Adverbials
We can use a comma after an adverbial clause or phrase at the beginning of a sentence.
After the guests had all left, we had to tidy up.
After their departure, we had to tidy up.
Afterwards, we had to tidy up.
The comma is more necessary if the adverbial is long. After a short phrase there is often no comma. **Afterwards** we had to tidy up.
A comma is much less usual when the adverbial comes at the end of the sentence. We had to tidy up **after the guests had left.**
We had to tidy up **afterwards.**
We do not normally use a comma before an infinitive clause of purpose.
Lots of people come here **to look round the market.**
But commas are usual with linking adverbs, truth adverbs and comment adverbs. **Yes,** I have received your letter.
All of us, **as a result,** were feeling pretty tired.
There wasn't much to eat, **however.**
On the whole, the party was a success.
Nothing got broken, **luckily.**
Noun clauses
A noun clause is not separated off by commas. This rule includes indirect speech. It is a fact **that there are more cars in Los Angeles than people.** We know **the earth goes round the sun.**
Everyone was wondering **what to do.**
For direct speech, •
Relative clauses
An identifying relative clause is not separated off.
People **who write plays** sometimes act in them too.
But an adding clause has commas. It can also have dashes or brackets.
Shakespeare, **who wrote many famous plays,** also acted on the stage.
For details about the different kinds of relative clause, • 272(5).
Apposition
We sometimes use commas around a phrase in apposition, but not always.
Irving Berlin, **the famous composer,** couldn't read music.
The composer Irving Berlin couldn't read music.
Phrases which explain

A dash or colon comes before a phrase which explains, which adds the missing
information. Only one American President has been unmarried- **James Buchanan.** The product is available in three colours: **white, green and blue.**
f Lists In a list of more than two noun phrases, we use commas. The last two items are linked by and or or, often without a comma.
The official languages of the United Nations are **Chinese, French, Spanish, Russian (,) and English.**

Direct speech

Direct speech means reporting someone's words by repeating them exactly. In this story a policeman called Hawes wants to question someone. He knocked again, and this time a voice said, 'Who's there?' The voice was pitched very low; he could not tell if it belonged to a man or a woman.
'Charlie?' he said.
'Charlie ain't here right now,' the voice said. 'Who's that, anyway?' 'Police officer,' Hawes said. 'Mind opening the door?' 'Go away,' the voice said. 'I've got a warrant for the arrest of Charles Harrod,' Hawes lied. 'Open the door, or I'll kick it in.' (from Ed McBain Bread)
Direct speech is inside quotation marks, also called 'quotes' or 'inverted commas'. Single quotes are more usual than double ones. 'Police officer,' he said./ "Police officer, he said.
We use a phrase like he said, separated by a comma (or a colon), to identify the speaker. This usually comes after the direct speech, but it can come first. 'Police officer,' Hawes said.
Hawes said, 'Police officer.'/Hawes said: 'Police officer.'
When the direct speech is longer, we can mention the speaker in the middle of it. 'Open the door,' he said, 'or I'll kick it in.'

The hyphen

The rules about when to use a hyphen are not very exact. In general, hyphens are used less in the USA than in Britain. a The hyphen shows that two words belong together. It is usual in compound expressions before a noun. **gale-force** winds a **no-strike** agreement
a **record-breaking** performance the **long-awaited** results
Anglo-Irish talks **out-of-date** attitudes a **ten-mile** walk
a **thirty-year-old** mother of four
But when these words come after the verb, they are usually separate words. winds reaching **gale force** attitudes that are **out of date** b We also use a hyphen in compound numbers below 100 and in fractions. **forty-seven** five hundred and **eighty-nine** one and **three-quarters**
With compounds of two nouns these are the possibilities. One word: motorway Hyphen: motor-scooter Two words: motor car Some compounds can be written more than one way, e.g. phone card/phone-card/ phonecard. Most compounds are written either as one word or as two. If you are unsure, it is safer not to use a hyphen. But we often use hyphens with these types of compound noun.
Noun + gerund, e.g. stamp-collecting, windsurfing Verb + adverb, e.g. take-off, a walk-out
Letter + noun, e.g. an X-ray

We sometimes use a hyphen after a prefix, e.g. non, pre, anti, semi. a **non-violent** protest a **pre-cooked** meal
But there are no exact rules, and we often write such words without a hyphen. **antisocial** attitudes sit in a **semicircle**
We use a hyphen when a word is divided between one line of print or handwriting and the next.
...It is important to **understand**
that the computer...
There are rules about where to divide a word. Some dictionaries mark the places like this: **un-der-stand**.

Capital letters

We use a capital letter in these places, At the beginning of a sentence, For the pronoun I.
With the names of people: Jason Donovan, Agatha Christie. Titles also have a capital: **Doctor** Owen, **Mrs** Whitehouse, **Uncle** William.
With the names of places: Australia, New York, Oxford. When a noun is part of a name, it has a capital letter too: the **River** Aire, the Humber **Bridge,** Fifth Avenue, Paddington **Station.**
With some expressions of time such as the names of days and months: Tuesday, April; special days: New Year's Day, Easter Sunday; historical periods and important events: the Modern Age, the First World War. f With nationality words: a **French** singer, I'm learning **Greek.** With the titles of books, newspapers, films and so on: Animal Farm, The Daily Telegraph.
In most abbreviations which are formed from the first letters of each word in a phrase: the BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation).

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the sentences? Discuss about the elements of sentences.
2. What are the linking words? Give some examples of them.
3. Discuss about the various types of sentences with proper examples
4. What are the rules to convert positive sentence into negative sentences?
5. Describe the rules for the use of “there”.
6. What are the difference between spoken English and writing English?
7. Discuss about the rules for proper punctuation.
8. Define hyphen discuss the rules to apply it.

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

UNIT-2 THE VERB PHRASE

CONTENTS

Notes

Verb forms

If you **leave** valuable articles in a changing room, it **is** quite likely that someone **will steal** them while you **are playing** tennis or whatever. A few years ago, police in a Yorkshire town **were informed** by a local sports club that all kinds of things **kept disappearing** from the men's changing room, and the club **were** anxious **to stop** it. 'This **has gone** on for too long,' **said** the club chairman. The police **took** immediate action. They **installed** a secret video camera so that they **could find** out what **was happening,** and a few days later they **played** back the video at police headquarters, eager **to see** the thief **filmed** in the act. All it **showed,** however, **was** a naked policeman, a member of the club, **looking** for his clothes, which **had been stolen.**

Verbs have the following forms.

	Regular verbs	Irregular verbs
Base form	play	steal find
S-form	plays	steals finds
Past form	played	stole found
Ing-form	playing	stealing finding
Past/passive participle	played	stolen found

2 Some of the verb forms have more than one use.

Base form: Imperative **Play** tennis with me.
Present tense You **play** very well.
Infinitive I'd like to **play.**
S-form: Present tense Simon **plays** very well.
(3rd person singular)
Past form: Past tense . They **played** back the film.
Ing-form: Gerund **Playing** tennis is fun.
Active participle You're **playing** very well.
Past/passive Past participle They've **played** back the film.
participle: Passive participle The film was **played** back.

Finite and non-finite verbs

A finite verb phrase is one that can be the main verb of a sentence. A non-finite verb phrase is an infinitive, gerund or participle.

Finite Non-finite

you **leave** kept **disappearing**

it **is** anxious to **stop**

someone **will steal** see the thief **filmed**

you **are playing**

the police **were informed**

A finite verb phrase can come in a main clause or a sub clause.

The police **took** action.

We were pleased when the police **took** action.

A non-finite verb comes only in a sub clause.

We wanted the police **to take** action.

We approved of the police **taking** action.

We approved of the action **taken** by the police.

Sometimes there are two verb phrases together, a finite one and then a non-finite one.

The police **wanted to take** action.

Things **kept disappearing** from the changing room.

The structure of the verb phrase

In a finite verb phrase there are a number of choices.

Tense: Past or present? It showed or It shows

Modal: Modal or not? They could find or They found

Aspect: Perfect or not? It has gone or It goes

Continuous or not? It was happening or It happened

Voice: Passive or active? They were informed or He informed them

For meanings, •

In the verb phrase there is always an ordinary verb. There may be one or more auxiliaries in front of it. Auxiliary verb(s) Ordinary verb

you **leave** valuable articles

the police **arrived**

someone **will steal** them

this **has gone** on too long

he **was looking** for his clothes

the police **were informed**

the camera **should have worked**

someone **has been taking** things

a man **is being questioned** by police

his clothes **had been stolen**

I must have been dreaming

If there is no auxiliary, the verb is in a simple tense: leave (present simple), arrived (past simple).

Auxiliary verbs come in this order:

modal verb - have - be (continuous) - be (passive)

The auxiliary verb affects the form of the next word, whether the next word is another auxiliary or an ordinary verb.

Modal verb + base form: will **steal,** should **have** worked

have + past participle: has **gone,** has **been** taking, have **worked**

be + active participle: was **looking,** has been **taking**

be + passive participle: were **informed,** had been **stolen**
The first word of the verb phrase is present or past, e.g. leave (present), arrived (past), has (present), was (past). The exception is modal verbs, which do not usually have a tense. Sometimes the first word agrees with the subject: you leave/he leaves.
The (first) auxiliary is important in negatives and questions. In negatives, the auxiliary has not after it.
They **haven't** played the video.
In questions the auxiliary comes before the subject.
Have they played the video?
In simple tenses, the auxiliary is do.
They **didn't** play the video. **Did** they play the video?

Meaning in the verb phrase

Tense

The first word of a finite verb phrase is either present or past. Usually the tenses mean present time and past time, 'now' and 'then'.
Present: I **think** we're going to like it.
We **live** right at the top.
Past: We **heard** about it through a friend.
We **were** getting pretty desperate.

Modal verbs

With modal verbs we can express ideas such as actions being possible or necessary.
We **couldn't** find anywhere. You **must** come and see us.
For the meaning of modal verbs, •

The perfect

These verb phrases have perfect aspect.
We have just **finished** the decorating.
We **have been** there a month now.
We **had been** looking for ages.
The perfect means 'up to now' or 'up to then'. The decorating came to an end in the period leading up to the present time. We can sometimes choose the present perfect or the past simple, depending on
how we see the action. •
We've **finished** the decorating. (in the period up to now)
We **finished** the decorating. (in the past)

The continuous

These verb phrases are continuous (sometimes called 'progressive').
We **are decorating** at the moment.
We had **been looking** for ages.
We **were getting** pretty desperate.
The continuous means 'for a period of time'. We are in the middle of decorating; the search for the flat went on for a period of time. Sometimes the use of the continuous depends on how we see the action. We do not use the continuous if we see the action as complete. Period of time: We had **been looking** for ages.
Complete action: We had **looked** everywhere.
State verbs (e.g. know) are not normally continuous.
For present continuous and simple,

The passive

We use the passive when the subject is not the agent but what the action is directed at.

The flat **was**n't **advertised.**

In the conversation A new flat, Jason chooses a passive sentence here because the flat is the best subject. It relates to what has gone before.

Notes

Action verbs and state verbs

Verbs can express actions or states.

Actions States

Jane **went** to bed. Jane **was** tired.

I'm buying a new briefcase. I **need** a new briefcase.

I **lent** Jeremy five pounds. Jeremy **owes** me five pounds.

An action means something happening, something changing. Action verbs are verbs like do, go, buy, play, stop, take, decorate, say, ask, decide etc. A state means something staying the same. These verbs are state verbs:

adore depend doubt lack owe seem
be deserve envy like own understand
believe desire exist love pity want
belong to despise hate matter possess wish
consist of detest intend mean prefer
contain dislike know need resemble

Action verbs and state verbs

Most action verbs refer to physical actions, but some are verbs of reporting (say) or verbs of thinking (decide). State verbs express meanings such as being, having, opinions and feelings.

We can use action verbs with the continuous, but state verbs are not normally continuous.

We are decorating the flat, but NOT We are owning the flat.

Some state verbs cannot be passive. •

Some verbs have different meanings. One meaning can be an action and another meaning can be a state. Actions States

We're **having** lunch now. We **have** a big kitchen.

(action-'eating') (state-'own')

We're **thinking** about moving. I **think** we ought to move.

(action - 'deciding') (state - 'believe')

Jeff **tasted** the soup. The soup **tasted** like water.

expect/**expecting** trouble **expect** so (= believe)

imagine/**imagining** the result **imagine** so (= believe)

care/**caring** for the sick not **care** what happens

admire/**admiring** the view **admire** someone's courage

(= looking at it with pleasure) (= approve of)

look/**looking** at a picture **look** lovely

smell/**smelling** the powder **smell** strange

appear/**appearing** in a film **appear** perfectly calm

measure/**measuring** the door **measure** two metres

weigh/**weighing** the luggage **weigh** ten kilos

fit/**fitting** a new switch **fit** perfectly

cost/**costing** a project **cost** a lot of money

We can use the continuous with some state verbs if we see something as active thinking or feeling for a period of time, rather than a permanent attitude.
I love holidays. (permanent attitude)
I'm loving every minute of this holiday. (active enjoyment)
Here are some more examples.
How **are** you **liking** the play? ~ Well, it's all right so far.
We **were expecting** visitors. You'**re looking** pleased with yourself.
This holiday **is costing** me a lot. I'**m hoping** to get a job.
Be can be an action verb meaning 'behave'. • 84(3)
The dog **was being** a nuisance, so we shut him out.

Action verbs and state verbs

Some verbs always express states and so cannot be continuous.
At the moment the building **contains** some old machinery.
I know the town quite well now.
These verbs are belong to, consist of, contain, depend on, deserve, desire, know, matter, own, possess, prefer, seem. Hurt, ache and feel can be simple or continuous with little difference in meaning.
My arm **hurt/was hurting. I feel/I'm feeling** depressed.
We often use can and could for perceptions.
I **can see** something under the sofa.
We **could hear** music. 1 **can smell** something burning.
Sam **could feel** the weight of the rucksack.
We do not normally use the continuous. NOT I'm seeing something.
We can use the past simple when the thing that we saw or heard was a complete action.
We **saw** a magnificent sunset.
Tom **heard** the whole story.
They **felt** the building shake.
Smell, taste and feel as action verbs express a deliberate action.
Steve picked up the bottle and **smelted** the milk.
When we arrived, people **were** already **tasting** the wine.
Judy **was feeling** her way in the dark.

Verb tenses and aspects

A finite verb phrase is present tense or past tense. It can also have perfect aspect (have+ past participle) or continuous aspect (be + ing-form). The tenses and aspects can combine in the following ways. **Present continuous and present simple**
We **are playing** cards now.
We **play** in the orchestra every week.
Present perfect and past simple
We have played two games already.
We **played** tennis yesterday.
Past continuous
We **were playing** cards at the time.
Present perfect continuous
We **have been playing** cards all evening.
Past perfect and past perfect continuous
We **had played** the game before then.

We **had been playing** for ages.

OVERVIEW: uses of tenses and aspects

Each of the eight forms above has a different meaning, depending on such things
as the time and length of an action, and how the speaker sees it.

Notes

Present continuous and present simple

Form

Present continuous: Present simple:
present of be + active participle base form/s-form
I **am** read**ing**
you/we/they **are** read**ing** I/you/we/they **read**
he/she it **is** read**ing** he/she/it **reads**
Negative
I **am not** reading
you/we/they **are not** read**ing** I/you/we they **do not read**
he/she/it **is not** read**ing** he/she/it **does not read**
Questions
am I read**ing**?
are you/we/they read**ing**? **do** I/you/we/they **read**?
is he/she it read**ing**? **does** he/she/it **read**?

Present continuous and present simple

In present simple questions and negatives we use do/does and the base form of the verb.
NOT He does not reads and NOT Does he reads?

Use

An action continuing for a period
We use the present continuous for a present action over a period of time, something that we are in the middle of now. The action has started but it hasn't finished yet.
What **are** you **reading**? 'Macbeth'. ~ It'**s raining** now, look.
Hurry up. Your friends **are waiting** for you. I'**m** just **ironing** this shirt.
Some typical time expressions with the present continuous are now, at the moment, at present, just, already and still.
We need not be doing the action at the moment of speaking.
I'**m reading** an interesting book. I can't remember what it's called.
We'd better get home. We'**re decorating** the living-room at the moment.
b A state
We normally use the present simple for a present state: a feeling, opinion or relation.
Mr Adams **loves** Shakespeare. I **think** it's a good idea.
Who **knows** the answer? This book **belongs** to my sister.
Silicon **is** a chemical element. York **lies** on the River Ouse.
Repeated actions
We use the present simple for repeated actions such as routines and habits, things that happen again and again. We see the series of actions as permanent, without end. Bob works in Avonmouth. He usually **drives** to work.
We **do** lots of things in our spare time.
I **don't** often **see** Sarah.

The old man **takes** the dog for a walk every morning.
Typical time expressions with the present simple are always, often, usually,
sometimes, ever/never; every day/week etc; once/twice a week etc; on Friday(s) etc; in the morning(s)/evening(s), at ten o'clock etc.
We also use the present simple for permanent facts, things that always happen.
Food **gives** you energy. Paint **dries** quicker in summer.
But we use the present continuous when a series of actions is temporary, only for a period of time.
My car's off the road. **I'm travelling** to work by bus this week.
We're doing 'Macbeth' in English.
Bob's **working** in Avonmouth at the moment. But they may be moving him to head office in Birmingham.
The present continuous with always
There is a special use of always with the continuous.
They're **always giving** parties, those people next door.
I'm always losing things. I can never find anything.
Mr Adams **is always quoting** bits of Shakespeare.
In this pattern always means 'very often' or 'too often'. Compare these sentences.
Our teacher **always gives** us a test. (= every lesson)
Our teacher **is always giving** us tests. (= very often)
e An instant action
The present simple is also used to describe actions as they happen, for example in a commentary.
Hacker **passes** the ball to Short. Short **moves** inside, but Burley **wins** it back for United.
The speaker sees these actions as instant, happening in a moment. For actions over a period, we use the continuous.
United **are playing** really well now. The crowd **are cheering** them on.
We can also use the present (instead of the past) to tell a story. It makes the action seem more direct, as if happening now.
I'm standing outside the bank, and a man **conies** up to me and **grabs** hold of my arm.
We also use the present for actions in films, plays and books.
Macbeth **murders** the King of Scotland, who **is staying** at his castle.
Verbs of reporting
We can report the written word with a present simple verb. We see the written statement as existing in the present.
It **says/** said in the paper that there's going to be a strike.
The notice **warns** passengers to take care.
The letter **explains** everything.
We can also do this with reports of spoken words that we have heard recently.
Shakespeare is England's greatest writer, Mr Adams **says** I said.
The future
We can use the present continuous to talk about what someone has arranged to do and the present simple for actions and events which are part of a timetable. •

Sadie **is coming** to stay with us next week.
The ferry **gets** into Rotterdam at six o'clock tomorrow morning.
We also use the present simple in some sub clauses of future time. • 77
If you **need** any help tomorrow, let me know.

Present perfect and past simple

Notes

Form

Present perfect: Past simple:
present of have + past participle past form
I/you/we/they **have** open**ed** someone open**ed**
he/she/it **has** open**ed**
Negative
I/you/we/they **have not** open**ed** someone **did not** open
he/she/it **has not** open**ed**
Questions
have I/you/we/they open**ed**? **did** someone **open**?
has he/she/it opened?
Some participles and past forms are irregular, e.g. seen, bought. • 300
The perfect auxiliary is always have.
NOT They arc opened the shop and NOT I am hurt myself.
In past simple questions and negatives we use did and the base form of the verb.
NOT It did not opened and NOT Did it opened?

Use of the present perfect

The present perfect tells us about the past and about the present. We use it for an action in the period leading up to the present.
The shop **has** just **opened**. The visitors **have arrived**.
The post **hasn't come** yet. **Have** you ever **ridden** a horse?
The visitors have arrived means that the visitors are here now.
We can also use the present perfect for repeated actions.
Debbie **has been** to Scotland twice. I**'ve ridden** lots of times.
We**'ve** often **talked** about emigrating.
We can also use the present perfect for states.
I**'ve had** these skis for years. The shop **has been** open a week.
I**'ve** always **known** about you and Diana.
Some typical time expressions with the present perfect are just, recently, lately,
already, before, so far, still, ever/never, today, this morning/evening, for weeks/years,
since 1988. Some of these are also used with the past simple. • (5)

Present perfect and past simple

Use of the past simple

We use the past simple for an action in the past.
The shop **opened** last week. I **bought** some gloves yesterday.
The earthquake **happened** in 1905. **I slept** badly.
When **did** the first Winter Olympics **take** place?
The time of the action (last week) is over.
The past is the normal tense in stories.
Once upon a time a Princess **went** into a wood and **sat** down by a stream.
Some typical time expressions with the past simple are yesterday, this

morning/ evening, last week/year, a week/month ago, that day/afternoon, the other day/week, at eleven o'clock, on Tuesday, in 1990, just, recently, once, earlier, then, next, after that. Some of these are also used with the present perfect. •

Notes

We can also use the past simple for repeated actions.

We **went** to Austria a few times. The children always **played** in the garden.

We can also use the past simple for states.

I **was** younger then. The Romans **had** a huge Empire.

We **stayed** on the Riviera for several weeks.

Present perfect or past simple?

The choice depends on whether the speaker sees the action as related to the present or as in the past.

The shop **has** just **opened.**

The shop **opened** last week.

The two sentences can refer to the same action. The present perfect tells us something about the present: the shop is open now. But the past simple means a finished time (last week). It does not tell us about the present.

Present: The shop **has** just **opened.** (So it's open now.)

Past: The shop **opened** last week. It's doing very well.

The shop **opened** last week. Then it closed again two days later.

Present: The car **has broken** down. (So I have no transport now.)

Past: The car **broke** down. It's still off the road.

The car **broke** down. But luckily we got it going again.

When we use the present perfect for a state, it means that the state still exists now.

If the state is over, we use the past.

I've had these skis for years.

I **had those** skis for years. (Then I sold them.)

I've been here since three o'clock.

I **was** therefrom three o'clock to about five. (Then I left.)

Compare the past simple for an action.

I **bought** these skis years ago. I **arrived** here at three o'clock.

When we use the present perfect for repeated actions, it means that the action may happen again. The past simple means that the series of actions is over.

Gayle **has acted** in more than fifty films. (Her career has continued up to now.)

Gayle **acted** in more than fifty films. (She is dead, or her career is over.)

Look at this news report.

There **has been** a serious accident on the M6. It **happened** at ten o'clock this morning near Preston when a lorry **went** out of control and **collided** with a car...

The present perfect is used to give the fact of the accident and the past simple for details such as when and how it happened. We often use the present perfect to first mention a topic and the past simple for the details.

I've just **been** on a skiing holiday. ~ Oh, where **did** you **go?**

Have you **sent** in your application? ~ Yes, I **sent** it in ages ago.

Adverbials of time with the present perfect and past simple

Some adverbials used with both forms are just, recently, already, once/twice etc, ever/never, today, this morning/week etc and phrases with for and since. For American usage,

a With just and recently there is little difference in meaning.

I've just heard the news./I **just heard** the news.

We've **recently moved** house./We **recently moved** house.

Compare these examples with already.

I've already heard the news. (before now)

I **already knew** before you told me. (before then)

b Once, twice etc with the present perfect means the number of times the action has happened up to now.

We've **been** to Scotland **once/lots of times.**

This is **the third time** my car **has broken** down this month.

With the simple past once usually means 'at a time in the past'.

We **went** to Scotland **once.**

Ever/never with the present perfect means 'in all the time up to now'. With the simple past it refers to a finished period.

Have you **ever visited** our showroom?

Didyou ever visit our old showroom?

We can use this morning, this afternoon and today with the present perfect when they include the present time. When the time is over, we use the past. It **has been** windy **this morning.** (The morning is not yet over.) It **was** windy **this morning.** (It is afternoon or evening.)

Past continuous

'I **was going** home from the pub at quarter to eleven. There was a full moon. I **was walking** over the bridge when I saw the UFO. It was quite low. It was long and thin, shaped like a cigar. It appeared to be made of aluminium. It **was travelling** east to west, towards Warminster. I didn't know what to do. I didn't have a camera of course. I watched it for a minute and then it went behind a cloud.'

Form

Past of be + active participle

I/he/she/it **was** flying

you/we/they **were flying**

Negative Questions

I/he/she/it **was not** flying **was** I/he/she/it flying?

you/we/they **were not flying were** you/we/they flying?

Past continuous

With today there is little difference in meaning.

It **has been** windy **today.** (The day is not yet over.)

It **was** windy **today.** (The day is over.)

Both sentences are spoken late in the day. The second must be in the evening. The speaker sees the day as over. We use the present perfect with this week/month/year when we mean the whole period up to now.

I've **seen** a lot of television **this week.**

We use the simple past for one time during the period.

I **saw** an interesting programme **this week.**

We might say this on Friday about something two or three days earlier.
We often use the negative with phrases of unfinished time.
It hasn't been very warm **today.**
I haven't seen much television **this week.**

Notes

d We often use for and since with the negative present perfect.
I haven't skied for years. /I **haven't skied since** 1988.
We can also use since with a clause.
I haven't skied **since I was twelve.**
Compare the past simple.
I last **skied** years ago/in 1988/ when I was twelve.
We can also use a phrase with for with the past simple to say how long something went on.
I **skied for** hours.

Use

An action over a past period

We use the past continuous for an action over a period of past time, something that we were in the middle of.
At quarter to eleven I **was walking** home.
The UFO **was travelling** east to west.
I wasn't sleeping, so I got up.
I looked into the room. All the old people **were watching** television.
Compare the present continuous and past continuous.
The UFO is travelling west. (It is in the middle of its journey.)
The UFO **was** travelling west. (It **was** in the middle of its journey.)
But for a complete action in the past, we use the past simple.
The UFO **went** behind a cloud.
In these examples the past continuous means an action over a whole period.
The salesman **was travelling** from Monday to Friday.
We **were watching** for UFOs all night. We never went to sleep.
Here we could also use the past simple.
Period of time: He **was travelling** all week. He was very tired.
Complete action: He **travelled** all week. He drove a long way.
b Past continuous and past simple
The period of a past continuous action can include a clock time.
/ was walking home **at quarter to eleven.**
It can also include another action.
/ was walking home **when I saw the UFO.**
Here the speaker sees one action as happening around another. The past continuous is the longer, background action (walking), and the past simple is the shorter, complete action (saw). The shorter action interrupted the longer one. Here are some more examples.
Tim **was washing** his hair when the doorbell **rang.**
I **had** a sudden idea when/while/as I **was waiting** in a traffic queue.
The sun **was shining** when the campers **woke.**
When two actions both went on during the same period of time, we use the past continuous for both.
Tim **was washing** his hair while I **was cleaning** up the kitchen. When one complete action followed another, we use the past simple for both.

Tim **got** up when the doorbell **rang.** (= The doorbell rang and then Tim got up.) c Past states

For a past state we normally use the past simple.

My grandmother **loved** this house.

I **didn't know** what to do.

The UFO **appeared** to be made of aluminium. It **had** a shape like a cigar.

Present perfect continuous

Form

Present of have + been + active participle

I/you/we/they **have been** waiting

he/she/it **has been waiting**

Negative Questions

I/you/we/they **have not been waiting have** I/you/we/they **been** waiting?

he/she/it **has not been waiting has** he/she/it **been** waiting?

Use

We use the present perfect continuous for an action over a period of time up to now, the period leading up to the present.

I've been waiting for three years.

The government **has been cutting** expenditure.

How long **have** you **been using** a wheelchair?

The roof **has been leaking.** The carpet's wet.

The speaker looks back from the present and so uses the perfect.

NOT I wait for three years.

We often use for and since.

We've **been living** here **for** six months/since April.

We can use the present perfect continuous for repeated actions up to now.

David **has been writing** letters to the hospital.

I've been going to evening classes in Arabic.

The speaker sees the actions as a continuing series.

Compare the present perfect for a complete series of actions.

David **has written** to the hospital three times now.

Compare the present perfect continuous and the present perfect for a single action. Period of time: I've **been washing** the car. I'm rather wet. Complete action: **I've washed** the car. It looks a lot cleaner now. The continuous here focuses on the action going on. The present perfect focuses on the result of the action. The choice depends on how the speaker sees the action. When we say how long, we normally use the continuous form. When we say how many, we do not use the continuous.

Tina **has been writing** her report since two o'clock. She's **written** twelve pages.

Now look at these examples.

I'**ve been waiting** here for ages./I'**ve waited** here for ages.

We'**ve been living** here since April/We'**ve lived** here since April.

The continuous is more usual here, but there is little difference in meaning.

We use the present perfect (not the continuous) for a state up to the present.

She **has been** in a wheelchair for three years. I**'ve** always **hated** hospitals.

Past perfect and past perfect continuous

Miranda lay on her bed and stared at the ceiling. She was depressed. Her boyfriend Max **had gone** on holiday with his brother the day before. He **hadn't invited** Miranda to go with him. He **hadn't** even **said** goodbye properly. And everything **had been going** so well. What **had** she **done** wrong?

Form

Past perfect: Past perfect continuous:
had + past participle had been + active participle
someone **had** invited someone **had been** going
Negative
someone **had not** invited someone **had not been going**
Questions
had someone invit**ed**? **had** someone **been going?**

Use of the past perfect

We use the past perfect for an action before a past time.
She **had met** Max six months before. I knew I **had forgotten** something.
By midnight they **had come** to an agreement.
We ran onto the platform, but the train **had** just **gone.**
The paragraph above begins in the past tense. The situation is that Miranda lay on her bed. The writer looks back from the past situation to a time before.
Compare the present perfect and past perfect.
The floor **is** clean. I **have** washed it.
The floor **was** clean. I **had** washed it.
We can also use the past perfect for a state.
They **had been** friends for six months.
Everything **had seemed** fine up to then.
The gunman **had** previously **been** in prison for three years.
NOTE For the past perfect in if-clauses, • 257(6).

Past simple and past perfect

To talk about one action in the past we use the past simple.
This lamp is a new one. I **bought** it last week. NOT I had bought it last week.
We also use the past simple when one action comes straight after another, when someone reacts quickly.
When the shot **rang** out, everyone **threw** themselves to the floor.
To say that someone finished one action and then did something else, we use either when... had done or after... did/had done.
When Miranda **had written** the letter, she went out to post it.
After Miranda **wrote/had written** the letter, she went out to post it.
NOT When Miranda wrote the letter, she went out to post it.
Sometimes the choice of past simple or past perfect can make a difference to the meaning.
When the boss arrived, the meeting **began.**
(The boss arrived and then the meeting began.)
When the boss arrived, the meeting **had begun.**

(The meeting began before the boss arrived.)
When Max **spoke,** Miranda put the phone down.
(= When Max started speaking...)
When Max **had spoken,** Miranda put the phone down.
(= When Max finished speaking...)
We can sometimes use the past perfect after before or until.
The toaster went wrong before it toasted/**had toasted** one piece of bread.
We didn't want to stop until we finished/**had finished** the job.

Use of the past perfect continuous

We use the past perfect continuous for an action over a period up to a past time.
Everything **had been going** so well up to then.
The driver who died in the accident **had been drinking.**
A woman collapsed at the supermarket checkout. She **had been smuggling** out a
frozen chicken under her hat.
Compare the present and past tense.
My hands **are** wet. I **have been washing** the floor.
My hands **were** wet. **I had been washing** the floor.

The past perfect continuous and other past forms

Compare the past perfect continuous and past perfect.
Period of time: **I'd been mowing** the lawn. I was tired.
Complete action: **I'd mown** the lawn. It looked nice.
The past perfect continuous (had been mowing) focuses on the action going on. The past perfect (had mown) focuses on the result of the action. When we say how long, we normally use the continuous form. When we say how many, we do not use the continuous.
The volunteers brought in their collecting boxes at lunch time yesterday. They **had been collecting** money **all morning.** They **had collected hundreds** of pounds. b Compare the past continuous and past perfect continuous. When I saw Debbie, she **was playing** golf. (I saw her in the middle of the game.)
When I saw Debbie, she'd **been playing** golf. (I saw her after the game.)

uses of tenses and aspects

In the middle of an action
I'm watching this comedy.
A temporary routine
I'm working late this week.
A present state
I **like** comedies.
A permanent routine
I **work** late most days.
An action in the period up to the present
I've written the letter.
A series of actions up to the present
I've **played** basketball a few times.
A state up to the present
I've **been** here for a week.
An action in the past

I **wrote** the letter yesterday.
A series of past actions
I played basketball years ago.
A past state

/ **was** there for a week.
An action over a period of past time
It **was raining** at the time.
An action over a period up to the present
It **has been raining** all day.
An action over a period up to a past time
It **had been raining** for hours.
An action before a past time
The rain **had stopped** by then.
A state before a past time
The weather **had been** awful.

The future

This news item is about something in the future. There are different ways of expressing the future.

Will and shall • The cinema **will close** in November.
We **shall close** the doors for the last time.
Be **going to** •
The cinema **is going to close** soon.
Present tense forms •
The cinema **is closing** in November.
The cinema **closes** on November 17th.
Will, be going to or the present continuous?
The choice of form depends on whether we are making a prediction about the future, expressing an intention, or talking about a plan for the future, and so on.
The future continuous
The cinema is sold and **will be closing** in November.
The cinema **is to close** in November, it was announced.
The present simple in a sub clause
It will be a sad day when the cinema **closes.**
Other ways of expressing the future
Mr Dudley **is about to retire.**
He might retire soon.
He **plans to retire** in November.
The future perfect
The cinema **will have been** in business for sixty years.
Looking forward from the past • 80
Mr Dudley **was going to continue** working, but he lost his job.
OVERVIEW: **the future**

Will and shall

1 We use will + base form for the future.
This book **will change** your life. **We'll know** our exam results in August. Cinema goers **will have** to travel ten miles to the nearest cinema. **Will** you still **love** me tomorrow? This town **won't be** the same again. Will has a short form 'II, and will not has a short form won't.

In the first person we can use either will or shall in statements about the future.
The meaning is the same.
I **will be/shall be** at home tomorrow.
We **will have/shall have** another opportunity soon.
Shall is less usual in the USA.
We do not normally use shall with other subjects.
NOT Christine shall be at home tomorrow.
Will often expresses the future as fact, something we cannot control. It expresses a prediction, a definite opinion about the future.
Southern England **will stay** cloudy and windy tonight.
My father **will** probably **be** in hospital for at least two weeks.
We can sometimes use I'll/we'll for an instant decision.
It's raining. I'll **take** an umbrella. I think I'll **have** the soup, please.
We decide more or less as the words are spoken. Compare be going to.
I'll buy some postcards. (I'm deciding now.)
I'm going to buy some postcards. (I've already decided.)
Will sometimes expresses willingness.
Jim **will translate** it for you. He speaks Italian.
I'll sit / I'm willing to sit on the floor. I don't mind.
Won't can express unwillingness or an emphatic refusal.
The doctor **won't come** at this time of night.
I **won't put** up with this nonsense.
We can use I'll/we'll and will/won't you in offers, promises, etc.
Offer: **I'll hold** the door open for you. ~ Oh, thanks.
Promise: (I promise) **I'll do** my best to help you.
Invitation: **Won't you sit** down?
Request: **Will you do** something for me?
7 When we can't decide, we use shall I/we to ask for advice or suggestions.
Where **shall I put** these flowers? ~ I'll get a vase.
What **shall we do** this weekend?
We can also use shall I/we for an offer.
Shall I hold the door open for you? ~ Oh, thanks.
8 We can use you shall for a promise.
You **shall be** the first to know. (I promise).
9 Will is sometimes used in formal orders. It expresses the order as a definite future
action. This emphasizes the authority of the speaker.
You **will leave** the building immediately. Uniform **will be worn.**
Shall is sometimes used for formal rules.
The secretary **shall give** two weeks' notice of such a meeting.

Be going to

We use be going to + base form for a present situation which points to the future. It's ten already. We're **going to** be late. This fence **is going to fall** down soon. We can see from the time that we are going to be late, and we can see from the condition of the fence that it is going to fall down. Be going to expresses a prediction based on these situations.
We can also use be going to for a present intention.

I'm **going to** start my own business. I'm **not going to** live here all my life.
They're **going to build** some old people's flats here.

Notes

Here the intention points to a future action. I'm going to start means that I intend to start/I have decided to start.
For a comparison of be going to and will, •

Present tense forms for the future

We use the present continuous for what someone has arranged to do.
I'm meeting Gavin at the club tonight. What **are** you **doing** tomorrow?
Julie **is going** to Florida.
This suggests that Julie has made arrangements such as buying her ticket.
The meaning is similar to be going to for an intention, and in many contexts we can use either form.
We're **visiting/ We're going to visit** friends at the weekend.
We can sometimes use the present simple for the future, but only for what we see as part of a timetable.
The Cup Final **is** on May 7th. The train **leaves** at 16.40.
We **change** at Birmingham. What time **do** you **arrive** in Helsinki?
We do not use the present simple for decisions or intentions.
NOT I carry that bag for you.
NOT They build some flats here soon.
NOTE For the present simple in sub clauses, • 77.

Will, be going to or the present continuous?

Both will and be going to can express predictions.
It'll rain, I expect. It always rains at weekends.
It's **going to rain.** Look at those clouds.
A prediction with be going to is based on the present situation.
Sometimes we can use either form with little difference in meaning.
One day the sun **will cool** down.
One day the sun **is going to cool** down.
The sentence with be going to suggests that there is some present evidence for the prediction.
We often use will with I'm sure, I think, I expect and probably.
I think we'll have time for a coffee.
There'll **probably** be lots of people at the disco.
We use be going to (not will) when the future action is very close.
Help! I'm going to fall! **I'm going to be** sick!

The future continuous: will be doing

When we talk about intentions, plans and arrangements, we use be going to or the present continuous, but not will.
We're going to eat out tonight. (We have decided to eat out.)
We're **eating** out tonight. (We have arranged to eat out.)
We use will only for an instant decision.
It's hot in here. **I'll open** a window.
Paul is using the kitchen. He's cooking for some friends. ~ Well, we'll **eat** out then.

The future continuous: will be doing

We use will + be + active participle for an action over a period of future time. It means that we will be in the middle of an action. I can't meet you at four. **I'll be working.**

How will I recognize you? ~ I'm fair, six feet tall, and **I'll be wearing** a blue coat.

A huge crowd **will be waiting** when the Queen arrives later today.

Compare the past and future.

I've just had a holiday. This time last week I **was lying** in the sun.

I'm going on holiday. This time next week I'll be **lying** in the sun.

Compare these sentences.

The crowd **will cheer** when the Queen arrives.

(She will arrive and then the crowd will cheer.)

The crowd **will be cheering** when the Queen arrives.

(The crowd will start cheering before she arrives.)

We can also use will be doing for an action which is the result of a routine or arrangement.

I'll be phoning my mother tonight. I always phone her on Fridays.

The Queen **will be arriving** in ten minutes' time.

The postman **will be coming** soon.

The site is to be sold, and so the cinema **will be closing** in November.

The phone call is the result of my regular routine. The Queen's arrival is part of her schedule. The postman's visit is part of his normal working day.

Compare these sentences.

Decision: I think I'll have lunch in the canteen today.

Arrangement: I'm **having** lunch with Alex.

Routine: I'll be **having** lunch in the canteen as usual.

We can use will be doing to ask if someone's plans fit in with our wishes.

Will you **be going** past the post office this morning? ~ Yes, why? ~ Could you post this for me please?

How long will you be using the tennis court? ~ We've booked it until three. You can have it after that.

When will you be marking our test papers? ~ Next week, probably.

Be to

We use be to + base form for an official arrangement.

The Prime Minister **is to visit** Budapest.

The two leaders **are to meet** for talks on a number of issues.

This pattern is often used in news reports.

Be to can also express an order by a person in authority, e.g. a teacher or parent.

The headmaster says you **are to come** at once.

You're **not to stay** up late. No one **is to leave** this building.

This trolley **is not to be removed** from the station.

The present simple in a sub clause

We often use the present simple for future time in a clause with if, when, as, while, before, after, until, by the time and as soon as. This happens when both clauses are about the future.

If we **meet** at seven, we'll have plenty of time.

Notes

Mr Dudley is going to move to the seaside when he **retires.**
Let's wait until the rain **stops.**
By the time you **get** this letter, I'll be in Singapore.
Call me as soon as you **have** any news.
NOT Gall me as soon as you'll have any news.
The same thing happens in relative clauses and noun clauses.
There will be a prize for the person who **scores** the most points.
I'll see that the place **is** left tidy.
We also use the present continuous and present perfect instead of the forms with will.
I'll think of you here when **I'm lying** on the beach next week.
Let's wait until the rain **has stopped.** NOT until the rain will have stopped.
If the main clause has a present-simple verb (e.g. I expect), then we cannot use another present-simple verb for the future.
I expect the rain **will stop** soon.
I keep reminding myself that **I'll be lying** on the beach next week.

Other ways of expressing the future

Be about to etc

a We can use be about to + base form for an action in the near future.
The audience are in their seats, and the performance **is about to start.**
Hurry up. The coach **is about to leave.**
We can also use be on the point of+ gerund.
The company **is on the point of signing** the contract.
We can use be due to + base form for an action which is part of a timetable.
The visitors **are due to arrive** at two.

Modal verbs

Besides will, there are other modal verbs which express the future. We use them to say that something is possible or necessary in the future.
I **can** meet you later. (= I will be able to ...)
There might be a storm. (= There will possibly...)
We **must** post the invitations soon. (= We will have to ...)

Ordinary verbs

There are some ordinary verbs that we can use with a to-infinitive to express intentions and plans for the future.
We've decided to sell our flat. We **intend to move** soon,
Helen **plans to re-train** as a nurse. We've **arranged to visit** the area.

The future perfect: will have done

We can use will + have+ past participle to look back from the future, to talk about something that will be over at a future time.
I'll have finished this book soon. I'm nearly at the end. We don't want to spend all day in the museum. I should think we'll **have seen** enough by lunch-time. Sarah **won't have completed** her studies until she's twenty-five. Our neighbours are moving soon. They'll **have** only **been** here a year.

Looking forward from the past: was going to etc

We can use was/were going to for a past intention or arrangement. Mr Dudley **was going to retire,** but then he found another job. We **were going to watch** the film, but then we forgot about it.

The bus pulled away just as I **was going to get** on it. I was going to means that I intended to.

We can use would as a past form of will.

They set off at daybreak. They **would** reach the camp before nightfall.

George Washington was the first President of a nation that **would become** the richest and most powerful on earth.

Here we look at a past action (reaching the camp) from a time when it was in the future.

We can use would not for past unwillingness, a refusal.

The spokesman **wouldn't answer** any questions.

The car **wouldn't start** this morning.

We can also use be to, be about to etc in the past.

It was the last film at the cinema, which **was to close** the next day.

We had to hurry. The coach **was about to leave.** Phil **was on the point of leaving** when he noticed an attractive girl looking across the room at him.

Be, have and do

Auxiliary verbs and ordinary verbs

In these statements, be and have are auxiliary verbs.

Continuous: I'm **taking** my library books back.

Passive: Books **are lent** for a period of three weeks.

Perfect: I've **finished** this book.

In a statement we do not normally use the auxiliary do. Verbs in the present simple or past simple have no auxiliary.

Simple: I **like** murder stories.

In negatives, questions and some other patterns, we always use an auxiliary. In simple tenses we use the auxiliary do.

be/have do

Negative **I'm not going** to **I don't go** to the library the post office. very often.

Question and **Have** you **finished** Do you **use** the library? ~ short answer this book? ~ Yes, I **have.** Yes, I **do.**

Tag You're reading You like murder stories, this book, **aren't** you? **don't** you?

Addition I've read this book. I enjoyed that book.

~ So **have** I. ~ So **did** I.

Emphasis I **am** enjoying this book. I **do** like murder stories.

Be, have and do can also be ordinary verbs.

It **was** a lovely day. We **had** some sandwiches. (= ate)

I **did** the crossword this morning. (= completed)

The ordinary verbs can be perfect or continuous.

It **has been** a lovely day. We **were having** some sandwiches. (= were eating)

I've done the crossword. (= have completed)

Notes

The ordinary verb be

Be as a linking verb

The ordinary verb be functions as a linking verb.

The world **is** a wonderful place. The prisoners **were** hungry. Are you **being** serious? The boss has **been** out of the office.

For there + be,

Form

Present simple Present continuous

I **am** I **am being**

you/we/they **are** you/we/they **are being**

he/she/it **is** he/she/it **is being**

Past simple Past continuous

I/he/she/it **was** I/he/she/it **was being**

you/we/they **were** you/we/they **were being**

Present perfect

I/you/we/they **have been**

he/she/it **has been**

Past perfect

everyone **had been**

In simple tenses we add n't/not for the negative, and there is inversion of be and

the subject in questions.

This pen **isn't** very good. NOT This pen doesn't be very good.

Were your friends there? NOT Did your friends be there?

Be with the continuous

We can use be with the continuous for behaviour over a period of time.

The neighbours **are being** noisy today. The children **were being** silly.

Compare these two sentences.

You're being stupid. (behaviour for a time)

You're stupid**.** (permanent **quality)**

NOTE

We can use be in the imperative for behaviour.

Be quiet. Don't be silly. Do **be** careful.

Be, lie and stand

We often use be to say where something is.

York **is/lies** on the River Ouse. The building **was/stood** at a busy crossroads. Here lie and stand are more formal and literary than be.

Other uses of be

We can also use be in these contexts.

Events: The match **was** last Saturday.

Identity: Mr Crosby, this **is** my father.

Age: **I'll be** eighteen in November.

Nationality: We're Swedish. We're from/We come from Stockholm.

Jobs: My sister **is** a lawyer.

Have (got)

Possession: Are these bags yours?

Cost: How much **are** these plates/do these plates cost?

Number: Seven plus three is ten.

Qualities: The buildings **are** ugly.

Feelings: Hello. How **are** you?'~ I'**m** fine, thanks.
I'**m** cold. Can we put the fire on?
If we'**re** all hungry, we'd better eat.
Right/wrong: Yes, that'**s** right. I think you'**re** mistaken.
Early/late: We **were** late for the show.

Notes

Gone or been?

We often use been instead of gone. Compare these two sentences.
Tom has **gone** to town. (He won't be back for a while.)
Tom has **been** to town. (He's just got back.)
Gone means 'gone and still away'. Been means 'gone and come back'.
In questions about what places people have visited, we use been.
Have you (ever) **been** to Amsterdam?

Have (got)

The main use of have (got) is to express possession.
I have a car phone./I'**ve got** a car phone.
Mike **has** a small flat./Mike **has got** a small flat.
As well as possession, have (got) expresses other related meanings.
Kate **has (got)** blue eyes. I '**ve (got)** an idea.
The protesters **had (got)** plenty of courage.
Have you **(got)** any brothers or sisters?
I **had (got)** a number of phone calls to make.
I've **(got)** a terrible headache. I **haven't (got)** time to wait.

Form

a Have (got) expresses a state. We do not use it in the continuous.
Present simple
I/you/we/they **have** I/you/we/they **have got**
he/she/it **has** he/she/it **has got**
Past simple
everyone **had** everyone **had got**
Present perfect
I/you/we/they **have had**
he/she/it **has had**
Past perfect
everyone **had had**
b Got is informal, typical of everyday conversation. We can use it in the present simple and past simple, but it is more common in the present than in the past. And it is more common in Britain than in the USA. With have on its own, we usually use a full form. Before got, we can use the short
forms 've, 's or 'd.
Present simple
I **have** the key. (a little formal) I **have got** the key. (informal)
I've the key. (unusual) I've **got** the key. (informal)
Past simple
I **had** the key. (most usual) I **had got** the key. (less usual)
I'd the key. (unusual) I'd **got** the key. (less usual)
There are some patterns where we do not normally use got. We do not use it in the perfect.
I've **had** these shoes for years.

We do not normally use it in the infinitive or the ing-form.
It would be nice **to have** lots of money.
It's pretty depressing **having** no job.
We do not use got in a short answer.

Notes

Have you got your bag? ~ Yes, I **have.**
And we do not normally use got after a modal verb.
You **can have** these magazines if you like.
In negatives and questions we can use have or do as the auxiliary.
Present simple
I **don't have** a key. I **haven't got** a key.
Do you **have** a key? **Have** you **got** a key?
I haven't a key. (a little formal)
Have you a key? (a little formal)
Past simple
I **didn't have** a key. (most usual) I **hadn't got** a key. (less usual)
Did you have a key? (most usual) **Had** you **got** a key? (less usual)
I **hadn't** a key. (less usual)
Had you a key? (less usual)
In the present I don't have and I haven't got are both possible, although Americans normally use I don't have. In the past we normally use did.

The ordinary verb have

Have as an ordinary verb has a number of meanings.
The children **are having** a wonderful time. (= are experiencing)
I've **had** a letter. (= have received)
We'll be having a late lunch. (= will be eating)
I always **have** a beer when I'm watching television. (= drink)
Here have is an action verb and can be continuous (are having).
We use the auxiliary verb do in simple-tense negatives and questions.
We **don't have** breakfast on Sundays.
Did you **have** a good journey?
We cannot use got with the ordinary verb have.
NOT The children have got a wonderful time.

Empty verbs

Compare these sentences.
We often **swim** in the pool.
We often **have a swim** in the pool.
The sentences have a very similar meaning. We can express some actions as a verb (swim) or a verb + object (have a swim). The verb have is empty of meaning. Have is the most common empty verb, but we can also use take, give, make and go. These are all ordinary verbs and can be continuous.
We **were having** a swim.

Verb	Empty verb + object
Leisure activities	
walk	have/take a walk/go for a walk
run	have a run/go for a run
jog	have a jog/go for a jog
ride	have a ridel go for a ride
swim	have a swim/go for a swim
Resting and sleeping	
sit down	have/take a seat
rest	have/take a rest

lie down have a lie-down
sleep have a sleep
Eating and drinking eat have a meal/a snack/something to eat
drink have a drink/something to drink
Washing (yourself) wash have a wash
bath have/take a bath
shower have/take a shower
Speech talk have a talk/a word
chat have a chat
argue have an argument
explain give an explanation
complain make a complaint
suggest make a suggestion
Others act take action
decide make/take a decision
go/travel make a journey/take a trip
guess make/have a guess
laugh/smile give a laugh/smile
look have/take a look
try/attempt have a try/make an attempt
visit pay someone a visit
work do some work
Most expressions with empty verbs mean the complete action. A swim means a period of swimming from start to finish. A walk means a complete journey on foot which we do for pleasure.
Helen jumped in the water and **swam** a few strokes.
Helen went to the pool and **had a swim.**
We missed the bus, so we **walked.**
It was a lovely day so we **went for a walk.**
Compare the use of the adverb and the adjective in these sentences.
Adverb Adjective
I washed **quickly. I** had a **quick** wash.
They argued **passionately.** They had a **passionate** argument.
It is often easier to use the adjective pattern.
I had a **good long** sleep.
This is neater than I slept **well and for a long time.**

The ordinary verb do

We can use do as an ordinary verb.
I've **done** something silly. We **did** the journey in three hours.
What subjects are you **doing?** I'll **do** the potatoes for you.
These are the forms of the ordinary verb do.
Present simple Present continuous
I/you/we/they **do I am doing**
he/she/it **does** you/we/they **are doing**
he/she/it **is doing**
Past simple Past continuous
everyone **did** I/he/she/it **was doing**
you/we/they **were doing**
Present perfect Present perfect continuous
I/you/we/they **have done** I/you/we/they **have been doing**

he/she/it **has done** he/she/it **has been doing**
Past perfect Past perfect continuous
everyone **had done** everyone **had been doing**

Notes

We form negatives and questions in the same way as with other verbs. In simple
tenses we use the auxiliary do.
Tom **doesn't do** chemistry any more.
He **isn't doing** biology now either.
Did you **do** games yesterday afternoon?
What **have** you **been doing** lately?
We can also use the negative imperative don't and the emphatic do before the
ordinary verb.
Don't do anything dangerous.
Your sister **did do** well in the competition, didn't she?
11 BE, HAVE AND **DO** PAGE 112
The ordinary verb do has a number of uses.
We use do for an action when we do not say what the action is. This may be because we do not know or do not want to say.
What are you **doing?** ~ I'm working out this sum.
You can **do** lots of exciting things at Adventure World!
Guess what we **did** yesterday.
b We also use do to mean 'carry out', 'work at', 'study' or 'complete'.
Have you **done** your exercises?
They're **doing** some repairs to the roof.
We **did** the job in an hour.
In informal English we can use do instead of another verb when we are talking about doing a job.
The roof was damaged. They're **doing** it now. (= repairing)
I've **done** the shoes. (= cleaned)
The restaurant **does** Sunday lunches. (= serves)
We can also use do with a gerund. •
Someone ought to **do the washing.**

Do and make

Do and make are both action verbs. (For do, • 88.) Make often means 'produce' or 'create'.
Who **made** this table? We **make** a small profit.
They've **made** a new James Bond film. I was just **making** some tea.
Here are some expressions with do and make.
do your best (= try hard), do business (with someone), do a course, do someone a favour, do good (= help others), do harm, do homework/housework, do a test/an exam, do well (= be successful)
make arrangements, make a (phone) call, make an effort, make an excuse, make a fuss, make love, make a mistake, make a mess, make money, make a noise, make progress, make a speech, make trouble
For make as an empty verb in expressions like make a suggestion, •.
Here are some more uses of do.
What does Jason do? (= What's Jason's job?)
How are you **doing?** (= getting on)
I don't want much for lunch. A sandwich **will do.** (= will be all right)

I **could do with** a coffee. (= want)
We shall probably have to **do without** a holiday. (= not have)
The boss wants to see you. It's something **to do with** the new computer. (= connected with).

Modal verbs

Introduction to modal verbs

A modal verb is always the first word in the verb phrase. It always has the same form and never has an ending such as 5, ingot ed. After a modal verb we put a bare infinitive.
It will be windy. You **should look** after your money.
A modal does not have a to-infinitive after it (except ought).
Like the other auxiliary verbs (be, have and do), modal verbs are important in negatives, questions, tags and so on. A modal verb can have not after it, and it comes before the subject in questions.
Your desk **shouldn't** be untidy.
How **should** I organize my work?
. You should take notes, **shouldn't** you? ~ I suppose I **should.**
We do not use do with a modal. NOT HOW do I should organize my work?
A modal verb does not usually have a tense. It can refer to the present or the future.
Present: We **must** know now. The letter **might** be in my bag.
Future: **We must** know soon. The letter **might** arrive tomorrow.
For the past we use had to, was able to etc, or we use a modal verb + have.
Past: We **had to** know then. The letter **might have** arrived yesterday.
But in some contexts could, would, should and might are past forms of can, will, shall and may.
I **can't** remember the formula. (present)
I **couldn't** remember the formula. (past)
We **may** have problems. (direct speech)
We thought we **might** have problems. (indirect speech)
A modal verb can go with the perfect, the continuous or the passive.
Perfect: I **may have shown** you this before.
Continuous: They **may be showing** the film on television.
Passive: We **may be shown** the results later.
Perfect + continuous: You **must have been dreaming.**
Perfect + passive: The car **must have been stolen.**
There are some expressions with have and be which have very similar meanings to the modal verbs. The main expressions are have to, be able to, be allowed to and be going to.
You **have to** fill in this form. I **was able to** cancel the order.
There are some important differences in the use of modal verbs and these expressions, e.g. must and have to, can/may and be allowed to,; and could and was able to. For will and be going to,; and for be to,
We can use have to, be able to, etc to talk about the past. We **had to** do a test yesterday. NOT We must do a test yesterday. We can also use them in the infinitive and ing-form.
I want **to be allowed to** take part. NOT to may take part
Being able to see properly is important. NOT canning to see

A modal verb does not have an infinitive or ing-form.
c We sometimes put a modal verb in front of have to, be able to etc, or we use two such expressions together.
You **will have to** hurry. I **might be able to** do a little revision.

Notes

We **ought to be allowed to** decide for ourselves.
People **used to have to** wash clothes by hand.
You **aren't going to be able to** finish it in time.
But we cannot use two modals together. NOT You will must hurry.
Some nouns, adjectives and adverbs and ordinary verbs have similar meanings to modal verbs.
There's no **chance** of everything being ready on time.
It's **essential/vital** you keep me informed.
They'll **probably** give us our money back.
The passengers **managed** to scramble to safety.

Necessity: must, have (got) to, needn't and mustn't

Must and have to

When we talk about necessity in the present or the near future, we can use either must or have (got) to. But there is a difference in meaning. We normally use must when the speaker feels the necessity and have to when the necessity is outside the speaker.
You **must** buy your ticket before starting your journey.
I **have to** buy the ticket before I get on the train.
The leaflet uses must because the rule is made by British Rail, and they are the authority. Phil uses have to because the rule is not his, and the necessity results from the situation.
You must... is a way of ordering someone to do something. You have to... is a way of telling them what is necessary in the situation.
You **must** fill in a form. (I'm telling you.)
You **have to** fill in a form. (That's the rule.)
I **must** go on a diet. I'm getting overweight.
I **have to** go on a diet. The doctor has told me to.
We sometimes use must "for things we think are necessary because they are so enjoyable.
You really **must** watch this new Canadian soap opera.
We **must** have lunch together.
Must has no past tense, no perfect or continuous form and no infinitive or ing-form. We use have to instead.
I **had to** pay £15 for this railcard last week.
We've **had to** make a few changes.
I'm having to spend a lot of time travelling.
I wasn't expecting **to have to** look after the children.
It's no fun **having to** stand the whole journey.
You **will have to** pay the full standard single fare.

Have to and have got to

Both have to and have got to express the same meaning: necessity which is outside the speaker.
I **have to** take an exam in June.
I **have got to** take/I've **got to** take an exam in June.

Have to is common in both formal and informal English, but have got to is informal.
We use got only in simple tenses, but have to has all the forms of an ordinary verb. Father was so ill we **were having to** sit up with him night after night.
I don't want **to have to** punish you.
We cannot use got here.
In the past simple had to is more usual than had got to.
I couldn't go to the dance. I **had to** finish my project.
With have to, we use do in negatives and questions.
We **don't have to** pay. **Does** the winner **have to** make a speech?
With have got to, we use have as an auxiliary.
We **haven't got to** pay. **Has** the winner **got to** make a speech?
In past simple negatives and questions we almost always use did... have to, not had... got to.
Did you have to wait long?

No necessity

Needn't and don't have to
We use needn't and don't have to/haven't got to to say that something is unnecessary.
You **need not** always make an appointment.
You **do not** always **have to** make an appointment.
Often we can use either form. But there is a difference similar to the one between must and have (got) to. With needn't, the lack of necessity is felt by the speaker. With don't have to, it results from the situation.
You **needn't** take me to the station. I can walk.
You **don't have to** take me to the station. Alan's giving me a lift.
b Need as an ordinary verb
Need to means the same as have to.
The colours **have to/need to** match.
The figure **doesn't have to/doesn't need to** be exact.
Needn't have done and didn't need to
We use these forms to talk about an unnecessary past action. If something happened which we now know was unnecessary, we usually use needn't have done.
We **needn't have made** these sandwiches. No one's eaten any. (We made them, but it wasn't necessary.)
Didn't need to usually means that the action did not happen.
We **didn't need to** make any sandwiches. We knew that people were bringing
their own. (We didn't make them because it wasn't necessary.)
But we can also use didn't need to for something unnecessary that actually happened.
We **didn't need to** make these sandwiches. No one's eaten any.
We can also use didn't have to.
Fortunately we **didn't have to** pay for the repairs.

Necessity not to do something

We use mustn't to tell someone not to do something.

You **mustn't** forget your railcard. We **mustn't** lose this game. The meaning is the same as Don't forget your railcard. The speaker feels the necessity. Compare You must remember your railcard.

b Mustn't has a different meaning from needn't/don't have to. Compare these sentences.

I **needn't** run. I've got plenty of time.

I **mustn't** run. I've got a weak heart.

c We can use mustn't or may not to forbid something.

Students **must not/may not** use dictionaries in the examination.

Here the speaker or writer is the authority, the person who feels the necessity to stop the use of dictionaries. But if we are talking about rules made by other people, we use can't or be allowed to.

We can't use/We **aren't allowed to** use dictionaries in the exam.

Obligation and advice: should, ought to etc

Should and ought to

We use should and ought to for obligation and advice, to say what is the right thing or the best thing to do.

They **should build/ought to** build more hospitals.

People **shouldn't** leave/oughtn't **to** leave litter all over the place.

You **should** go **I ought to** go to York. It's an interesting place.

I **shouldn't** leave/**oughtn't to** leave things until the last moment.

Who **should** we invite?/ Who **ought** we **to** invite1.

Should and ought to are not as strong as must.

You **should** tour in a group. (It's a good idea to.)

You **must** tour in a group. (It's essential.)

But in formal rules should is sometimes a more polite and less emphatic alternative to must.

Passengers **should** check in at least one hour before departure time.

We can use the continuous or perfect after should and ought to.

I **should be doing** some work really.

You **should have planted** these potatoes last month.

After all the help Guy has had, he **ought to have thanked** you.

The perfect here means that the right action did not happen. Compare had to,

where the action really happened.

I ought to have left a tip.

(Leaving a tip was the right thing to do, but I didn't leave one.)

I **had to** leave a tip.

(It was necessary to leave a tip, so I did leave one.)

Had better

We also use had better to say what is the best thing to do in a particular situation.

You're ill. You **had better** see a doctor, NOT You have better see a doctor.

I'd better tidy this room up.

Had better is stronger than should or ought to, although it is not as strong as must. I'd better tidy up means that I am going to tidy up, because it is the best thing to do. The negative is had better not.

Come on. We'd **better not** waste any time.

Be supposed to

We use be supposed to for what people expect to happen because it is the normal way of doing things or because it has been ordered or arranged.
When you've paid, you're **supposed to** take your receipt to the counter over there. ~ Oh, I see.
Is this food **supposed to** be kept cool? ~ Yes, put it in the fridge. This jacket is **supposed to** have been cleaned, but it looks dirty. You **weren't supposed to** mention my secret. ~ Oh, sorry.
We can also use be supposed to for what people say.
Too much sugar **is supposed to** be bad for you.

Permission: can, could, may, might and be allowed to

Giving and refusing permission

We use can or may to give permission. May is formal and used mainly in writing. You **can** use my phone if you like. Anyone **can** join the club. Any person over 18 years **may/can** apply to join the club. We use the negative forms cannot/can't and may not to refuse permission. I'm afraid you **can't** just walk in here. Customers **may not** bring their own food into this cafe.

Asking permission

We use can, could or may to ask permission.
Can I take your umbrella? ~ Of course you can.
Could I borrow this calculator, please? ~ Well, I need it actually.
May we come in?~ Of course.
Here could means a more distant possibility than can and so is less direct, more tentative. May is rather formal.

Talking about permission

We sometimes talk about permission when we are not giving it or asking for it. To do this, we can use can referring to the present or the future and could referring to the past.
I **can** stay up as late as I like. My parents don't mind.
These yellow lines mean that you **can't** park here.
At one time anyone **could** go and live in the USA.
We cannot use may here because we are not giving or asking permission.
NOT I may stay up late.
We can also use be allowed to.
I'm allowed to stay up as late as I like.
Was Tina **allowed to** leave work early?
You **won't** be allowed to take photos.
Be allowed to means that the permission does not depend on the speaker or the person spoken to. Compare these two sentences.
May we leave early, please? (= Will you allow it?)
Are we **allowed to** leave early? (= Is it allowed?/What is the rule?)
We use be allowed to (not can or may) in the perfect and the infinitive.
Newspapers **have not been allowed to** report what is going on.
I didn't expect **to be allowed to** look round the factory.
In the past, we make a difference between general permission and permission which resulted in an action. For general permission we use could or was/were allowed to.

Notes

Years ago visitors to Stonehenge **could go/were allowed to** go right up to the stones.

For an action that someone did with permission, we use was/were allowed to. The five students **were allowed to** go right up to the stones.

Certainty: will, must and can't

We can use these verbs to say that something is certainly true or untrue.

There's someone at the door. ~ It'll be the milkman. You got up at four o'clock! Well, you **must** be tired.

This **can't** be Roland's textbook. He doesn't do physics. Will expresses a prediction. It means that something is certainly true, even though we cannot see that it is true. Must means that the speaker sees something as necessarily and logically true. Can't means that the speaker sees it as logically impossible for something to be true.

Must and can't are opposites.

The bill **can't** be so much. There **must** be some mistake.

In questions we normally use can or will.

Who **will/can** that be at the door? **Can** it really be true?

But can for possibility has a limited use in statements. • 97(2e)

We can use the continuous or the perfect after will, must and can't.

Where's Carl?~ **He'll be sitting** in a cafe somewhere, I expect.

The bus is ten minutes late. It **must be coming** soon.

This glass is cracked. Someone **must have dropped** it.

I can't have gone to the wrong house. I checked the address.

Compare must have done expressing certainty about the past and had to expressing a past necessity.

This film seems very familiar. I **must have seen** it before.

Everyone had been telling me about the film. I **had to** see it.

But for another meaning of had to, •

Must do is usually a kind of order, a way of telling someone to do something. Must be doing usually means it is logically necessary that something is happening.

You've got exams soon. You **must work.** (order)

Paul isn't at home. He **must be working.** (logical necessity)

We can use would, had to and couldn't when something seemed certain in the past.

There was someone at the door. It **would** be the milkman.

The fingerprints were the husband's, so he **had to** be the murderer.

Harold stared in amazement. It **couldn't** be true!

Probability: should and ought to

We use should and ought to to say that something is probable, either in the present or the future.

They **should** have/**ought to** have our letter by now.

We **should** know/ought **to** know the result soon.

In the negative the usual form is shouldn't.

We **shouldn't** have long to wait.

Should and ought to have the additional meaning 'if all goes well'. We cannot use these verbs for things going wrong.

The train **should** be on time. but NOT The train should be late.

Possibility: may, might, can and could

May and might

We use may and might to say that something is possibly true.
This old picture **may/might** be valuable.
That **may not/might not** be a bad idea.
We can also use may and might for an uncertain prediction or intention.
You **may/might** get stuck in traffic if you don't go early.
I'm not sure, but I **may/might** drive up to London on Saturday.
There is almost no difference in meaning, but may is a little stronger than might.
We do not often use may or might in questions.
Do you think you'll get the job?
We can use the perfect or the continuous after may and might.
I don't know where the paper is. I **may have thrown** it away.
Tina isn't at home. She **may** be **working** late.
I **might be playing** badminton tomorrow.
We can use a statement with might to make a request.
If you're going to the post office, you **might** get some stamps.
Might can also express criticism that something is not done.
You **might** wash up occasionally.
Someone **might** have thanked me for all my trouble.
Could is also possible here.
We use might as well to say that something is the best thing to do, but only because there is no better alternative.
I can't repair this lamp. I **might as well** throw it away.
Do you want to go to this party? ~ Well, I suppose we **might as well.**

Possibility

Can and could

We use can and could to suggest possible future actions.
You **can/could** go on the train, of course.
We **can/could** have a party. ~ Yes, why not?
If we're short of money, I **can/could** sell my jewellery.
Can is stronger than could, which expresses a more distant possibility.
We use can and could in requests. Could is more tentative.
Can/Could you wait a moment, please?
Can/Could I have one of those leaflets, please?
We also use can for an offer.
I **can** lend you a hand. **Can** I give you a lift?
Can and could express only a possibility. They do not mean that something is likely to happen.
We **can/could** have a party. ~ Yes, why not? (suggestion)
We **may/might** have a party. ~ Oh, really? (uncertain intention)
d For something that is possibly true, we use could.
Tina **could** be working late tonight.
The timetable **could** be in this drawer.
You **could** have forgotten to post the letter.
We can also use may or might here, but not can.
For an uncertain prediction about the future, we also use could, may or might but not can.
The motorway **could** be busy tomorrow.

Notes

There is a special use of can to say that something is generally possible.
You **can** make wine from bananas. Smoking **can** damage your health.
Can often has the meaning 'sometimes'.
Housewives **can** feel lonely. (= They sometimes feel lonely.)
The motorway **can** get busy. (= It sometimes gets busy.)
Can't and couldn't express impossibility.
She **can't** be very nice if no one likes her.
You **can't/couldn't** have seen Bob this morning. He's in Uganda.
Compare can't with may not/might not.
This answer **can't** be right. It **must** be wrong.
(= It is impossible for this answer to be right.)
This answer **may not/might not** be right. It **may/might** be wrong.
(= It is possible that this answer isn't right.)

Possibility in the past

May/might/could + perfect refers to something in the past that is possibly true.
Miranda **may have missed** the train.
(= Perhaps Miranda missed the train.)
The train **might have been delayed.**
(= Perhaps the train has been delayed.)
The letter **could have got lost** in the post.
(= It is possible that the letter has got lost in the post.)

Ability: can, could and be able to

Can and could

We use these verbs to say that something is possible because someone has the ability to do it. We use can for the present and could for the past.
Nicola **can** play chess.
Can you draw a perfect circle?
We **can't** move this piano. It's too heavy.
Nicola **could** play chess when she was six.
My grandfather **could** walk on his hands.
The negative of can is cannot , written as one word. It has a short form
As well as physical or mental ability, we also use can/could for a chance, an opportunity to do something.
We **can** sit in the garden when it's nice.
When we lived in aflat, we **couldn't** keep a dog.

Be able to

Be able to in the present tense is a little more formal and less usual than can.
The pupils **can** already read/are already **able to** read.
The duchess **can** fly/**is able to** fly an aeroplane.
We use be able to (not can) in the perfect and the infinitive or ing-form.
Mr Fry has been ill for years. He **hasn't been able to** work for some time.
It's nice **to be able to** relax.
Being able to speak the language is a great advantage.
We use will be able to for future ability or opportunity.
When you have completed the course, you **will be able to** impress others with your sparkling conversation.

One day people **will be able to** go on a package tour of the solar system.
But we normally use can to suggest a possible future action. • 97(2a)
We **can** discuss the details later.

Could and was/were able to

a In the past, we make a difference between a general ability and an ability which resulted in an action. For a general ability we use could or was/were able to. Kevin **could** walk/was **able to** walk when he was only eleven months old. But we use was/were able to to talk about an action in a particular situation, when someone had the ability to do something and did it.
The injured man **was able to** walk to a phone box.
NOT The injured man could walk to a phone box.
We can also express the meaning with managed to or succeeded in.
Detectives **were able to/managed to** identify the murderer.
Detectives **succeeded** in identifying the murderer.
But in negatives and questions we can use either was/were able to or could because
we are not saying that the action really happened. Detectives **weren't able to** identify/couldn't identify the murderer. **Were you able to get/Could** you get tickets for the show?
We normally use could (not was/were able to) with verbs of perception and verbs of thinking.
I **could see** smoke on the horizon.
We **could understand** that Emily preferred to be alone.
To say that someone had the ability or the chance to do something but didn't do it, we use could have done.
He **could have walked** there, but he decided to wait where he was.
I **could have got** tickets, but there were only very expensive ones left.
Could can also mean 'would be able to'.
I **couldn't** do your job. I'd be hopeless at it.
The factory **could** produce a lot more goods if it was modernized.

Unreal situations: would

Compare these sentences.
We're going to have a barbecue. ~ Oh, that'll be nice.
We're thinking of having a barbecue. ~ Oh, that **would** be nice.
Here will is a prediction about the future, about the barbecue. Would is a prediction about an unreal situation, about a barbecue which may or may not happen.
There is often a phrase or clause explaining the unreal situation we are talking about.
It **would** be nice **to have a barbecue.**
You **wouldn't** be much use **in a crisis.**
No one **would** pay taxes **if they didn't have to.**
For would with an if-clause, • 257(4).
For would looking forward from the past, • 80(2).
In a request would is less direct, more tentative than will.
Will/Would you pass me the sugar?
We can also use would in a statement to avoid sounding impolite, especially when disagreeing with someone.
I **wouldn't** agree with that.

Notes

I **would** point out that this has caused us some inconvenience.
We also use the expressions would like and would rather.
Would like is less direct than want, which can sound abrupt.
I **want** a drink. (direct, perhaps impolite)
I'd like a drink. (less direct, more polite)
Compare like and would like.
I **like** to climb/I **like** climbing that mountain.
(I have climbed it a number of times, and enjoyed it.)
I'd like to climb that mountain.
(= I want to climb it.)
We can also use would with love, hate, enjoy and mind.
My sister **would love** to do deep-sea diving.
I'd hate to be in your shoes.
We'd **enjoy** a trip to Las Vegas. We've never been there before.
I **wouldn't mind** coming with you.
b Would rather means 'prefer' or 'would prefer'.
I'd rather walk than hang around for a bus.
The guide **would rather** we kept together.
Would you **rather** eat now or later?
Would rather is followed by a bare infinitive (walk) or a clause (we kept together).
The negative is would rather not.
I'd rather not take any risks.
In some contexts we can use either would or should after I/we. The meaning is the same, but should is a little formal.
I would/should like to thank you for all you've done.
We **wouldn't/shouldn't** be able to get around without a car.

Habits: will, would and used to

Will and would

We can use these verbs for habits, actions which are repeated again and again. We use will for present habits and would for past habits.
Every day Jane **will** come home from school and ring up the friends she's just been talking to.
Warm air **will** rise.
In those days people **would** make their own entertainment.
The meaning is almost the same as a simple tense: Every day Jane comes home... But we use will as a kind of prediction. The action is so typical and happens so regularly that we can predict it will continue.

Used to

Used to expresses a past habit or state.
I **used to** come here when I was a child.
Before we had television, people **used to** make their own entertainment.
I **used to** have a bicycle, but I sold it.
The meaning is similar to would for past habits, but used to is more common in informal English. I used to come here means that at one period I came here regularly, but then I stopped.
There is no present-tense form.
NOT -I use to come here now.

b Used is normally an ordinary verb. We use the auxiliary did in negatives and questions.
There **didn't use to** be/never used to be so much crime.
What kind of books **did** you **use to** read as a child?
Compare these sentences.
We **used to live** in the country. But then we moved to London.
We're used to life/We're **used** to **living** in the country now. But at first it was quite
a shock, after London.
In the second example are used to means 'are accustomed to'.

The verb dare

Dare can be either a modal verb or an ordinary verb. It means 'not to be afraid to do something'. We use it in negatives, questions and similar contexts, but not usually to say that an action really happened.
I **daren't look/don't dare (to)** look at the bill.
Dare you say/Do you dare (to) say what you're thinking?
The police **didn't dare (to)** approach the building.
I don't expect many people **dare (to)** walk along here at night.

The passive

The use of the passive

The topic

The sentences have the same meaning, but they have different topics: they are about different things. The topic of the first sentence is Thomson, and the topic of the second is the electron. The topic is the starting-point of the sentence and is usually the subject.
When the subject is the agent (the person or thing doing the action), then the verb is active (discovered). When the subject is not the agent, then the verb is passive (was discovered). The choice between active and passive is really about whether the subject is the agent or not, whether we are talking about someone (Thomson) doing something, or about something (the electron) that the action is directed at. Note that the electron is object of the active sentence and subject of the passive sentence.

New information

A sentence contains a topic and also new information about the topic. The new information usually comes at or near the end of the sentence.
Thomson discovered **the electron.**
The topic is Thomson. The new information is that he discovered the electron. The electron is the important piece of new information, the point of interest. The new information can be the agent.
The electron was discovered **by Thomson.**
Here the electron is the topic. The new information is that its discoverer was Thomson. Thomson is the point of interest, and it comes at the end of the sentence in a phrase with by. Here are some more examples of the agent as point of interest. James Bond was created **by Ian Fleming.**
The scheme has been put forward **by the government.**
The first football World Cup was won **by Uruguay.**
In a passive sentence the point of interest can be other information such as time,

place, manner or instrument.
The electron was discovered **in 1897.**
The electron was discovered **at Cambridge.**
The gas should be lit **carefully.**
The gas should be lit **with a match.**
Here we do not mention the agent at all.

Passive sentences without an agent

In a passive sentence we mention the agent only if it is important new information. There is often no need to mention it.
There is no need to say that nine million cigarettes are smoked by smokers all over the world, or that in America 10,000 crimes are committed by criminals. This is already clear from the context. Here are some more examples. A new government has been elected. The man was arrested. 'Hamlet' was written in 1601. It is well known that 'Hamlet' was written by Shakespeare, so we do not need to mention it. For the same reason, we do not need to say that the man was arrested by police or the government elected by the people.
The agent may not be relevant to the message. A large number of Sherlock Holmes films have been made. The atom was regarded as solid until the electron was discovered in 1897. The makers of the films and the discoverer of the electron are not relevant. The sentences are about the number of films and the time of the discovery. c Sometimes we do not know the identity of the agent.
My car was stolen. The phrase by a thief would add no information. But we can use an agent if there is some information.
My car was stolen by **two teenagers.**
Sometimes we do not mention the agent because we do not want to.
Mistakes have been made.
This use of the passive without an agent is a way of not saying who is responsible.
Compare the active I/We have made mistakes.

Empty subjects

Even when the agent is not important or not known, we do not always use the passive. Especially in informal speech, we can use you, one, we, they, people or someone as vague and 'empty' subjects. But a passive sentence is preferred in more formal English.
Active: **You/One** can't do anything about it.
Passive: Nothing can be done about it.
Active: **We/People** use electricity for all kinds of purposes.
Passive: Electricity is used for all kinds of purposes.
Active: They're building some new houses.
Passive: Some new houses are being built.

Typical contexts for the passive

We can use the passive in speech, but it is more common in writing, especially in the impersonal style of textbooks and reports.
To describe industrial and scientific processes
The ore is usually dug out of the ground.
The paint is then pumped into a large tank, where it is thinned.
If sulphur is heated, a number of changes can be seen.

b To describe historical and social processes
A new political party was formed.
Thousands of new homes have been built.
A lot of money is given to help the hungry.
c Official rules and procedures
The service is provided under a contract.
This book must be returned to the library by the date above.
Application should be made in writing.
The active equivalent We provide the service..., You must return this book... is less formal and less impersonal.

Verbs which cannot be passive

a An intransitive verb cannot be passive. These sentences have no passive equivalent.
Something **happened. He slept** soundly. The cat **ran** away.
But most phrasal and prepositional verbs which have an object can be passive.
We ran over a cat./The cat **was run** over.
Some state verbs cannot be passive, e.g. be, belong, exist, have (= own), lack, resemble, seem, suit. These sentences have no passive equivalent.
Tom **has** a guitar. The building **seemed** empty.
Some verbs can be either action verbs or state verbs, e.g. measure, weigh, fit, cost. They can be passive only when they are action verbs.
Action & active: The decorator **measured** the wall.
Action & passive: The wall **was measured** by the decorator.
State: The wall **measured** three metres.
but NOT Three metres was measured by the wall.
But some state verbs can be passive, e.g. believe, intend, know, like, love, mean, need, own, understand, want.
The building **is owned** by an American company.
Old postcards **are wanted** by collectors.

Tenses and aspects in the passive

The lowest monthly death toll on French roads for 30 years was announced by the Transport Ministry for the month of August. The results were seen as a direct triumph for the new licence laws, which led to a bitter truck drivers strike in July. Some 789 people died on the roads last month, 217 fewer than in August last year. (from Early Times)
Cocaine worth £290 million has been seized by the FBI in a case which is being called 'the chocolate connection'. The 6,000 lb of drugs were hidden in blocks of chocolate aboard an American ship that docked in Port Newark, New Jersey, from Ecuador.
A passive verb has a form of be and a passive participle. Be is in the same tense as the equivalent active form. The passive participle has the same form as a past participle: announced, called, seen.
Active: The Ministry **announced** the figure. (past simple) Passive: The figure was announced. (past simple of be + passive participle)
Simple tenses (simple form of be + passive participle)
Large numbers of people **are killed** on the roads.
The drugs **were found** by the police.
The perfect (perfect of be + passive participle)
Cocaine **has been seized** by the FBI.

The drugs **had been loaded** onto the ship in Ecuador.
The continuous (continuous of be + passive participle)
The case **is being called** 'the chocolate connection'.
Three men **were being questioned** by detectives last night.

Notes

Will and be going to (future of be + passive participle)
The drugs **will be destroyed.**
The men **are going to be charged** with importing cocaine.
We form negatives and questions in the same way as in active sentences. In the negative not comes after the (first) auxiliary; in questions there is inversion of subject and (first) auxiliary.
Negative: The drugs **were not** found by customs officers.
The law **hasn't** been changed.
Question: Where **were** the drugs found?
Has the law been changed?
When we use a phrasal or prepositional verb in the passive, the adverb or preposition (e.g. down, for) comes after the passive participle.
The tree was **cut down** last week.
Has the doctor been **sent for?**
Note also verb + adverb + preposition, and verbal idioms with prepositions.
Such out-of-date practices should be **done away with.**
The poor child is always being **made fun of.**
We can sometimes use a participle as a modifier, like an adjective: a **broken** vase,
We can also put the participle after be. The vase was broken can express either a state or an action.
State: The vase **was broken.** It lay in pieces on the floor,
(be + complement) The drugs **were hidden** in the ship. They were in blocks of chocolate.
Action: The vase **was broken** by a guest. He knocked it over.
(passive verb) The drugs **were hidden** (by the gang) and then loaded onto the ship.

Modal verbs in the passive

We can use the passive with a modal verb (or an expression like have to). The pattern is modal verb + be + passive participle.
Stamps **can be bought** at any post office.
Animals **should** really **be seen** in their natural habitat.
Meals **have to be prepared** every day.
Many things that **used to be done** by hand are now done by machine.
A modal verb can also go with the perfect and the passive together. The pattern is modal verb + have been + passive participle.
I can't find that piece of paper. It **must have been thrown** away.
The plane **might have been delayed** by the fog.
This bill **ought to have been paid** weeks ago.

The passive with get

We sometimes form the passive with get rather than with be.
The vase **got broken** when we moved. We **get paid** monthly.
It was so hot my shoulders **were getting** burnt.
If you don't lock your bike, it **might get stolen.**

We use the passive with get mainly in informal English, and it has a more limited
use than be. The passive with get expresses action and change, not a state. It often
refers to something happening by accident, unexpectedly or incidentally. (Note
that the payment of salaries is a small, incidental part of a company's whole
activities.) We do not use get for a major, planned action.
NOT Wembley Stadium got built in 1923.
In simple tenses we use the auxiliary do in negatives and questions.
I forgot to leave the dustbin out, so it **didn't get emptied.**
How often **do** these offices **get cleaned?**
2 We also use get + passive participle in some idiomatic expressions.
There wasn't enough time to **get washed.** (= wash oneself)
Such expressions are: get washed, get shaved, get (un)dressed, get changed; get
engaged, get married, get divorced; get started (= start), get lost (= lose one's way).
The idioms get washed/shaved/dressed/changed are much more common than wash myself etc. But we can use wash etc in the active without an object. There wasn't much time to wash and change.
After get there can be an adjective in ed.
I'd just **got interested** in the film when the phone rang.
(= I'd just **become interested** in the film ...)
Some other adjectives used after get are bored, confused, drunk, excited and tired.

The passive with verbs of giving

In the active, give can have two objects.
The nurse gives **the patient a sleeping pill.**
Either of these objects can be the subject of a passive sentence.
A sleeping pill is given to the patient.
The patient is given a sleeping pill.
We can use other verbs in these patterns, e.g. send, offer, award. • (3)
Here are two ways in which a court case about paying damages might be reported.
A cyclist who was left completely paralysed after a road accident was awarded £1 million damages at the High Court in London yesterday. The court heard that Mr Graham Marks was hit by a car as he was cycling along the A303 near Sparkford in Somerset.
Compare these two sentences, one from each report.
£ 1 million damages were awarded to a cyclist.
A **cyclist** was awarded £1 million damages.
Both sentences are passive, but one has £1 million damages as its subject, and the other has a cyclist as its subject. The first report is about the damages, and it tells us who received them. The second is about a cyclist, and it tells us what he received. 3 It is quite normal in English for the person receiving something to be the subject. Here are some more examples.
The chairman was handed a note. I've been offered a job.

We were told all the details. **The residents** will be found new homes.
We can use these verbs in the passive pattern: allow deny leave promise tell ask feed lend refuse throw award find offer send bring give owe sell buy grant pass show charge hand pay teach

The passive with verbs of reporting

There are two special patterns with verbs of reporting. Active: **They say** that elephants have good memories. Passive: **It is said** that elephants have good memories- Elephants **are said to** have good memories. There is an example of each pattern in this paragraph. **It is** now **thought** that Stonehenge - the great stone circle - dates from about 1900 BC. Until recently the circle **was** popularly **believed to** be a Druid temple and a place of human sacrifice, but this is not in fact so. The stones were put up long before the Druids came to Britain.

It + passive verb + finite clause

It is thought that Stonehenge dates from about 1900 BC. This pattern is often used in news reports where there is no need to mention the source of the information.
It was reported that the army was crossing the frontier. **It has been shown** that the theory is correct.
It is proposed that prices should increase next year. In Pattern 1 we can use these verbs: admit declare hope propose show agree discover intend prove state allege establish know recommend suggest announce estimate mention regret suppose assume expect notice report think believe explain object request understand claim fear observe reveal consider feel presume say decide find promise see

Subject + passive verb + to-infinitive

Compare these patterns.
Pattern 1: It is thought that **Stonehenge dates** from about 1900 BC.
Pattern 2: **Stonehenge** is thought **to date** from about 1900 BC.
In Pattern 2 we can use these verbs:
allege declare find presume see assume discover intend prove show believe estimate know report suppose claim expect mean reveal think consider feel observe say understand The infinitive can also be perfect or continuous, or it can be passive. The army was reported **to be crossing** the frontier.
The prisoner is known **to have behaved** violently in the past. Stonehenge is thought **to have been built** over a period of 500 years.

Passive + to-infinitive or active participle

It + passive verb + to-infinitive

Active: The committee agreed to support the idea.
Passive: It was agreed **to** support the idea.
We can use this pattern only with the verbs agree, decide and propose.

The agent with verbs of reporting

We can express the agent in all three patterns.
It was reported by **the BBC** that the army was crossing the frontier.
The theory has been shown by **scientists** to be correct.
It was agreed **by the committee** to support the idea.

Passive + to-infinitive or active participle

Some patterns with a verb + object + infinitive/active participle have a passive equivalent.

Infinitive

Active: Police advise drivers to use an alternative route.
Passive: Drivers **are advised to use** an alternative route.
We can use this passive pattern with verbs like tell, ask, persuade, warn, advise,
Active: The terrorists made the hostages lie down.
Passive: The hostages **were made** to lie down.
In the passive pattern we always use a to-infinitive (to lie) even if in the active there is a bare infinitive (lie). This happens after make and after verbs of perception such as see.

Active participle

Active: The detective saw the woman putting the jewellery in her bag.
Passive: The woman **was seen putting** the jewellery in her bag.
Active: The officials kept us waiting for half an hour.
Passive: We **were kept waiting** for half an hour.
In this pattern we can use verbs of perception (see) and catch, find, keep, leave, lose, spend, and waste.

Overview

With a participle With an infinitive
Active Someone saw him **running** away. Someone saw him **run** away.
Passive He was seen **running** away. He was seen **to run** away.

Patterns with have and get

The active: have/get + object + infinitive

This pattern means 'cause someone to do something'. Have takes a bare infinitive and get a to-infinitive.
I **had** the garage **service** my car.
I **got** the garage **to service** my car.
This active pattern with have is more common in the USA than in Britain, where it is rather formal. Get is informal.

The passive: have/get + object + passive participle

This pattern means 'cause something to be done'.
I **had** my car **serviced.**
I **got** my car **serviced.**
This means that I arranged for someone, for example a garage, to service my car; I did not service it myself. We use this pattern mainly to talk about professional services to a customer.
You should have/get the **job done** professionally.
I **had/got** the machine **repaired** only last week.
We're **having/getting** a new kitchen **fitted.**
Where did you **have/get** your hair **cut?**
Both have and get are ordinary verbs which can be continuous (are having/are getting) and which take the auxiliary do (did... have/get...?) Get is more informal than have.

Have meaning 'experience'

We can use the same pattern with have meaning 'experience something', often something unpleasant. The subject is the person to whom something happens. We **had** a window **broken** in the storm.
My sister **has had** some money **stolen.**

The passive to-infinitive and gerund

Forms

Active Passive
To-infinitive to play to be played
Perfect to-infinitive to have played to have been played
Gerund playing being played
Perfect gerund having played having been played
The passive forms end with a passive participle (played).

Patterns

The passive to-infinitive and gerund can come in the same patterns as the active forms, for example after some verbs or adjectives. a To-infinitive
I expect **to be invited** to the wedding. It's awful **to be criticized** in public.
I'd like this rubbish **to be cleared** away as soon as possible.
Perfect to-infinitive
I'd like this rubbish **to have been cleared** away when I get back.
Gerund
Being searched by customs officers is unpleasant.
Let's not risk **being caught** in a traffic jam. I was afraid of **being laughed** at.
The government tried to stop the book **being published.**
Perfect gerund
I'm annoyed at **having been made** a fool of.

Use of the passive forms

Compare the subjects in the active and passive clauses.
Active: I'd like **someone** to clear away this rubbish.
Passive: I'd like **this rubbish** to be cleared away.
In the active, the subject of the clause is someone, the agent. In the passive it is this rubbish, the thing the action is directed at.
When the main clause and the infinitive or gerund clause have the same subject, then we do not repeat the subject.
I expect to be invited to the wedding.
(= I expect that I shall be invited to the wedding.)
The understood subject of to be invited is I.

Active forms with a passive meaning

Gerund

The active gerund after need, want (= need), require and deserve has a passive meaning.
These windows need **painting.** The cupboard wants tidying out.
We cannot use the passive gerund here.

To-infinitive

We sometimes use an active to-infinitive to talk about jobs we have to do. We've got these windows **to paint.** I had some homework **to do.**

When the subject of the sentence is the agent, the person who has to do the job, then we use the active infinitive, not the passive. If the subject of the sentence is not the agent, then we use the passive infinitive. These windows have **to be painted.**
The homework was **to be done** by the next day.
After the subject there, we can use either an active or a passive infinitive.
There are a lot of windows **to paint/to be painted.**
There was some homework **to do/to be done.**
After an adjective phrase, the infinitive is usually active.
This machine isn't **safe to use.**
The piano is too **heavy to move.**
That box isn't **strong** enough **to sit** on.
If we use a phrase with by and the agent, then the infinitive is passive.
The piano is too heavy **to be moved by one person.**
(= The piano is too heavy **for one person to move.)**

Main verbs

There are a few verbs that we can use in the active form with a passive meaning.
The singer's latest record **is selling** like hot cakes.
This sentence **doesn't read** quite right.
This sweater **has washed** OK.

Overview: active and passive verb forms

Active Passive
Present simple
They play the match.
Present continuous
They are playing the match.
Present perfect
They have played the match.
Past simple
They played the match.
Past continuous
They were playing the match.
Past perfect
They had played the match.
Future
They will play the match.
They are going to play the match.
Modal + infinitive
They should play it.
They ought to play it.
Modal + perfect infinitive
They should have played it.
They ought to have played it.

To-infinitive and gerund

To-infinitive
I wanted them to play the match.
Perfect to-infinitive
They expect to have played the match by then.
Gerund

They left without playing the match.
Perfect gerund
They left without having played the match.
The match **is played.**
The match **is being played.**
The match **has been played.**
The match **was played.**
The match **was being played.**
The match **had been played.**
The match **will be played.**
The match **is going to be played.**
It should be played.
It ought to be played.
It should have been played.
It ought to have been played.
I wanted the match **to be played.**
They expect the match **to have been played** by then.
They left without the match **being played.**
They left without the match **having been played.**

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define verb. Differentiate finite verb and non-finite verb with proper examples.
2. What do you mean by verb phrase? Describe its structure.
3. Describe the rules of "will and shall" with suitable examples.
4. What are the modal words. Discuss these with suitable example.
5. Discuss the verb phrases used for permission with the help of proper example
6. Describe the rules for using probability verbs with suitable example.
7. What are the rules to convert active voice from passive voice.

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

IMPORTANT NOTES

UNIT-3 INFINITIVE, GERUND AND PARTICIPLES

CONTENTS

The infinitive

Infinitive forms

Bare infinitive To-infinitive
Simple play to play
Perfect have played to have played
Continuous be playing to be playing
Perfect + continuous have been playing to have been playing For the passive, e.g. to be played,
A simple infinitive is the base form of a verb, with or without to.
Bare infinitive: I'd rather **sit** at the back.
To-infinitive: I'd prefer **to sit** at the back.
There is no difference in meaning here between sit and to sit. Which we use depends on the grammatical pattern.
Here are some examples with perfect and continuous forms.
It's a pity I missed that programme. I'd like **to have seen** it.
You'd better **have finished** by tomorrow.
The weather seems **to be getting** worse.
I'd rather **be lying** on the beach than stuck in a traffic jam.
The man appeared **to have been drinking.**
We cannot use a past form.
NOT I'd like to saw it.
A simple infinitive refers to the same time as in the main clause.
I'm pleased **to meet you.**
(The pleasure and the meeting are both in the present.)
You were lucky to **win.**
(The luck and the victory are both in the past.)
We use a perfect infinitive for something before the time in the main clause.
I'd like **to have seen** that programme yesterday.
(The desire is in the present, but the programme is in the past.)
We use a continuous infinitive for something happening over a period.
You're lucky **to be winning.**

(You're winning at the moment.)
In the negative, not comes before the infinitive.
I'd rather **not sit** at the front.
I'd prefer **not to sit** at the front.

Notes

To can stand for an infinitive clause.
I have to go out, but I don't want **to.**
We can sometimes leave out to so that we do not repeat it.
It's better to do it now than **(to) leave** it to the last minute.
When to-infinitives are linked by and, we do not usually repeat to.
I'm going to go out and **have** a good time.

Infinitive clauses

An infinitive clause can be just an infinitive on its own, or there can be an object or adverbial.
A ride on a London bus is the best way **to see the city.**
We need **to act quickly.**
An adverbial usually comes after the infinitive, and an object always comes after it. NOT the best way the city to see
A preposition comes in its normal place, usually after a verb or adjective.
Your meals are all you have **to pay for.**
There's nothing **to get excited about.**
I need a vase **to put these flowers in.**

The to-infinitive as subject and complement

We can sometimes use a to-infinitive clause as subject.
To defrost this fridge takes ages.
To turn down the invitation seems rude.
Not to take a holiday now and then is a great mistake.
But this pattern is not very usual. More often we use if as an 'empty subject' referring forward to the infinitive clause.
It takes ages **to defrost this fridge.**
Would **it** seem rude **to turn down the invitation?**
It's a great mistake **not to take a holiday now and then.**
But we often use a gerund clause as subject. • 131(1)
Defrosting this fridge takes ages.
A to-infinitive clause can be a complement after be.
Melanie's ambition is **to go to Australia.**
The important thing is **not to panic.**
The idea was **to surprise everybody.**

The to-infinitive expressing purpose and result

A to-infinitive clause can express purpose.
Laura has gone to town **to do some shopping.**
I'm writing **to enquire about activity holidays.**
To get a good seat, you need to arrive early.
For other ways of expressing purpose, • 252.
We can sometimes use a to-infinitive clause to express result, although this use is rather literary.
Laura came home **to find** her house on fire.
He grew up **to be** a handsome young man.
The to-infinitive can express the idea of 'bad news' following 'good news'. We often use only before the infinitive.

I found my keys **only to lose** them again.
Charles arrived for the concert **(only) to find** it had been cancelled.
An infinitive clause can also express a comment on the sentence.
To be frank, you didn't make a very good impression.
I'm a bit tired of sightseeing, **to tell you the truth.**

Verb + to-infinitive

We can use a to-infinitive after some verbs.
I **plan to visit** India next year.
People are **refusing to pay** the new tax.
We hope to be moving into our new flat soon.
We **expect to have completed** the work by the summer.
For a list of these verbs and of verbs taking a gerund,
We can use seem, appear, happen, tend, come, grow, turn out and prove with a to-infinitive.
The plane **seemed to be losing** height. (It was **apparently** losing height.)
We **happened to meet** in the street. (We met **by chance** in the street.)
The debate **turned out to be** very interesting.
Here the to-infinitive clause is not the object, because seem, appear etc are not transitive verbs. They say something about the truth of the statement, or the manner or time of the action. With some of these verbs we can use the empty subject it.
It **seemed** (that) the plane was losing height.
The object of the to-infinitive can be subject of a passive sentence.
Active: Someone seems to have stolen **the computer.**
Passive: **The computer** seems to have been stolen.
Sometimes we can use a finite clause instead of the infinitive clause.
We decided **to play tennis.**
We decided **(that) we would play tennis.**
But with some verbs this is not possible.
NOT People are refusing that they pay the new tax.
For verb + finite clause, • 262(1).

To-infinitive or gerund after a verb

Verbs taking only one form

Some verbs take a to-infinitive, and others take a gerund.
To-infinitive: I decided **to take** a taxi.
Gerund: I suggested **taking** a taxi.

Verbs taking either form

Some verbs can take either a to-infinitive or a gerund with almost no difference in meaning.
I hate to leave/hate leaving everything to the last minute.
When the President appeared, the crowd **began to cheer/began cheering.**
We intend to take/intend taking immediate action.
These verbs are begin, bother, can't bear, cease, commence, continue, hate, intend,
like, love, prefer, propose, start.

Either form but different meanings

The to-infinitive and gerund have different meanings after remember, forget; regret; dread; try; stop; mean; go on; need, want, require and

deserve. a We use remember and forget with a to-infinitive to talk about necessary actions and whether we do them or not Did you **remember to turn** off the electricity?

You **forgot to sign** the cheque. ~ Oh, sorry.

Notes

We use a gerund to talk about memories of the past.

I'll never **forget breaking** down in the middle of Glasgow. It was awful.

I don't know. I can't **remember turning** it off.

We use regret + to-infinitive for a present action, especially when giving bad news.

We use a gerund to express regret about the past.

We regret to inform you that your application has been unsuccessful.

I **regret wasting/regret having wasted** so much time last year.

Compare patterns with sorry.

We use dread + to-infinitive mainly in the expression I dread to think/imagine...

We use a gerund for something that causes fear.

I **dread to think** what might happen to you all alone in a big city.

I always **dreaded being kissed** by my aunts.

Try + to-infinitive means 'attempt to do' and try + gerund means 'do something which might solve the problem'.

I'm **trying to light** a fire, but this wood won't burn. ~

Why don't you **try pouring** some petrol on it?

After stop we often use the to-infinitive of purpose. But stop + gerund means to end an action.

At the next services he **stopped to buy** a newspaper.

You'd better **stop dreaming** and get on with some work.

Mean + to-infinitive has the sense of 'intend'. But mean + gerund expresses result, what is involved in something.

I'm sorry. I didn't **mean to step** on your foot.

I have to be at the airport by nine. It **means getting** up early.

Go on + to-infinitive means to do something different, to do the next thing. Go on + ing-form means to continue doing something.

After receiving the award, the actor **went on to thank** all the people who had helped him in his career.

The band **went on playing** even after everyone had left.

We usually use need, want and deserve with a to-infinitive.

We need to leave at eight. Tony **wants to borrow** your typewriter.

A gerund after these verbs has a passive meaning.

The typewriter **needs/wants cleaning.**

Verb + object + to-infinitive

Some verbs can take an object and a to-infinitive.

I **expected Dave to meet** me at the airport.

Your landlady **wants you to post** these letters.

We **asked the teacher not to give** us any homework.

Here Dave is the object of the verb expected. It also functions as the subject of to meet. Compare these sentences.

I expected **Dave to meet** me.

I expected (that) **Dave would meet me.**

We can use the following verbs with an object and a to-infinitive.

Verbs meaning 'order' or 'request'

The doctor **told** Celia to stay in bed.
We **persuaded** our neighbours to turn the music down.
Here Celia is the indirect object, and the infinitive clause is the direct object. We can use advise, ask, beg, command, encourage, instruct, invite, order, persuade, recommend, remind, request, tell, urge, warn.
Verbs meaning 'cause' or 'help'
The crisis has **forced** the government to act.
This portable phone **enables** me to keep in touch with the office.
We can use allow, authorize, cause, compel, drive, enable, forbid, force, get, help, intend, lead, mean, oblige, permit, require, teach, train.
Verbs meaning 'say' or 'think'
The judges **announced** the result to be a draw.
The police **believed** the Mafia to have committed the crime.
This pattern can be rather formal. We can use announce, assume, believe, consider, declare, discover, estimate, expect, feel, find, imagine, judge, know, presume, report, reveal, show, suppose, understand.
Verbs of wanting and liking
I **want** everyone to enjoy themselves.
I'd **like** you to hold the door open for me.
We can use want, wish, (would) like, (would) love, (would) prefer, (would) hate and can't bear.

Adjective + to-infinitive

The pattern It was easy to write the letter

A common pattern is it + linking verb + adjective + to-infinitive clause.
It was marvellous to visit the Grand Canyon.
It is difficult to solve the problem.
It is rare to see a horse and cart nowadays.
It felt very strange to be watched by so many people.
For the use of it as empty subject, • 50(5).
Here are some examples of adjectives in this pattern.
'Good'/'Bad': marvellous, terrific, wonderful, perfect, great, good, nice, pleasant, lovely; terrible, awful, dreadful, horrible Adjectives in ing: interesting, exciting, depressing, confusing, embarrassing, amusing Difficulty, danger and expense: easy, difficult, hard, convenient, possible, impossible; safe, dangerous; cheap, expensive Necessity: necessary, vital, essential, important, advisable, better/best
Frequency: usual, normal, common; rare Comment: strange, odd, incredible; natural, understandable
Personal qualities: good, nice, kind, helpful; mean, generous; clever, intelligent, sensible, right; silly, stupid, foolish; careless; wrong; polite, rude

The pattern The letter was easy to write

Here we understand the letter as the object of to write.
The Grand Canyon was marvellous to visit.
The problem is difficult to solve.
Would gas be any cheaper to cook with ?
In this pattern we can use some adjectives meaning 'good' or 'bad' and adjectives
of difficulty, danger and expense. For examples of these adjectives, • (1).

There is no object after the to-infinitive in this pattern.
NOT The problem is difficult to solve it.

The pattern It was an easy letter to write

The adjective can come before a noun.
It was a **marvellous** experience **to visit** the Grand Canyon.
It's a **difficult** problem **to solve.**
It's a **rare** thing **to see** a horse and cart nowadays.

Patterns with too and enough

In adjective + to-infinitive patterns we often use too or enough.
It's **too difficult to work** the figures out in your head.
The coffee was **too hot to drink.**
This rucksack isn't **big enough to get** everything in.

The pattern I was happy to write the letter

Here the subject of the main clause is a person.
We were **sorry to hear** your bad news. (= We were sorry when we heard.)
I'm quite **prepared to help.**
You were **clever to find** that out.
You were **lucky to win** the game.
Here are some examples of adjectives in this pattern.
Feelings: happy, glad, pleased, delighted; amused; proud; grateful; surprised; interested; sad, sorry; angry, annoyed; ashamed; horrified Willing/Unwilling: willing, eager, anxious, keen, impatient, determined, ready, prepared; unwilling, reluctant; afraid Some adjectives expressing personal qualities: mean, clever, sensible, right, silly The adjectives lucky and fortunate

The pattern It is likely to happen

In this pattern we can use likely, sure and certain.
The peace talks are **likely to last** several weeks.
The party is **sure to be** a great success.

Noun phrase + to-infinitive

The pattern the need to write

We can use a to-infinitive clause after some verbs and adjectives.
I **need to write** a letter. We are **determined to succeed.**
We can also use an infinitive after a related noun.
Is there really any **need to write** a letter?
We shall never lose our **determination to succeed.**
Our **decision to oppose** the scheme was the right one.
Everyone laughed at Jerry's **attempt to impress** the girls.
Some nouns in this pattern are:
ability decision intention proposal agreement demand need refusal ambition desire offer reluctance anxiety determination plan request arrangement eagerness preparations willingness attempt failure promise wish choice b Some other nouns with similar meanings can take a to-infinitive, e.g. chance, effort, opportunity, scheme, time. There will be an **opportunity to inspect** the plans. c But some nouns take a preposition + ing-form, not an infinitive. There's no **hope of getting** there in time.

The pattern letters to write

In this pattern the to-infinitive expresses necessity or possibility.
I've got some **letters to write.** (= letters that I have to write)
Take **something to read** on the train. (= something that you can read)
The doctor had a number of **patients to see.**
The to-infinitive clause here is shorter and neater than the finite clause with have to or can.

Question word + to-infinitive

We can use a question word or phrase before a to-infinitive.
I just don't know **what to say.**
Alice wasn't sure **how much to tip** the porter.
Have you any idea **how to open** this packet?
No one told us **where to meet.**
This pattern expresses an indirect question about what the best action is. What to say means 'what I should say'.
Here are some verbs that we can use before the question word:
advise someone discover know tell someone ask (someone) discuss learn think choose explain remember understand consider find out show someone wonder decide forget teach someone workout We can also use have an idea, make up your mind and the adjectives clear, obvious and sure.
We can also use this pattern after a preposition.
I was worried **about what to wear.**
There's the problem **of how much** luggage **to take.**

For and of with a to-infinitive

The pattern I'll wait for you to finish

I'll wait **for you to finish** your breakfast.
We've arranged **for a photographer to take** some photos.
We can use apply for, arrange for, ask for, call for (= demand), long for, prepare for, wait for.

The pattern It's important for you to finish

It's important **for you to finish** the course and get a qualification.
It can be difficult **for young people to buy** their own home.
I'm anxious **for the matter to be settled.**
We can use many adjectives in this pattern, for example:
anxious eager marvellous silly awful easy necessary stupid better/best essential nice terrible cheap expensive ready willing convenient important reluctant wonderful dangerous keen safe wrong difficult

Patterns with too and enough

Before the for pattern, we can use too or enough with a quantifier, adjective or adverb.
There's **too** much work **for you to finish** today.
The kitchen is **too** small **for the whole family to eat** in.
The light wasn't shining brightly **enough for anyone to notice** it.

The pattern It's a good idea for you to finish

It's a good idea **for you to finish** the course and get a qualification.
It's a nuisance **for tourists to have** to get visas.

We can use some nouns, e.g. advantage, demand, disadvantage, disaster, idea, mistake, nuisance, plan.

The pattern It's nice of you to finish

It's **nice of you to finish** the job for me.
It was **rude of your friend not to shake** hands.
It was **clever of Tina to find** that out.
We can use adjectives expressing personal qualities, e.g. brave, careless, clever, foolish, generous, good, helpful, honest, intelligent, kind, mean, nice, polite, rude, sensible, silly, stupid, wrong.

For expressing purpose

There are telephones **for drivers to call** for help if they break down. **For plants to grow** properly, you have to water them regularly.

Patterns with the bare infinitive

After a modal verb

Nothing **can** go wrong. They **must be** having a party next door. You **should be** more careful. You **could have** made the tea. But note ought to, have to, be able to, be allowed to and be going to. You **ought to be** more careful. You **have to put** some money in. I **was able to get** home OK. We **aren't allowed to walk** on the grass.

After had better, would rather/would sooner and rather than

We'd **better not be** late.
I didn't enjoy it. **I'd rather have** stayed at home.
They decided to accept the offer **rather than** go/going to court.

Verb + object + bare infinitive

Make, let and have can take an object + bare infinitive. The official **made me fill** in a form.
The headmaster **let the pupils go** home early. I'll **have the porter bring** up your luggage.
A verb of perception can take an object + bare infinitive. Someone **saw the men leave** the building.
I thought I **heard someone knock** on the door.
For more details, When the pattern with the bare infinitive is made passive, we always use a
to-infinitive. The men **were seen to leave** the building at half past six.

Other patterns

After except and but (= except) we normally use a bare infinitive.
As for the housework, I do everything **except cook.**
You've done nothing **but grumble** all day.
We sometimes put an infinitive after be when we are explaining what kind of action we mean.
The only thing I can do is **(to) apologize.**
What the police did was **(to) charge** into the crowd.

The gerund

A gerund is an ing-form, e.g. walking.
Walking is good for you.

Gerund clauses

We can put an object or adverbial after the gerund.

I like **having friends round for coffee.**
The gerund can also have a subject.
I don't mind **you/your having** friends round.
Some patterns with the gerund
Finding the money wasn't easy.
It wasn't easy **finding the money.**
The difficult part was **finding the money.**
We practised catching the ball.
I don't **like people bossing** me around.
Preposition + gerund
I apologized **for being** late.
Are you interested **in buying** this car?
I ran all the way home **without stopping.**
Determiner + gerund The dancing went on late into the night.
Active Passive
Simple playing being played
Perfect having played having been played
For examples of the passive, • 112.
A simple gerund is the ing-form of a verb, e.g. meeting, dancing, jogging.
It was nice **meeting** you.
Dancing is not allowed.
We use a perfect gerund for something before the time of the main clause. Sarah remembered **having visited** the place before. (The visit was before the memory.)
But we do not need to use the perfect if it is clear from the context that the time was earlier.
Sarah remembered **visiting** the place before.
In the negative, not comes before the gerund.
It's difficult **not smoking** for a whole day.
I can't help **not being amused** by these silly jokes.

Gerund clauses

A gerund clause can be just a gerund on its own, or there can be an object or adverbial after it.
No one likes **washing the car.**
Going on holiday always makes me feel uneasy.
A subject can come before the gerund.
We rely on **our neighbours watering** the plants while we're away.
I dislike **people asking** me personal questions.
The subject can be possessive, especially when it is a personal pronoun or a name.
It's a bit inconvenient **you/your coming** in late.
Do you mind **me/my sitting** here?
I'm fed up with **Sarah/Sarah's laughing** at my accent.
The possessive is more formal, and it is less usual in everyday speech. But we are more likely to use a possessive at the beginning of a sentence. **Your coming** in late is a bit inconvenient. **Sarah's laughing** at my accent is getting on my nerves.

Notes

Some patterns with the gerund

Gerund clause as subject

Digging is hard work. But **choosing the colour** won't be easy.
Keeping a copy of your letters is a good idea.
I think **walking in the country** is a lovely way to spend a day.
In subject position, the gerund is much more usual than the to-infinitive. To choose the colour... is possible but rather formal. We can also use the empty subject Preferring forward to the gerund clause.
It won't be easy **choosing** the right colour.
But the to-infinitive is more usual after it.
It won't be easy **to choose** the right colour.
It's a good idea **to keep** a copy of your letters.
The gerund is more usual as subject, but the to-infinitive is more usual after it.
Heating a big house is expensive. It's expensive **to heat** a big house.

Patterns with it, there and have

a Here are some patterns with it and a gerund.
It's no **good arguing.** I've made up my mind.
It might be **worth taking** the guided tour.
It wouldn't be much **use trying** to stick the pieces together again.
It was quite an **experience going** camping.
It's a **nuisance being** without electricity.
It's great **fun skiing** down a mountain.
We can use there with problem/difficulty and a gerund.
There won't **be** any **problem parking.**
There is also a pattern with have (= experience) and a gerund.
You won't **have** any **problem parking.**
We **had** great **fun skiing** down the mountain.

Gerund clause as complement after he

Jeremy's hobby is **inventing computer games.**
What I suffer from is **not being able to sleep.**

Verb + gerund

We can use a gerund after some verbs.
Someone **suggested going** for a walk. Do you **mind waiting** a moment?
I **can't help feeling** depressed sometimes. **Imagine** never **having been** abroad.
For a list of verbs taking the gerund or to-infinitive,
Sometimes we can use a finite clause.
Someone suggested (that) **we might go out for a walk.**
But with some verbs this is not possible.
NOT I've finished that I tidy my room.

Verb + object + gerund

I **hate people laughing** at me.
The arrangements **involve you/your giving** everyone a lift.
How can they justify **lives being put** at risk?
We can use an object + gerund after these verbs:

avoid (not) forget love prefer risk can't help hate mean prevent save dislike imagine mention remember stop dread involve mind resent tolerate enjoy justify miss resist understand excuse like

Preposition + gerund

Introduction

A gerund often comes after a verb + preposition, an adjective + preposition or a noun + preposition. We do not use a to-infinitive in these patterns. We **believe in giving** people the freedom to choose.
My husband isn't very **good at cooking.**
It's just a **matter of filling** in a form.
We can also use a gerund after than, as and like expressing comparison.
A holiday is nicer **than sitting** at a desk.
Walking isn't as good for you as swimming.
We can also use a gerund after as well as, instead of without etc.

The pattern I succeeded in finding out

Jake is **thinking of selling** his motor-bike.
Sue **insists on reading** the letter.
Let's **get on with addressing** the envelopes.
We can use a gerund after these prepositional verbs:
admit to benefit from get on with rely on (dis)agree with care for insist on resort to aim at confess to object to succeed in apologize for count on pay for think of (dis)approve of depend on put up with vote for believe in feel like
We can also use verbs with about e.g. talk about, think about, worry about. People were **complaining about having** to walk so far. With most of the verbs in this pattern, the gerund can have a subject. Sue insists on **everyone reading** the letter.

The pattern They prevented me from speaking

A gerund can also follow a verb + object + preposition. I'd like to **congratulate you on breaking** the world record. The article **accuses the government of concealing** important information. We can use:
accuse ...of
blame... for
charge... with
congratulate ...on
deter... from forgive... for stop... from
discourage... from prevent... from strike ...as
excuse... for punish... for thank... for
excuse... from remind ...of use... for
a We can also use verbs with about, e.g. tell, inform, warn.
I warned you about leaving your money around.
b In the passive, the preposition comes directly after the verb.
The government is **accused of concealing** important information.

The pattern She's keen on riding

A gerund can follow an adjective + preposition. I'm **nervous of saying** the wrong thing.
What's **wrong with borrowing** a little money?
We can use:
afraid of
amazed at

angry about/at
annoyed about/at
anxious about
ashamed of
aware of
bad at
bored with
capable of
content with
dependent on
different from/to
exited about/at
famous for
fed up with
fond of
good at
grateful for
guilty of
happy about/with
interested in
keen on
nervous of
pleased about/with
ready for
responsible for
satisfied with
sorry about/for
successful in
surprised at
used to • 100(2c)
worried about
wrong with

For joining and to join

After some verbs and adjectives we can use either a preposition + gerund or a to-infinitive, with no difference in meaning. The people voted **for joining/voted to join** the European Community. We can use these expressions:

aim at doing/to do
amazed at finding/to find
angry at finding/to find
annoyed at finding/to find
content with being/to be
grateful for having/to have
pay for having/to have
ready for taking/to take
satisfied with being/to be
thankful for having/to have
surprised at finding/to find
vote for doing/to do

But sometimes the to-infinitive has a different meaning from the preposition + gerund. Details are in the notes below.

To do or to doing?

To can be part of a to-infinitive, or it can be a preposition. I hope to see you soon. (hope + to-infinitive) I look forward to seeing you soon. (look forward to + gerund) We can also put a noun phrase after the preposition to. I look forward to next weekend.

We can use a gerund (but not an infinitive) with the verbs admit to, confess to, face up to, look forward to, object to, prefer ...to, resort to, take to; the adjectives accustomed to, close to, opposed to, resigned to, used to; and the preposition in addition to.

The pattern my success in finding out

Some verbs and adjectives can take a preposition + gerund, e.g. succeed in doing, grateful for having. We can also use a preposition + gerund after a related noun. I noticed Jeffs **success in getting** the price reduced. We expressed our **gratitude for having** had the opportunity. Some other nouns can also take a preposition + gerund. How would you like the **idea of living** in a caravan? There's a small **advantage in moving** first. We can use these expressions:

advantage of/in excitement about/at possibility of aim of/in expense of/in problem of/in

amazement at par of prospect of anger about/at gratitude for purpose of/in annoyance about/at idea of question about/of anxiety about insistence on reason for apology for interest in satisfaction with awareness of job of success in belief in matter of surprise at boredom with objection to task of danger of/in pleasure of/in work of difficulty (in) point of/in worry about effect of

The pattern before leaving

Please switch off the lights **before leaving.**

Instead of landing at Heathrow, we had to go to Manchester. The picture was hung upside down **without** anyone **noticing** it. She succeeded in business **by being** completely single-minded. **How about coming** round this evening? I still feel tired **in spite of having slept** eight hours. **Despite** your **reminding** me, I forgot. We can use a gerund after these prepositions:

after besides in on account of against by in addition to since as a result of by means of in favour of through as well as despite in spite of what about because of for instead of with before how about on without

We cannot use a finite clause or a to-infinitive after a preposition. NOT instead of we landed and NOT instead of to land

Determiner + gerund

The pattern the driving

We can use a gerund after the, this, that, some, no, a lot of, a little, a bit of and much. Nancy likes her new job, but **the driving** makes her tired. **This** constant **arguing** gets on my nerves. I'd like to find time for **some fishing** at the weekend. **No parking.** (= Parking is not allowed.) I've got **a bit of shopping** to do. The + gerund is specific rather than general. **The driving** makes her tired. (= the driving she does in her job) **Driving** makes her tired. (= all driving, driving in general)

The pattern the driving of heavy lorries

A gerund clause can have an object.

An important part of our work is **keeping records. Playing ball games** is not allowed. When we use a determiner + gerund, the object has of before it. An important part of our work is **the keeping of records. The playing of ball games** is prohibited. This pattern with of can be rather formal and is typical of an official, written style.

Instead of a gerund, we often use other abstract nouns in this pattern. the **management** of small businesses the **education** of young children Here management and education are more usual than managing and educating.

Participles

A participle can be an ing-form like playing (active participle), or a form like played, written (past or passive participle). We can put an object or adverbial after the participle. Kate fell asleep **watching television last night.** A participle can also have a subject.

I waited, **my heart beating** fast.

Participle + noun • 137

flashing lights **recorded** music

Verb + participle • 138

Well, I mustn't **stand chatting** here all day.

Participle clauses of time, reason etc • 139

I went wrong **adding up these figures.**

Having no money, we couldn't get in.

Verb + object + participle • 140

I **saw you talking** to the professor.

Participle forms

Active Passive

playing Simple played

Continuous being played

Perfect having played having been played

Past played

An active participle is the ing-form of a verb, e.g. laughing, waiting.

I heard you **laughing.** We sat there **waiting** patiently.

This form is the same as a gerund.

A passive or past participle is a form such as covered, annoyed, broken, left.

Although **covered** by insurance, Tom was **annoyed** about the accident.

I stepped on some **broken** glass.

There were two parcels **left** on the doorstep.

A regular form ends in ed. For irregular forms,

A passive participle can be simple or continuous.

Simple: They wanted the snow **cleared** away.

Continuous: We saw the snow **being cleared** away.

A participle can also be perfect.

Having waited an hour, the crowd were getting impatient.

Having been delayed for an hour, the concert started at nine o'clock.

In the negative, not comes before the participle.

He hesitated, **not knowing** what to do.

Not having been informed, we were completely in the dark.

Participle clauses

A participle clause can be just a participle on its own.
Everyone just stood there **talking.**
There can be an object or adverbial.
We saw a policeman **chasing someone.**
Cut above the right eye, the boxer was unable to continue.
An adverbial usually comes after the participle, and an object always comes after it.
NOT We saw a policeman someone chasing.
NOTE For adverb + participle + noun, e.g. rapidly rising inflation,
A participle can sometimes have a subject.
The lights having gone out, we couldn't see a thing.
If there is no subject, then it is understood to be the same as in the main clause.
The men sat round the table **playing** cards.
(The men were playing cards.)

Participle + noun

We can use an active or passive participle before a noun. Active: **Boiling** water turns to steam. (= water which is boiling) The team was welcomed by **cheering** crowds. Passive: I had a **reserved** seat. (= a seat which had been reserved) The experiment must be done under **controlled** conditions.
The terrorists used a **stolen** car. This pattern is often neater than using a finite clause such as **When water boils,** it turns to steam, or The terrorists used a car **they had stolen.** The participle modifies the noun, like an adjective. Compare **hot** water, **enthusiastic** crowds, a **special** seat. But we cannot always use the pattern. For example, we can say a **barking** dog but NOT an eating dog.
Sometimes we put an adverb before the participle. **fanatically cheering** crowds **properly trained** staff
We can also form compounds with adverbs or nouns. a **fast-growing** economy a **wood-burning** stove **handwritten** notes **undercooked** meat a **nuclear-powered** submarine
But we cannot use longer phrases. NOT written in pencil notes NOT at the top of their voices cheering crowds But for notes written in pencil,
We can use a few past participles in this pattern. the **escaped** prisoner a **retired** teacher **fallen** rocks
We can sometimes add ed to a noun to form a similar kind of modifier. a **walled** city (= a city with a wall) This happens mostly with compounds. a **dark-haired** man (= a man with dark hair) a short-sleeved shirt (= a shirt with short sleeves)

Verb + participle

The pattern We stood watching

We can use a participle after stand, sit, lie, go and run. The whole family **stood waving** in the road. Karen **sat** at the table **reading** a newspaper. The girl **lay trapped** under the wreckage for three days. People **ran screaming** for help. The two actions, for example the standing and the waving, happen at the same time.

Go shopping and do the shopping

We use go/come + active participle to talk about some activities away from the home, especially leisure activities.
I'd love to **go swimming.** We **went riding** yesterday.
Come cycling with us. Mac **goes jogging** every morning.

Notes

We use do the + gerund for some kinds of work, especially housework.
I usually **do the washing** at the weekend.
Someone comes in to **do the cleaning** for us.
Have you **done the ironing** yet?
We can use do some..., do a lot of/a bit of... etc for both leisure and work.
I once **did some surfing** in California.
Jeff **does a lot of cooking,** doesn't he?
I don't **do much fishing** these days.
I'm afraid we've got **a lot of tidying** up to **do.**
We can also use do + gerund.
I can't **do sewing.** I always make a mess of it.
We **did trampolining** once a week at school last year.

Participle clauses of time, reason etc

Time

A clause with an active participle (e.g. playing, serving) means an action at the same time as the action of the main clause. Mike hurt his hand **playing badminton.** We were rushing about **serving tea to everyone.** NOTE For conjunction + participle, e.g. Mike hurt his hand **while playing badminton,** The participle clause can come first, but this is rather literary. **Coming up the steps,** I fell over. We can also use a participle clause when two short, connected actions are close in time, even if they do not happen at exactly the same time. **Taking a note from her purse,** she slammed it down on the counter.
Opening the file, the detective took out a newspaper cutting. This pattern is rather literary. It is more neutral to use two main clauses. She took a note from her purse **and slammed** it down on the counter.
We can also use a perfect participle for an action which comes before another connected one.
Having filled his glass/Filling his glass, Max took a long drink. But when the first action is not short, we must use the perfect. **Having dug a hole in the road,** the men just disappeared. NOT Digging a hole in the road, the men just disappeared. The clause with the perfect participle can come after the main clause. They left the restaurant, **having spent** two hours over lunch. e In the passive we can use a simple, continuous or perfect participle. The old woman walked slowly to the lift, **assisted by the porter.** I don't want to stay out here **being bitten by insects. A hole having been dug,** the men just disappeared.

Participle clauses of time, reason etc

Comparison of patterns

a **After he had left** the building, the man hailed a taxi.
b **After leaving** the building,...
c After having left the building,**...**
d **Having left** the building,**...**
e **Leaving** the building,...

Sentence (a) is the most neutral in style and the most usual of these patterns in everyday speech. (b) is also fairly usual, although a little more formal. (c) is less usual because after and having both repeat the idea of one action following the other. (d) and (e) are rather literary. (e) means that the two actions were very close in time.

Conjunction + participle

We can use an active or passive participle after when, whenever, while, once, until, if and although.

You should wear gloves **when using** an electric saw. **Once opened,** the contents should be consumed within three days. **Although expecting** the news, I was greatly shocked by it. This pattern is a little more formal than a finite clause such as when you use an electric saw. It is common in instructions.

Reason

A participle clause can express reason.

Crowds were waiting at the airport, **hoping to see Madonna arrive.** (= ... because they were hoping to see her arrive.) **Not feeling very well,** James decided to lie down. **Having lost my passport,** I have to apply for a new one. **The restaurant having closed,** there was nowhere to eat. **Being rather busy,** I completely forgot the time. The participle clause can be rather literary. For other ways of expressing reason, In the passive we can use a simple, continuous or perfect participle. He died at thirty, **struck** down by a rare disease. In summer the ducks have it easy, always **being fed** by tourists. **Having been renovated** at great expense, the building looks magnificent. c We can use with before a participle clause with a subject. **With prices going up so fast,** we can't afford luxuries. It was a large room, **with bookshelves covering most of the walls.**

Result

An active participle after the main clause can express result. They pumped waste into the river, **killing all the fish.** The film star made a dramatic entrance, **attracting everyone's attention.**

Conditions

A participle clause can express a condition. **All being well,** we should be home about six.

(= If all is w e l l , . . .)

We plan to eat outside, **weather permitting. Taken daily,** vitamin pills can improve your health.

Idioms

We can use a participle clause in some idiomatic phrases which comment on a statement or relate it to a previous one. **Strictly speaking,** you can't come in here unless you're a club member. Things don't look too good. But **having said that,** there are still grounds for optimism. I'm going on a computer course next week. ~ **Talking of** computers, ours broke down yesterday.

Verb + object + participle

The pattern I saw you doing it

I **saw two men cutting** down a tree. We **heard you arguing** with your brother. Can you **smell something burning?** We can use an object +

active participle after these verbs of perception: see, watch, notice, observe; hear, listen to; feel; smell. b A verb of perception can also take an object + bare infinitive. I **saw two men cut** down a tree. We didn't **notice anyone leave** the building. A bare infinitive means the complete action, but the participle means action for a period of time, whether or not we see the whole action. I saw them **cut** the tree down. It didn't take long. (= I saw them. They cut it down.) I saw them **cutting** the tree down as I went past. (= I saw them. They were cutting it down.)

But when we talk about a short action, we can use either pattern. Bernard watched the horse **jump/jumping** the fence. We didn't notice anyone **leave/leaving** the building.

The pattern I kept you waiting

The trainer **had the players running** round the field. We soon **got the machine working** again. Doctor Jones is rather slow. He often keeps **his patients waiting.** The driver **left us standing** at the side of the road. They **caught a student cheating** in the exam. We can use an object + active participle after have, get, start, keep, leave, find and catch. The participle here means action for a period of time.

The pattern I spent some time waiting

I've **spent half an hour looking** for that letter.

The company **wasted millions of pounds investing** in out-of-date technology.

We can also use a participle after spend, waste or lose and an expression of time or money.

The pattern You were seen doing it

The men **were seen cutting** down a tree.

We **were left standing** at the side of the road.

The pattern I want it done

Pamela **wanted the carpet (to be) cleaned.**

I'd like this drawing (to be) photocopied, please.

We **prefer the lights (to be) turned** down.

We can use an object + passive participle (or passive to-infinitive) after want, need, (would) like, (would) love, (would) prefer and (would) hate.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are infinitives discuss the rules for using infinitive clauses?
2. Discuss some patterns of using gerund clause as subject
3. What are the participles and its type? Explain with suitable example.
4. What are gerund? Discuss their use in sentence with suitable examples
5. Discuss various forms of participles with suitable examples.

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

UNIT-4 THE NOUN PHRASE

CONTENTS

Nouns and noun phrases

Nouns

Worried that **ground staff** were stealing **miniature bottles of whisky** from a Pan-Am **aircraft, security guards** set a **trap. In** the **summer of 1978** they wired up a **cuckoo clock** inside the **drinks cabinet** so arranged that it would stop whenever the **door** was opened. This, they said, would reveal the exact **time of** the **theft.**

They omitted, however, to tell the **plane's crew,** with the **result** that a **stewardess, Miss Susan Becker,** assumed it was a **bomb.** She alerted the **pilot of** the **Boeing** 727 who made an **emergency landing** at **Berlin** where eighty **passengers** left in a **hurry** through **fire exits.**

A Pan-Am **spokesman** said afterwards that the **miniature bottles** of **whisky** on the **plane** cost 17 **pence** each. The **cost** of the **emergency landing** was £6,500. (from Stephen Pile The Book of Heroic Failures)

The meaning of nouns

Nouns have many different kinds of meanings. Concrete nouns refer to physical things: aircraft, clock, door, whisky. Abstract nouns refer to ideas and qualities: time, result, security. Nouns can also refer to actions and events: theft, landing; and to roles: pilot, spokesman. A noun can also be a name: Berlin.

The form of nouns

Many nouns have no special form to show that they are nouns. But there are a number of endings used to form nouns from other words: movement, intention, difference, kindness, security, landing. • b Most nouns do not have gender. There are only a few word pairs such as steward/ stewardess. Nouns do not have endings to show that they are subject or object. The only endings are for the plural (bottles, • 145) and the possessive (the plane's crew,

Noun phrases

A noun phrase can be one word. **Whisky** is expensive. (uncountable noun) **Planes** take off from here. (plural noun) They landed at **Berlin. (**name) **She** alerted the pilot. (pronoun) It can also be more than one word. Someone was stealing **the whisky. A lot of planes** take off from here. **Security guards** set a trap. In a noun phrase there can be determiners, quantifiers and modifiers, as well as a noun.

Determiners These come before the noun. **a** bomb **the** result **this** idea **my** bag The determiners are the articles (a, the), demonstratives (this, that, these, those) and Possessives (e.g. my, your). Quantifiers

These also come before the noun. **a lot of** money **two** people **every** photo **half** the passengers Quantifiers are a lot of, many, much, a few, every, each, all, most, both, half, some, any, no etc.

Modifiers

A noun can be modified by an adjective or by another noun.

Adjective: **small** bottles the **exact** time

Noun: **glass** bottles an **emergency** landing

A prepositional phrase or adverb phrase can come after the noun and modify it.

the summer **of 1978** the people **inside**

Overview

This is the basic structure of a noun phrase.

Quantifier Determiner Adjective Noun Noun Other (+ of) modifier modifier modifiers

a bomb

a hot meal for two

the door

all these bottles here

a lot of empty bottles

a lot of her friends

enough exits

some nice soup dishes

each of the heavy glass doors of the building

Here are some more details about the structure of a noun phrase.

a A quantifier can be more than one word.

a lot of money **two hundred and fifty** passengers

b We sometimes use both a quantifier and a determiner.

all that whisky **both the** doors

We can do this with all, both and half.

We can also use a determiner after a quantifier + of. **each of the** doors **a lot of my** time **one of these** magazines For more about quantifiers and determiners together, .Sometimes a quantifier comes after a determiner. We can use many, few or a number after the, these, those or a possessive. **the many** rooms of the house **those few** people left **the three** brothers

A possessive form (e.g. Susan's, the man's) functions as a determiner.

lot of **Susan's** friends (Compare: a lot of **her** friends) **the man's** seat all **the passengers'** meals

There can be more than one adjective or noun modifier. a **lovely hot** meal **china soup** dishes For the order of adjectives, The modifier can be a gerund or participle. Gerund: some **cooking** oil a **flying** lesson

Participle: a **ticking** clock some **stolen** bottles of whisky g After a noun we can use a clause as a modifier. a plan **to catch a thief** a clock **hidden inside the drinks cabinet** the stewardess **who was serving drinks** h Next, last and first, second, third etc come after a determiner, not before it. **your next** job **most of the second** week **this third** anniversary But they usually go before one, two, three etc.
my **next two** jobs the **first six** weeks We can use an adverb before a quantifier or an adjective.
Adverb + quantifier **almost all** the time **quite a lot of** money **very many** bottles Adverb + adjective a **very expensive** trap some **really nice** soup dishes A noun phrase can be a subject, an object, a complement or an adverbial. It can also be the object of a preposition. Subject: Object: Complement: Adverbial: Prepositional object: **Security guards** set a trap. The stewardess alerted **the pilot.** The cost of a bottle was **17 pence. That day** something unusual happened. The passengers left in **a hurry** through **fire exits.**

Countable and uncountable nouns

Introduction

a Countable nouns can be singular or plural: book(s), hotel(s), boat(s), day(s), job(s), mile(s), piece(s), pwblem(s), dream(s). Uncountable nouns are neither singular nor plural: water, sugar, salt, money, music, electricity, happiness, excitement. We use countable nouns for separate, individual things such as books and hotels, things we can count. We use uncountable nouns for things that do not naturally divide into separate units, such as water and sugar, things we cannot count. b Many countable nouns are concrete: table(s), car(s), shoe(s). But some are abstract: situation(s), idea(s). Many uncountable nouns are abstract: beauty, love, psychology. But some are concrete: butter, plastic. Many nouns can be either countable or uncountable. • (5) c An uncountable noun takes a singular verb, and we use this/that and it. **This** milk **is** off. I'll pour it down the sink.

Words that go with countable/uncountable nouns

Some words go with both countable and uncountable nouns: **the** boat or **the** water. But some words go with only one kind of noun: **a** boat but NOT a water, **much** water but how **many** boats.
how
Countable Uncountable Singular Plural
the **the** boat **the** boats **the** water a/an **a** boat some (**some** boat) **some** boats **some** water Noun on its own boats water no **no** boat **no** boats **no** water this/that **this** boat **this** water these/those **these** boats Possessives **our** boat **our** boats **our** water Numbers **one** boat **two** boats a lot of **a lot of** boats **a lot of** water many/few **many** boats much/little **much** water all **all** the boat **all** (the) boats **all** (the) water each/every **every** boat

The of-pattern expressing quantity

Look at these phrases.
a **glass of** water two **pounds of** flour a **piece of** wood
NOT a glass water
The pattern is countable noun + of+ uncountable noun.
Here are some more examples of this pattern.

Containers: a **cup of** coffee, a **glass of** milk, a **bottle of** wine,
a **box of** rubbish, a **packet of** sugar, a **tin of** pears,
ajar of jam, a **tube of** toothpaste, a **sack of** flour
Measurements: three **metres of** curtain material, a **kilo of** flour,
twenty **litres of** petrol, a **pint of** lager,
two **spoonfuls** of sugar
'Piece': a **piece of** cheese/chocolate/plastic/cotton
a **slice/piece of** bread/cake/meat
a **sheet/piece of** paper, a **bar of** soap/chocolate
a **stick/piece of** chalk, a **loaf of** bread
a **drop of** water/ink/oil etc, a **grain of** sand/rice
a **lump of** coal/sugar etc
a piece/slice
of bread
a loaf
(of bread)
a piece
of chocolate
a bar
of chocolate
c We can also use container/measurement + of+ plural noun.
a **box** of matches a **pound of** tomatoes
This can be more convenient than saying six tomatoes.
Some expressions go only with plural nouns, not uncountable nouns.
a crowd of people a series of programmes a **bunch of** flowers
We can use piece(s) of, bit(s) of and item(s) of with some uncountable nouns. • (4a)
We can also use these expressions.
a **period/moment of calm a degree of** doubt a **sum/an amount of** money
e Kind, sort, type and make go with either a countable or an uncountable noun. what **kind of** sugar this **make of** computer

Countable or uncountable noun?

It is not always obvious from the meaning whether a noun is countable or uncountable. For example, information, news and furniture are uncountable. I've got **some information** for you. NOT an information There **was** no **news** of the missing hiker NOT There were no news. They had very **little furniture,** NOT very few furniture's But we can use piece(s) of, bit(s) of and item(s) of with many such nouns.
I've got **a piece of information** for you.
They had very few **items of furniture.**
Here are some uncountable nouns which may be countable in other languages.
Accommodation advice applause baggage behaviour bread camping cash clothing countryside crockery cutlery damage (• Note a) education (• Note b)
English (the language)
Equipment evidence fruit fun furniture gossip harm health help (• Note c) homework housework housing jewellery knowledge (•Note b) land laughter leisure lightning litter luck luggage machinery money news pay

(= wages) permission pollution progress proof rain research rice rubbish scenery shopping sightseeing stuff thunder toast traffic transport travel violence weather work (• Note d)

The following nouns are countable. Their meanings are related to the uncountable nouns above. For example, suitcase is countable, but luggage is uncountable. bag(s) camp(s) clothes (• Note e) clue(s) coin(s) fact(s) hobby/hobbies house(s) jewel(s) job(s) journey(s) laugh(s) loaf/loaves machine(s) rumour(s) shop(s) shower(s) sight(s) storm(s) suggestion(s) permit(s) suitcase(s) thing(s) vegetable(s)
vehicle(s)

Nouns that can be either countable or uncountable

Some concrete nouns are countable when they refer to something separate and individual, but uncountable when they refer to a type of material or substance. Countable Uncountable They had **a** nice **carpet** in the living-room. We bought ten square metres of **carpet.** The protestors threw **stones** at the police. The statue is made of **stone.** b Animals, vegetables and fruit are uncountable when we cut or divide them. Countable Uncountable buy **a** (whole) **chicken** put **some chicken** in the sandwiches

peel **some potatoes** eat **some potato** pick **three tomatoes** a pizza with **tomato** c These nouns can be countable or uncountable with different meanings. Countable Uncountable

a glass/some glasses of water **some glass** for the window
my **glasses** (= spectacles • 155)
a daily **paper** (= newspaper) **some** writing **paper**
my papers (= documents)
an ice (= ice-cream) **ice** on the road
an iron (for ironing clothes) **iron** (a metal)
a tin of beans **tin** (a metal)
a bedside **light** (= lamp) the speed of **light**
a hair/hairs on your collar comb your **hair**
a girl in **a** red **dress** wearing even ing **dress**
I've been here lots of **times.** I haven't got much **time.** (= occasions)
an interesting **experience experience** in the job (= an event) (= length of time doing it)
a small **business** (= company) do **business (-** buying and selling)
a property (= building) **some property** (= what someone owns)
The USA is **a democracy.** the idea of **democracy**

d The countable noun often refers to a specific example, and the uncountable noun often refers to an action or idea in general.
Countable Uncountable

a drawing/painting (= a picture) good at **drawing/painting**
I heard **a noise.** constant traffic **noise**
an interesting **conversation** the art of **conversation**
a short **war** the horrors of **war**
Tennis is **a sport.** There's always **sport** on television.
He led **a** good **life. Life** isn't fair.

Nouns which describe feelings are usually uncountable, e.g. fear, hope. But some can be countable, especially for feelings about something specific.

a fear of dogs hopes for the future
doubts about the wisdom of the decision
an intense dislike of quiz shows
Pity, shame, wonder, relief, pleasure and delight are singular as complement.
It seemed a pity to break up the party.
Thanks very much. ~ It's a pleasure.
f When ordering food or drink or talking about portions, we can use countable nouns.
I'll have a lager. (= a glass of lager)
Three coffees, please. (= three cups of coffee)
Two sugars. (= two spoonfuls of sugar)
Some nouns can be countable with the meaning 'kind(s) of**...**'
These lagers are all the same. (= kinds of lager)
There are lots of different grasses. (= kinds of grass)
'You can get a meal here.'

The plural of nouns

'You can buy different kinds of food here.'

Form

A countable noun (door, plane, stewardess) has both a singular and a plural form.
To form the plural we add s (door**s**, plane**s**) or es (stewardess**es**).
Some nouns have an irregular plural, e.g. man men. • 295
To form the plural of a compound noun or of two nouns together, we add s/es to the end.
weekends bedrooms motor-bikes glass dishes We also add s/es to the end of a noun formed from a verb + adverb. breakdowns walk-outs check-ups
When a prepositional phrase comes after the noun, we add s/es to the noun. Doctors of Philosophy mothers-in-law And when an adverb follows a noun in er, we add s/es to the noun. passers-by runners-up
In expressions with man/woman + noun, both parts change to the plural. women jockeys (= jockeys who are women)
After a year or an abbreviation, the plural ending can be apostrophe + s. the 1950s/the 1950's most MPs/most MP's

Use

a We use the singular to talk about one thing. The **door** was closed. We waited for an **hour.**
There was only one **passenger.** I've lost my **job.** b **We** use the plural for more than one. The **doors** were all closed. We waited for one and a quarter **hours.** There were hundreds of **passengers. I've** got one or two **jobs** to do.

The possessive form

Form

To form the possessive we add an apostrophe + s to a singular noun; we add an apostrophe to a plural noun ending in s; and we add an apostrophe + s to a plural not ending in s. Singular + 's my friend's name s-plural + ' my friends' names Other plurals + 's the children's names For pronunciation,

Use

We use the possessive form to express a relation, often the fact that someone has something or that something belongs to someone. Julia's coat Emma's idea my brother's friend the workers' jobs The possessive usually has a definite meaning. Julia's coat means ' the coat that belongs to Julia'. But we do not say the with a singular name. NOT the Julia's coat For **a** coat of Julia's, • 174(5).

Possessive form or of?

There is a pattern with of which has the same meaning as the possessive. **my friend's** name/the name **of my friend** Sometimes we can use either form. But often only one form is possible. **your father's** car NOT the car of your father the beginning **of the term** NOT the term's beginning In general we are more likely to use the possessive form with people rather than things and to talk about possession rather than about other relations. b We normally use the possessive with people and animals. **my friend's** sister **the dog's** bone **the Atkinsons'** garden But we use the of-pattern with people when there is a long phrase or a clause. It's the house **of a wealthy businessman from Saudi Arabia.** In the hall hung the coats **of all the people attending the reception.** Sometimes both patterns are possible.

the Duchess of Glastonbury's jewellery the jewellery **of the Duchess of Glastonbury**

We normally use the of-pattern with things. the start **of the match** the bottom **of the bottle** the day **of the carnival** the end **of the film** d We can use both patterns with nouns that do not refer directly to people but suggest human activity or organization, for example nouns referring to places, companies or newspapers. **Scotland's** rivers the rivers **of Scotland the company's** head office the head office **of the company the magazine's** political views the political views **of the magazine**

Some other uses of the possessive

There's **a children's playground** here. You can use **the customers' car park**. The possessive form can express purpose. A children's playground is a playground for children. Other examples: a girls' school, the men's toilet, a boy's jacket. We found a **bird's nest.** It was a **man's voice** that I heard. Here man's modifies voice, like an adjective. It tells us what kind of voice. Compare a **male** voice. c **The girl's reply** surprised us.

Roger's actions were later criticized.

This pattern is related to The girl replied. For more examples,

The hostages' release came unexpectedly.

Susan's promotion is well deserved.

This pattern is related to They released the hostages.

That man's stupidity is unbelievable.

The player's fitness is in question.

This pattern is related to That man is stupid. We use it mainly with humans.

The pattern yesterday's newspaper

The possessive can express time when.

Have you seen **yesterday's newspaper?**

Next month's figures are expected to show an improvement.

It can also express length of time.
We've booked **a three weeks' holiday.**
There's going to be about **an hour's delay.**

At Alec's, to the butcher's etc

We can use the possessive without a following noun when we talk about someone's home or shop.
We're all meeting at **Dave's** (house/flat).
There's a policeman outside **the McPhersons'** (house/flat).
Is there **a baker's** (shop) near here?
I was sitting in the waiting-room at **the** dentist's.
We can also use company names.
I'm just going to **Tesco's** to get some bread.
We ate at **Maxime's** (Restaurant).
There's a **Barclay's** (Bank) on the university campus.

Two nouns together

We often use one noun before another. a tennis club money problems a microwave oven The first noun modifies the second, tells us something about it, what kind it is or what it is for. a tennis club = a club for playing tennis vitamin pills = pills containing vitamins a train journey = a journey by train a phone bill = a bill for using the phone Sometimes there is a hyphen (e.g. waste-bin), and sometimes the two nouns are written as one (e.g. armchair). There are no exact rules about whether we join the words or not. 3 The stress is more often on the first noun. '**tennis** club ma'**chine**-gun '**car** park '**fire** alarm But sometimes the main stress comes on the second noun. cardboard '**box** microwave '**oven** town '**hall** There are no exact rules about stress, but for more details, The first noun is not normally plural.The **Sock** Shop a **picture** gallery an **eye** test a **book** case Here are some examples of the different kinds of noun + noun pattern. a a coffee table (= a table for coffee) a car park security cameras a cricket ball an oil can (= a can for holding oil) b a war film (= a film about war) a crime story pay talks a gardening book a computer magazine a chess player (= someone who plays chess) a lorry driver music lovers a concrete mixer (= a machine that mixes concrete) a potato peeler a food blender a sweet shop (= a shop that sells sweets) a biscuit factory steel production (= the production of steel) life insurance car theft a summer holiday (= a holiday in summer) the morning rush a future date breakfast television a country cottage (= a cottage in the country) a motorway bridge Swindon station a hospital doctor a world recession e a plastic bag (= a bag made of plastic) a paper cup a brick wall a glass vase a tin can the oven door (= the door of the oven) factory chimneys the river bank the town centre

A milk bottle is a bottle for holding milk. Milk refers to the purpose of the bottle. A bottle of milk is a bottle full of milk. Milk refers to the contents of the bottle.

a milk bottle
Purpose:
Contents:
a bottle of milk
a wine glass
a glass of wine

a jam jar
a jar of jam
a bookshelf
a shelf of books
7 There are more complex patterns with nouns.
a We can use more than two nouns.
Eastbourne town centre a plastic shopping-bag
a life insurance policy security video cameras
Somerset County Cricket Club summer activity holiday courses
We can build up phrases like this.
an air accident (= an accident in the air)
an investigation team (= a team for investigating something)
an air accident investigation team
(= a team for investigating accidents in the air)

Phrases after a noun

We can use adjectives in these complex noun patterns. a **comprehensive** road atlas a **handy** plastic shopping-bag a 'Sunuser' **solar** heating system **British** Channel Island Ferries

Phrases after a noun

We can use a clause or phrase after a noun to modify it. Clause: the fact **that I got there first** • 262 (7)
some of those people **who called** Phrase: all these boxes **here** every day **of the week** a hot meal **for two** 2 The phrase after the noun can be a prepositional phrase, an adverb phrase, an adjective phrase or a noun phrase. Prepositional phrase: When will I meet the girl **of my dreams?** Adverb phrase: We don't talk to the people **upstairs.** Adjective phrase: The police found parcels **full of cocaine.** Noun phrase: The weather **that day** was awful. The phrase modifies the noun, tells us more about it. The prepositional phrase is the most common. The period **just after lunch** is always quiet. I'd love an apartment **on Fifth Avenue. A** man **with very fair hair** was waiting in reception. The idea **of space travel** has always fascinated me. What are the prospects **for a peaceful solution?** For noun + preposition, e.g. prospects for, We can sometimes use two or more phrases together after a noun. Here are some examples from British newspapers. Passengers **on some services from King's Cross, Euston and Paddington** will need a boarding pass. Violence erupted at the mass funeral **of African National Congress victims of last week's massacre at Ciskei.** Chris Eubank recorded his fourth successful defence **of the WBO supermiddleweight championship at Glasgow on Saturday with a unanimous points win over America's Tony Thornton.** We can also use a mixture of phrases and clauses. The baffling case **of a teenage girl who vanished exactly twenty years ago** has been re-opened by police.

Nominalization

Some noun phrases are equivalent to clauses.
Clause Noun phrase
The residents **protested.** the residents' **protests**
Someone **published** the document. the **publication** of the document
The landscape **is beautiful.** the **beauty** of the landscape

Expressing an idea in a noun phrase rather than a clause is called 'nominalization'.

Here are two examples in sentences.

The residents' protests were ignored.

Notes

The government opposed **the publication of the document.**

In written English, this is often preferred to The residents protested, but they were

ignored. For an example text, • 53(2).

An adverb in a clause is equivalent to an adjective in a noun phrase.

Adverb in clause Adjective in noun phrase

The residents protested **angrily.** The residents' **angry** protests were ignored.

The landscape is **amazingly** Discover the **amazing** beauty of the landscape. beautiful.

3 Look at these examples.

Verb + object Noun + preposition + object

They published the document. the publication **of** the document

Someone attacked the President. an attack **on** the President

They've changed the law. a change **in** the law

He answered the question. his answer **to** the question

The most common preposition here is of. For noun + preposition,

Agreement

Singular and plural verbs

1 In the third person there is sometimes agreement between the subject and the first (or only) word of a finite verb phrase.

The **house is** empty. The **houses are** empty.

Here we use is with a singular subject and are with a plural.

An uncountable noun takes a singular verb.

The **grass is** getting long.

With a present-tense verb there is agreement.

The **window is** broken. The **windows are** broken.

The **office has** a phone. The **offices have** phones.

The **garden looks** nice. The **gardens look** nice.

Singular and plural subjects

It is usually easy to decide if a subject is singular or plural, but there are somepoints to note.

TWO or more phrases linked by and take a plural verb.

Jamie and Emma go sailing at weekends.

Both the kitchen and the dining-room face due west.

Wheat and maize are exported.

But when the two together express something that we see as a single thing, thenwe use a singular verb.

Bread and butter was all we had.

When two phrases are linked by or, the verb usually agrees with the nearest.

Either Thursday or **Friday is** OK.

Either my sister or **the neighbours are** looking after the dog.

A phrase of measurement takes a singular verb. **Ten miles is** too far to walk. **Thirty pounds seems** a reasonable price. Here we are talking about the amount as a whole - a distance of ten miles, a sum of
thirty pounds, not the individual miles or pounds. Titles and names also take a singular verb when they refer to one thing. **'Star Wars' was** a very successful film.
The Rose and Crown is that old pub by the river.
4 A phrase with as well as or with does not make the subject plural.
George, together with some of his friends, **is** buying a race-horse.
A phrase with and in brackets does not normally make the subject plural.
The kitchen (and of course the dining-room) **faces** due west.
There is agreement with be, • 84(2), have, • 85(2), and a present-simple verb
(look). A third-person singular subject takes a verb form in s.
With a past-tense verb there is agreement only with **be.**
The window was broken. The windows were broken.
With other verbs, there is only one past form.
The office(s) had lots of phones. The **garden(s) looked nice.**
After not only... but also, the verb agrees with the nearest phrase.
Not only George but also **his friends are** buying the horse.
If a phrase comes after the noun, the verb agrees with the first noun. The **house** between the two bungalows **is** empty. A phrase or clause as subject takes a singular verb.
Through the trees is the quickest way. **Opening my presents was** exciting.
7 Even if the subject comes after the verb, the verb agrees with the subject.
A great attraction **are the antique shops** in the old part of the town. Here a great attraction is the complement. It describes the subject, the antique shops.

One of, a number of, every, there etc

1 After a subject with one of, we use a singular verb.
One of these letters **is** for you.
2 When a plural noun follows number of, majority of or a lot of, we normally use a plural verb.
A large number of **letters were** received.
The majority of **people have** complained.
A lot of **people have** complained.
Here a number of etc expresses a quantity.
We use a singular verb after a subject with every and each and compounds with every, some, any and no.
Every pupil has to take a test.
Each **day was** the same as the one before.
Everyone has to take a test.
Someone was waiting at the door.
Nothing ever **happens** in this place.
But all and some with a plural noun take a plural verb.
All the pupils have to take a test.
Some people were waiting at the door.
We use a singular verb after who or what.

Who knows the answer? ~ We all do.
What's happened? ~ Several things.
After what/which + noun, the verb agrees with the noun.
What/Which **day is** convenient? What/Which **days are** convenient?

Notes

After none of/neither of/either of/any of+ plural noun phrase, we can use either a singular or plural verb.
None (of the pupils) **has/have** failed the test.
I don't know if **either** (of these batteries) **is/are** any good.
The plural verb is more informal.
After there, the verb agrees with its complement.
There **was an accident.** There **were some accidents.**

Nouns with a plural form

Plural noun - plural verb

Some nouns are always plural.
The **goods were** found to be defective. NOT a good My **belongings have** been destroyed in a fire. NOT my belonging Nouns always plural are belongings, clothes, congratulations, earnings, goods, odds (= probability), outskirts, particulars (= details), premises (= building), remains, riches, surroundings, thanks, troops (= soldiers), tropics.
Compare these nouns.
Plural only
hurt my **arm(s) and leg(s) arms** (= weapons)
an old **custom** go through **customs**
manner (= way) **manners** (= polite behaviour)
the content of the message the **contents of** the **box**
a **saving** of £5 all my **savings**
do some **damage** to the car pay **damages**
feel **pain(s)** in **my back** take **pains** (= care)

Plural form - singular verb

The **news isn't** very good, I'm afraid.
Gymnastics looks difficult, and it is.
Nouns like this are news; some words for subjects of study: mathematics, statistics, physics, politics, economics; some sports: athletics, gymnastics, bowls; some games: billiards, darts, dominoes, draughts; and some illnesses: measles, mumps, shingles.

Nouns with the same singular and plural form

A chemical works causes a lot **of** pollution.
Chemical works cause a lot of pollution.
Works can mean 'a factory' or 'factories'. When it is plural we use a plural verb. Nouns like this are barracks, crossroads, headquarters, means, series, species, works.

Pair nouns

We use a pair noun for something made of two identical parts. glasses/spectacles
A pair noun is plural in form and takes a plural verb.
These trousers need cleaning. Your new **glasses are** very nice.
I'm looking for **some scissors. Those tights are** cheap.
We cannot use a or numbers, NOT a trouser and NOT two trousers
We can use pair(s) of.

This pair of trousers needs cleaning.
How **have three pairs of scissors** managed to disappear?
Some pair nouns are: binoculars, glasses, jeans, pants, pincers, pliers, pyjamas, scales (for weighing), scissors, shorts, spectacles, tights, trousers, tweezers.

Group nouns

Group nouns (sometimes called 'collective nouns') refer to a group of people, e.g. family, team, crowd. After a singular group noun, the verb can often be either singular or plural.
The crowd **was/were** in a cheerful mood. There is little difference in meaning. The choice depends on whether we see the crowd as a whole or as a number of individuals.
With a singular verb we use it, its and which/that. With a plural verb we use they, their and who/that.
The government **wants** to improve **its** image.
The government **want** to improve **their** image.
The crowd **which has** gathered here **is** in a cheerful mood.
The crowd **who have** gathered here **are** in a cheerful mood.
3 We use the singular to talk about the whole group. For example, we might refer to the group's size or make-up, or how it compares with others.
The **class consists** of twelve girls and fourteen boys.
The **union is** the biggest in the country.
The plural is more likely when we talk about people's thoughts or feelings.
The **class** don't/doesn't understand what the teacher is saying.
The **union** are/is delighted with their/its pay rise.
Some group nouns are: army company group population association council jury press audience crew majority public board crowd management school choir enemy military society (= club) class family minority staff club firm navy team college gang orchestra union committee government (political) party university community
The names of institutions, companies and teams are also group nouns, e.g. Parliament, the United Nations, The Post Office, the BBC, Selfridge's, Rank Xerox, Manchester United, England (= the England team).
Safeway sells/sell organic vegetables.
Brazil is/are expected to win.
These nouns have a plural meaning and take a plural verb: police, people, livestock (= farm animals), cattle (= cows), poultry (= hens). The **police are** questioning a man.
Some **cattle have** got out into the road.

Number in the subject and object

There is sometimes a problem about number with an object. Compare these sentences.
The schools have a careers adviser.
(A number of schools share the same adviser.)
The schools have careers advisers.
(Each school has one or more advisers.)

When a number of people each have one thing, then the object is usually plural.

We put on our coats. They all nodded their heads in agreement.

But we use the singular after a subject with each or every.

Notes

Each town has its own mayor.

The articles: a/an and the

The form of the articles

a + consonant sound **an +** vowel sound

The form of the articles

1 Before a consonant sound the articles are a and the **.** Before a vowel sound

they are an and the

a shelf

a visitor

a big exhibition **an** interesting display

an exhibition

an accident

the the

the shelf **the** accident

It is the pronunciation of the next word which matters, not the spelling. Note especially words beginning with o, u or h, or abbreviations.

The basic use of the articles

A hovercraft flying at 40 mph was halted in rough seas when **a stowaway** was discovered - on **the outside.** He was seen hiding behind **a liferaft** to avoid paying **the £5 fare** from Ryde, Isle of Wight to Southsea. **The captain** was tipped off by radio. He stopped **the craft** and **a crewman** brought **the stowaway** inside. **A Hovertravel spokesman** said: 'It was **a very dangerous thing** to do. **The ride** can be bumpy and it would be easy to fall off.' When the report first mentions a thing, the noun has a/an, e.g. **a** hovercraft and **a** stowaway in the first sentence. When the same thing is mentioned again, the writer uses the. He stopped **the craft** and a crewman brought **the stowaway** inside. The means that it should be clear to the reader which one, the one we are talking about.

The difference between a/an and the is like the difference between someone! something and a personal pronoun. Police are questioning **a** man/**someone** about the incident. **The** man/He was arrested when he arrived at Southsea. A man/someone is indefinite; the man/he is definite.

The context is important in the choice of a/an or the. Take this example from Hovercraft Stowaway in (1).

The captain was tipped off by radio.

a one-day event

a union/uniform/university

a European country

a holiday

a U-turn an MI5 agent

an hour

an error

an umbrella

an only child

We use the here even though this is the first mention of the captain. Because we are talking about a hovercraft, it is clear that the captain means the captain of the hovercraft. We use the for something unique in the context - there is only one captain.

A car stopped and **the driver** got out.

You'll see a shop with paintings in **the window.**

We know which window - the window of the shop just mentioned.

Now look at these examples.

A hovercraft crossing **the English Channel** was halted in rough seas.

The Prime **Minister** is to make a statement.

The sun was shining. We were at home in **the garden.**

I'm just going to **the post office.**

Could I speak to **the manager?** (spoken in a restaurant).

I can't find **the volume control.** (spoken while looking at a stereo)

There is only one English Channel, one Prime Minister of a country, one sun in the sky, one garden of our house and one post office in our neighbourhood. So in each example it is clear which we mean.

We often use the when a phrase or clause comes after the noun and defines which one is meant.

Ours is **the house on the corner.**

I'd like to get **hold of the idiot who left this broken glass here.**

But if the phrase or clause does not give enough information to show which one, we use a/an.

He lives in **a house overlooking the park.**

We cannot use the if there are other houses overlooking the park.

We often use the when an of-phrase follows the noun.

We came to the edge of a lake.

The roof of a house was blown off in the storm.

Steve heard the sound of an aircraft overhead.

We normally use the in noun phrases with superlative adjectives and with only, next, last, same, right and wrong.

The Sears Tower is the tallest building in the world.

You're the only friend I've got.

I think you went the wrong way at the lights.

We use the in a rather general sense with some institutions, means of transport and communication, and with some jobs.

This decade has seen a revival in the cinema.

I go to work on the train. Your cheque is in the post.

Kate has to go to the dentist tomorrow.

Here the cinema does not mean a specific cinema but the cinema as an institution.

The train means the train as a means of transport.

Also the countryside, the doctor, the establishment, the media, the (news)paper, the police, the press, the seaside, the working class(es).

A/an can mean either a specific one or any one.

I'm looking for **a pen.** It's a blue one. (a specific pen)

I'm looking for **a pen.** Have you got one? (any pen)

A hovercraft was halted in rough seas yesterday. (a specific hovercraft)

The quickest way is to take **a hovercraft. (**any one)

Here is an overview of the basic uses of the articles.

a/an the
Not mentioned before Mentioned before
Do you want to see **a video?** Do you want to see **the video?**
(We don't say which video.) (= the video we are talking about)

Notes

Unique in context
Are you enjoying **the play?**
(spoken in a theatre)
Not unique Phrase or clause defines which
We watched **a film** about wildlife. I watched **the film** you videoed.
(There are other films about wildlife.) (You videoed one film.)

Alan to describe and classify

A singular noun phrase which describes something has a/an, even though it is clear which one is meant.
This is **a big house,** isn't it? Last Saturday was **a lovely day.** You are **an idiot,** you know. It's **a long way** to Newcastle. 2 We also use a/an to classify, to say what something is. What kind of bird is that? ~ **A blackbird,** isn't it? The Sears Tower is **a building** in Chicago. This includes a person's job, nationality or belief. My sister is **a doctor.** NOT My sister is doctor. The author of the report is **a Scot.**
I thought you were **a socialist.** Mr Liam O'Donnell, **a Catholic,** was injured in the incident.

The article in generalizations

This paragraph contains some generalizations about animals.
For generalizations we can use a plural or an uncountable noun on its own, or a singular noun with a/an or the. **Camels** can close their noses. **A camel** can close its nose. **The camel** can close its nose. These statements are about all camels, camels in general, not a specific camel or group of camels. We do not use the camels for a generalization.

Plural/uncountable noun on its own

Blackbirds have a lovely song. **Airports** are horrible places.
People expect good service. **Time** costs **money.**
This is the most common way of making a generalization.

Alan + singular noun

A blackbird has a lovely song.
A computer will only do what it's told to do.
An **oar** is a thing you row a boat with.
Here a blackbird means any blackbird, any example of a blackbird. We also normally use a/an when explaining the meaning of a word such as an oar.

The + singular noun

The blackbird has a lovely song.
What will the new tax mean for **the small businessman?**
Nobody knows who invented **the wheel.**
Can you play **the piano?**
Here the blackbird means a typical, normal blackbird, one which stands for blackbirds in general.
We also use the with some groups of people described in economic terms (the small businessman, the taxpayer, the customer), with inventions (the wheel, the word processor) and with musical instruments.

The+ adjective

We can use the before some adjectives of nationality and before some other adjectives to make generalizations.

The French love eating in restaurants.

What is the World Bank doing to help **the poor?**

Alan or one?

1 Alan and one both refer to one thing, but one puts more emphasis on the number. The stereo has **a** tape deck. (You can record on it.) The stereo has **one** tape deck. (You can't use two tapes.)

2 We use one for one of a larger number. It often contrasts with other. **One** shop was open, but the others were closed. **One** expert says **one** thing, and another says something different. We use one in the of-pattern. **One** of the shops was open.

3 We use one in adverb phrases with morning, day, time etc. **One morning** something very strange happened. **One day** my genius will be recognized. 4 We use a/an in some expressions of quantity, e.g. a few, a little, a lot of, a number of, • 177. And we can sometimes use a instead of one in a number, e.g. a hundred,

Alan, some and a noun on its own

We use a/an only with a singular noun. Some + plural or uncountable noun is equivalent to a/an + singular noun. Singular: There's **a rat** under the floorboards. Plural: There are **some rats** under the floorboards. Uncountable: There's **some milk** in the fridge. some rats = a number of rats; some milk = an amount of milk But we can sometimes use a plural or uncountable noun on its own. There are **rats** under the floorboards. There's **milk** in the fridge.

Leaving out some makes little difference to the meaning, but rats expresses a type of animal rather than a number of rats. 2 To classify or describe something, • 161, or to make a generalisation, we use a/an+ singular noun or a plural or uncountable noun on its own. Singular: That's **a rat,** not a mouse. A **rat** will eat anything. Plural: Those are **rats,** not mice. **Rats** will eat anything. Uncountable: Is this **milk** or cream? **Milk** is good for you.

Sugar or the sugar?

We use an uncountable or plural noun on its own for a generalization and we use the when the meaning is more specific. **Sugar** is bad for your teeth. **Children** don't like long walks. Pass **the sugar,** please. Can you look after **the children** for us ? Without **oil,** our industry would come to a halt.

The oil I got on my trousers won't wash out. Here sugar means all sugar, sugar in general, and the sugar means the sugar on the table where we are sitting. We often use abstract nouns on their own: life, happiness, love, progress, justice. **Life** just isn't fair.

But a phrase or clause after the noun often defines, for example, what life we are talking about, so we use the. **The life** of a Victorian factory worker wasn't easy.

2 Compare these two patterns with an abstract noun. I'm not an expert on **Chinese history.**

I'm not an expert on **the history of China.** The meaning is the same. Other examples: European architecture/the architecture of Europe, American literature/the literature of America. Also: town planning/the planning of towns, Mozart's music/the music of Mozart. **3** A phrase with of usually takes the, but with other phrases and clauses we can use a noun without an article.

Life in those days wasn't easy. **Silk from Japan** was used to make the wedding dress.

Life in those days is still a general idea; silk from Japan means a type of material rather than a specific piece of material.

A singular noun on its own

We cannot normally use a singular noun on its own, but there are some exceptions.

Before some nouns for institutions.

How are you getting on at **college?**

In some phrases of time.

The concert is on **Thursday.**

In some fixed expressions where the noun is repeated or there is a contrast

between the two nouns.

lie awake **night** after **night.**

The whole thing has been a fiasco from **start** to **finish.**

In a phrase with by expressing means of transport. • 228(5b)

It's quicker by **plane.**

As complement or after as, when the noun expresses a unique role.

Elizabeth was crowned **Queen.**

As (the) chairman, I have to keep order.

With a noun in apposition, especially in newspaper style.

Housewife Judy Adams is this week's competition winner.

In many idiomatic phrases, especially after a preposition or verb.

in **fact** for **example** give **way**

But others can have an article.

in **a hurry** on **the whole** take **a seat**

Names of people have no article, • 170, and most place names have no article,

9 We can sometimes leave out an article to avoid repeating it.

Put the knife and **fork** on the tray.

10 We can leave out articles in some special styles such as written instructions.

Insert **plug** in **hole** in **side panel.**

Articles with school, prison etc

We use some nouns without the when we are talking about the normal purpose of an institution rather than about a specific building.

School starts at nine o'clock.

The school is in the centre of the village.

The guilty men were sent to **prison.**

Vegetables are delivered to **the prison** twice a week.

Here school means 'school activities', but the school means 'the school building'.

There are a number of other nouns which are without the in similar contexts.
I'm usually in **bed** by eleven.
The bed felt very uncomfortable.
In bed means 'sleeping/resting', but the bed means a specific bed.
We use an article if there is a word or phrase modifying the noun.
The guilty men were sen to **a high-security prison.**
Mark is doing a course at **the new college.**
The guilty men were sent to **Parkhurst Prison.**
Here are some notes on the most common nouns of this type.
bed in bed, go to bed (to sleep); get out of bed, sit on the bed, make the bed church in/at church, go to church (to a service) class do work in class or for homework court appear in court; But explain to the court home at home; But in the house; go/come home hospital in hospital (as a patient) (USA: in the hospital); taken to hospital (as a patient); But at the hospital, market take animals to market; But at/in the market; put a house on the market (= offer it for sale) prison in prison, go to prison (as a prisoner); released from prison; Also in jail etc school in/at school, go to school (as a pupil) sea at sea (= sailing), go to sea (as a sailor); But on the sea, near/by the sea, at the seaside town in town, go to town, leave town (one's home town or a town visited regularly); But in the town centre university (studying) at university, go to university (to study); But at/to the university is also possible and is normal in the USA. Also at college etc work go to work, leave work, at work (= working/at the workplace); But go to the office/the factory

Articles in phrases of time

In a phrase of time we often use a singular noun without an article. in winter on Monday But the noun takes a/an or the if there is an adjective before the noun or if there is a phrase or clause after it. **a** very cold winter **the** Monday before the holiday **the** winter when we had all that snow

Years

The party was formed in **1981.** in **the year** 1981
The war lasted from **1812** to **1815.**

Seasons

If **winter** comes, can **spring** be
far behind?
We always go on holiday in
(the) summer.
the winter of 1947
a marvellous **summer**

Months

June is a good month to go away.
The event will be in **March.**
That was **the June** we got married.

Special times of the year

I hate **Christmas.**
Americans eat turkey at
Thanksgiving.

Notes

Days of the week

Wednesday is my busy day.
Our visitors are coming on **Saturday.**
It was **a Christmas** I'll never forget.
Rosie saw her husband again **the Easter** after their divorce.
I posted the letter on **the Wednesday** of that week.
This happened on **a Saturday** in **July.**
I'll see you at **the weekend.**

Parts of the day and night

They reached camp at **sunset.**
We'll be home before **dark.**
At midday it was very hot.
at **night, by day/night**
It was **a** marvellous **sunset.**
I can't see in **the dark.**
in/during **the day/the night/the morning/the afternoon/the evening**

NOTE

In phrases of time we normally use these nouns on their own; daybreak, dawn, sunrise;
midday, noon; dusk, twilight, sunset; nightfall, dark; midnight. But we use a/an or the for the
physical aspect, e.g. in **the** dark.

Meals

Breakfast is at eight o'clock.
I had a sandwich for **lunch.**
The breakfast we had at the hotel wasn't very nice.
Bruce and Wendy enjoyed **a delicious lunch** at Mario's.

Names of people

8 Phrases with last and next

These flats were built **last year.** The flats had been built **the previous year.**
We're having a party **next** They were having a party **the following Saturday. Saturday.**

Names of people

A person's name does not normally have **the** in front of it.
I saw Peter yesterday.
Mrs Parsons just phoned.
We can address or refer to a person as e.g. Peter or Mr Johnson, or we can refer to him as Peter Johnson. The use of the first name is informal and friendly. We use **Mr** for a man, Mrs for a married woman and Miss for an unmarried woman. Some people use **Ms** or **)** for a woman, whether married or not. We cannot normally use these titles without a following noun. NOT Good morning, mister.
A title is part of a name and has no article. **Doctor** Fry **Aunt** Mary **Lord** Olivier

But sometimes we can use a name with an article.
There's **a Laura** who works in our office. (= a person called Laura) **A Mrs Wilson** called to see you. (= someone called Mrs Wilson) **The Laura** I know has dark hair. (= the person called Laura) The gallery has **some Picassos.** (=some pictures by Picasso)

Place names and the

Most place names are without the: Texas, Calcutta. Some names take the, especially compound names, but some do not: **the** Black Sea but Lake Superior. Two things affect whether a place name has the or not. They are the kind of place it is (e.g. a lake or a sea), and the grammatical pattern of the name. We often use the in these patterns.
of-phrase: **the** Isle **of** Wight, **the** Palace **of** Congresses Adjective: **the Royal** Opera House, **the International** School Plural: **the** West **Indies** But we do not use the before a possessive.
Possessive: **Cleopatra's** Needle There are exceptions to these patterns, and the use of the is a matter of diom as much as grammatical rule.
Here are some details about different kinds of place names.
a Continents, islands, countries, states and counties Most are without the.
a trip to Europe on Bermuda a holiday in France through Texas in Hampshire New South Wales
Exceptions are names ending with words like republic or kingdom. **the** Dominican Republic **the** UK
Plural names also have the. **the** Netherlands **the** Bahamas **the** USA
Regions
When the name of a country or continent (America) is modified by another word (Central), we do not use the. Central America to North Wales South-East Asia in New England
Most other regions have the. **the** South **the** Mid-West **the** Baltic **the** Midlands **the** Riviera
c Mountains and hills Most are without the.
climbing (Mount) Kilimanjaro up (Mount) Everest But hill ranges and mountain ranges have the.
in **the** Cotswolds across **the** Alps
Lakes, rivers, canals and seas
Lakes are without the.
beside Lake Ontario
Rivers, canals and seas have the. on **the** (River) Aire **the** Missouri (river) building **the** Panama Canal
the Black Sea in **the** Pacific (Ocean) Cities, towns, suburbs and villages Most are without the.
in Sydney Kingswood, a suburb of Bristol at Nether Stowey NOTE Exceptions are The Hague and The Bronx.off Station Road in Baker Street on Madison Avenue along Broadway in Regent's Park around Kew Gardens But some road names with adjectives have the. **the** High Street **the** Great West Road
Bridges
Most bridges are without the. over Brooklyn Bridge Westminster Bridge
But there are many exceptions **the** Humber Bridge (=the bridge over the River Humber)

h Transport facilities; religious, educational and official buildings; palaces and houses
Most are without the.
to Paddington (Station) at Gatwick (Airport) St Paul's (Cathedral)
at King Edward's (School) from Aston (University) Norwich Museum
Leeds Town Hall behind Buckingham Palace to Hanover House
Exceptions are names with of-phrases or with an adjective or noun modifier.
the Chapel of Our Lady **the** American School **the** Open University
the Science Museum

Place names and the

Theatres, cinemas, hotels, galleries and centres Most have the. at **the** Apollo (Theatre) **the** Odeon (Cinema) to **the** Empire (Hotel) in **the** Tate (Gallery) near **the** Arndale Centre **the** Chrysler Building Possessive forms are an exception. Her Majesty's Theatre at Bertram's Hotel
Shops and restaurants
Most are without the.
next to W.H. Smiths shopping at Harrods just outside Boots
eating at Matilda's (Restaurant)
Exceptions are those without the name of a person.
the Kitchen Shop at **the** Bombay Restaurant

Ten pounds an hour etc

We can use a/an in expressions of price, speed etc.
Potatoes are twenty pence **a** pound.
The speed limit on motorways is seventy miles **an** hour.
Roger shaves twice **a** day.
NOTE Per is more formal, e.g. seventy miles **per** hour.
2 In phrases with to we normally use the, although a/an is also possible.
The car does sixty miles **to the** gallon/**to a** gallon.
The scale of the map is three miles **to the** inch/**to an** inch.
3 We can use by the to say how something is measured.
Boats can be hired **by the** day.
Carpets are sold **by the** square metre.

Possessives and demonstratives

Possessives

Basic use

We use Possessives to express a relation, often the fact that someone has something or that something belongs to someone. My diary is the diary that belongs to me. Compare the possessive form of a noun.
Luke's diary **our neighbour's** birthday

Determiners and pronouns

Possessive determiners (sometimes called 'possessive adjectives') come before a noun. **my** diary **our** neighbour **her** birthday NOT the diary of me and NOT the my diary We leave out the noun if it is clear from the context what we mean. When we do this, we use a pronoun. We say mine instead of my diary. I'll just look in my diary. ~ I haven't got **mine** with me.
NOT I haven't got my. and NOT I haven't got the mine. That isn't Harriet's coat. **Hers** is blue. Whose is this pen? ~ **Yours,** isn't it? **A**

possessive pronoun is often a complement. Is this diary **yours?** NOT IS this diary to you?

Form

Determiners Pronouns Singular Plural Singular Plural First person **my** pen **our** house **mine ours** Second person **your number your** coats **yours yours** Third person **his** father **their** attitude **his theirs her** decision **hers its colour**

Possessives with parts of the body

We normally use a possessive with people's heads, arms, legs etc, and their clothes, even if it is clear whose we mean. What's the matter? ~ I've hurt **my** back, NOT I've hurt the back. Both climbers broke **their** legs. Brian just stood there with **his** hands in **his** pockets.

Possessives

A friend of mine

a My friend refers to a definite person, the person I am friends with. To talk about a person I am friends with, we say one of my friends or a friend of mine.

Definite Indefinite

Singular my friend one of my friends/a friend of mine Plural my friends some of my friends/some friends of mine Here are some examples of the indefinite pattern. The twins are visiting **an uncle of theirs.** NOT a their uncle and NOT an uncle of them Don't listen to what Graham is saying. It's just **a silly idea of his.**

Didn't you borrow **some cassettes of mine?**

b We can also use the possessive form of names and other nouns.

I'm reading **a novel of Steinbeck's.**

NOT a novel of Steinbeck and NOT a Steinbeck's novel

We met **a cousin of Nicola's.**

It's just **a silly idea of my brother's.**

Own

A possessive determiner + own means an exclusive relation.

I'd love to have **my own** flat.

Students are expected to contribute **their own** ideas.

My own means 'belonging to me and not to anyone else.'

We can use a phrase like my own without a noun.

The ideas should be **your own.** (= your own ideas)

There is also a pattern with of.

I'd love a flat **of my own.** NOT an own flat

On your own and by yourself mean 'alone'.

I don't want to walk home **on my** own/by myself.

Idioms

There are also some idiomatic expressions with Possessives.

I'll do **my best.** (= I'll do as well as I can.)

We **took our leave.** (= We said goodbye.)

It was your fault we got lost. (= You are to blame.)

I've changed my mind. (= I've changed the decision I made.)

20 POSSESSIVES AND DEMONSTRATIVES

Demonstratives

Basic use

We use demonstratives to 'point' to something in the situation. This and these refer to something near the speaker. That and those refer to something further away. This and that are singular. These and those are plural.

Forms

Singular
Plural
Determiners Pronouns
this carpet
that colour
these flowers
those hills

Determiners and pronouns

This, that, these and those can be determiners or pronouns. As determiners (sometimes called 'demonstrative adjectives'), they come before a noun. We can leave out the noun if the meaning is clear without it. Determiner: What about **this** jug? Pronoun: What about **this?**

Demonstratives

Details about use

The basic meaning of this/these is 'the thing(s) near the speaker', and of that/those 'the thing(s) further away', both in space and time.
Near: **this** book **(here) this** time **(now)**
Far: **that** book **(there) that** time **(then)**
b When we are in a place or situation or at an event, we use this, not that, to refer to it.
This town has absolutely no night life.
How long is **this weather** going to last?
This is a great party.
This town is the town where we are.
We can use a demonstrative before words for people. **that waiter** (over there) **these people** (in here)
We can also use this and that on their own when we identify someone.
Mother, **this** is my friend Duncan. ~ Hello, Duncan.
That was Carol at the door. ~ Oh? What did she want?
On the phone we use this when we identify ourselves and that when we ask whothe other person is.
This is Steve. Is **that** you, Shirley?
This/these can mean 'now, near in time' and that/those 'then, further away in time'.
My mother is staying with us **this** week.
Yes, I remember the festival. My mother was staying with us **that** week.
The only thing people do **these** days is watch TV.
It was different when I was young. We didn't have TV in **those** days.
We can use this or that to refer to something mentioned before.
I simply haven't got the money. **This** is/**That**'s the problem.
Here this/that means 'the fact that I haven't got the money.' That is more usual.
Here are two examples from real conversations.

The rooms are so big. **That**'s why it's cold.
Well, if you haven't got television, you can't watch it. ~ **That**'s true.
But when we refer forward to what we are going to say, we use this.
What I'd like to say is **this.** The government has...
We can use that/those to replace a noun phrase with the and so avoid repeating the noun.
The temperature of a snake is the same as **that** of the surrounding air. (that= the temperature)
Those (people) who ordered lunch should go to the dining-room.
This can happen only when there is a phrase or clause after that/those, e.g. of the surrounding air. That is rather formal in this pattern.

Quantifiers

Large and small quantities

A lot of/lots of, many and much

a These express a large quantity. We use a lot of and lots of with plural and uncountable nouns. But many goes only before plural nouns and much before uncountable nouns.
Plural: **A lot of people/Lots of people** work in London.
There aren't **many trains** on a Sunday.
Uncountable: You'll have **a lot of fun/lots of fun** at our Holiday Centre.
There isn't **much traffic** on a Sunday.
As a general rule, we use a lot of/lots of in positive statements and many or much in negatives and questions. But, • (1c).
Positive: There are **a lot of** tourists here.
Negative: There **aren't many** tourists here.
Question: Are there **many** tourists here?
How many tourists come here?
We also use many or much (but not a lot of) after very, so, too, as and how.
Very many crimes go unreported.
There were **so many** people we couldn't get in.
There's **too much** concrete here and not enough grass.
How much support is there for the idea?
A lot of is rather more informal than much/many. In informal English we can use a lot of in negatives and questions as well as in positive statements. There aren't **a lot of** tourists/many tourists here. Is there **a lot of** support/much support for the idea? And in more formal English we can use many and much in positive statements as well as in negatives and questions.
Many tourists come here year after year.

(A) few, (a) little and a bit of

a A few and a little mean a small quantity. We use them mainly in positive statements. A few goes only before plural nouns and a little before uncountable nouns. Plural: Yes, there are **a few night clubs** in the city. Uncountable: I've still got **a little money/a bit of money,** fortunately. A bit of means the same as a little, but a bit of is more informal.

We can also use few and little without a. The meaning is negative. Compare these sentences. Is this a holiday place? ~ Yes, there are **a few**

tourists here. (a few tourists = some tourists, a small number) Is this a holiday place? ~ **No,** there are **few** tourists/not **many** tourists here. It was three in the morning, but there was **a little** traffic. (a little traffic - some traffic, a small amount) It was three in the morning, so there was **little** traffic/**not much** traffic. In informal speech not many/not much is more usual than few/little.

Special patterns with many and few

Many and few can come after the, these/those or a possessive.
The few hotels in the area are always full.
Can you eat up **these few peas?**
Tim introduced us to one of **his many girl-friends.**
Look at this pattern with many a.
Many a ship has come to grief off the coast here.
I've driven along this road **many a time.**
This is rather literary. In informal speech many times or lots of times would be more usual.
Many or few can be a complement.
The disadvantages of the scheme are **many.**
This is rather literary. Many before the noun is more normal.
The scheme has **many** disadvantages/**a lot of** disadvantages.

Other expressions for large/small quantities

Large quantities
A large number of people couldn't get tickets.
A dishwasher uses a **great deal of** electricity.
It uses **a large/huge/tremendous amount of** electricity.
Numerous difficulties were put in my way.
We've got **masses of** time/heaps **of** time/loads **of** time. (informal)
Small quantities
Several people/**A handful of** people got left behind.
A computer uses only **a small/tiny amount of** electricity.

Whole and part quantities: all, most, both etc

Package systems are generally advertised on the strength of their features; a separates system may not have **many** of these. You may find **some** of them useful, but others are gimmicks... **Most** package systems have two cassette decks. **Both** decks play tapes, but only one can record. **All** the systems we tested can copy a tape from one deck to the other in about **half** the normal playing time.

Patterns

Quantifier + determiner + noun all the systems both these decks half my tapes We can use all, both and half c Quantifier + of+ determiner + noun all of the systems both of these decks most of my tapes
We can use many quantifiers: all, both, most, half none, both, either, neither, each, any, some, many, much, more and one, two, three etc. But exceptions are every and no. d Quantifier + of+ pronoun all of them both of these We can use the same words as in Pattern c. Quantifier + one each one either one
We can use either, neither, every, each and any**.** The of-pattern can come after one. each one of the systems either one of them
Most have two decks.

We can use all quantifiers except every and no. g Object pronoun + quantifier
I've heard **it all** before. We tested **them both**. We can use all and both in this pattern. h Quantifier in mid position We **all** agreed. They were **both** tested. We can use all, both and each in mid position, like an adverb. a We can use all/most + noun to make a generalization.
All rabbits love green food.
Most package systems have two cassette decks.
Most pollution could be avoided.
These are about rabbits, package systems and pollution in general.
Compare these sentences.
Most people want a quiet life. **Most of the people** here are strangers to me.
(people = people in general) (the people = a specific group of people)
When we are talking about something more specific, we use all/most/half/none + of + determiner + noun.
All (of) our rabbits died from some disease.
Most of the pubs around here serve food. NOT the most of the pubs
Copying takes **half (of) the normal playing time**.
None of these jackets fit me any more.
We can leave out of after all and half. But when there is a pronoun, we always use of.
We had some rabbits, but **all of them** died.
I read the book, but I couldn't understand **half of it.**
We can use all after an object pronoun.
The rabbits died. We lost **them all**/all of them.
It can also come in mid position or after the subject.
The systems can **all** copy a tape from one deck to the other.
The rabbits **all** died.
Who went to the disco? ~ We **all** did.
We cannot use most in this position, but we can use the adverb mostly.
Package systems mostly/usually have two cassette decks.
d None has a negative meaning. We use it with the of-pattern.
None of the rabbits survived. They all died.
NOT All of the rabbits didn't-survive.
But not all means 'less than all'.
Not all the rabbits died. Some of them survived.
NOTE For no and none, • 181(2).

Whole

We can use whole as an adjective before a singular noun. Did you copy **the whole tape/**all the tape? NOT the all tape **This whole idea** is crazy. NOT this all idea You didn't eat **a whole chicken!**

Both, either and neither

We use these words for two things.
The police set up barriers at **both ends** of the street. If you're ambidextrous, you can write with **either hand.** both = the one and the other either = the one or the other neither = not the one or the other b Compare both/neither and all/none.

Positive	Negative
Two **Both** prisoners	**Neither** of the prisoners

escaped. escaped.
Three **All** the prisoners **None** of the prisoners
or more escaped. escaped.
c Patterns with both are the same as patterns with all. • (2)

Notes

Both decks/Both the decks/Both of the decks play tapes.
They **both** play tapes.
Two prisoners got away, but police caught **them both/both of them.**
But NOT the both decks
d We use either and neither before a noun or in the of-pattern.
You can use **either deck/either of the decks.**
Neither of our cars is/are very economical to run.
Neither car is very economical to run.
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e In positions other than the subject, neither is more emphatic and rather more
formal than not either.
I don't like **either** of those pictures.
I like **neither** of those pictures.
f Either or both cannot come before a negative.
Neither of those pictures are any good.
NOT Either/Both of those pictures aren't any good.

5 Every and each

a We use these words before a singular noun to talk about all the members of a
group. A subject with every or each takes a singular verb.
There were flags flying from **every/each building.**
Mike grew more nervous with **every/each minute** that passed.
Every/Each ticket has a number.
In many contexts either word is possible, but there is a difference in meaning. Every building means 'all the buildings' and implies a large number. Each building means all the buildings seen as separate and individual, as if we are passing them one by one.
b Here are some more examples.
Every shop was open. (= all the shops)
We went into **each shop** in turn.
Every child is conditioned by its environment. (= all children)
Each child was given a medal with his or her name engraved on it.
Every usually suggests a larger number than each. Each can refer to two or more
things but every to three or more.
The owner's name was painted on **each side/on both sides** of the van.
Missiles were being thrown from **every** direction/from **all** directions.
We often use every with things happening at regular intervals. Each is less usual.
Sandra does aerobics **every Thursday/each** Thursday.
The meetings are **every four weeks.**
We visit my mother **every other weekend.** (= every second weekend)
We can use each (but not every) in these patterns.
Each of the students has a personal tutor.
Each has a personal tutor.

Before the visitors left, we gave **them each** a souvenir.
They **each** received a souvenir.
Each as an adverb can come after a noun.
The tickets are £5 **each.**
We cannot use a negative verb after every/each.
None of the doors were locked. NOT Every/Each door wasn't locked.
But not every means 'less than all'.
Not every door was locked. Some of them were open.

Part

Part can be an ordinary noun with a determiner.
This next **part** of the film is exciting.
But we can also use part of as a quantifier without an article.
(A) part of the film was shot in Iceland.
(A) part of our ceiling fell down.
We normally use part of only before a singular noun.
some of the **students** NOT part of the students

A lot of, many, much, a few and a little

These words express large or small quantities, But when many, much, a few and a little express part of a quantity, we use of.
Many of these features are just gimmicks.
Much of my time is spent answering enquiries.
A few of the photos didn't come out properly.

Some, any and no

Some/any expressing a quantity

Some expresses a positive quantity. Some nails = a number of nails. But any does not have this positive meaning. We use any mainly in negatives and questions.
Positive: I've got **some** wood.
Negative: 1 haven't got **any** wood.
Question: Have you got **any/some** wood?
Any means that the quantity may be zero.
Here some is usually pronounced or For.
a Some + plural or uncountable noun is equivalent to a/an + singular noun.
You'll need a hammer, **some** nails and **some** wood.
c In negative sentences we almost always use any and not some. This includes sentences with negative words like never and hardly.
I can't find **any** nails. I **never** have **any** spare time.
We've won **hardly any** games this season.
I'd like to get this settled **without any** hassle.
d Any is more usual in questions, and it leaves the answer open.
Have you got **any** nails? ~ Yes./No./I don't know.
Did you catch **any** fish? ~ Yes, a few./No, not many.
But we use some to give the question a more positive tone, especially when making an offer or request. It suggests that we expect the answer yes.
Did you catch **some** fish? (I expect you caught some fish.)
Would you like **some** cornflakes? (Have some cornflakes.)
Could you lend me **some** money? (Please lend me some money.)

Notes

e In an if-clause we can choose between some and any. Some is more positive.
If you need **some/any** help, do let me know.
We can use any in a main clause to express a condition.
Any problems will be dealt with by our agent.
(= If there are any problems, they will be dealt with by our agent.)
f We choose between compounds with some or any in the same way.
There was **someone** in the phone box.
There isn't **anywhere** to leave your coat.
Have you got **anything/something** suitable to wear?
Could you do **something** for me?

No

a No is a negative word. We can use it with both countable and uncountable nouns.
There is **no alternative.**
There are **no rivers** in Saudi Arabia.
The driver had **no time** to stop.
There is **no** alternative is more emphatic than There isn't **any** alternative.
b We can use no with the subject but we cannot use any.
No warning was given./**A** warning was **not** given.
NOT Any warning was not given.
We cannot use the quantifier no without a noun. For none, • 181 (3).

Some expressing part of a quantity

We can use some to mean 'some but not all'.
Some fish can change their sex.
Some trains have a restaurant car.
Some of the fish in the tank were a beautiful blue colour.
Some of the canals in Venice have traffic lights.

A special use of any

We sometimes use any to mean 'it doesn't matter which'.
You can choose **any colour** you like.
Play **any music.** I don't mind what you play.
The delegation will be here at **any minute.**
Everyone knows the town hall. **Any passer-by** will be able to direct you.
Any refers to one part of the whole. All passers-by know where the town hall is, so
you only need to ask one of them. But it doesn't matter which one - you can ask
any of them. They are all equally good.
b Compare either and any.
Two: There are two colours. You can have **either** of them.
(= one of the two)
Three or There are several colours. You can have **any** of them.
more: (= one of the several)
We can use compounds of any in the same way.
The door isn't locked. **Anyone** can just walk in.
What do you want for lunch?~ Oh, **anything.** I don't mind.

Special uses of some

Some + singular noun can mean an indefinite person or thing.

Some idiot dropped a milk bottle.
The flight was delayed for **some reason** (or other).
Some idiot means 'an unknown idiot'. It is not important who the idiot is.
Some day/time means an indefinite time in the future.
I'll be famous **some day**/one day.
You must come and see me **some time.**
Compare the two meanings of some.
Some people enjoy quiz shows. = some but not all
There were **some people** in the garden. = some but not very many
c Some can express strong feeling about something.
That was some parade (, wasn't it?).
Here some is pronounced It means that the parade was special, perhaps a large and impressive one.
Some before a number means 'about'.
Some twenty people attended the meeting.

Other quantifiers

Enough and plenty of

We can use enough before a plural or an uncountable noun.
There aren't **enough people** to play that game.
Have we **enough time** for a quick coffee?
We can also use the of-pattern.
I've written **enough of this essay** for today.
Plenty of means 'more than enough'.
There'll be **plenty of people** to lend a hand.
Yes, we've got **plenty of time.**

Another and some more

These express an extra quantity. We use another with a singular noun and some more with a plural or an uncountable noun. Singular: Have **another sausage.** ~ No, thanks. I've had enough.
Plural: Have **some more beans.** ~ Thank you.
Uncountable: Have **some more cheese.** ~ Yes, I will. Thank you.
b Another can mean either 'an extra one' or 'a different one'.
We really need **another** car. One isn't enough for us. (= an extra one)
I'm going to sell this car and get **another** one. (= a different one)
NOTE We always write another as one word.
c In some contexts we use any rather than some. • 179(1)
There aren't **any more** sausages, I'm afraid.
Before more we can also use a lot, lots, many, much, a few, a little and a bit.
I shall need **a few more** lessons before I can ski properly.
Since the revolution there has been **a lot more** food in the shops.
Can't you put **a little more** effort into it?

Other

Other is an adjective meaning 'different'.
You 're supposed to go out through the **other** door.
Do **other** people find these packets difficult to open, too?
We can use other/others without a noun to refer to things or people.
You take one bag and I'll take the **other** (one).
They ate half the sandwiches. The **others**/The rest were thrown away.

Some pubs serve food, but **others** don't.
I came on ahead. The **others** will be here soon. (= the other people)
We use another before a number + noun, even when the number is more than one.

Notes

We were enjoying ourselves so much we decided to stay on for **another three days/**
for three more days.
Here we are talking about an extra period, an extra number of days.
We can use other (= different) after a number.
There are **two other rooms/t**wo more rooms/another two rooms upstairs.

Quantifiers without a noun

We can use a quantifier without a noun, like a pronoun.
It is clear from the context that most means 'most department stores' and many means 'many department stores'. Here are some more quantifiers that we might use in this context.
Some sell food. A **few** are outside the West End.
Two have car parks. **None** stay open all night.
We can also use the of-pattern.
Many of them also have hairdressing salons.
We can use each without a noun but not every.
Each can choose its own half day.
NOT Every can cheese-its own half day.
We cannot use no without a noun. We use none instead.
There are several routes up the mountain. **None** (of them) are easy.
We can also use a lot, plenty etc. When the quantifier is without a noun, we do not use of.
A **lot** serve lunches.
If you want to climb a mountain, there are **plenty** to choose from.
The area has millions of visitors, **a large number** arriving **by** car.
Of must have a noun or pronoun after it.
A lot **(of them/of the stores)** serve lunches.

Pronouns

Personal pronouns

Introduction

'Personal pronouns' do not always refer to people. 'Personal' means first person (the speaker), second person (the person spoken to) and third person (another person or thing). These are the forms.

	Singular		Plural	
	Subject	Object	Subject	Object
First person	I	me	we	us
Second person	you	you	you	you
Third person	he	him	they	them
	she	her		
	it	it		

We use the subject form when the pronoun is the subject.
I couldn't tell you. Well, he's quite tall.
We use the object form when the pronoun is not the subject.
You describe **him** to **me**.
We also use the object form when the pronoun is on its own. Compare:

Who invited Matthew? ~ **I** did. Who invited Matthew? ~ **Me**.
The subject pronoun in this position is old-fashioned and often formal. The object pronoun
is normal, especially in informal speech. For pronouns after as and than, • 221(5).
We can use and or or with a pronoun, especially with I and you.
Matthew and I are good friends.
Would you **and your sisters** like to come with us?
Sarah didn't know whether to ring **you or me.**
We normally put I/me last, NOT I and Matthew are good friends.
We cannot normally leave out a pronoun.
Well, he's quite tall, NOT Well, is quite tall.
You describe **him** to me. NOT You describe to me.
But we can leave out some subject pronouns in informal speech.
We do not normally use a pronoun together with a noun.
Matthew is quite tall, NOT Matthew he's quite tall.

We

A plural pronoun refers to more than one person or thing. We means the speaker and one or more other people. We can include or exclude the person spoken to. **We**'re late. ~ Yes, we'd better hurry. (we = you and I)
We're late. ~ You'd better hurry then. (we = someone else and I)

Third-person pronouns

We use a third-person pronoun instead of a full noun phrase when it is clear what we mean. In the conversation at the beginning of 184, Matthew is mentioned only once. After that the speakers refer to him by pronouns because they know who they are talking about.
What does **he** look like? You describe **him.** Well, he's quite tall. But we cannot use a pronoun when it is not clear who it refers to. Look at the paragraph on the next page about the Roman generals Caesar and Pompey. There was a great war between Caesar and the Senate; the armies of the Senate were commanded by another Roman general, Pompey, who had once been friendly with **Caesar. Pompey** was beaten in battle, fled to the kingdom of Egypt, and was murdered. **Caesar** became master of Rome and the whole of the Roman Empire in 46 BC.
Here Caesar and Pompey have to be repeated. For example He was beaten in battle would not make it clear who was beaten.
He/him, she/her and it are singular. He means a male person, she means a female person and it means something not human such as a thing, an action or an idea. I like Steve. **He**'s great fun. I like Helen. **She**'s great fun. I like that game. **It**'s great fun.
We also use it when talking about someone's identity. It means 'the unknown person'.
There's someone at the door. **It**'s probably the milkman.
Compare these sentences.
Don't you remember Celia? **She** was a great friend of mine. Don't you remember who gave you that vase? **It** was Celia.
They/them is plural and can refer to both people and things.
I like your cousins. They're great fun. I like these pictures. They're super.

They for someone of unknown sex

There is a problem in English when we want to talk about a single person whose sex is not known. Here are three possible ways.

When the millionth **visitor** arrives, **he** will be given a free ticket. **His** photo will be taken by a press photographer.

When the millionth **visitor** arrives, **he or she** will be given a free ticket. **His or her** photo will be taken by a press photographer.

When the millionth **visitor** arrives, **they** will be given a free ticket. **Their** photo will be taken by a press photographer.

The use of he in sentence (1) is seen by many people as sexist and is less common than it used to be. But (2) is awkward and we often avoid it, especially in speech. In (3) they is used with a singular meaning. Some people see this as incorrect, but it is neater than (2), and it is quite common, especially in informal English.

Special uses of you, one, we and they

You

This real conversation contains two examples of the pronoun you meaning 'people in general'.

Compare the two meanings of you.

What do **you** mean? (you = Felix, the person spoken to)

You can wear anything these days. (you = women in general)

One and you

We can also use one to mean 'any person, people in general', including the speaker. One is a third-person pronoun.

One/You can't ignore the problem.

One doesn't/**You** don't like to complain.

This use of you is rather informal. One is more formal. It is less common than the equivalent pronoun in some other languages, and it cannot refer to groups which do not include the speaker.

NOT One is going to knock this building down.

One can be the object.

Ice-cream is full of calories. It makes one hotter, not cooler.

It also has a possessive form one's and a reflexive/emphatic form oneself.

One should look after one's health.

One should look after oneself.

We

We can also mean 'people in general', 'all of us', especially when we talk aboutshared knowledge and behaviour.

We know that nuclear power has its dangers.

We use language to communicate.

They

We can use they to mean 'other people in general' and especially the relevant authorities.

They're going to knock this building down.

They ought to ban those car phones.

They always show old films on television on holiday weekends.

We can also use they to talk about general beliefs.

They say/**People** say you can get good bargains in the market.

They say/**Experts** say the earth is getting warmer.

Reflexive pronouns, emphatic pronouns and each other

Form

We form reflexive/emphatic pronouns with self or selves. Singular Plural
First person myself ourselves
Second person yourself yourselves
Third person himself/herself/itself themselves oneself

Reflexive pronouns

We use a reflexive pronoun as object or complement when it refers to the same thing as the subject.
I fell over and hurt **myself.**
Van Gogh painted **himself** lots of times.
We suddenly found **ourselves** in the middle of a hostile crowd.
The company's directors have given **themselves** a big pay rise.
Marion didn't look herself/her usual self.
We use me, him etc only if it means something different from the subject.
Van Gogh painted **himself.** (a picture of Van Gogh)
Van Gogh painted **him.** (a picture of someone else)
After a preposition we sometimes use me, you etc and sometimes myself, yourself etc. We use me, you etc after a preposition of place when it is clear that the pronoun must refer to the subject.
I didn't have my driving licence with **me.**
My mother likes all the family around **her.**
Sometimes we use a reflexive to make the meaning clear.
I bought these chocolates for **myself.** (not for someone else)
Vincent has a very high opinion of **himself.** (not of someone else)
We also use myself etc rather than me etc after a prepositional verb, e.g. believe in. If you're going to succeed in life, you must believe in **yourself.**
We're old enough to look after **ourselves.**
NOTE By yourse/f means 'alone'. • 174(6c)
c There are some idiomatic uses of a verb + reflexive pronoun.
I hope you **enjoy yourself.** (= have a good time)
Did the children **behave themselves?** (= behave well)
Can we just **help ourselves?** (= take e.g. food)
d Some verbs taking a reflexive pronoun in other languages do not do so in English.
We'll have to **get up** early. Won't you **sit down?**
I **feel** so helpless. He can't **remember** what happened.
Such verbs are afford, approach, complain, concentrate, feel + adjective, get up, hurry (up), lie down, relax, remember, rest, sit down, stand up, wake up, wonder, worry.
e These verbs do not usually take a reflexive pronoun: wash, bath, shave, (un)dress and change (your clothes).
Tom **dressed** quickly and went down to breakfast.

Notes

Emphatic pronouns

We use an emphatic pronoun to emphasize a noun phrase. Self/selves is stressed. Walt Disney **himself** was the voice of Mickey Mouse.
(= Walt Disney, not someone else)
The town **itself** is very ordinary, but it is set in lovely countryside.
(= the town, not its surroundings)
b The pronoun can also mean 'without help'. In this meaning, it usually comes in end position.
We built the garage **ourselves.**
Did you do all this electrical wiring **yourself?**

Each other/one another

These are sometimes called 'reciprocal pronouns.' They refer to an action going in one direction and also back in the opposite direction.
The students help **each other/one another** with their homework.
The two drivers blamed **each other/one another** for the accident.
England and Portugal have never been at war with **each other/one another.**
There is a possessive form.
Tracy and Sarah are the same size. They often wear **each other's/one another's** clothes.
b Compare the reflexive pronoun and each other.
They've hurt **themselves.** They've hurt **each other.**
There is also a pattern each... the other.
Each driver blamed **the other. Each** girl wears **the other's** clothes.

One and ones

We sometimes use one or ones instead of a noun. Here are some examples from real conversations.
I felt I could afford a bigger car, and the **one** I'd got was on its last legs, really. (the one = the car)
Now I will think everywhere I go on an aeroplane 'Is this **one** going to come down?' (this one = this aeroplane)
And what other stamps do you like besides Polish **ones?** ~ English **ones.** We've got a lot of those. (English ones = English stamps)
One is singular and ones is plural. We use one/ones to avoid repeating a noun when it is clear from the context what we mean.
Sometimes we can either use one/ones or leave it out. But sometimes we have to use it if we leave out the noun.
Patterns where we can leave out one/ones
After a demonstrative
These pictures are nice. I like **this (one).**
After each, any, another, either and neither.
The building had six windows. **Each (one)** had been broken.
After which
There are lots of seats still available. **Which (ones)** would you like?
After a superlative
These stamps are the **nicest (ones).**
Patterns where we have to use one/ones
After an adjective (But • Note)
An orange juice. A **large one,** please.

I didn't buy a calculator. They only had **expensive ones.**
After the
This television is better than **the one** we had before.
After every
The building had lots of windows. **Every one** had been broken.
We cannot use one after a. We leave out a.
Whenever you need a phone box, you can never find **one.** (= a phone box)
I don't know anything about weddings. I haven't been to **one** lately. (= a wedding)
Compare one/some and it/they.
I haven't got a rucksack. I'll have to buy **one.** (= a rucksack)
I haven't got any boots. I'll have to buy **some.** (= some boots)
I've got a rucksack. You can borrow **it.** (= the rucksack)
I've got some boots, but **they** might not fit you. (= the boots)
One and some are indefinite (like a). It and they are definite (like the).
5 Here is an overview of the uses of one and ones.
Use/Meaning Example
The number 1 Just wait **one** moment.
With of Would you like **one** of these cakes?
Replacing a noun A whisky, please. A large **one.**
Two coffees, please. Small **ones.**
Replacing a/an + noun I've just baked these cakes. Would you like **one?**
'Any person' **One** shouldn't criticize.

Everyone, something etc

Every, some, any and no form compound pronouns ending in one/body and thing (sometimes called 'indefinite pronouns') and compound adverbs ending in where. a everyone/everybody - all (the) people
Everyone has heard of Elton John, someone/somebody - a person
Someone broke a window, no one/nobody = no people The bar's empty. There's **nobody** in there.
One and body have the same meaning in compound pronouns. We use everyone and everybody in the same way.
We use thing for things, actions, ideas etc.
Take **everything** out of the drawer. (= all the things)
There's **something** funny going on. (= an action)
I've heard **nothing** about all this. (= no information)
everywhere = (in) all (the) places
I've been looking **everywhere** for you.
somewhere = (in) a place
Have you found **somewhere** to sit?
nowhere = (in) no places
There's **nowhere** to leave your coat.
The difference between someone/something and anyone/anything is like the difference between some and any**.**
There's **someone** in the waiting-room.
I can't see **anyone** in the waiting-room.
Park **somewhere** along here. **Anywhere** will do.
Pronouns in one/body have a possessive form.
I need **everyone's** name and address.

Somebody's car is blocking the road.
We can use an adjective or a phrase or clause after everyone etc.
We need **someone strong** to help move the piano, NOT -strong someone
Have you got **anything cheaper?** NOT anything of cheaper
Nobody in our group is interested in sightseeing.
I've told you **everything I know.**
We can also use else after everyone etc.
Is there **anything else** you want? (= any other thing)
Let's go **somewhere** else. (= to another place)
Everyone, something etc take a singular verb. • 153(3)
Everything was in a mess.
After everyone we normally use they/them/their, even though the verb is singular.
Everyone was asked what **they** thought.
Everybody was doing **their** best to help.
This can also happen with other words in one/body. • 184(5)
Someone has left **their** coat here. ~ I think it's Paul's.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What do you mean by noun? Describe the characteristics of countable and uncountable noun.
2. What are the rules to convert singular noun into plural noun?
3. Define nominalisation. Describe its suitable examples.
4. Define article. Discuss the basic rules of using article.
5. Discuss the rules for using articles in phrases of time.
6. What are quantifiers? Explain its type.
7. Define pronoun and its type with suitable examples

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

UNIT-5 ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS

CONTENTS

Introduction to adjectives

Use

An **excellent** choice for an **independent** summer holiday, these **large** apartments are along an **inland** waterway in a **quiet residential** area. The **friendly** resort of Gulftown with its **beautiful white sandy** beach is only a **short** walk away. Restaurant and gift shop nearby. An adjective modifies a noun. The adjectives here express physical and other qualities (large, quiet, friendly) and the writer's opinion or attitude (excellent, beautiful). The adjective residential classifies the area, tells us what type of area it is. Adjectives can also express other meanings such as origin (an **American** writer), place (an **inland** waterway), frequency (a **weekly** newspaper), degree (a **complete** failure), necessity (an **essential** safeguard) and degrees of certainty (the **probable** result).

Form

An adjective always has the same form. There are no endings for number or gender. an **old** man an **old** woman **old** people But some adjectives take comparative and superlative endings. My wife is **older** than I am. This is the **oldest** building in the town. b Most adjectives have no special form to show that they are adjectives. But there are some endings used to form adjectives from other words.

The position of adjectives

An adjective phrase can have one or more adjectives. a **large** stadium a **large, empty** stadium

For details about the order of adjectives,
An adverb of degree can come before an adjective.
a **very large** stadium an **almost empty** stadium
a **very large, almost empty** stadium

Notes

An adjective can go before a noun or as complement after a linking verb such as be, seem, get. These positions are called 'attributive' and 'predicative'. Attributive: It is a **large** stadium. (before a noun) Predicative: The stadium is **large.** (as complement) 3 These adjectives are in attributive position.
Canterbury is a **lovely** city. I bought a **black and white** sweater.
A **noisy** party kept us awake. It's a **difficult** problem.
These adjectives are in predicative position.
Canterbury is **lovely.** The sweater was **black and white.**
The party seemed **very noisy.** Things are getting **so difficult.**
In these patterns we leave out words before a predicative adjective.
I've got a friend **keen** on fishing. • 201
(= ... a friend **who is** keen on fishing.)
Could you let me know as soon **as possible?**
(= ... as soon as **it is** possible.)
I don't want to spend any more money **than necessary.**
Chris went to bed later **than usual.**
We can do this with a few adjectives after as or than.
Pick the fruit **when ripe.**
(= ... when **it is** ripe.)
Work the putty in your hands **until soft.**
If possible, I should like some time to think it over.
Although confident of victory, we knew it would not be easy.
This pattern with a conjunction is found mainly in written English and especially
in instructions how to do something.
In rather formal or literary English an adjective can go before or after a noun
phrase, separated from it by a comma.
Uncertain, the woman hesitated and looked round.
The weather, **bright and sunny,** drove us out of doors.

Adjectives used in one position only

Most adjectives can be either in attributive position **(nice** weather) or in predicative position (The weather is **nice).** But a few go in one position but not in the other.

Attributive only

That was the **main** reason, NOT That reason was main.
The story is **utter** nonsense.
inner ring road
These adjectives are attributive but not predicative: chief, elder (= older), eldest (= oldest), eventual, former (= earlier), indoor, inner, main,
mere (a mere child = only a child), only, outdoor, outer, principal (= main),
sheer (= complete), sole (= only), upper, utter (= complete).

Predicative only

The children were soon **asleep.** NOT the asleep children
The manager seemed **pleased** with the sales figures.
One person was **ill** and couldn't come.
These adjectives are predicative but not attributive.
Some words with the prefix a: asleep, awake, alive, afraid, ashamed, alone, alike
Some words expressing feelings: pleased, glad, content, upset
Some words to do with health: well, fine, ill, unwell

Different meanings in different positions

Either position
Attributive only Attributive Predicative
a **real** hero **real** wood The wood is **real.**
(degree) (= not false)
a **perfect** idiot a **perfect** day The day was **perfect.**
(degree) (= excellent)
You poor thing! a **poor** result The result was **poor.**
(sympathy) (= not good)
poor people The people are **poor.**
(= having little money)
Predicative only
a **certain** address I'm **certain.**
(= specific) (= sure)
the **present** situation I was **present.**
(= now) (= here/there)
a **late bus The bus** was **late.**
(= near the end of the day) (= not on time)
the **late** president
(= dead)

A beautiful dancer

In phrases like a beautiful dancer, an interesting writer, a heavy smoker, a frequent visitor, an old friend, the adjective usually modifies the action not the person.
Attributive Predicative
She's a beautiful dancer. The dancer is beautiful.
(= Her dancing is beautiful.) (= The dancer is a beautiful person.)
He was a frequent visitor.
(= His visits were frequent.)

Adjectives after nouns and pronouns

1 Some adjectives can have a prepositional phrase after them. People were anxious for news. The field was full of sheep. The adjective + prepositional phrase cannot go before the noun, but it can go
directly after it. People anxious for news kept ringing the emergency number.
We walked across a field full of sheep.
Sometimes the position of the adjective depends on the meaning.
The amount of money involved is quite small. (= relevant)
It's a rather involved story. (= complicated)
The person concerned is at lunch, I'm afraid. (= relevant)
A number of concerned people have joined the protest. (= worried)

There were ten members of staff **present.** (= there)
Our **present** problems are much worse. (= now)
Judy seems a **responsible** person. (= sensible)
The person **responsible** will be punished. (= who did it).

Notes

Available can come before or after a noun.
The only **available tickets/** The only **tickets available** were very expensive.
Possible can come after the noun when there is a superlative adjective.
We took the shortest **possible** route/the shortest route **possible.**
The adjective follows the noun in a few titles and idiomatic phrases.
the **Director General a Sergeant Major** the **Princess Royal** the **sum total**
Adjectives come after a compound with every, some, any and no.
Let's find **somewhere quiet.** You mustn't do **anything silly.**

The order of adjectives

Attributive adjectives

When two or more adjectives come before a noun, there is usually a fairly fixed order.
beautiful golden sands a **nice new blue** coat
The order depends mainly on the meaning. Look at these groups of adjectives and other modifiers.
Opinion: nice, wonderful, excellent, lovely, terrible, awful, etc
Size: large, small, long, short, tall, etc
Quality: clear, busy, famous, important, quiet, etc
Age: old, new
Shape: round, square, fat, thin, wide, narrow, etc
Colour: red, white, blue, green, etc
Participle forms: covered, furnished, broken, running, missing, etc
Origin: British, Italian, American, etc
Material: brick, paper, plastic, wooden, etc
Type: human, chemical, domestic, electronic, money (problems), etc
Purpose: alarm (clock), tennis (court), walking (boots), etc
Words from these groups usually come in this order:
opinion + size + quality + age + shape + colour + participle forms + origin + material + type + purpose an **old cardboard** box (age **+** material)
a **German industrial** company (origin + type)
two **small round green** discs (size + shape + colour)
a **large informative street** plan (size + quality + type)
a **hard wooden** seat (quality + material)
a **new improved** formula (age **+** participle form) **increasing financial** difficulties (participle form **+** type)
In general, the adjective closest to the noun has the closest link in meaning with the noun and expresses what is most permanent about it. For example, in the phrase two excellent public tennis courts, the word tennis is closely linked to courts, whereas excellent is not linked so closely. The fact that the courts are for tennis is permanent, but their excellence is a matter of opinion. c When two adjectives have similar meanings, the shorter one often comes first. a bright, cheerful smile a soft, comfortable chair Sometimes two different orders are both possible. a peaceful, happy place/a happy, peaceful place

And and but with attributive adjectives

We can sometimes put and between two adjectives.
a soft, comfortable chair la soft and comfortable chair
But we do not normally use and between adjectives with different kinds of meanings.
beautiful golden sands (opinion, colour)
We use and when the adjectives refer to different parts of something.
a black and white sweater (partly black and partly white)
We use but when the adjectives refer to two qualities in contrast.
a cheap but effective solution

Predicative adjectives

The order of predicative adjectives is less fixed than the order before a noun. Except sometimes in a literary style, we use and before the last adjective.
The chair was soft and comfortable.
Adjectives expressing an opinion often come last.
The city is old and beautiful.
We can use but when two qualities are in contrast.
The solution is cheap but effective.

Amusing and amused, interesting and interested

Compare the adjectives in ing and ed.
The show made us laugh. It was very **amusing.**
The audience laughed. They were very **amused.**
I talked to a very **interesting** man.
I was **interested** in what he was telling me.
I find these diagrams **confusing.**
I'm confused by these diagrams.
This weather is **depressing,** isn't it?
Don't you feel **depressed** when it rains?
Adjectives in ing express what something is like, the effect it has on us. For example, a show can be amusing, interesting or boring. Adjectives in ed express how we feel about something. For example, the audience can feel amused, interested or bored. Some pairs of adjectives like this are:
alarming/alarmed exciting/excited
amusing/amused fascinating/fascinated
annoying/annoyed puzzling/puzzled
confusing/confused relaxing/relaxed
depressing/depressed surprisingly/surprised
disappointing/disappointed tiring/tired

The + adjective

Social groups

We can use the + adjective to refer to some groups of people in society. In the England of 1900 little was done to help **the poor.** (= poor people) Who looks after **the old** and **the** sick? (= old people and sick people) The poor means 'poor people in general'. It cannot refer to just one person or to a small group. Here it means 'poor people in England in 1900'. The poor is more impersonal than poor people.
The + adjective takes a plural verb.
The old **are** greatly respected.

Here are some examples of adjectives used in this way.
Social/Economic: the rich, the poor, the strong, the weak, the hungry, the (under)privileged, the disadvantaged, the unemployed, the homeless
Physical/Health: the blind, the deaf, the sick, the disabled, the handicapped, the living, the dead
Age: the young, the middle-aged, the elderly, the old

The + adjective

The adjective can be modified by an adverb. the **very** rich the **severely** disabled
Some adjectives normally take an adverb. the **more/less** fortunate the **mentally** ill

Abstract qualities

We can use some adjectives after the to refer to things in general which have an abstract quality.
There are a lot of books on **the supernatural.**
The human race has a great thirst for **the unknown.**
The supernatural means 'supernatural happenings in general'. Other examples:
the mysterious, the unexplained, the absurd, the ordinary, the old, the new.
The noun phrase takes a singular verb.
The new **drives** out the old.
A few adjectives can have a more specific meaning.
The unexpected happened. (= something that was unexpected)
Have you heard **the latest?** (= the latest news)
Also: fear the worst, hope for the best, in the dark
We use the+ adjective + thing to talk about a particular quality or aspect of a situation. This usage is rather informal.
It was an amusing sight, but **the annoying thing** (about it) was that I didn't have my camera with me.
We cannot leave out thing here.

Adverbials

An adverbial can have these forms.
Adverb phrase: You were going **very slowly**.
We wanted to get **back**.
Prepositional phrase: Catherine wasn't **at hom**e.
You saw the police car **in front of you.**
Noun phrase: We wanted to get **home**.
It happened **last week**.
Sometimes an adverbial is necessary to complete a sentence.
Catherine was **with a babysitter.** We'd been **to the cinema.**
But very often the adverbial is an extra element.
I can remember **very well**. You saw the police car **in front of you**.
Putting in an extra adverbial adds something to the meaning. For example, it can
tell us how, when or where something happened.
An adverbial can modify different parts of the sentence.
The car **in front of us** was a police car.
You were getting **really** impatient.

They were going **very** slowly.
They inspected the car **thoroughly.**
Then you decided to overtake.
Here the adverbials add information about the noun car, the adjective impatient,
the adverb slowly, the action inspected the car and the clause you decided.

Adverb forms

Some adverbs are unrelated to other words, e.g. always, soon, very, perhaps.
But many adverbs are formed from an adjective + ly, e.g. quick quickly, certain certainly.
We cannot add ly to an adjective which already ends in ly. Instead we can either
use a prepositional phrase with manner/way/fashion, or we can use another
adverb.
We received a **friendly greeting.** They greeted us **in a friendly manner.**
NOT friendlily
That isn't very **likely.** That **probably** won't happen.
Some adjectives in ly are friendly, lively, lovely, silly, ugly, cowardly, lonely, costly, likely.
Some adjectives ending in ed have no adverb form.
The woman stared in astonishment, NOT astonishedly
But those ending in ted can take an ly ending.
The crowd shouted excitedly.
Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives.
Adjective Adverb
Louise caught the **fast** train. The train was going quite **fast.**
We didn't have a **long** wait. We didn't have to wait **long.**
I had an **early** night. I went to bed **early.**
Other adverbs like this are walk **straight,** sit **still** and bend **low.** For hard, hardly, late, lately etc,.
4 Sometimes the adverb can be with or without ly. It is more informal to leave out ly.
You can buy cassettes **cheap/cheaply** in the market.
Do you have to talk so **loud/loudly?**
Get there as **quick/quickly** as you can.
Go slow/slowly here.
Cheap(ly), loud(ly), quick(ly) and slow(ly) are the most common. Others are direct(ly), tight(ly) and fair(ly). For American usage,
There are some pairs such as hard and hardly which have different meanings.
You've all worked **hard.** I've got **hardly** any money.
(hardly any = almost no)
There's a bank quite **near.** We've **nearly** finished. (= almost)
I often stay up **late.** I've been unwell **lately.** (= recently)
The plane flew **high** above The theory is **highly** controversial. (= very)
the clouds.
Submarines can go very **deep.** Mike feels very **deeply** about this.

Airline staff travel **free.** The prisoners can move around **freely.**
(= without paying) (= uncontrolled)
This ear hurts the **most. We mostly** stay in. (= usually)
Hourly, daily etc are formed from hour, day, week, month and year. They are both
adjectives and adverbs.
It's a **monthly** magazine. It comes out **monthly.**
Good is an adjective, and well is its adverb.
Roger is a **good** singer, isn't he?
Roger sings **well,** doesn't he? NOT He sings good.
But well is also an adjective meaning 'in good health'.
I was ill, but I'm **well**/I'm all right now.
How are you? ~ Very **well**,IFine, thank you.

Notes

The position of adverbials

The position of an adverbial depends on what it modifies. It can modify a word or phrase or a whole clause. Its position also depends on what type of adverbial it is and whether it is a single word or a phrase.

Modifying a noun, adjective or adverb

An adverbial which modifies a noun usually goes after it.
The shop on the corner is closed.
Who's the girl with short hair?
Those people outside are getting wet.
For more examples,
b An adverb which modifies an adjective or adverb usually goes before it.
That's very kind of you. We heard the signal fairly clearly.

Front position, mid position and end position

When an adverbial modifies a verb or a whole clause, there are three main places we can put it.
Front: **Really,** I can't say.
Mid: I can't **really** say.
End: I can't say, **really.**
Sometimes we can also put an adverbial after the subject. • (4) Note c
I really can't say.
Sure enough, the police car stopped us.
Just hold on a moment.
In **the end** our efforts will surely meet with success.
Front position is at the beginning of a clause. Most types of adverbial can go here. We often put an adverbial in front position when it relates to what has gone before.
You were getting impatient. And **then** you decided to overtake.

Mid position

The police are **always** looking for people at this time.
This stereo is **definitely** faulty.
I **usually** enjoy maths lessons.
Mid position is after an auxiliary verb, after the ordinary verb be on its own, or before a simple-tense verb.
(Auxiliary) Subject (be on its own) Adverb (Verb)
It doesn't **often** rain in the Sahara.

We 've **just** booked our tickets.
The news will **soon** be out of date.
You were **probably** right.
You **probably** made the right decision.
I **always** get the worst jobs.
Most types of short adverbial can go here, especially adverbs of frequency (often), but not phrases.
NOT I every time get the worst jobs.

End position

I hadn't had a drink **for days.**
The police were driving **very slowly.**
They're doing this **on purpose.**
Most types of adverbial can come here, especially prepositional phrases.
If there is an object, then the adverbial usually goes after it.
I wrapped the parcel **carefully,** NOT I wrapped carefully the parcel.
We'll finish the job **next week,** NOT We'll finish next week the job.
But a short adverbial can go before a long object.
I wrapped **carefully** all the glasses and ornaments.
Here the adverb of manner can also go in mid position.
I **carefully** wrapped all the glasses and ornaments.
We often put an adverbial in end position when it is new and important information.
There was a police car in front of us. It was going **very slowly.**

Order in end position

Sometimes there is more than one adverbial in end position. Usually a shorter adverbial goes before a longer one.
Sam waited **impatiently outside the post office.**
We sat **indoors most of the afternoon.**
They inspected the car **thoroughly in a very officious manner.**
When there is a close link in meaning between a verb and adverbial, then the adverbial goes directly after the verb. For example, we usually put an adverbial of place next to go, come etc.
I **go to work** by bus. Charles **came home** late.
Phrases of time and place can often go in either order.
There was an accident **last night on the by-pass.**
There was an accident **on the by-pass last night.**
Manner, time and place usually come before frequency.
I can find my way around **quite easily, usually.**
Sarah gets up **early occasionally.**
In more careful English, the adverb of frequency would come in mid position.
I can **usually** find my way around quite easily.
When a truth, comment or linking adverb comes in end position, it is usually last, a
kind of afterthought.
Phil's had to stay late at work, **perhaps.**
Someone handed the money in at the police station, **incredibly.**
Wendy is a member. She doesn't go to the club very often, **however.**

Adverbs of manner

Adjectives and adverbs

Look at these examples.

Adjective Adverb

Kevin had a **quick** snack. He ate **quickly.**

Kate is **fluent** in Russian. She speaks Russian **fluently.**

Think of a **sensible** reply. Try to reply **sensibly.**

An adjective modifies a noun (snack). An adverb of manner modifies a verb (ate).

Most adverbs of manner are formed from an adjective + ly. For adverbs without ly, Compare the different types of verb.

Linking verb + adjective Action verb + adverb

The inspector **was polite.** She **listened politely.** NOT She listened polite.

Linking verbs are be, seem, become, look, feel etc, • 9. Some verbs can be either linking verbs or action verbs.

Linking verb + adjective Action verb + adverb

The speaker **looked nervous. He looked nervously** round the room.

The milk **smelled funny.** Dave **smelled** the milk **suspiciously.**

The atmosphere **grew tense.** The plants **grew rapidly.**

2 Prepositional phrases

We can often use a prepositional phrase to express manner.

Handle carefully/with **care.** They were doing it deliberately/on **purpose.**

They inspected the car officiously/in **an officious manner.**

NOTE

We can often use an adjective or adverb in the prepositional phrase.

It must be handled with **great** care.

They inspected the car in an **extremely** officious manner.

Place and time

Position

a We put an adverbial of manner mainly in end position. These are real examples from stories.

'I didn't know whether to tell you or not,' she said **anxiously.**

The sun still shone **brightly** on the quiet street.

We continued our labours **in silence.**

NOTE

An adverb of manner can also modify an adjective.

The team were **quietly** confident. The dog lay **peacefully** asleep.

The adverbial can sometimes come in front position for emphasis. **Without another word,** he walked slowly away up the strip.

Place and time

Position

Adverbials of place and time often go in end position.

The match will be played **at Villa Park.**

The President made the comment to reporters **yesterday.**

A Norwegian ferry was being repaired **last night** after running aground **in theThames.**

The office is closed **for two weeks.**

For more than one adverbial in end position,

They can also go in front position.

I've got two meetings tomorrow. And **on Thursday** I have to go to London.

For details and an example text,
Some short adverbials of time can go in mid position.
I've **just** seen Debbie. We'll **soon** be home.
These include now, then, just (= a short time ago), recently, soon, at once, immediately, finally, since, already, still and no longer.
An adverbial of place or time can modify a noun.
The radiator **in the hall** is leaking.
Exports **last year** broke all records.

Yet, still and already

We use yet for something that is expected.
Have you replied to the letter **yet?** ~ No, not **yet**.
I got up late. I haven't had breakfast **yet.**
Yet comes at the end of a question or negative statement.
We use still for something going on longer than expected. In positive statements and questions it goes in mid position.
I got up late. I'm **still** having breakfast.
Does Carl **still** ride that old motor-bike he had at college?
In negative statements still comes after the subject.
The child **still** hasn't learnt to read.
This is more emphatic than The child hasn't learnt to read **yet**.
We use already for something happening sooner than expected. We use it mainly
in mid position in positive statements and questions.
I got up early. I've **already** had breakfast.
Have you **already** replied to the letter? ~ Yes, I have. ~ That was quick. It only came yesterday.
Already in end position has more emphasis.
Good heavens! It's lunch time **already.**
Have you typed the whole report **already?**

No longer, any more and any longer

We use no longer for something coming to an end. It goes in mid position.
Mrs Hicks **no longer** works at the town hall.
No longer is a little formal. In informal speech we use any more. It goes in end position in a negative sentence.
Barbara doesn't work at the town hall **any more.**
We often use any longer in a negative sentence for something that is about to end.
I'm not going to wait **any longer.**

Long and far

We normally use the adverbs long and far only in questions and negative statements.
Have you been waiting **long?** It isn't **far** from here to the motorway.
In positive statements we use a long time/way.
I had to wait **a long time/** wait ages. It's **a long way** to Vladivostok.
But we use long and far after too, so and as, and with enough.
The speech went on **too long.**
I'm annoyed because I've had to wait **so long**/such a long time.
Let's go back now. We've walked **far enough.**

Notes

Adverbs of frequency

After

We do not often use after on its own as an adverb.
We all went to the cinema and then **afterwards** to a pizza restaurant.
The talk lasted half an hour. Then/After **that** there was a discussion.
But we can say the day/week after.
I sent the form off, and I got a reply the week **after/**a week **later.**

Adverbs of frequency

An adverb of frequency usually goes in mid position.
The bus doesn't **usually** stop here. I can **never** open these packets.
It's **always** cold up here. I **often** get up in the night.
Some adverbs of frequency are always; normally, generally, usually; often, frequently; sometimes, occasionally; seldom, rarely; never.
Normally, generally, usually, frequently, sometimes and occasionally also go in front or end position.
Normally I tip taxi-drivers. My sister comes to see me **sometimes.**
Often, seldom and rarely can go in end position, especially with e.g. very or quite.
Doctors get called out at night **quite often.**
A lot (= often) goes in end position.
We go out **a lot** at weekends.
We can also use a phrase with every, most or some to express frequency.
These phrases can go in front or end position.
Every summer we all go sailing together.
The dog has to have a walk **every day.**
The postman calls **most days.**
Some evenings we don't have the television on at all.
We can also use once, twice, three times etc.
The committee meets **once a month.**
Two tablets to be taken **three times a day.**
Paul has been married **several times.**
The adverbs daily (= every day), weekly etc go in end position.
Are you paid **weekly or monthly?**

Adverbs of degree

Modifying an adjective or adverb

We can use an adverb of degree before some adjectives and adverbs.
+ Adjective**:** It's **very** cold. I'm **so** tired.
You're **absolutely** right. These are **rather** expensive.
We're **a bit** busy today. It wasn't **at all** interesting.
+ Adverb: I come here **quite** often. I saw her **fairly** recently.
We **hardly** ever go out. He agreed **somewhat** reluctantly.
Here are some common adverbs of degree.
Full degree: completely, totally, absolutely, entirely, quite
Large degree: very, extremely, really, awfully, terribly
Medium degree: rather, fairly, quite, pretty, somewhat
Small degree: a little, a bit, slightly
Negative: hardly, scarcely • 17(4), at all
Others: so, as; too; more, most, less, least
We can also use a fraction or percentage.

The bottle is only **half** full.
The forecast was **eighty per cent** accurate.
Enough comes after the adjective or adverb it modifies.
Are you warm enough?
Steve didn't react quickly enough.
Compare too and enough.
It's **too small** (for me)./It isn't big enough (for me).

Modifying a comparative adjective or adverb

This new sofa is much nicer than the old one. NOT very nicer
Come on. Try a bit harder.
The alternative route was no quicker.
Before a comparative we can use (very) much, a lot; rather, somewhat; a little, a bit, slightly; three times etc.

Modifying a superlative

It was just about the nicest holiday I could have imagined.
We offer easily the best value / by far the best value.

So/such, quite and too

We can use most adverbs of degree with an attributive adjective. that very tall girl my fairly low score a rather nice restaurant But after a/an we do not normally use so or quite.
She's such a tall girl. NOT a so tall girl It's quite an old book. (a quite old book is less usual)
Too or as and the adjective go before a/an.
You've cut **too short a piece,** NOT a too short piece
I know just **as quick a way.** NOT a just as quick way
We can use so in the same way, although the pattern with such is more usual.
I don't like to criticize **so famous an artist.**
I don't like to criticize **such a famous artist.**
We can use rather in both patterns.
We had **a rather long wait/rather a long wait.**
We can use such and rather + a/an + noun without an adjective.
That man is **such an idiot.** It's **rather a pity** you won't be here.
We can also use a bit of.
Sorry. The flat's in **a bit** of **a** mess.
Quite in this pattern means something large or special.
We had **quite a wait.** That was **quite a party.**
The meaning is the same as That was **some** party. • 179(5c)

Quite and rather

Stress
In these examples with quite, the adjective is stressed.
It's quite **'warm** today. (It's warmer than expected.)
Your friends are quite **'rich.** (They've got a lot of money.)
If we stress quite, we limit the force of the adjective.
It's **'quite** warm. (but not as warm as expected)
Things went **'quite** well. (but not as well as I'd hoped)
NOTE We do not stress rather.
Quite warm/rather cold
When we make a favourable comment, we usually prefer quite to rather.
Quite is unstressed.

It's **quite pleasant** here. It was **quite** a **good** party.
In unfavourable comments, we usually prefer rather, but quite is possible.
It's **rather**/quite **depressing** here. It was **rather**/quite **a dull** party.
It was **rather**/quite **inconvenient** having to change trains twice.
Rather in a favourable comment often means 'to a surprising or unusual degree'.
I expected the party to he dull, but it was actually **rather** good.
The test paper was **rather** easy. (It isn't usually so easy.)
Two meanings of quite
Quite + adjective can express a medium degree or a full degree, depending on the kind of adjective.
Medium degree: 'fairly' Full degree: 'completely'
The task is **quite difficult.** The task is **quite impossible.**
The film was **quite good.** The film was **quite brilliant.**
I feel **quite tired.** I feel **quite exhausted.**
With adjectives like **difficult,** we can use different degrees: **fairly** difficult, **a bit**
difficult, **very** difficult, **more** difficult etc. Adjectives like impossible and brilliant
already mean a full or large degree. An impossible task is completely out of the
question; a brilliant film is very good.
Quite means 'completely' before these adjectives:
absurd brilliant disgusting fascinated perfect alone certain dreadful fascinating ridiculous
amazed dead empty horrible right amazing delicious extraordinary impossible sure appalled determined exhausted incredible true appalling different exhausting magnificent useless
awful disgusted false marvellous wrong

Modifying a preposition

Some adverbs of degree can modify a preposition.
The offices are right in the centre of town.
I'm not very up to date, I'm afraid.
For more examples,

Modifying a verb

We can use an adverb of degree to modify a verb.
I'm really enjoying myself.
We were rather hoping to have a look round.
The doorman absolutely refused to let us in.
The suitcase was so heavy I could hardly lift it.
In mid position we can use absolutely, completely, totally; just, really; almost, nearly; hardly, scarcely; quite, rather.
Absolutely, completely, totally and rather can also go in end position.
I completely forgot the time./I forgot the time completely.
We often use an adverb of degree before a passive participle.
The car was badly damaged in the accident.
Our schedule was completely disrupted by the changes.
Some adverbs go in end position when they modify a verb.
During the speech my attention wandered **a lot.**

This tooth aches **terribly.**
These are a lot, very much; a bit, a little, slightly; somewhat; terribly, awfully; more, (the) most.
We can use much or very much in a negative sentence or question, but we cannot use much on its own in a positive statement.
Negative: I don't like this sweater **much/very much.**
Positive: I like this sweater **very much.** NOT I like this sweater much.

Modifying a quantifier

We can use these patterns.
a very/so/too + many/much/few/little
There were **so many people** there.
b such/rather/quite + a lot (of)
There were **such a lot of** people there.
We've had **rather a lot of** complaints.
c quite + a few/a bit (of)
We've had **quite a few** complaints.
d almost/nearly + all/every
Almost all the pudding had been eaten.
e hardly any
There was **hardly any** pudding left.
f a lot/much/a bit/a little/any/no + more/less
Would you like **a bit more** pudding?

Focus and viewpoint

Focus adverbials

We sometimes use an adverb to focus on a particular word or phrase.
Emily works every day, **even** on Sundays.
I don't like alcohol, **especially** beer.

Truth adverbs

Only and even

a In rather formal or careful English we put only and even before the word or phrase we want to focus on.
I knew **only one** of the other guests.
Alan always wears shorts. He wears them **even in winter.**
But in informal English only and even can be in mid position.
I **only** knew one of the other guests.
Alan **even** wears shorts in winter.
We stress the word we want to focus on, e.g. one, winter.
When we focus on the subject, we put only and even before it.
Only you would do a silly thing like that. (No one else would.)
Even the experts don't know the answer.
NOTE For **Only then** did I realize, • 17(6c).
In official written English, e.g. on notices, only comes after the word or phrase it focuses on.
Waiting limited to **30 minutes only**

Viewpoint adverbials

These express the idea that we are looking at a situation from a particular aspect or point of view.

Financially, things are a bit difficult at the moment.
Can you manage **transport-wise,** or do you need a lift?
The building is magnificent **from an architectural point of view,** but it'shell to work in.

Notes

As far as insurance is concerned, we can fix that up for you.

Truth adverbs

A truth adverb expresses what the speaker knows about the truth of a statement: how likely it is to be true, or to what degree it is true.
Perhaps/Maybe Mandy has missed the bus.
You've **certainly/undoubtedly** made a good start.
I agree with you **basically.** Service isn't included, **presumably.**
Clearly the matter is urgent. The boxer **allegedly** took drugs.
Most of these adverbs can go in front, mid or end position. Certainly, definitely and
probably usually go in mid position. But in a negative sentence we put a truth
adverb after the subject rather than after the auxiliary.
You **certainly** haven't wasted any time.
Service **presumably** isn't included.
We can also use a prepositional phrase.
The whole thing is ridiculous **in my opinion.**
Of course I'll pay you back.
We get on quite well together **on the whole.**
3 We can also use a clause with I**.**
I think the whole thing is ridiculous.
Someone's fused the lights, **I expect.**
I'm sure you've made a mistake.

Comment adverbs

We use this kind of adverb to make a comment on what we are saying
Luckily no one was killed. (= It was lucky that no one was killed.)
The newspaper wasn't interested in the story, **surprisingly.**
I'm **afraid/Unfortunately** we didn't win anything.
We can also use an adverb to comment on someone's behaviour.
Dick **wisely** didn't interfere. (= It was wise of Dick not to interfere.)
Compare the adverbs of comment and manner.
I **stupidly** left the car unlocked. (= It was stupid of me.)
The man stared **stupidly.** (= in a stupid manner)
We can use a phrase with to for someone's feelings about something.
To my surprise, the newspaper wasn't interested in the story.
To Phil's delight, his plan proved successful.
We can comment on why we are saying something.
Honestly,/To be honest, I think you're making the wrong decision.

Linking adverbs

A linking adverb relates to the previous clause or sentence. It most often goes in front position, but it can go in mid or end position. Here are some real examples. But the baby does not just grow bigger and heavier. Its shape and body proportions **also** change as it grows up.

When Beethoven was fourteen, he was forced to give lessons to support his parents. **However,** he still found time to take a few violin lessons, and he went on composing.

If you pay the bill in full within 25 days you won't be charged interest. **Otherwise** you are charged interest on any balance outstanding.

linking adverbs

Some other linking adverbs are as well, too, in addition, furthermore, nevertheless, on the other hand, therefore, consequently, as a result, likewise; instead. They have similar meanings to conjunctions such as and, but, so and if.

Here are some other ways of relating one clause or sentence to another.

Ordering: There are two reasons. **Firstly,** I'm not interested, and **secondly,** I haven't got the time. **In conclusion, I'd** like to say a few words about future prospects.

The matter is under consideration. **In other words,** they're thinking about it.

I'll see you tomorrow then. **Or rather** on Monday. We've got lots of things we could sell. There's the car, **for example.**

I think I'll have the sausages. ~ **Talking of** sausages, did you know there's a barbecue on Saturday?

I had a lovely lunch. ~ Good. By **the way,** where did you put that file? I think I'd better be going. It's past midnight, **after all.** I don't know whether we did the right thing. **Anyway,** it doesn't matter now.

The government sold the telephone service to private investors. Gas and electricity were privatized **in the same way.**

Summing up:

Rephrasing:

Correcting:

Giving examples:

Picking up a topic:

Changing the subject:

Supporting a statement:

Dismissing something:

Comparing:

Comparison

The comparative and superlative of adjectives

Gold is much **softer** than copper, so it is **easier** to hammer into shape. It is not very strong. A gold knife might look very fine but would not have been much use for skinning a bear, so from early times gold became the metal for ornaments. Copper is much **harder;** it would have been much **more difficult** for early man to shape, but the finished article was **more durable.**

Use

We use these forms to compare the same quality of different things.

Gold is **softer** than copper.

Copper is **more durable.**

New York is the **biggest** city in the USA.

The **most exclusive** fashion stores are here.

We can compare, for example, the softness of gold and copper, or the size of New York compared to other cities.

Form

These are the regular forms.

Comparative Superlative

Short adjective soft softer softest

Long adjective exclusive **more** exclusive **most** exclusive

Short adjectives take er/est, and long adjectives take more/most. For rules about which adjectives count as short and which as long,

Comparative and superlative of adjectives

There are a few irregular forms.

Comparative Superlative

good better best

bad worse worst

far farther/further farthest/furthest

The **best** restaurants are in Manhattan.

The weather is getting **worse.**

Position

A comparative or superlative adjective can come in the same position as other adjectives.

Attributive: a **softer** metal the **most** specialized services

Predicative: Gold is softer. Which building is **tallest?**

We usually put the before a superlative adjective.

Jupiter is **the** biggest planet.

Jupiter is (the) biggest.

Long and short adjectives

In general, short adjectives take er/est while long ones take more/most. One syllable adjectives count as short and three-syllable adjectives count as long. Most two-syllable adjectives count as long but not all of them. a One-syllable adjectives (e.g. soft, tall)

These take er/est (softer, softest). Exceptions are adjectives in ed (e.g. pleased, bored) and the adjectives real, right and wrong. The film made the story seem **more real.**

Some one-syllable adjectives of abstract meaning take either er/est or more/most, e.g. clear, free, keen, safe, sure, true, wise.

I wish I felt **surer/more sure** about what I'm doing.

b Two-syllable adjectives (e.g. useful, happy)

The following take more/most **(more** useful, **most** useful).

Ending in ful: careful, helpful, hopeful, peaceful, useful, etc

Ending in less: helpless, useless, etc

Ending in ing: boring, pleasing, tiring, willing, etc

Ending in ed: amused, annoyed, ashamed, confused, surprised, etc

Some others: afraid, cautious, certain, correct, eager, exact, famous, foolish, formal, frequent, mature, modern, normal, recent

The following take either er/est or more/most: able, common, cruel, feeble, gentle, handsome, narrow, pleasant, polite, simple, sincere, stupid, tired.

Two-syllable adjectives ending in y usually take er/est(happier, happiest), although more/most is possible. Some examples: dirty, easy,

empty, funny, happy, heavy, hungry, lovely, lucky, pretty, silly, thirsty, tidy.

Latest and last

Latest means 'furthest ahead in time' or 'newest'.

What's the **latest** time we can leave and still catch the train?

This jacket is the **latest** fashion.

Last means 'before' or 'final'.

I had my hair cut **last** week.

This is the **last** time I lend anyone my car.

Nearest and next

Nearest means the shortest distance away. Next refers to one of a sequence of things coming one after the other.

Where is the **nearest** phone box? (= closest, least far)

We have to get out at the **next** stop. (= the stop after this)

Comparative and superlative of adjectives

Adjectives of three or more syllables (e.g. difficult, magnificent)

These always take more/most (**more** difficult, **most** difficult).

Overview

Always er/est: Most of one-syllable, e.g. small

Usually er/est: Two syllables ending in y, e.g. lucky

Either er/est Some of one syllable, e.g. clear, true

or more/most: Some of two syllables, e.g. narrow, common

Always more/most: One syllable ending in ed, e.g. pleased

Most of two syllables, e.g. careful, boring

Three or more syllables, e.g. expensive, magnificent

Some special forms

Farther/further and farthest/furthest

These words express distance. We use them as adjectives and adverbs.

The **farthest/furthest** moon is 13 million kilometres from Saturn.

I can't walk any **farther/further.**

Further (but not farther) can express quantity.

Let's hope there are no **further** problems. (= no more problems)

Older/elder and oldest/eldest

We use elder and eldest mainly to talk about ages in a family. They go before the noun.

Have you got an older/elder brother?

The oldest/eldest daughter married a pop singer.

The comparative and superlative of adverbs

Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives,. They take er/est.

You'll have to work **harder** if you want to pass the exam.

Let's see who can shoot the **straightest.**

Tim got to work a few minutes **earlier** than usual.

There are a few irregular forms.

Comparative Superlative

well better bestbadly worse worst

far farther/further farthest/furthest

I find these pills work **best.**

My tooth was aching **worse** than ever.

Other adverbs take more/most. This includes almost all adverbs in ly.

You'll have to draw the graph **more accurately** than that.
The first speaker presented his case the **most convincingly.**
I wish we could meet **more often.**

More, most, less, least, fewer and fewest

We can use these words to compare quantities.
Plural Uncountable
more (= a larger number)
You've got **more** cassettes than me.
most (= the largest number)
You've got the **most** cassettes of
anyone I know.
fewer (= a smaller number) • Note
I buy **fewer** cassettes these days.
fewest (= the smallest number) • Note
You've got the **fewest** cassettes of
anyone I know.
more (= a larger amount)
They play **more** music at weekends.
most (= the largest amount)
This station plays the **most** music.
less (= a smaller amount)
There's **less** music on the radio at
weekends.
least (= the smallest amount)
This station plays the **least** music.

Patterns expressing a comparison

Many motels are every bit **as** elegant, comfortable, and well-equipped **as** the most modern hotels. Many have bars, fine restaurants and coffee shops for casual meals and breakfast. If the motel does not have a restaurant, there are always restaurants nearby. Most rooms are furnished with television. Even **less** expensive motels often have a swimming pool. The price for rooms in motels is usually slightly **less than** for hotels.

More, as and less

We can say that something is greater than, equal to or less than something else.
Most hotels are **more** comfortable than motels.
Some motels are **as** comfortable as hotels.
Some motels are **less** comfortable than a modern hotel.

Less and least

Less and least are the opposites of more and most.
Motels are usually **less** expensive than hotels.
A motel will cost you **less.**
The subway is the **least** expensive way to get around New York.
We go out **less** often these days.
Whether we say, for example, warmer or less cold depends on our point of view.
It was cold in the house, but it was **less** cold than outside. We choose less cold here because we are talking about how cold the house was, not how

warm it was. We can express the same thing using a negative sentence with as. It was cold, but it was**n't as** cold as outside.
In informal English this pattern is more usual. Less + adjective can be a little formal.

As and so

We use a positive statement with as to say that things are equal.
Many motels are as comfortable as hotels.
My sister is as tall as me.
In a negative statement we can use either as or so.
Some motels are not as comfortable/not so comfortable as a good hotel.
The place isn't as crowded/isn't so crowded in winter.
I don't drink as much/so much coffee as you do.
Not as/so comfortable means 'less comfortable'.
In attributive position, as + adjective goes before a/an.
This isn't **as comfortable a hotel** as the last one we stayed in.
Such replaces so in a phrase with a/an.
This isn't **such a comfortable hotel** as the last one we stayed in.
d We use as (not so) with the second item in the comparison. After as we can use a phrase or clause.
Copper isn't as valuable **as gold.**
I came as quickly **as I could**.
No one scored as many points **as Laura did.**

Than

After a comparative we can use than with a phrase or clause.
Gold is softer **than copper**, NOT Gold-is softer as copper.
Going out alone is more difficult for women **than for men**.
The motel was less expensive **than I had expected.**
Flying is a lot quicker **than going by train.**
There were more people in town **than usual**.

Pronouns after as and than

A pronoun directly after as or than has the object form unless there is a verb after it.
I'm not as tall as **him**/as tall as **he is**.
The other teams played better than **us/**better than we **did.**

Comparisons without as or than

We can leave out as/than + phrase or clause if the meaning is clear without it.
I liked the last hotel we stayed in. This one isn't so comfortable.
Gold isn't very suitable for making tools. Copper is much harder.
It's more difficult to find your way in the dark.

Special patterns with the comparative

Patterns with the superlative

After a superlative we often use a phrase of time or place, an of-phrase or a relative clause.
It's going to be the most exciting pop festival **ever.**
Which is the tallest building **in the world?**
Titan is the largest satellite **of all.**
It's the most marvellous painting **I've ever seen.**
Peter is the least aggressive person **I know.**

Much bigger etc

We can use an adverb of degree in patterns expressing a comparison.
Gold is **much** softer than copper.
This is **by far** the best method.
Many motels are **every bit** as/**just** as elegant as the most modern hotels.
I'll need **a lot** more paper.

Special patterns with the comparative

We use this pattern with and to express a continuing increase.
The plant grew **taller and taller.**
The roads are getting **more and more crowded.**
There's **more and more** traffic all the time.
The problem is becoming **worse and worse.**
We use this pattern with the and a comparative to say that a change in one thing goes with a change in another.
The longer the journey (is), **the more expensive** the ticket (is).
The further you travel, **the more** you pay.
The older you get, **the more difficult** it becomes to find a job.

Prepositions

A preposition usually comes before a noun phrase.
into the building at two o'clock without a coat
Some prepositions can also come before an adverb.
until tomorrow through there at once
We can also use some prepositions before a gerund.
We're thinking **of moving** house.
NOT We're thinking of to move house.
We cannot use a preposition before a that-clause.
We're hoping **for a win**./We're hoping (that) we'll win.
NOT We're hoping for that we'll win.
But we can use a preposition before a wh-clause.
I'd better make a list **of what** we need.
The preposition and its object form a prepositional phrase.
Preposition + Noun phrase
Prepositional phrase: towards the setting sun behind you
The prepositional phrase functions as an adverbial.
They walked **towards the setting sun**.
On Saturday there's going to be a disco. '
It sometimes comes after a noun.
The disco on Saturday has been cancelled.
We can modify a preposition.
almost at the end **right in front of** me **halfway up** the hill
all over the floor **just off** the motorway **directly after** your lesson
In some clauses a preposition goes at the end.
Wh-question: Who did you go to the party **with**?
Infinitive clause: I've got a tape for you to listen **to**.
Passive: War reporters sometimes get shot **at**.
Relative clause: That's the article I told you **about**.
5 Some prepositions can also be adverbs.
Preposition: I waited for Max **outside** the bank.
We haven't seen Julia **since** last summer.

There was no lift. We had to walk **up** the stairs.
Adverb: Max went into the bank and I waited **outside**.
We saw Julia last summer, but we haven't seen her **since**.
There was no lift. We had to walk **up**.
A verb + adverb like walk up, get in is a phrasal verb
Some prepositions of time can also be conjunctions.
Preposition: We must be ready **before** their arrival.
Conjunction: We must be ready **before** they arrive.

Prepositions of place

There are some people **in/inside** the cafe. The man is waiting **outside** the cafe. There's a television **on** the table. There's a photo **on top of** the television. There's a dog **under(neath)** the table. There's a picture overt **above** the door. There's a small table **under/ below** the window. She's going **up** the steps, and he's The road goes **through** a tunnel. The car is coming **down** the steps. going **in/into** the tunnel. The lorry is coming **out of** the tunnel. She's taking the food **off** the trolley and putting it **on/onto** the shelves. The bus is **at** the bus stop. It's going **from** the city centre **to** the university. The lorry is travelling **away from** York and **towards** Hull. The man is sitting **next to/by/beside** the woman.
Their table is **close to/ near** the **door.**

Prepositions of place

The bus is **in front of** the car. The lorry is **behind** the car. The car is **between** the bus and the lorry. The woman is walking **along** the pavement **past** the supermarket. The man is on the pavement **opposite** the bank. The bank is **across** the road. The President is standing **among** his bodyguards. They are all **round/around** him. There's a hill **beyond** the church. (=on the other side of) The man is leaning **against** the wall.

Position and movement

Most prepositions of place say where something is or where it is going.
Position: There was a barrier **across** the road.
Movement: The boy ran **across** the road.
At usually expresses position, and to expresses movement.
Position: We were **at** the café.
Movement: We went **to** the café.
As a general rule, in and on express position, and into and onto express movement.
Position: We were sitting **in** the café. She stood **on** the balcony.
Movement: We went **into** the café. She walked **onto** the balcony.

Other meanings

Some prepositions of place can also express time.
Lots of people work **from** nine o'clock **to** five.
b Prepositions of place can also have more abstract meanings.
I'm really **into** modern jazz. (= interested in)
Ian comes **from** Scotland. (= He's Scottish./He lives in Scotland.)
The show was **above/beyond** criticism. (= too good to be criticized)
We are working **towards** a United States of Europe. (= working to create)
The party is right **behind** its leader. (= supporting)
City are **among** the most successful teams in the country. (= one of)

For idioms, e.g. **look into** the matter,

Prepositions of place: more details

At, on and in

Notes

She's at her desk. It's on the desk. They're in the drawer.

At is one-dimensional. We use it when we see something as a point in space.

The car was waiting at the lights.

There's someone at the door.

We also use at+ event.

We met at Daphne's party, didn't we?

We use at+ building when we are talking about the normal purpose of the building.

The Browns are **at** the theatre. (= watching a play)

I bought these dishes **at** the supermarket.

Nicola is fifteen. She's still **at** school.

We also use at for a person's house or flat.

I had a cup of coffee **at** Angela's (house/flat).

b On is two-dimensional. We use it for a surface.

Don't leave your glass on the floor.

There were lots of pictures on the walls.

We also use on for a line.

Paris is on the Seine.

The house is right on the main road, so it's a bit noisy.

In is three-dimensional. We use it when we see something as all around.

I had f i v e pounds **in** my pocket.

Who's that man **in** the green sweater?

There was a man sitting **in** the waiting room.

Compare in and at with buildings.

It was cold **in** the library. (= inside the building)

We were **at** the library. (= choosing a book)

NOTE

Compare these expressions with corner.

There were shelves over the fireplace and a bookcase in the corner.

There's a newsagent's **at/on** the corner. You turn left there.

d In general we use in for a country or town and at for a smaller place.

We finally arrived **in** Birmingham/**at** Land's End.

But we can use at with a town if we see it as a point on a journey.

You have to change trains **at** Birmingham.

And we can use in for a smaller place if we see it as three-dimensional.

I've lived **in** the village all my life.

Prepositions of place: more details

Look at these phrases.

at 52 Grove Road

at your house

at the station

at home/work/school

at the seaside

at the back/end of a queue

on 42nd Street (USA)

on the third floor
on the platform
on the page
on the screen
on the island
on the beach/coast
on the right/left
on the back of an envelope
in Spain/Bristol
in Grove Road
in the lesson
in a book/newspaper
in the photo/picture
in the country
in the middle
in the back/front of a car
in a queue/line/row

Above, over, below and under

Above and over have similar meanings. There was a clock **above/over** the entrance. We do not normally use above to mean horizontal movement. The plane flew low **over** the houses. And we do not use above for an area or surface. Thick black smoke hangs **over** the town. Someone had spread a sheet **over** the body.

We also use over for movement to the other side, or position on the other side of a line.

The horse jumped **over** the wall. Was the ball **over** the goal-line?

Somehow we had to get **over**/across the river.

Below is the opposite of above; under is the opposite of over.

We met at the entrance, **below/under** the clock.

We do not normally use below for a horizontal movement or for an area or surface.

Mike crawled **under** the bed in an attempt to hide.

The town lies **under** a thick black cloud of smoke.

Prepositions of place: more details

Top and bottom

On top of is a preposition.

There's a monument **on top** of the hill.

We can also use top and bottom as nouns in phrases like these.

There's a monument **at the top** of the hill.

The ship sank **to the bottom** of the sea.

Through, across and along

through the gate **across** the road **along** the path

Through is three-dimensional. You go through a tunnel, a doorway, a crowd of people, and so on.

The water flows **through** the pipe. I looked **through** the telescope.

Across is two-dimensional. You go from one side to the other across a surface such as a lawn or a playground, or a line such as a river or a frontier.

You can get **across** the Channel by ferry.

Notes

Sometimes we can use either through or across, depending on whether we see something as having three or two dimensions.
We walked **through/across** the field.
c We use along when we follow a line. You go along a path, a road, a passage, a route, and so on. Compare these sentences.
We cruised **along** the canal for a few miles.
We walked **across** the canal by a footbridge.

To, towards and up to

We use to for a destination and towards for a direction.
We're going **to** Doncaster. My aunt lives there.
We're going **towards** Doncaster now. We must have taken a wrong turning.
Go/come/walk + up to usually expresses movement to a person.
A man came **up to** me in the street and asked me for money.

Near, close and by

Near, near to and close to mean 'not far from'.
Motherwell is **near** Glasgow, NOT by Glasgow
We live **near (to)** the hospital/ **close to** the hospital.
Near and dose can be adverbs.
The animals were very tame. They came quite **near/close.**
Nearby means 'not far away'.
There's a post office near here/nearby.
The preposition by means 'at the side of' or 'very near'.
We live (right) by the hospital. Come and sit by me.
Next to means 'directly at the side of'.
We live **next to** the fish and chip shop.
At dinner I sat **next to/**beside Mrs Armstrong.

7 In front of, before, behind, after and opposite

a When we talk about where something is, we prefer in front of and behind to before and after.
There's a statue **in front of** the museum, NOT before the museum
The police held their riot shields **in front of** them.
The car **behind** us ran into the back of us. NOT the car after us
b Before usually means 'earlier in time', and after means 'later in time'. But we also
use before and after to talk about what order things come in.
J comes **before** K. K comes **after** J.
We also use after to talk about someone following or chasing.
The thief ran across the road with a policemen **after** him.
c Opposite means 'on the other side from'. Compare in front of and opposite.
People were standing **in front of** the theatre waiting to go in.
People were standing **opposite** the theatre waiting to cross the road.
Gerald was standing **in front of** me in the queue.
Gerald was sitting **opposite** me at lunch.

Prepositions of time

Between and among

We use between with a small number of items that we see as separate and individual.

The ball went **between** the player's legs.
Tom lives somewhere in that area **between** the hospital, the university and the by-pass.
For expressions such as a link between,
Among suggests a larger number.
I was hoping to spot Marcia **among** the crowd.

Prepositions of time

At, on and in

We use these prepositions in phrases saying when. See you **at** one o'clock. They arrived **on** Friday. We met in 1985. a We use at with a particular time such as a clock time or meal time. **at** half past five **at** breakfast (time) **at** that time **at** the moment We also use at with holiday periods of two or three days. **at** Christmas **at** Thanksgiving **at** the weekend
We use on with a single day. **on** Tuesday **on** 7th August **on** that day **on** Easter Sunday
We use in with longer periods. in the next few days in the summer holidays in spring in July in 1992 in the 19th century We also use in with a part of the day. in the afternoon in the mornings But we use on if we say which day. **on** Tuesday afternoon **on** Friday mornings **on** the evening of the 12th

Expressions of time without a preposition

We do not normally use at, on or in in phrases of time with last, this, next, every, later, yesterday and tomorrow. I received the letter **last Tuesday.** NOT on last Tuesday We've been really busy **this week.** NOT in this week You can take the exam again **next year.** NOT in the next year The same thing happens **every time.** NOT at every time **A week later** I got a reply. NOT in a week later I'll see you **tomorrow morning.** NOT in tomorrow morning
Sometimes we can use the preposition or leave it out.
Something else a bit unusual happened **(on) that day.**
I'd been ill **(in) the previous week.**
They agreed to meet **(on) the following Sunday.**

In + length of time

We can use in to say how long something takes. Columbus crossed the Atlantic **in** seventy days.
Surely you can change a wheel **in** fifteen minutes. We can also use in for a time in the future measured from the present. Ella takes her exam **in** three weeks/in three weeks' time.

During and over

We use during with an event (e.g. the festival) or a period which is a definite time (e.g. that week). It means the whole period. Nobody does any work **during** the festival/**during** that week. We cannot use during + length of time. The festival went on **for** a week. NOT It went on during a week.
We can also use during when something happens one or more times in the period. The letter arrived **during** the festival.
I suddenly felt ill **during** the show.
I have to make several trips abroad **during** the next few weeks.

During is a preposition; while is a conjunction.
Someone told me the news **during** the tea break.
Someone told me the news when/while we were having a cup of tea.
We can also use over for a whole period of time.

Notes

Over the next few days, Simon and Kay saw a lot of each other.
Over a period of two months there were a hundred sightings of UFOs.

For and since

We use for with a period of time to say how long something continues.
Rachel plays computer games **for** hours on end. NOT during hours
I once stayed at that hotel **for** a week.
I just want to sit down **for** five minutes.
We often use for and since with the perfect to say how long something has continued or when it started.
Giles has worked here **for** ten years now. We haven't been to the theatre **for** months. We've been waiting **for** twenty minutes. The Parkers have lived here **since** 1985. I haven't seen you **since** September. We've been waiting **since** twelve o'clock. We use for + length of time and since + time when. **for** two years **for** a week **for** two days **for** a few minutes **since** 1990 **since** last week **since** Monday **since** half past two.
We use the adverb ago for a past action at a time measured from the present. Ago comes after the length of time. Giles joined the company ten years **ago.** (= ten years before now) We last went to the theatre months **ago.** We use the adverb before for a past action measured from the more recent past. Giles left the company last year. He'd started work there ten years **before.** (= ten years before last year)

Till/until and by

We use till/until to say when something finishes.
Jim will be working in Germany **till/until** next April.
We sat in the pub **till/until** closing-time.
We can use not... till/until when something is later than expected.
Sue didn't get up **till/until** half past ten.
By means 'not later than'.
I'm always up by eight o'clock. (= at eight or earlier)
Can you pay me back by Friday? (= on Friday or earlier)
They should have replied to my letter by now.
Compare before.
Can you pay me back **before** Friday? (= earlier than Friday)

From and between

We use from for the time when something starts.
Tickets will be on sale **from** next Wednesday.
From seven in the morning there's constant traffic noise.
After the phrase with from we can use to or till/until for the time when something finishes.
The cricket season lasts **from** April **to** September.
The road will be closed **from** Friday evening **till/until** Monday morning.
NOTE Americans can use through, e.g. **from** Friday through Monday.
We can use between for a period after one time and before another.
Not many people work **between** Christmas and New Year's Day.

Prepositions: other meanings

Prepositions: other meanings

Prepositions can have meanings other than place or time.
We were talking **about** the weather.
According to the BBC, the strike is over. (= The BBC says ...)
Most people are **against** these changes. (= opposing)
We can have this pizza for tea. As **for** lunch, I'll get a sandwich.
I'm reading a book by Iris Murdoch.
You need a pullover, so I'm knitting one **for** you.
You'd do anything **for the sake of** peace and quiet. (= in order to have)
Are you **for** the plan/in **favour of** the plan ? (= supporting)
Mrs Peterson is **in charge of** the department. (= head of the department)
Can I use a pencil **instead of** a pen?
I went to a lecture **on** Einstein.
On behalf of everyone here, I'd like to say thank you.
This car does at least fifty miles **to** the gallon.
It's up **to** you to make your own decision.
2 With has these meanings.
I went to the party **with** a friend. (= We were together.)
Pete is the man **with** long hair. (= He has long hair.)
I'll cut the wood **with** my electric saw. • (5)
They set to work **with** enthusiasm. (= enthusiastically)
With people watching, I felt embarrassed. (= Because people were watching...)
Without is the opposite of with.
Who's the man **without** any shoes on?
They set to work, but **without** enthusiasm.
Of has a number of different meanings.
the handle **of** the door • a tin **of** soup • some **of** my friends • our first sight **of** land •
We can also use of in the following pattern.
She's an actress **of** great ability. (= She has great ability.)
These souvenirs are **of** no value.
He was a man **of** medium build.
Some prepositions have the same meaning as a conjunction.
We decided against a picnic **in view of** the weather.
(= **because** the weather was bad)
Such prepositions are as well as, in addition to, besides, ; in spite of, despite,; as a result of, in consequence of,; because of, due to, in view of, on account of,. We use with and by to express means.
a We use with to talk about an instrument, a thing we use to carry out an action. The thieves broke the door down **with** a hammer. Just stir this **with** a wooden spoon, could you?
By is more abstract. It refers to the means in general rather than to a specific thing. I paid by credit card. The motor is powered by electricity. They broke the door down by force.
We use by before a gerund. They got in **by breaking** down the door.
We also use by + noun for means of transport. We do not use the.
I prefer to travel by train.
NOT travel by the train and NOT travel with the train

We can say e.g. by bike, by car/road, by taxi, by bus/coach, by train/tube/rail, by boat/ship/ferry/hovercraft, by sea, by plane/air.
We do not use by to mean a specific bike, car etc.
I'll go **on** my bike. NOT ill go by my bike.

Notes

We can say on my bike, in the/my car, in a taxi, on the bus/train/boat/plane etc.
On foot means 'walking'.
I prefer to go **on foot/** to walk. NOT go by foot
We can also use by for means of communication, e.g. by letter/post, by phone, by telegram/telex/fax.
I spoke to Andy by phone/on the phone. I sent the information by post.
We use as to express a role or function.
Maria has come along as our guide. (She is our guide.)
I'm having to use the sofa as my bed. (It is my bed.)
We can sometimes leave out the after as. • 167(5)
We use like to express a comparison.
She slapped his face. The noise was **like** a pistol shot.
I think Louise looks a bit **like** Marilyn Monroe.
Compare as and like.
He speaks as an expert. He is after all a professor.
He talks **like** an expert, but really he knows nothing.
We use except (for), apart from and but to talk about an exception.
Everyone was there **except (for)/apart from** Nigel, who was ill.
I hate fish. I can eat anything **except/but** fish.

Idiomatic phrases with prepositions

There are very many idiomatic phrases beginning with a preposition. Most of them are without a/an or the. Here are some examples.
All the money paid by investors is now **at risk**.
Mark always drives **at top speed**.
I dialled the wrong number **by mistake**.
I'd like to buy this picture if it's **for sale**.
Try to see it **from** my **point of view**.
You have to pay half the cost of the holiday **in advance**.
I can't stop. I'm **in a hurry**.
I drive about ten thousand miles a year, **on average**.
Did you go there **on holiday** or **on business**?
Mr Jones is **on leave** this week. He'll be in the office next Monday.
There are so many different computers **on the market**.
I saw it **on television**.
I heard it **on the radio**.
I'm afraid the machine is **out of order**.
These pairs are different in meaning.
In time (for/to) means 'early enough'; but on time means 'punctually'.
We arrived at the hotel **in time** for dinner/to have dinner.
The train left **on time** at 11.23.
In the end means 'finally'; but at the end (of) means 'when it finishes'.
There were many arguments, but **in the end**/at last we reached agreement.
No one wanted to go home **at the end** of the holiday.

In the way means 'blocking the way'; but on the way means 'on a journey'.
I couldn't get the car out. Someone had parked right in the way.
It's a long journey. We'd better stop for a meal on the way.

Phrasal verbs and patterns with prepositions

Verbs with adverbs and prepositions

A verb can combine with an adverb or preposition.
Verb + adverb (phrasal verb): We **sat down.**
Verb + preposition (prepositional verb)**: We looked at** the menu.
A prepositional verb always has an object (the menu). A phrasal verb sometimes
has an object. The adverb can go either before or after the object.
We **put away** the dishes.
We **put** the dishes **away.**

Phrasal verb meanings

There are many phrasal verbs with an idiomatic meaning.
How did this **come about?** (= happen)
Nigel **made up** the whole story. (= invented)

Prepositional verbs

There are also many prepositional verbs.
This umbrella **belongs to** one of the guests.
We were **waiting for a** bus.

Verb + object + preposition

They charge £200 **for** a room.

Verb + adverb + preposition

The gang **got away with** a large amount of jewellery.

Adjective + preposition

I'm **grateful for** your help.

Noun + preposition • 237

We didn't get an **answer to** our question.

Verbs with adverbs and prepositions

Verb + adverb

A verb + adverb is called a 'phrasal verb'.
Come in and **sit down.**
I threw away my old briefcase.
These adverbs are sometimes called 'particles'. They combine with verbs to form phrasal verbs, e.g. call in, walk on, fall over, go under, climb up, fall down, watch out, set off, hurry back, run away, squeeze through, fly past, pass by, turn round, get about.

Verb + preposition

A verb + preposition is called a 'prepositional verb'.
I was **looking at** the photo.
We didn't **go into** all the details.
Prepositions combine with verbs to form prepositional verbs, e.g. believe in, look into, insist on, hint at, see to, come from, look after, cope with, consist of, hope for, feel like.
The preposition always has an object: believe **in God,** look **into the matter,** insist **on absolute silence.** For more details about prepositional verbs.

Word order with phrasal verbs

Some phrasal verbs are intransitive, but others have an object.
Intransitive: Suddenly all the lights **went out.**
Transitive: Someone **turned out** the lights.
When a phrasal verb has an object, the adverb can usually go either before or after the object.
I **threw away** my old briefcase. We **woke up** the neighbours.
I **threw** my old briefcase **away. We woke** the neighbours **up.**
But when the object is a pronoun, the adverb goes after it. My old briefcase was falling to pieces. I **threw it away.** The neighbours weren't very pleased. We **woke them up.** Neil borrowed some money from Maureen and never **paid her back.**
When the object is a long phrase, the adverb goes before it.
I **threw away** that rather battered old briefcase.
We **woke up** just about everyone in the street.
Neil never **paid back** all that money he borrowed.
The adverb usually goes before other adverbials (e.g. nervously, on time).
Roger stood **up nervously.** The plane took off **on** time.

Phrasal verb or prepositional verb?

The adverb can go before or after the object, but the preposition goes before its
object. Compare the adverb away and the preposition for.
Phrasal verb: Lisa **gave away** her computer.
Lisa **gave** her computer **away.**
Prepositional verb: Lisa **paid for** the meal.
NOT Lisa paid the meal for.
A pronoun goes before the adverb but after the preposition.
Lisa gave **it away.**
Lisa paid **for it.**
Some words are always adverbs, e.g. away, back, out.
Some words are always prepositions, e.g. at, for, from, into, of, with.
Some words can be either an adverb or a preposition, e.g. about, along, down, in,
off, on, over, round, through, up.
With phrasal verbs, the stress usually falls on the adverb, especially when it comes at the end of a clause.
Lisa gave her computer **a'way.** What time did you get **'up**?
With prepositional verbs, the stress usually falls on the verb.
Lisa '**paid** for the meal. It **de'pends** on the weather.

The passive

Many phrasal and prepositional verbs can be passive.
Phrasal: The rest of the food was **thrown away.**
The alarm has been **switched** off.
Prepositional: The children are being **looked after** by a neighbour.
The matter has been **dealt with.**
We usually stress the adverb (thrown a'way) but not the preposition ('looked after).

Phrasal verb meanings

Adverb in front position

We can sometimes put an adverb in front position, especially one that expresses movement. This gives the adverb extra emphasis.
The bell rang, and **out** ran the children.
Five minutes later **along** came another bus.
There is usually inversion of subject and verb (ran the children). But when the subject is a pronoun, there is no inversion.
The bell rang and out **they ran.**
NOT into the details we went:

Other words formed from phrasal verbs

We can use a verb + adverb as a noun.
Sue was at the airport an hour before **take-off.**
We offer a complete **breakdown** service.
We usually stress the verb: 'take-off.
We can also use a passive participle + adverb before a noun.
Sam attacked the wasp with a **rolled-up** newspaper.

Phrasal verb meanings

Introduction

Some phrasal verbs are easy to understand if you know the meaning of each word.
You'll have to **turn round** here and **go** back.
Jeremy stopped and **put down** both the suitcases.
These verbs express movement.
But often the phrasal verb has an idiomatic meaning.
I've **given up** smoking. (= stopped)
The idea has **caught on** in a big way. (= become popular)
David rang me (up) yesterday.
b Sometimes there is a one-word verb with the same meaning as the phrasal verb.
The phrasal verb is usually more informal.
Scientists are trying to **find out/discover** the reason why.
We must **fix up/arrange** a meeting.
The problem won't just **go away/disappear.**
The accident **held up/delayed** traffic for an hour.
You have failed to **keep up/maintain** your monthly payments.
You've **left out/omitted** two names from the guest list.
They've **put off/postponed** the match until next week.
A new company has been **set up/established.**
Some verbs can take a number of different adverbs.
The child took two steps and **fell down.**
Enthusiasm for the project has **fallen off.** (= become less)
Kevin and Diana have **fallen out.** (= quarrelled)
I'm afraid the deal **fell through.** (= didn't happen)
And the most common adverbs go with many different verbs.
The cat got up a tree and couldn't **climb down.**
I can't **bend down** in these trousers.
A pedestrian was **knocked down** by a car.
Interest rates may **come down** soon.

d A phrasal verb can have more than one meaning, often a concrete and an abstract
meaning.
We've been to the supermarket. Gavin is **bringing in** the groceries.
The government are **bringing in** a new law. **(=** introducing)

Some common adverbs

Here are some adverbs used in phrasal verbs.
back = in return
ring/phone you **back** later, **invite** someone **back, get** your money **back**
down = to the ground
knocked down/pulled down the old hospital, **burn down, cut down** a tree, **break**
down a door
down = on paper
write down the number, **copy down, note down, take down**
down = becoming less
turn down the volume, **slow down,** afire **dying down, let down** the tyres
down = stopping completely
a car that **broke down,** a factory **closing down**
off = away, departing/removing
start off/set off on a journey, **clear off,** a plane **taking off, see** someone **off, sell**
goods off cheaply, **strip off** wallpaper
off **=** away from work
knocking off at five (informal), **take** a day **off**
off = disconnected
put off/turn off/switch off the heating, **cut** off our water, **ring off**
off = succeeding
the plan didn't **come** off, managed to **pull** it **off**
on = wearing
trying a coat **on, had** a sweater **on, put** my shoes **on**
on = connected
put/turned/switched the cooker **on**
on = continuing
go on/carry on a bit longer, **work on** late, **hang on/hold on** (= wait), **keep on**
doing something
out= away, disappearing
rub out these pencil marks, **cross out, wipe out, put out** afire, **turn out** the light,
blow out a candle, **iron out** the creases
out= completely, to an end
my pen has **run out,** it **turned out** all right in the end, **clean out** a cupboard, **fill**
out a form, **work out/think out/find out** the answer, **write out** in full, **wear out**
the motor, **sort out** the confusion
out= unconscious
the boxer was **knocked out, I passed out/blacked out.**

out= to different people
gave out/handed out copies of the worksheet, **shared out** the food between them out= aloud
read out the rules for everyone to hear, **shout out, cry out, speak out** (= express an opinion publicly)
out= clearly seen can't **make out** the words, **stand out** in a crowd, **pick out** the best, **point out** a mistake
over= from start to finish **read over/check over** what I've written, **think over/talk over** a problem, **go over** the details, **get over** an illness
up = growing, increasing **blowing up** balloons, **pump up** a tyre, **turn up** the volume, **step up** production, **bring up** children up = completely **lock up** before leaving, **eat/drink** it **up, clear up/tidy up** the mess, **use up** all the sugar, **pack up** my things, **sum up** (= summarize), **cut up** into little pieces

More phrasal verbs

A car **drew up/pulled up** beside us.
We manage to **get by** on very little money.
What time did you **get up?**
You'd better **look out/watch out** or you'll be in trouble.
Look up the word in a dictionary.
We can **put** you **up** in our spare bedroom.
The cat was **run over** by a bus.
We're too busy to **take on** more work.
The company has **taken over** a number of small firms.
Why not **take up** a new hobby?
No one **washed up** after the meal.

Be + adverb

We can use an adverb with be.
We'll be **away** on holiday next week. (= not at home)
Will you be **in** tomorrow? (= at home)
Long skirts are **in** at the moment. (= in fashion)
The match is **off** because of the weather. (= not taking place)
Is there anything **on** at the theatre? (= showing, happening)
I rang but you were **out.** (= not at home)
The party's **over.** It's time to go. (= finished)
What's **up?** (= What's the matter?/What's happening?)

Prepositional verbs

A prepositional verb is a verb + preposition, e.g. ask for, depend on.
Which preposition goes after the verb is mainly a matter of idiom. Some verbs can take a number of different prepositions.
Come and **look at** the view.
We spent an hour **looking round** the shops.
Can you help me **look for** my cheque book?
I had to stay at home to **look after** the dog.
The police are **looking into** the incident.
People **look on** this neighbourhood as the least desirable in town.
There are many prepositional verbs. Here are some examples.
The man **admitted to/confessed to** the crime.
It all **amounts to/comes to** quite a lot of money.

Notes

We **apologize for** the delay.
Tina has **applied for** dozens of jobs.
We **arrived at/in** Ipswich ten minutes late.
That's no way to **behave to/towards** your friends.
I don't **believe in** eating meat.
Who does this bag **belong to?**
We should **benefit from** the tax changes.
I **came across** the article in a magazine.
The car **collided with** a van.
I want to **concentrate on** my maths.
The flat **consists of** four rooms.
We managed to **cope with** all of these difficulties.
The car **crashed into** a wall.
I'll have to **deal with/see about** the arrangements.
We **decided on** a caravan holiday.
The price **depends on** when you travel.
Can you **dispose of** the rubbish?
We have to **do without/go without** luxuries.
You didn't **fall for** that trick, did you?
I don't **feel like** doing any work.
Brown doesn't **go with** grey.
Has anything like that ever **happened to** you?
We're **hoping for** an improvement in the weather.
She **insisted on** playing her tape.
Why do other people always **interfere in/with** my affairs?
Someone was **knocking at/on** the door.
I was **listening to** the weather forecast.
You just can't **live on** £80 a week.
I **objected to** being kept waiting.
An idea has just **occurred to** me.
He hates **parting with** his money.
Seventy countries **participated in** the Games.
The man **pointed at/to** a sign.
I **ran into/bumped into** Alex yesterday. (= met by chance)
What does this number **refer to?**
Please **refrain from** smoking.
The professor is **researching into** tropical diseases.
You can't **rely on/count on** the bus being on time.
If all else fails, people will **resort to** violence.
I'm **revising for/preparing for** my exam.
I'll have to **see to/attend to** the arrangements.
We had to **send for** the doctor.
What does BBC **stand for?**
Let's **stick to** our original plan.
Simon **succeeded in** starting the car.
Tim **suffers from** back-ache.
The girl **takes after** her mother. (= is like)
You'll have to **wait for** the results.
You couldn't **wish for** anything nicer.
For prepositional verb + gerund, e.g. insisted on playing.

We can use about, of and to with some verbs expressing speech or thought. a About can come after many verbs. We were **talking about** house prices. They **complained about** the noise.
Someone was **enquiring about** reservations.
We can sometimes use of meaning about, but this is rather formal.
The Prime Minister spoke **of** / about prospects for industry.
Of can have a different meaning from about.
I was **thinking about** that problem. (= turning it over in my mind)
I couldn't **think of** the man's name. (= it wouldn't come into my mind)
We're **thinking of/about** taking a holiday. (= deciding)
What did you **think of** the hotel? (= your opinion)
I **heard about** your recent success. Congratulations.
I've never **heard of** Woolavington. Where is it?
Last night I **dreamt about** something that happened years ago.
I wouldn't **dream of** criticizing you. (= it wouldn't enter my mind)
NOTE I've **heard from** Max means that Max has written to me or phoned me.
c We use to before a person.
We were **talking to** our friends. They **complained to** the neighbours.
We do not normally use a preposition after these verbs: accompany, answer,
approach, control, demand, desire, discuss, enter, expect, influence, lack, marry,
obey, reach, remember, request, resemble, seek, suit.
Elizabeth Taylor **entered** the room. NOT She entered into the room.
The rebels **control** the city. NOT They control over the city.

Verb + object + preposition

Verb Object Preposition
Some companies **spend** a lot of money **on** advertising.
They've **invited** us **to** the wedding.
Do you **regard** this building **as** a masterpiece?
In the passive, the preposition comes directly after the verb.
A lot of money is **spent on** advertising.
We've been **invited to** the wedding.

Verb + object + preposition

Here are some more examples.
People **admire** the man **for** his courage.
Julie **aimed/pointed** the gun **at** the target.
The man was **arrested/punished/fined for** hitting a policeman.
Colin **asked** the waiter **for** a clean knife.
They **blamed** me **for** forgetting the tickets.
You can **borrow** an umbrella **from** someone.
The man was **charged with/accused of** robbery.
Compare hotel prices here **to/with** prices in London.
We **congratulated** Jane **on** passing her driving test.
The article **criticized** the government **for** doing nothing.
Heavy fines **deter/discourage** motorists **from** speeding.
The guides **divided/split** our party **into** three groups.
Can't we **do** something **about** the problem?
Can I **exchange** francs **for** pesetas?
You can **insure** your luggage **against** theft.

We should **invest** money **in** new industries.
I've **learnt** something **from** the experience.
Everyone **praised** the child **for** her prompt action.
Most people **prefer** the new system **to** the old.
I **remember** this place **as** a little fishing village.
They've **replaced** the old red phone boxes **with** new ones.
Your action **saved** us **from** bankruptcy.
Tom had to **share** a bedroom **with** Andy.
We must **stop/prevent** the dog **from** getting out into the road.
The proposal **struck** me **as** a good idea.
Did you **thank** Michelle **for** the lift?
I **took/mistook** that woman **for** an assistant.
You have to **translate** the article **into** English.
They **turned** the old cinema **into** a night club.
For this pattern with a gerund, e.g. thank her for helping, • 132(3).
Compare these pairs of sentences.
I **blame** the government **for** our problems.
I **blame** our problems **on** the government.
The manager **presented** Harry **with** a watch.
The manager **presented** a watch **to** Harry.
The school **provided** the visitors **with** tea.
The school **provided** tea **for** the visitors.
The men **robbed** the club **of** £500.
The men **stole** £500 **from** the club.
Sometimes the verb + object + preposition has an idiomatic meaning.
You'd better **take care of** your passport. (= look after)
You have to **give way to** traffic on the main road. (= allow to pass)
The speaker **took no notice of** the interruption. (= ignored)
We can use about, of and to after some verbs expressing speech and thought.
a We can use about after tell and ask.
Has anyone **told** you **about** the new timetable?
I **asked** Dave **about** his plans.
After inform, and warn we can use about or of.
The management will **inform** the staff **about/of** the proposed changes.
I should **warn** you **about/of** the difficulties you may face.
After write, explain and describe we use to before a person.
Lots of people **write** letters **to** the Queen.
I **explained** our problem **to** the official.

Verb + adverb + preposition

A verb can have both an adverb and a preposition after it. This is sometimes called
a 'phrasal-prepositional verb'.
Verb Adverb Preposition
Lucy **fell down on** the ice.
The room **looked out over** farmland.
The astronomer **gazed up at** the stars
It's windy. **Hold on to** your hat.
Sometimes the meaning is idiomatic. Here are some examples.
I might **call/drop in on** Paul. (= pay a short visit)

Martin left half an hour ago. I'll never **catch up with** him now.
We were making good progress until we **came up against** the bureaucracy.
A scientist has **come up with** an interesting new invention.
I'm trying to **cut down on** sugar. (= reduce)
The Old Greater London Council was **done away with.** (= abolished)
You've got to **face up to** the situation. (= not avoid)
I've got no job and no savings to **fall back on.** (= use if necessary)
I've got back-ache. I don't **feel up to** physical work.
I don't mind. I'll **fit in with** what you want to do.

Adjective + preposition

The gang **got away with** several valuable works of art.
I'd better **get on with** the tea. (= do a job)
Do you **get on with** your flat-mate? (= Are you good friends?)
I'll **get round to** fixing that door one day. (= find time for a job)
/ suppose we'll **go along with** the proposal. (= accept)
You can't **go back on** what you promised. (= do something different)
Mike has **gone down with** flu. (= suffering from)
Ben has decided to **go in for** teaching.
Just **go/carry on with** your work. (= continue)
You drive so fast I'll never **keep up with** you.
You've got quite a reputation to **live up to.** (= behave as expected)
Are you **looking forward to** your holiday?
Slow down. **Look/Watch out for** children crossing.
We need heroes to **look up to.** (= respect)
I got up late, and I've spent all day trying to **make up for** lost time.
The man **owned up to** a number of burglaries. (= admitted)
Why should we have to **put up with** this noise? (= tolerate)
The car's **run out of** petrol.
I'm going to **send off/away for** my free map. (= write to ask for)
Stand up to the dictator! **Stand up for** your rights!
There is also a pattern with an object between the verb and adverb.
Verb Object Adverb Preposition
We won't **let** anyone else **in on** the secret.
Diana has **taken** us **up on** our invitation.

Adjective + preposition

1 Some adjectives can take a preposition.
I'm fond of a good book. You'll be **late for** work.
Phil is **good at** quizzes. The place was **crowded with** tourists.
2 Many of these adjectives express feelings.
afraid of/frightened of/scared of/terrified of the dark
ashamed of myself **confident of** victory
crazy about/enthusiastic about aeroplanes **curious about** the affair
eager for news **excited at/about** the prospect
fed up with/bored with housework **impressed with/by** the performance
interested in ballet **jealous of/envious of** rich people **keen on** fishing
nervous of heights **proud of** her achievements
satisfied with/content with my score **tired of** walking
worried about/upset about this setback

We can use at or by with alarmed, amazed, astonished, confused, shocked, and
surprised.
We were very **surprised at/by** the news.

Notes

For the pattern with a gerund, e.g. tired of walking, • 132(4).
For nice of you and nice for you, • 126(5).
We use good at etc to talk about ability.
Lee is **good at** skating. (= He can skate well.)
You're **brilliant at** maths. I'm **hopeless at** languages.
We use good for to say that something makes you healthy.
Physical exercise is **good for** you. Over-eating is **bad for** you.
To say how we behave towards another person we use good to, rude to etc.
You've been very **good to/kind to** me. You've helped me a lot.
The waiter was barely **polite to** us.
4 Here are some more examples of adjective + preposition.
absent from work **available to** members/**available for** hire
capable of better things **clear to/obvious to** all the spectators
conscious of/aware of what you're doing **dependent on** public money
different to/from our normal routine a town **famous for** its history
fit for a marathon a bucket **full of** water **guilty of** murder
harmful to the environment **involved in** various activities
kind to animals a door **made of** steel **married to/engaged to** a postman
opposed to the plan **popular with** young people **present at** the meeting
ready for/prepared for the journey **related to** a friend of ours
responsible for our safety **safe from** attack the **same as** always
I'm **serious about** what I said **short of** time **similar to** my last job
successful in my search food **suitable for** freezing
superior/inferior to other products **sure of/certain of** the facts
a style **typical of/characteristic of** the period
used to/accustomed to late nights **Welcome to** Wales.
nothing **wrong with** me

Noun + preposition

Sometimes we use the same preposition as with a related verb or adjective.
Verb/Adjective + preposition Noun + preposition
He objected to the idea. his **objection to** the idea
It protects you **from** the cold. **protection from** the cold
I'm interested in art. an **interest in** art
We were **angry at** what happened. our **anger at** what happened
Sometimes the verb takes a direct object but the noun takes a preposition.
Verb Noun + preposition
I **answered** the question. my **answer to** the question
They **demanded** more money. their **demand for** more money
b Some nouns can take different prepositions.
a discussion **of/about/on** politics today
Sometimes the choice of preposition depends on the meaning.
his apology **for** being late his apology **to** the teacher
Here are some more examples of noun + preposition.
a Advantage
England had the **advantage of** playing at home.
There's usually an **advantage in** playing at home.

b Chance, possibility
the **chance/opportunity of** a quick profit no **possibility of** an agreement
c Connection, difference etc
a **link/connection with** another murder
a **link/connection between** the two murders
Jill's **relationship with** Hugo
the **relationship between** them
the **contrast with** the other side of town
the **contrast between** the two areas
the **difference between** American football and soccer
an **alternative to** conventional medicine
a **substitute for** wood
d Effect, influence
The new law has had some **effect on** people's behaviour.
The Beatles had a great **influence on/over** their generation.
e Increase etc
an **increase/a rise in** crime an **increase** la **rise of** ten per cent
a **reduction/decrease in** sales a **reduction/decrease of** four per cent
a **delay in** approving the plan a **delay of** two months
1 Some nouns can take a particular preposition.
a **tax on** tobacco **time for** lunch the **price of** bread
no **pleasure in** shopping feel **pity for** the victims
an **example of** what I mean **room for** lots of luggage
f Method, answer etc
a **way/method of** improving your memory the **question of** finance
the **answer/solution/key to** the problem a **scheme for** combating crime
the **cause of/reason for** the accident
Need, wish etc
These nouns take for: appetite, application, demand, desire, need, preference,
request, taste, wish.
a **need for** low-cost housing a **desire for** peace and quiet
NOTE
Hope takes of or for.
There's no **chance/hope of** getting there in time.
Our **hopes of/for** a good profit were disappointed.
h Opinion, belief etc
your **opinion of** the film his **attitude to/towards** his colleagues
a **belief in** conservative values an **attack on** the scheme
no **regard/respect for** our institutions **sympathy for** the losers
people's **reaction to** the news
i Report, complaint etc
a **report on/about** agriculture a **comment on/about** the situation
an **interview with** the President **about** the military action
a **complaint about** the noise
j Student, ability etc
a **student of** law great **ability in/at** music
a **knowledge of** the rules **research into** waste-recycling
her **skill at** handling people an **expert on/at/in** work methods
some **experience of/in** selling

k Trouble etc
having **trouble with** the computer What's the **matter with** it?
some **damage to my** car a **difficulty over/with** the arrangements
a **lack of** money

Notes

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are adjectives? Describe its position in sentence.
2. What are adverbials? Describe the rules for using adverbial.
3. What are adverb of manners? How the are used in a sentence
4. Discuss some rule of conversion of adjectives into comperative and superlative.
5. What are prepositions? Describe the rules of using preposition in a sentence.

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

IMPORTANTNOTES

UNIT-6 MAIN CLAUSES AND SUB CLAUSES

CONTENTS

Sentences with more than one clause

Types of clause

Main clauses

We can use and to join two main clauses. The man went up to the 86th floor **and** he jumped. His paintings weren't selling, **and** he had money problems. Two main clauses linked together are 'co-ordinate clauses'. When the subject is the same in both clauses, we can leave it out of the second one. The man went up to the 86th floor **and** (he) jumped. A gust of wind caught him **and** (it) blew him back into the building.

We can also use or, but and so in co-ordinate clauses. We can take a taxi or (we can) wait for a bus. He jumped off the 86th floor **but** (he) survived. There was a show going out, **so** they asked him some questions. The two clauses can be separate sentences. The man went up to the 86th floor. **And** he jumped. He jumped. **But** then something amazing happened. d And, or and but can also join phrases or words. The painter **and** the interviewer had a chat. The man was shaken **but** unhurt.

Sub clauses

Sometimes one clause can be part of another. A gust of wind caught him **as he fell.** He admitted **that he'd changed his mind.** Here as he fell and that he'd changed his mind are 'subordinate clauses' or sub clauses. In a sub clause we can use because, when, if, that etc.

The word order in the sub clause is the same as in the main clause. He admitted that **he'd changed his mind.** NOT He admitted that he his mind had changed. c **A** sub clause is part of the main clause, in the same way as a phrase is. For example, it can be an adverbial or an object.
Adverbial: A gust of wind caught him **on the way down.**
A gust of wind caught him **as he fell.**
Object: He admitted **his mistake.**
He admitted **that he'd changed his mind.**
Another kind of sub clause is a relative clause.
A man who had money problems threw himself off the building.
This clause modifies a man.

Finite and non-finite clauses

A finite clause has a main verb.
He regrets now that he jumped.
You can go up to the top of the building.
A finite clause can be a main clause (He regrets now) or a sub clause (that he jumped).
A finite clause has a subject unless we leave it out to avoid repetition.
The wind caught him and **(it) blew** him through the window.
To tell you the truth, I was terrified.
He regrets now having jumped.
The people watching the show were astonished.

Clause combinations

A sentence can have more than one main clause and/or sub clause.
I feel tired if I stay up, but I can't sleep if I go to bed.
The two main clauses (I feel tired, I can't sleep) are linked by but. They both have a sub clause with if.
We can also link sub clauses with and, or, but or so. George knew that Amy was very ill and wouldn't live much longer. Here and links the two sub clauses that Amy was very ill and (she)wouldn't live much longer. **2** Look at these sentences with two sub clauses. He admitted that he'd changed his mind as soon as he'd jumped. Although it was hard work, I enjoyed the job because it was interesting. Jane met the artist who painted the picture that caused all the controversy. We can also use non-finite clauses to build up more complex sentences. He admitted having changed his mind after jumping.
The gallery intends to buy more pictures painted by local artists. 4 Look at these two sentences from a real conversation. 'Eventually we took off, but instead of landing at Zurich, we had to go to Basle, which meant a longer, and an added train journey. Well, we hung about waiting for a representative to come and tell us what to do, and after an hour and a half nobody came, so we took a taxi and went into Basle, and because we'd missed the train we decided to stay the night there.'
These are the main clauses and sub clauses.
Sentence 1
Main clause
Eventually we took off,
Main clause Sub clause Sub clause
but we had to go to instead of which meant a
Basle, landing at longer, and an

Zurich, added train journey.
Sentence 2
Main clause Sub clause Sub clause
Well, we hung about waiting for a to come
representative
Sub clause Sub clause
and tell us what to do,
Main clause
and after an hour and
a half nobody came,
Main clause
so we took a taxi
Main clause
and went into Basle,
Main clause Sub clause Sub clause
and we decided to stay the because we'd
night there, missed the train.

Tenses in sub clauses

Sequence of tenses

The verb in a sub clause is usually in the same tense as the verb in the main clause. Here they are both present. Even some people who **have** tickets **aren't** able to get into the stadium. And here both verbs are past. Even some people who **had** tickets **weren't** able to get into the stadium. When Jemima **appeared** I saw immediately that something **was** wrong. I **came** home early yesterday because I **didn't feel** very well. We use the past (didn't feel) because we are talking about yesterday.
For the present simple in a sub clause of future time, • 77.
I'll ask Jemima when she **gets** here.

Tenses in sub clauses

Verbs after wish

Wish - would
I wish people **wouldn't leave** this door open.
I wish Simon **would reply** to my letter.
This pattern expresses a wish about the future, for example a wish for a change in
someone's behaviour, or a wish for something to happen. It can express a rather
abrupt request or complaint.
I wish you **wouldn't smoke.**
b Wish - past tense/could
I wish I **had** more spare time.
Bob wishes he **knew** what was going on.
I wish I **could ski.** I'm hopeless at it.
This pattern expresses a wish for something in the present to be different, for example the amount of spare time I have. We cannot use would here. NOT I wish I would have more spare time. c Wish -past perfect/could have I wish I **had** never **bought** this toaster. It's always going wrong. I wish you'd **told** me you had a spare ticket for the show. Angela wishes

she **could have gone** to the party, but she was away. This pattern expresses a wish about the past. We cannot use would have.

NOT I wish you would have told me.

d If only

If only means the same as I wish, and we use it in the same patterns.

If only Simon would reply to my letter.

If only can be more emphatic than wish. It often expresses regret.

If only you'd told me you had a spare ticket for the show. I'd have loved to go.

The unreal present and past

Compare these sentences.

Past simple: Suppose we **were** rich. (We aren't rich.)

Imagine you **wanted** to murder someone. (You don't want to.)

Past perfect: I wish I **had reserved** a seat. (I didn't reserve one.)

I'd rather you'd asked me first. (You didn't ask me.)

The past simple expresses something unreal in the present, something that is not so. The past perfect expresses something unreal in the past. We can use these patterns with suppose, supposing, imagine; wish,; if only,; would rather; if; as if/as though.

After suppose, supposing or if we can use either the present or the past for a possible future action.

Suppose/Supposing something **goes/went** wrong, what then?

What if you **don't/didn't have** enough money to get home?

The subjunctive

The subjunctive is the base form of a verb.

The committee recommended that the scheme **go** ahead.

The Opposition are insisting that the Minister **resign.**

It is important that an exact record be kept.

We can use the subjunctive in a that-clause after verbs and adjectives expressing the idea that an action is necessary, e.g. ask, demand, insist, propose, recommend, request, suggest; advisable, anxious, desirable, eager, essential, important, necessary, preferable, willing.

The subjunctive is rather formal. It is used more in American English. In British English we often we use should instead, or we use the normal form of the verb. The committee recommended that the scheme **should go** ahead. The Opposition are insisting that the Minister **resigns.**

There are some expressions that we use for something unreal, e.g. suppose, wish, would rather, if, as if/as though, • 241(3). After these expressions we can use the past subjunctive were instead of was.

Suppose the story was/were true. The man looked as if he was/were drunk. But were is a little formal and old-fashioned here, except in the phrase if I were you (= in your place).

If I **were you,** I'd accept the offer.

And, or, but, so etc

We can use a conjunction to link two main clauses together in a sentence. Tom had no food, **and** he had to pay the rent. We can use an adverb or a prepositional phrase to link the meaning of two main clauses or two sentences. Tom had no food, and he **also** had to pay the rent. Tom had no food. He **also** had to pay the rent. Tom had to buy some food.

Besides that, there was the rent. **Words meaning 'and'** and, too, as well (as), either, also, in addition (to), besides, furthermore, moreover, both... and..., not only... but also...

Words meaning 'or'

or, either ...or..., neither... nor...

Words meaning 'but'

but, though, however, nevertheless, even so, all the same, although, even though, in spite of, despite, whereas, while, on the other hand

Words meaning 'so'

so, therefore, as a result (of), in consequence (of)

Words meaning 'and'

We can use and to link two clauses. Gene Tunney was a boxer, **and** he lectured on Shakespeare. The adverbs too and as well are more emphatic than and. Gene Tunney was a boxer. He lectured on Shakespeare, **too/as well.** These adverbs usually come in end position.

The negative is either.

I haven't got a car, and I haven't got a bike **either.**

NOT I haven't got a bike too/as well.

Also usually goes in mid position.

Gene Tunney was a boxer, and he **also** lectured on Shakespeare.

We can use these forms to make an additional point, for example when developing an argument.

I've got all my usual work, and **in addition** I've got to write a report.

The material is very strong. **Besides,** it is cheap to produce.

It's raining quite hard. **What's more,** I have no umbrella.

Further(more) and moreover are a little formal.

The country had suffered greatly during the war. **Furthermore/Moreover,** it had no money.

These matters are giving cause for concern. **Further,** I must draw your attention to

a recent press report.

And then and on top of that are informal.

I'm too busy to travel all that way. **And then** there's the expense.

We've got workmen in the house. **On top of that,** my sister is staying with us.

We can use the prepositions as well as, in addition to and besides with a noun or gerund.

Gene Tunney was a university lecturer **as well as** a boxer.

In addition to doing all my usual work, I've got to write a report.

We can also use along with and together with before a noun.

I've got my sister to look after **along with** the workmen.

Together with a film crew, they are walking towards the South Pole.

To add emphasis we can use both... and or not only ...but also.

Gene Tunney was **both** a boxer **and** a Shakespeare scholar.

He was **not only** a boxer, **but** he **also** lectured at Yale University.

Words meaning 'or'

We use or to express an alternative. Either... or is more emphatic.

You can go right **or** left.

You can go **either** right **or** left.

I've **either** left my bag on the bus **or** at the office.

Either you do the job yourself, **or** we pay someone to do it.
For or in questions, • 31.
In the negative we can use not ...or, but neither... nor is more emphatic and a

Notes

little more formal.
The road was closed. I couldn't go right **or** left.
The road was closed. I could go **neither** right **nor** left.
A deaf-mute is someone who can't hear **or** speak.
A deaf-mute is someone who can **neither** hear **nor** speak.
Neither the post office **nor** the bank was/were open.

Words meaning 'but'

As well as the conjunction but, we can use the adverb though. We found an Information Centre, **but** it was closed. We found an Information Centre. It was closed, **though.** But always comes at the beginning of the clause and though (as an adverb) in end position. Though is rather informal.
We can also use the adverbs however and nevertheless.
The Great Fire destroyed much of London. **However/Nevertheless,** only six people lost their lives.
These adverbs are a little formal. They often go in front or end position. They can also sometimes go in mid position or after the subject. Only six people, **however,** lost their lives. We can also use even so and all the same. They usually go in front or end position. She has lots of friends. **Even so/All the same** she often feels lonely. We can use a sub clause with the conjunction although. The sub clause comes before or after the main clause. **Although** the Great Fire destroyed much of London, only six people died. I drank the beer **although** I didn't want it. Compare the use of but.
I didn't want the beer, **but** I drank it. In informal English we can use though as a conjunction.
The team lost, **though/although** they played quite well.
Even though is more emphatic than although.
My father runs marathons, **even though** he's sixty.
NOT even although he's sixty
We can use the prepositions in spite of and despite with a noun or gerund.
In spite of/Despite the widespread destruction, only six people died.
The family always enjoy themselves **in spite of** having/**despite** having no money.
NOT despite of having
We cannot use these words before a finite clause.
NOT in spite of the Great Fire destroyed much of London
But we sometimes use in spite of/despite the fact that, especially if the two clauses have different subjects.
In spite of the fact that the Great Fire destroyed much of London,...
But although is usually neater.
Although the Great Fire destroyed much of London,...
In the sentence The team lost but they played well, the conjunction but expresses

the idea that playing well is in contrast with losing and is therefore unexpected. There is also a weaker meaning of but.
I'm right-handed **but** my brother is left-handed.
Here but expresses the idea that something is different but not unexpected. To express this idea of difference, we can also use the conjunctions whereas or while.
I'm right-handed **whereas/while** my brother is left-handed.
We can also use the adverbial on the other hand to link two sentences. It can go in front, mid or end position or after the subject.
Birmingham is a big city. Warwick, **on the other hand,** is quite small.

Words meaning 'so'

We use so to express a result.
It hasn't rained for ages, (and) **so** the ground is very dry.
So is a conjunction. It comes at the beginning of a clause.
The adverb therefore is a little formal. It often goes in mid position, but it can go in front or end position or after the subject. There has been no rainfall for some time. The ground is **therefore** very dry.
We can also use the adverbials as a result, consequently and in consequence.
The computer was incorrectly programmed, and **as a result/and in consequence** the rocket crashed.
In consequence is more formal.
As a result of and in consequence of are prepositions.
The rocket crashed **as a result of/in consequence of** a computer error.
The ground is **so** dry **(that)** the plants are dying.
There was **so** much steam **(that)** we couldn't see a thing.
The place looked **such** a mess **(that)** I couldn't invite anyone in.
Here a sub clause (that the plants are dying) expresses the result of the ground being very dry, there being so much steam, and so on. So and such express degree; We cannot use very or too in this pattern.

Adverbial clauses

Introduction to adverbial clauses

An adverbial clause is part of the main clause in the same way as other adverbials are, such as an adverb or prepositional phrase.
We could play cards **afterwards.**
We could play cards **after the meal.**
We could play cards **after we've eaten.**
The clause usually goes in front position or end position.
If you like, we could play cards.
We could play cards **if you like.**
A comma is more usual when the adverbial clause comes first.
The order of clauses depends on what is new and important information. We usually put the important information at the end of the sentence.
I arrived about ten minutes after the start of the meeting. I was late **because Don was telling me his problems.**
Here I was late relates back to ten minutes after the start. The information about Don is new. But now look at this example.
You know how Don talks. Well, because he was telling me his problems,

I was late.
Here the clause with because relates back to Don talks. The information I was late is new.
4 There are also non-finite adverbial clauses.

Notes

a We can use an infinitive or participle clause.
Check it again **to make sure.** Dave lay in bed **thinking.**
We can use a conjunction + participle or a preposition + gerund.
While waiting, Colin paced up and down. •
You can't go all day **without eating.** •
b With some conjunctions, we can form a short clause without a verb.
A car must be taxed **when** (it is) **on the road.**
These conjunctions are when, while, once, until, where, if and although.

Clauses of time

1 We form an adverbial clause of time with a conjunction.
It always rains **after** I've washed my car.
The doorbell rang **as/while** I was changing.
I'll come and see you **as soon as** I've finished work.
Have some coffee **before** you go.
I've usually left the house **by the time** the postman comes.
NOT by the postman comes
Once you've learnt to swim, you'll never forget.
Lots has happened **since** I last saw you.
Till/Until the cheque arrives, I can't pay my rent.
Mozart could write music **when** he was only five.
For before you **go** referring to the future, • 77.
Before, after, since and till/until can also be prepositions.
Lots has happened **since** your last visit.

Clauses of time

We can use a gerund after before, after and since.
I always have a shower **after taking** exercise.
3 We can use a participle after when, while, once and until.
Take care **when crossing** the road.
Please wait **until told** to proceed.
We can also use a participle without a conjunction.
Take care **crossing** the road.
Having glanced at the letter, Helen pushed it aside.
4 When, while and as refer to two things happening at the same time. For more examples,
While and as suggest something continuing for a period of time.
While Ann was in hospital, she had a visit from her teacher.
As we were cycling along, we saw a fox.
We can also use when here.
For a complete action we use when.
We were cycling along **when** we saw a **fox.**
When I arrived, the party was in full swing.
We can also use when for one thing coming straight after another.
When I knocked, Fiona opened the door.
b When can also mean 'every time'.
When you dial the number, no one answers.
I cycle to work **when** it's fine.

Whenever and every time are more emphatic.
Whenever/Every time Max calls, he brings me flowers.
c We can use as (but not while) to express the idea that a change in one thing goes with change in another.
As we drove further north, the weather got worse.
Compare **The** further north we drove,...
d Just as means 'at that exact moment'.
Just as we came out of the theatre, the rain started.
To emphasize the idea of one thing coming immediately after another, we can use these conjunctions.
As soon as/Immediately the gates were open, the crowds rushed in.
The minute/The moment you hear any news, let me know.
We can also use these patterns with no sooner and hardly.
Martin had **no sooner** sat down **than** the phone rang.
I had **hardly** started work **when** I felt a pain in my back.
In both patterns we can use inversion. • 17(6c)
No sooner had Martin sat down **than** the phone rang.
Hardly had I started work **when** I felt a pain in my back.

Clauses of reason

We form an adverbial clause of reason with a conjunction such as because.
I made mistakes **because** I was tired.
As the weather is often warm, many of the homes have swimming pools.
Since no one asked me, I didn't tell them.
Seeing (that) it's so late, why don't you stay the night?
Now (that) I've finished the course, I have to look for a job.
We can also use a participle clause.
Being tired, I made mistakes.
Having finished the course, I have to look for a job.
We can also use the prepositions because of, due to, in view of and on account of.
The new welfare scheme was abandoned **because of** the cost.

Clauses of purpose

We can use a to-infinitive clause to express purpose.
I'd just sat down **to read** the paper.
In order to and so as to are more emphatic. They are also a little formal.
The company borrowed money **(in order) to** finance their advertising.
Paul wore a suit to his job interview **(so as) to** make a good impression.
(In order) to save time we'll fax all the information.
The negative is in order not to or so as not to but we cannot use not to on its own.
I wrote it in my diary **so as not to** forget.
After so that we use a finite clause, often with the present simple or with will, would, can or could.
You should keep milk in a fridge **so that** it stays fresh.
I wrote it in my diary **so that** I wouldn't forget.
Why don't you take a day off **so that** you can recover properly?
In order that is formal and less common than so that.
We shall let you know the details soon **in order that** you can/may make your arrangements.

We can use **for** with a noun to express the purpose of an action.
We went out **for** some fresh air. Why not come over **for** a chat?
To express the general purpose of a thing, we normally use for with a gerund.

Notes

A saw is a tool **for cutting** wood.
The small scale is **for weighing** letters.
We use the to-infinitive to talk about a specific need or action.
I need a saw **to cut** this wood.
I got the scale out **to weigh** the letter.
NOT I got the scale out for weighing the letter.

Other adverbial clauses

Place

Where the road bends left, there's a turning on the right. Sebastian takes the teddy bear everywhere he goes.

Manner

Do it (in) the way (that) I showed you. Why can't I live my life how I want to live it?
Jessica behaved as/like she always does. How can you act as if/as though nothing had happened?

Comment and truth

As you know, things are difficult just now.
Putting it another way, why should I bother?
To tell you the truth, I don't think you've much chance of success.
As far as I can tell, there's nothing wrong.

In that and in so far as

The party was a disappointment **in that/in so far as** the celebrity guest didn't turn up.
Here the sub clause explains in what way the main clause is true.

Except

The car's all right, **except (that)** the heater doesn't work. Leaving out that is informal.

Whoever, whatever etc

1 We can use these words with the meaning 'it doesn't matter who', 'it doesn't
matter what', etc.
Whoever plays in goal, we're bound to lose.
I won't change my mind **whatever** you say.
Whenever I ring Tracy, she's never there.
I can't draw faces, **however** hard I try.
We can use whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever and however.
We can also use no matter.
I won't change my mind **no matter what** you say.
No matter where we go on holiday, you never like it.

Conditional clauses

The use of conditional clauses

This real conversation contains some conditional clauses.

RENEWING YOUR LIBRARY BOOKS

Reader: And **if I want to renew my books,** do I have to come in, or can I phone and renew them? I think there's a system where I can phone and tell you the numbers or something like that?

Librarian: Yes, that's quite all right. Or you can even send us a letter. **As long as you give us the accession number of the book.** Reader: That's the number on the back?

Librarian: No, that's the class number. The number - the accession number - you'll find **if you open the book on the fly-leaf.** It's usually about six numbers at least. And **if you'd give us that,** the date that is stamped on the date label - the last date stamped - and your name and address.

Reader: Uh-huh. **If I do that,** how do I know that it's all right? I mean, **if you want the book back,** do you write to me?

Librarian: Yes, we would do that **if you had written in,** but of course, **if you'd telephoned or called in** we could tell you then.

Conditions express different degrees of reality. For example, a condition can be open or unreal.

Open: **If you join the library,** you can borrow books.

Unreal: **If you'd arrived ten minutes later,** we would have been closed.

An open condition expresses something which may be true or may become true. (You may join the library). An unreal condition expresses something which is not true or is imaginary. (You did not arrive later.)

We can use conditional sentences in a number of different ways: for example to request, advise, criticize, suggest, offer, warn or threaten.

If you're going into town, could you post this letter for me?

If you need more information, you should see your careers teacher.

If you hadn't forgotten your passport, we wouldn't be in such a rush.

We can go for a walk **if** you like.

If I win the prize, I'll share it with you.

If you're walking along the cliff top, don't go too near the edge.

If you don't leave immediately, I'll call the police.

Verbs in conditional sentences

a We can use many different verb forms in conditional sentences. Here are some real examples.

If you **haven't got** television, you **can't watch** it.

If you **go** to one of the agencies, they **have** a lot of temporary jobs.

If someone else **has requested** the book, you **would have to give** it back.

If you **lived** on the planet Mercury, you **would have** four birthdays in a single Earth year.

In general we use verb forms in conditional sentences in the same way as in other kinds of sentences. In open conditions we use the present to refer to the future (if you **go** to one of the agencies). When we talk about

something unreal we often use the past (if you **lived)** and would (you **would** have four birthdays).

There are some verb forms which often go together. These patterns are usually called Types 1, 2 and 3.

Notes

Type 1: If the company **fails, we will lose** our money.

Type 2: If the company **failed, we would lose** our money.

Type 3: If the company **had failed, we would have lost** our money.

There is another common pattern which we can call Type 0.

Type 0: If the company **fails, we lose** our money.

c The if-clause usually comes before the main clause, but it can come after it.

We lose our money **if the company fails.**

Type 0 conditionals

a The pattern is if...+ present... + present.

If the doorbell **rings,** the dog **barks.**

If you **heat** iron, it **expands.**

Here the pattern means that one thing always follows automatically from another.

We can use when instead of if.

If/When I reverse the car, it makes a funny noise.

(= **Every time I** reverse the car,**...**)

b We can also use Type **0** for the automatic result of a possible future action.

If the team **win** tomorrow, they **get** promotion to a higher league.

This is an open condition. It leaves open the question of whether the team will win or not.

Type 1 conditionals

a The pattern is if...'+ present... + will.

If it **rains,** the reception **will take** place indoors.

If we **don't hurry, we'll miss** the train.

The milk **will go** off if you **leave** it by the radiator.

The if-clause expresses an open condition. It leaves open the question of whether

it will rain or not. Here the present simple (if it **rains)** expresses future time; • 77.

We do not normally use will in an open condition.

NOT if it will rain But .

If it does/**will do** me more good, I'll take a different medicine.

b We can use shall instead of will after I/we.

If we don't hurry, we **will/shall** miss the train.

As well as the present simple, we can use the continuous or perfect.

If we're **having** ten people to dinner, we'll need more chairs.

If **I've finished** my work by ten, I'll probably watch a film on TV.

Verbs in conditional sentences

As well as will, we can use other modal verbs and similar expressions in the main clause.

If we miss the train, we **can get** the next one.

If Simon is hoping to borrow the car, he's **going to be** disappointed.

If you phone at six, they **might be having** tea.

We can also use the imperative.

If you're going out, **take** your key.
If you drink, **don't drive.**
A present tense in the if-clause can refer to the present.
If you **like** tennis, you'll be watching Wimbledon next week, I suppose.
If it's **raining** already, I'm definitely not going out.
We can use will in the if-clause for willingness and won't for a refusal.
If everyone **will help,** we'll soon get the job done.
If the car **won't start,** I'll have to ring the garage.
We can also use will in the if-clause for a request.
If you**'ll** just **take** a seat, Mr Parsons will be with you in a moment.

4 Type 2 conditionals

a The pattern is if...+ p a s t . . . + would.
If I **had** lots of money, I **would travel** round the world.
If Phil **lived** nearer his mother, he **would visit** her more often.
I'd tell you the answer if I **knew** what it was.
Here the past tense expresses an unreal condition. If I had lots of money means that really I haven't got lots of money, but I am only imagining it.
We do not use would for an unreal condition.
NOT if I would have lots of money But • (4e).
We do not usually mix the patterns for open and unreal conditions.
NOT If I had lots of money, I will travel round the world.
We also use the Type 2 pattern for a theoretical possibility in the future.
If you **lost** the book, you **would have** to pay for a new one.
If we **caught** the early train, we'd be in Manchester by lunch time.
Here the past tense expresses an imaginary future action such as losing the book.
Compare Types 1 and 2 for possible future actions.
Type 1: If we **stay** in a hotel, it **will be** expensive.
Type 2: If we **stayed** in a hotel, it **would be** expensive.
Type 1 expresses the action as an open possibility. (We may or may not stay in a hotel.) Type 2 expresses the action as a theoretical possibility, something more distant from reality.

Verbs in conditional sentences

As well as the past simple, we can use the continuous or could.
If the sun **was shining**, everything would be perfect.
If I **could help** you, I would, but I'm afraid I can't.
As well as would, we can use other modal verbs such as could or might in the main clause.
If I had a light, I **could see** what I'm doing.
If we could roll the car down the hill, we **might be** able to start it.
e We can use would in the if-clause for a request.
If you **wouldn't mind** holding the line, I'll try to put you through.
Sometimes there is no main clause.
If you**'d** just **sign** here, please.
We can also use would like.
If you'**d like** to see the exhibition, it would be nice to go together.

Open conditions in the past

We can use the past tense for an open condition in the past.
Perhaps Mike took a taxi. ~ Well, if he **took** a taxi, he ought to be here by now.

I used to live near the library. If I **wanted** a book, I went and got one/I would go and get one.

b We can use a Type **2** pattern as the past of a Type **1.**

Type 1: Don't go. If you **accept** the invitation, you **will regret** it.

Type 2: I told you that if you **accepted** the invitation you **would regret** it. And

now you are regretting it, aren't you?

c We can combine a past condition with a future result.

If they **posted** the parcel yesterday, it **won't get** here before Friday.

6 Type 3 conditionals

The pattern is if... + past perfect... + would + perfect.

If you **had taken** a taxi, you **would have got** here in time.

If I'**d phoned** to renew the books, I **wouldn't have had** to pay a fine.

The man **would have died** if the ambulance hadn't arrived so quickly.

We'**d have gone** to the talk if we'**d known** about it.

(= We **would** have gone if we **had** known.)

Here the past perfect refers to something unreal, an imaginary past action. Ifyou

had taken a taxi means that you didn't take one.

We cannot use the past simple or perfect in the main clause.

NOT If you had taken a taxi, you got/had got here in time.

We can use could + perfect in the if-clause.

If I **could have warned** you in time, I would have done.

We can use other modal verbs such as could or might+ perfect in the main clause.

If I'd written the address down, I **could have saved** myself some trouble.

The plan **might not have worked** if we hadn't had one great piece of luck.

We can mix Types 2 and 3.

If Tom **was** a bit more ambitious, he **would have found** himself a better job years ago.

If you **hadn't woken** me up in the middle of the night, I **wouldn't feel** so tired now.

Should, were, had and inversion

The following types of clause are rather formal.

We can use should in an if-clause to talk about something which is possible but not very likely.

I'm not expecting any calls, but if anyone **should ring,** could you take a message?

If you **should fail** ill, we will pay your hospital expenses.

Sometimes we use the subjunctive were instead of was.

If the picture was/were genuine, it would be worth thousands of pounds.

If it wasn't/weren't for Emma, I'd have no friends at all.

(= Without Emma,...)

We can also use were to for a theoretical possibility.

If the decision **were to go** against us, we would appeal.

3 We can express a condition with should or the subjunctive were by inverting the

subject and verb.

Should anyone ring, could you take a message?

Should we not succeed, the consequences would be disastrous.
Were the picture genuine, it would be worth thousands of pounds.
Were the decision to go against us, we would appeal.
We can do the same with the past perfect
Had you taken a taxi, you would have got here on time.
Had the guests not complained, nothing would have been done.
But an if-clause is more common, especially in informal English.

If, as long as, unless, in case etc

If and when

If the doctor comes, can you let her in? (The doctor **might** come.)
When the doctor comes, can you let her in? (The doctor **will** come.)
We use if (not when) for an unreal condition.
If I could see into the future, I'd know what to do.
(I **can't** see into the future.)
But in some contexts we can use either if or when.

Short clauses

We can use a short clause with if but without a verb.
I'd like a room facing the street if (that is) **possible.**
If (you are) **in difficulty,** ring this number.
For if so and if not, • 43(3e).

Then

After an if-clause we can use then in the main clause.
If the figures don't add up, **(then)** we must have made a mistake.
If no one else has requested the book, **(then)** you can renew it.

As long as, provided etc

As well as if, we can also use as/so long as and provided/providing (that) to express a condition.
You can renew a book in writing **as long as/so long as** you give its number.
I don't mind you using my bike **provided (that)** you take care of it.
We are willing to accept your offer **providing (that)** payment is made within seven days.
Provided/Providing (that) is a little formal.

What if and suppose/supposing

After a conditional clause with these expressions, there is often no main clause.
What if the tickets don't get here in time?
Suppose/Supposing there's nowhere to park?

Unless

a Unless means 'if... not'.
We're going to have a picnic **unless** it rains/if it doesn't rain.
You can renew a book **unless** another reader has requested it.
Unless you refund my money, I shall take legal action.
When an unreal condition comes before the main clause, we cannot use unless.
The horse fell. **If** it had**n't** fallen, it would have won the race.
NOT Unless it had fallen, it would have won.
But we can use unless after the main clause, as an afterthought.

The horse won easily. No one could have overtaken it, **unless** it had fallen.
We do not use unless when we talk about a feeling which would result from something not happening.

Notes

Alex wlll be upset **if** you do**n't** come to the party.
I shall be very surprised **if** it does**n't** rain.

In case

You should insure your belongings in **case** they get stolen.
(= ... because they might get stolen.)
I took three novels on holiday **in case** I felt like doing some reading.
We can use should.
Take a pill **in case** the crossing is rough/should be rough.
Compare if and in case.
I'll draw some money out of the bank **if** I need it.
(= I'll draw it out at the time when I need it.)
I'll draw some money out of the bank **in case** I need it.
(= I'll draw it out because I might need it later.)
But for in case of, • (4) Note c.
NOTE For in case in American English, • 307(2).

Even if and whether ...or

I wouldn't go on a camping holiday, **even if** you paid me.
NOT I wouldn't go even you paid me.
Joanne wouldn't want a dog **even if** she had room to keep one.
She wouldn't want a dog **whether** she had room for one **or** not.
Whether it's summer or winter, our neighbour always wears a pullover.

7what time was it.

In informal English we can often leave out that.
I knew **(that)** you wouldn't like this colour.
We often use noun clauses in indirect speech.
You **said** you had the number. Mike **asked** what the matter was.
We can sometimes use a to-infinitive with a question word or whether.
The problem was **how to contact** everyone.

Patterns with noun clauses

The pattern You know that we haven't any money

a A noun clause can be the object of a verb.
Tim wouldn't say **where he was going.**
No one believes **(that) the project will go ahead.**
We regret **that you did not find our product satisfactory.**
I wonder **whether that's a good idea.**
I'll ask **when the next train is.**
The figures show **how much the population has increased.**
b With think and believe, we usually put a negative in the main clause, not in the noun clause.
I **don't think** we've got time.
I think we haven't got time is less usual.
With suppose, imagine and expect, we can put the negative in either clause.
I **don't suppose** you're used to this weather.
I suppose you **aren't** used to this weather.

c Here are some verbs we can use before a noun clause.
accept demonstrate mean reply
add discover mention report
advise doubt mind request
agree dream notice reveal
announce estimate object say
answer expect observe see
anticipate explain order show
argue fear point out state
arrange feel predict suggest
ask find prefer suppose
assume forecast presume suspect
beg forget pretend swear
believe guarantee promise teach
check guess propose think
claim hear protest threaten
command hope prove understand
complain imagine realize undertake
confirm imply recognize urge
consider indicate recommend warn
decide insist regret wish
declare know remark worry
demand learn remember write
Some of these verbs can also take a to-infinitive or gerund; Some verbs take a to-infinitive or gerund but not a noun clause, e.g. aim, avoid, finish, involve, offer, refuse.
NOTE For require, intend, allow, permit and forbid, Sometimes there is a phrase with to. **. . .**
We explained **(to the driver)** that we hadn't any money.
In this pattern we can use announce, complain, confirm, declare, demonstrate, explain, imply, indicate, mention, observe, point out, pretend, propose, protest, prove, recommend, remark, report, reveal, show, state, suggest, swear, write.
Sometimes there is an indirect object.
We told **the driver** that we hadn't any money.
In this pattern we can use advise, assure, convince, inform, notify, persuade, promise, reassure, remind, show, teach, tell, warn. With most of these verbs we cannot leave out the indirect object. •
For details about tell and say,

The pattern The problem is that we haven't any money

A noun clause can be a complement of be.
The truth is **(that) I don't get on with my flat-mate.**
The difficulty was **how Emma was going to find us in the crowd.**

The pattern That we haven't any money is a pity

We sometimes use a noun clause as subject.
That everyone got back safely was a great relief.
Which route would be best isn't obvious.
But it is more usual to use Pattern 4.
We do not leave out that when the clause is the subject.
NOT Everyone got back safely was a great relief.

Notes

The pattern It's a pity that we haven't any money

We often use the empty subject it. • 50(5)

It was a great relief **that everyone got back safely.**
It isn't obvious **which route would be best.**
It's hard to say **if/whether it's going to rain** (or not).
It's nice **(that) you've got some time off work.**

The pattern I'm interested in how we can earn some money

A wh-clause or whether can come after a preposition.

The government is looking **into what needs to be done.**
He made no comment **on whether a decision had been reached.**

We cannot use if.

We cannot use a that-clause after a preposition. Compare these sentences.

No one told me **about** Nicola's illness/about Nicola being ill.
No one told me **(that) Nicola was ill.**

The pattern I'm afraid that we haven't any money

We can use a that-clause after some adjectives.

I'm glad (that) you enjoyed the meal.
We were **worried (that) there were no life guards on duty.**
Lucy was **sure (that) she could identify her attacker.**

Some adjectives in this pattern are:

afraid convinced impatient
amused delighted pleased
annoyed determined proud
anxious eager sorry
aware glad sure
certain happy surprised
confident horrified willing
conscious

We can use a wh-clause after sure and certain.

I wasn't **sure when the visitors would arrive.**

After some adjectives we can use how or what expressing an exclamation.

I was surprised **how upset Tom seemed.**
Melissa was aware **what a difficult task she faced.**

The pattern The fact that we haven't any money is a problem

We can use a that-clause after some nouns, mainly ones expressing speech or thought.

The **news that the plane had crashed** came as a terrible shock.
You can't get around the **fact that it's against the law.**
Whatever gave you the **idea that I can sing?**
I heard a **rumour that there's been a leak of radioactivity.**

We do not usually leave out that in this pattern.

Direct and indirect speech

Introduction to indirect speech

Direct speech

We use direct speech when we report someone's words by repeating them. 'I'll go and heat some milk,' said Agnes. (from a story) Gould was the first to admit "We were simply beaten by a better side.'
(from a newspaper report) 'Made me laugh more than any comedy I have seen in the West End this year' - Evening Standard (from an advertisement)
For an example text and for details about punctuation,

Indirect speech

a Instead of repeating the exact words, we can give the meaning in our own words and from our own point of view.
Agnes said **she would go and heat some milk.**
Gould admitted **that his team were beaten by a better side.**
Here the indirect speech (or 'reported speech') is a noun clause, the object of said and admitted. We sometimes use that, but in informal English we can leave it out, especially after say or tell.
Tom says (that) his feet hurt.
You told me (that) you enjoyed the visit.
We can sometimes use a non-finite clause.
Gould admitted having lost to a better side.
They declared the result to be invalid.

We can report thoughts as well as speech.
Louise thought Wayne was a complete fool.
We all wondered what was going on.
c We can mix direct and indirect speech. This is from a newspaper report about a man staying at home to look after his children.
But Brian believes watching the kids grow up and learn new things is the biggest joy a dad can experience. 'Some people think it's a woman's job, but I don't think that's relevant any more.'
In indirect speech we do not need to use a verb of reporting in every sentence. This is from a report about a court case. (The names have been changed.)
Prosecutor David Andrews said Wilson had stolen a gold wedding ring and credit card and had used the card to attempt to withdraw money from a bank. In the second offence Wilson had burgled premises and taken a briefcase containing takings from a shop.
Police had later recovered the bank notes from his home.
In the second and third paragraphs we could use a verb of reporting.
The prosecutor also said that in the second offence...
Mr Andrews added that police had...
But it is not necessary to do this because it is clear that the article is reporting what the prosecutor said.

Verbs of reporting

We use verbs of reporting to report statements, thoughts, questions, requests, apologies and so on. Polly **says** we'll enjoy the show. You **mentioned** that you were going on holiday. 'What's the reason for that?' she **wondered.** You might **ask** the waiter to bring another bottle. I've **apologized** for losing the data. Some verbs express how a sentence is

spoken. 'Oh, not again,' he **groaned.** 2 These are verbs of reporting. accept confess guarantee pray snap add confirm hear predict state admit consider imagine promise suggest advise continue inform propose suppose agree cry inquire read swear answer decide insist reassure tell apologize declare instruct recommend thank argue demand invite record think ask deny know refuse threaten assure doubt learn remark understand beg enquire mention remind urge believe expect murmur repeat want to know blame explain mutter reply warn call feel notify report whisper claim forbid object request wonder command forecast observe say write comment groan offer scream complain growl order shout conclude grumble point out smile

A few verbs of reporting always have an indirect object.

No one **told me** you were leaving.

We **informed everyone** that the time had been changed.

These verbs are tell, inform, remind, notify, persuade, convince and reassure.

Some verbs of reporting take an indirect object and a to-infinitive.

The police **ordered the men to lie** down. • 270

With direct speech we can sometimes invert the verb of reporting and the subject.

This happens mainly in literary English, for example in stories and novels.

'Nice to see you,' Phil said/**said Phil.**

'I'm afraid not,' the woman replied/**replied the woman.**

We can do this with most verbs of reporting, but not with tell.

We cannot put a personal pronoun (e.g. he, she) after the verb.

'Nice to see you,' **he said.**

We can also use nouns such as announcement, opinion, remark, reply, statement.

For noun + that-clause, • 262(7).

The **statement that no action would be taken** was met with disbelief.

We can also use sure and certain.

Polly is **sure we'll enjoy the show.**

Tell, say and ask

We normally use an indirect object after tell but not after say.

Celia **told me** she's fed up. NOT Celia told she's fed up.

Andy **told me** all the latest news.

Celia **said** she's fed up. NOT Celia said me she's fed up

Dave never **says** anything. He's very quiet.

We can use ask with or without an indirect object.

I **asked (Celia)** if there was anything wrong.

For tell and ask in indirect orders and requests, • 270(1).

We **told/asked** Celia to hurry up.

Tell, say and ask

But we can use tell without an indirect object in these expressions.

Paul **told** (us) a very funny **story/joke.** You must **tell (me) the truth.**

You mustn't **tell** (people) **lies.** The pupils have learnt to **tell the time.**

After say we can use a phrase with to, especially if the information is not reported.

The mayor will **say** a few words **to** the guests. What did the boss **say to** you?
But when the information is reported we use these patterns.
The boss **said** he's leaving/**told me** he's leaving.
This is much more usual than The boss said to me he's leaving.

Changes in indirect speech

People, place and time

Imagine a situation where Martin and Kate need an electrician to do some repair work for them. Kate rings the electrician. Electrician: I'll be at your house at nine tomorrow morning. A moment later Kate reports this to Martin. Kate: The electrician says **he**'ll be **here** at nine tomorrow morning.
Now the speaker is different, so I becomes the electrician or he. The speaker is in a different place, so at your house becomes here for Kate. But next day the electrician does not come. Kate rings him later in the day. Kate: You said you **would** be here at nine **this** morning. Now the time is a day later, so tomorrow morning becomes this morning. And the promise is now out of date, so will becomes would. (For the tense change, Whenever we report something, we have to take account of changes in the situation - a different speaker, a different place or a different time.

Adverbials of time

Here are some typical changes from direct to indirect speech. But remember that the changes are not automatic; they depend on the situation. Direct speech Indirect speech now then/at that time/immediately today yesterday/that day/on Tuesday etc yesterday the day before/the previous day/on Monday etc tomorrow the next day/the following day/on Wednesday etc this week last week/ that week last year the year before/the previous year/in 1990etc next month the month after/the following month/in August etc an hour ago an hour before/an hour earlier/at two o 'clock etc

Tenses in indirect speech

Verbs of reporting

A verb of reporting can be in a present tense.
The forecast **says** it's going to rain.
Karen **tells** me she knows the way.
I've heard they might close this place down.
Here the present tense suggests that the words were spoken only a short time ago and are still relevant. For written words, After a present-tense verb of reporting, we do not change the tense in indirect speech.
'I'm hungry.' Robert says he's hungry.
When we see the statement as in the past, the verb of reporting is in a past tense.
Robert **said** he's hungry.
Karen **told** me yesterday that she knows the way.
We can use the past even if the words were spoken only a moment ago.

The meaning of the tense change

When the verb of reporting is in a past tense, we sometimes change the tense in indirect speech from present to past.

If the statement is still relevant, we do not usually change the tense, although we can do.

7 know the way.' Karen told me she knows/knew the way, so there's no need to take a map.

Notes

'I'm hungry.' Robert said he's/he was hungry, so we're going to eat.

We can change the tense when it is uncertain if the statement is true. Compare these examples.

We'd better not go out. The forecast said it's going to rain.

I hope it doesn't rain. ~ It might. The forecast said it **was** going to rain.

The present tense (is) makes the rain sound more likely. We are more interested in the fact of the rain than in the forecast. The past tense (was) makes the rain less real. We are expressing the idea that it is a forecast, not a fact.

We use the past tense when we are reporting objectively, when we do not want to suggest that the information is necessarily true. 'I'm not interested in money.' Tom told me he **wasn't** interested in money. 'Our policies will be good for The party said its policies **would** be good for the the country.' country. When a statement is untrue or out of date, then we change the tense. Karen told me she **knew** the way, but she took the wrong turning. The forecast said it **was** going to rain, and it did.

You said you **were** hungry, but you didn't eat anything.

Oh, they live in Bristol, do they? I thought they **lived** in Bath.

You told me years ago that you **wanted** to be a film. star.

The form of the tense change

The tense change in indirect speech is a change from present to past.

'I **feel** ill.' Kay said she **felt** ill.

'You'**re** crazy.' You said I **was** crazy.

'We'**re** losing.' We thought we **were** losing.

'I'**ve** got time.' Simon said he **had** time.

'We **haven't** finished.' They said they **hadn't** finished.

'She**'s** been crying.' Who said Ann **had** been crying?

If the verb phrase is more than one word, then the first word changes, e.g. **are** losing **were** losing, **has** been crying **had** been crying.

b If the verb is past, then it changes to the past perfect.

'I **bought** the shirt.' He told us he **had bought** the shirt.

'We **were** having lunch.' They said they **had been** having lunch.

If the verb is past perfect, it does not change. 'Paul **had been** there before.' Jack said Paul **had been** there before.

There are changes to some modal verbs.

'You'**ll** get wet.' I told them they **would** get wet.

'I **can** drive.' I said I **could** drive.

'It **may** snow.' They thought it **might** snow.

The changes are will would, can could and may might. But these do not change: would, could, should, might, ought to, had better, used to.

'A walk **would** be nice.' We thought a walk **would** be nice.

Must expressing necessity can change to had to.

'I **must** go now.' Sarah said she **must go/had to** go.

But when must expresses certainty, it does not usually change.

I thought there **must** be some mistake.

Compare mustn't and needn't.

'You **mustn't** lose the key.' I told Kevin he **mustn't** lose/he **wasn't to** lose the key.
'You **needn't** wait.' I told Kevin he **needn't** wait/he **didn't have to** wait.

Reporting questions

We can report a question by using verbs like ask, inquire/enquire, wonder or to know.
a Look at these wh-questions.
Where did you have lunch? I **asked** Elaine **where** she had lunch.
~ In the canteen.
What time does the flight get in? I'll **inquire what** time the flight gets in.
~ Half past twelve.
Who have you invited? Peter is **wondering who** we've invited.
~ Oh, lots of people.
When is the lesson? Someone **wants to know when** the lesson is.
~ I don't know.
For the pattern We were wondering where to go for lunch,
b To report yes/no questions we use if or whether.
Is there a waiting-room? Dan was **asking if/whether** there's a waiting-
~ **Yes**, over here. room.
Have you bought your ticket? Mandy **wants to know if** Steve has bought his
~ **No**, not yet. ticket.
In a reported question the word order is usually like a statement.
I asked Elaine when she had lunch.
NOT I asked Elaine when she did have lunch.
We do not use a question mark.
We can use a wh-clause or if/whether after say, tell etc when we are talking about the answer to a question.
Did Helen **say when** she would be calling?
I wish you'd **tell** me **whether** you agree.
I've **found out what** time the flight gets in.
We can use an indirect question to ask for information after an expression such as
Could you tell me...?
Could you tell me where the post office is, please?
In an indirect question, the tense can change from present to past in the same way as in a statement. What **do** you want? The man asked what **we wanted.**
Who **are** you waiting for? Alex wondered who I **was** waiting for.
Will there be a band? They asked if there **would** be a band.

Reporting orders, requests, offers etc

Orders and requests

We can use tell/ask + object + to-infinitive.
'Please wait outside.' The teacher **told us to wait** outside.
'I want you to relax.' She's always **telling me to relax.**
'Could you help us?' We **asked James to help** us.
'Would you mind not smoking?' Our hostess **asked Alan not to smoke.**
We can also use these verbs: order, command, instruct; forbid; request, beg, urge.

Notes

We can also report the sentences like this.
My psychiatrist is always telling me she wants me to relax.
Our hostess asked Alan if he would mind not smoking.
To express an order, we can also use must, have to or be to.
The teacher said we **had to** wait/we **were to** wait outside.
My psychiatrist is always telling me I must relax/I'm **to** relax.

Word-building

Compounds

Compound nouns

A compound noun is two nouns joined together. handbag teacup weekend armchair water-power We stress the first noun, e.g. 'handbag. It is often difficult to tell the difference between a compound noun and two single nouns. For details about two nouns together,

Gerund + noun

We can use a gerund to classify a noun, to say what type it is or what its purpose is. the dining room (= the room for dining in) a sailing boat running shoes the booking-office some writing-paper a swimming-pool We often use a hyphen. We stress the gerund, e.g. the 'dining-room.

Noun + gerund

A gerund can have a noun object in front of it.
Coin-collecting is an interesting hobby. I'm tired of **sightseeing.**
Taxi-driving was what I always wanted to do.
We stress the noun, e.g. 'coin-collecting. The noun is singular:
NOT coins collecting. Compare a gerund clause.
Collecting coins is an interesting hobby.

Compounds with participles

We can form compounds with active or passive participles.
a **road- widening** scheme a **hard-boiled** egg
For more details, • 137(2).

Compounds with numbers

We can use a number + noun to modify another noun. a **three-day** visit a six-mile journey a car with **four-wheel** drive The noun is singular: NOT a three days visit. But for a three days' visit. We can also say a visit of three days. We can also use a number + noun + adjective.
a **three-day-old** baby a **hundred-yard-long** queue

Prefixes

A prefix comes at the beginning of a word. It adds something to the meaning.
1 Here are some common prefixes.
re (= again): rewrite a letter, re-enter a room, remarry
semi (= half): semi-skilled workers, a semi-conscious state
mono (= one): monorail, monolingual, a monotone
multi (= many): a multinational company, a multi-storey car park
super (= big/more): a superstore, a superhuman effort, a supersonic aircraft
sub (= under/less): subnormal intelligence, sub-zero temperatures
mini (= small): a minibus, a miniskirt, a minicomputer
pre (= before): the pre-war years, prehistoric times

post (= after): a post-dated cheque, the post- war period
ex (= previously): his ex- wife, our ex-Director
inter (= between): inter-city trains, an international phone call
trans (= across): a transatlantic flight, a heart transplant operation
co (= together): co-exist, a co-production, my co-driver
over (= too much): overcrowded, ill from overwork, an overgrown garden,
overweight
under (= too little): undercooked food, an understaffed office, underpaid
out (= more/better): outnumber the opposition, outplayed their opponents,
outlived both her children
pro (= in favour of): pro-government forces, pro-European policies
anti (= against): anti-nuclear protestors, anti-aircraft guns
mis (= badly/wrongly): misuse, misbehave, misgovern, miscount, a misunderstanding

There are some negative prefixes used to express an opposite.

a un: unhappy, unfair, unofficial, unemployed, unplug a machine, unpack a suitcase
This is the most common way of expressing an opposite.
b in: inexact, independent, indirect, inexpert, an injustice
illegal, illogical; immobile, immoral, impossible, impatient; irresponsible
c dis: dishonest, disunited, disagree, disappear, dislike, disadvantage
d non: non-alcoholic drinks, a non-stop flight, a non-smoker
e de: defrost a fridge, the depopulation of the countryside,
the decentralization of government

Suffixes

change in the vowel, e.g. courage
a Verb + ment: payment, movement, government, arrangement, development
b Verb + ion/tion/ation/ition: correct correction, discuss discussion,
produce production, inform information,
invite invitation, add addition,
repeat repetition
c Verb with d/t sion:
d Verb + ance/ence:
e Adjective in ent ence:
f Adjective + ty/ity:
g Adjective + ness:
h Verb + ing:

Nouns for people

a Verb + er/or:
decide decision, permit permission
performance, acceptance, existence, preference
silent silence
Others are absence, intelligence, independence,
violence. Examples of ant ance are distance,
importance.
certainty, royalty, stupidity, nationality, security
happiness, illness, freshness, forgetfulness, blindness

a building, my feelings
walker, owner, builder, driver, doctor, editor
There are very many such nouns, especially with er.
NOTE We also use er in nouns for things, especially
Notes machines, e.g. a computer, a food mixer.
b Noun/Verb/Adjective + ist: journalist, motorist, nationalist, tourist
NOTE We can use ism to form an abstract noun, e.g.
journalism, nationalism.

Introduction

A suffix comes at the end of a word. For example, we can add the suffix merit to the verb state to form the noun statement. There is sometimes a change of stress and a there is an extra sound, e.g. possible possibility, apply application. Not all combinations are possible. We can say statement, amusement, punishment etc, but we cannot add ment to every verb. The words have to be learnt as vocabulary items.

Abstract nouns

Some common suffixes in abstract nouns are ment, tion/sion, ance/ence, ty, ness and ing. We can use an abstract noun in nominalization. They agreed. their agreement
courageous . Sometimes
c Verb + ant/ent:
d Noun + an/ian:
e Noun + ess:

Suffixes

applicant, assistant, inhabitant, servant, student
republican, electrician, historian, musician
For nationalities, e.g. Brazilian.
waitress, actress, hostess, stewardess, princess
a Most nouns for people can mean either males or females, so friends, students, doctors, motorists etc include both sexes. **If** we need to say which sex, we say e.g. her **boy**-friend, **female** students, **women** doctors. Some words to do with family relationships are different for male/female : husband/wife, father/mother, son/daughter, brother/sister, uncle/aunt. We also normally make a difference between male/female with waiter/waitress and the other examples with ess above. But some other words with ess are less usual and are now seen as sexist. A manager can be male or female, so there is usually no need for the pair manager/ manageress.
b There is also a suffix man /m n/, which has a female equivalent woman, e.g. 'postman/ 'postwoman. Also policeman, businessman, chairman, salesman, spokesman. Some of these are now seen as sexist, especially in a business context, and we can say business executive, chairperson/chair, salesperson/sales representative, spokesperson, although the suffix person
is still not accepted by everyone.
Verb + ee:

Verbs

a Adjective + ize:
b Adjective + en:

5 Adjectives

a Noun + al:
b Noun + ic:
c Verb/Noun + ive:
d Noun + ful:
e Noun + less:
f Noun + ous:
g Noun + y:
employee, payee, interviewee
This suffix usually has a passive meaning. Compare er and ee. The company is the biggest **employer** in the town. It has two thousand employees/workers.
modernize, popularize, privatize, centralize, legalize There are many such verbs formed from abstract adjectives. shorten, widen, brighten, harden, loosen These verbs are formed from concrete adjectives.
national, industrial, cultural, additional, original heroic, artistic, photographic, energetic active, effective, exclusive, informative, expensive careful, hopeful, peaceful, beautiful, harmful careless, hopeless, worthless, powerless Less means 'without'. Painful and painless are opposites. dangerous, luxurious, famous, courageous salty, healthy, thirsty, wealthy, greedy
h Noun + ly: friendly, costly, cowardly, neighbourly, monthly
i Verb + able/ible: eatable, manageable, excusable, acceptable, comprehensible, defensible
These mean that something 'can be done'.
This sweater is washable. (= It can be washed.)
But not all adjectives in able/ible have this meaning, e.g.
pleasurable (= giving pleasure), valuable (= worth a lot).
j Verb + ing: exciting, fascinating • 203
k Verb + ed: excited, fascinated • 203

Adverbs

We form many adverbs from an adjective + ly, e.g. quickly. • 207

Vowel and consonant changes

There can be a different consonant sound.
That's what I believe. That's my belief.
Also: advise advice, descend descent, prove proof, speak speech
Sometimes more than one sound changes: choose choice, lend loan,

Words belonging to more than one class

1 Many words can be both verbs and nouns.
Verb: You mustn't delay. I **hope** I win.
Noun: a short **delay** my **hope** of victory
Some words of this kind are answer, attack, attempt, call, care, change, climb, control, copy, cost, damage, dance, delay, doubt, drink, drive, experience, fall, help, hit, hope, interest, joke, laugh, look, love, need, promise, rest, ride, run, search, sleep, smile, sound, swim, talk, trouble, visit, wait, walk, wash, wish.
Some verbs and nouns differ in their stress. The verb is usually stressed on the second syllable, and the noun is stressed on the first.
Verb: How do you **trans'port** the goods?

Noun: What **'transport** do you use?
live life , succeed success, think thought
Also: blood bleed,food feed,full fill, lose loss, proud pride,
sell sale, shoot shot, sing song, sit seat, tell tale

Notes

Sometimes two related words have a different vowel sound.
It was very **hot.** We could feel the **heat.**
Some words of this kind are conflict, contest, contrast, decrease, discount, export, import, increase, insult, permit, produce, progress, protest, rebel, record, refund, suspect, transfer, transport.
Some concrete nouns can also be verbs.
He **pocketed** the money. (= put it in his pocket)
We've **wallpapered** this room. (= put wallpaper on it)
The man was **gunned** down. (= shot with a gun)
The goods were **shipped** to America. (= taken by ship)
Some others are bottle (wine), box, brake, butter (bread), garage (a car), glue, hammer, mail, oil, parcel, (tele)phone.
Some adjectives can also be verbs.
This wind will soon **dry** the clothes. (= make them dry)
The clothes will soon **dry.** (= become dry)
Some words of this kind are calm, cool, dry, empty, narrow, smooth, warm, wet.

Nationality words

We form nationality words from the name of a country: Italy Italian, France French, Japan Japanese. We can use them in different ways.
NOTE Some of these words do not refer to a political nation, e.g. European, Jewish. a As an adjective
Italian food a **French** town **Japanese** technology a **Russian** novel
b As the name of a language
I learnt **Italian** at evening classes.
Do you speak **Russian**?
I don't know any **Greek**.
c Referring to a specific person or group of people
Debbie is married to an **Italian**.
There are some **Russians** staying at the hotel.
The **Japanese** were looking round the cathedral.
d Referring to a whole people
Italians are passionate about football.
The **French** are proud of their language.
These expressions take a plural verb.
We can also say e.g. Italian people, Russian people.
The stress can make a difference to the vowel sounds. For example, progress as a verb is and as a noun
There are different kinds of nationality words.
Many end in an: Italian, American, Mexican. We can add s to form a plural noun.
Three **Italians** are doing the course.
(The) **Americans** think they can see Europe in a week.
Some end in ese: Chinese, Portuguese. We cannot add s.
Several **Chinese** (pe**o**ple) were waiting in the queue.
When we talk about a whole people, we must use the or people.

The Chinese welcome/Chinese people welcome western tourists.
NOTE Swiss (= from Switzerland) also belongs in this group.
c With some words, the adjective is different from the noun.
She's **Danish./**She's a **Dane.**
I like **Danish** people./I like (the) **Danes.**
Also: Swedish/a Swede, Finnish/a Finn, Polish/a Pole, Spanish/a Spaniard,
Turkish/a Turk, Jewish/a Jew.
d With some words, the noun has the suffix man
He's **English**./He's an **Englishman.**
Englishmen are reserved.
Also: Welsh/a Welshman, Irish/an Irishman, French/a Frenchman, Dutch/a
Dutchman.
For a whole people, we can use the adjective with the or people.
The English are/English people are reserved.

Nationality words

Here is an overview of nationality words.
Adjective Person/man A whole people
Africa African an African Africans
America American an American (the) Americans
Arab/Arabic an Arab (the) Arabs
Asia Asian an Asian Asians
Australia Australian an Australian (the) Australians
Austria Austrian an Austrian (the) Austrians
Belgium Belgian a Belgian (the) Belgians
Brazil Brazilian a Brazilian (the) Brazilians
Britain British • (2c) Note the British
China Chinese a Chinese the Chinese
Czech Republic Czech a Czech (the) Czechs
Denmark Danish a Dane (the) Danes
England - English an Englishman the English
Europe European a European Europeans
Finland Finnish a Finn (the) Finns
France French a Frenchman the French
Germany German a German (the) Germans
Greece Greek a Greek (the) Greeks
Holland Dutch a Dutchman the Dutch
Hungary Hungarian a Hungarian (the) Hungarians
India Indian an Indian (the) Indians
Ireland Irish an Irishman the Irish
Israel Israeli an Israeli (the) Israelis
Italy Italian an Italian (the) Italians
Japan Japanese a Japanese the Japanese
Jewish a Jew (the) Jews
Mexico Mexican a Mexican (the) Mexicans
Norway Norwegian a Norwegian (the) Norwegians
Pakistan Pakistani a Pakistani (the) Pakistanis
Poland Polish a Pole (the) Poles
Portugal Portuguese a Portuguese the Portuguese

Russia Russian a Russian (the) Russians
Scotland Scottish a Scotia Scotsman (the) Scots
Spain Spanish a Spaniard the Spanish
Sweden Swedish a Swede (the) Swedes
Switzerland Swiss a Swiss the Swiss
Thailand Thai a Thai (the) Thais
Turkey Turkish a Turk (the) Turks
Wales Welsh a Welshman the Welsh

Word endings: pronunciation and spelling

Some words have grammatical endings. A noun can have a plural or possessive form: friends, friend's. A verb can have an s-form, ed-form or ing-form: **asks,** asked, asking. Some adjectives can have a comparative and superlative form: quicker, quickest. A word can also end with a suffix: argument, idealist, weekly, drinkable. When we add these endings to a word, there are sometimes changes in pronunciation or spelling.

The s/es ending

To form a regular noun plural or the s-form of a verb, we usually add s.
room**s** game**s** look**s** open**s** hide**s**
After a sibilant sound we add es.
kiss**es** watch**es** bush**es** tax**es**
But if the word ends in e, we add s.
place**s** suppose**s** prize**s**
match match**es**

The ed ending
wait wait**ed**

Leaving out e
mak**e** making insur**e** insurance

The doubling of consonants
big bigger regret regrettable

Consonant + y
eas**y** eas**i**ly beaut**y** beaut**i**ful
2 A few nouns ending in o add es.
potatoes tomatoes heroes echoes
But most add s.
radios stereos pianos photos studios discos kilos zoos

The ed ending

1 The ed-form of most regular verbs is simply verb + ed.
play**ed** walk**ed** seem**ed** offer**ed** fill**ed**
If the word ends in e, we add d.
move**d** continue**d** please**d** smile**d**

Leaving out e

We normally leave out e when it comes before an ing-form. make making shine shining use using But we keep a double e before ing. see seeing agree agreeing
When e comes before ed, er or est, we do not write a double e.
type typed late later fine finest
We usually leave out e before other endings that start with a vowel, e.g. able, ize, al. love lovable private privatize culture cultural
or after a sibilant.

The ending is pronounced /s/ after a voiceless sound, /z/ after a voiced sound and Voiceless: hopes , fits , clocks
Voiced: cabs , rides , days , throws
Sibilant: loses or , bridges or , washes or
The possessive form of a noun is pronounced in the same way.
Mick's the teacher's Mrs Price's or
But we do not write es for the possessive, even after a sibilant.
Mr Jones's the boss's
after /t/ or /d/.
waited , expected , handed , guided
jumped /pt/, baked /kt/, wished
robbed /bd/, closed /zd/, enjoyed , allowed
Voiceless:
Voiced:
or
To form an adverb from an adjective ending in a consonant + le, we change e to y.
simp**le** simply possib**le** possibly
To form an adverb from an adjective in ic, we add ally.
dramatic dramatically idiotic idiotically

The doubling of consonants

Doubling happens in a one-syllable word that ends with one written vowel and one written consonant, such as win, put, sad, plan. We double the consonant
before a vowel.
win winner put putting sad saddest plan planned
The rule about doubling is also true for words of more than one syllable, but only if
the last syllable is stressed.
for'get forge**tt**ing prefer prefe**r**red
We do not usually double a consonant in an unstressed syllable.
'open 'opening 'enter 'entered

Consonant + y

When a word ends in a consonant + y, the y changes to ie before s. study stud**ies** lorry lorr**ies**
Before most other endings, the y changes to i.
study stud**i**ed silly sill**i**er lucky luck**i**ly
happy happiness
We do not change y after a vowel.
day days buy buyer stay stayed
copy copying hurry hurrying
But pay, lay and say have irregular ed-forms: paid
Also day daily. , laid , said

Irregular noun plurals

Most countable nouns have a regular plural in s or es.
hands dates buses.
For details **of** spelling and pronunciation, •
But some nouns have an irregular plural. Here are some examples.
Vowel and consonant changes
man men wife wives

Nouns which do not change in the plural •
one/two **aircraft** one/two **sheep**
children criteria stimuli
With some nouns we change f to v and add es/s.
loaf loaves thief thieves life lives
Also: calves, halves, knives, leaves, shelves, wives, wolves
1 Some plurals are formed by changing the vowel sound.
foot feet goose geese man men
tooth teeth mouse mice woman women

Vowel and consonant changes

The usual plural of penny is pence, e.g. fifty pence. Pennies are individual penny coins.

Nouns which do not change in the plural

Some nouns have the same form in the singular and plural.
Singular: One **aircraft** was shot down.
Plural: Two **aircraft** were shot down.
These nouns are aircraft, hovercraft, spacecraft etc; some animals, e.g. sheep, deer,
some kinds offish, e.g. cod, salmon; and some nouns ending in s, e.g. headquarters, means.
Some nouns have a regular written plural in ths, but the pronunciation of th changes. path paths
Also: mouths, youths (= young people)

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Describe the types of clauses in sentence.
2. Discuss the rules for using conjunction “And”.
3. What are the rules for using conjunction “not only but also”.
4. What are the rule to convert direct speech into indirect speech?
5. What are rule of removing dabbling the consonants

FURTHER READINGS

1. English Grammer –Raymond Murphy
2. New English File- Clive Oxeden
3. Objective General English – S.P. Bakshi
4. Objective English - Uma Sinha
5. General English – R. S. Agrawal

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