## John Eastwood <br> OXFORD <br> GUIDE TO <br> ENGLISH GRAMMAR



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## Introduction

The Oxford Guide to English Grammar is a systematic account of grammatical forms and the way they are used in standard British English today. The emphasis is on meanings and how they govern the choice of grammatical pattern.

The book is thorough in its coverage but pays most attention to points that are of importance to intermediate and advanced learners of English, and to their teachers. It will be found equally suitable for quick reference to details and for the more leisured study of broad grammar topics.

A useful feature of the book is the inclusion of example texts and conversations, many of them authentic, to show how grammar is used in connected writing and in speech.

Language changes all the time. Even though grammar changes more slowly than vocabulary, it is not a set of unalterable rules. There are sometimes disagreements about what is correct English and what is incorrect. 'Incorrect' grammar is often used in informal speech. Does that make it acceptable? Where there is a difference between common usage and opinions about correctness, I have pointed this out. This information is important for learners. In some situations it may be safer for them to use the form which is traditionally seen as correct. The use of a correct form in an unsuitable context, however, can interfere with understanding just as much as a mistake. To help learners to use language which is appropriate for a given occasion, I have frequently marked usages as formal, informal, literary and so on.

## How to use this book

Any user of a reference book of this kind will rely on a full and efficient index, as is provided in the Oxford Guide (pages 404 to 446). In addition, there is a summary at the beginning of each chapter which gives a bird's eye view, with examples, of the grammar covered in the chapter as a whole and gives references to the individual sections which follow.

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## Key to symbols

## Phonetic symbols

| i: tea | 3: bird | p put | f first | h house |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I sit | ə away | b best | v van | m must |
| e ten | el pay | t tell | $\theta$ three | $n$ next |
| æ had | əu so | d day | б this | n song |
| a: car | ai cry | k cat | s sell | 1 love |
| p dog | au now | g good | z zoo | r rest |
| э: ball | ग boy | t $\int$ cheese | $\int$ ship | j you |
| u book | Іә dear | d3 just | 3 pleasure | w will |
| u: fool | еə chair |  |  |  |
| $\Lambda$ cup | шә sure |  |  |  |

(r) four linking r, pronounced before a vowel but (in British English) not pronounced before a consonant
four apples /fo:r 'æplz/
four bananas /fo: bə'na:nəz/
'= stress follows, e.g. about/ə'baut/
$\searrow$ = falling intonation $\quad \nearrow=$ rising intonation

## Other symbols

The symbol / (oblique stroke) between two words or phrases means that either is possible. I will be/shall be at home tomorrow means that two sentences are possible: I will be at home tomorrow and Ishall be at home tomorrow.

We also use an oblique stroke around phonetic symbols, e.g. tea /ti:/.
Brackets ( ) around a word or phrase in an example mean that it can be left out. I've been here (for) ten minutes means that two sentences are possible: I've been herefor ten minutes and I've been here ten minutes.
The symbol $\rightarrow$ means that two things are related. Discuss $\rightarrow$ discussion means that there is a relationship between the verb discuss and the noun discussion.
The symbol $\sim$ means that there is a change of speaker.
The symbol $\triangleright$ is a reference to another section and/or part of a section where there is more information. For example, $\triangleright$ (2) means part 2 of the same section; $\triangleright 65$ means section 65; and $\triangleright 229(3)$ means part 3 of section 229.

## 1

## English grammar

## 1 Summary

## Grammatical units • 2

The grammatical units of English are these: word, phrase, clause and sentence.

## Word classes • 3

The main word classes are these: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, determiner, pronoun and conjunction.

## Phrases • 4

There are these kinds of phrase: verb phrase, noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase.

## Sentence elements - 5

The sentence elements are these: subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial.

## English compared with other languages • 6

English words do nor have a lot of different endings for number and gender. Word order is very important in English.
The verb phrase can have a complex structure. There are many idioms with prepositions.

## 2 Grammatical units

> A FLIGHT ANNOUNCEMENT
> 'Good evening, ladies and gentlemen. On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald Flight to Southampton. Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes, and we shall be climbing to an altitude ofeight thousandfeet and cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles per hour.'
> (from M. Underwood and P. Barr Listeners)

The grammatical units of English are words, phrases, clauses and sentences.

## 1 Words

The words in the announcement are good, evening, ladies, and, gentlemen, on etc.
NOTE For word-building, e.g. air + ways= airways, • 282.

## 2 Phrases and clauses

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

| Subject <br> (noun phrase) | Verb <br> (verb phrase) | Complement <br> (noun phrase) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Our flight time | will be | approximatelyforty-five minutes. |

Here the noun phrase ourflight 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 <br> (prepositional phrase) | Subject <br> (noun phrase) | Verb <br> (verb phrase) | Object <br> (noun phrase) | Object <br> (noun phrase) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| On behalfof the airline | we | wish | you | a pleasant flight. |

For more about the different kinds of phrases, - 4.
For subject, object, complement and adverbial, • 5.
For finite and non-finite clauses, • 239 (3).

## 3 Sentences

A sentence can be a single clause.
On behalfofBritish Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Heraldflight 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.

Ourflight time will be approximatelyforty-five minutes, and we shall be climbing to an altitude ofeight thousandfeet and cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles an hour.

For details about sentences with more than one clause, • 238 .

## 3 Word classes

1 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)
```

2 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
NOTE There is also a small class of words called 'interjections'. They include oh, ah and $m h m$.
3 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'.

4 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

## 4 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).

2 Noun phrase: a goodflight, 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).

3 Adjective phrase: pleasant, very late An adjective phrase has an adjective, sometimes with an adverb of degree (very).

4 Adverb phrase: quickly, almost certainly
An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree (almost).
5 Prepositional phrase: after lunch, on the aircraft
$A$ prepositional phrase is a preposition + noun phrase.

## 5 Sentence elements

1 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. |  |
| Myfather | was | a pilot. |  |
| Subject | Verb | Object |  |
| $I$ was | reading | a newspaper. |  |
| Two stewards | served | lunch. |  |
| Subject | Verb | Object | Adverbial |
| The aircraft We | left | London <br> the tickets | at three o'clock. |

2 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 <br> Noun phrase: a pilot |
| Adverbial | Adverb phrase: shortly <br> Prepositional phrase: at three o'clock <br> Noun phrase: next week |

NOTE
a 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, -7.
b The word there can be the subject. - 50
There was a letterfor you.

## 6 English compared with other languages

## 1 Endings

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

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 (itstarts).

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.

## 2 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.

## 3 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 ofeight thousandfeet.
The use of tenses and auxiliary verbs can be difficult for speakers of other languages.

## 4 Prepositions

The use of prepositions in English can be a problem.
Weflew 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.

## 2 The simple sentence

## 7 Summary

This story contains examples of different clause patterns.
AN UNLUCKY THIEF
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 oftown. While he was waiting, he put the coat on. At last a coach stopped and gave him a lift. It was carryingforty 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 - 8

| Subject | Intransitive verb |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A coach | stopped. |  |
| Subject | Transitive verb | Object |
| Thedetective | arrested | the thief. |

Linking verbs • 9

| Subject | Verb | Complement |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| The thief <br> The detective | was <br> became | rather unlucky. <br> an inspector. |
| Subject | Verb | Adverbial |
| The coat <br> The conference | was <br> is | over his arm. <br> every year. |

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Give, send etc • 10

| Subject | Verb |
| :--- | :--- |
| The thief | gave |

Call, put etc •11

| Subject | Verb | Object | Complement |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| They <br> The thief | called <br> thought | the inspector <br> himself | sir. <br> rather unlucky. |
| Subject | Verb | Object | Adverbial |
| He | put | the coat | over his arm. |

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, Ithought the same.
With object and complement: People will think me stupid.

## Extra adverbials • 12

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 • 13

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

## Phrases in apposition - 14

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

## 8 Intransitive and transitive verbs

1 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.

2 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 (afew 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.

## NOTE

There must be an object after discuss and deny. The committee discussed the problem. He denied the accusation.

3 Many verbs can be either transitive or intransitive.

| Transitive | Intransitive |
| :--- | :--- |
| The driver stopped the coach. | The coach stopped. |
| He opened the door. | The door opened. |
| Ibroke a cup. | The cup broke. |
| Someone rang the bell. | 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 |  |

NOTE
Raise is transitive, and rise is intransitive.
The oil companies will raise their prices.
The price ofoil will rise.
For lay and lie, •11(2) Note b.

## 9 Linking verbs

## 1 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 thiefseemed 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.

[^0]
## 2 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.

## 10 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.

CLAIMING BACK TAX
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 aform?
Customer: Yes, and I've got the receipts here.
Clerk: Right. Now, when you go through British Customs, you give the customs officer theform with the receipts.
Customer: Igive theform 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.
Clerk: That's right.
Customer: And how do I get the money?
Clerk: Oh, we sendyou a cheque. We'll send it offto you straight away.

## 1 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 | theform. |
| We send | you | a cheque. |
| The man bought | the woman | a diamond ring. |
| Ican 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.

## 2 Object + adverbial

Instead of an indirect object, we can use a prepositional phrase with to or for.

|  | Direct object | Prepositional <br> phrase |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Igive | theform | to the Customs. |
| You send | the copy | to us. |
| The man bought | a diamond ring | for the woman. <br> Ican reserve |
| a seat |  |  |$\quad$| foryou. |
| :--- |

The adverbial comes after the object.

## 3 Which pattern?

In a clause with give, send etc, there is a choice of pattern between give the customs officer theform and give theform 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.)
NOTE
a The adverbial or indirect object is often necessary to complete the meaning.
Hehandedthereceipttothecustomer.
But sometimes it is not necessary to mention the person receiving something.
You'll have toshowyourticket on the train.
(It is obvious that you show it to the ticket inspector.)
I'mwritingaletter.
(You don't want to say who you are writing to.)
b Most verbs of speech cannot take an indirect object, but we can use a phrase with to. Themansaidnothing(to thepolice).
But tell almost always has an indirect object. - 266
Theman toldthe police nothing.

## 4 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 orfor.
We'll send it offto you straight away.
I've got a ticketfor Wimbledon. Norman bought itfor me.

## 5 To orfor?

Some verbs go with to and some with for.
He handed the receipt to the customer.
Tom got drinksfor 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.
Withfor: bring, buy, cook, fetch, find, get, keep, leave, make, order, pick, reserve, save, spare.

NOTE
a Bring goes with either to orfor.
b Formeaning 'to help someone' can go with very many verbs. I'mwritingaletterformysister.(Shecan'twrite.)

## 11 Call, putetc

1 Verb + object + complement
Compare these two kinds of complement.

| Subject | Subject <br> complement | Object | Object <br> complement |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| The driver | was | tired. | Thejourney made | the driver | tired..

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 thiefthought himselfrather unlucky. They called the dog Sasha.
The court found him guilty of robbery. We painted the walls bright yellow.
Iprefer 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

## 2 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.
note
a Leave can come in this pattern, butforget cannot.
Ileftmy umbrellaathome. ButNOTIforgotmy umbrellaathome.
b Lay (past: laid) comes in the same pattern as put.
The woman laid ablanket on the ground.
Lie (past: lay) is a linking verb which takes an adverbial. • 9(2)
The woman lay in the sunshine.

## 12 Extra adverbials

1 Look at these clause patterns.

| Subject | Verb | Adverbial |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| The conference | is everyyear. |  |  |
| Subject | Verb | Object $\quad$ Adverbial |  |
| He | put | the coat | over his arm. |

These adverbials cannot be left out. They are necessary to complete the sentence.

2 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 everyyear, presumably.
At once the thief gave the inspector his coat.
He probably considered himselfrather 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.
NOTE
Another extra element is the name or description of the person spoken to. As well as in statements, it can come in questions and imperatives.

You're in trouble, my friend. Sarah, what are you doing?
Come on everybody, let's go!

## 13 And and or

1 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.
2 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)
NOTE
a We can use two adjectives together without a linking word, e.g. a cold, windy day. 202
b We can use two complements or two adverbials with and or or even if they are different kinds of phrase, such as an adjective and noun phrase.

The book has becomefamous and a best-seller. We can meet here or in town.
The hotel was quiet and well backfrom the road.
3 Compare these two sentences.
He stole a hat and a coat.
He stole a hat and coat.
In the first sentence and links two noun phrases (a hat, a coat); in the second it links two nouns (hat, coat). The second sentence suggests that there is a link between the two items, that they belong together.

He stole a hat and a typewriter. (not linked)
He stole a cup and saucer. (belonging together)

## NOTE

a And, or (and but) can link verb phrases and also whole clauses. • 243
b For or in questions, • 31 .

## 14 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 ofthe President.
Joseph Conrad, thefamous English novelist, couldn't speak English until he was 47.
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 novelistJoseph Conrad couldn't speak English until he was 47.
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 afool, a complete idiot.
Other kinds of phrases can be in apposition.
The place is miles away, much toofar to walk.
The experts say the painting is quite valuable, worth a lot ofmoney.

## Statements, questions, imperatives and exclamations

## 15 Summary

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

Statements • 16
Negative statements•17
Questions • 18
The imperative • 19
Exclamations - 20

You took a photo.
You did not take a photo.
Did you take a photo?
Take a photo.
What a nice photo!

## Main use

to give information to give information to ask for information
to give orders
to express feeling

Besides the basic use, each sentence type has other uses. For example, we can use a statement to ask for information (I'd like to know all the details); a question form can be an order or request (Can you post this letter, please?); an imperative can express good wishes (Have a nice time).

## 16 Statements

## 1 Form <br> For clause patterns in a statement, $\bullet 7$.

2 Use
This conversation contains a number of statements.
A PROGRAMME ABOUT WILDLIFE
Stella: There's a programme about wildlife on the telly tonight.
Adrian: Uh-huh. Well, Imight watch it.
Stella: I've got to go out tonight. It's my evening class.
Adrian: Well, I'll video the programmeforyou.
Stella: Oh, thanks. It's at eighto'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 programmeforyou, 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 wantyou 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.

## 3 Performative verbs

Some present-simple verbs express the use of the statement, the action it performs.
Promising: Ipromise to be good.
Apologizing: It was myfault. Iapologize.
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 thatyou 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.

## NOTE

a In general, performative verbs are fairly emphatic. I promise to be good is a more emphatic promise than I'll be good, and 7 suggest we watch it together is more emphatic than We can watch it together.
b Some performative verbs are formal.
$\boldsymbol{I}$ order/request you to leave the building. I declare this supermarket open.
c With a few verbs we can use the present continuous.
Don't come too close, I warn you/I'm warning you.
We propose/We are proposing a compromise.

## 17 Negative statements

## 1 Use

This text contains some negative statements.


#### Abstract

FRANKENSTEIN In 1818 Mary Shelley wrote afamous 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 ideafor 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.

## 2 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 $n^{\prime} t$ 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 ideafor 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 horrorfilms.
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.
c Look at these forms.

| Positive | Negative | Negative |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Full form | Short form |
| wascalled | was not called | wasn't called |
| have read | have not read | haven't read |
| might have given | might not have given | mightn't have given |
| like/do like | do not like | don't like |
| studied/did study | did not study | didn't study |

We cannot use no to make a negative verb form.
The bus didn't come. NOT The bus no came.

## 3 Not in other positions

Not can come before a word or phrase when the speaker is correcting it. Iordered tea, notcoffee.
That's a nice green. ~It's blue, notgreen.
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.
NOTE
a Instead of(= in place of) and rather than have a negative meaning. Compare:
They should build houses instead ofoffice blocks.
They should build houses, not office blocks.
I drink tea rather than coffee.
I drink tea, not coffee.
b Not can come before a negative prefix, e.g. un, in or dis.
Beggars are a not unusual sight on the streets of London.
Not unusual = fairly usual.
c For not standing for a whole clause, e.g. 7 hope not, - 43(3).

## 4 Other negative words

There are other words besides not which have a negative meaning.

|  |  | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| no | There's no change. The patient is no better. No, she isn't. | not a/not any not any (opposite of yes) |
| none | We wanted tickets, but there were none left. | not any |
| no one, nobody | I saw no one/nobody acting strangely. | not anyone |
| nothing | I saw nothing suspicious. | not anything |
| nowhere | There was nowhere to park. | not anywhere |
| few, little | Few people were interested. | not many |
|  | There was little enthusiasm. | not much |
| never | He was never a doctor. | not ever |
| seldom, rarely | We seldom/rarely eat out. | not often |
| no longer | Mrs Adams no longer lives here. | not any longer |
| hardly, scarcely | We haven'tfinished. Infact, we've hardly/scarcely started. | not really, only just |
| neither, nor | I can't understand this. <br> ~ Neither/Nor can I. (= I can't either.) | not either |

```
NOTE
a The verbs fail, avoid, stop, prevent and deny have a negative meaning. You havefailed to reach the necessary standard. (= You have not reached the necessary standard.) I want to avoid getting caught in the rush hour. A lock could stop/prevent othersfrom using the telephone. The player denied having broken the rules. (= The player said he/she had not broken the rules.)
b Withouthas a negative meaning.
Lots ofpeople were without a ticket. (= Lots of people did not have a ticket.)
c For negative prefixes, e.g. unusual, disagree, • 284(2).
```


## 5 Double negatives

We do not normally use not/n't or neverwith another negative word.
Ididn'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.
Ididn'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.
Ididn't see no one. I saw one ofmy friends. (= I saw someone.)
We can't do nothing. (= We must do something.)
NOTE
We sometimes use a negative after I wouldn't be surprised iffIt wouldn't surprise me if...
I wouldn't be surprised if it rained/ifit didn't rain.
The speaker expects that it will rain.

## 6 The emphatic negative

a 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.
NOTE
a We can use everwith a negative word.
No one ever takes any notice of these memos.
For more details about ever and never, -211(1) Note c.
b We can use whatsoever after nothing, none, or after no + noun.
There's nothing whatsoever we can do about it.
The people seem to have no hope whatsoever.
c 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 Igoing to let this happen.
NOTE
a A phrase with not can also come in front position for emphasis.
Not since his childhood had Jeffbeen back to the village.
Compare: Jeffhad not been back to the village since his childhood.
b For inversion after no sooner and hardly, • 250(5).

## 18 Questions

This is a short introduction to questions. For more details about questions and answers, $\bullet 21$.
Doctor: Where does it hurt?
Patient: Just here. When I lift my arm up.
Doctor: Has this happened before?
Patient: Well, yes, Ido 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? $\sim$ Just here. But questions can have other uses such as requesting, e.g. Could you come overhere, 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. - 23

Statement
It hurts just here.
This has happened before.

Question
wh-: Where does it hurt?
yes/no: Has this happened before?

## 19 The imperative

## 1 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 $d o+$ 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.
NOTE
We can use other negative words with the imperative.
Never touch electricalequipment with wethands. Leave no litter.

## 2 Use

a 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 outyour books, please.
Doctor (to patient): Just keep still a moment.
Boss (to employee): Don't tell anyone about this.
Traffic sign:
Stop.
b But an imperative can sound abrupt. There are other ways of expressing orders.
I wantyou 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 outyour 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.
NOTE
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.

## 3 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 electricityfirst.
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.
NOTE
Have a chocolate. = Would you like a chocolate?
Have a nice holiday. = I hope you have a nice holiday.

## 4 Imperative + question tag

After an imperative we can use these tags: will you? won't you? would you? can you? can'tyou? 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'tyou?
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'tyou? after a positive imperative and will you? after a negative.

Have a nice holiday, won'tyou?
Don'tforget your key, will you?
In offers and invitations the tag is will you? or won'tyou?
Have a chocolate, will/won'tyou?
These tags make the sentences more emphatic.

## 5 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 whatyou're saying.
note
a A few other phrases can be the subject.
All of you sit down! Everyone stop what you're doing.
b The negative don't comes before the subject.
Don't you talk to me like that.

## 6 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.
note
a For American usage, - 303(3).
b The long form is formal and old-fashioned.
Let us give thanks to God.
b Let me means that the speaker is telling him/herself what to do.
Let me think. Where did Iput 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 letwe 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'.

## NOTE

There are two special sentence patterns with a similar meaning to the imperative. Both the subjunctive and may can express a wish.

God save the Queen.
May your dreams come true.
These patterns are rather formal and used only in limited contexts.

## 7 Overview: imperative forms

| Person | Positive | Negative | Emphatic |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| FIRST |  |  |  |
| Singular | Let me play a record. |  |  |
| Plural | Let's play tennis. | Let's not play/ Don't let's play here. | Do let's play soon. |
| SECOND <br> + subject | Playfair. <br> You play the piano now. | Don't play that record. Don't you play that silly game. | Do play a record. |
| THIRD | Let the music play. |  |  |

## 20 Exclamations

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

## 1 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 ajourney 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 ajourney! What lovely flowers!

## 2 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 (!).

## 3 Exclamations with a negative question form

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

## 4

## Questions and answers

## 21 Summary

## The use of questions - 22

We use questions to ask for information and also for requests, suggestions, offers etc.

## Inversion in questions - 23

In most questions there is inversion of the subject and auxiliary.
Statement: You have written a letter.
Question: Have you written a letter?

## Yes/no questions and wh-questions • 24

These are the two main kinds of question. yes/no: Have you written a letter?
wh: What have you written?

## Wh-questions: more details • 25

A question word can be subject, object, complement or adverbial. Who can be subject or object.

Who told you? (subject)
Who did you tell? (object)

## Question words: more details • 26

A question word can also be a determiner.
What/Which day are they coming?
The choice of what or which depends on the number of possible answers.
We can use how on its own or before an adjective or adverb.
How did you find out?
Howfar is it to Newcastle?
We can modify a question word.
Why exactly do you need this information?
OVERVIEW: question words • 27
Question phrases • 28
We can form question phrases with what and how.
What time is your train?
How much does it cost?

## Answering questions • 29

Most answers to questions can be just a word or phrase.
What are you writing? $\sim$ A letter to Kate.
We often use a short answer with yes or no.
Have you written the letter? ~ Fes, I have.
Negative questions • 30
A question can be negative.
Haven'tyou answered the letteryet?

## Questions with or - 31

We can use or in a question.
Are you sending a card or a letter?

## Questions without inversion • 32

In informal conversation a question can sometimes have the same word order as a statement.

You've written a letter?

## Indirect questions • 33

We can ask an indirect question.
I'd like to know whatyou've written.

## Question tags • 34

We can add a question tag to a statement.
You've answered the letter, haven'tyou?

## Echo questions and echo tags - 35

We can use an echo question or echo tag to react to a statement.
I've written the letter. ~ Oh, have you?

## 22 The use of questions

buying a train ticket<br>Travel agent: Can I help you?<br>Customer: Do you sell rail tickets?<br>Travel agent: Yes, certainly.<br>Customer: I need a return ticket from Bristol to Paddington.<br>Travel agent: You're travelling when?<br>Customer: Tomorrow.<br>Travel agent: Tomorrow. That's Friday, isn't it? And when are you coming back?<br>Customer: Oh, I'm coming back the same day.<br>Travel agent: Are you leaving before ten o'clock?<br>Customer: It's cheaper after ten, is it?<br>Travel agent: Yes, it's cheaper if you leave after ten and return after six o'clock.<br>Customer: What time is the next train after ten?<br>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?
1 The most basic use of a question is to ask for information.
What time is the next train? ~ Ten eleven.
2 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 Ihave 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?
3 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'tit?
NOTE
A question can be answered by the person who asks it.
What is the secret of United's success? Manager Terry Clark believes that it is the players' willingness to workfor each other andfor the team.

## 23 Inversion in questions

1 In most questions there is inversion of the subject and auxiliary.

Statement
You are leaving today.
The train has got a buffet.
We can sit here.

Question
Are you leaving today?
Has the train got a buffet?
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?

2 In simple tenses we use the auxiliary verb do.
Statement
Question
You like trainjourneys. Ox: You do like trainjourneys.

Do you like train journeys?
They arrived at six.
Or: They did arrive at six.
Did they arrive at six?
$3 B e$ on its own as an ordinary verb can also come before the subject.

Statement
The train was late.
My ticket is somewhere.

Question
Was the train late?
Where is my ticket?

4 For short questions, - 38(3).
I thought something might go wrong. $\sim$ And did it? $\sim$ I'm afraid so.
For questions without the auxiliary and you, • 42(2).
Leaving already? (= Are you leaving already?)

## 24 Yes/no questions and wh-questions

1 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 directservice./Idon't think so.
The question begins with an auxiliary (do, will).
2 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, - 27.

For intonation in yes/no and wh-questions, • 54(2b).

## 25 Wh-questions: more details

1 A question word can be subject, object, complement or adverbial. Compare the positive statements (in brackets).

| Subject: | Who can give me some help? <br> (Someone can give me some help.) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Object: | What will tomorrow bring? |
| Complement: | (Tomorrow will bring something.) Whose is this umbrella? <br> (This umbrella is someone's.) |
| Adverbial: | When are you coming back? <br> (You are coming back some time.) <br> Where is this bus going? <br> (This bus is going somewhere.) <br> Why did everyone laugh? <br> (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, $\bullet 23$.

What will tomorrow bring? Whose is this umbrella?

```
NOTE
a A question can sometimes be just a question word. - 40
    I'm going to London. ~ When?
b A question word can be part of a sub clause.
    What did you think I said? (You thought I said something.)
    When would everyone like to leave? (Everyone would like to leave some time.)
c A question can have two question words.
    When and where did this happen? Who paidfor what?
```

2 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 ofpeople.
(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?
3 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 comefrom?
(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?

[^1]
## 26 Question words: more details

## 1 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 ofthese postcards shall we send to Angela?

## 2 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.

Human
Who is your maths teacher?
Which teacher do you have?
What idiot wrote this?

Non-human

Which supermarket is cheapest?
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?
NOTE
We can use what to suggest that there are no possible answers.
Why don't you invite afew friends? ~ Whatfriends? I haven't got anyfriends.

## 3 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.

## 4 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.)
b When it expresses degree, how can come before an adjective or adverb.
How wide is the river? ( $\mathbf{2 0}$ metres/ $\mathbf{3 0}$ metres wide?)
How soon can you let me know? (very soon/quite soon?)
For question phrases with how, • 28.
c 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.

## NOTE

What... like? asks about quality. Sometimes it has a very similar meaning to How...?
How was the film?/ What was the film like?
But What... like? does not refer to well-being.
How's your brother? ~ Oh, he's fine, thanks.
What's your brother like? ~ Well, he's much quieter than I am.
What does your brother look like ? ~He's taller than me, and he's got dark hair.

## 5 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 stayfor a while? (= Why don't you stay for a while?)

## 6 Modifying a question word

a 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?
b Else has the meaning 'other'.
What else should I do? (= What other things ... ?)
Who else did you invite? (= What other people ... ?)
c 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.

## 27 Overview: question words

| Question word | Example | Word class | Positive expression |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| who, whom | Who won? | pronoun | someone |
| what | What happened? What sport(s)? | pronoun determiner | something a sport, some sports |
| which | Which is/are best? Which sport(s)? | pronoun determiner | one of them, some of them one of the sports, some of the sports |
| whose | Whose was the idea? <br> Whose idea was it? | pronoun determiner | someone's someone's |
| where | Where shall we go? | adverb of place | somewhere |
| when | When did it happen? | adverb of time | some time |
| why | Why are you here? | adverb of reason | for some reason |
| how | How do you open it? <br> How did they behave? <br> How wide is it? <br> How are you? | adverb of means adverb of manner adverb of degree adjective | somehow |

## 28 Question phrases

What and how can combine with other words to form phrases.
1 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'sjust
a desktop machine.
What make is your car? ~It's a BMW.

2 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.
3 How can come before an adjective or an adverb.
How old is this building? ~ About two hundred years old.
Howfar 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.

## NOTE

How come is an informal phrase meaning 'why'. There is no inversion.
Howcome all these papers have been left here? ~I'm in the middle of sorting themout.

## 29 Answering questions

## 1 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'tyou 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. Infact 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.

[^2]
## 2 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, Ido 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 $+n^{\prime} t$.

| Is it raining? $\sim$ | Yes, it is. | No, it isn't. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Have you finished? ~ | Yes, I have. | No, I haven't. |
| Can we turn right here? | $\sim$ | Yes, we can. | No, we can't.

b In simple tenses we use the auxiliary do.
Do you play the piano? ~ Yes, Ido. (NOT Yes Iplay.)
Did Roger cut the grass ~ No, he didn't.
c 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.
d We very often add relevant information or comment after a simple yes or no or after the short answer.

Were you late? ~ Yes, Imissed the bus.
Were you late? ~ Yes, I was, Imissed 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./Ofcourse I wasn't.
e 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 completefailure.
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, ifwe buy it on credit.

We often use a tag after the short answer.
These shirts are nice. - Yes, theyare, aren'tthey?

## 3 Requests, offers, invitations and suggestions

a 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. Thankyou.
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?
b A negative answer to a request or invitation needs some explanation.
Can I borrow your pen? - Sorry, I'm using it to fill thisform 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.

## 4 Short answers to wh-questions

a 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? ~ Idid.
Which shoes fit best? ~ These do.
b We can leave out the auxiliary.
Who's got a hair drier? ~ Neil.
Who filled this crossword in? ~Me. • 184(1b)

## 30 Negative questions

MY PHONE IS OUT OF ORDER
Claire: I'll tell you more when I see you next week.
Anna: Can'tyou ring me?
Claire: No, unfortunately. My phone's still out oforder.
Anna: Haven't they repaired ityet?
Claire: No. It's an awful nuisance. It's over a week now.
Anna: Why don'tyou refuse to pay your bill?
Claire: That wouldn't make any difference, I don't expect.
Anna: Isn't there a rule? Don't they have to repair it within a certain period?
Claire: Idon't know. Anyway, it's not working.

## 1 Use

a A negative yes/no question often expresses surprise.
Can'tyou ring me? Haven't they repaired your phone?
The context suggests that the negative is true (they haven't repaired the phone).
Claire has already explained that it is out of order. But Anna is surprised at this.
She thinks they should have repaired it.
b A negative question can be a complaint.
Can't you be quiet? I'm trying to concentrate.
This means that you should be quiet.
A negative question with why can also express surprise or a complaint.
Why haven't they repaired it? Why can'tyou be quiet?
c We can use Why don't/doesn't... ? for suggestions and Why didn't... ?to criticize. Why don't we take a break now? I'm tired.
Why didn't you tell me this before? You should have told me.

We can use why not + verb instead of Why don't you... in a suggestion.
Why not use your credit card?
d Negative questions with who, what and which usually request information.
Who hasn't returned this library book?
What can'tyou understand?
Which of the guests doesn't eat meat?
e We can use a negative question to ask the hearer to agree that something is true.
Didn't I see you on television last night?
The meaning is similar to a tag question with a rising intonation. • 34(3)
Isaw you on television last night, didn't I?
NOTE For a negative question form in exclamations, e.g. Wasn't thatfun! $\cdot 20(3)$.

## 2 Form

a We make a question negative by putting $n^{\prime} t$ after the auxiliary. Haven't you finished yet? NOT Have not you finished yet?
Why doesn't the government take action?

## NOTE

The negative of $a m I$ is aren't $I$.
Why aren't I getting paidfor this?
b In more formal English not comes after the subject.
Have you not finished yet? Why does the government not take action?
c If the question word is the subject, $n^{\prime} t$ or not comes after the auxiliary.
Who hasn't returned/has not returned this library book?
d We can use other negative words.
Are you never going to finish? Why does the government take no action?

## NOTE

In informal speech the question can be without inversion.
You haven'tfinished yet?

## 3 Yes/no answers

The answer no agrees that the negative is true. The answer yes means that the positive is true.
Haven't they repaired ityet? ~No, it's an awful nuisance.
~Yes, they did ityesterday.

## 31 Questions with or

1 A question can contain two or more alternative answers. The word or comes before the last alternative.
Are you coming back today or tomorrow? ~ Today.
Did you speak to a man or a woman? ~ It was a woman.

When are you coming back, today or tomorrow?
Who did you speak to, a man or a woman?
Were you running orjogging?
The voice rises for the first alternative, and then it falls after or.
Shall we take a \& bus or a (taxi?
NOTE
This question does not contain alternative answers.
Have you got any brothers or sisters? ~ Yes, I've got two sisters.
Here brothers or sisters is spoken as one phrase.
2 Or can link two clauses.
Are you coming back today, or are you staying overnight? ~ I'm coming back today. The second alternative can be the negative of the first.
Are you coming back today or aren'tyou/or not? ~ Yes, I am.
This emphasizes the need for a yes/no answer and can sound impatient.

## 32 Questions without inversion

In informal conversation a question can sometimes have the same word order as in a statement. The question has a rising intonation.

The machine gives change? ~No, it doesn't.
You're travelling tomorrow?~ Yes.
The car is blue? ~ That's right.
The car is what colour? ~ Blue.
They went which way?~ That way.
We use this kind of question only when it follows on from what was said before.
Ineed a return ticket to Paddington. ~You're travelling when? ~ Tomorrow.
note
For echo questions, • 35(1).
I'm travelling tomorrow. ~ You're travelling when?

## 33 Indirect questions

We can ask a question indirectly by putting it into a sub clause beginning with a question word or with if/whether. This makes the question sound less abrupt, more tentative.

We need to know what the rules are.
Can I ask you how much you're getting paidfor thejob?
Could you tell me where Queen Street is, please?
I'm trying to find out who owns this building.
Do you know when the train gets in?
I was wondering if/whether you could give me a lift.
There is no inversion of the subject and auxiliary in the sub clause.
NOT We need to know what are the rules.
For question word + to-infinitive, $\cdot 125$.
Could you tell me how to get there?
NOTE If the main clause is a statement (We need to know), then there is no question mark.

## 34 Question tags

COAL FIRES
Gary: It's colder today, isn'tit?
Brian: Yes, it's not very warm, is it? Ishall have to light the fire soon.
Gary: Oh, you have coal fires, do you?
Brian: Yes. We don't have central heating. You have central heating, don't you?
Gary: Yes, we do. But coalfires are nice, aren't they? More comforting than a radiator.
Brian: Yes, but they're a lot more work than just switching on the heating. We keep talking about getting central heating put in.
Gary: I suppose coal fires aren't very convenient, are they?
Brian: They certainly aren't.

## 1 Form

a A tag relates to the subject and auxiliary of the main clause. The structure of a negative tag is auxiliary $+n^{\prime} t+$ pronoun, e.g. isn't it.

It's raining, isn'tit?
You've finished, haven't you?
We can go now, can'twe?
b In simple tenses we use the auxiliary verb $d o$.
Louise works at the hospital, doesn't she?
You came home late, didn'tyou?
c In these examples the main clause has be on its own, as an ordinary verb.
It's colder today, isn'tit?
The sausages were nice, weren't they?
d A positive tag is like a negative one, but without $n^{\prime} t$.
It isn't raining, is it?
You haven't finished, have you?
NOTE The form of question tags
a We can use the subject there in a tag. There were lots ofpeople at the carnival, weren't there? But we do not use this, that, these or those in the tag. We use it or they instead. That was lucky, wasn't it? Those are nice, aren't they?
b After I am... the tag is aren't $I$.
I'm late, aren't I?
c After a subject such as everyone, someone etc, we use they in a tag.
Anyone could just walk in here, couldn't they?
$d$ In more formal English, not can come after the pronoun.
Progress is being made, is it not?
e We can use don't you think when asking someone's opinion.
These pictures are good, don't you think?
f In informal English we can use yes, no, right and OKas tags. Right and OK are more common in the USA. • 303(4)

These figures are correct, yes? You like London, no?
I'll be outside the post office, right? We're going to start now, OK?
But as a general rule learners should not use these tags. Often a tag like aren't they or don't you is better.

## 2 Overview: patterns with tags

There are three main patterns.

|  | Statement | Tag |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PATtERN A | Positive | Negative | It's your birthday, isn't it? |
| PATTERN B | Negative | Positive | It isn'tyour birthday, is it? |
| PATTERN C | Positive | Positive | It's your birthday, is it? |

## 3 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 wasfun, wasn't it? $\sim$ 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'tyou? ~ Yes, we do.
We're going the right way, \& aren't we? ~ I hope so.
NOTE
Sometimes a tag with a rising intonation can express surprise.
Theyhavecentralheating, don'tthey? Everyonehascentralheatingnowadays.
The speaker is surprised at the idea that someone might have no central heating. The meaning is similar to a negative question: Don't they have central heating? $\bullet 30$

## 4 Pattern B: negative statement + positive tag

The use is mostly the same as for Pattern A. Compare It's colder, isn't it? and It's not so warm, is it? As in Pattern A, the voice falls or rises depending on how sure the speaker is that the statement is true.
We can also use Pattern B in a tentative question or request.
You haven't heard the exam results, have you? ~ No, sorry, I haven't.
You couldn't lend me ten pounds, could you? ~ Yes, OK.
We can also use Pattern B to express disapproval.
You haven't broken that clock, have you? ~ No, of course I haven't.
You aren't staying in bed all day, are you?
This means 'I hope you aren't staying in bed all day.'
NOTE
A negative statement can have a negative word other than not.
We'vehadno informationyet, havewe?

## 5 Pattern C: positive statement + positive tag

Pattern C also asks the hearer to agree that the statement is true. It also suggests that the speaker has just learnt, realized or remembered the information. Look at this example from the conversation Coal fires.

Ishall have to light the fire soon. ~ Oh, you have coal fires, do you?
The positive tag means that the information is new to Gary. He has just realized from Brian's words that Brian has coal fires. The meaning is the same as 'So you have coal fires'. Here are some more examples.
I can't help you just at the moment. ~ You're busy, are you? ~ Very busy, I'm afraid.
Annabelle is out in her new sports car. ~Oh, she's bought one, has she? ~ Yes, she got ityesterday.
Compare patterns A and C.
We can't move this cupboard. ~It's heavy, isn't it?
(I already know that it is heavy.)
We can't move this cupboard. ~It's heavy, is it?
(I have just learnt from your words that it is heavy.)

## 6 Tags with the imperative and let's

Pass me the salt, will/would/can/couldyou? • 19(4)
Let's have a rest now, shall we?

## 35 Echo questions and echo tags

## 1 Echo questions

We can use an echo question when we do not understand what someone says to us, or we find it hard to believe.

I often eat bits of wood. ~ What do you eat?/You eat what?
Myfather knew Ronald Reagan. ~ Who did he know?/He knew who?
Did you see the naked lady? ~ Did I see the what?
The second speaker is asking the first to repeat the important information.
These questions can usually be with or without inversion. They are spoken with a rising intonation on the question word.
\& What have they done? They've done \& what?

## NOTE

a The question word what on its own can be an echo question or an exclamation.
Iofteneatbitsofwood. ~What?/What!
b We can use a yes/no question to check that we heard correctly.
I often eat bits of wood. ~ You eat bits of wood?

## 2 Echo tags

We form an echo tag like an ordinary question tag. - 34(1). A positive statement has a positive tag, and a negative statement has a negative tag. (But • Note c.)

We're moving house soon. ~Oh, are you?
Max played the part brilliantly. $\sim$ Did he really?
The boss isn't very well. ~Isn't she?
My brothers can't swim. ~ Can't they?
These tags express interest in what someone has just said. Oh, are you? means 'Oh, really?' The voice usually rises.

Oh, \& are you? Did he \& really?
But if the voice falls, this means that the speaker is not interested. - 54(2c)
NOTE
a An echo tag is sometimes without inversion.
We'removinghousesoon. ~Youare?
b After a positive statement, there can be a short statement + echo tag.
We'removinghousesoon. $\sim$ Youare, areyou?
Maxplayed the partbrilliantly. $\sim$ Hedid, did he?
Like a simple echo tag, this also expresses interest. Although the information is new, there is a suggestion that it was expected: You are, are you? Ithoughtso. But if the short
statement contradicts the previous sentence, this expresses surprise or even disbelief.
We'removinghousesoon. ~Youaren't, areyou?
Mybrotherscan'tswim. $\sim$ Theycan, can'they?
c We can use a negative tag in reply to a positive statement. This expresses agreement.
Maxplayedthepartbrilliantly. ~Yes, didn'the?
It's a lovelyday. ~It is, isn'tit?
That wasfun. ~ Yes, wasn'tit?
The information is already known; both speakers saw Max playing the part.

## 5 <br> Leaving out and replacing words

## 36 Summary

## Avoiding repetition • 37

We sometimes leave out or replace words to avoid repeating them. The meaning must be clear from the context.

Leaving out words after the auxiliary • 38
Have you seen the film? ~ Yes, Ihave.

## Leaving out an infinitive clause - 39

We didn't get thejob finished, although we were hoping to.

## Leaving out words after a question word • 40

This photo was taken years ago. I forget where.

## Leaving out the verb • 41

Adrian chose a steak and Lucy spaghetti.

## Leaving out words at the beginning of a sentence - 42

Enjoying yourself? (= Are you enjoying yourself?)

## Patterns with so, neither etc - 43

I've seen the film. ~So have I.
We were hoping to finish thejob, but we didn't manage to do so.
Have you seen the film?~ Yes, Ithinkso.
You're in this photo, look. ~ Oh, so I am.
The economy is healthy now, but will it remain so?

## Some other ways of avoiding repetition • 44

We need some matches. Have we gotany?
I saw the film, but I didn't like it.

## Special styles • 45

Words can be left out in special styles: in labels, newspaper headlines, instructions and postcards, and in note style.

## 38 Leaving out words after the auxiliary

## 37 Avoiding repetition

1 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 sizefourteen.
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 wordjacket. 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 ...)
2 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. - 53(1a)

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 oftea, Phyllisfelt much better.
(= After Phyllis had had...)
Here she refers forward to Phyllis, which comes later in the sentence.

## 38 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. $\sim$ 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 getsatellite TV? We can.
If the verb is in a simple tense, we use a form of $d o$.
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-.
2 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 havefor 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 ifTom is still waiting. He might be.
When will the room be cleaned? ~ Itjust 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 hurtyourself. ~ 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 $d o=$ answer the letter, and done $=$ won.
d 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.
3 A short question consists of an auxiliary + subject.
I've seen thefilm before. Have you? ~ No, I haven't.
I wanted Helen to pass her test. $\sim$ And did she? $\sim$ Yes.
Here it is clear from the context that And did she? = And did she pass her test?

## 39 Leaving out an infinitive clause

1 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 tojoin usfor lunch? ~ Yes, I'd love to.
Jane got thejob, 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 chosenfor the job, although she didn't expect to be.

2 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?

## note

We usually leave out to after like but not after would like.
Take one of these brochures if you like.
Take one of these brochures if you'd like to.
3 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.)

## 40 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)?

## 41 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 containsfurniture 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.

## 42 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.

## 1 Statements

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

## 2 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 youtired?)
Need to borrow money? Just give us a ring. (= Do you need ... ?)
Anyfree seats in here? (= Are there any free seats ... ?)

## 3 Leaving out a/an and the

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

## 4 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.)

## 43 Patterns with so, neither etc

1 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 $+n^{\prime} t+$ 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 $d o$.
I like chocolate. ~Ido, 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.
b 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 Ilike chocolate. ~ So Ido.
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.
NOTE
a There is no difference in meaning between neither and nor, but nor is a little more formal.
b The first sound in either/neither is /i:/ in the USA and usually /ai/ in Britain.
d 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.

## 2 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 ofmurdering her husband, but she hesitated to actually do so/do it.
I wanted to jump, but Ijust couldn't do it.
Here the stress is on $d o$, 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.

## 3 So and not replacing a clause

a So can stand for a whole clause.
Will you be going out? ~ Yes, I expectso.
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. $\sim 7 \mathrm{~s}$ that so?
Here I expectso means 'I expect I'll be going out.' We cannot leave out so or use it. NOT Yes, Iexpect. and NOT Yes, Iexpectit.
b 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, itseems/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, Iknow so. $\sim$ Are you sure? NOT Are you sure so?
c There are two ways of forming a negative pattern.
Negative verb + so: Will you be going out? ~ Idon't expectso.
Positive verb + not: Is this watch broken?~I hope not.
Some verbs can form the negative with either pattern, e.g. Idon't suppose so or Isuppose 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 ofmoney? ~ I'm afraid not.
There's no use waiting any longer. ~I guess not.
NOTE
Compare the different meanings with say.
Is the illness serious? ~ I don't know. The doctor didn't say so.
~ No, it isn't. The doctor said not.
d With a few verbs, so can come at the beginning of the sentence.
Mark and Susan are goodfriends. ~ So it seems./So it appears.
They're giving awayfree tickets. Orso 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 Saversaccount.
Have you got transport? Ifnot, Ican 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.

## 4 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. Imeant to throw it away.
So it is means here that the speaker notices the crack for the first time.

## 5 So, that way and the same

a So can replace an adjective after become and remain.
The situation is notyet 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.
b 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)
NOTE
We can use the same way after feel.
The others think we should give up the idea, and I feel the same (way).
6 Overview: uses of so

|  | Use | Example | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - 43(1) | expressing addition | I'm hungry. ~ So am I. | 'too, also' |
| - 43(2) | after do If you | wish to look round, you may do so. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (do so = look } \\ & \text { round }) \end{aligned}$ |
| - 43(3) | replacing a clause | Have we got time?~ I think so. | (think so $=$ think we've got time) |
| - 43(4) | expressing agreement | The coach has arrived. ~So it has. | 'I see/remember that...' |
| - $43(5 \mathrm{a})$ | replacing an adjective | Things have been difficult, but they should become lessso. | (less so $=$ less difficult) |
| - 212 | expressing degree | The view was so nice. He does talk so. | 'very' <br> 'a lot' |
| - 247 | expressing reason I | was tired, so I went to bed. | 'therefore' |
| - 252 | expressing purpose | Igot up earlyso (that) I wouldn't be late. | 'in order that' |

## 44 Some other ways of avoiding repetition

1 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 gotsome chocolate here. Would you like?
2 In some contexts we can use one/ones. - 188
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, shefelt pleased.
I forgot my invitation, but Monica remembered hers.

4 It, this or that can replace a clause.
Terry can't get ajob, 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)
5 The adverbs here, there, now and then can replace an expression of place or time. Ileft the bag on the seat, and when Igot 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)

## 45 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.

| On a building | Town Hall | 'This is the town hall.' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| On a door | Office <br> On a packet | Automatic dishwasher <br> powder | | 'This room is the office.' |
| :--- |
| On a car | | For sale |
| :--- |$\quad$| dishwasher contains automatic |
| :--- |
| Onder.' |

## 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.)

## 3 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 ofarrow.
(= 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)

## 4 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 thereis/are.
Arrived safely Saturday. Hotel OK, weather marvellous, sun shining. Been sunbathing. Lots to do here. Going on excursion tomorrow.

## 5 Note style

English can be written in note style when information must be given as briefly as possible. This information is about Edinburgh University.
what it's LIKE
Large and diverse university set in heart ofhistoric city. Separate science campus with regular (free) minibus service. Buildings rangefrom historic to high-tech. Main accommodation in central Halls with wide range ofrenovated houses and studentflats. Accommodation situation improving.
(from K. Boehm and J. Lees-Spalding The Student Book)
The words left out here are $a / a n$ 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.

## 6

## Information and emphasis

## 46 Summary

## Word order and information • 47

In a statement the subject usually makes a link with the situation or with the previous sentence.

Ihate supermarkets. They're so crowded. And they're expensive. The prices horrify me.
Each of these sentences begins with something known, old information. $I$ is the speaker; they refers back to supermarkets; the prices makes a link with expensive.


The new information normally comes later in the sentence. For example, in the second sentence so crowded is new, mentioned for the first time.

## The subject - 48

When we decide how to express an idea, we usually choose a subject that relates to the previous sentence.

There are twelve of us in the group. Twelve people willfit in the minibus.
We can either go in three cars or in the minibus. The minibus holds twelve people.

## Front position • 49

Some elements can come before the subject. This is to give them emphasis or to contrast them with another phrase.

They spent the morning sightseeing. In the afternoon, they resumed their journey south.
I've read the book. The film I haven'tyet seen.
Sometimes there is inversion of subject and verb.
At the end of the garden was a swimming-pool.

## The empty subjects there and it • 50

We can also use there $+b e$.
There was a swimming-pool at the end of the garden.
We use $i t$ referring forward to a phrase or clause.
It's nice to see you.
It was a good thing we didn't have to pay.

## Emphasis - 51

We can emphasize a word by giving it extra stress.
I hate supermarkets. They're awful places.
I hate supermarkets (not little shops).
We can use the emphatic form of a verb.
Idid go to the supermarket. I went this morning.
There are also patterns with it and what.
It's supermarkets I hate.
What I hate is supermarkets.

## 47 Word order and information

## 1 Information in a statement

Imagine each of these statements as the start of a conversation.
(in a cafe)
(at a chemist's)
(at a railway station)

This coffee tastes awful.
I need somethingfor a headache.
The next train is at halfpast 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 somethingfor 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 halfpast nine. It is also the part of the sentence where the voice rises or falls. For details about intonation, • 54(2).

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).

## 2 Information in a text

a In a text, old information usually comes first in the sentence and new information comes later.

> ELEGANT BUILDING
> Britain's towns were given a new and an elegant appearance between 1700 and 1830. This period covers the building styles known as Queen Anne, Georgian and Regency, all three ofthem periods in which houses were very well designed.
> Previously, towns had grown naturally and usually had a disorderly, higgledypiggledy appearance. In the new age, architects planned whole parts oftowns, and built beautiful houses in terraces, or in squares with gardens in the middle.
> The houses of these periods are well-proportioned and dignified, with carefully spaced windows and handsomefront doors. They can be seen in many towns, especially in London, Edinburgh, Bath, Cheltenham and Brighton.
> Brighton becamefamous after 1784 when the Prince of Wales, later King George IV, went there regularly, and later built the Royal Pavilion.
(from R. Bowood Our Land in the Making)
The subject of each sentence is something expected in the context. Usually it relates to something mentioned earlier.

| Already mentioned |  | Subject of sentence |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| between 1700 and 1830 | $\rightarrow$ | This period covers... |
| Britain's towns | $\rightarrow$ towns had... |  |
| houses... designed | $\rightarrow$ architects planned... |  |
| three... periods... houses | $\rightarrow$ The houses of these periods are... |  |
| The houses ofthese periods | $\rightarrow$ They can... |  |
| Brighton | $\rightarrow$ Brighton became... |  |

We can simply repeat a word (Brighton). Or we can use a pronoun if it is clear what it refers to (The houses... They...). Or we can repeat an idea in different words (... between 1700 and 1830. This period...). Here both phrases refer to the same thing, the period of time. The subject architects is also known information because we can relate it to houses were very well designed.
A subject can be in contrast with something mentioned before.
The towns were expanding rapidly. The villages, on the other hand,...
b 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).
c 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.

## 48 The subject

1 The subject often makes a link with the previous sentence.
The man is in prison. He stole somejewellery.
There was a break-in. Somejewellery 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.

2 The subject can express ideas such as time and place.
This has been an eventful yearfor 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.)
3 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.

## 49 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.

## 1 An adverbial in front position

a 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. Thenfor three dreadful days she did not appear at all.
(from G. Orwell Nineteen Eighty-Four)
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.

## NOTE

Putting an adverbial in front position can also help to get the important information in the right place.
Foraweekafterthis, lifewaslikearestlessdream.
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.
b These kinds of adverbial often come in front position.
Time: $\quad$ 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.
c 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: $\quad$ Slowly the sun sank into the Pacific.
Frequency: Everyone shops at the big supermarket now. Quite often the little shop is emptyfor halfan hour at a time.

## 2 An object or complement in front position

a 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 ofall 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.

## 3 Inversion after an adverbial

a In this sentence the pattern is subject + verb + adverbial of place.
Afurniture van was outside the house.
When the adverbial of place is in front position, there is inversion of the subject and the ordinary verb $b e$.
Alan walked along Elmdale Avenue andfound 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 (afurniture 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 andfour 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.
NOTE For There was a furniture van outside the house, • 50.
b We can use here and there in front position to draw attention to something in the situation.
(airport announcement) Here is an announcementfor passengers on flight TW513 to Miami.
(sports commentator) And there goes Williams! Into the lead!
In this pattern we can use be, come or $g o$ in the present simple. There is inversion of the subject and verb. The noun phrase, the new information, goes at the end.

Here is an announcement. NOT Here-an announcement is.
But when the subject is a pronoun, there is no inversion.
And there goes Williams'. There he goes, look!
Where are my keys? Oh, here they are.

## 4 Overview: inversion

a Subject-verb inversion
After an adverbial of place in front position, • 49(3)
On the doorstep stood an old man. Here is the news.
After direct speech, • 265(4)
Are you ready?'Jane asked/askedJane.
b Subject-auxiliary inversion
In questions, • 23
What did the man want? Have you heard the news?
In additions with so and neither/nor, • 43(1)
I saw the man and so did Paul.
After a negative phrase in front position, • 17(6c)
In no circumstances should you sign theform. In some conditional clauses, • 258

Had you signed theform, you would have lost all your rights.

## 50 The empty subjects there and it

## 1 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.

## 2 There + be: more details

a We use the pattern in sentences with adverbials of place, time and other meanings.
There was afurniture van outside the house.
There's a concert next week.
There are some lettersfor you.
NOTE For The house had afurniture van outside it, • 85(1) Note d.
b 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.)
NOTE
The adverbial is sometimes understood from the context.
You know this party we're going to. Will there be anyfood (at the party)?
c 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 offlots 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'sfar 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.

NOTE
We can use the in this pattern when we remind someone of the existence of something specific.

What can I stand on to reach the light bulb? ~ Well, there's the stepladder.
d We form negatives and questions in the normal way.
There wasn't a van outside the house.
Are there any lettersfor me?
e We can use there in a question tag.
There's a concert next week, isn't there?
f After there, the verb agrees with its complement. (But • 153(6) Note.)
There is a letter/There are some lettersfor you.
g There is not stressed and is normally spoken in its weak form / ðə/ (like the). The subject there is not the same as the adverb there (=in that place). The adverb is pronounced / ठeə/.

There/ðә/ was a van there / ðеә/, outside the house.
$\mathrm{h} \quad$ 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.

## 3 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.
Note
For the infinitive after there, • 113(2).
There is a small matter to discuss/to be discussed.

## 4 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 nowfollows 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.

## NOTE

We can use seem, appear, happen, chance, turn out, prove and tend with to be. There doesn't seem to be enough memory in the computer. There proved to be no truth in the rumour. There appears to have been an accident.
We can sometimes use a noun phrase after seem, especially one with little or no. There seemed (to be) little difference between the two alternatives. There seems (to be) no reason for alarm.

## 5 The empty subject it

a A clause like to make newfriends or that sofew 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 newfriends.
(= To make new friends is difficult.)
It was a pity sofew 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 newfriends is difficult./It's difficult making new friends.
b It can also be an empty object in the pattern subject + verb $+i t+$ complement + clause.

Ifind it difficult to make new friends.
We all thought it a pity sofew 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 oforder. (= 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..., • 109.
d We can use $i t+$ be before a phrase in order to emphasize it. $\cdot 51(3)$
It's the phone (not the doorbell) that's out oforder.
e 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.

## 6 There or $i t$ ?

There $+b e$ expresses the fact that something exists or happens. $I t+b e$ identifies or describes 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.) |

## 51 Emphasis

## MUSIC PRACTICE

Susan: Why weren't you at the music practice yesterday?
Emma: I didn't know there was one. How did you find out about it?
Susan: It was you who told me. Don't you remember? You told me yourselflast week.
Emma: Oh, yes. I'dforgotten. I've got a terrible memory. I thought it was Thursdays, not Tuesdays.
Susan: Whatyou need is a personal organizer.
Emma: I'd only lose it. Are all the practices going to be on Tuesdays?
Susan: Yes, and if you want to be in the orchestra, you have to attend.
Emma: Oh, Ido want to be in it. I'd love to play in the orchestra.

## 1 Emphatic stress

a 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 ofcoffee.

NOTE
Some words can be repeated for emphasis. They are very, really and some words expressing quantity and length of time.

I've been very very busy, NOT I've been busy busy.
This has happened many, many times before.
We waited and waited, but no one came. We had a long, long wait.
The noise just went on and on.
We can also sometimes do this with adjectives expressing extreme feelings. What a terrible, terrible tragedy!

## 2 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 $d o$.
Ido want to be in the orchestra. The garden does look nice.
Idid post the letter. I'm absolutely certain.
Do you want to fly in a balloon? ~No, Idon'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.

NOTE
We can also add emphasis by using adverbs such as really, indeed, certainly and definitely.
The garden really does look nice. You can indeed dial direct to Brazil.
b But sometimes the form emphasizes another part of the meaning rather than yes or no.

We might go awayfor 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)
NOTE
We can stress an ordinary verb to emphasize its meaning.
I've borrowed your calculator. I haven't stolen it.
I wrote the letter. I didn't type it.

## 3 The pattern with it

a 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 $i t+b e+$ phrase + relative clause. The phrase that we want to emphasize (you) comes after be.
b 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, • 273.)

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.
note
We can sometimes also emphasize a prepositional object.
How do you like the choir? ~ It's the orchestra I'm in.
We can also emphasize a whole clause.
It was because they were playing in London that England had an advantage.
c When a pronoun comes after be, it is usually in the object form.
It was me who toldyou, remember?
d 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.

## 4 The pattern with what

a 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 $+b e$. The new information comes after be.
b Look at these examples.
A technicalfaultcaused the delay.
The guestsplayedmini-golfaftertea.
We can emphasize different parts of the sentence.
What caused the delay was a technicalfault.
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.
NOTE
a We cannot use who in this pattern. We must put a noun in front of it.
The people who played mini-golf were the guests.
NOT Who played mini-golfwere the guests.
b We can emphasize an action, e.g. What the guests did was (to) play mini-golf. Compare these examples with other verb forms.

What the guests are doing is playing mini-golf.
What I've done is sent/is (to) send a letter ofcomplaint. What we could do is (to) hire a car.
c We can sometimes emphasize a prepositional object.
What I longfor is a little excitement.
d We can reverse the order of the what-clause and a noun phrase. Compare the two orders. I've got a terrible memory. ~ What you need is a personal organizer.
They've got some personal organizers here, look. ~ Oh, good. A personal organizer is what Ineed.
e We can use when and where.
1966 was (the year) when England won the World Cup.
The sports hall is (the place) where the students do the examination.

## 5 Overview: emphasis

- 51(1) Emphatic stress
- 51 (2) Emphatic verb
-51(3) It
- 51 (4) What
- 49 Phrase in front position
- 186(3) Emphatic pronouns
- 26(6c) On earth/ever
- 212 Adverbs of degree

Example

## I saw a ghost.

Idid see a ghost.
It was a ghost (that) I saw.
What I saw was a ghost.
The ghost I clearly saw.
The next moment it had disappeared.
Isaw it myself.
What on earth did you see?
I really saw it.
Iwasso scared.

## 7

## Spoken English and written English

## 52 Summary

## Grammar in speech and writing - 53

There is normally more repetition in speech than in writing. In informal speech we often use expressions like Well..., you know and sort of.

## Stress and intonation - 54

The voice rises or falls on the new and important information. A rising intonation usually means that the speaker is unsure or that the conversation is incomplete.

## Weak forms and short forms - 55

In informal English we often use weak forms or short forms of some words. For example have has a spoken weak form $/ \mathrm{v} /$ and a written short form 've.

Punctuation - 56
There are some rules of punctuation, such as how to punctuate correctly between two clauses.

## 53 Grammar in speech and writing

1 This is part of a real conversation between three people.
STUCK ON THE UNDERGROUND
Tom: I had one appointment at nine o'clock, I had another one at ten o'clock, had another one at halfpast twelve, another one at quarter pastfour and then I knew I had to be at Pathway at six o'clock, I reckoned. So I timed it -
Sarah: These appointments were in town?
Tom: Yeah. 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. And I reckoned I'd be at Hounslow Westjust before five to six and I'djump into a taxi and be at Pathway just after six o'clock. So Igot on the Underground at Green Park at about ten pastfive, no, twenty pastfive, and erm, we moved alongfairly well to Hyde Park Corner and then we moved along about fifty yards and we stopped.
Simon: Why was this?
Tom: And we were therefor - well, I'm not quite sure, I think there was a train stopped infront of us and we were therefor - reallyfor three quarters ofan hour.

[^3]a 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, halfpast 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 thatfun! (expressing feelings)
Well, I think I've done enoughfor today. (changing the topic)
c 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 latefor an appointment and I wasfeeling 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 ofslides 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.
So I got on the Underground at Green Park at about ten pastfive, no, twenty past five.
...at about ten pastfive, I mean twenty pastfive.
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 pastfive - this was in, er, this was in central London.

2 Here is an example of written English.
CYCLING
The rising cost of petrol and increasing traffic congestion in towns have brought backfor the bicycle some of the popularity it was beginning to lose. Cycling is healthy, practical, and, for many people, a popular recreation.
(from H. Turner The Consumer's A-Z)
This is typical of a written textbook style. A spoken version would be different.
'Well, the cost ofpetrol is going up, and there is so much traffic in towns these days, isn't there? And so bicycles have become more popular now after a time when not so many people were using them. I think cycling is goodfor you, and it's practical, and lots ofpeople enjoy it.'

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 ofpeople enjoy it'
For more details about nominalization, • 149 .

## 54 Stress and intonation

## 1 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'normous new 'shopping 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'normous.

NOTE
We can give a word extra stress to emphasize it. - 51 (1)
They've built an enormous new shopping centre.

## 2 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 havejust 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 havejust 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 Fallingintonation 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 waitfor us?
The meaning of a tag depends on the intonation. - 34(3)
You'll be here next week, m won'tyou? (fairly sure)
You'll be here next week, k won'tyou? (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'sfinal.)
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 newjob. ~ Oh, k have you? (Where?)
I've got a newjob. ~ Oh, m have you?
The fall suggests that the conversation is complete. In this context it sounds uninterested and so rather impolite.

## 55 Weak forms and short forms

A weak form is a spoken form such as the pronunciation of $a m$ as $/ \mathrm{m} /$ instead of $/ æ m /$. 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.

| Spoken | Strong <br> /æm/ | Weak <br> $/ \mathrm{m} /$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Written | Full <br> am | Short <br> 'm |

## 1 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.

Strong form /ænd/
Have you got a dog or a cat? ~ We've got a dog and a cat.

Weak form /ən/
Have you got any pets?~
Yes, we've got a dog and a cat.
b These are the main weak forms.
Forms of be, have and the auxiliary do
am /əm/ or /m/ be /bi/ have /həv/, /əv/ or /v/ do /dv/ or /da/ is /z/ been $/ \mathrm{bm} /$ has $/ \mathrm{h} / \mathrm{z} /$, /əz/ or /z/
are $/ \partial(\mathrm{r}) /$ was $/ \mathrm{waz} /$ had $/ \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{d} /$, /əd/or $/ \mathrm{d} /$ were /wə(r)/
Modal verbs
can /kən/ will /l/ shall / Sel/ or / $\mathrm{ll} /$ must /məst/ or /məs/
could /kd/ would /wəd/, /əd/ or /d/ should/Sd/
Articles
$a /$ /ə/ an /ən/ the /ठг/ or /ðә/ some /səm/ or /sm/ $\triangleright$ 179(3)
Pronouns and possessives

we /wi/ your/jə(r)/ him/im/ her/hə(r)/or/ə(r)/
his /Iz/
Prepositions

| /ət/ | of lev/ or $/ \mathrm{v} /$ | as | from /fram/ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| o /to/ or | for /fə(r)/ | han /ðən/ |  |

Other words
that/ठət/ (as conjunction or relative pronoun) and/ənd/, /ən/ or /n/ there / ठә(r)/ $\triangleright 50(2 \mathrm{~g})$ not /nt/

Some of these words have a written short form, such as I'm instead of I am. But some weak forms do not: was, you, from, and.

## 2 Full forms and short forms

a In informal writing, some words have a short form.
Fit a gas wall heater andyou'll stop shivering. It'll warm up your bedroom so quickly you won't need a towel. It fits snugly and safely on the wall. And, because it's gas, it's easy to control and very economical.
(from an advertisement)
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.

## NOTE

We cannot use a short form when the word is stressed. NOT Yes, it's as a short answer. But we can use unstressed $n$ 'tin a short answer, e.g. Wo, it isn't.
b In short forms we use ' $m$ (= am), 're (= are), 's (= is/has), 've (= have), ' $d$ (= had/would) and $n^{\prime} t(=$ 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 /waunt/ wouldn't shan't/.fa:nt/ shouldn't
can't/ka:nt/ couldn't mightn't mustn't/'masnt/ needn't
oughtn't daren'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.

## NOTE

a The short form 's can mean is or has.
It's a big house. It's got five bedrooms. (= It is ... It has ...)
The short form 'd can mean had or would.
If you'd asked, you'd have found out. (= If you had asked, you would have found out.)
b Sometimes we can shorten a form with not in two different ways. The meaning is the same. It is not... = It isn't... / It's not...
You will not $\ldots$ = You won't .../ You'll not...
But I am not has only the one short form I'm not.
c In non-standard English there is a short form ain't ( $~=~ a m ~ n o t / i s ~ n o t / a r e ~ n o t / h a s ~ n o t / h a v e ~_{\text {a }}$ not).

Thatain't right. (=That isn'tright.)

## 56 Punctuation

## 1 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 | Sendfor our brochure today. |
| QUESTION | Question mark | Have you booked a holiday? |
| EXCLAMATION | Exclamation mark | What a bargain! |

NOTE
a If a question has no inversion, then we still use a question mark.
You've booked a holiday?
b A request in the form of a question usually has a question mark.
Can you send me a brochure, please?
c There is a question mark after a question tag.
It's a bargain, isn't it?

## 2 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 wasfull - there were several school parties there.
The theatre wasfull: there were several school parties there.

## 3 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 ofpeople come here to look round the market.
But commas are usual with linking adverbs, truth adverbs and comment adverbs.
Yes, Ihave received your letter.
All of us, as a result, werefeeling pretty tired.
There wasn't much to eat, however.
On the whole, the party was a success.
Nothing got broken, luckily.

> NOTE
> a When something is added as an afterthought, we can use a comma, a dash or brackets.
> My husbanddoesthecooking, sometimes.
> I'd love a holiday- if I could afford it. Everything should be OK (I hope).
> b The name of the reader/listener is separated off by commas. I hope to see you soon, Melanie. DearAlex, Thank you for your letter.
b Noun clauses
A noun clause is not separated off by commas. This rule includes indirect speech.
It is afact 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, • (4).
c 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 manyfamous plays, also acted on the stage.
For details about the different kinds of relative clause, • 272(5).
d Apposition
We sometimes use commas around a phrase in apposition, but not always.
Irving Berlin, thefamous composer, couldn't read music.
The composer Irving Berlin couldn't read music.
For details, - 14 .
e 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.

NOTE For details about adjectives, e.g. a narrow, steep, winding road, • 202.

## 4 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 ifit belonged to a man or a woman.
'Charlie?'hesaid.
'Charlie ain't here right now, 'the voice said. 'Who's that, anyway?'
'Police officer,'Hawes said. 'Mindopening 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.
'Policeofficer,'Hawessaid.
Hawessaid, 'Policeofficer. '/Hawessaid: 'Policeofficer.'
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.'
NOTE
a We can also use quotes around a word or phrase to show that it was first used by someone else.

The so-called 'hotel' was just an old shed. All Americans have the right to 'life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.'
b For inversion, e.g. said Hawes, • 265(4).

## 5 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 offour
But when these words come after the verb, they are usually separate words. winds reaching galeforce 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
c 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
d 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
For more examples, • 284.
NOTE
a We do not normally use a hyphen after un, in or dis, e.g. unfriendly, invisible, disorder.
b We use a hyphen when the prefix comes before a capital letter.
anti-British feeling the Trans-Siberian Railway
c A hyphen also comes between two vowels which are the same, e.g. re-enter, co-operate.
e We use a hyphen when a word is divided between one line of print or handwriting and the next.
...It is important to under-
stand that the computer...
There are rules about where to divide a word. Some dictionaries mark the places like this: un-der-stand.

## 6 Capital letters

We use a capital letter in these places,
a At the beginning of a sentence,
b For the pronoun I.
c With the names of people: Jason Donovan, Agatha Christie. Titles also have a capital: Doctor Owen, Mrs Whitehouse, Uncle William.

NOTE
Words like doctor and father have a capital when they are a title, or when we use them to address someone.
Talking to someone Talking about someone
Mrs Whitehouse
Doctor Owen/Doctor
ProfessorJones
Father/Dad Mrs Whitehouse Doctor Owen/the doctor

Grandma Professor Jones/the professor/the Professor myfather/my dad/my Dad

Uncle William
my grandma/my Grandma/Grandma my uncle/Uncle William/my Uncle William
d With the names of places: Australia, New York, Oxford. When a noun is part of a name, it has a capital letter too: the RiverAire, the Humber Bridge, Fifth Avenue, Paddington Station.
e 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 ModernAge, the First World War.
f With nationality words: a French singer, I'm learning Greek.
g With the titles of books, newspapers, films and so on: Animal Farm, The Daily Telegraph.

NOTE In titles, grammatical words often have a small letter: Strangers oka Train.
h In most abbreviations which are formed from the first letters of each word in a phrase: the BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation).

## 8

## The verb phrase

## 57 Summary

## Verb forms - 58

Verbs have the following forms: a base form (e.g. look), an s-form (looks), a past form (looked), an ing-form (looking) and a past/passive participle (looked).

Finite and non-finite verbs - 59
A finite verb phrase is one that can be the main verb of a sentence. A non-finite verb is an infinitive, gerund or participle.

## The structure of the verb phrase - 60

A finite verb phrase can be an ordinary verb on its own.
Your hair looks nice.
There can be one or more auxiliaries before the ordinary verb.
I have looked everywhere.
We are looking for the key.
You should have looked in the drawer.

## Meaning in the verb phrase • 61

The choice of tense and auxiliaries depends on meaning - what happens and how we see it.

## Action verbs and state verbs • 62

There are action verbs (e.g. walk, make) and state verbs (e.g. own, like). State verbs are not normally continuous.

## 58 Verb forms

## MODERN CRIME DETECTION

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 onfor 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 afew days later they played back the video atpolice headquarters, eager to see the thieffilmed in the act. All it showed, however, was a naked policeman, a member of the club, looking for his clothes, which had been stolen.

1 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 <br> Present tense | Play tennis with me. <br> You play very well. <br> I'd like to play. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Snfinitive |  |  |$\quad$| Present tense |
| :--- |
| (3rd person singular) |$\quad$| Simon plays very well. |
| :--- |

## 59 Finite and non-finite verbs

1 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 |
| it | is |
| someone | will steal |
| you | are playing |
| the police | were informed |

NOTE
A form with ed can be finite or non-finite, depending on the context.
They filmed the thief. (past tense - finite)
They saw the thief filmed in the act. (participle -non-finite)
2 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.
For the to-infinitive and gerund in these patterns, • 121.

## 60 The structure of the verb phrase

1 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 Theyfound |
| 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, • 61 .
2 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 | bypolice |
| 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
$b e+$ 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. - 150

[^4]3 The (first) auxiliary is important in negatives and questions. In negatives, the auxiliary has not after it. - 17(2)

They haven't played the video.
In questions the auxiliary comes before the subject. - 23
Have they played the video?
In simple tenses, the auxiliary is $d o$.
They didn't play the video. Did they play the video?

## 61 Meaning in the verb phrase

## A NEW FLAT

Ian: How's your new flat?
Jason: Oh, it's okay, thanks. We've been there a month now, and I think we're going to like it. We're decorating at the moment. You must come and see us when we've finished.
Ian: Thanks. That'd be nice. You were lucky to find somewhere.
Jason: Yes, we were getting pretty desperate. We'd been looking for ages and couldn't find anywhere. The flat wasn't advertised. We heard about it through a friend. It's quite convenient too. We get the train to work.
Ian: What floor is the flat on?
Jason: Well, we live right at the top, but there are onlyfourfloors. Ifthere was a lift, it would be perfect.

## 1 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'.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Present: } & \text { Ithink we're going to like it. } \\ & \text { We live right at the top. } \\ \text { Past: } & \text { We heard about it through a friend. } \\ & \text { We were getting pretty desperate. }\end{array}$

## note

In some contexts the choice of present or past depends on the speaker's attitude.
Haveyouamoment? Iwant to askyousomething.
Haveyou amoment? Iwanted to askyou something.
Here the present tense is more direct. The past tense is more distant. It makes the request more tentative and so more polite. For these tenses in conditional clauses, $\bullet 257(4 \mathrm{c})$.

## 2 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, • 102.

## 3 The perfect

These verb phrases have perfect aspect.
We have just finished the decorating.
We have been there a month now.
We had been lookingfor 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.65

We've finished the decorating. (in the period up to now)
We finished the decorating. (in the past)

## 4 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 lookingfor ages.
Complete action: We had looked everywhere.
State verbs (e.g. know) are not normally continuous. • 62
For present continuous and simple, • 64.

## 5 The passive

We use the passive when the subject is not the agent but what the action is directed at. - 103

The flat wasn'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.

## 62 Action verbs and state verbs

1 Verbs can express actions or states.
Actions States

Jane went to bed. Jane was tired.
I'm buying a new briefcase. Ineed 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 $0 f$ | detest | intend | mean | prefer |  |
| contain | dislike | know | need | resemble |  |

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.

2 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. - 104(6b)
3 Some verbs have different meanings. One meaning can be an action and another meaning can be a state.

## Actions

We're having lunch now. (action-'eating')
We're thinking about moving. (action - 'deciding')
Jefftasted the soup. expect/expecting trouble imagine/imagining the result care/caring for the sick admire/admiring the view (= looking at it with pleasure) look/looking at a picture smell/smelling the powder appear/appearing in a film measure/measuring the door weigh/weighing the luggage fit/fitting a new switch fit cost/costing a project

## States

We have a big kitchen. (state-'own') I think we ought to move. (state - 'believe')
The soup tasted like water.
expect so (= believe)
imagine so (= believe)
not care what happens
admire someone's courage
(= approve of)
look lovely
smell strange
appear perfectly calm
measure two metres
weigh ten kilos
perfectly
cost a lot ofmoney

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 sofar.
We were expecting visitors. You're looking pleased with yourself.
This holiday is costing me a lot. I'm hoping to get ajob.
Be can be an action verb meaning 'behave'. • 84(3)
The dog was being a nuisance, so we shut him out.
NOTE
a Mean (= have the meaning) is always a state verb.
What does this word mean?
b Enjoy expresses an action.
I'm enjoying the party. NOT I enjoy the party.

## 62 Action verbs and state verbs

5 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.
note
The expression get to know can be continuous.
I'm getting to know the town quite well.
6 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.

7 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 couldfeel 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.
Theyfelt 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 wasfeeling her way in the dark.

## NOTE

a See (= meet) is an action verb, and see (= understand) is a state verb.
I'm seeing the doctor in halfan hour.
You put the cassette in here, like this. ~ Oh, Isee.
b Look (at something), watch and listen are action verbs.
We looked/We were looking at the sunset.
c Feel (= believe) is a state verb.
I feel we should discuss the matter.

## 9

## Verb tenses and aspects

## 63 Summary

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 - 64
We are playing cards now.
We play in the orchestra every week.

## Present perfect and past simple - 65

We have played two games already.
We played tennis yesterday.

## Past continuous •66

We were playing cards at the time.

## Present perfect continuous • 67

We have been playing cards all evening.

## Past perfect and past perfect continuous • 68

We had played the game before then.
We had been playing for ages.

## OVERVIEW: uses of tenses and aspects - 69

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.

## 64 Present continuous and present simple

macbeth
Andrew: What are you reading?
Sadie: 'Macbeth'. We're doing it in English. Our class is going to the theatre to see it next week. MrAdams is taking us.
Andrew: What's it about?
Sadie: Well Macbeth murders the King ofScotland. But it doesn't do him any good.
Andrew: Mr Davis takes usfor English. We aren't doing Shakespeare though.
Sadie: MrAdams loves Shakespeare. He's always quoting bits at us. Shakespeare is England's greatest writer, he says.

## 64 Present continuous and present simple

## 1 Form

| Present continuous: <br> present of be + active participle | Present simple: <br> base form/s-form |
| :--- | :--- |
| I am reading |  |
| you/we/they are reading |  |
| he/she it is reading |  |$\quad$| I/you/we/they read |
| :--- |
| Negative |
| I am not reading |
| you/we/they are not reading reads |
| he/she/it is not reading |$\quad$| I/you/we they do not read |
| :--- |
| Queshe/it does not read |
| Qm I reading? |
| are you/we/they reading? |
| is he/she it reading? |

In present simple questions and negatives we use do/does and the base form of the verb.
NOT He does notreads andNOT Doeshe reads?
NOTE
a There are some spelling rules for the participle. Leaving out $e$ : lose losing • 292(1) Doubling of some consonants: stop stopping • 293
b There are some spelling rules for the s-form.
Adding es after a sibilant sound: push pushes • 290(1)
$Y$ changing to ie: hurry hurries $\bullet 294$
c For pronunciation of the s/es ending, • 290(3).

## 2 Use

a 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.

MrAdams loves Shakespeare. Ithink 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.

## NOTE

We use the present simple for permanent states. With temporary states, states which go on only for a short time, we can sometimes use the present continuous. For details, $\bullet 62$.

Theweatherlooks/islookingbettertoday.
c 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.
Idon't often see Sarah.
The old man takes the dogfor a walk every morning.
Typical time expressions with the present simple are always, often, usually, sometimes, ever/never; everyday/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.

NOTE
a We use the present simple to talk about a permanent routine, whether or not the action is happening at the moment.

You'rewalking today.~Yes, Iquiteoftenwalktowork.
You'rewalkingtoday. Youusuallydrive, don'tyou?
b We use the present continuous to say that we are regularly in the middle of something. Atseven we're usually having supper. (=At seven we're in the middle of supper.) Compare the present simple for a complete action. Atseven we usually have supper. (=Seven is our usual time for supper.)
We can talk about two actions.
WheneverIseeGraham, he'swearingatracksuit. Ilike to listen tomusic when I'mdriving.
c We can also use the present simple to say what is the right way to do something. You turn left at the church. Youputyourmoney in here.
d 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 teacheralways 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.

Hackerpasses the ball to Short. Short moves inside, but Burley wins it backfor 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 ofScotland, who is staying at his castle.
note
a We can also use the present simple with a performative verb, e.g. promise. - 16(3)
I promise I won'forget. I suggest we go. Yes, Iagree.
b For the present simple after herelthere, - 49(3b).
c The present simple is used in headlines for a recent action: Railfares go up. In normal style we use the present perfect: Railfares have gone up.
f 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. • 268(1a)

Shakespeare is England's greatest writer, Mr Adams says I said.
g 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. • 73

Sadie is coming to stay with us next week.
Theferry 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.

## 65 Present perfect and past simple

THE SKI SHOP
Debbie: Have you seen the ski shop that'sjust opened in the High Street?
Nicola: Yes, it opened last week, didn't it? Ihaven't been in there yet.
Debbie: Iwent in yesterday. It's really good. Ibought some gloves. We're going to Italy next winter, and I can buy clothes there.
Nicola: I haven't skiedfor ages actually. I've got some skis - I've had themfor years. I used to ski a lot when I was younger.
Debbie: Where did yougo?
Nicola: We went to Austria afew times.
Debbie: I've been to Scotland twice, but I've never done any skiing abroad. I'm really lookingforward to Italy.

## 1 Form

| Present perfect: | Past simple: |
| :--- | :--- |
| present of have + past participle | past form |
| I/you/we/they have opened |  |
| he/she/it has opened | someone opened |
| Negative <br> I/you/we/they have not opened <br> he/she/it has not opened | someone did not open |
| Questions <br> have I/you/we/they opened? <br> has he/she/it opened? | did someone open? |

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?

NOTE
a There are some spelling rules for the ed-form.
Adding $d$ after $e$ : dose closed • 291 (1)
Doubling of some consonants: stop stopped • 293
$Y$ changing to $i$ : hurry hurried $\bullet 294$
b For pronunciation of the ed ending, •291(2).

## 2 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 oftimes.
We've often talked about emigrating.
We can also use the present perfect for states.
I've had these skisforyears. 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, sofar, still, ever/never, today, this morning/evening, for weeks/years, since 1988. Some of these are also used with the past simple. - (5)

NOTE For been to and gone to, • 84(6).

## 3 Use of the past simple

a We use the past simple for an action in the past.
The shop opened last week. Ibought 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, ateleven o'clock, on Tuesday, in 1990, just, recently, once, earlier, then, next, after that. Some of these are also used with the present perfect. - (5)

## NOTE

a With the past simple we often say when the action happened.
/boughtsome glovesyesterday.
Iwentintheshopyesterday.It's reallygood.Iboughtsome gloves.
It is clear from the context that the action bought happened yesterday.
Sometimes there is no phrase of time, but we understand a definite time in the past.
Ididn't eat any breakfast. Mysistertook this photo.
b A phrase with ago means a finished time. It does not include the present, even though we measure it from the present. Compare these sentences.
IsawthatfilmonWednesday/twodaysago.
I'veseen that film.
b We can also use the past simple for repeated actions.
We went to Austria afew 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 Rivierafor several weeks.
note
a There are other ways of expressing repeated actions in the past. - 100
We usedto go to Austria. The children would alwaysplay in the garden.
b For the past tense in a tentative request, e.g. / wanted to askyou something, •61(1) Note. For the past tense expressing something unreal, e.g. I wish I had more money, •241(3). For the past tense expressing a possible future action, e.g. IfItold you, you'd laugh, • $257(4 \mathrm{c})$.

## 4 Present perfect or past simple?

a 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 hasjust opened. (So it's open now.)
Past: $\quad$ 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.
b 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 skisforyears.
I had those skisfor 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.
Ibought these skis years ago. Iarrived here at three o'clock.
c 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.)
d 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'vejust been on a skiing holiday. ~ Oh, where did you go?
Have you sent in your application? ~ Yes, Isent it in ages ago.

## 5 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 withfor and since. For American usage, • 303(6).
a With just and recently there is little difference in meaning.
I'vejust 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 oftimes.
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/neverwith 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?
c 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.)

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.
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 lastskied 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 skiedfor hours.
NOTE
a We can use a pattern with it to emphasize the time.
It's years since Iskied/I've skied. Itwas in 1988(that)Ilastskied.
b I've been here (for) a month means that I arrived here a month ago. I am herefor a month means that I have arranged to stay here for a month in total.

## 66 Past continuous

AN UNIDENTIFIED FLYING OBJECT
'I was going home from the pub at quarter to eleven. There was afull 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 ofaluminium. It was travelling east to west, towards Warminster. Ididn't know what to do. I didn't have a camera ofcourse. I watched itfor a minute and then it went behind a cloud.'

## 1 Form

Past of $b e+$ active participle
I/he/she/it was flying
you/we/they were flying

Negative
I/he/she/it was notflying you/we/they were not flying were you/we/they flying?

## 2 Use

a 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 Igot 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 watchingfor 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.
I 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 ofaluminium. It had a shape like a cigar.
note
With temporary states we can sometimes use the past continuous. For details, • 62.
I didn'tfeel/wasn'tfeeling very well.

Other uses of the past continuous
a We can use the past continuous for repeated actions which are temporary, only for a period. My car was offthe road. I was travelling to work by bus that week.
Compare I'm travelling to work by bus this week. • 64(2c)
b We can use the past continuous for a past arrangement.
/ was on my way to the pub. I was meeting James there. ( = I had arranged to meet James there.)
For I'm meetingJames at the pub tonight, • 73(1).
c With the continuous, always means 'very often' or 'too often'.
Do you remember Mr Adams? He was always quoting Shakespeare.
For examples with the present continuous, • 64(2d).

## 67 Present perfect continuous

GOING INTO HOSPITAL
Mrs Webster: I shall have to go into hospital some time to have an operation on myleg.
Ted: Are you on the waiting list?
Mrs Webster: Yes, I've been waiting for three years.
Ted: Three years! That's awful! You've been suffering all that time.
Mrs Webster: Well, I have to use the wheelchair, that's all.
Ted: They've been cutting expenditure, trying to save money. It's not right.
Mrs Webster: My son David has written to them three times. He's been trying to get me in quicker. I don't know if it'll do any good.

## 1 Form

Present of have + been + active participle
I/you/we/they have been waiting he/she/it has been waiting

Negative
I/you/we/they have not been waiting
he/she/it has not been waiting

Questions
have I/you/we/they been waiting?
has he/shelit been waiting?

## 2 Use

a 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 roofhas been leaking. The carpet's wet.
The speaker looks back from the present and so uses the perfect.
NOT I waitfor three years.
We often use for and since. - 227(5)
We've been living herefor six months/since April.

## NOTE

The action can end just before the present.
Youlookhot. ~Yes,I'vebeenrunning.
b 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.
c 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 herefor ages./I've waited herefor 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.
d We use the present perfect (not the continuous) for a state up to the present.
She has been in a wheelchairfor three years. I've always hated hospitals.

## 68 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?

## 1 Form

Past perfect:
had + past participle
someone had invited
Negative
someone had not invited
Questions
had someone invited? had someone been going?

## 2 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 hadforgotten something.
By midnight they had come to an agreement.
We ran onto the platform, but the train hadjust 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.
Thefloor is clean. I have washed it.
Thefloor 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 prisonfor three years.
NOTE For the past perfect in if-clauses, • 257(6).

## 3 Past simple and past perfect

a To talk about one action in the past we use the past simple.
This lamp is a new one. Ibought 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 shotrang out, everyone threw themselves to thefloor.
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.
NOTE
For the past perfect with hardly and no sooner, • 250(5).
/ had hardly sat down when the phone rang.
b 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...)
c We can sometimes use the past perfect after before or until.
The toaster went wrong before it toasted/had toasted one piece ofbread.
We didn't want to stop until wefinished/had finished the job.

## 4 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 thefloor.
My hands were wet. I had been washing thefloor.

## 5 The past perfect continuous and other past forms

a 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.)

## 69 Overview: uses of tenses and aspects

1 Present continuous - 64
In the middle of an action
I'm watching this comedy.
A temporary routine
I'm working late this week.
2 Present perfect - 65
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 afew times.
A state up to the present
I've been herefor a week.

Present simple • 64
A present state
Ilike comedies.
A permanent routine
I work late most days.
Past simple • 65
An action in the past
I wrote the letteryesterday.
A series of past actions
I played basketball years ago.
A past state
/ was therefor a week.

3 Past continuous - 66
An action over a period of past time It was raining at the time.

4 Present perfect continuous • 67
An action over a period up to the present It has been raining all day.

5 Past perfect continuous - 68
An action over a period up to a past time It had been raining for hours.

## Past perfect - 68

An action before a past time The rain had stopped by then. A state before a past time The weather had been awful.

## 10

## The future

## 70 Summary

This news item is about something in the future.


#### Abstract

cinema to close The Maxime Cinema is to close in November, it was announced yesterday. The owner of the building, Mr Charles Peters, has sold it to afirm ofbuilders, who are going to build a block ofold people'sflats on the site. 'The cinema has become uneconomic to run,' said Mr Peters. The last performance is on Saturday 17th November, and after that the cinema willfinally close its doors after sixty years in business. 'This town won't be the same again,' said camera operator Bert Dudley, who has worked at the cinemafor eighteen years. Mr Dudley (67) is retiring when the cinema closes. Infuture, cinema goers will have to travel ten miles to the nearest cinema.


There are different ways of expressing the future.
Will and shall • 71
The cinema will close in November.
We shall close the doorsfor the last time.
Be going to • 72
The cinema is going to close soon.
Present tense forms - 73
The cinema is closing in November.
The cinema closes on November 17th.

## Will, be going to or the present continuous? - 74

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 - 75

The cinema is sold and will be closing in November.
Be to • 76
The cinema is to close in November, it was announced.

## The present simple in a sub clause • 77

It will be a sad day when the cinema closes.

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Other ways of expressing the future • 78
Mr Dudley is about to retire.
He might retire soon.
He plans to retire in November.
The future perfect • 79
The cinema will have been in businessfor sixty years.

## Looking forward from the past • 80

Mr Dudley was going to continue working, but he lost hisjob.
OVERVIEW: the future • 81

## 71 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 nothas a short form won't.
2 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.
nOTE
Shall not has a short form shan't / a:nt /.
I shan't be here tomorrow.
3 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.
Myfather will probably be in hospitalfor at least two weeks.
4 We can sometimes use I'llwe'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.)
NOTE
Will expresses a definite action in the future, not just a wish.
Action: There's a shop here. I'll buy some postcards. ~ OK, I'll waitfor you.
Wish: I want to buy some postcards, but I haven't got any money.
5 Will sometimes expresses willingness.
Jim will translate itfor you. He speaks Italian.
I'll sit/I'm willing to sit on thefloor. Idon't mind.

Won't can express unwillingness or an emphatic refusal.
The doctor won't come at this time ofnight.
I won't put up with this nonsense.
NOTE
We can also use won't when the subject is not a person.
The car won't start. This screw won'tgo in properly.
6 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'tyou 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 theseflowers? ~ 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 openfor you? ~ Oh, thanks.
8 We can use you shall for a promise.
You shall be the first to know. (Ipromise).
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 ofsuch a meeting.

## 72 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. Thisfence is going tofall 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.

NOTE In informal speech going to is sometimes pronounced / 'g n /.
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.
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, • 74.

[^5]
## 73 Present tense forms for the future

1 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 visitfriends at the weekend.
NOTE
a An 'arrangement' need not be with another person.
I'm doing some shopping this afternoon. I'm having an early night.
This means that I have arranged my day so that I can do these things,
b We cannot use a state verb in the continuous.
Gavin will be at the club tonight.
NOT Gavin is being at the club tonight.
2 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 someflats here soon.
NOTE For the present simple in sub clauses, • 77.

## 74 Will, be going to or the present continuous?

1 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 timefor a coffee.
There'll probably be lots ofpeople 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!
NOTE
Compare the meanings of these verb forms.
The cinema closed lastyear. The cinema has closed.
(in the past)
The cinema will close in November. (in the future)
(past action related to the present)
The cinema is going to close soon.
(future action related to the present)

2 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 cookingfor some friends. ~ Well, we'll eat out then.
3 Look at this conversation at the end of work on Friday afternoon.
A FEW DAYS OFF
Emma: I'll see you on Monday then.
Polly: Oh, I won't be here. Didn't I tell you? I'm taking afew days off. I'm going on holiday. I'll be awayfor a week.
Emma: No, you didn't say. Where are you going?
Polly: The Lake District. I'm going to do some walking.
Emma: Oh, that'll be nice. Well, I hope you have a good time.
Polly:Thanks. I'll see you the week after.
Polly gives the news of her plans and intentions by using the present continuous and be going to.

I'm taking afew days off. I'm going to do some walking.
We cannot use will in this context. But after first mentioning a plan or intention, we often use will for further details and comments.

I'm going on holiday. I'll be awayfor a week.
I'm going to do some walking. ~ Oh, that'll be nice.
They're going to build some flats. The work will take about six months.
NOTE
We often use will in a sentence with an if-clause. • 257(3)
I'll lose my way ifI don't take a map.
Sometimes a condition is understood but not expressed.
I might give up the course. ~ You'll regret it (if you do).

## 75 The future continuous: will be doing

1 We use will $+b e+$ 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 atfour. I'll be working.
How will I recognize you? ~ I'm fair, sixfeet 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'vejust 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.)

## NOTE

In the first person we can also use shall.
I will/shall be revising all dayfor the exam.

2 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 thisfor 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.

## 76 Be to

1 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.

## NOTE

$B e$ is often left out in headlines.
Prime Minister to visit Budapest.
2 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 removedfrom the station.

## 77 The present simple in a sub clause

1 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.
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 prizefor the person who scores the most points.
I'll see that the place is left tidy.

2 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.
3 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 myselfthat I'll be lying on the beach next week.
NOTE
After hope we can use either a present or a future form.
I hope you havelyou'll have a nice time.

## 78 Other ways of expressing the future

## 1 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.

NOTE
We can use be just about to/going to for the very near future.
The coach isjust about to leaveljust going to leave.
b We can also use be on the point of+ gerund.
The company is on the point of signing the contract.
NOTE
Be set to + base form is used in news reports about things likely to happen in the near future. The company is set to sign the contract.
c 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.

## 2 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 ...)
NOTE
We can use be sure to/be bound to + base form to express certainty about the future.
The scheme is sure tofail. (= It will certainly fail.)
There is bound to be trouble. (= There will certainly be trouble.)

## 3 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 ourflat. We intend to move soon,
Helen plans to re-train as a nurse. We've arranged to visit the area.

## 79 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.
NOTE
a In the first person we can also use shall.
We will/shall have done half the journey by the time we stop for lunch.
b For until and by, • 227(6).
c We can use will with the perfect and the continuous together.
I'll have been reading this bookfor about six weeks.
Our neighbours are moving soon. They'll have only been living here a year.

## 80 Looking forward from the past: was going to etc

1 We can use was/were going to for a past intention or arrangement.
Mr Dudley was going to retire, but then hefound anotherjob.
We were going to watch the film, but then weforgot about it.
The bus pulled awayjust as I was going to get on it.
I was going to means that I intended to.

```
NOTE
a Sometimes the intended action (Mr Dudley's retirement) actually happens.
    He had to retire when the cinema closed. But he was going to retire anyway.
    b We can also use the past continuous for a past arrangement.
        Joanne went to bed early because she was getting up at five.
```

2 We can use would as a past form of will.
They set offat daybreak. They would reach the camp before nightfall.
George Washington was the first President ofa 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.
3 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 ofleaving when he noticed an attractive girl looking across the room at him.
note
a The cinema was to close means that there was an arrangement for the cinema to close. But was to + perfect means that what was arranged did not actually happen.

The cinema was to have closed the next day, but they decided to keep it open another week.
b There is a special use of was to where it has a similar meaning to would.
George Washington was the first President ofa nation that was to become the richest and most powerful on earth.
Here was to means that the future action really did happen.

## 81 Overview: the future

1 Will • 71
A prediction
Scotland will win the game.
An instant decision
I think I'll buy a ticket.
An offer
I'll help you.
2 Present simple • 73
A timetable
The game starts at 3.00 pm .
In a sub clause • 77
We must get there before the game starts.
3 Future continuous - 75
An action over a future period
I'll be working all day Saturday.
The result of a routine or arrangement
I've got ajob in a shop. I'll
be working on Saturday.
4 Be to - 76
An official arrangement
The conference is to take place in November.

Be going to • 72
A prediction based on the present Scotland are going to win the game.
An intention
I'm going to buy a ticket, I've decided.

Present continuous - 73
An arrangement
I'm playing in the team tomorrow.

## Be about to • 78

The near future
The players are on the field. The game is about to start.

## 5 Future perfect - 79

Something that will be over in the future
The game will havefinished by halfpastfour.

## 6 Would • 80

Looking forward from the past
At half time we thought
Scotland would win.

## Was going to • $\mathbf{8 0}$

Looking forward from the past At half time we thought Scotland were going to win.
Past intention or arrangement I was going to watch the match, butIwasill.

## 11

## Be, have and do

## 82 Summary

Auxiliary verbs and ordinary verbs • 83
$B e$, have and do can be auxiliary verbs or ordinary verbs.
Auxiliary verbs Ordinary verbs
We were waitingfor a bus. We were at the bus stop.
I have thought about it. I have a suggestion.
Does Tina need any help? Tina does all the work.

## The ordinary verb be 84

The ordinary verb be has a number of different uses.
The shop is on the corner. The twins are eighteen.

## Have (got) • 85

Have (got) expresses possession and related meanings.
Richard has (got) a motor-bike. We've got a problem.

## The ordinary verb have - 86

The ordinary verb have can be an action verb with meanings such as 'experience' or 'receive'.

I'm having a holiday. We had a sudden shock.

## Empty verbs - 87

Sometimes we can express an action as an empty verb + object, e.g. have a ride, take a look.

## The ordinary verb do - 88

We can use $d o$ as an ordinary verb to talk about actions.
What on earth have you done? I'm doing afew oddjobs.

## Do and make - 89

Do and make have similar meanings and some idiomatic uses.

## 83 Auxiliary verbs and ordinary verbs

1 In these statements, be and have are auxiliary verbs.
Continuous: I'm taking my library books back.
Passive: Books are lentfor a period of three weeks.
Perfect: I'vefinished this book.
In a statement we do not normally use the auxiliary $d o$. Verbs in the present simple or past simple have no auxiliary.
Simple: I like murder stories.
2 In negatives, questions and some other patterns, we always use an auxiliary. In simple tenses we use the auxiliary $d o$.
be/have do

| Negative | I'm notgoing to the post office. | Idon'tgo to the library very often. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Question and short answer | Have you finished this book? ~ Yes, Ihave. | Do you use the library? ~ Yes, Ido. |
| Tag | You're reading this book, aren'tyou? | You like murder stories, don'tyou? |
| Addition | I've read this book. <br> ~ So have I. | I enjoyed that book. <br> ~ So did I. |
| Emphasis <br> - 51(2) | am enjoying this book. | İdo like murder stories. |

$3 B e$, have and do can also be ordinary verbs.
It was a lovely day. We had some sandwiches. (= ate)
Idid 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)
NOTE
a There can be the same auxiliary and ordinary verb together.
I was being lazy. (continuous of be) I've had a sandwich. (perfect of have) Idid do the crossword yesterday. (emphatic form of do)
b The ordinary verb do can be passive.
The crossword was done in ten minutes.

## 84 The ordinary verb be

## $1 B e$ as a linking verb

The ordinary verb be functions as a linking verb. - 9
The world is a wonderful place. The prisoners were hungry.
Are you being serious? The boss has been out of the office.
For there $+b e$ - 50 .

## 2 Form

\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{ll}\text { Present simple } & \text { Present continuous } \\
\text { Iam } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Iam being } \\
\text { you/we/they are } \\
\text { ye/she/itis }\end{array}
$$ <br>
you/we/they are being <br>

he/she/it is being\end{array}\right\}\)| Past continuous |
| :--- |
| I/he/she/itwas |
| you/we/they were |$\quad$| I/he/she/it was being |
| :--- |
| 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 $n ' t / n o t$ 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 yourfriends there? NOT Did your friends be there?

## 3 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 $b e$ in the imperative for behaviour.
Be quiet. Don't be silly. Do be careful.

## 4 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.

## 5 Other uses of be

We can also use be in these contexts.

| Events: | The match was last Saturday. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Identity: | Mr Crosby, this is myfather. |
| Age: | I'll be eighteen in November. |
| Nationality: | We're Swedish. We're from/We come from Stockholm. |
| Jobs: | My sister is a lawyer. |

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? Ifwe're all hungry, we'd better eat.
Right/wrong: Yes, that's right. I think you're mistaken.
Early/late: We were latefor the show.
NOTE
a For You are to report to the manager, • 76.
b We do not use be before belong, depend and agree.
This bike belongs to me. NOT This bike is belong to me. Well, that depends. NOT Well, that's-depend. Iagree absolutely. NOT I'm agree absolutely.

## 6 Gone or been?

We often use been instead of gone. Compare these two sentences.
Tom has gone to town. (He won't be backfor a while.)
Tom has been to town. (He'sjust 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?
NOTE
a We also make this difference before an active participle.
The girls have gone swimming. (They're at the pool.)
The girls have been swimming. (They're back now.)
b For American usage, • 303 (7).

## 85 Have (got)

## 1 Use

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 ofphone calls to make.
I've (got) a terrible headache. Ihaven't (got) time to wait.

[^6]c Have (got) ...on means 'wear'.
Mandy has (got) a long dress on. (= Mandy is wearing a long dress.)
d There is also a pattern with have (got) which means the same as there + be.
The T-shirt had a slogan on it. (= There was a slogan on the T-shirt.)

## 2 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/ithas | he/she/it has got |

Past simple
everyonehad everyone hadgot

## Present perfect <br> I/you/we/they have had <br> 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
Ihave the key. (a little formal) I have got the key. (informal)
I've the key. (unusual) I've got the key. (informal)
Past simple
Ihad the key. (most usual) Ihadgot the key. (less usual)
I'd the key. (unusual) I'd got the key. (less usual)

```
NOTE
In very informal speech, got is sometimes used without have.
    Igot lots oftime. (= I've got lots of time.)
    You got any money? (= Have you got any money?)
```

c There are some patterns where we do not normally use got. We do not use it in the perfect.

I've had these shoesfor years.
We do not normally use it in the infinitive or the ing-form.
It would be nice to have lots ofmoney.
It's pretty depressing having no job.
We do not use got in a short answer.
Have you gotyour bag? ~ Yes, Ihave.
And we do not normally use got after a modal verb.
You can have these magazines if you like.

```
NOTE
a Have got can be the present perfect of get.
                I left my books outside. They've got wet. (= have become)
            Compare these examples:
                I've got some sugar from our next-door neighbour. (= have obtained/borrowed)
                I've got some sugar somewhere. I think it's in the cupboard. (= have)
    For gotten (USA), • 303 (5d).
b When have got means 'have obtained', 'have received', we can use it in the infinitive or
ing-form or after a modal verb.
            We're grateful to have (got) somewhere to live. (to have got = to have found)
            / can't help having (got) a cold, can I? (having got = having caught)
            They must have (got) our letter by now. (must have got = must have received)
```

d In negatives and questions we can use have or $d o$ as the auxiliary.
Present simple

Idon't have a key.
Do you have a key?
I haven't a key. (a little formal)
Have you a key? (a little formal)
Past simple
Ididn't have a key. (most usual)
Didyou have a key? (most usual)
Ihadn't a key. (less usual)
Had you a key? (less usual)

I haven'tgot a key.
Have you got a key?

I hadn'tgot a key. (less usual)
Had you got 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.

## note

In the perfect we form negatives and questions in the usual way.
We haven't had this carfor long. ~ How long had you had your old one?

## 86 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)
Ialways 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 goodjourney?
We cannot use gotwith the ordinary verb have.
NOT The children have got a wonderful time.
note
a Compare these two sentences.
Action: We often have a game of cards. (= play)
State: We have/ We've got a pack ofcards. (= own, possess)
b For we're having a new shower installed, - 111.

## 87 Empty verbs

1 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.

2

|  | Verb | Empty verb + object |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Leisure activities | walk | haveltake a walk/gofor a walk |
|  | run | have a run/gofor a run |
|  | jog | have ajog/gofor ajog |
|  | ride | have a ridelgofor a ride |
|  | swim | have a swim/gofor 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 <br> drink | have a meal/a snack/something to eat have a drink/something to drink |
| Washing (yourself) | wash | have a wash |
|  | bath | haveltake a bath |
|  | shower | haveltake 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 | haveltake a look |
|  | try/attempt | have a try/make an attempt |
|  | visit | pay someone a visit |
|  | work | do some work |

3 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 afew 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.

4 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 andfor a long time.

## 88 The ordinary verb do

1 We can use do as an ordinary verb.
I've done something silly. We did thejourney in three hours.
What subjects are you doing? I'll do the potatoes for you.
2 These are the forms of the ordinary verb $d o$.

| Present simple | Present continuous |
| :---: | :---: |
| I/you/we/theydo | I am doing |
| he/shelitdoes | you/we/they are doing he/she/it is doing |
| Past simple | Past continuous |
| everyonedid | 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 |

We form negatives and questions in the same way as with other verbs. In simple tenses we use the auxiliary $d o$.

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?

3 The ordinary verb do has a number of uses.
a We use $d o$ 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 atAdventure 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.
c 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)
d We can also use $d o$ with a gerund. - 138(2)
Someone ought to do the washing.

## 89 Do and make

1 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 Bondfilm. I wasjust 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, •87.
NOTE
For These players will make a good team, •9(1).
For The story really made me laugh, • 127(3a).
2 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.
(= connectedwith).

## 12

## Modal verbs

## 90 Summary

## Introduction to modal verbs -91

The modal verbs (or 'modal auxiliary verbs') are will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, need, ought to and dare.
Imust go now. We can park here.
There are some expressions with have and be which have similar meanings to the modal verbs.
I have to go now. We're allowed to park here.
These expressions can have other forms such as a past tense or a to-infinitive.
I had to hurry to get here. We asked to be allowed to go.
Modal verbs express meanings such as necessity and possibility. We can use modal verbs to tell or allow people to do things; or we can use them to say how certain or uncertain we are.

Necessity: must, have (got) to, needn't and mustn't•92
Imust go to the bank.
Obligation and advice: should, ought to etc • 93
You should answer the letter.
Permission: can, could, may, might and be allowed to •94
We can leave our luggage at the hotel.
Certainty: will, must and can't
Mandy will be in London now.
Probability: should and ought to • 96
The rain should stop soon.
Possibility: may, might, can and could • 97
The keys may be in my coat pocket.

Ability: can, could and be able to - 98
Most people can swim.

## Unreal situations: would •99

Six weeks' holiday would be nice.
Habits: will, would and used to - 100
People will leave litter everywhere.
The verb dare - 101
Idaren'tgo up on the roof.
OVERVIEW: the use of modal verbs • 102

## 91 Introduction to modal verbs

1 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).

```
NOTE
a Some modal verbs have a spoken weak form. -55(1)
    You must/məs/ give me your honest opinion.
b We can stress a modal if we want to put emphasis on its meaning.
    You really must /mast/ be quiet.. (It is very necessary.)
    You 'may be right. (It is not certain.)
c Will and would have the written short forms 'll and 'd.
```

2 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 Ishould.
We do not use do with a modal. NOT HOW do I should organize my work?
3 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)

4 A modal verb can go with the perfect, the continuous or the passive.
Perfect: Imay have shown you this before.
Continuous: They may be showing thefilm on television.
Passive: We may be shown the results later.
Perfect + continuous: You must have been dreaming.
Perfect + passive: $\quad$ The car must have been stolen.
5 There are some expressions with have and be which have very similar meanings to the modal verbs.
a The main expressions are have to, be able to, be allowed to and be going to.
You have to fill in thisform. 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, • 92; can/may and be allowed to, • 94; and could and was able to, •98. For will and be going to, $\bullet 74$; and for be to, $\mathbf{7 6}$.
b 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 testyesterday.
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. Imight be able to do a little revision.
We ought to be allowed to decidefor ourselves.
People used to have to wash clothes by hand.
You aren'tgoing to be able to finish it in time.
But we cannot use two modals together. NOT You will must hurry.
6 Some nouns, adjectives and adverbs and ordinary verbs have similar meanings to modal verbs.

There's no chance ofeverything being ready on time.
It's essential/vital you keep me informed.
They'll probably give us our money back. • 214
The passengers managed to scramble to safety. •98(3a)

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

## 1 Must and have to

a This is a rule in a British Rail leaflet about a Young Person's Railcard.
You must buy your ticket before starting yourjourney, unless you join the train at a station where ticket purchasefacilities are not available.
Now look at this conversation.
Abigail: There isn't much time to spare. You'd better buy your ticket on the train. Phil: I can't do that. I want to use this railcard. Ihave to buy the ticket before Iget on.

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 yourjourney.
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 mustfill in aform. (I'm telling you.)
You have to fill in aform. (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.
NOTE
a Compare the meaning of must and have to in questions.
Must I write these letters now? (= Do you insist that I write them?)
Do I have to write these letters now? (= Is it necessary for me to write them?)
b We can also use be to for an order by a person in authority. • 76(2)
The doctor says I'm to go on a diet.
But have to is much more common than be to.
c Be obliged to and be required to also express necessity. Both expressions are rather formal. You are obliged to/are required to sign a declaration.
b 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.
c Musthas 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 afew changes.
I'm having to spend a lot of time travelling.
I wasn't expecting to have to look after the children.
It's nofun having to stand the whole journey.
You will have to pay thefull standard singlefare.

## 2 Have to and have got to

a 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.
b 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 gothere.

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.
c With have to, we use $d o$ 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'tgot to pay. Has the winnergot to make a speech?
For American English, • 303(5c).
In past simple negatives and questions we almost always use did... have to, not had... got to.
Didyou have to wait long?

## 3 No necessity

a 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 tolneed to match.
The figure doesn't have to/doesn't need to be exact.
NOTE
a Americans use don't/doesn't need to, not needn't. • 303(9)
b For This carpet needs cleaning, • 113(1).
c We can also use need as a noun, especially in the phrase no need. There's no need to get up early.
c 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 payfor the repairs.

## 4 Necessity not to do something

a We use mustn't to tell someone not to do something.
You mustn'tforget your railcard. We mustn't lose this game. The meaning is the same as Don'tforgetyour 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 oftime.
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. - 94(3)

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

## 93 Obligation and advice: should, ought to etc

## 1 Should and ought to

$a$ 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 leaveloughtn'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 leaveloughtn't to leave things until the last moment.
Who should we invite?/ Who ought we to invite ${ }^{\text {I }}$.
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.
b 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.)

## 2 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.
NOTE
With had better we normally use an indirect question rather than a direct one.
Do you think I'd better call a doctor?

## 3 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, Isee.
Is thisfood supposed to be kept cool? ~ Yes, put it in thefridge.
Thisjacket 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 badfor you.

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

## 1 Giving and refusing permission

a 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.
Anyperson over 18 years may/can apply tojoin the club.
b We use the negative forms cannot/can't and may not to refuse permission.
I'm afraid you can'tjust walk in here.
Customers may not bring their ownfood into this cafe.

## NOTE

Here are some other ways of refusing permission.
Tourists must not take money out of the country. - 92(4c)
Smoking is prohibited/is not permitted on school premises.
No picnics. (mainly written)

## 2 Asking permission

We use can, could or may to ask permission.
Can I take your umbrella? ~ Ofcourse you can.
Could I borrow this calculator, please? ~ Well, Ineed it actually.
May we come in?~ Ofcourse.

Here could means a more distant possibility than can and so is less direct, more tentative. May is rather formal.

```
NOTE
We can also use might to ask permission, but it is both formal and tentative.
    I was wondering if I might borrow your carfor the afternoon.
```


## 3 Talking about permission

a 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 mayhere because we are not giving or asking permission.
NOT Imay stay up late.
b 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?)
c 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 thefactory.
d 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.

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.

## 95 Certainty: will, must and can't

1 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.

NOTE
a In informal English we can sometimes use have (got) to for logical necessity. There has to/has got to be some mistake.
b We can also use be sure/bound to. Carl is sure tolis bound to be sitting in a cafe somewhere.
c For can't and mustn't in the USA, - 303(10).
2 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)
3 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 veryfamiliar. 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, • (5).
4 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)
5 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!

## 96 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 havelought 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.

[^7]
## 97 Possibility: may, might, can and could

GOING TO LONDON
Leon: I may drive up to London on Saturday. There are one or two things I need to do there.
Simon: I'd go early if I were you. The motorway can get very busy, even on a Saturday. You may get stuck in the traffic.
Leon: Well, I didn't want to go too early.
Simon: You could go on the train ofcourse.
Leon: Yes, that may not be a bad idea. Imight do that. Have you got a timetable? Simon: Imight have. I'lljust have a look.

## 1 May and might

a 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.

```
NOTE
a Might not has a short form.
That mightn't be a bad idea. But mayn't is very old-fashioned. We use may not.
b There are other ways of being less than certain in English.
Perhaps/Maybe the picture is valuable.
It's possible the picture is valuable./There's a possibility the picture is valuable.
This toaster seems to/appears to work all right.
I think that's a good idea.
We write the adverb maybe as one word.
```

b We do not often use may or might in questions.
Do you think you'll get the job?
c 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.
d 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 mefor all my trouble.
Could is also possible here.
e 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.

## 2 Can and could

a 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 ofmoney, I can/could sell myjewellery.
Can is stronger than could, which expresses a more distant possibility.
b 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 Igive you a lift?
c 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 haveforgotten 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.
e 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 canfeel lonely. (= They sometimes feel lonely.)
The motorway can get busy. (= It sometimes gets busy.)

## NOTE

Tend to has a similar meaning.
Americans tend to eat a lot ofmeat.
Dog owners tend to look like their dogs.
f Can't and couldn't express impossibility.
She can't be very nice ifno 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.)

## 3 Possibility in the past

May/might/could + perfect refers to something in the past that is possibly true.<br>Miranda may have missed the train.<br>(= Perhaps Miranda missed the train.)<br>The train might have been delayed.<br>(= Perhaps the train has been delayed.)<br>The letter could have got lost in the post.<br>(= It is possible that the letter has got lost in the post.)<br>NOTE<br>Could have done can also mean that a chance to do something was not taken. • 98(3d)<br>$I$ could have complained, but I decided not to.

## 98 Ability: can, could and be able to

## 1 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 couldfor 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/'kænpt/, written as one word. It has a short form can't/ka:nt/.
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.
NOTE
a With some verbs we can use a simple tense for ability.
I (can) speak French. We didn't/couldn't understand the instructions.
b For can/could expressing a perception, e.g. I can see a light, • 62(7).
2 Be able to
a 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 tofly an aeroplane.
b We use be able to (not can) in the perfect and the infinitive or ing-form.
Mr Fry has been illforyears. He hasn't been able to workfor some time.
It's nice to be able to relax.
Being able to speak the language is a great advantage.
c 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.

## 3 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.
b 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 ticketsfor the show?
NOTE
It is safer to use was/were able to when the question with could might be understood as a request. Could you get tickets? can be a request meaning 'Please get tickets'.
c 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.
d 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.
Icould have got tickets, but there were only very expensive ones left.
note
Could have done can also express a past action that possibly happened. • 97(3)
The murderer could have driven here and dumped the body. We don't know yet ifhe did.
e Could can also mean 'would be able to'.
I couldn't do yourjob. I'd be hopeless at it.
Thefactory could produce a lot more goods ifit was modernized.

## 99 Unreal situations: would

1 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 ifthey didn't have to.
For would with an if-clause, - 257(4).
For would looking forward from the past, • 80(2).
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.
I would point out that this has caused us some inconvenience.
3 We also use the expressions would like and would rather.
a 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 aroundfor 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.
NOTE
We can also use would sooner.
I'd sooner walk than hang aroundfor a bus.
4 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.

## 100 Habits: will, would and used to

## 1 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'sjust 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.

## 2 Used to

a 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.
Iused 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-Iuse to come herenow.
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?

## NOTE

Used as an auxiliary is rather old-fashioned and formal.
There used not to be so much crime. What kind ofbooks used you to read?
c 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'.

## 101 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.

## NOTE

a Americans mostly use the patterns with to.
b We use How dare... ?for an angry protest.
How dare you speak to me like that?
c I dare say means 'probably'.
I dare say you'llfeel better tomorrow.

## 102 Overview: the use of modal verbs

Deciding/Allowing/Telling

Deciding • 71
I'll have coffee.
Willingness • 71(5)
I'll helpyou.
Will you help me?
Formal order • 71 (9)
All pupils will attend.

Asking what to do • 71(7)
What shall I do?
Shall I help you?
Promise •71(8)
You shall have the money.
Formal rule • 71(9)
A game shall last one hour.

Request • 99(2)
Would you help me?
Willingness (past) • 80(2)
The baby wouldn't go to sleep.

Necessity • 92
You must be careful.

Prediction/Possibility<br>will<br>Prediction (future) • 71 (3)<br>Tom will be at home tomorrow.<br>Prediction (present) • 95<br>Tom will be at home now.<br>Prediction (habit) • 100(1)<br>Tom will always arrive late.

shall
Prediction (future) •71(2)
I/We shall be away next week.

## would

Prediction (unreal) • 99(1)
A holiday would be great.
Prediction (past) • 80(2)
The result would surprise us all. Prediction (past habit) • 100(1)

Tom would always arrive late.
must
Logical necessity • 95
You must be tired.

```
needn't
```

No necessity • 92(3)
You needn't hurry.
mustn't
Necessity not to do something.

- 92(4)

You mustn'tforget.

## 102 Overview: the use of modal verbs

Obligation/Advice - 93
You should work hard.

Obligation/Advice • 93
You ought to work hard.

Permission • 94
You may go now.
May I ask a question?

Request/Order • 97(1d)
You might help me.
should
Probability • 96
It should be fine tomorrow.
(In some sub clauses)
If the phone should ring, don't answer it. • 258
It is vital we should meet. • 242(2)
ought to
Probability • 96
It ought to be fine tomorrow.

## may

Possibility • 97
The plan may go wrong.
We may move house.
might
Possibility • 97
The plan might go wrong. We might move house.
can
Permission • 94
You can go now.
Can I ask a question?
Request • 97
Can you help me?
Offer • 97
Can I help you?
Suggestion - 97(2a)
We can meet later.

General possibility • 97(2e)
Maths can befun.
Impossibility • 95
The story can't be true.
Ability • 98
I can play the piano.
Opportunity • 98
We can watch TVin the evenings.
could
Possibility • 97
The plan could go wrong.
It's perfect. It couldn't go wrong.
Ability (past) • 98
could play the piano when I was five.
Ability (unreal) • 98 (3e)
take better photos if I had a better camera.
dare • 101
I didn't dare climb up.

## 13

## The passive

## 103 Summary

The use of the passive • 104
Compare the active and passive sentences.
Active: The secretary typed the report.
Passive: The report was typed (by the secretary).
When the person doing the action (the secretary) is the subject, we use an active verb. When the subject is what the action is directed at (the report), then we use a passive verb. We can choose to talk about the secretary and what he/she did, or about the report and what happened to it. This choice depends on what is old or new information in the context. Old information usually comes at the beginning of the sentence, and new information at the end.

In a passive sentence the agent can be the new and important information (...by the secretary.), or we can leave it out if it does not add any information. We say The report was typed because the fact that the typing is complete is more important than the identity of the typist.

The passive is often used in an official, impersonal style.

## Form

A passive verb has a form of be and a passive participle.
Tenses and aspects in the passive • 105
The letter was posted yesterday.

## Modal verbs in the passive • 106

All tickets must be shown.

## The passive with get • 107

Sometimes we use get instead of be.
The letter got lost in the post.

## Special patterns

The passive with verbs of giving - 108
The pupils were allgiven certificates.

## 104 The use of the passive

## The passive with verbs of reporting - 109

It is said that the company is bankrupt.
The company is said to be bankrupt.

## Passive + to-infinitive or active participle - 110

You were warned to take care.
A lot of time was spent arguing.
Patterns with have and get • 111
We use have/get something done for professional services.
I had/got the photos developed.

## The passive to-infinitive and gerund • 112

We don't want to be refused entry.
I hate being photographed.
Active forms with a passive meaning • 113
The sheets need washing.
I've got some shopping to do.
The oven cleans easily.
OVERVIEW: active and passive verb forms • 114

## 104 The use of the passive

## 1 The topic

Here are two paragraphs. One is about the scientist J.J. Thomson, and the other is about the electron.
THOMSON, SIR JOSEPH JOHN

| ELECTRON |
| :--- |
| (1846-1940) |
| British physicist and mathematician |
| and head ofa group ofresearchers at |
| the Cavendish Laboratory in |$\quad$| A subatomic particle and one of the |
| :--- |
| basic constituents ofmatter. The |
| electron was discovered by J.J. |


| Cambridge. Thomson discovered the |
| :--- |
| electron. He is regarded as the |
| Tounder ofmodern physics. |
| Thomson. It isfound in all atoms |
| and contains the smallest known |

Compare these two sentences, one from each paragraph.
Thomson discovered the electron.
The electron was discovered by

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.

```
NOTE
a Usually the agent is a person and the action is directed at a thing. But this is not always so.
    Lightning struck a golfer. A golfer was struck by lightning.
    Here the agent is lightning and the action is directed at a golfer. The agent can also be an
    abstract idea.
        Ambition drove the athletes to train hard. The athletes were driven by ambition.
b For The victim was struck with a sandbag, - 228(5).
```


## 2 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 putforward by the government.
The firstfootball 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.

## 3 Passive sentences without an agent

a In a passive sentence we mention the agent only if it is important new information. There is often no need to mention it.

A DAY IN THE LIFE OF THE WORLD
Every day your heart pumps enough blood to fill the fuel tanks of about 400 cars. The population of the world increases by about 200,000. Nine million cigarettes are smoked. 740,000 people fly offtoforeign countries.... In America 10,000 crimes are committed, and in Japan twenty million commuters cram into trains. In Russia 1.3 million telegrams are sent.... 200,000 tons offish are caught and 7,000 tons of wool are sheared offsheep.

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.

## NOTE

We use the verb bear (a child) mainly in the passive and without an agent. Charles Dickens was born in Portsea.
b The agent may not be relevant to the message.
A large number ofSherlock 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.
d 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.

## 4 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: $\quad$ Nothing can be done about it.
Active: We/People use electricityfor all kinds ofpurposes.
Passive: Electricity is usedfor all kinds ofpurposes.
Active: They're building some new houses.
Passive: $\quad$ Some new houses are being built.

## 5 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.
a 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.
Ifsulphur is heated, a number of changes can be seen.
b To describe historical and social processes
A new political party wasformed.
Thousands ofnew homes have been built.
A lot ofmoney 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.

## 6 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.

- 105(3)

We ran over a cat./The cat was run over.
b 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: $\quad$ The decorator measured the wall.
Action \& passive: $\quad$ 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.

## 105 Tenses and aspects in the passive

The lowest monthly death toll on French roadsfor 30 years was announced by the Transport Ministry for the month of August. The results were seen as a direct triumphfor 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 ofdrugs were hidden in blocks of chocolate aboard an American ship that docked in Port Newark, NewJersey, from Ecuador.

1 A passive verb has a form of $b e$ and a passive participle. $B e$ 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)

NOTE For get instead of be, • 107.
a Simple tenses (simple form of $b e+$ passive participle)
Large numbers ofpeople are killed on the roads.
The drugs werefound by the police.
b The perfect (perfect of $b e+$ passive participle)
Cocaine has been seized by the FBI.
The drugs had been loaded onto the ship in Ecuador.
c The continuous (continuous of be + passive participle)
The case is being called 'the chocolate connection'.
Three men were being questioned by detectives last night.
d 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.
For other modal verbs, • 106.
2 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 notfound by customs officers.
The law hasn't been changed.
Question: Where were the drugsfound?
Has the law been changed?
note
We use by in a question about the agent.
Who were the drugsfound by?
3 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 madefun of.

4 We can sometimes use a participle as a modifier, like an adjective: a broken vase, - 137. We can also put the participle after be. The vase was broken can express either a state or an action.

State:
(be + complement)
Action:
(passive verb)

The vase was broken. It lay in pieces on thefloor, The drugs were hidden in the ship. They were in blocks of chocolate.
The vase was broken by a guest. He knocked it over. The drugs were hidden (by the gang) and then loaded onto the ship.

NOTE The vase got broken expresses an action. - 107

## 106 Modal verbs in the passive

1 We can use the passive with a modal verb (or an expression like have to). The pattern is modal verb $+b e+$ 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.
NOTE
For an adjective ending in ablelible meaning that something 'can be done', • 285(4i).
Stamps are obtainable at any post office.
2 A modal verb can also go with the perfect and the passive together. The pattern is modal verb + have been + passive participle.

I can'tfind that piece ofpaper. It must have been thrown away.
The plane might have been delayed by thefog.
This bill ought to have been paid weeks ago.

## 107 The passive with get

1 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 $b e$. 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 $d o$ 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, getshaved, 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 myselfetc. But we can use wash etc in the active without an object.

There wasn't much time to wash and change.
NOTE For I got my hair cut, • 111.
3 After get there can be an adjective in ed.
I'djust got interested in thefilm 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.

## 108 The passive with verbs of giving

1 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)
2 Here are two ways in which a court case about paying damages might be reported.
MILLION POUND DAMAGES AWARDED
$£ 1$ million pound damages were awarded in the High Court in London yesterday to a cyclist who was left completely paralysed after a road accident. The damages are the highest ever paid to a road accident victim in a British court.
CYCLIST AWARDED MILLION POUNDS
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 ajob.
We were told all the details. The residents will befound 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 |  |

## 109 The passive with verbs of reporting

There are two special patterns with verbs of reporting.
Active: $\quad$ They say that elephants have good memories.
Passive: It is said that elephants have good memoriesElephants are said to have good memories.

There is an example of each pattern in this paragraph.

## STONEHENGE

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 ofhuman sacrifice, but this is not infact so. The stones were put up long before the Druids came to Britain.

## $1 I t+$ 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 nextyear.
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 |  |

## 2 Subject + passive verb + to-infinitive

Compare these patterns.
Pattern 1: It is thought that Stonehenge dates from about 1900 BC.
Pattern 2: $\quad$ 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 thefrontier.
The prisoner is known to have behaved violently in the past.
Stonehenge is thought to have been built over a period of500 years.

## 110 Passive + to-infinitive or active participle

## NOTE

We can use the pattern with the subject there.
There is considered to be little chance of the plan succeeding.

## $3 I t+$ passive verb + to-infinitive

Active: $\quad$ 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.

## 4 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 thefrontier.
The theory has been shown by scientists to be correct.
It was agreed by the committee to support the idea.

## 110 Passive + to-infinitive or active participle

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

## 1 Infinitive

a 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,

- 122(2a); and verbs like force, allow, - 122(2b).

NOTE
We can also use a finite clause after the passive verb.
Drivers are advised that an alternative route should be used.
b Active: The terrorists made the hostages lie down.
Passive: $\quad$ 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.

NOTE
We do not often use let in the passive. We use be allowed to instead.
The hostages were allowed to talk to each other.

## 2 Active participle

Active: $\quad$ The detective saw the woman putting thejewellery in her bag.
Passive: The woman was seen putting the jewellery in her bag.
Active: $\quad$ The officials kept us waitingfor halfan 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.

## 3 Overview

$$
\text { With a participle } \quad \text { With an infinitive }
$$

Active Someone saw him running away. Someone saw him run away. Passive He was seen running away. He was seen to run away.

## 111 Patterns with have and get

1 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.
Igot 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.

## 2 The passive: have/get + object + passive participle

This pattern means 'cause something to be done'.
I had my car serviced.
Igot 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 thejob 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.

```
NOTE
a Compare these two patterns with had.
    had something done: We had a burglar alarm fitted (by a security company) some
                                time ago.
    Past perfect: We hadfitted a burglar alarm (ourselves) some time before that.
b We can use get informally meaning 'cause oneself to do something' or 'get on with a job'.
        I must get my homework done. We finally got everything packed into suitcases.
    Here it is the subject (1, we) who must do the homework and who packed the suitcases.
```


## 3 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.

## 112 The passive to-infinitive and gerund

## 1 Forms

|  | Active | Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| To-infinitive | to play | to be played |
| Perfect to-infinitive | to have played | to have been played |
| Gerund | playing <br> having played | being played <br> having been played |

The passive forms end with a passive participle (played).
NOTE
Passive forms can sometimes have get instead of be. - 107
I don't expect to get invited to the wedding. Let's not risk getting caught in a traffic jam.

## 2 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.
NOTE
After decide and agree we use a finite clause with should. - 242(2)
We decided that the rubbish should be cleared away.
After arrange we can use a to-infinitive pattern with for. We arrangedfor the rubbish to be cleared away.
b Perfect to-infinitive
I'd like this rubbish to have been cleared away when I get back.
c Gerund
Being searched by customs officers is unpleasant.
Let's not risk being caught in a traffic jam. I was afraid ofbeing laughed at.
The government tried to stop the book being published.
NOTE
After suggest, propose, recommend and advise we use a finite clause with should. • 242(2) The Minister proposed that the book should be banned.
d Perfect gerund
I'm annoyed at having been made afool of.

## 3 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 $I$.

## 113 Active forms with a passive meaning

## 1 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.

## 2 To-infinitive

a 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.

## NOTE

We do not normally use the passive infinitive for leisure activities.
There are lots ofexciting things to do here.
b 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.)

## NOTE

Compare ready and due.
The meal was ready to serve/to be served at eight.
The meal was due to be served at eight.

## 3 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.

## 114 Overview: active and passive verb forms



## 14

## The infinitive

## 115 Summary

## Infinitive forms • 116

An infinitive can be a bare infinitive (e.g. play) or a to-infinitive (e.g. to play). There are also perfect and continuous forms.

## Infinitive clauses • 117

We can put an object or adverbial after the infinitive.
I want to play some records now.

## The to-infinitive as subject and complement •118

To break your promise would be wrong.
It would be wrong to break your promise.
The object of the game is to score the most points.

## The to-infinitive expressing purpose and result •119

I came here to get some information. We got home to find visitors on the doorstep.

Verb + to-infinitive - 120
I hope to see you again soon.

## To-infinitive or gerund after a verb • 121

I wanted to play./I enjoyed playing.
Verb + object + to-infinitive - 122
My parents have invited us to visit them.
Adjective + to-infinitive - 123
It's nice to see you.
Noun phrase + to-infinitive • 124
I haven't got anything to wear.
Question word + to-infinitive • 125
I didn't know what to do.

For and of with a to-infinitive - 126
It's usual for guests to bring flowers. It was kind of you to help.

Patterns with the bare infinitive - 127
You could walk round the earth in a year. I'd better put this cream in the fridge. The ride made mefeel sick.

## 116 Infinitive forms

1
Simple
Perfect
Continuous
Perfect + continuous
Bare infinitive To-infinitive

> to play
to have played
to be playing
to have been playing

For the passive, e.g. to be played, • 112.
2 A simple infinitive is the base form of a verb, with or without to.
Bare infinitive: $\quad I^{\prime} d$ 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.

3 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 trafficjam.
The man appeared to have been drinking.
We cannot use a past form.
NOT I'd like to saw it.
4 A simple infinitive refers to the same time as in the main clause.
I'm pleased to meetyou.
(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.)

5 In the negative, not comes before the infinitive.
I'd rather not sit at the front.
I'd prefer not to sit at thefront.
NOTE
It can make a difference whether the main verb or the infinitive is negative.
I told you not to go. (= I told you to stay.)
Ididn't tell you to go. (= I didn't say 'Go'.)
6 To can stand for an infinitive clause. •39(1)
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 $t o$.
I'm going to go out and have a good time.

## 117 Infinitive clauses

1 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

NOTE
An adverb can sometimes go before the infinitive. Compare the position of suddenly in these clauses.

I didn't expect you to change your mind suddenly.
I didn't expect you suddenly to change your mind.
It can also sometimes go between to and the verb.
I didn't expect you to suddenly change your mind.
This is called a 'split infinitive' because the infinitive to change is split by the word suddenly. Split infinitives are common usage, although some people regard them as incorrect. In general, it is safer to avoid them if you can, especially in writing. But sometimes we need to split the infinitive to show that the adverb modifies it.

Wo one claims to really understand what is happening.
The government is planning to secretly test a new and more powerful weapon.
This makes it clear that we mean a real understanding (not a real claim), and that the test is secret (not just the plan).

2 A preposition comes in its normal place, usually after a verb or adjective.
Your meals are all you have to payfor.
There's nothing to get excited about.
Ineed a vase to put these flowers in.
NOTE
In more formal English we can begin the clause with a preposition and relative pronoun.
Less formal: I need some information to base the article on.
More formal: I need some information on which to base the article.

## 118 The to-infinitive as subject and complement

1 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. - 50(5)

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.
2 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.
NOTE For be to, e.g. Everyone is to attend, • 76.

## 119 The to-infinitive expressing purpose and result

1 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.
NOTE
a In informal British English we use the forms go and/come and rather than go to/come to. I'll go andfetch a hammer. Come and have a look at this.
Americans say I'll gofetch a hammer.
b After going or coming we use a to-infinitive.
Mark is coining to look at the photos.
2 We can sometimes use a to-infinitive clause to express result, although this use is rather literary.

Laura came home tofind 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 arrivedfor the concert (only) to find it had been cancelled.
3 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.

## 120 Verb + to-infinitive

1 We can use a to-infinitive after some verbs.
Iplan to visit India next year.
People are refusing to pay the new tax.
We hope to be moving into our newflat soon.
We expect to have completed the work by the summer.
For a list of these verbs and of verbs taking a gerund, • 121 .

```
NOTE
The to-infinitive clause is the object of the main verb. Compare these sentences.
    I wanted to play.
    I wanted a game.
But some verbs take a preposition before a noun.
        We decided to play tennis.
        We decided on a game of tennis.
```

2 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. - 50(5c)
Itseemed (that) the plane was losing height.
The object of the to-infinitive can be subject of a passive sentence.
Active: $\quad$ Someone seems to have stolen the computer.
Passive: The computer seems to have been stolen.

3 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).

## 121 To-infinitive or gerund after a verb

## 1 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.

## 121 To-infinitive or gerund after a verb



[^8]
## 2 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 takelintend taking immediate action.
These verbs are begin, bother, can't bear, cease, commence, continue, hate, intend, like, love, prefer, propose, start.

```
NOTE
a With verbs of liking and hating, sometimes the gerund gives a sense of the action really
    happening, while the infinitive often points to a possible action.
            I hate doing the same thing all the time. It gets really boring sometimes.
            I'd hate to do the same thing all the time. I'm lucky myjob is so interesting.
    Like, love and hate usually take a gerund, but would like, would love and would hate
    normally take a to-infinitive.
            I love swimming. I swim nearly every day.
            I'd love to gofor a swim. It's such a lovely day.
b Like takes a to-infinitive when it means that something is a good idea, rather than a
    pleasure.
            I like to keep all these papers in order.
    Compare these two sentences.
        I didn't like to complain. (= I didn't complain because it wasn't a good idea.)
        I didn't like complaining. (= I complained, but I didn't enjoy it.)
c When the main verb has a continuous form, we normally avoid using another ing-form
    after it.
        The spectators were already beginning to arrive. NOT beginning arriving
d After start, begin and continue, a state verb usually has the to-infinitive form.
        I soon began to understand what the problems were.
e Commence and cease are formal. For stop, - (3e).
f Bother is normally in a negative sentence or question.
        Don't bother to wash/bother washing up.
```


## 3 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?
Youforgot to sign the cheque. ~Oh, sorry.
We use a gerund to talk about memories of the past.
I'll neverforget breaking down in the middle ofGlasgow. It was awful.
I don't know. I can't remember turning it off.
NOTE
We can use a finite clause instead of a gerund clause. I'll neverforget (the time) when we broke down. I can't remember if/whether I turned it off.
b 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 lastyear.
Compare patterns with sorry. - 132(5b) Note h
c We use dread + to-infinitive mainly in the expression I dread to think/imagine... We use a gerund for something that causes fear.

Idread to think what might happen to you all alone in a big city.
I always dreaded being kissed by my aunts.
d 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?

## NOTE

In informal English we can use try and instead of try to.
Let's try and move the cupboard away from the wall.
e 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.
f 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 yourfoot.
I have to be at the airport by nine. It means getting up early.
g 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.
h 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. - 113(1)

The typewriter needs/wants cleaning.

## 122 Verb + object + to-infinitive

1 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.

## NOTE

a Compare the infinitive without a subject.
I expected to see Dave. (= I expected (that) I would see Dave.)
b We can often use a passive infinitive.
I expected to be met. (= I expected (that) I would be met.)
c Sometimes the main clause in this pattern can be passive.
Dave was expected to meet me.
d For the pattern with for, e.g. I waitedfor Dave to ring, • 126.

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

NOTE
a A finite clause is possible, but it is sometimes a little formal.
We persuaded our neighbours that they should turn the music down.
b We cannot use suggest in this pattern.
NOT We suggested our neighbours to turn the music down.
We use a finite clause instead.
We suggested (to our neighbours) that they might turn the music down.
c The main clause can be passive.
Our neighbours were persuaded to turn the music down.
b Verbs meaning 'cause' or 'help'
The crisis hasforced 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.

## NOTE

a We can use a finite clause after require and intend, but it is a little formal.
We never intended that the information should be made public.
A finite clause after allow, permit or forbid is not very usual.
NOT The university allows that students change their subject.
b We can use there as the subject of the infinitive clause. It is rather formal.
The regulations permit there to be no more than two hundred people in the hall.
c The main clause can be passive.
The government has beenforced to act.
But cause and get cannot be passive before an infinitive.
d For get in this pattern, e.g. I got Mike to lend me his electric drill, • 111(1).
e After help we can leave out to.
I'm helping myfriend (to) find aflat.
c 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.

NOTE
a All these verbs can have a finite clause after them.
The police believed (that) the Mafia had committed the crime.
b We often use the infinitive to be in this pattern. We can sometimes leave out to be, especially after declare, believe, consider and find.

The country declared itself (to be) independent.
c We can use consider but not regard.
We consider ourselves (to be) a separate nation.
We regard ourselves as a separate nation.
d We can use there as the subject of the infinitive clause.
We understood there to be money available.
e The passive pattern is more common than the active. - 109
The Mafia were believed to have committed the crime.
We can use say and think in the passive pattern but not in the active.
d Verbs of wanting and liking
I want everyone to enjoy themselves.
I'd like you to hold the door openfor me.
We can use want, wish, (would) like, (would) love, (would) prefer, (would) hate and can't bear.

NOTE
a With most of these verbs we cannot use a finite clause.
NOT I want that everyone enjoys themselves.
b We can use there as the subject of the infinitive clause. This is rather formal. We'd prefer there to be an adult in charge.
c After like, love, prefer and hate we can use it when/if + clause.
7 hate it when you ignore me. My aunt would love it if we took her outfor a drive.
d The main clause cannot be passive.
NOT Everyone is wanted to enjoy themselves.
But the infinitive can be passive. I'd like the door to be held open.

## 123 Adjective + to-infinitive

## 1 The pattern It was easy to write the letter

A common pattern is $i t+$ 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.
Itfelt 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

## 2 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.

## NOTE

We can use impossible in this pattern, but we cannot use possible.
The problem is impossible to solve.

## 3 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.

## 4 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.
NOTE
Compare very, too and enough in the adjective + noun pattern (Pattern 3).
It's a very difficult problem to solve.
It's too difficult a problem to solve in your head.
It's a difficult enough problem to keep a whole team ofscientists busy.

## 5 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 tofind 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
NOTE
a After some of these adjectives we can use a preposition + gerund: happy about writing the letter. • 132(4)
b Compare these patterns with an adjective expressing a personal quality. Pattern 1: It was mean (of you) not to leave a tip.
Pattern 5: You were mean not to leave a tip.
c We can use quick and slow to express manner.
The government has been quick to act. (= The government has acted quickly.)

## 6 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.

## 124 Noun phrase + to-infinitive

## 1 The pattern the need to write

a 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 atJerry'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 <br> choice | failure | promise | wish |
|  |  |  |  |

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. • 132(7)
There's no hope of getting there in time.

## 2 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 ofpatients to see.
The to-infinitive clause here is shorter and neater than the finite clause with have to or can.

## NOTE

a For letters to be written, • 113(2).
b Compare these sentences.
I have some work to do. (= I have/There is some work that I need to do.)
I have to do some work. (= I must do/I need to do some work.)
Other patterns with a noun phrase + to-infinitive
For the pattern with it, e.g. It's a good idea to wear safety glasses, 118 .
For patterns with for and of, e.g. It's bestfor people to make their own arrangements, • 126.
For the first person to leave, • 277.

## 125 Question word + to-infinitive

1 We can use a question word or phrase before a to-infinitive.
Ijust 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'.

NOTE
a We cannot use why in this pattern,
b We can use whether but not if.
I was wondering whether to ring you. We'll have to decide whether to go (or not).
c After what, which, whose, how many and how much we can use a noun.
Ididn't know whatsize to buy. The driver wasn'tsure which way to go.
2 Here are some verbs that we can use before the question word:


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 ofhow much luggage to take.
note
To report instructions about how something should be done, we use tell/show someone how toorteachsomeone(how)to.
Maureen told me how to turn on the heating. Ididn't know how to do it.
Compare an indirect order.
Maureentoldme to turn on the heating. She felt cold.

## 126 For and of with a to-infinitive

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

## 2 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 anxiousfor 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 |  |  |  |

## 3 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 workforyou to finish today.
The kitchen is too smallfor the wholefamily to eat in.
The light wasn't shining brightly enoughfor anyone to notice it.

## 4 The pattern It's a good ideafor you to finish

It's a good ideafor you tofinish the course and get a qualification.
It's a nuisancefor tourists to have to get visas.
We can use some nouns, e.g. advantage, demand, disadvantage, disaster, idea, mistake, nuisance, plan.

```
NOTE
We can also use some nouns related to the verbs and adjectives in Patterns 1 and 2.
I've made arrangementsfor someone to take photos.
He couldn't hide his anxietyfor the matter to be settled.
```


## 5 The pattern It's nice of you to finish

It's nice ofyou to finish the jobfor 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.

## NOTE

Compare these sentences.
It was nice of Tom to take the dogfor a walk.
(Nice expressing a personal quality: it was a kind action by Tom.)
It was nicefor Tom to take the dogfor a walk.
(It was a pleasant experience for Tom.)

## 6 For expressing purpose

There are telephonesfor drivers to callfor help if they break down.
Forplants to grow properly, you have to water them regularly.

## 127 Patterns with the bare infinitive

1 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.

## 2 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.

## 3 Verb + object + bare infinitive

a 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. • 111(1)
NOTE
Force, allow and get take a to-infinitive.
The officialforced me to fill in aform.
The headmaster allowed the pupils to go home early. I'll get the porter to bring up your luggage.
b 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, • 140(1b).
c When the pattern with the bare infinitive is made passive, we always use a to-infinitive. • 110(1b)

The men were seen to leave the building at half past six.

## 4 Other patterns

a After except and but (= except) we normally use a bare infinitive.
Asfor the housework, I do everything except cook.
You've done nothing butgrumble all day.
b 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.
c For Why worry?, • 26(5).

## 15

## The gerund

## 128 Summary

Gerund forms • 129
A gerund is an ing-form, e.g. walking.
Walking is good for you.

## Gerund clauses • 130

We can put an object or adverbial after the gerund.
I like having friends roundfor coffee.
The gerund can also have a subject.
I don't mind you/your having friends round.

## Some patterns with the gerund •131

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 - 132
I apologizedfor being late.
Are you interested in buying this car?
I ran all the way home without stopping.
Determiner + gerund • 133
The dancing went on late into the night.

## 129 Gerund forms

Active Passive

| Simple | playing | being played |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Perfect | having played | having been played |

For examples of the passive, • 112 .

2 A simple gerund is the ing-form of a verb, e.g. meeting, dancing, jogging.
It was nice meeting you.
Dancing is not allowed.
NOTE
a There are some spelling rules for the ing-form.
Leaving out $e$ : lose losing • 292(1)
Doubling of some consonants: stop stopping - 293
b An ing-form can be a gerund or an active participle, depending on how we use it in a sentence.
Gerund: Jogging is goodfor you.
Participle: We watched the studentsjogging round the campus.
But in some contexts it may be difficult to say whether an ing-form is a gerund or participle, and it is not always important to know the difference. Remember that using the form correctly is more important than naming it.

3 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.
4 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 sillyjokes.

## 130 Gerund clauses

1 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 mefeel uneasy.

## note

a For letter-writing, sky-diving, • 283(3).
b An adverb can sometimes come before the gerund rather than after it. We didn't want to risk completely spoiling the evening.

2 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 inconvenientyou/your coming in late.
Do you mind me/my sitting here?
I'mfed 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.

## 131 Some patterns with the gerund

## 131 Some patterns with the gerund

## 1 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. • 50(5)
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.

## 2 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 greatfun skiing down a mountain.
NOTE
a After use, experience, nuisance and fun we can also use a to-infinitive.
b There are also these patterns with worth. It might be worth it to take the guided tour. $\quad$ The guided tour might be worth taking.
b We can use there with problem/difficulty and a gerund.
There won't be any problem parking.
c 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.

## 3 Gerund clause as complement after he

Jeremy's hobby is inventing computer games.
What I sufferfrom is not being able to sleep.

## 4 Verb + gerund

a We can use a gerund after some verbs.
Someone suggested going for a walk. Do you mind waiting a moment?
I can't helpfeeling depressed sometimes. Imagine never having been abroad. For a list of verbs taking the gerund or to-infinitive, $\bullet 121$.
b Sometimes we can use a finite clause. - 262(1)
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.

## 5 Verb + object + gerund

I hate people laughing at me.
The arrangements involve you/your giving everyone a lift. • 130(2)
How can theyjustify 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 |  |  |  |
| Note |  |  |  |  |
| For an object + infinitive after some verbs of wanting and liking, | 122(2d). |  |  |  |
| I hate people to laugh at me. |  |  |  |  |

## 132 Preposition + gerund

## 1 Introduction

a 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 thefreedom to choose.
My husband isn't very good at cooking.
It's just a matter of filling in a form.
b 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 goodfor you as swimming.
We can also use a gerund after as well as, instead of without etc. • (8)

## 2 The pattern I succeeded in finding out

Jake is thinking ofselling 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)agreewith | carefor | insist on | resort to |
| aim at | confess to | object to | succeed in |
| apologizefor | count on | payfor | think of |
| (dis)approve of | depend on | put up with | votefor |
| 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 sofar.

With most of the verbs in this pattern, the gerund can have a subject.
Sue insists on everyone reading the letter.

## 3 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 ofconcealing important information.
We can use:

| accuse | ...of | deter... from | forgive... | for | stop... | from |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| blame... for | discourage... from | prevent... | from | strike ...as |  |  |
| charge... with | excuse... for | punish... | for | thank... | for |  |
| congratulate | ...on | excuse... from | remind ...of | use... | for |  |

a We can also use verbs with about, e.g. tell, inform, warn.
Iwarned youaboutleavingyour moneyaround.
b In the passive, the preposition comes directly after the verb.
Thegovernmentisaccusedof concealing importantinformation.

## 4 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 | capable of | grateful for | responsiblefor |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amazed at | content with | guilty of | satisfied with |
| angry about/at | dependent on | happy about/with | sorryabout/for |
| annoyed about/at | different from/to | interested in | successful in |
| anxious about | exited about/at | keen on | surprised at |
| ashamed of | famous for | nervous of | used to $\cdot 100(2 \mathrm{c})$ |
| aware of | fed up with | pleased about/with | worried about |
| bad at | fond of | readyfor | wrong with |
| bored with | good at |  |  |

## 5 Forjoining and tojoin

a After some verbs and adjectives we can use either a preposition + gerund or a to-infinitive, with no difference in meaning.

The people votedforjoining/voted tojoin the European Community.
We can use these expressions:
aim at doing/to do
amazed at finding/to find angry atfinding/to find annoyed at finding/to find content with being/to be grateful for having/to have
payfor having/to have readyfor taking/to take satisfied with being/to be thankful for having/to have surprised at finding/to find votefor doing/to do
b But sometimes the to-infinitive has a different meaning from the preposition + gerund. Details are in the notes below.

```
NOTE
a Agree with means to think that something is right, but agree to means to make a decision.
    I don't agree with cutting down trees. I think it's wrong.
    We all agreed to meet the next day.
b We use tell... about and remind... of to report statements and thoughts.
    I told you about losing my credit card, didn't I?
    This reminds me ofclimbing Ben Nevis years ago.
    But tell/remind someone to do something reports an order or reminder.
        I told you to keep that card safe.
        Why didn't you remind me to bring a compass?
c Keen on/interested in usually means a general interest, but keen to/interested to means a
    wish to do a particular thing.
        Simon is keen on cycling/interested in cycling. He does quite a lot ofit.
        Simon is keen to go on the trip. He's never cycled in Scandinavia before.
        Simon was interested to hear about your cycle tour.
d Happy about and pleased about express pleasure. We can also use a to-infinitive.
        Sam was pleased about winning/pleased to win a prize.
    Happy to and pleased to are also often used in polite statements.
        I'm pleased to meet you. We shall be pleased to accept your offer.
e Afraid to can only express unwillingness caused by fear. Afraid of can have the same
    meaning, or it can express fear about what might happen.
        Many old people are afraid to cross/afraid ofcrossing the road in case they have an
        accident.
        Many old people are afraid ofhaving an accident when they cross the road.
        NOT afraid to have an accident
f Anxious to means 'wanting to', but anxious about means 'worried about'.
    I'm anxious to get this business settled quickly.
    Rodney was anxious about making a mistake.
g Ashamed of expresses shame about something. Ashamed to expresses unwillingness
    caused by shame.
    I do feel rather ashamed of having told Lucy a lie.
    I don't think Rex can afford to pay us back, but I expect he's ashamed to admit it.
h Sorry about/for or sorry to have done expresses an apology for an earlier action. Sorrywith a
    simple to-infinitive expresses an apology for a present action.
    I'm sorry for causing/sorry to have caused all that trouble yesterday.
    Sorry to disturb you, but can I have a word?
    We also use sorry with a simple to-infinitive to express regret about what we say or hear.
    I'm sorry to have to say this, but your work isfarfrom satisfactory.
    I was sorry to hear your bad news.
```


## 6 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 lookforward to seeing you soon. (look forward to + gerund)
We can also put a noun phrase after the preposition to.
I lookforward to next weekend.
We can use a gerund (but not an infinitive) with the verbs admit to, confess to, face up to, lookforward 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.

NOTE For used to do and used to doing, • 100(2c).

## 7 The pattern my success in finding out

Some verbs and adjectives can take a preposition + gerund, e.g. succeed in doing, gratefulfor having. We can also use a preposition + gerund after a related noun.

I noticed Jeffs success in getting the price reduced.
We expressed our gratitudefor having had the opportunity.
Some other nouns can also take a preposition + gerund.
How would you like the idea ofliving in a caravan?
There's a small advantage in movingfirst.
We can use these expressions:
advantage of/in
aim of/in
amazement at anger about/at annoyance about/at
anxiety about
apologyfor
awareness of
belief in
boredom with
danger of/in
difficulty (in)
effectof
excitement about/at
expense of/in
par of
gratitudefor
idea of
insistence on
interest in
job of
matter of
objection to
pleasure offin
point of/in
possibility of
problem offin
prospect of
purpose of/in
question about/of
reasonfor
satisfaction with
success in
surprise at
task of
work of
worry about

## 8 The pattern before leaving

a Please switch off the lights before leaving.
Instead oflanding 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 stillfeel tired in spite of having slept eight hours.
Despite your reminding me, Iforgot.
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 | infavour of | through |
| as well as | despite | in spite of | what about |
| because of | for | instead of | with |
| before | how about | on | without |

Note
a A similar pattern is conjunction + participle. - 139(3)
Although having slept eight hours, I stillfeel tired.
b $O n$ and in have special meanings in this pattern.
On turning the corner, I saw a most unexpected sight.
(=As soon as I had turned the corner,...)
In building a new motorway, they attracted new industry to the area.
(=As a result of building a new motorway,...)
c We cannot use a passive participle.
The new drug was put on the market after being approved by the government.
NOT after approved and NOT after been approved
b We cannot use a finite clause or a to-infinitive after a preposition. NOT instead of we landed and NOT instead ofto land

NOTE
a For in spite of/despite thefact that, • 246(4).
b We can use a to-infinitive instead of for to express purpose. • 252(3)
These pages arefor making/are to make notes on.

## 133 Determiner + gerund

## 1 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 newjob, but the driving makes her tired.
This constant arguing gets on my nerves.
I'd like to find timefor 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)
NOTE
a We can use an adjective before a gerund.
My boss was fined for dangerous driving.
b A gerund is usually an uncountable noun, but we can sometimes use $a / a n$ or add a plural $s$.
I could hear a scratching under the floorboards.
The hostages suffered several beatings.
c A gerund means an action.
Crossing the road here is dangerous. Building is a skilledjob. But there are also some nouns ending in ing which mean physical objects. These nouns can be plural.

We had to wait at the crossing. The square is surrounded by tall buildings.
d For a driving lesson, • 283(2).
e For do the shopping and go shopping, • 138(2).

## 2 The pattern the driving ofheavy lorries

a A gerund clause can have an object.
An important part ofour 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 ofour work is the keeping ofrecords.
The playing ofball games is prohibited.
This pattern with of can be rather formal and is typical of an official, written style.
note
Sometimes a noun phrase after of is the understood subject.
I was disturbed by the ringing ofthe telephone. (The telephone was ringing.)
b Instead of a gerund, we often use other abstract nouns in this pattern. • 149(3) the management of small businesses the education of young children
Here management and education are more usual than managing and educating.

## 16

## Participles

## 134 Summary

## Participle forms - 135

A participle can be an ing-form like playing (active participle), or a form like played, written (past or passive participle).

## Participle clauses • 136

We can put an object or adverbial after the participle.
Katefell 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.
note
For participles in finite verb phrases, • 60 .
have + past participle: My watch has stopped.
$b e+$ active participle: The train was stopping.
$b e+$ passive participle: We were stopped by a policeman.
For There was a bag lying/left on the table, • 50(3).
For The bag lying/left on the table is Sadie's, • 276.

## 135 Participle forms

Active
playing Simple played Continuous being played
having been played
Passive

Perfect having played Past played

2 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. • 129(2)
3 A passive or past participle is a form such as covered, annoyed, broken, left.
Although covered by insurance, Tom was annoyed about the accident.
Istepped on some broken glass.
There were two parcels left on the doorstep.
A regular form ends in ed. For irregular forms, - 300.
4 A passive participle can be simple or continuous.
Simple: $\quad$ They wanted the snow cleared away.
Continuous: We saw the snow being cleared away.
5 A participle can also be perfect.
Having waited an hour, the crowd were getting impatient.
Having been delayedfor an hour, the concert started at nine o'clock.
6 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.

## 136 Participle clauses

1 A participle clause can be just a participle on its own.
Everyonejust 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 sawa policeman someone chasing.
NOTE For adverb + participle + noun, e.g. rapidly rising inflation, • 137(2).
2 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.)
NOTE
The understood subject is usually the same as in the main clause.
Walking across the field, we saw a plane fly past.
(= As we were walking..., we saw...)
We cannot use a main clause without we, the understood subject of the participle.
NOT Walking across the field, a plane flew past.
This suggests that the plane was walking across the field, which is nonsense.
Now look at this example.
Sitting at a table, the band playedfor them.
This might lead to a misunderstanding because it suggests that the band was sitting at a table.
The following sentence is correct.
Sitting at a table, they listened to the band.
(= As they were sitting..., they listened...)

Here the understood subject of the participle is the same as the subject of the main clause.
But sometimes the subjects can be different when there is no danger of misunderstanding.
Knowing how little time she had, this new delay infuriated her.
(= Because she knew..., she was infuriated ...)
When adjusting the machine, the electricity supply should be disconnected.
(= When you adjust..., you should disconnect...)
Here the understood subject of the participle can also be understood as the subject of the main clause.
The subjects do not need to be the same when we use following (= after), considering ( $=$ in view of) and regarding (= about).

Following the lecture, we were able to ask questions.
Considering the awful weather, our Open Day was a great success.
No action has been taken regarding your complaint.
The subjects can also be different with strictly speaking, having said that and talking of. • 139(7)

## 137 Participle + noun

1 We can use an active or passive participle before a noun.
Active: $\quad$ Boiling water turns to steam. (= water which is boiling) The team was welcomed by cheering crowds.
Passive: Ihad 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 aneatingdog.

```
NOTE
a Be+ passive participle can express either a state or an action. - 105(4)
    State: The terrorists' car was stolen. It wasn't theirs.
    Action: The car was stolen two days before the incident.
b For adjectives in ing and ed, e.g. amusing and amused, - }203
```

2 Sometimes we put an adverb before the participle. fanatically cheering crowds properly trained staff
We can also form compounds with adverbs or nouns. afast-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, • 276.

```
NOTE
```

Some participles can have a negative prefix. an unsmilingface a disconnected telephone

3 We can use a few past participles in this pattern. the escaped prisoner a retired teacher fallen rocks

## NOTE

a Compare the passive and past participles.
Passive: the injured prisoner (The prisoner has been injured.)
Past: the escaped prisoner (The prisoner has escaped.)
b For special participle forms, e.g. a sunken ship, • 301.

4 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)

## 138 Verb + participle

## 1 The pattern We stood watching

We can use a participle after stand, sit, lie, go and run.
The wholefamily stood waving in the road.
Karen sat at the table reading a newspaper.
The girl lay trapped under the wreckagefor three days.
People ran screamingfor help.
The two actions, for example the standing and the waving, happen at the same time.

## NOTE

We also use busy + active participle. Angela was busy doing the accounts.

## 2 Go shopping and do the shopping

a 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 goesjogging every morning.
b 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?
NOTE
Go shopping usually means leisure shopping, for example for clothes. Do the shopping usually means buying food.
c 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.
Jeffdoes a lot ofcooking, doesn't he?
I don't do much fishing these days.
I'm afraid we've got a lot oftidying up to do.
We can also use $d o+$ gerund.
I can't do sewing. Ialways make a mess of it.
We did trampolining once a week at school lastyear.

## 139 Participle clauses of time, reason etc

## 139 Participle clauses of time, reason etc

## 1 Time

a 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.
NOIE For conjunction + participle, e.g. Mike hurt his handwhile playing badminton, • (3).
b The participle clause can come first, but this is rather literary.
Coming up the steps, Ifell over.
nоте
But a gerund clause as subject of a sentence is not literary.
Coming up the steps tiredtheoldwomanout.
c 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.
note
We mention the actions in the order they happen. The participle usually comes in the first clause, but it can sometimes come in the second.

She took anote from herpurse, slamming itdownonthe counter.
Theycomplainedabouttheroom,the wifepointingoutthattheywerepromised aseaview.
d 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.

## 2 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 ratherliterary. (e) means that the two actions were very close in time.

## 3 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.

NOTE
a We can also use a passive participle after as, e.g. as seen on $T V$.
b A similar pattern is preposition + gerund. - 132(8)

## 4 Reason

a 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 applyfor a new one.
The restaurant having closed, there was nowhere to eat.
Being rather busy, I completelyforgot the time.
The participle clause can be rather literary. For other ways of expressing reason, $\bullet 251$.
b 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 sofast, we can't afford luxuries.
It was a large room, with bookshelves covering most ofthe walls.

## 5 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.

## 6 Conditions

A participle clause can express a condition.
All being well, we should be home about six.
(= If all is well,...)
We plan to eat outside, weather permitting.
Taken daily, vitamin pills can improve your health.

## 7 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 groundsfor optimism.
I'm going on a computer course next week. ~ Talking of computers, ours broke down yesterday.

## 140 Verb + object + participle

## 1 The pattern I saw you doing it

Isaw 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 horsejumpljumping thefence.
We didn't notice anyone leave/leaving the building.

## NOTE

We can use these passive forms.
We saw the lions fed. We saw the lions being fed.

## 2 The pattern I kept you waiting

The trainer had the players running round the field.
We soon got the machine working again.
DoctorJones 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.

## NOTE

a We can also use a passive participle.
We had/got the machine repaired. - 111 (2)
Policefound a body buried in the garden.
b After have, get and leave we can use an infinitive for an action seen as a whole.
The trainer had the players run/got the players to run round the field. • 111(1)
The driver left us to find our own way home.
c We can also use have in the sense of 'have something happening to you'.
Rory suddenly realized he had two dogs following him.
I won't have people treating this house like a hotel.

## 3 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.

## 4 The pattern You were seen doing it •110(2)

The men were seen cutting down a tree.
We were left standing at the side of the road.

## 5 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.

## 17

## Nouns and noun phrases

## 141 Summary

Nouns • 142
Nouns are words like cup, democracy, game, driver, Chicago. They do not have special endings to show that they are nouns, or to show that they are subject or object.

Noun phrases • 143
A noun combines with other words in a noun phrase. the cup our democracy an exciting game
Determiners, quantifiers and modifiers come in a fixed order before the noun. my three brothers both the clocks a blue van

Countable and uncountable nouns - 144
Countable nouns can be singular or plural. house(s) telephone(s) problem(s)
Uncountable nouns are neither singular nor plural. music happiness butter
We cannot use an uncountable noun with a/an. NOT a butter
But we can say a pound ofbutter.
Some nouns can be either countable or uncountable, depending on the context. peel an onion/a pizza with onion

## The plural of nouns - 145

We use the plural for more than one, and for a negative or unknown quantity. I've been here three weeks. Have you got any cassettes?

## The possessive form • 146

The possessive form of a noun expresses possession and other relations.
Pat's house the twins' parents the company'sfuture
We can sometimes use the pattern the parents of the twins.
Two nouns together • 147
We often use one noun before another.
departmentstore alarm system boat-train businessman
The first noun tells us what kind of store, system, train or man.

## Phrases after a noun - 148

There can be a phrase after a noun.
the man in the brown suit information about the course that sign there

## Nominalization •149

Some noun phrases are equivalent to clauses. The start of the race means that the race starts.

## 142 Nouns

AN EXPENSIVE TRAP
Worried that ground staff were stealing miniature bottles of whiskyfrom 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)

## 1 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.

## 2 The form of nouns

a 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. • 285(2)
b Most nouns do not have gender. There are only a few word pairs such as steward/ stewardess. • 285(3e)
c 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, •146).

## 143 Noun phrases

1 A noun phrase can be one word.
Whisky is expensive. (uncountable noun)
Planes take offfrom 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.
2 In a noun phrase there can be determiners, quantifiers and modifiers, as well as a noun.
a 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).
b Quantifiers
These also come before the noun.
a lot of money two people every photo halfthe passengers
Quantifiers are a lot of, many, much, afew, every, each, all, most, both, half, some, any, no etc. • 176
c 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 • 148
d Overview
This is the basic structure of a noun phrase.

| Quantifier $(+o f)$ | Determiner | Adjective modifier | Noun modifier | Noun | Other 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 |

3 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 $+o f$.
each of the doors a lot of my time one of these magazines
For more about quantifiers and determiners together, • 178(fb, 1c).
c 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 thosefew people left the three brothers
NOTE
We cannot use a lot ofor afew in this pattern.
NOT the a lot of rooms of the house
d A possessive form (e.g. Susan's, the man's) functions as a determiner.
a lot ofSusan's friends (Compare: a lot ofherfriends)
the man's seat all the passengers' meals
e There can be more than one adjective or noun modifier.
a lovely hot meal china soup dishes
For the order of adjectives, • 202.
f The modifier can be a gerund or participle.
Gerund: some cooking oil a flying lesson • 283(2)
Participle: a ticking clock some stolen bottles of whisky•137
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 nextjob most ofthe second week this third anniversary
But they usually go before one, two, three etc.
my next twojobs the first six weeks
NOTE
a Compare these examples.
The first three prizes were $£ 50, £ 25$ and $£ 10$.
There were three first prizes, onefor each age group.
b For another two jobs and two more jobs, • 180(3b).
i We can use an adverb before a quantifier or an adjective.
Adverb + quantifier $\cdot 212(8)$
almost all the time quite a lot ofmoney very many bottles
Adverb + adjective •212(1)
a very expensive trap some really nice soup dishes

4 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.

## 144 Countable and uncountable nouns

## 1 Introduction

a Countable nouns can be singular or plural: $\operatorname{book}(s)$, $\operatorname{hotel}(s)$, $\operatorname{boat}(s), \operatorname{day}(s), \operatorname{job}(s)$, 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), $\operatorname{car}(s)$, 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.

## 2 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, how much water but how many boats.

|  | Countable |  | Uncountable |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| the | Singular the boat | Plural 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 ofboats | a lot of water |
| many/few |  | many boats |  |
| much/little |  |  | much water |
|  | all the boat | all (the) boats | all (the) water |
| each/every | every boat |  |  |

NOTE
a For some with a singular noun, e.g. some boat, • 179(5).
b We use number of with a plural noun and amount of with an uncountable noun. a large number ofboats a large amount of water

## 3 The of-pattern expressing quantity

a Look at these phrases.
aglass of water two pounds offlour a piece of wood
NOT a glass water
The pattern is countable noun $+o f+$ uncountable noun.
b 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 offlour
Measurements: three metres of curtain material, a kilo offlour, twenty litres of petrol, a pint oflager, two spoonfuls ofsugar
'Piece': a piece ofcheese/chocolate/plastic/cotton a slice/piece ofbread/cake/meat a sheet/piece of paper, a bar of soap/chocolate a stick/piece of chalk, a loafofbread a drop of water/ink/oil etc, a grain of sand/rice a lump of coal/sugar etc

## NOTE

a In informal English we can use bit(s) of, meaning 'small piece(s) of, e.g. some bits of cheese. A bit ofcan also mean 'a small amount of. - 177(2)
b We can say a chocolate bar (= a bar of chocolate) and a sugar lump, but these are exceptions. For $a$ wine glass, • 147(6).


a loaf
(ofbread)

a piece
of chocolate

a bar
of chocolate
c We can also use container/measurement + of+ plural noun. a box ofmatches 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
d 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

## 144 Countable and uncountable nouns

e Kind, sort, type and make go with either $a$ countable or an uncountable noun. what kind of sugar this make of computer

## 4 Countable or uncountable noun?

a 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 veryfewfurnitures
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 veryfew items offurniture.
b Here are some uncountable nouns which may be countable in other languages.

| accommodation | English (the language) | land | research |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| advice | equipment | laughter | rice |
| applause | evidence | leisure | rubbish |
| baggage | fruit | lightning | scenery |
| behaviour | fun | litter | shopping |
| bread | furniture | luck | sightseeing |
| camping | gossip | luggage | stuff |
| cash | harm | machinery | thunder |
| clothing | health | money | toast |
| countryside | help $(\cdot$ Note c) | news | traffic |
| crockery | homework | pay (=wages) | transport |
| cutlery | housework | permission | travel |
| damage | housing | pollution | violence |
| (• Note a) | jewellery | progress | weather |
| education | knowledge | proof | work |
| $(\cdot$ Note b) | $(\bullet$ Noteb) | rain | $(\cdot$ 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.

| $\operatorname{bag}(\mathrm{s})$ | house(s) | permit(s) /'p3:mit/ | suitcase(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| camp(s) | jewel(s) | rumour(s) | thing(s) |
| clothes ( $\cdot$ Note e) | job(s) | $\operatorname{shop}(\mathrm{s})$ | vegetable(s) |
| clue(s) | journey(s) | shower(s) | vehicle(s) |
| $\operatorname{coin}(s)$ | laugh(s) | sight(s) |  |
| fact(s) | loafloaves | storm(s) |  |
| hobby/hobbies | machine(s) | suggestion(s) |  |
| NOTE |  |  |  |
| a Damages means 'money paid in compensation'. He received damages for his injuries. |  |  |  |
| b Knowledge and education can be singular when the meaning is less general. I had a good education. <br> A knowledge ofSpanish is essential. |  |  |  |
| c A help means 'helpful'.Thanks. You've been a great help. |  |  |  |
| d Work can be countable: a work ofart, the works ofShakespeare. Works can mean 'factory' a steel works. • 154(3) |  |  |  |
| e We cannot use clothes in the singular or with a number. We can say some clothes butNOT four clothes. We can say four garments or four items of clothing. |  |  |  |

## 5 Nouns that can be either countable or uncountable

a 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 ofcarpet. The protestors threw stones at the police. The statue is made ofstone.
b Animals, vegetables and fruit are uncountable when we cut or divide them.

| Countable | Uncountable |
| :--- | :--- |
| buy (whole) chicken | putsome chicken in the sandwiches |
| peel some potatoes | eatsome 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 my glasses (= spectacles • 155) | some glass for the window |
| a daily paper (= newspaper) <br> my papers (= documents) | some writing paper |
| anice (= ice-cream) | ice on the road |
| an iron (for ironing clothes) | iron (a metal) |
| a tin ofbeans | tin (a metal) |
| a bedside light (= lamp) | the speed oflight |
| a hair/hairs on your collar | comb your hair |
| a girl in a reddress | wearing even ing dress |
| I've been here lots oftimes. (= occasions) | I haven't got much time. |
| an interesting experience | experience in thejob |
| (= 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 ofdemocracy |

d The countable noun often refers to a specific example, and the uncountable noun often refers to an action or idea in general.

Countable
a drawing/painting (= a picture)
I heard a noise.
an interesting conversation
a short war
Tennis is a sport.
He led a good life.

Uncountable
good at drawing/painting
constant traffic noise
the art ofconversation
the horrors of war
There's always sport on television.
Life isn'tfair.
e Nouns which describe feelings are usually uncountable, e.g. fear, hope. But some can be countable, especially for feelings about something specific.
a fear ofdogs hopesfor thefuture 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.'

'You can buy different kinds of food here.'

## 145 The plural of nouns

## 1 Form

a A countable noun (door, plane, stewardess) has both a singular and a plural form. To form the plural we add $s$ (doors, planes) or es (stewardesses).

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NOTE
a There are some spelling rules for noun plurals.
    Adding es after a sibilant sound: dish dishes - 290(1)
    Y changing to ie: baby babies - 294
b For pronunciation of the s/es ending, - 290(3).
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b Some nouns have an irregular plural, e.g. man men. • 295
c 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 $s / e s$ 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)
d After a year or an abbreviation, the plural ending can be apostrophe $+s$. the 1950s/the 1950's most MPs/mostMP's

## 2 Use

a We use the singular to talk about one thing.
The door was closed. We waitedfor an hour.
There was only one passenger. I've lost myjob.
b We use the plural for more than one.
The doors were all closed. We waitedfor one and a quarter hours.
There were hundreds of passengers. I've got one or two jobs to do.
NOTE Some nouns are always plural, e.g. clothes, goods. • 154(1)
c For a negative or unknown quantity, we normally use the plural.
There were no passengers on the bus.
Have you read any good books lately?
NOTE
We can use the singular after no meaning 'not a single one'.
No passenger(s) came to the driver's help when he was attacked.

## 146 The possessive form

## 1 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 notending in s .
Singular + 's my friend's name
s-plural $+\quad$, my friends' names
Other plurals + 's the children's names
For pronunciation, • 290(4).

[^9]
## 2Use

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 mybrother'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 $\boldsymbol{a}$ coat of Julia's, • 174(5).

## 3 Possessive form or of?

a There is a pattern with of which has the same meaning as the possessive.
my friend's name/the name ofmy 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 ofthe 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 ofthe Duchess of Glastonbury
note
The of-pattern is sometimes possible for relations between people.
theyoungman'smother/themotheroftheyoungman
c We normally use the of-pattern with things.
the start of the match the bottom ofthe bottle
the day ofthe 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 ofthe company
the magazine's political views

## 4 Some other uses of the possessive

a 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'sjacket.
b Wefound 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, • 149(1).
NOTE The of-pattern is sometimes possible: the actions ofRoger.
d The hostages' release came unexpectedly.
Susan's promotion is well deserved.
This pattern is related to They released the hostages.

## NOTE

The of-pattern is possible here: the release ofthe hostages. And we always use the of-pattern with things rather than people.
the release of the information. NOT the information's release
e That man's stupidity is unbelievable.
The player'sfitness is in question.
This pattern is related to That man is stupid. We use it mainly with humans.
NOTE The of-pattern is also possible: the stupidity of that man.

## 5 The pattern yesterday's newspaper

The possessive can express time when.
Have you seen yesterday's newspaper?
Next month'sfigures 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.
NOTE
a Sunday's newspaper is a newspaper on one specific Sunday, e.g. last Sunday. A Sunday newspaper is a type of newspaper, one that appears on Sundays.
b We can also use the following patterns to express length of time.
a holiday of three weeks a delay of one hour
a three-week holiday a one-hour delay

## 6 AtAlec'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'mjust going to Tesco's to get some bread.
We ate at Maxime's (Restaurant).
There's a Barclay's (Bank) on the university campus.
NOTE Many companies leave out the apostrophe from their name: Barclays (Bank).

## 147 Two nouns together

1 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
NOTE
When two nouns are regularly used together, they often form a compound noun; • 283. But it is often difficult to tell the difference between two separate nouns and one compound noun, and the difference is not important for the learner of English.

2 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. - $56(5 \mathrm{c})$

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, • (5).
4 The first noun is not normally plural.
The Sock Shop a picture gallery an eye test a book case
NOTE
Some exceptions are a sports shop, careers information, customs regulations, a clothes rack, a goods train, systems management, an arms dealer. For American English, • 304(2).

5 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) • (6)

NOTE
a The stress is on the first noun: a 'coffee table.
b We can use a gerund, e.g. a sewing-machine (= a machine for sewing). $\cdot 283(2)$
b a warfilm (= a film about war) a crime story pay talks
a gardening book a computer magazine
NOTE The stress is on the first noun: a 'war film.
c a chess player (= someone who plays chess) a lorry driver music lovers a concrete mixer ( $=$ a machine that mixes concrete) a potato peeler afood blender a sweet shop (= a shop that sells sweets) a biscuitfactory steel production $(=$ the production of steel) life insurance car theft

NOTE
The stress is usually on the first noun: a 'chess player. Compare these two phrases.
Noun + noun: an 'English teacher (= someone who teaches English)
Adjective + noun: an English 'teacher (= a teacher who is English)
d a summer holiday (= a holiday in summer) the morning rush
afuture date breakfast television
a country cottage (= a cottage in the country) a motorway bridge
Swindon station a hospital doctor a world recession
NOTE
In these examples we usually stress the second noun: a summer 'holiday. But there are many exceptions, e.g. 'evening classes, a 'Glasgow woman.
e a plastic bag (= a bag made of plastic) a paper cup
a brick wall a glass vase a tin can
NOTE The main stress is on the second noun: a plastic 'bag.
the oven door (= the door of the oven) the town centre
factory chimneys the river bank
NOTE
a The main stress is usually on the second noun: the town 'centre.
b With top, bottom, side, back and end we normally use the of-pattern. the bottom of the valley the end of the motorway NOT the motorway end But we can say roadside, hillside, hilltop and clifftop. They stood by the roadside/ the side ofthe road.

6 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

a bottle ofmilk

| Purpose: | a wine glass | a jam jar | a bookshelf |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contents: | a glass of wine | a jar ofjam | a shelfofbooks |

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)

## 148 Phrases after a noun

b 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 note
We can also sometimes use a phrase with a preposition. state-of-the-arttechnology asensationalend-of-season sale

## 148 Phrases after a noun

1 We can use a clause or phrase after a noun to modify it.
Clause: $\quad$ thefact that I got there first • 262 (7)
some of those people who called • 272
a lot of time to spare • 124
Phrase: all these boxes here
every day ofthe week
a hot mealfor 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 ofmy dreams?
Adverb phrase: We don't talk to the people upstairs.
Adjective phrase: The policefound parcelsfull ofcocaine.
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 periodjust after lunch is always quiet.
I'd love an apartment on Fifth Avenue.
A man with veryfair hair was waiting in reception.
The idea of space travel has always fascinated me.
What are the prospectsfor a peaceful solution?
For noun + preposition, e.g. prospectsfor, • 237.
NOTE
We can use a pattern with of with the names of places or months. It is rather formal. Welcome to the city of Coventry.
Here is the long-range weather forecast for the month of June.
3 We can sometimes use two or more phrases together after a noun. Here are some examples from British newspapers.

Passengers on some servicesfrom 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 hisfourth successful defence ofthe 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 ofa teenage girl who vanished exactly twenty years ago has been re-opened by police.

## 149 Nominalization

1 Some noun phrases are equivalent to clauses.

Clause
The residentsprotested. Someone published the document. The landscape is beautiful.

Noun phrase
the residents'protests the publication of the document 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.
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).

NOTE
For the subject of the clause we use either the possessive form or the of-pattern.
Clause Noun phrase
The visitor departed. the visitor's departure/the departure of the visitor
The scheme succeeded. the scheme's success/the success of the scheme
The telephone rang. the ringing of the telephone

2 An adverb in a clause is equivalent to an adjective in a noun phrase.

Adverb in clause
The residents protested angrily.
The landscape is amazingly beautiful.

3 Look at these examples.
Verb + object Noun + preposition + object
They published the document.
Someone attacked the President.
They've changed the law.
He answered the question.
Adjective in noun phrase
The residents'angry protests were ignored. Discover the amazing beauty of the landscape.

The most common preposition here is of. For noun + preposition, 237.

## 18

## Agreement

## 150 Summary

## Singular and plural verbs - 151

Subject-verb agreement means choosing the correct singular or plural verb after the subject.

The shop opens at nine. The shops open at nine.
Points to note about number and agreement
Singular and plural subjects • 152
Phil and Janice have invited us round.
Two hours is a long time to wait.
One of, a number of, every, there etc • 153
A number of problems have arisen.
Every cloud has a silver lining.

## Nouns with a plural form • 154

Physics is myfavourite subject.

## Pair nouns • 155

These shorts are nice.
Group nouns • 156
The company is/are building a newfactory.
Number in the subject and object • 157
We all wrote down our names.
Note
For The dead are notforgotten, • 204.
For The French have a wordfor it, • 288(1d).

## 151 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.
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 $s$.

## NOTE

a A modal verb always has the same form. The window(s) might be broken.
b For the subjunctive, • 242.
We recommend that the pupil receive a special award.
3 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 ofphones. The garden(s) looked nice.
NOTE
For the subjunctive were, • 242(3).
If the story were true, what would it matter?

## 152 Singular and plural subjects

It is usually easy to decide if a subject is singular or plural, but there are some points to note.

1 TWO or more phrases linked by and take a plural verb.
Jamie and Emma go sailing at weekends.
Both the kitchen and the dining-roomface due west.
Wheat and maize are exported.
But when the two together express something that we see as a single thing, then we use a singular verb.

Bread and butter was all we had.
2 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.
3 A phrase of measurement takes a singular verb.
Ten miles is toofar 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 successfulfilm.
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 ofhisfriends, is buying a race-horse.
A phrase with and in brackets does not normally make the subject plural.
The kitchen (and ofcourse the dining-room)faces due west.

After not only... but also, the verb agrees with the nearest phrase.
Not only George but also his friends are buying the horse.
note
A phrase in apposition does not make the subject plural.
George, my neighbour, often goes to the races.
5 If a phrase comes after the noun, the verb agrees with the first noun.
The house between the two bungalows is empty.
6 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.

## 153 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 foryou.
2 When a plural noun follows number of, majority ofor a lot of, we normally use a plural verb.

A large number ofletters were received.
The majority of people have complained.
A lot of people have complained.
Here a number ofetc expresses a quantity.

## NOTE

a When number means 'figure', it agrees with the verb. The number ofletters we receive is increasing.
b Amount agrees with the verb.
A large amount ofmoney was collected. Large amounts of money were collected.
c After a fraction, the verb agrees with the following noun, e.g. potato, plants.
Three quarters (ofa potato) is water.
Almost half (the plants) were killed.
3 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.
NOTE
When each follows a plural subject, the verb is plural.
The pupils each have to take a test.

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?
NOTE
A verb after which is singular or plural depending on how many we are talking about.
Which (ofthese sweaters) goes best with my trousers?~ This one, I think.
Which (of these shoes) go best with my trousers? ~ These, I think.
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/havefailed the test.
I don't know ifeither (of these batteries) is/are any good.
The plural verb is more informal.

## NOTE

After no, we can use either the singular or the plural.
No pupil has failed/No pupils have failed the test.
After there, the verb agrees with its complement.
There was an accident. There were some accidents.
NOTE
In informal English we sometimes use there's before a plural.
There's some friends of yours outside.

## 154 Nouns with a plural form

## 1 Plural noun - plural verb

a Some nouns are always plural.
The goods werefound to be defective. NOT a good Mybelongings 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.

```
NOTE For pair nouns, e.g. glasses, trousers, • 155.
```

b Compare these nouns.

|  | Plural only <br> hurt my arm(s) and leg(s) <br> arms (= weapons) <br> an old custom |
| :--- | :--- |
| manner (= way) | go through customs |
| 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) |

## 2 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.

## NOTE

Some of these nouns can have normal singular and plural forms when they mean physical things.

Tom laid a domino on the table.
These statistics are rather complicated. (= these figures)
Politics takes a plural verb when it means someone's views.
His politics are very left-wing. (= his political opinions)

## 3 Nouns with the same singular and plural form

A chemical works causes a lot ofpollution.
Chemical works cause a lot ofpollution.
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.

```
NOTE
Works, headquarters and barracks can sometimes be plural when they refer to one building or
one group of buildings.
These chemical works here cause a lot ofpollution.
```


## 155 Pair nouns

1 We use a pair noun for something made of two identical parts.

glasses/spectacles

scissors

2 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
NOTE
Some pair nouns can be singular before another noun: a trouser leg, a pyjama jacket. But: my glasses case.

3 We can use $\operatorname{pair}(s)$ of.
This pair oftrousers needs cleaning.
How have three pairs of scissors managed to disappear?

Some pair nouns are: binoculars, glasses, jeans, pants, pincers, pliers, pyjamas, scales(forweighing), scissors, shorts, spectacles, tights, trousers, tweezers.

## NOTE

a Three of these nouns can be singular with a different meaning: a glass of water, a spectacle $(=$ a wonderful sight), a scale offive kilometres to the centimetre.
b Most words for clothes above the waist are not pair nouns, e.g. shirt, pullover, suit, coat.
c We can also use pair(s) of with socks, shoes, boots, trainers etc. These nouns can be singular: a shoe.

## 156 Group nouns

1 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.

```
NOTE
a In the USA a group noun usually takes a singular verb. - 304(1)
b A group noun can be plural.
    The two teams know each other well.
c A phrase with of can follow the noun, e.g. a crowd of people, a team of no-hopers.
```

2 With a singular verb we use it, its and which/that. With a plural verb we use they, their and wholthat.

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 andfourteen 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 theirlits pay rise.
4 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 |  |  |  |

5 The names of institutions, companies and teams are also group nouns, e.g. Parliament, the UnitedNations, 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.
note
The United States usually takes a singular verb.
The United States has reacted angrily.
6 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.
NOTE
a For details about people, - 296(1) Note b.
b When poultry means meat, it is uncountable.
Poultry has gone up in price.

## 157 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.
Each town has its own mayor.

## 19

## The articles: a/an and the

## 158 Summary

## ACCIDENTS CAN HAPPEN

The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents held an exhibition at Harrogate, in the north ofEngland. Some shelves were put up to display the exhibits. During the exhibition, the shelvesfell down, injuring a visitor.

We use a/an only with a singular noun, but we can use the with any noun. We also use some as a plural equivalent of a/an.

Some shelves were put up.
We can also sometimes use a noun on its own without an article.
Accidents can happen.

## The form of the articles • 159

We use $a$ before a consonant sound and an before a vowel sound.
a visitor an exhibition

## The basic use of the articles • 160

A/an is the indefinite article, and the is the definite article. We use the when it is clear which one we mean. This can happen in three different ways. Firstly, by repetition: we say an exhibition when we first mention it, but the exhibition when it is mentioned again, when it means 'the exhibition just mentioned'. Secondly, when there is only one: the captain. And thirdly, because a phrase or clause after the noun makes clear which one is meant: the woman sitting behind us.

## A/an to describe and classify •161

We use a/an to describe and classify.
This is a nice place. 'The Economist' is a magazine.

## The article in generalizations • 162

Articles can also have a general meaning.
The bicycle is a cheap means oftransport.
There is lots to interest a visitor.
A plural or uncountable noun on its own can also have a general meaning.
Accidents can happen.

## A/an or one? • 163

We can use either a/an or one with a singular noun. One puts more emphasis on the number.

## A/an, some and a noun on its own • 164

We use a/an only with a singular noun. With plural or uncountable nouns we use some or the noun on its own.
Singular: $\quad$ A shelf was put up.
Plural: (Some) shelves were put up.
Uncountable: (Some)furniture was brought in.
Sugar or the sugar? • 165
With an uncountable or plural noun we often have a choice between, for example, music (general) and the music (specific).

Music usually helps me relax. The music wasfar too loud.
OVERVIEW: a/an, some and the • 166
A singular noun on its own • 167
We use a singular noun on its own only in some special patterns.
Articles with school, prison etc • 168
I hope to go to university.
Articles in phrases of time • 169
You should get the letter on Thursday.
Names of people • 170
Names of people normally have no article.
Place names and the • 171
Some place names have the. We say KennedyAirport but the Classic Cinema.

## Ten pounds an hour etc • 172

There is a special use of $a / a n$ in phrases of price, speed etc.
A nursing home costs $£ 400$ a week.

## 159 The form of the articles

1 Before a consonant sound the articles are $a / ə /$ and $t h e / \partial ə /$. Before a vowel sound they are an /ən/ and the / $\mathrm{\partial}_{\mathrm{I}} /$.

```
a}+\mathrm{ consonant sound an}+\boldsymbol{a
a shelf /ə/ + /\/ an accident /n/ + /æ/
a visitor/a/ +/v/ an exhibition /n/ + /e/
a big exhibition/a/ +/b/
the /ðә/ the/ð⿱//
the shelf \ə/ + / / the accident / I / + |æ/
```

It is the pronunciation of the next word which matters, not the spelling. Note especially words beginning with $o, u$ or $h$, or abbreviations.

```
a one-day event/a/ +/w/
a union/uniform/university/ə/ \(+/ \mathrm{j} /\)
a European country/จ \(/+/ \mathrm{j} /\) an error \(/ \mathrm{n} /+/ \mathrm{e} /\)
a holiday \(/ \partial /+/ \mathrm{h} /\) anhour \(/ \mathrm{n} /+\mid\) av/
```

a U-turn $/$ ə $/+/ \mathrm{j} / \quad$ an MI5 agent $/ \mathrm{n} /+/ \mathrm{e} /$

note<br>a With some words we can either pronounce $h$ or not, e.g. a hotel /a/ $/ / \mathrm{h} /$ or an hotel $/ \mathrm{n} /+$ /əo/. Also: a/an historic moment, a/an horrific accident. Leaving out/h/is a little formal and old-fashioned,<br>b In slow or emphatic speech we can use $a /$ et/, an /æn/ and the / $\delta \mathrm{i}: /$.<br>And now, ladies and gentlemen, a /eil special item in our show.<br>When the is stressed, it can mean 'the only', 'the most important'.<br>Aintree is the /ठi:// place to be on Grand National Day.<br>For the / i :/ Ronald Reagan, - 170(2) Note a.

## 160 The basic use of the articles

## 1 HOVERCRAFT STOWAWAY

A hovercraftflying 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 offby 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 tofall off.'
(from The Mail on Sunday)
When the report first mentions a thing, the noun has a/an, e.g. a hovercraft and $\boldsymbol{a}$ 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.

## NOTE

a For a/an describing something, e.g. It was a very dangerous thing to do, 161.
b We sometimes see a special use of the at the beginning of a story. This is the first sentence of a short story by Ruth Rendell.
A murderer had lived in the house, the estate agent told Norman.
This puts the reader in the middle of the action, as if we already know what house.
2 The context is important in the choice of $a / a n$ or the. Take this example from Hovercraft Stowaway in (1).

The captain was tipped offby radio.

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 roofofa house was blown off in the storm.
Steve heard the sound of an aircraft overhead.
NOTE
But we can use $a / a n$ before a phrase of quantity with of. Would you like a piece oftoast?

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 onlyfriend I've got.
I think you went the wrong way at the lights.
NOTE
a An only child is a child without brothers or sisters.
b For next and last in phrases of time, e.g. next week, • 169(8).
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).

## NOTE

Television and radio as institutions do not take an article.
Donna has got ajob in television/in radio.
But compare watch television/see it on television and listen to the radio/hear it on the radio.
When we talk about the physical things, we use the articles in the normal way.
There was a television/a radio on the shelf.
Harry turned on the radio/the television.
6 A/an can mean either a specific one or any one.
I'm lookingfor a pen. It's a blue one. (a specific pen)
I'm lookingfor 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)
7 Here is an overview of the basic uses of the articles.

```
a/an the
```


## the

Not mentioned before
Do you want to see a video?
(We don't say which video.)

Not unique
We watched a film about wildlife.
(There are other films about wildlife.)

Mentioned before
Do you want to see the video?
(= the video we are talking about)
Unique in context Are you enjoying the play? (spoken in a theatre)
Phrase or clause defines which I watched the film you videoed. (You videoed one film.)

## 161 Alan to describe and classify

1 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.
Mysister is a doctor. NOT My sister is doctor.
The author of the report is a Scot.
I thoughtyou were a socialist.
Mr Liam O'Donnell, a Catholic, was injured in the incident.

## NOTE

We can also use an adjective of nationality (e.g. American, Scottish) as complement.
The author of the report is an American/is American.
My grandfather was a Scot/was Scottish. NOT He was Scot.
For nationality words, • 288.

## 162 The article in generalizations

## 162 The article in generalizations

This paragraph contains some generalizations about animals.


#### Abstract

ANIMAL NOSES As with other parts of its equipment, an animal evolves the kind ofnose it needs. The hippo has grown its ears and eyes on the top of its head, and its nostrils on top of its nose, for lying in water. Camels and seals can close their noses; they do it in the same way butfor different reasons. The camel closes its nose against the blowing sand of the desert, and the seal against the water in which it spends most ofits time.


(from F. E. Newing and R. Bowood Animals And How They Live)
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 theirnoses.
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.

## 1 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.

## 2 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.

## 3 The + singular noun

The blackbird has a lovely song.
What will the new tax meanfor 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.

[^10]
## 4 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. • 288(3)
What is the World Bank doing to help the poor? • 204

## 163 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. afew, 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, - 191(1) Note b.

## 164 Alan, some and a noun on its own

1 We use a/an only with a singular noun. Some + plural or uncountable noun is equivalent to $a / a n+$ singular noun.
Singular: $\quad$ There's a rat under the floorboards.
Plural: There are some rats under the floorboards.
Uncountable: There's some milk in thefridge.
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, •162, 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 goodfor you.

## 165 Sugar or the sugar?

1 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 badfor your teeth. Children don't like long walks.
Pass the sugar, please. Can you look after the childrenfor us ?
Without oil, our industry would come to a halt.
The oil Igot 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'tfair.
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 Victorianfactory worker wasn'teasy.
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 ofChina.
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 ofMozart.

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.
Silkfrom Japan was used to make the wedding dress.
Life in those days is still a general idea; silkfrom Japan means a type of material rather than a specific piece of material.

## 166 Overview: a/an, some and the

Not specific: Ineed a stampfor this letter. I need (some) stamps for these letters. Ineed (some) paper to write letters.
Specific but There's a stamp in the drawer.
indefinite, not mentioned before: There are (some) stamps in the drawer. There's (some) paper in the drawer.
Specific and definite, we know which:

Describing or classifying:

Generalizations:
The stamp (I showed you) is valuable. The stamps (I showed you) are valuable. The paper (you're using) is too thin. This is a nice stamp/a Canadian stamp. These are nice stamps/Canadian stamps. This is nice paper/wrapping paper.
A stamp often tells a story.
This book is a history ofthe postage stamp.
This book is a history ofpostage stamps.
How is paper made?

## 67 A singular noun on its own

We cannot normally use a singular noun on its own, but there are some exceptions.

1 Before some nouns for institutions. - 168
How are you getting on at college?
2 In some phrases of time. - 169
The concert is on Thursday.
3 In some fixed expressions where the noun is repeated or there is a contrast between the two nouns.

I lie awake night after night.
The whole thing has been afiascofrom start to finish.
4 In a phrase with by expressing means of transport. - 228(5b)
It's quicker by plane.
5 As complement or after as, when the noun expresses a unique role.
Elizabeth was crowned Queen.
As (the) chairman, I have to keep order.
note
We use $a / a n$ when the role is not unique.
As a member of this club, I have a right to come in.
6 With a noun in apposition, especially in newspaper style.
Housewife Judy Adams is this week's competition winner.
7 In many idiomatic phrases, especially after a preposition or verb.
infact for example give way
But others can have an article.
in a hurry on the whole take a seat
8 Names of people have no article, •170, and most place names have no article, • 171.

9 We can sometimes leave out an article to avoid repeating it. - 13(3)
Put the knife andfork on the tray.
10 We can leave out articles in some special styles such as written instructions. 45 Insertplug in hole in side panel.

## 168 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'.

## 169 Articles in phrases of time

2 There are a number of other nouns which are without the in similar contexts. I'm usually in bed by eleven. The bedfelt very uncomfortable.
In bed means 'sleeping/resting', but the bed means a specific bed.
3 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.
note
When the noun is part of a name, there is usually no article. - 171
TheguiltymenweresenttoParkhurstPrison.
4 Here are some notes on the most common nouns of this type.
bed in bed, go to bed (to sleep); get out ofbed, sit on the bed, make the bed
church in/at church, go to church (to a service)
class do work in class orfor 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); releasedfrom prison; Also in jail etc
school in/at school, go to school (as a pupil)
sea atsea (= 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 officelthefactory
note
We do not leave out the before other singular nouns for buildings and places, e.g. the station, the shop, the cinema, the theatre, the library, the pub, the city, the village.

## 169 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 $a / a n$ 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

## 1 Years

The party wasformed in $1981 . \quad$ in the year 1981
The war lastedfrom 1812 to 1815.

## 2 Seasons

If winter comes, can spring be far behind?
We always go on holiday in (the) summer.
the winter of 1947
a marvellous summer

## 3 Months

June is a good month to go away.
That was the June we got married. The event will be in March.

4 Special times of the year

I hate Christmas.
Americans eat turkey at Thanksgiving.

It was a Christmas I'll neverforget. Rosie saw her husband again the Easter after their divorce.

## 5 Days of the week

Wednesday is my busy day. Our visitors are coming on Saturday.

Iposted the letter on the Wednesday of that week.
This happened on a Saturday in July. I'll see you at the weekend.

## 6 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/anor the for the physical aspect, e.g. in the dark.

## 7 Meals

Breakfast is at eight o'clock.
I had a sandwichfor lunch.

The breakfast we had at the hotel wasn't verynice. Bruce and Wendy enjoyed a delicious lunch at Mario's.

## NOTE

We cannot use meal on its own. The meal was served at half past seven.

## 8 Phrases with last and next

Theseflats were built lastyear.
We're having a party next
Saturday.

The flats had been built the previous year.
They were having a party thefollowing Saturday.

NOTE
We can use the with next day.
(The) next day, the young man called again.
But we use the next week/month/year mostly to talk about the past.
Seen from the present: tomorrow next week nextyear
Seen from the past: (the) next day the next/following week the next/following year

## 170 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 MrJohnson, or we can refer to him as PeterJohnson. The use of the first name is informal and friendly.
We use $\mathbf{M r} /$ /mistə(r)/ for a man, Mrs / misiz/ for a married woman and Miss /mis/ for an unmarried woman. Some people use Ms $/ \mathrm{miz} /$ or $/ \mathrm{m} \partial z /$ ) for a woman, whether married or not. We cannot normally use these titles without a following noun. NOT Goodmorning, mister.
$A$ title is part of a name and has no article.
Doctor Fry Aunt Mary Lord Olivier
NOTE
a Some titles can also be ordinary nouns. Compare I saw Doctor Fry and I saw the doctor.
b A title + of-phrase takes the, e.g. the Prince of Wales.
c We use the to refer to a family, e.g. the Johnson family/the Johnsons.
2 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)
NOTE
a Stressed the / di :/ before the name of a person can mean 'the famous person'.
I know a Joan Collins, but she isn't the Joan Collins.
b We can sometimes use other determiners.
I didn't mean that Peter, I meant the other one.
our Laura (= the Laura in our family)

## 171 Place names and the

1 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 WestIndies
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 idiom as much as grammatical rule.

## NOTE

a Look at these uses of $a / a n$ and the before a name which normally has no article.
There's a Plymouth in the USA. (= a place called Plymouth)
The Plymouth of today is very differentfrom the Plymouth I once knew.
Amsterdam is the Venice of the North. (= the place like Venice)
b Even when a name has the (on the Isle of Wight) the article can still be left out in some contexts such as on signs and labels. On a map the island is marked Isle of Wight.

2 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 $U K$
Plural names also have the.
the Netherlands the Bahamas the USA
NOTE
Other exceptions are the Gambia and the Ukraine.
b Regions
When the name of a country or continent (America) is modified by another word (Central), we do not use the.

CentralAmerica to North Wales South-EastAsia 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
NOTE
Two exceptions are the Matterhorn and the Eiger.
d 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)
e Cities, towns, suburbs and villages
Most are without the.
in Sydney Kingswood, a suburb of Bristol atNether Stowey
NoIE Exceptions are The Hague and The Bronx.
f Roads, streets and parks
Most are without the.
offStation 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
NOTE
a We use the in this pattern.
the Birmingham road (= the road to Birmingham)
We also use the with some main roads in cities. the Edgware Road
b We use the with by-passes and motorways.
the York by-pass the M6 (motorway)
c Other exceptions are the Mall and the Strand.
g 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) StPaul'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 ofOur Lady the American School the Open University the Science Museum

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
note
In the US names with center are without the. near Rockefeller Center

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

NOTE
Most pub names have the. at the Red Lion (Inn)

## 172 Ten pounds an hour etc

1 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 milesper 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.

## 20

## Possessives and demonstratives

## 173 Summary

## Possessives • 174

There are possessive determiners (my, your etc) and possessive pronouns (mine, yours etc).

It's my book. The book is mine.
These words express a relation, often the fact that something belongs to someone.
Demonstratives • 175
This, that, these and those are demonstrative determiners and pronouns.
This programme is interesting. This is interesting.
We use demonstratives to refer to something in the situation, to 'point' to something. This and these mean something near the speaker. That and those mean something further away.

## 174 Possessives

ARRANGING A MEETING
Emma: What about Friday?
Luke: I'lljust look in my diary.
Emma: Have you gotyour diary, Sandy?
Sandy: I think so.
Gavin: I haven't got mine with me.
Luke: I can't come on Friday. We're giving a partyfor one ofour neighbours. It's her birthday.

## 1 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. - 146

Luke's diary our neighbour's birthday

## 2 Determiners and pronouns

a Possessive determiners (sometimes called 'possessive adjectives') come before a noun.
my diary our neighbour her birthday
NOT the diary ofme and NOT the my diary
NOTE
A possessive determiner can come after all, both or half, or after a quantifier $+o f . \bullet 178(\mathrm{lb}, \mathrm{lc})$ all my money some of your friends a lot of his time one of our neighbours
b 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 diaryyours? NOT IS this diary to you?
NOTE
a We can use the possessive form of a noun on its own.
That isn't my diary - it's Luke's.
But we do not use an apostrophe with a possessive pronoun. NOT your's
b We can use yours at the end of a letter, e.g. Yours sincerely/faithfully.

## 3 Form

|  | Determiners |  | Pronouns |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First person | Singular my pen | Plural our house | Singular mine | Plural ours |
| Second person | your number | your coats | yours | yours |
| Third person | hisfather | their attitude | his | theirs |
|  | her decision its colour |  | hers |  |

```
NOTE
a His is male; her is female; and their is plural.
    Luke'sfather hisfather; Emma's father herfather;
    Luke and Emma'sfather theirfather
    For the use of he/his, she/her and it/its for males, females and things, • 184(3b).
b His can be either a determiner or a pronoun.
    Has Rory got his ticket?
    I've got my ticket. Has Rory got his?
c Its is a determiner but not a pronoun.
    The lion sometimes eats its young. Does the tiger (eat its young), I wonder?
    NOT Does the tiger eats its?
d Its is possessive, but it's is a short form of it is or it has.
```


## 4 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.
Brianjust stood there with his hands in his pockets.
NOTE
We can use the in this pattern where we have just mentioned the person.
Verb Person Prepositional phrase
The stone hit the policeman on the/his shoulder.
Someone pushed me in the back.
Nigel took Jemima by the arm.
Compare this sentence.
Nigel looked at Jemima and put his hand on her arm.

## 5 A friend ofmine

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 ofmy friends or a friend ofmine.

Definite Indefinite

| Singular | my | friend | one ofmy friends/a friend of $m i n e$ |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Plural | my | friends | some ofmy friends/some friends ofmine |

Here are some examples of the indefinite pattern.
The twins are visiting an uncle oftheirs.
NOT a their uncle and NOT an uncle ofthem
Don't listen to what Graham is saying. It's just a silly idea ofhis.
Didn't you borrow some cassettes ofmine?
b We can also use the possessive form of names and other nouns.
I'm reading a novel ofSteinbeck'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 ofmy brother's.
6 Own
a A possessive determiner + own means an exclusive relation.
I'd love to have my ownflat.
Students are expected to contribute their own ideas.
My own means 'belonging to $m e$ 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)
NOTE
Own can mean that the action is exclusive to the subject.
You'll have to make your own bed. No one else is going to make it for you.
b There is also a pattern with of.
I'd love a flat of my own. NOT an own flat

## NOTE

Compare the two patterns.
a dog ofour own (= a dog belonging only to us)
a dog ofours (= one of our dogs) • (5)
c On your own and by yourself mean 'alone'.
I don't want to walk home on my own/by myself.

## 7 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.)

## 175 Demonstratives

CHOOSING A GIFT
Debbie: I just want to look at these jugs. I'm going to buy my mother one for her birthday.
Felicity: Those glass ones are nice.
Debbie: Yes, this one looks the sort of thing she'd like. It's a bit expensive, though.
Felicity: What about this?
Debbie: Idon't like that so much.


## 1 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.

## 2 Forms

| Singular | Determiners <br> this carpet | Pronouns <br> that colour |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tharal | theseflowers <br> that |  |
| those hills |  |  |$\quad$| these |
| :--- |
| those |

NOTE An uncountable noun takes this/that, e.g. this money, thatmusic.

## 3 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?

NOTE
a A demonstrative can come after all, both or half or after a quantifier + of $\bullet 178(\mathrm{lb}$, lc)
Both those (cameras) are broken. I've read most ofthis (book).
b After a demonstrative, we can use one or ones instead of a singular or plural noun.
What about this (one)? What about these (ones)?
If there is an adjective, we cannot normally leave out one(s), e.g. those big ones. - 188

## 4 Details about use

a 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.
NOTE
When we mention something a second time, we use it or they, not a demonstrative.
This is a great party, isn't it? I hope you're enjoying it.
These shoes are wet. I left them out in the rain.
For these words in indirect speech, - 267(2) Note.
c 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 who the other person is.

This is Steve. Is thatyou, Shirley?
NOTE For American usage, • 304(5).
d 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 thefestival. 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.

## NOTE

a In informal English we can use that/those with something known but not present in the
situation.
Those people next door are away on holiday.
That dress Tanya was wearing yesterday looked really smart.
b In informal English this (instead of a/an) can introduce the topic of a story or joke.
This girl came up to me in a pub and...
Here this girl means 'the girl I'm telling you about now.'
e 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...
f 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. ofthe surrounding air. That is rather formal in this pattern.

## 21

## Quantifiers

## 6 Summary

A quantifier is a word like many, a lot of, both, all, enough.
Large and small quantities • 177
Some quantifiers express a large or small quantity.
Large: $\quad$ The burglars did a lot of damage.
Small: The burglars took afew things.
Whole and part quantities: all, most, both etc • 178
Some quantifiers express the whole or a part of a quantity.
Whole: All crime should be reported.
Part: Most crime remains unsolved.
Some, any and no - 179
Some has two different meanings.
The burglars took some money. (= an amount of money)
Some (ofthe) money was recovered. (= a part of the money)
We use any mainly in negatives and questions.
They didn't leave any fingerprints.
Have they done any damage?
But any can also mean 'it doesn't matter which'.
I'mfree all week. Come any day you like.

## Other quantifiers • 180

Others are enough, plenty of, another and some more.

## Quantifiers without a noun •181

We can use a quantifier without a noun.
Some burglars get caught, but most get away.
(most $=$ most burglars)

## OVERVIEW: quantifiers • 182

NOTE
For numbers, • 191.
For quantifiers expressing a comparison, e.g. more, most, fewer, less, • 220.

## 177 Large and small quantities

## 1 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 offun/lots offun at our Holiday Centre. There isn't much traffic on a Sunday.
```

b 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: $\quad$ There are a lot oftourists 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 therefor the idea?
NOTE
a Lots of is more informal than a lot of.
b We can use quite and rather before a lot of but not before many or much.
There are quite a lot of tourists here.
c A great many is rather formal.
A great many crimes go unreported.
c 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.

## 2 (A)few, (a) little and a bit of

a Afew 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 afew night clubs in the city.
Uncountable: I've still got a little money/a bit ofmoney, fortunately.
A bit of means the same as a little, but a bit of is more informal.

[^11]
## 177 Large and small quantities

b Only gives the phrase a negative meaning.
There are only afew night clubs in the city.
This means a smaller quantity than we might expect.
c Little can also be an adjective, e.g. I know a little/a small night club.
b We can also use few and little without $a$. The meaning is negative. Compare these sentences.
Is this a holiday place? ~ Yes, there are afew tourists here.
(afew tourists = some tourists, a small number)
Is this a holiday place? ~ No, there arefew 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.
NOTE
a We can use very before few/little.
There are veryfew tourists/hardly any tourists here.
b We can use a subject with not many/not much.
Not many tourists come here.

## 3 Special patterns with many and few

a Many and few can come after the, these/those or a possessive.
Thefew hotels in the area are alwaysfull.
Can you eat up thesefew peas?
Tim introduced us to one of his many girl-friends.
b Look at this pattern with manya.
Many a ship has come to griefoff 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.
c 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 ofdisadvantages.

## 4 Other expressions for large/small quantities

a Large quantities
A large number ofpeople couldn't get tickets.
A dishwasher uses a great deal ofelectricity.
It uses a large/huge/tremendous amount ofelectricity.
Numerous difficulties were put in my way.
We've got masses of time/heaps of time/loads of time. (informal)
b Small quantities
Several people/A handful ofpeople got left behind.
A computer uses only a small/tiny amount of electricity.

## 178 Whole and part quantities: all, most, both etc

## PACKAGE STEREO SYSTEMS

Package systems are generally advertised on the strength oftheirfeatures; a separates system may not have many of these. You mayfind 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 tapefrom one deck to the other in about half the normal playing time.
(from the magazine Which?.)

## 1 Patterns

a Quantifier + noun
every system both decks most music
note
These are the possible combinations.

| Singular | Plural <br> all systems <br> most systems <br> both systems | Uncountable <br> all music <br> most music |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| either system <br> neither system <br> every system <br> each system |  |  |
| (some system) | some systems |  |
| any system |  |  |
| no system | any systems <br> no systems | some music <br> any music <br> no music |

For some, any and no, • 179 .
For some + singular noun, • 179(5\}.
b Quantifier + determiner + noun
all the systems both these decks halfmy tapes
We can use all, both and half
c Quantifier + of+ determiner + noun all of the systems both of these decks most ofmy 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.
e 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
f Quantifier without a noun - 181
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.

## 2 All, most, half and none

a We can use all/most + noun to make a generalization.
All rabbits love greenfood.
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 ofthe people here are strangers to me. $($ people $=$ people in general $) \quad($ the people $=$ a specific group of people $)$

## NOTE

a For Rabbits love greenfood, • 162.
b As well as most, we can also use majority of and more than half
The majority of package systems have two cassette decks.
More than halfthe pollution in the world could, be avoided.
The opposite is minority of or less than half.
A minority ofsystems have only one deck.
b When we are talking about something more specific, we use all/most/half/none + of + determiner + noun.

All (of) our rabbits diedfrom 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 ofthem died.
I read the book, but I couldn't understand halfofit.
NOTE
a We can use halfa/an to express quantity.
We waited half an hour. I could only eat half a slice of toast.
b We can use a number after all, e.g. all fifty systems.
c 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 tapefrom 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 ofthe 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).

## 3 Whole

We can use whole as an adjective before a singular noun.
Didyou 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!
NOTE
a Compare these sentences.
We spent all day/the whole day (from morning till evening) on the beach. We spent every day (of the week) on the beach.
b We can also use whole as a noun.
Did you copy the whole of the tape?

## 4 Both, either and neither

a We use these words for two things.
The police set up barriers at both ends ofthe 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 <br> escaped. | Neither ofthe prisoners <br> escaped. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Three | All the prisoners | None ofthe prisoners |
| or more | escaped. | escaped. |

c Patterns with both are the same as patterns with all. - (2)
Both decks/Both the decks/Both ofthe decks play tapes.
They both play tapes.
Two prisoners got away, but police caught them both/both ofthem.
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 ofour cars is/are very economical to run.
Neither car is very economical to run.
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 Everyand 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 wereflagsflyingfrom 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.
Everyshop 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 thrownfrom every direction/from all directions.

## NOTE

a We can use almost or nearly with every but not with each. There wereflags flying from almost every building.
b Every single means 'every one without exception'. Every single child was given a medal.
c We can use their meaning 'his or her'. • 184(5) Each child had their own medal.
c We often use every with things happening at regular intervals. Each is less usual.
Sandra does aerobics every Thursday/each Thursday.
The meetings are everyfour weeks.
We visit my mother every other weekend. (= every second weekend)
d We can use each (but not every) in these patterns.
Eachofthe students has a personal tutor.
Each has a personal tutor.
Before the visitors left, we gave them each a souvenir.
Theyeach received a souvenir.
Each as an adverb can come after a noun.
The tickets are $£ 5$ each.
e We cannot use a negative verb after every/each.
None ofthe 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.
6 Part
Part can be an ordinary noun with a determiner.
This next part of thefilm 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
NOTE
For a majority we use most.
I was out most of the day. NOT the most part of the day

## 7 A lot of, many, much, afew and a little

These words express large or small quantities, • 177. But when many, much, afew and a little express part of a quantity, we use of.
Many of thesefeatures are just gimmicks.
Much ofmy time is spent answering enquiries.
Afew of the photos didn't come out properly.

## NOTE

a We sometimes use a lot of, much of and a little of with a singular noun.
I didn't see much of the game.
b Compare a lot of for a large quantity and a large part.
She always wears a new dress. She must have a lot ofclothes. (= a large number) A lot of these clothes here can be thrown out. (= a large part)

## 179 Some, any and no

## 1 Some/any expressing a quantity

a Some + plural or uncountable noun is equivalent to a/an + singular noun. $\bullet 164$
You'll need a hammer, some nails and some wood.
Here some is usually pronounced $/ \mathrm{s} ə \mathrm{~m} /$ or $/ \mathrm{sm} /$. For $/ \mathrm{s} \Lambda \mathrm{m} /$, • (3).
b 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 gotsome wood.
Negative: 1 haven't got any wood.
Question: Have you got any/some wood?
Any means that the quantity may be zero.
NOTE
a In a negative sentence we can sometimes use any+ singular noun.
Pass me the hammer. ~Ican'tsee any hammer/a hammer.
b For a special use of any, - (4).
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.)
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?

## 2 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.
NOTAny warning was notgiven.
c We cannot use the quantifier no without a noun. For none, • 181 (3).

## 3 Some expressing part of a quantity

We can use some to mean 'some but not all'.
Somefish can change their sex.
Some trains have a restaurant car.
Some ofthefish in the tank were a beautiful blue colour.
Some ofthe canals in Venice have traffic lights.

Compare the two meanings of some.
Some people enjoy quiz shows. /s $\mathrm{m} /=$ some but not all
There were some people in the garden. /sm/ = some but not very many
NOTE
Compare the use of all and some.
General: Allfish can swim. Some fish can change their sex.
Specific: All ofthese fish are mine. Some ofthese fish are blue.

## 4 A special use of any

a 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 directyou.
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)
c We can use compounds of any in the same way.
The door isn't locked. Anyone can just walk in.
What do you wantfor lunch?~ Oh, anything. I don't mind.

## 5 Special uses of some

a Some + singular noun can mean an indefinite person or thing.
Some idiot dropped a milk bottle.
Theflight was delayedfor some reason (or other).
Some idiot means 'an unknown idiot'. It is not important who the idiot is.
b Some day/time means an indefinite time in the future.
I'll befamous some day/one day.
You must come and see me some time.
c Some can express strong feeling about something.
That was some parade (, wasn't it?).
Here some is pronounced /s $\Lambda \mathrm{m} /$. It means that the parade was special, perhaps a large and impressive one.

NOTE
We can use anywith the opposite meaning.
Thisisn'tjustanyparade.It'saratherspecialone.
d Some before a number means 'about'.
Some twenty people attended the meeting.

## 180 Other quantifiers

## 1 Enough and plenty of

a 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 ofthis essayfor today.
NOTE For enough as an adverb, • 212(1b).
b Plenty of means 'more than enough'.
There'll be plenty of people to lend a hand.
Yes, we've gotplenty oftime.
NOTE
We use plenty of to talk about something which is a good thing. For 'more than enough' in a bad sense we use too many/too much.

The store was very crowded. There were too many people to look round properly.

## 2 Another and some more

a 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 enoughfor 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'tyou put a little more effort into it?
NOTE
We can sometimes use more on its own instead of some more. Who'd like more sausages?

## 3 Other

a Other is an adjective meaning 'different'.
You're supposed to go out through the other door.
Do other peoplefind 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 halfthe sandwiches. The others/The rest were thrown away.
Some pubs servefood, but others don't.
I came on ahead. The others will be here soon. (= the other people)
NOTE
The other day/week means 'recently, not long ago'. I saw Miranda the other day.
b We use another before a number + noun, even when the number is more than one. We were enjoying ourselves so much we decided to stay onfor 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/two more rooms/another two rooms upstairs.

## 181 Quantifiers without a noun

1 We can use a quantifier without a noun, like a pronoun.
DEPARTMENT STORES IN LONDON
There are several large stores in London where you can buy practically anything; others are more specialized but still offer a wide choice of goods. Most have coffee shops and restaurants serving good, reasonably priced lunches and teas; many also have hairdressing salons.
(from R. Nicholson The London Guide)
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 sellfood. Afew 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.
NOTE
a After some quantifiers we can use one instead of a noun. - 189
I tried three doors, and each (one) was locked.
b All as a pronoun is possible but a little unusual.
All open on Saturday.
We normally use a different pattern.
All ofthem open on Saturday. They all open on Saturday.
But we sometimes use all+ clause meaning 'everything' or 'the only thing'.
I've told you all I know. Allyou need is love.
All can also mean 'everyone', although this use is old-fashioned and often formal.
All (those) infavour raise your hands. All were prepared to risk their lives.
c We can use another without a noun or with one.
The first bus wasfull, but another (one) soon arrived.
We can do the same with the adjective other.
I'll take one suitcase, and you take the other (one).
But when we leave out a plural noun, we use others or ones with an $s$. These letters are yours, and the others are minelthe other ones are mine. Some stores sell anything. Others are more specialized.

## 182 Overview: quantifiers

We can use each without a noun but not every.
Each can choose its own halfday.
NOT Every can cheese-its own halfday.
We cannot use no without a noun. We use none instead.
There are several routes up the mountain. None (ofthem) are easy.
We can also use a lot, plentyetc. 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.
$O f$ must have a noun or pronoun after it.
A lot (ofthem/ofthe stores) serve lunches.

## 182 Overview: quantifiers

This overview shows some ways of expressing different quantities. The examples show which kinds of noun are possible in the different patterns: singular (letter), plural (letters), or uncountable (money).

|  | Large/small quantity | Whole/part quantity • 178 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total |  | all letters/money (in general) all (of) the letter (s)/money the whole letter everyleach letter • 178(5) each of these letters |
|  |  | Of two • 178(4) both (your) letters both of your letters either letter either of the letters |
| Majority |  | most letters/money (in general) |
| - 178(2) | most of my letter | er (s) / money |
| Large <br> - 177(1) | a lot ofletters/money a lot many letters <br> a large number of letters much money <br> a large amount ofmoney <br> a great deal of money | of the letter ( $s$ ) / money many of his letters much of this letter/money $\cdot 178(7)$ |
| Neutral | some letters/money <br> /sm/ • 179(1) <br> a number ofletters <br> an amount of money | some (ofthe)letter(s)/money <br> /s sm/ • 179(3) <br> part of that letter/money •178(6) |



## 22 <br> Pronouns

## 183 Summary

## Personal pronouns - 184

We use personal pronouns for the speaker (I) and the person spoken to (you). We use he, she, it and they to refer to other people and things when it is clear from the context what we mean.
Judy isn't coming with us. She isn't very well.
Personal pronouns have both a subject and an object form.
I'm coming. Wait for me.

## Special uses of you, one, we and they • 185

We can use you, one, we and they to refer to people in general.
You can't buy much for a pound.
They're putting up the prices.

## Reflexive pronouns, emphatic pronouns and each other • 186

Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence.
Helen looked at herself in the mirror.
Emphatic pronouns lay emphasis on a noun phrase.
Helen did the wallpapering herself.
We use each other when the action goes in both directions.
Helen and Tim write each other long, passionate letters.

## OVERVIEW: personal pronouns, Possessives and reflexives • 187

Pronouns are related to possessive forms: I/me - my - mine - myself.

## One and ones • 188

We can use one(s) to replace a noun.
I'll have a cola. A large one.
We can use one to replace a noun phrase with a/an.
1 need a pound coin. Have you got one?
Everyone, something etc • 189
There are the compound pronouns everyone, something etc.
Everyone came to the party.

## NOTE

For question words (who, what etc) used as pronouns, • 27.
For possessive pronouns (mine, yours etc), • 174.
For demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those), • 175.
For quantifiers used as pronouns (some, many, a few etc), 181.
For relative pronouns (who, whom, which, that), 271.

## 184 Personal pronouns

In this real conversation, Avril, Lucy and Sarah are talking about Lucy's brother.
WHAT DOES MATTHEW LOOK LIKE?
Avril: If we said to you now, 'What does Matthew look like?' you probably
wouldn't be able to give as good a description as we could.
Lucy: Oh yes, I could.
Avril: All right then. What does he look like?
Lucy: No, you describe him to me and I'll tell you if you're right.
Avril: Well, he's quite tall, over sixfoot. And he's thin.
Lucy: Well, yes, Isuppose so.
Avril: Well, in proportion with his height, and he's gotfairly short black hair,...
Lucy: Not very short.
Avril: Well, perhaps it's grown since I saw him.
Lucy: It's short as opposed to long.
Avril: I couldn't tell you what colour his eyes were.
(from M. Underwood Have you heard?)

## 1 Introduction

a '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 |  |  |

## NOTE

a The pronoun $I$ is always a capital letter,
b You is the only second-person form.
You're quite right, Avril. You're late, all of you.
c For weak forms of pronouns, • 55(1b).
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.
NOTE
We sometimes use a subject pronoun as complement.
The young manlookedratherlikeMatthew, butitwasn'thim/he.
Who's that? ~ It's me.IIt is I.
Sarahknowsallaboutit. Itwasher/she who toldme.
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).
c 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 ringyou or me.
We normally put I/me last, NOT I and Matthew are good friends.
note
In a phrase with and or or, an object pronoun is sometimes used in subject position.
Matthew and me are goodfriends. You or him can have a turn now.
This happens only in informal English and is seen by many people as wrong. Some people incorrectly use $I$ even when the phrase is not the subject.

It's a present from Matthew and I.
d 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. • 42
e We do not normally use a pronoun together with a noun.
Matthew is quite tall, NOT Matthew he's quite tall.
NOTE
a A pronoun comes after the noun in this pattern with asfor.
Asfor Matthew, he's quite tall.
In informal speech, we can leave out asfor.
Matthew, he's quite tall.
Those new people, I saw them yesterday.
Here we mention the topic (Matthew, those new people) and then use a pronoun to refer to it.
b In informal speech we can use this pattern.
He's quite tall, Matthew.
It was late, the five o'clock train.
I saw them yesterday, those new people.
c We sometimes use a noun phrase after a pronoun to make clear who or what the pronoun refers to.

Matthew was waiting for David. He, Matthew, felt worried./He (Matthew) felt worried.
A We can sometimes use a phrase after a pronoun to modify it.
We left-handed people should stick together.
You alone must decide. Look at her over there.

## 2 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. $\sim$ Yes, we'd better hurry. (we = you and I)
We're late. $\sim$ You'd better hurry then. $($ we $=$ someone else and I$)$

## 3 Third-person pronouns

a 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.
(from T. Cairns The Romans and their Empire)
Here Caesar and Pompey have to be repeated. For example He was beaten in battle would not make it clear who was beaten.

```
NOTE
A pronoun usually goes after the full noun phrase, but it can come first.
    When she got home, Claire rang to thank us.
```

b 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 greatfun. I like Helen. She's greatfun.
I like that game. It's greatfun.
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'tyou rememberCelia? She was a great friend ofmine.
Don'tyou remember who gave you that vase? It was Celia.
NOTE
a We can use he or she for an animal if we know the animal's sex and we feel sympathy or interest. Compare these sentences.
$\boldsymbol{H e}$ 's a lovely little dog. It's a really vicious dog.
b We can use she/her for a country when we see it as having human qualities.
The country's oil has given it/her economic independence.
c We sometimes use $i t$ for a human baby of unknown sex. Look at that baby. It's been sick.
d We do not normally stress $i t$, but we can stress this/that. Good heavens! Halfpast ten! Is that the right time?
c They/them is plural and can refer to both people and things.
I like your cousins. They're greatfun. Ilike these pictures. They're super.

## 4 Overview: uses of it

Use
To refer to something non-human, e.g. a thing, a substance, an action, a feeling, an idea or a statement

Identifying a person
As empty subject • 50(5)
To give emphasis • 51 (3)

Example
I've lost my wallet. I can't find it anywhere.
Look at this water. It's a funny colour
Going on all those long walks was hard work. ~ It was exhausting.
Love is afunny thing, isn't it?
Everyone knows we cheated. It was obvious.
Who's this photo of? Is it your sister?
It's raining.
It's strange that your dream came true.
It was Matthew who told me.

## 5 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.
1 When the millionth visitor arrives, he will be given a free ticket. His photo will be taken by a press photographer.

2 When the millionth visitor arrives, he orshe will be given a free ticket. His or her photo will be taken by a press photographer.

3 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.

## NOTE

a The problem disappears if we can use a plural noun. Compare these two sentences.
A student is expected to arrange his or her own accommodation.
Students are expected to arrange their own accommodation.
b Sometimes we write he/she instead of he or she.
He/she will be presented with a video camera.

## 185 Special uses ofyou, one, we and they

1 You
This real conversation contains two examples of the pronoun you meaning 'people in general'.

## DRESSING FOR DINNER

Mary: Well, what sort ofclothes do women wear these days to sort of have dinner in a hotel on holiday?
Celia: I think you can wear anything these days.
Felix: Long skirt and top, that's what my wife always wears.
Mary: What do you mean 'top'?
Felix: Well, depending on how warm it is, you can either have a thin blouse or a blouse over a jumper.
(from M. Underwood Have you heard?)
Compare the two meanings ofyou.
What do you mean? (you = Felix, the person spoken to)
You can wear anything these days. (you = women in general)

## 2 One and you

a 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. • (4)
nоте
In Britain one is typical of upper-class speech, especially one instead of $\boldsymbol{I}$. I hope/One hopes things will improve.
b One can be the object.
Ice-cream isfull ofcalories. 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.
NOTE For American usage, • 304(6).
3 We
We can also mean 'people in general', 'all of us', especially when we talk about shared knowledge and behaviour.

We know that nuclear power has its dangers.
We use language to communicate.

## 4 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.

## 186 Reflexive pronouns, emphatic pronouns and eachother

## 1 Form

We form reflexive/emphatic pronouns with self or selves.

First person Second person Third person
Singular Plural

## 2 Reflexive pronouns

a 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)
NOTE
a We can also use a reflexive pronoun in a sub clause.
We saw the woman fall and hurt herself.
Giving themselves a pay rise wasn't very diplomatic ofthe directors.
b Myselfis sometimes an alternative to $m e$.
You should get in touch either with Peter or myself.
b 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 mydriving licence with me.
My mother likes all thefamily around her.
Sometimes we use a reflexive to make the meaning clear.
I bought these chocolatesformyself. ( not for someone else)
Vincent has a very high opinion ofhimself. ( 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 yourself 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, sitdown, 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.
NOTE
a We can use a reflexive pronoun when the action is difficult.
The old man was unable to dress himself.
My back was very painful, but I managed to get myself dressed.
b Dry in this context takes a reflexive.
Tom dried himselfon a large yellow bath towel.
c We often use get washed, get shaved, get (un)dressed and get changed.
Tom got dressed quickly and went down to breakfast.
d For have a wash/bath/shave, • 87.

## 3 Emphatic pronouns

a We use an emphatic pronoun to emphasize a noun phrase. Self/selves is stressed.
Walt Disney himself was the voice ofMickey Mouse.
(= Walt Disney, not someone else)
The town itselfis 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 wiringyourself?
NOTE
Myself sometimes means 'as for me', 'as far as I am concerned'.
I don't agree with it, myself.

## 4 Each other/one another

a 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 anotherfor 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.
c There is also a pattern each... the other.
Each driver blamed the other. Each girl wears the other's clothes.

[^12]
## 187 Overview: personal pronouns, Possessives and reflexives

|  | Personal | pronouns | • 184 | Possessives | • 174 | Reflexive/emphatic <br> pronouns • 186 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Subject | Object | Determiners | Pronouns |  |  |

## 188 One and ones

1 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.

NOTE
We cannot use one/ones instead of an uncountable noun, but we can leave out the noun. This is plain paper. I wanted lined.

2 Sometimes we can either use one/ones or leave it out. But sometimes we have to use it if we leave out the noun.
a Patterns where we can leave out one/ones
After a demonstrative
These pictures are nice. Ilike 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).
b 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.
NOTE
We can sometimes leave out one/ones when we use two adjectives.
We've got French books and German (ones).
Are these the old prices or the new (ones)?
We can also leave out one/ones after an adjective of colour.
My toothbrush is the blue (one).
3 We cannot use one after $a$. We leave out $a$.
Whenever you need a phone box, you can neverfind one. (= a phone box)
I don't know anything about weddings. I haven't been to one lately. (= a wedding)
4 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

- 188(2) Replacing a noun

A whisky, please. A large one. Two coffees, please. Smallones.

- 188(3) Replacing alan + noun I've just baked these cakes. Would you like one?
- 185(2) 'Any person' One shouldn't criticize.


## 189 Everyone, something etc

1 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.

## NOTE

a Every one as two words can refer to things as well as people.
The comedian told several jokes. Everyone laughed loudly. (stress on every)
The comedian told several jokes. Every one I had heard before. (stress on one)
b All and none do not normally mean 'everyone' and 'nobody'. But we can say all of/none of the people.
c Compare someone and one.
Someone knows what happened. (= one person)
One knows what happened. (= people in general)
d We write no one as two words.
b 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)
NOTE Nothing is pronounced / $\mathrm{n} \wedge \theta \mathrm{in} /$.
c 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.
NOTE For American someplace etc, • 305 (3).

2 The difference between someone/something and anyone/anything is like the difference between some and any. - 179

There's someone in the waiting-room.
I can't see anyone in the waiting-room.
Parksomewhere along here. Anywhere will do.
3 Pronouns in one/body have a possessive form.
Ineed everyone's name and address.
Somebody's car is blocking the road.
4 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)
NOTE
a A phrase with one/body + else can be possessive.
But everyone else's parents let them stay out late.
b We cannot use than after else.
How about someone other than me washing up?

5 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.
note
Someone and something usually have a singular meaning.
Someone was injured in the accident. (= one person)
Some people were injured in the accident. (= more than one person)
Something was stolen. (= one thing)
Some things were stolen. (= more than one thing)

# 23 <br> Numbers and measurements 

## 190 Summary

Cardinal numbers<br>-191

one, two, three etc
Ordinal numbers • 192
first, second, third etc
Fractions, decimals and percentages - 193
three quarters point seven five seventy-five per cent
Number of times • 194
once, twice, three times etc
Times and dates • 195
We use numbers when giving the time and the date.
twentypastsix October 17th
Some other measurements - 196
We also use numbers to express an amount of money, length, weight etc.

## 191 Cardinal numbers



21 twenty-one 100 a/one hundred
22 twenty-two 102 a/one hundred and two
30 thirty 164 a/one hundred and sixty-four
40 forty 596 five hundred and ninety-six
50 fifty 7,830 seven thousand eight hundred and thirty
60 sixty $1,000,000$ a/one million
70 seventy $\quad 1,000,000,000$ a/one billion
80 eighty
90 ninety

```
NOTE
a Be careful with these spellings: fifteen, eighteen, forty,fifty, eighty.
b We can use a or one before hundred, thousand, million etc.
                There's a hundred/one hundred metres to go!
                I've told you a thousand times not to do that.
                Unemployment stands at one million four hundred thousand.
    A is informal. One is usual in longer numbers. We cannot leave out a or one.
        NOT I've told you thousand times.
c Hundred, thousand, million etc are singular except in the of-pattern. - (3)
d We use and between hundred and the rest of the number (but not usually in
        the USA, - 304(7)).
e We put a hyphen in twenty-one, sixty-five etc, but not before hundred, thousand or million.
f We can write a thousand as 1,000 or 1 000 or 1000 but not 1.000.
g For the numbers 1100, 1200 etc up to 1900, we sometimes say eleven hundred, twelve
        hundred etc.
        The hostage spent over fourteen hundred days in captivity.
h In British English one billion can sometimes mean 1,000,000,000,000.
i We sometimes use alone dozen for 12.
        half a dozen eggs (= 6 eggs)
        And in informal English we can use a couple for two.
        We'll have to wait a couple ofminutes.
```

2 Here are some examples of numbers in written English. freefor 10 days 450 million trees the last 2 years in 24 other towns and cities 35,000 free air miles to be won aged 2 to 11 inclusive an apartment for 6 see page 10

Sometimes numbers are written in words, especially small numbers. one offour super prizes two bedrooms (one double and one single)

3 To express a large but indefinite number we can use dozens of, hundreds of, thousands of and millions of.

There were hundreds of people in the square, NOT eight hundreds of... A drop of water consists ofmillions ofatoms.

## note

We can use a definite number with the of-pattern for part of a quantity.
One of these letters is for you. Four of the passengers were injured.
4 We can use words and phrases like these to give an approximate number. about two years around a thousand pounds approximatelyfour miles

Here are some other ways of modifying a number.
more than 100 destinations over 5 metres long
less than ten miles below 10,000feet children under 3
only $£ 14.99$ at least 3 weeks sleeps up to 6 people

5 We also use numbers to identify someone or something, for example on a credit card, passport or ticket. We read each figure separately.

Express Card 4929806317445
'four nine two nine, eight oh six, three one seven, double four five'
Call us on 056892786
'oh five six eight, nine two seven eight six'
NOTE
We say 'oh' for the figure 0 in these numbers. When we talk about this figure, we use nought. You've missed out a nought here.
But in the USA (and sometimes in Britain) we say 'zero' for 0.

## 192 Ordinal numbers

1 We form most ordinals by adding th to the cardinal number, e.g. ten tenth. Twenty, thirty etc have ordinals twentieth, thirtieth etc. First, second and third are irregular.

| 1st first | 8th eighth | 21st twenty-first |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2nd second | 9th ninth | 22nd twenty-second |
| 3rd third | 12th twelfth | 54th fifty-fourth |
| 4th fourth | 13th thirteenth | 100th hundredth |
| 5th fifth | 20th twentieth | 347th three hundred andforty-seventh |

NOTE Be careful with these spellings: fifth, eighth, ninth, twelfth and twentieth etc.
2 Here are some examples.
her 65th birthday on the 83rd floor
The third andfourth adult passengers in your car can travelfree.
NOTE
a We also use ordinal numbers in fractions, • 193(1), and dates, • 195(2).
b George V is spoken 'George the fifth'.
c An ordinal number usually comes before a cardinal. - 143(3h) The first four runners were well ahead of the others.

## 193 Fractions, decimals and percentages

## 1 Fractions

a In fractions we use half, quarter or an ordinal number.
$1 / 2$ a/one half $11 / 2$ one and a half
$2 / 3$ two thirds $2^{1 / 3}$ two and a third
$1 / 4$ a/one quarter $63 / 4$ six and three quarters
4/5 four fifths $15 / 16$ fifteen sixteenths/fifteen over sixteen
b With numbers less than one, we use of before a noun phrase.
Two thirds of the field was under water.
We get a quarter ofthe profits.
Forhalf,•178(2b).
c With numbers above one, we can use a plural noun.
We waited one and a half hours.
I'd like six and three quarter metres, please.
NOTE
a With one and a half/quarter etc + noun, there is an alternative pattern.
one and a half hours/an hour and a half
one and a quarter pages/a page and a quarter
b The word directly before the noun is singular. Compare these phrases.
three quarters of a metre
six and three quarter metres

## 2 Decimals

We use a decimal point (not a comma). After the point we say each figure separately.
0.2 '(nought) point two'
7.45 'seven point four five'
15.086 'fifteen point oh/nought eight six'

NOIE Americans say 'zero' instead of nought' or 'oh'.

## 3 Percentages

Save 10\%! ('ten per cent' /pə'sent/)
an annual return of $14.85 \%$ ('fourteen point eight five per cent')
18 per cent ofthe total

## 194 Number of times

1 We can say once, twice, three times, four times etc to say how many times something happens.

I've done the exercise once. Isn't that enough?
We usually go out about twice a week.
You've told me that same story three times now.
NOTE
Once can mean 'at a time in the past'.
We lived in a bungalow once.
2 We can use twice, three times etc to express degree, to say how many times greater something is.

I earn double/twice what I used to/twice as much as I used to.
You're looking ten times better than you did yesterday.

## 195 Times and dates

## 1 The time of day

4.00 four (o'clock)
8.05 five (minutes) past eight eight oh five
2.10 ten (minutes) past two two ten
5.12 twelve minutes past five five twelve
11.15 (a) quarter past eleven eleven fifteen
9.30 half past nine nine thirty
1.35 twenty-five (minutes) to two one thirty-five
10.45 (a) quarter to eleven
tenforty-five
eight minutes to eight
seven fifty-two
Note
a We use o'clock only on the hour. We can leave it out in informal English.
I usually get home at about six.
We do not use o'clock with am/pm or after the figures 00 .
four o'clock/4 o'clock
NOTfour o'clock pm and NOT 4.00 o'clock
b In most contexts we can use either way of saying the time. We usually prefer a phrase like
half past five in everyday contexts and five thirty for a timetable.
I got home about half past five/about five thirty.
The train leaves at five thirty/at half pastfive.
c We can use $a m$ /ei'em/ meaning 'in the morning' and $\mathrm{pm} / \mathrm{pi}:$ 'em/ meaning 'in the afternoon or evening'. The match starts at 3.00 pm .
Twelve o'clock in the day is midday or noon. Twelve o'clock at night is midnight.
d We sometimes use the 24 -hour clock in timetables. The next train is the 15.30. ('fifteen thirty')
For times on the hour we sometimes say hundred hours. 23.00 'twenty-three (hundred) hours'
e We usually leave out minutes after 5, 10, 20 and 25 , but we must use it after other numbers. seventeen minutes past/to six NOT seventeen past/to six
f In informal speech we can leave out the hour if it is known. It's nearly twenty past (four), already.
Using half for half past is also informal. What time is it? ~ Halfnine.
g Americans also use after and of, e.g. ten past/after two, a quarter to/of eleven.

## 2 Dates

a When we write the date, we can use either a cardinal number such as 15 or an ordinal number such as 15 th.

15 August August 15 15th August August 15th
3 May May 3 3rd May May 3rd
In speech ordinal numbers are usual.
'the fifteenth of August' August the fifteenth'
'the third of May' 'May the third'
The date can also be spoken like this, especially in the USA.
'August fifteenth'
NOTE
a 'August fifteen' is also possible.
b 5/3/93 means 5th March 1993 in Britain and 3rd May 1993 in the USA.
b We say the year like this.
1995 'nineteen ninety-five' 1763 'seventeen sixty-three'
347 'three forty-seven' 1500 'fifteen hundred'
1801 'eighteen oh one' 2000 '(the year) two thousand'
NOTE Other expressions are the 1980s ('the nineteen eighties'), and a man in his fifties.

## 196 Some other measurements

## 1 Money

| 30p | 'thirty pence' | 20c | 'twenty cents' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 'thirty p' /pi:/ | $\$ 10$ | 'ten dollars' |
| $£ 1.00$ | 'a/one pound' | $\$ 12.50$ | 'twelve (dollars) fifty' |
| $£ 2.50$ | 'two pound(s) fifty' |  |  |
|  | 'two fifty' |  |  |

a Fora hundred pounds we write $£ 100$. NOT a $£ 100$
b We can talk about $a$ fifty-pence coin or $a$ fifty, a twenty-pound note or a twenty. Have you got a ten pound note? Can I have the money in tens, please?

2 Length
$6 \mathrm{ft} 2 \mathrm{ins} / 6$ '2" 'six feet/foot two 190cm 'a hundred and ninety
inches'
100 yards 'a hundred yards' 100 m 'a hundred metres'
20 miles 'twenty miles' 30km 'thirty kilometres'
3 Weight
½lb 'half a pound' 250 g 'two hundred and fifty grams'
2 lbs 'two pounds' 1 kg 'a kilo/kilogram'

## 4 Liquid measure

| 1 pint | 'a pint' | $1 / 2$ litre | 'half a litre' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 6 gallons | 'six gallons' | 30 litres | 'thirty litres' |

5 Temperature $60^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$ 'sixty degrees (Fahrenheit)' $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ 'fifteen degrees (Celsius)'

NOTE
We use zero for freezing point.
The temperature will fall below zero.

## 24 <br> Adjectives

## 197 Summary

## Introduction to adjectives • 198

Adjectives are words like short, old, cheap, happy, nice, electric. Most adjectives express quality; they tell us what something is like.

An adjective always has the same form, except for comparison (shorter, shortest).

## The position of adjectives - 199

An adjective can come before a noun. a cheap shirt
It can also be a complement after be. This shirt is cheap.

## Adjectives used in one position only - 200

A few adjectives can go in one position but not in the other.
Some adjectives have different meanings in different positions.
at a certain time (= specific) Are you certain? (= sure)
Adjectives after nouns and pronouns - 201
Sometimes an adjective can go after a noun or pronoun. shoppers eagerfor bargains

The order of adjectives -202
There is usually a fixed order of adjectives before a noun. a nice old house

## Amusing and amused, interesting and interested •203

Adjectives in ing express the effect something has on us.
The delay was annoying.
Adjectives in ed express how we feel.
The passengers were annoyed.
The + adjective - 204
We can use the + adjective for a social group.
There's no work for the unemployed.

## NOTE

There can be a phrase or clause after some adjectives.
Adjective + prepositional phrase: I'm afraid of heights. • 236
Adjective + to-infinitive: It's nice to have a bit of a rest. • 123
Adjective + clause: The passengers were annoyed that no information was given. • 262(6)

## 198 Introduction to adjectives

## 1 Use

PARADISE APARTMENTS
An excellent choicefor 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).

```
NOTE
a We use adjectives of quality to answer the question What... like?
        What's the area like? ~ Oh, it's veryquiet.
    Adjectives of type answer the question What kind of...?
        What kind ofarea is it? ~ Mainly residential.
b A modifier can also be a noun, e.g. a summer holiday, a gift shop. - }14
```


## 2 Form

a 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. - 218
My wife is older than Iam. 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. - 285(5)
careful planning a salty taste globalwarming artisticmerit

## 199 The position of adjectives

1 An adjective phrase can have one or more adjectives.
a large stadium a large, empty stadium
For details about the order of adjectives, - 202.
An adverb of degree can come before an adjective. - 212
a very large stadium an almost empty stadium
a very large, almost empty stadium
note
a The adverb enough follows the adjective.
Will the stadium be large enough?
b We can put a phrase of measurement before some adjectives. The man is about forty years old and six feet tall.

## 199 The position of adjectives

2 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. Ibought a black and white sweater.
A noisy party kept us awake. It's a difficult problem.
NOTE For the pattern so lovely a city, •212(4).
4 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.

```
NOTE
a An adjective can also be an object complement. - 11(1)
            Why must you make things difficult? A noisy party kept us awake.
b We can use an adjective in an exclamation with how. - 20(1)
            How lovely the view is! How cold your hands are!
        An adjective can also be a one-word reply, e.g. Oh, good./Lovely.
c For The party seemed noisy and The door banged noisily, - 209(1b).
```

5 In these patterns we leave out words before a predicative adjective.
a I've got a friend keen on fishing. - 201
(= ... a friend who is keen on fishing.)
b Could you let me know as soon as possible?
( $=\ldots$ 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.
c Pick thefruit 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.

6 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 ofdoors.

## 200 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.

## 1 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).

NOTE
a Little is mostly attributive.
a little/small cottage The cottage is small.
b Same cannot be predicative except with the.
Yes, I had the same experience./Yes, my experience was the same.
c A noun as modifier can only be attributive. a tennis club a water pipe afternoon tea
But nouns saying what something is made of can go in either position. It's a metal pipe./The pipe is metal.

## 2 Predicative only

The children were soon asleep. NOT the asleep children
The manager seemed pleased with the salesfigures.
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
NOTE
a Many of these adjectives can be attributive if they are modified by an adverb. the wide awake children an extremely pleased customer
b There is sometimes a word that we can use attributively instead of one with the prefix $a$. a sleeping child NOT an asleep child a living person NOT an alive person thefrightened animal NOT the afraid animal
There are also other words expressing feelings which we can use attributively. a satisfied/contented customer NOT a pleased customer
c Pleased, glad and upset can be attributive when not referring directly to people. a pleased expression the glad news an upset stomach
d For more details about well, ill etc in Britain and the USA, • 305(1).

## 3 Different meanings in different positions

| Attributive only | Attributive | Predicative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a real hero | real wood | The wood is real. |
| (degree) |  | (= not false) |
| a perfect idiot (degree) | aperfect day | The day was perfect. |
| You poor thing! (sympathy) | a poor result | The result was poor. |
|  |  | (= 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) |  |  |

## 4 A beautiful dancer

In phrases like a beautiful dancer, an interesting writer, a heavy smoker, a frequent visitor, an oldfriend, the adjective usually modifies the action not the person.

Attributive
She's a beautiful dancer.
(= Her dancing is beautiful.)
He was afrequent visitor.
(= His visits were frequent.)

Predicative
The dancer is beautiful.
(= The dancer is a beautiful person.)

## 201 Adjectives after nouns and pronouns

1 Some adjectives can have a prepositional phrase after them.
People were anxiousfor news. The field wasfull ofsheep.
The adjective + prepositional phrase cannot go before the noun, but it can go directly after it.
People anxiousfor news kept ringing the emergency number.
We walked across a field full of sheep.
2 Sometimes the position of the adjective depends on the meaning.
The amount ofmoney 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 havejoined the protest. (= worried)

There were ten members of staff present. (= there)
Ourpresent problems are much worse. (= now)
Judy seems a responsible person. (= sensible)
The person responsible will be punished. (= who did it).
NOTE
a Available can come before or after a noun.
Theonlyavailabletickets/Theonlyticketsavailable wereveryexpensive.
b Possible can come after the noun when there is a superlative adjective.
Wetookthe shortestpossible route/theshortestroutepossible.
c The adjective follows the noun in a few titles and idiomatic phrases.
the Director General a SergeantMajor the Princess Royal thesumtotal
3 Adjectives come after a compound with every, some, any and no.
Let's find somewhere quiet. You mustn't do anything silly.

## 202 The order of adjectives

## 1 Attributive adjectives

a 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:
Material:
British, Italian, American, etc
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 improvedformula (age + participle form)
increasing financial difficulties (participle form + type)
two excellent public tennis courts (opinion + type + purpose)
NOTE
a These rules are not absolute. The order can sometimes be different. We sometimes prefer to put a short adjective before a long one.
abighorrible building
b Old and young referring to people often come next to the noun.
a dignified old lady a pale young man
Here old and young are unstressed,
c Words for material are mostly nouns (brick), but some are adjectives (wooden).
Words for type can be adjectives (chemical) or nouns (money problems). Words for purpose are nouns (alarm clock) or gerunds (walking boots).
b 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

## 2 And and but with attributive adjectives

a 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)
b 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

## 3 Predicative adjectives

a 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.
NOTE
We can use nice and lovely in this pattern with and.
The room was nice and warm. (= nicely warm)
b We can use butwhen two qualities are in contrast.
The solution is cheap but effective.

## 203 Amusing and amused, interesting and interested

Compare the adjectives in ing and $e d$.
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 |

NOTE These words have the same form as active and passive participles. • 137

## 204 The + adjective

## 1 Social groups

a 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 oldare greatly respected.
b 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 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
note
a In a few contexts, the + adjective can mean a specific group rather than people in general.
The injured were taken to hospital.
b A few adjectives can come after a/an to mean a specific person.
Now a superstar, she was an unknown only two years ago.
c There are a few adjectives that we can use as nouns, such as colour words. They take $s$ in the plural.
a black (= a black person) the Greens (= supporters of the green movement)
d For the French, •288.

## 2 Abstract qualities

a We can use some adjectives after the to refer to things in general which have an abstract quality.

There are a lot ofbooks on the supernatural.
The human race has a great thirstfor 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.
b 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, hopefor the best, in the dark
c 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 cannotleave out thing here.

## 25

## Adverbials

## 205 Summary

Introduction to adverbials - 206
An adverbial can be an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase or noun phrase.
Luckily the money was on my desk when I arrived this morning.
Adverb forms • 207
Many adverbs end in ly: quietly, finally, certainly. There are some pairs of adverbs like hard and hardlywith different meanings.

The position of adverbials • 208
Some adverbials come next to the word or phrase they modify.
those people over there really nice
Some adverbials modify a verb or a whole clause. They come in front, mid or end position.

| Front | Mid | End |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Today the train | actually left | on time. |

Types of adverbial
Adverbs of manner • 209
slowly, with a smile (how?)
Place and time - 210
here, at the post office (where?)
yesterday, next week (when?)
ages, for three weeks (how long?)
Adverbs of frequency • 211
often, every week (how often?)
Adverbs of degree • 212
very, a bit (how?)
Focus and viewpoint • 213
only,especially
medically, from a political point of view
Truth adverbs • 214
probably, on the whole

Comment adverbs•215
luckily, to our amusement

## Linking adverbs•216

also, on the other hand
NOTE
For phrasal verbs, e.g. Switch the light off, • 230.
For means, e.g. I cut it with a knife, - 228(5).
For function/role, e.g. I use this room as my office, • 228(6).
For where, when, why and how in questions, • 27, and as relative adverbs, 279 .

## 206 Introduction to adverbials

In this real conversation Liz is telling a friend how she and Tony were stopped by the police.

## STOPPED BY THE POLICE

Liz: It was at about eleven o'clock at night, and at that sort oftime the police are always lookingfor people who've been drinking. And I can remember very well that we were in a hurry to get home because Catherine was with a babysitter, but she wasn't at home, she was in someone else's house, and we wanted to get back before they were ready to go to bed. Do you remember?
Tony: We'd been to the cinema.
Liz: Mhm. And I can remember...
Tony: Hadn't had a drinkfor days.
Liz: No. I can remember distinctly that you were going very very slowly as you saw the police car infront of you, and then you said in a very impatient fashion, 'Oh, they're doing this on purpose. They're going very slowly. I will overtake them.' You overtook them, and sure enough they thought that that was worth stopping youfor. So they did.
Tony: So they gotout, and they inspected the car thoroughly in a very officious manner.
(from M. Underwood and P. Barr Listeners)
1 An adverbial can have these forms.
Adverb phrase: You were going very slowly. We wanted to get back.
Prepositional phrase: Catherine wasn't at home. You saw the police car infront of you.
Noun phrase: We wanted to get home. It happened last week.

2 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.
For details, • 12.
Putting in an extra adverbial adds something to the meaning. For example, it can tell us how, when or where something happened.

3 An adverbial can modify different parts of the sentence.
The car infront 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.

## 207 Adverb forms

1 Some adverbs are unrelated to other words, e.g. always, soon, very, perhaps. But many adverbs are formed from an adjective $+l y$, e.g. quick quickly, certain certainly.

```
NOTE
There are some spelling rules for adverbs in ly.
Y changing to i: easy easily - 294
Adjectives ending in consonant + le: probable probably - 292(5)
Adjectives ending in ic: magic magically • 292(5)
```

2 We cannot add $l y$ to an adjective which already ends in $l y$. Instead we can either use a prepositional phrase with manner/way/fashion, or we can use another adverb.

We received afriendly greeting. They greeted us in afriendly manner. NOT friendlily
That isn't very likely. Thatprobably won't happen.
Some adjectives in ly are friendly, lively, lovely, silly, ugly, cowardly, lonely, costly, likely.
note
Some adjectives ending in $e d$ have no adverb form.
The woman staredinastonishment, NOT astonishedly
But those ending in ted can take an ly ending.
Thecrowdshoutedexcitedly.
3 Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives.
Adjective Adverb
Louise caught thefast train.
We didn't have a long wait.
I had an early night.

The train was going quitefast.
We didn't have to wait long.
I went to bed early.

Other adverbs like this are walk straight, sit still and bend low. For hard, hardly, late, lately etc, • (5).

4 Sometimes the adverb can be with or without $l y$. It is more informal to leave out $l y$.
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, • 305(2).

## 208 The position of adverbials

> NOTE
> a We use the form without ly only in common expressions, e.g. talk so loud, go slow,
> fly direct, playfair. We use ly with longer or less common expressions.
> Do you have to rustle that newspaper so loudly? We need to take action quickly.
> b Right and wrong are adverbs of manner, but rightly and wrongly express a comment.
> I'll try to do it right this time.
> Helen decided rightly to call the police.
> c First and last are both adjectives and adverbs.
> Karen took first place/came first in the race.
> Firstly and lastly are linking adverbs.
> First/Firstly, I'd like to thank you allfor coming.

5 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. Mikefeels very deeply about this.
Airline stafftravel free. The prisoners can move around freely.
(= without paying) (= uncontrolled)
This ear hurts the most.
We mostly stay in. (= usually)
6 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.
7 Good is an adjective, and well is its adverb.
Roger is agood singer, isn't he?
Roger sings well, doesn'the? 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.
NOTE We use well in expressions such as well organized, well deserved and well known.

## 208 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.

## 1 Modifying a noun, adjective or adverb

a 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, • 148.
b An adverb which modifies an adjective or adverb usually goes before it. - 212
That's very kind of you. We heard the signal fairly clearly.

## 2 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, Ican't say.
Mid: I can't really say.
End: Ican'tsay, really.
Sometimes we can also put an adverbial after the subject. - (4) Note c
Ireally can't say.

## 3 Front position

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.
For an example text, • 49(1).
note
A prepositional phrase can sometimes be the subject.
Along that path is the quickest way. After lunch is usually a quiet time.
For there $+b e$, 50 .

## 4 Mid position

The police are always lookingfor people at this time.
This stereo is definitelyfaulty.
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 | bookedour tickets. <br> The news | will |

Most types of short adverbial can go here, especially adverbs of frequency (often), but not phrases.

NOT Ievery time get the worstjobs.

[^13]
## 208 The position of adverbials

> c We sometimes put an adverb after the subject and before the verb phrase. This happens especially with a negative (probably doesn't) or when there is stress (really 'are). It probably doesn't matter very much. You really are serious, aren't you? An adverb also goes before have to, used to and ought to. I never have to wait longfor a bus.
> Sometimes the position can affect the meaning. Compare these sentences. They deliberately didn't leave the heating on. (They left it off on purpose.) They didn't deliberately leave the heating on. (They left it on by mistake.)

## 5 End position

a I hadn't had a drinkfor days. The police were driving very slowly. They're doing this on purpose.
Most types of adverbial can come here, especially prepositional phrases.
b 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.
c 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.
NOTE
When there are two clauses, the position of the adverb can affect the meaning.
They agreed immediately that the goods would be replaced. (an immediate agreement)
They agreed that the goods would be replaced immediately. (an immediate replacement)

## 6 Order in end position

a 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.
b 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.

Igo to work by bus. Charles came home late.
c 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.
NOTE
A smaller place usually comes before a larger one.
They live in a bungalow near Coventry.

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.

## 209 Adverbs of manner

## 1 Adjectives and adverbs

a Look at these examples.

| Adjective | Adverb |
| :--- | :--- |
| Kevin had a quick snack. | He ate quickly. |
| Kate isfluent in Russian. | She speaks Russian fluently. |
| Think ofa 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 $+l y$. For adverbs without $l y$,

- 207(3-4).
b 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 smelledfunny.
The atmosphere grew tense.

Dave smelled the milk suspiciously. 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.
Itmustbe handled withgreat care.
Theyinspectedthecarinanextremelyofficiousmanner.

## 3 Position

a We put an adverbial of manner mainly in end position, • 208(5). 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.
b The adverbial can sometimes come in front position for emphasis. - 49(1c)
Without another word, he walked slowly away up the strip.

## 210 Place and time

## 1 Position

a 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 the Thames.
The office is closedfor two weeks.
For more than one adverbial in end position, • 208(6).
b 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, •49(1).
c Some short adverbials of time can go in mid position.
I'vejust 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.
d An adverbial of place or time can modify a noun.
The radiator in the hall is leaking.
Exports lastyear broke all records.

## 2 Yet, still and already

a We use yet for something that is expected.
Have you replied to the letteryet? ~ No, notyet.
I got up late. I haven't had breakfastyet.
Yet comes at the end of a question or negative statement.

## NOTE

We can use yet in mid position, but it is a little formal.
We have notyet reached a decision on the matter.
b 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 Carlstill 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 readyet.

## NOTE

Still can go after a negative auxiliary when we express surprise. Compare these sentences. I still don't feel well. (= I still feel ill.)
You don't stillfeel sick, do you? (= I am surprised that you still feel sick.)
c 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 cameyesterday.
Already in end position has more emphasis.
Good heavens! It's lunch time already.
Have you typed the whole reportalready?
NOTE
Already can go after the subject and before a stressed auxiliary. I already 'have typed the report, I tell you.

## 3 No longer, any more and any longer

a 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.
b We often use any longer in a negative sentence for something that is about to end.
I'm not going to wait any longer.

## 4 Long andfar

a 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.
Ihad to wait a long time/ wait ages. It's a long way to Vladivostok.
$b$ 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 waitso long/such a long time.
Let's go back now. We've walkedfar enough.
NOTE
We can also use the comparative and superlative forms in positive statements.
The journey takes longer in the rush hour. You threw the ballfurthest.

## 5 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 halfan 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.

## 211 Adverbs of frequency

1 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. Ioften get up in the night.
Some adverbs of frequency are always; normally, generally, usually; often, frequently; sometimes, occasionally; seldom, rarely; never.

```
NOTE
a The adverb can sometimes go after the subject and before a negative auxiliary. Compare
    these sentences.
        Idon't often have breakfast. (= I seldom have breakfast.)
        I often don't have breakfast. (= I often go without breakfast.)
    Sometimes goes before a negative auxiliary.
        You sometimes can't get a table here.
b Seldom and rarely are a little formal. In informal speech we use not often.
        Idon't often playcards.
c Never is a negative word. - 17(4)
        I've neverfelt so embarrassed in my life. Will you never learn?
    We use ever mainly in questions.
        Have you ever done any ballroom dancing? ~ No, never.
    But we can also use ever with negative words.
        I haven't everfelt so embarrassed.
        You hardly ever buy me flowers.
    Ever can add emphasis to the negative.
        No one ever said that to me before.
        Nothing ever happens in this place.
        I never ever want to see that awful man again.
    We can also use ever in conditions and comparisons.
        If you ever feel like a chat, just drop in.
        James swam faster than he'd ever done before.
    Ifever can go before the subject.
        If ever you feel like a chat, just drop in.
    We do not normally use ever in positive statements.
        Ialways have lots to do. NOT I ever have lots to do.
```

2 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.
$A \operatorname{lot}(=$ often) goes in end position.
We go out a lot at weekends.

## note

a Always, never and often in front position are emphatic.
Always the ghost appeared at the same time.
We can use always and never in instructions.
Never try to adjust the machine while it is switched on.
b For never, seldom and rarely with inversion, • 17(6c).

3 We can also use a phrase with every, mostor 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.
NOTE
Compare often and several times.
We've often been skiing. (= many times over a long period)
We've been skiing several times. (= perhaps four or five times)
4 The adverbs daily (= every day), weekly etc go in end position.
Are you paid weekly or monthly?

## 212 Adverbs of degree

## 1 Modifying an adjective or adverb

a 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 herfairly 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 • 220
We can also use a fraction or percentage.
The bottle is only halffull.
Theforecast was eighty per cent accurate.

## NOTE

a We use completely, totally, absolutely etc with words expressing a full or large degree.
This tin opener is completely useless. (useless $=$ absolutely no use)
We are absolutely delighted at the news. (delighted $=$ very pleased)
We do not normally use very or extremely with these words.
It's very unsatisfactory. NOT It's very useless.
We were extremely pleased. NOT We were extremely delighted:
Some words that do not normally take very or extremely are: amazed, amazing, appalled, appalling, awful, complete, delighted, dreadful, essential, false, fascinated, horrible, ideal, impossible, incredible, magnificent, marvellous, perfect, terrible, terrific, useless.
b After a phrase with very we can put indeed for extra emphasis.
It's very cold indeed today.
c We often use very with a negative. These photos aren't very good. This is more usual than These photos aren't good or These photos are bad.
d Instead of really we can use real in informal speech, especially in American English. It's real cold today.
$e \quad$ Pretty and $a$ bit are informal.
f Somewhat, a little, a bit and slightly have an unfavourable sense. The carriage was somewhat crowded. I felt a bitsick.
But we can use them with comparatives in a favourable sense. I felt a bit better/somewhat more cheerful.
g At all can also go in end position. It wasn't interesting at all.
For phrases used to emphasize a negative, - 17(6b).
h In informal English we can use that instead of so in a negative sentence. No, they don't own an aeroplane. They aren't that rich.
i We can use much, far or rather to modify too. This coat is much too big for me.
j For twicelthree times as expensive, • 194(2).
b 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).
NOTE
Compare enough as adverb and as quantifier.
I'm not rich enough./I haven't enough money.

## 2 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.

## 3 Modifying a superlative

It wasjust about the nicest holiday I could have imagined.
We offer easily the best value/byfar the best value.
NOTE
The adverb can sometimes come after the phrase with a superlative.
We offer the best value byfar.

## 4 So/such, quite and too

We can use most adverbs of degree with an attributive adjective.
that very tall girl myfairly 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 cuttoo shortapiece, NOT a too short piece
I knowjust 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 sofamous an artist.
I don't like to criticize such afamous artist.
note
a We can use rather in both patterns.
We had a rather long wait/rather a long wait.
b We can use such and rather $+a / a n+$ noun without an adjective.
Thatman is such an idiot. It's rather a pity you won't be here.
We can also use a bitof.
Sorry. The flat's inabit 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 Thatwassome party. •179(5c)

## 5 Quite and rather

a Stress
In these examples with quite, the adjective is stressed.
It's quite 'warm today. (It's warmer than expected.)
Yourfriends 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.
b 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.)
c 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. Thefilm was quite brilliant.
Ifeelquite tired. I feel quite exhausted.

## 212 Adverbs of degree

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 |

```
NOTE
a We can sometimes use fairly etc with some of the adjectives listed above, especially in
    informal speech.
        The task isfairly impossible. Ifeel pretty exhausted.
    But quite impossible/exhausted etc always means 'completely'.
b Not quite means 'not completely'.
            What you said is not quite true. (= almost true)
c Quite + like/enjoy/want = fairly.
    I quite enjoyed the film. It was quite good.
        Quite + agree/understand = completely.
            Iquite agree. You're quite right.
```


## 6 Modifying a preposition

Some adverbs of degree can modify a preposition.
The offices are right in the centre oftown.
I'm not very up to date, I'm afraid.
For more examples, • 224(3).

## 7 Modifying a verb

a 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 rathercan also go in end position.
I completelyforgot the time./I forgot the time completely.
NOTE
The adverb goes before a stressed auxiliary • 208(4) Note c, and also sometimes before a negative auxiliary.

I just don't know what to do. The driver almost didn't see the red light.
b 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.
c Some adverbs go in end position when they modify a verb.
During the speech my attention wandered alot.
This tooth aches terribly.
These are a lot, verymuch; a bit, a little, slightly; somewhat; terribly, awfully; more, (the) most.
d 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: Ilike this sweater very much. NOT I like this sweater much.

## 8 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 + afew/a bit (of)
We've had quite afew 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?
note
We can use much, far or rather to modify too. You've putfar too much salt in.

## 213 Focus and viewpoint

## 1 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.

## NOTE

Compare even and also.
Everyone laughed, even the teacher.
(Everyone includes the teacher.)
We've invited the whole class, and also the teacher.
(The whole class does not include the teacher.)

## 2 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.

```
NOTE
```

a Only can be an adjective.
Saturday is the only day I can go shopping.
b We can use the adverb just (= only).
I knewjust one of the other guests.
b 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).
c In official written English, e.g. on notices, only comes after the word or phrase it focusses on.

Waiting limited to 30 minutes only

## 3 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's hell to work in.
As far as insurance is concerned, we can fix that up for you.
NOTE
A viewpoint adverb can also modify an adjective.
The scheme is economically beneficial but environmentally disastrous.

## 214 Truth adverbs

1 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.
NOTE For Mandy might have missed the bus, - 97.
2 We can also use a prepositional phrase.
The whole thing is ridiculous in my opinion.
Ofcourse 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'sfused the lights, I expect.
I'm sure you've made a mistake.

## 215 Comment adverbs

1 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.
2 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.
Istupidly left the car unlocked. (= It was stupid of me.) The man stared stupidly. (= in a stupid manner)

3 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.
4 We can comment on why we are saying something.
Honestly,/To be honest, I think you're making the wrong decision.

## 216 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 notjust grow bigger and heavier. Its shape and body proportions also change as it grows up.
When Beethoven wasfourteen, he wasforced to give lessons to support his
parents. However, he stillfound time to take afew 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.

Some other linking adverbs are as well, too, in addition, furthermore, - 244; nevertheless, on the other hand, • 246; therefore, consequently, as a result, •247; likewise; instead. They have similar meanings to conjunctions such as and, but, so and $i f$.

2 Here are some other ways of relating one clause or sentence to another.

Ordering:
Summing up:
Rephrasing:
Correcting:
Giving examples:
Picking up a topic: I think I'll have the sausages. ~Talking of sausages, did you know there's a barbecue on Saturday?
Changing the subject: I had a lovely lunch. ~ Good. By the way, where did you put thatfile?
Supporting a statement: I think I'd better be going. It's past midnight, after all.
Dismissing something: I don't know whether we did the right thing. Anyway, it doesn't matter now.
Comparing: The government sold the telephone service to private investors. Gas and electricity were privatized in the same way.

## 26 Comparison

## 217 Summary

## The comparative and superlative of adjectives - 218

Adjectives can have a comparative form (newer, more modern), and a superlative form (newest, most modern). Short adjectives take erlest, and long ones take more/most.

The comparative and superlative of adverbs • 219
Adverbs can have a comparative form (faster, more rapidly) and a superlative form (fastest, most rapidly).

More, most, less, least, fewer and fewest • 220
We can use more, most, less etc to compare quantities.
There's more traffic on a weekday.

## Patterns expressing a comparison •221

We use these patterns to make comparisons.
The new system is more complicated than the old one.
. Nothing is ever as simple as it seems.
Greenland is the largest island in the world.
It was the most embarrassing thing that ever happened to me.
Special patterns with the comparative - 222
And we can use these special patterns.
The people in the queue were getting more and more impatient.
The longer people have to wait, the more impatient they get.

## 218 The comparative and superlative of adjectives

> GOLD AND COPPER
> 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 usefor skinning a bear, sofrom early times gold became the metalfor ornaments. Copper is much harder; it would have been much more difficultfor early man to shape, but the finished article was more durable.

MIDTOWN MANHATTAN<br>Midtown Manhattan, which ranges roughly from 34th to 59th Streets and river to river, is a center ofsuperlatives. The biggest buildings, best restaurants, most art galleries, brightest lights, greatest concentration ofbig business, largest complex of theaters and concert houses, best bargain basements, most exclusive couture houses, and the most specialized services are all here.<br>(from Fodor's Budget Travel in America)

## 1 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.

NOTE
a For patterns such as softer than copper, the biggest in the USA, •221.
b The traditional rule is that we use a comparative (softer, more durable) for two items, and we use the superlative (biggest, most exclusive) for more than two. But in informal English we often use the superlative to refer to one of only two items.

Which of these two photos is better/best?

## 2 Form

a These are the regular forms.

|  |  | Comparative | Superlative |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Short adjective | soft | softer | softest |
| Long adjective | exclusive | more exclusive | most exclusive |

Short adjectives take erlest, and long adjectives take more/most. For rules about which adjectives count as short and which as long, - (4).

```
NOTE
a There are some spelling rules for er/est.
    No doubling of e: fine finer - 292(2)
    Doubling of some consonants: hot hottest •293
Y changing to i: heavy heavier - 294
b For less soft,least exclusive, - 221(2).
c In rather formal English most can mean 'very'. Compare the most and a most.
    Superlative: It's the most exclusive store in New York.
    Degree: It's a most exclusive store. (= very exclusive)
d When we compare two qualities, we use more, not er.
        I was more sad than angry.
    Here are two other ways of saying the same thing.
        I was not so much angry as sad.
        I was sad rather than angry.
```

b 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.
NOTE
a The adjectives well (= in good health) and ill take these irregular forms. Ifeel a lot better now. She looks worse today.
b Forfarther/further and elder/eldest, • (5).

## 3 Position

A comparative or superlative adjective can come in the same position as other adjectives.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Attributive: } & \text { a softer metal } & \text { the most specialized services } \\
\text { Predicative: } & \text { Gold is softer. } & \text { Which building is tallest? }
\end{array}
$$

We usually put the before a superlative adjective.
Jupiter is the biggest planet.
Jupiteris (the) biggest.

## 4 Long and short adjectives

In general, short adjectives take er/est while long ones take more/most. Onesyllable 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 erlest (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.

## 218 Comparative and superlative of adjectives

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.

```
NOTE
Happy etc can still take er/est, even with a negative prefix: unhappier, untidiest.
Also: unpleasantest/most unpleasant.
```

c Adjectives of three or more syllables (e.g. difficult, magnificent)
These always take more/most (more difficult, most difficult).
d Overview
Always er/est: Most of one-syllable, e.g. small
Usually er/est: Two syllables ending in $y$, e.g. lucky
Either erlest Some of one syllable, e.g. clear, true
or more/most: $\quad$ Some of two syllables, e.g. narrow, common
Always more/most: $\quad$ One syllable ending in ed, e.g. pleased
Most of two syllables, e.g. careful, boring
Three or more syllables, e.g. expensive, magnificent

## 5 Some special forms

a Farther/further and farthest/furthest
These words express distance. We use them as adjectives and adverbs.
Thefarthest/furthest moon is 13 million kilometresfrom Saturn.
I can't walk anyfarther/further.
Further (but not farther) can express quantity.
Let's hope there are nofurther problems. (= no more problems)
b 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.
c Latest and last
Latest means 'furthest ahead in time' or 'newest'.
What's the latest time we can leave and still catch the train?
Thisjacket is the latestfashion.
Last means 'before' or 'final'.
I had my hair cut last week.
This is the last time I lend anyone my car.
d Nearest and next
Nearest means the shortest distance away. Nextrefers 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)

## 219 The comparative and superlative of adverbs

1 Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives, - 207(3-5). 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 afew minutes earlier than usual.
NOTE
Soon also takes er/est.
Ifwe all help, we'll get the job finished sooner.
2 There are a few irregular forms.

|  | Comparative | Superlative |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| well $\quad$ better | best |  |
| badly $\quad$ worse | worst |  |
| far | farther/further | farthest/furthest |
| I find these pills work best. |  |  |
| My tooth was aching worse than ever. |  |  |
| NOTE For comparison with far, • 218(5a). |  |  |

3 Other adverbs take more/most. This includes almost all adverbs in $l y$.
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.
NOTE
Some adverbs can be with or without ly. • 207(4)
I got the bikefairly cheap/cheaply.
Such adverbs have two different comparative and superlative forms.
You could get one cheaper/more cheaply secondhand.

## 220 More, most, less, least, fewerandfewest

We can use these words to compare quantities.

Plural
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 Ibuyfewer cassettes these days.
fewest (= the smallest number) - Note You've got thefewest cassettes of anyone I know.

Uncountable
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.

## 221 Patterns expressing a comparison

NOTE
The rule is that we usefewer/fewest with a plural noun.
There arefewer cars on the road in winter.
But less/least with a plural noun is common, especially in informal speech.
There are less cars on the road in winter.
It is safer for the learner to avoid this usage.

## 221 Patterns expressing a comparison

motels in the usa

Many motels are every bit as elegant, comfortable, and well-equipped as the most modern hotels. Many have bars, fine restaurants and coffee shopsfor casual meals and breakfast. If the motel does not have a restaurant, there are always restaurants nearby. Most rooms arefurnished with television. Even less expensive motels often have a swimming pool. The pricefor rooms in motels is usually slightly less thanfor hotels.
(from USA Travel Information)

## 1 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.
NOTE
We can make comparisons with same, like, similar and different.
Motels are the same as hotels. Motels are like hotels.
Motels are similar to hotels. Motels are not very different from hotels.
The following words can also express a comparison.
Paris is myfavourite city. (= I like it best.)
Wood is superior to/preferable to plastic as a material. (= better)
The car's speed exceeded ninety miles an hour. (= was more than)

## 2 Less and least

a 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.
note
We use less with both long and short adjectives.
It's cheaperless expensive. It's more expensiveless cheap.
b 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 wasn'tas cold as outside.
In informal English this pattern is more usual. Less + adjective can be a little formal.

## 3 As and so

a 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.
nоте
a We can use as in idiomatic phrases.
as hard as iron (= very hard) as light as afeather (= very light)
b Note this use with numbers and measurements.
The temperature is often as high as 40 degrees.
(= The temperature is often 40 degrees, which is very high.)
b In a negative statement we can use either as or so.
. Some motels are not as comfortable/notso 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'.
c 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 $a s$ 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.

## 4 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 difficultfor women thanfor 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.

## 5 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.
NOTE I'm not as tall as he is formal and old-fashioned.

## 6 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 suitablefor making tools. Copper is much harder. It's more difficult tofind your way in the dark.

## 222 Special patterns with the comparative

## 7 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 popfestival 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 Iknow.
NOTE
a An of-phrase can come in front position for emphasis. Ofall Saturn's moons, Titan is the largest.
b We sometimes use a pattern with one of/some of. This building is one of the tallest in the world.

## 8 Much biggeretc

We can use an adverb of degree in patterns expressing a comparison.
Gold is much softer than copper. • 212(2)
This is byfar the best method. • 212(3)
Many motels are every bit as/just as elegant as the most modern hotels.
I'll need a lot more paper. • 212(8f)

## 222 Special patterns with the comparative

1 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.
2 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 thejourney (is), the more expensive the ticket (is).
Thefurther you travel, the more you pay.
The older you get, the more difficult it becomes to find ajob.

## 27 Prepositions

## 223 Summary

Introduction to prepositions - 224
A preposition is a word like in, to, for, out of.

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Prepositions of place • 225
in the office under my chair across the road
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## Prepositions of place: more details • 226

## Prepositions of time - 227

at six o'clock before dark for three weeks
Prepositions: other meanings - 228
a presentfor my sister a man with a beard
Idiomatic phrases with prepositions - 229
There are many idiomatic phrases.
for sale in a hurry by mistake
NOTE
There are also many idioms where a preposition comes after a verb, adjective or noun. • 230
wait for a bus afraid of the dark an interest in music
For prepositions in American English, • 306.

## 224 Introduction to prepositions

1 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 ofto 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.
NOTE For the difference between the preposition to and the to-infinitive, • 132(6).
2 The preposition and its object form a prepositional phrase.

$$
\begin{array}{ll} 
& \text { Preposition }+ \text { Noun phrase } \\
\text { Prepositional phrase: } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { towards } \\
\text { behind }
\end{array} \quad \text { the setting sun }
\end{array}
$$

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.
3 We can modify a preposition.
almost at the end right infront ofme halfway up the hill
all over the floor just off the motorway directly after your lesson
4 In some clauses a preposition goes at the end.
Wh-question: Who did you go to the party with? • 25(3)
Infinitive clause: I've got a tapeforyou to listen to. • 117(2)
Passive: War reporters sometimes get shotat. • 105(3)
Relative clause: That's the article I told you about. • 273 (4)
5 Some prepositions can also be adverbs.
Preposition: I waitedfor 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. - 231
6 Some prepositions of time can also be conjunctions. - 250(1)
Preposition: We must be ready before their arrival.
Conjunction: We must be ready before they arrive.

## 225 Prepositions of place

## 1 Basic meanings



There are some people in/inside the cafe. The man is waiting outside the cafe.


She's going up the steps, and he's coming down the steps.


The bus is at the bus stop. It's going from the city centre to the university.


There's atelevision on the table. There's a photo on top of the television.There's a dog under(neath) the table.


The road goes through a tunnel. The car is going in/into the tunnel. The lorry is coming out of the tunnel.


The lorry is travelling away from York and towards Hull.


There's a picture overt above the door. There's a small table under/ below the window.


She's taking thefood off the trolley and putting it on/onto the shelves.


The man is sitting next to/by/beside the woman. Their table is close to/ near the door.


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 Presidentis standing among his bodyguards. Theyare all round/around him.


There's a hill beyond the church.
(=on the other side of)


The man is leaning against the wall.
a We use of only with on top of, out of and infront of. NOT inside of NOT off of and NOT behind of, although outside of is possible,
b Two other prepositions of place are throughout and within. They are a little formal. The epidemic spread throughout the country/all over the country. (= to all parts of) Delivery isfree within a ten-mile radius. (= inside)
c Beneath is rather literary.
From the balloon we could see the townfar below/beneath us.
d Around and about mean 'in different directions' or 'in different places'.
We're going to drive around/about the country visiting different places.
There were piles ofold magazines lying around/about the flat.

## 2 Position and movement

a Most prepositions of place say where something is or where it is going.
Position: $\quad$ There was a barrier across the road.
Movement: The boy ran across the road.
$b$ At usually expresses position, and to expresses movement.
Position: We were at the café.
Movement: We went to the café.
c 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.
note
We sometimes use in and on for movement, especially in informal English.
We went inthe café.
But sometimes the choice of preposition depends on the meaning.
We walked on the beach(forhalfanhour).
We walked (from the car park) onto the beach.
After lay, place, put and sit we do not usually use into or onto.
They laid the body on a blanket. Tom satdown in the armchair.

## 3 Other meanings

a Some prepositions of place can also express time. - 227
Lots of people work from nine o'clock to five.
b Prepositions of place can also have more abstract meanings.
I'm really into modernjazz. (= 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 ofEurope. (= 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, • 233.

## 226 Prepositions of place: more details

1 At, on and in


She's at her desk. It's on the desk. They're in the drawer.

## 226 Prepositions of place: more details

a 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 $a t+$ event.
We met at Daphne's party, didn't we?
We use $a t+$ 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 ofcoffee at Angela's (house/flat).
b On is two-dimensional. We use it for a surface.
Don't leave your glass on thefloor.
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.

## NOTE

We also use on in this special sense.
I haven't got any money on/ with me at the moment.
c In is three-dimensional. We use it when we see something as all around.
I hadfive 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.
e Look at these phrases.

| at 52 Grove Road | on 42nd Street (USA) | in Spain/Bristol in Grove Road |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
| at your house | on the thirdfloor |  |
| at the station | on the platform |  |
| at home/work/school |  | in the lesson |
|  | on the page | in a book/newspaper |
| at the seaside | on the screen | in the photo/pictur |
|  | on the island | in the country |
|  | on the beach/coast |  |
|  | on the right/left | in the middle |
| at the backlend of a queиe | on the back ofan | in the back/front of |
|  | envelope | a car |
|  |  | in a queue/line/row |

## 2 Above, over, below and under

a Above and over have similar meanings.
There was a clock abovelover the entrance.
We do not normally use above to mean horizontal movement.
The planeflew 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.
NOTE
a We prefer over before a number.
There are well over fifty thousand people in the stadium. But we use above with a measurement that we think of as vertical, such as temperature. Temperatures will rise above freezing.
b In this example over has a special meaning.
The two leaders discussed world affairs over lunch. (= while having lunch)
b We also use over for movement to the other side, or position on the other side of aline.

The horse jumped over the wall. Was the ball over the goal-line?
Somehow we had to get over/across the river.
c 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 ofsmoke.

Compare below/under with above/over. - (2a) Note a
Temperatures will fall below freezing.
There are well under ten thousand people in the stadium.

## 226 Prepositions of place: more details

## 3 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.

## 4 Through, across and along


through the gate across the road

along the path
a Through is three-dimensional. You go through a tunnel, a doorway, a crowd of people, and so on.

The waterflows through the pipe. I looked through the telescope.
b 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 byferry.
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 canalfor afew miles.
We walked across the canal by afootbridge.

## 5 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 mefor money.

## NOTE

As far as means going a certain distance.
We usually try to get as far as Doncaster before we stopfor coffee.

## 6 Near, close and by

a 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.

## NOTE

Near (to) and close to have comparative and superlative forms. Youlivenearer(to) the hospitalthan wedo. Iwassittingclosestto thedoor.
b 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.
d 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 infront of and behind to before and after.

There's a statue infront of the museum, NOT before the museum
The police held their riot shields infront 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 aftermeans 'later in time'. But we also use before and after to talk about what order things come in.
$J$ comes before K. Kcomes 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 infront of and opposite.
People were standing infront of the theatre waiting to go in.
People were standing opposite the theatre waiting to cross the road.
Gerald was standing infront ofme in the queue.
Gerald was sitting opposite me at lunch.

## 8 Between and among

a 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, • 237(2c).
b Among suggests a larger number.
$I$ was hoping to spot Marcia among the crowd.

## 227 Prepositions of time

$1 A t$, 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 halfpast 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
note
a USA: on the weekend
b We use at with someone's age.
A sporting career can be over at thirty.
b We use on with a single day.
on Tuesday on 7th August on that day on Easter Sunday
nоте
On can also mean 'immediately after'.
On his arrival, the President held a press conference.
c We use in with longer periods.
in the nextfew 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 ofthe 12th

## nоте

An exception is at night. Compare these sentences.
I heard a noise in the night. (= in the middle of the night)
The windows are shut at night. (= when it is night)

## 2 Expressions of time without a preposition

a We do not normally use at, on or in in phrases of time with last, this, next, every, later, yesterday and tomorrow.

Ireceived 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 nextyear
The same thing happens every time. NOT at every time
A week later Igot a reply. NOT in a week later
I'll see you tomorrow morning. NOT in tomorrow morning
note
a We can use other prepositions.
After this week I shall need a holiday.
b In informal English we can sometimes leave out on before a day. I'll see you Monday.
c We do not use a preposition with these days (= nowadays).
It's all done by computers these days.
A For the with last and next, • 169(8).
b 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) thefollowing Sunday.

## 3 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 infifteen 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.
note
a Compare these sentences.
You can walk there in halfan hour. (= you need half an hour)
I'm going out in halfan hour. (= half an hour from now)
b We can also use within or inside to say how long.
I'll be back withininside an hour. (= in an hour or less)

## 4 During and over

a We use during with an event (e.g. thefestival) 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.
Thefestival went onfor a week. NOT It went on during a week.
note
When something happens for the whole period, we can use throughout or all through.
The population grew rapidly during/throughout the 19th century.
Jeremy kept staring at Naomi during/all through lunch.
b We can also use during when something happens one or more times in the period.
The letter arrived during thefestival.
I suddenlyfelt ill during the show.
I have to make several trips abroad during the nextfew weeks.
c 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 oftea.
d We can also use over for a whole period of time.
Over the nextfew days, Simon and Kay saw a lot ofeach other.
Over a period oftwo months there were a hundred sightings of UFOs.
nоте
The adverb over means 'finished'.
This programme will soon be over.

## 5 For and since

a We use forwith a period of time to say how long something continues.
Rachel plays computer gamesfor hours on end. NOT during hours • (4)
I once stayed at that hotelfor a week.
Ijust want to sit downforfive minutes.
note
We do not normally use for before a phrase with all or whole.
It rained all day/the whole day.
b We often use for and since with the perfect to say how long something has continued or when it started.

Giles has worked herefor ten years now.
We haven't been to the theatrefor 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 afew minutes since 1990 since last week since Monday since halfpast two
note
a We can sometimes leave out for in informal English.
We've been waiting here twenty minutes.
b We use during for a period which is a definite time. - (4)
During the last ten years Giles has been promoted at least three times.
c Compare these sentences.
I've been here (for) ten minutes. I'll stay (for) ten minutes.
I've been here since twenty tofour.
I'll wait untilfour o'clock. • (6)
$I$ arrived ten minutes ago. I'm leaving in ten minutes.
c We use the adverb ago for a past action at a time measured from the present.
Ago comes after the length of time.
Gilesjoined the company ten years ago. (= ten years before now)
We last went to the theatre months ago.
d We use the adverb before for a past action measured from the more recent past.
Giles left the company lastyear. He'd started work there ten years before.
(= ten years before last year)

## 6 Till/until and by

a 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.

## NOTE

a Till is more informal.
b For from now to nextApril, - (7b). But NOT He'll be working there to next April.
c We can use up to in a positive sentence.
He'll be working there up to next April.
d Till/until does not express place.
We walked to the bridge/asfar as the bridge. NOT till/until the bridge But it can be a conjunction.

We walked on till/until we got to the bridge.
b We can use not... till/until when something is later than expected.
Sue didn't get up till/until halfpast ten.
c By means 'not later than'.
I'm always up by eighto'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)
NOTE For by the time as a conjunction, • 250(1).

## 7 From and between

a We use from for the time when something starts.
Tickets will be on salefrom next Wednesday.
From seven in the morning there's constant traffic noise.
NOTE
Compare since with the perfect.
Tickets have been on sale since last Wednesday.
b 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 closedfrom Friday evening till/until Monday morning. NOTE Americans can use through, e.g. from Friday through Monday. • 306(3)
c We can use between for a period after one time and before another. Not many people work between Christmas and New Year's Day.

## 228 Prepositions: other meanings

1 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 pizzafor tea. Asfor lunch, I'll get a sandwich.
I'm reading a book by Iris Murdoch.
You need a pullover, so I'm knitting onefor you.
You'd do anything for the sake of peace and quiet. (= in order to have)
Are youfor the plan/infavour 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 afriend. (= 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, Ifelt 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.

## NOTE

We can leave out any after without.
Who's the man without shoes on?
But we do not normally leave out a/an after with or without. NOT I went with friend.
$3 \boldsymbol{O f}$ has a number of different meanings.
the handle of the door • 146(3) a tin of soup • 144(3)
some of my friends • 178(1c) our first sight ofland • 149(3)
We can also use of in the following pattern.
She's an actress of great ability. (= She has great ability.)
These souvenirs are ofno value.
He was a man ofmedium build.
4 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, • 244(3); in spite of, despite, •246(4); as a result of, in consequence of, • 247(2); because of, due to, in view of, on account of, • 251(3).

5 We use with and byto 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.
Ipaid by credit card. The motor is powered by electricity.
They broke the door down byforce.
We use by before a gerund.
They got in by breaking down the door.
NOTE
a Some passive sentences have by + agent.
The door was broken down by two men/with a hammer.
b We say write in pen/in pencil.
b We also use by + noun for means of transport. We do not use the.
Iprefer 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, byplane/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.
We can say on my bike, in the/my car, in a taxi, on the bus/train/boat/plane etc.
On foot means 'walking'.
Iprefer to go onfoot/ to walk. NOT go byfoot
NOTE
Look at these examples expressing movement.
The passengers got intolout of the car/taxi.
Nancy got on/offher bikelthe bus/the train.
We went on board the ship.
c 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 phonelon the phone. I sent the information by post.
NOTE Andy isn't on the phone. $=$ Andy hasn't got a phone.
6 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 hisface. 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.
NOTE
a Like can also come in front position.
Like everyone else, I have to pay my taxes.
b Unlike is the opposite of like.
It's unlike Fiona to be late. She's usually very punctual.

7 We use except (for), apartfrom and but to talk about an exception.
Everyone was there except(for)/apartfrom Nigel, who was ill.
I hatefish. I can eat anything except/but fish.

## 229 Idiomatic phrases with prepositions

1 There are very many idiomatic phrases beginning with a preposition. Most of them are without $a / a n$ 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 ifit'sfor sale.
Try to see itfrom my point ofview.
You have to pay half the cost of the holiday in advance.
I can't stop. I'm in a hurry.
Idrive about ten thousand miles a year, on average.
Did you go there on holiday or on business?
MrJones is on leave this week. He'll be in the office next Monday.
There are so many different computers on the market.
Isaw it on television.
I heard it on the radio.
I'm afraid the machine is out oforder.
2 These pairs are different in meaning.
a 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.
note
We arrived in good time for dinner. (= with plenty of time to spare)
We arrivedjust in time for dinner. (= with not much time to spare)
b 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 ofthe holiday.

## note

Compare in the beginning and at the beginning.
In the beginning/At first the company struggled to survive, but now it is extremely
successful.
The students return to Oxford at the beginning of the academic year.
c 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 longjourney. We'd better stopfor a meal on the way.

## 28

## Phrasal verbs and patterns with prepositions

## 230 Summary

Verbs with adverbs and prepositions - 231
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 • 232

There are many phrasal verbs with an idiomatic meaning.
How did this come about? (= happen)
Nigel made up the whole story. (= invented)

## Prepositional verbs • 233

There are also many prepositional verbs.
This umbrella belongs to one of the guests.
We were waiting for a bus.
Verb + object + preposition • 234
They charge $£ 200$ for a room.
Verb + adverb + preposition • 235
The gang got away with a large amount ofjewellery.
Adjective + preposition • 236
I'm gratefulfor your help.
Noun + preposition • 237
We didn't get an answer to our question.

## 231 Verbs with adverbs and prepositions

## 231 Verbs with adverbs and prepositions

## 1 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.

## 2 Verb + preposition

$\mathbf{A}$ 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, comefrom, look after, cope with, consist of, hopefor, 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, • (4).

## NOTE

Sometimes an adverbial can come between the verb and preposition.
Iwaslookingcarefullyatthephoto./Iwaslookingatthephotocarefully.

## 3 Word order with phrasal verbs

a Some phrasal verbs are intransitive, but others have an object.
Intransitive: Suddenly all the lights went out.
Transitive: Someone turned out the lights.
b When a phrasal verb has an object, the adverb can usually go either before or after the object.

Ithrew away my old briefcase. We woke up the neighbours.
Ithrew my old briefcase away. We woke the neighbours up.

The word order depends on what is the point of interest. Is it the object (the neighbours), or is it the action of the phrasal verb (woke up)?.

We must have disturbed everyone in the street. We certainly woke up the neighbours.
There were lights coming on everywhere. We woke people up.
But in many contexts either order is possible.
But when the object is a pronoun, the adverb goes after it.
My old briefcase wasfalling to pieces. Ithrew it away.
The neighbours weren't very pleased. We woke them up.
Neil borrowed some moneyfrom Maureen and never paid her back.
d When the object is a long phrase, the adverb goes before it.
I threw away that rather battered old briefcase.
We woke upjust about everyone in the street.
Neil never paid back all that money he borrowed.
e The adverb usually goes before other adverbials (e.g. nervously, on time).
Roger stood up nervously. The plane took offon time.

## 4 Phrasal verb or prepositional verb?

a 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: Lisagave away her computer. Lisa gave her computer away.
Prepositional verb: Lisa paidfor the meal.
NOT Lisa paid the mealfor.
A pronoun goes before the adverb but after the preposition.
Lisa gave it away.
Lisa paidfor it.
NOTE
a The preposition comes at the end in some patterns. - 224(4)
What did Lisa payfor?
b Some phrasal verbs can have as their object a gerund clause, a wh-clause or a that-clause. I've given up drinking alcohol. I read through what I had written. Tom found out (that) the story was untrue.
Some prepositional verbs can have as their object a gerund clause or a wh-clause. Don't you believe in paying your taxes? - 132(2) The answer you get depends on who you ask. - 262(5)
b 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.
c 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 'paidfor the meal. It de'pends on the weather.

## 5 The passive

Many phrasal and prepositional verbs can be passive.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Phrasal: } & \text { The rest of thefood was thrown away. } \\ \text { Prepositional: } & \begin{array}{l}\text { The alarm has been switched off. } \\ \text { The children are being looked after by a neighbour. } \\ \text { The matter has been dealt with. }\end{array}\end{array}$
We usually stress the adverb (thrown a'way) but not the preposition ('looked after).

## 6 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.
note
We cannot normally use this pattern with a preposition.
NOT intothedetailswewent:

## 7 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.
note
Some nouns have the adverb before the verb. an outbreak of rioting the amusedonlookers
We stress the adverb: 'outbreak.

## 232 Phrasal verb meanings

## 1 Introduction

a 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 caughton in a big way. (= become popular)
note
Sometimes the adverb adds very little to the meaning. Davidrangme(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 tofind out/discover the reason why.
We must fix up/arrange a meeting.
The problem won'tjust go away/disappear.
The accident held up/delayed trafficfor an hour.
You havefailed 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.
c Some verbs can take a number of different adverbs.
The child took two steps andfell down.
Enthusiasm for the project hasfallen off. (= become less)
Kevin and Diana havefallen out. (= quarrelled)
I'm afraid the dealfell 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)

## 2 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, afactory closing down
off=away, departing/removing
start off/set off on ajourney, 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 offour 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 aform, 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, Ipassed out/blacked out.
out $=$ to different people
gave out/handed out copies of the worksheet, shared out thefood between them
out $=$ aloud
read out the rulesfor 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
$u p=$ growing, increasing
blowing up balloons, pump up a tyre, turn up the volume, step up production, bring up children
$u p=$ 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

## 3 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 ofsmall firms.
Why not take up a new hobby?
No one washed up after the meal.

## $4 B e+$ 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 butyou 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?)

## 233 Prepositional verbs

1 A prepositional verb is a verb + preposition, e.g. askfor, depend on. $\bullet 231$ (2) 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 lookfor 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.
NOTE
a A few prepositional verbs have the same meaning as a one-word verb.
I askedfor/requested a room facing south.
We got to/reached the airportjust in time.
How did you come by/obtain these documents?
b Some verbs can take either a direct object or a preposition, depending on the meaning.
I paid the taxi-driver/the bill.
I paidfor the taxi.
The committee approved the plans. (= accepted, allowed)
I don't approve oflaziness. (= think it right)
2 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 ofmoney.
We apologizefor the delay.
Tina has appliedfor dozens ofjobs.
We arrived at/in Ipswich ten minutes late.
That's no way to behave toltowards yourfriends.
I don't believe in eating meat.
Who does this bag belong to?
We should benefit from the tax changes.
Icame across the article in a magazine.
The car collided with a van.
I want to concentrate on my maths.
The flat consists offour 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'tfeel like doing any work.
Brown doesn'tgo 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 weatherforecast.

You just can't live on $£ 80$ a week.
Iobjected to being kept waiting.
An idea hasjust 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 intoAlexyesterday. (= metbychance)
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.
Ifall elsefails, 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 sendfor the doctor.
What does BBC standfor?
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 wishfor anything nicer.
For prepositional verb + gerund, e.g. insisted on playing, • 132(2).
note
Sometimes the choice of preposition depends on the meaning.
a Yes, you're right. I quite agree with you. We all agreed to/with the suggestion.
b The doctor is going to call on Mrs Phillips to see how she is. Tony is giving me a lift. He's going to callfor me at ten. The United Nations has called for a cease-fire. (= demanded)
c I don't care about the exam. It isn't important. Ben doesn't carefor modern art. (= like)
Someone has to carefor the sick. (= look after)
d I'm sure Helen can deal with the situation. (= handle)
The company deals in commercial properties. (= buys and sells)
e People are dying of hunger. I was dying for/ longing for a coffee. (= want very much)
f Poor management resulted in huge losses.
The huge losses resulted from poor management.
3 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.

NOTE
a Compare ask about, askfor and ask after.
We asked about cheap tickets. ('Please tell us ...')
We asked for cheap tickets. ('Please give us ...')
Sarah asked after you. (= asked how you are)
b We can also use on with comment and report.
The company refused to comment on/ about the article.
c Discuss takes a direct object.
We were discussing house prices.
b 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 ourfriends. They complained to the neighbours.

## NOTE

a Ring and phone take an object. We do not use to.
I had to phone my boss.
b We say laugh at, smile at and argue with.
The children laughed at the clown. Are you arguing with me?
c Shout at suggests anger.
The farmer shouted at us angrily.
Bruce shouted to his friends across the street.
4 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.
NOTE
a But a noun takes a preposition.
her entry into the room their control over the city
b Compare leave (= depart) and leavefor (a destination).
The train leaves Exeter at ten fifteen. (= goes from Exeter)
The train leavesfor Exeter at ten fifteen. (= departs on its journey to Exeter)
For has the same meaning in this example.
The walkers were heading for/making for the coast.
c Compare search and search for.
The police searched the whole house. They were searching forl lookingfor drugs.

## 234 Verb + object + preposition

|  | Verb | Object | Preposition |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Some companies | spend | a lot ofmoney | on advertising. |
| They've | invited <br> Do | us | to wedding. |
| Doyou | 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.

2 Here are some more examples.
People admire the manfor 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 meforforgetting the tickets.
You can borrow an umbrellafrom 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 motoristsfrom speeding.
The guides divided/split our party into three groups.
Can't we do something about the problem?
Can I exchange francsfor 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 usfrom 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 womanfor 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 herfor helping, • 132(3).

## NOTE

Compare excusefor and excuse from.
Excuse/Forgive mefor interrupting.
The soldier was ill and therefore excused from duty.
3 Compare these pairs of sentences.
I blame the government for our problems.
Iblame our problems on the government.
The manager presented Harry with a watch.
The managerpresented $a$ watch to Harry.
The school provided the visitors with tea.
The school provided teafor the visitors.
The men robbed the club of $£ 500$.
The men stole $£ 500$ from the club.

## NOTE

Supply means the same as provide.
The school supplied the visitors with tea.
The company supplies afirst-class after-sales service tolfor customers.

4 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)
5 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 staffabout/of the proposed changes.
I should warn you about/of the difficulties you mayface.
NOTE
a We can also use against after warn.
The pupils were warned against taking drugs.
b Compare remind about and remind of.
Tracy reminded me about the meeting. (= told me not to forget)
Tracy reminds me ofher elder sister. (= is like, makes me think of)
b After write, explain and describe we use to before a person.
Lots ofpeople write letters to the Queen.
I explained our problem to the official.
NOTE
Compare throw to and throw at. Wayne threw the ball to Gary, who caught it. Rachel was so angry with Tom that she threw a plate at him.

## 235 Verb + adverb + preposition

1 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 | overfarmland. |
| 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 halfan 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 toface up to the situation. (= not avoid)
I've got no job and no savings tofall 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.

The gang got away with several valuable works ofart.
I'd betterget 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'tgo back on whatyou promised. (= do something different)
Mike has gone down with flu. (= suffering from)
Ben has decided to go infor teaching.
Just go/carry on with your work. (= continue)
You drive sofast 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 upfor lost time.
The man owned up to a number ofburglaries. (= admitted)
Why should we have to put up with this noise? (= tolerate)
The car's run out of petrol.
I'm going to send offlawayfor myfree map. (= write to ask for)
Stand up to the dictator! Stand upfor your rights!
3 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. |

## 236 Adjective + preposition

1 Some adjectives can take a preposition.
I'mfond of a good book. You'll be latefor 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 ofrich 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.
For the pattern with a gerund, e.g. tired of walking, • 132(4).
For nice of you and nice for you, •126(5).

## NOTE

Sometimes the choice of preposition depends on the meaning.
a We can be happy/pleased/delighted with something close to us, something that is ours. About and at are more general.

We're pleased with our new flat.
We're pleased at/about the election result.
b After furious, angry and annoyed we use at or about for what has made us angry and with for the person we are directing our anger towards.

Polly was annoyed at/about the mix-up over her ticket.
She was annoyed with the travel agent.
c Sorryfor means sympathy for someone.
I'm sorry about the delay. I'm nearly ready. Ifelt sorryfor Daniel. He had a miserable time.
d Anxiousfor means 'wanting'.
I'm anxious about my health.
I'm anxiousfor the results of the tests.
e Concerned takes about, for or with.
We're very concerned about the missing girl. (= worried about)
We're concernedfor her safety. (= wanting)
Alison's research is concerned with social trends. (= about, involved in)
f We are grateful to a person for an action.
I'm very grateful to youfor all your help.
3 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 goodfor to say that something makes you healthy. Physical exercise is goodfor you. Over-eating is badfor you.

To say how we behave towards another person we use good to, rude to etc. You've been verygood 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 ofbetter things clear tolobvious to all the spectators
conscious of/aware of what you're doing dependent on public money
different tolfrom our normal routine a townfamousfor its history
fit for a marathon a bucketfull of water guilty of murder harmful to the environment involved in various activities kind to animals a door made ofsteel married to/engaged to a postman opposed to the plan popular with young people present at the meeting readyfor/preparedfor the journey related to afriend of ours responsiblefor our safety safefrom attack the same as always I'm serious about what I said short of time similar to my lastjob successful in my search food suitableforfreezing superior/inferior to other products sure of/certain of thefacts a style typical of/characteristic of the period used to/accustomed to late nights Welcome to Wales. nothing wrong with me

## 237 Noun + preposition

1 Some nouns can take a particular preposition. a tax on tobacco timefor lunch the price of bread no pleasure in shopping feel pityfor the victims an example of what I mean roomfor lots ofluggage

NOTE
a Sometimes we use the same preposition as with a related verb or adjective.
Verb/Adjective + preposition $\quad$ Noun + preposition
He objected to the idea. his objection to the idea
Itprotects youfrom the cold. protectionfrom the cold
I'minterestedin art. an interest in art We were angry at what happened. ourangerat what happened Sometimes the verb takes a direct object but the noun takes a preposition.
Verb Noun + preposition
Ianswered the question. myanswer to the question Theydemandedmoremoney. their demand for more money
b Some nouns can take different prepositions.
adiscussionof/about/on politicstoday
Sometimes the choice of preposition depends on the meaning. his apologyfor being late his apology to the teacher

2 Here are some more examples of noun + preposition.
a Advantage
England had the advantage ofplaying 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 substitutefor 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 a reduction/decrease in sales a delay in approving the plan
an increase la rise of ten per cent a reduction/decrease offour per cent a delay of two months
f Method, answer etc
a way/method of improving your memory the question of finance the answer/solution/key to the problem a schemefor combating crime the cause of/reason for the accident
g Need, wish etc
These nouns take for: appetite, application, demand, desire, need, preference, request, taste, wish.
a needfor low-cost housing a desirefor peace and quiet
nоте
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 toltowards his colleagues a beliefin 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, complaintetc
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 oflaw 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
note
Compare success in, success at and make a success of.
We had some success in our attempts to raise money.
I never had any success at games.
Alan made a success of the taxi business.
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

## 29

## Sentences with more than one clause

## 238 Summary

Types of clause - 239
A sentence has one or more main clauses. A main clause has a finite verb. We use and, or, but and so to join main clauses.
It was late, and I was tired.
We use because, when, if, that etc in a sub clause.
I was tired because I'd been working.
It was late when I got home.
$A$ sub clause can be non-finite.
I was too tired to do anything else.
I was tired after working all day.

## Clause combinations - 240

A sentence can consist of a number of main clauses and sub clauses.
Tenses in sub clauses - 241
We often use the same tense in the main clause and sub clause.
Theyfound an interpreter who spoke all three languages.
After expressions such as wish, we use the past simple or past perfect for something unreal.
I wish the climate here was warmer.
Natalie looked as if she'd seen a ghost.

## The subjunctive • 242

We can use the subjunctive in a few formal contexts.
They requested that the ban be lifted.
We'd rather there were a doctor present.

## 239 Types of clause

> ATTEMPTED SUICIDE
> A New York painter decided to end it all by throwing himselfoffthe Empire State Building. He took the lift up to the 86thfloor, found a convenient window and jumped. A gust of wind caught him as hefell and blew him into the studios of NBC television on the 83rdfloor. There was a live show going out, so the interviewer decided to ask the would-be suicide afew questions. He admitted that he'd changed his mind as soon as he'djumped.

## 1 Main clauses

a 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.

## NOTE

a For ways of punctuating two main clauses, • 56(2).
b As well as the subject, we can leave out the auxiliary to avoid repeating it.
I've peeled the potatoes and (I've) washed them.
He was taken to hospital and (he was) examined.
c We can join more than two clauses. Usually and comes only before the last one.
He took the lift up, found a convenient window and jumped.
b We can also use or, but and so in co-ordinate clauses.
We can take a taxi or (we can) waitfor a bus. • 245
He jumped off the 86th floor but (he) survived. • 246
There was a show going out, so they asked him some questions. • 247
note
In informal English and can also mean 'but' or 'so' depending on the context.
He jumped offand survived. (= but)
The doctorsfound nothing wrong with him and sent him home. (= so)
c The two clauses can be separate sentences.
The man went up to the 86thfloor. And hejumped.
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. • 13
The man was shaken but unhurt. • 202(2,3)

## 2 Sub clauses

a Sometimes one clause can be part of another.
A gust of wind caught him as hefell.
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, thatetc.
b 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.

- 248 A gust of wind caught him as hefell.

Object: $\quad$ He admitted his mistake.

- 262(1) He admitted that he'd changed his mind.

Another kind of sub clause is a relative clause. - 271
A man who had money problems threw himselfoff the building.
This clause modifies a man.

## 3 Finite and non-finite clauses

a 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).
note
A finite clause has a subject unless we leave it out to avoid repetition.
The wind caughthim and (it) blew him through the window.
b A non-finite clause has an infinitive, - 115; a gerund, • 128; or a participle, • 134.

To tell you the truth, I was terrified.
He regrets now having jumped.
The people watching the show were astonished.
note
A non-finite clause often has no subject, but it can have one.
The show havingfinished, themanleft the studio.

## 240 Clause combinations

1 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 (Ifeel 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 thatAmy was very ill and wouldn't live much longer.
Here and links the two sub clauses thatAmy 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'djumped.
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.
3 We can also use non-finite clauses to build up more complex sentences.
He admitted having changed his mind afterjumping.
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 oflanding at Zurich, we had to go to Basle, which meant a longer, and an added trainjourney. 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.'
(from M. Underwood What aStory!)

These are the main clauses and sub clauses.

## Sentence 1

Main clause
Eventually we took off,
Main clause
but we had to go to Basle,

| Sub clause | Sub clause |
| :--- | :--- |
| instead of | which meant a |
| landing at | longer, and an |
| Zurich, | added trainjourney. |

Sentence 2
Main clause
Well, we hung about

| Sub clause | Sub clause |
| :--- | :--- |
| waitingfora | to come |
| representative |  |

Sub clause
and tell us

Sub clause
what to do,

Main clause and after an hour and a halfnobody 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. |  |

## 241 Tenses in sub clauses

## 1 Sequence of tenses

a 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.
Icame home early yesterday because Ididn'tfeel very well.
We use the past (didn't feel) because we are talking about yesterday.
note
Compare direct speech.
WhenJemimaappeared, Ithought'Somethingiswrong.'
b For the present simple in a sub clause of future time, - 77.
I'll ask Jemima when she gets here.

## 2 Verbs after wish

a 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 ticketfor 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 Ifonly
Ifonly means the same as I wish, and we use it in the same patterns.
Ifonly Simon would reply to my letter.
Ifonly can be more emphatic than wish. It often expresses regret.
Ifonly you'd told me you had a spare ticketfor the show. I'd have loved to go.
NOTE
a After ifonlywe can sometimes use the present tense in a wish about the future.
Ifonly the train gets in on time, we'lljust catch the two o'clock bus.
b Only can sometimes be in mid position.
If you 'd only told me, I could have gone.

## 3 The unreal present and past

a Compare these sentences.

| Past simple: | Suppose we were rich. (We aren't rich.) <br> Imagine you wanted to murder someone. (You don't want to.) <br> Past perfect: |
| :--- | :--- |
| I wish I had reserved a seat. (I didn't reserve one.) <br>  <br>  <br> 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, • (2); ifonly, • (2d); would rather; if, • 257; as if/as though.

## NOTE

a After it's time we use the unreal past.
It's time I got my hair cut. It's rather long.
We can also use these patterns.
It's timefor tea. It's time to get the tea ready.
b After as if/as though we can also use a present tense.
Gary behaves as ifhe owns/owned the place.
b 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?

## 242 The subjunctive

1 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.

## NOTE

It often makes no difference whether a form is subjunctive or not. We recommend that both schemes go ahead.

2 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.

## NOTE

After an adjective we can use a to-infinitive. It is important to keep an exact record.

3 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 ifhe was/were drunk.
But were is a little formal and old-fashioned here, except in the phrase ifI were you (= in your place).
If I were you, I'd accept the offer.

## 30

## And, or, but, so etc

## 243 Summary

We can use a conjunction to link two main clauses together in a sentence.
Tom had nofood, 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 nofood, and he also had to pay the rent.
Tom had nofood. He also had to pay the rent.
Tom had to buy somefood. Besides that, there was the rent.

## Words meaning 'and' • 244

and, too, as well (as), either, also, in addition (to), besides, furthermore, moreover, both... and..., not only... but also...

Words meaning 'or' • 245
or, either ...or..., neither... nor...
Words meaning 'but' • 246
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' • 247
so, therefore, as a result (of), in consequence (of)

## 244 Words meaning 'and'

1 We can use and to link two clauses. - 239(1)
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, toolas 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 gota 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 causefor concern. Further, I must draw your attention to a recentpress 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 ofthat, my sister is staying with us.
NOTE
Plus as a conjunction is informal.
I've got all my usual work, plus I've got to write a report.
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.

## 245 Words meaning 'or'

We use orto 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.
NOTE
a We can also use alternatively.
We can cancel the meeting. Alternatively, we can find somewhere else to hold it.
b Or can mean 'if not'.
We'd better hurry, or (else) we'll be late/otherwise we'll be late.
In the negative we can use not ...or, but neither... nor is more emphatic and a 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.

## 246 Words meaning 'but'

## 246 Words meaning 'but'

1 As well as the conjunction but, we can use the adverb though.
Wefound an Information Centre, but it was closed.
Wefound 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.

## NOTE

a We can also use though as a short form of the conjunction although. - (3)
Wefound an Information Centre, though it was closed.
b There is a special use of may in a clause followed by but.
These pens are cheap/may be cheap, but they're useless.
2 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 offriends. Even so/All the same she oftenfeels lonely.

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NOTE
Yet and still are usually adverbs of time; • 210(2). Yetcan also be a conjunction meaning 'but'. It is a little formal.
There was widespread destruction, yet only six people died.
Still can be an adverb meaning 'but'.
I knowflying is safe. Still, you won't find me on an aeroplane.
```

3 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 ofLondon, 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.
Myfather runs marathons, even though he's sixty.
NOT even although he's sixty
NOTE
There is a pattern with as or though where an adjective or adverb goes in front position.
Much as I like Tom, he does get on my nerves sometimes.
Strange though it may seem, I've never been to Paris.
4 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.
Thefamily always enjoy themselves in spite of having/despite having no money. NOT despite ofhaving

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 thefact that, especially if the two clauses have different subjects.
In spite ofthefact that the Great Fire destroyed much ofLondon,...
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.

## NOTE

We use on the contrary only when we mean that the opposite is true. Warwickisn'tabigcity.Onthecontrary, it'squitesmall.

## 247 Words meaning 'so'

1 We use so to express a result.
It hasn't rainedfor 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 rainfallfor some time. The ground is therefore verydry.
NOTE
We usually repeat the subject after so. We lost our way, so we were late.

2 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 offin consequence of a computer error.
3 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;

- 212(4). We cannot use very or too in this pattern.


## 31 <br> Adverbial clauses

## 248 Summary

Introduction to adverbial clauses - 249
An adverbial clause plays the same part in a sentence as other adverbials do.
I listen to music in the car. (adverbial phrase)
I listen to music while I'm driving. (adverbial clause)
Some adverbial clauses are non-finite.
While driving I listen to music to pass the time.
Clauses of time - 250
It hurts when I laugh.
Clauses of reason • 251
I bought this coat because it was cheap.
Clauses of purpose - 252
He wore dark glasses so that no one would recognize him.
Other adverbial clauses - 253
Sue parked the car where she had the day before.
No one else spends money the way you do.
Whoever, whatever etc • 254
Whoever suggested the idea, it's still nonsense.
NOTE
For contrast, e.g. although, in spite of, whereas, • 246.
For result, e.g. so/such ... that, • 247(3).
For conditions, e.g. if, unless, - 255.
For comparison, e.g. than, as, • 221 (3d, 4).

## 249 Introduction to adverbial clauses

1 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.

2 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.
note
It is possible but less usual for the adverbial clause to go in the middle of the main clause. We could, ifyoulike, playcards.

3 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.
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. - 139(3)
You can't go all day without eating. • 132(8)
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.
For more examples, • 199(5c).

## 250 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'vefinished 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 neverforget.
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 onlyfive.
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.

2 We can use a gerund after before, after and since. • 132(8a)
I always have a shower after taking exercise.
3 We can use a participle after when, while, once and until. - 139(3)
Take care when crossing the road.
Please wait until told to proceed.
We can also use a participle without a conjunction. • 139(1)
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, • 66(2b).
a While and as suggest something continuing for a period of time.
While Ann was in hospital, she had a visitfrom her teacher.
As we were cycling along, we saw afox.
We can also use when here.
For a complete action we use when.
We were cycling along when we saw afox.
When I arrived, the party was infull swing.
We can also use when for one thing coming straight after another. • 68(3)
When I knocked, Fiona opened the door.
b When can also mean 'every time'.
When you dial the number, no one answers.
Icycle to work when it'sfine.
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 drovefurther north, the weather got worse.
Compare Thefurther north we drove,... • 222(2)
d Just as means 'at that exact moment'.
Just as we came out of the theatre, the rain started.
5 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 Ifelt a pain in my back.
NOTE Americans do not use immediately as, a conjunction. • 307(3)

## 251 Clauses of reason

1 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'tyou stay the night?
Now (that) I'vefinished the course, I have to look for a job.
NOTE
a Compare a clause of result. - 247
I was tired, so I made mistakes.
b Because is the most common conjunction of reason. We can use it to answer a question with why.

Why did you make so many mistakes? ~ (Because) I was tired.
c We sometimes use because to give a reason for saying the main clause.
Is your carfor sale, because I might be interested?
d Compare these sentences.
I didn't go to the exhibition because I was busy. I'm sorry I missed it.
I didn't go to the exhibition because I was interested. I went there to see Sandra. In the second sentence there is extra stress on interested.
e For (= because) is formal and old-fashioned.
The soldiers were exhausted for they had marched a long way. A clause with for comes after the main clause.

2 We can also use a participle clause. - 139(4)
Being tired, Imade mistakes.
Having finished the course, I have to lookfor a job.
3 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.

NOTE
a We can use a finite clause after in view of thefact that and due to thefact that.
The scheme was abandoned in view ofthefact that it was proving unpopular.
b Out of can express a motive for an action.
I had a lookjust out of curiosity.
c Considering is a conjunction, preposition or adverb.
Considering (that) he's seventy, George is remarkably fit.
Considering his age, George is remarkably fit.
George is seventy, you know. He's remarkably fit, considering.

## 252 Clauses of purpose

We can use a to-infinitive clause to express purpose. • 119(1)
I'djust 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) tofinance their advertising. Paul wore a suit to hisjob interview (so as) to make a good impression. (In order) to save time we'llfax 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 diaryso as not toforget.

After so thatwe 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 staysfresh.
I wrote it in my diary so that I wouldn'tforget.
Why don't you take a day offso 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.
NOTE
a We use so that rather than a to-infinitive when the two clauses have different subjects.
Moira left some salad so that James could eat it later.
But after for we can use a subject + to-infinitive. • 126(6)
Moira left some saladfor James to eat later.
b In informal English we can use so instead of so that. Compare purpose and result. Purpose: I took a day offso (that) I could recover properly.
Result: The car simply refused to start, so (that) I couldn't get to work.
But generally we use so that for purpose and so for result.
c We can sometimes use to avoid or to prevent rather than a negative clause with so that. He kept his shirt on so that he wouldn't get sunburnt. He kept his shirt on to avoid getting sunburnt.

We can use for with a noun to express the purpose of an action.
We went outfor some fresh air. Why not come overfor a chat?
To express the general purpose of a thing, we normally use for with a gerund.
A saw is a toolfor cutting wood.
The small scale isfor weighing letters.
We use the to-infinitive to talk about a specific need or action.
Ineed a saw to cut this wood.
Igot the scale out to weigh the letter.
NOT I got the scale out for weighing the letter.
NOTE
a After use there can be either for + gerund or a to-infinitive. We use a rulerfor measuring/to measure things.
b There is also a pattern with for and the to-infinitive. • 126(6)
For the scale to register correctly, it has to be level.
But NOT for to weigh the letter

## 253 Other adverbial clauses

## 1 Place

Where the road bends left, there's a turning on the right.
Sebastian takes the teddy bear everywhere he goes.

## 2 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?

## NOTE

a In British English like as a conjunction is often avoided except in an informal style. It is safer to use as.

There was trouble at the carnival, as there was lastyear.
But we can use like as a preposition. - 228(6)
Like lastyear, there was trouble.
b We can use look as if, look as though and look like (informal) to describe how something looks.

You look as if/look as though/look like you've seen a ghost.
We can also use this pattern for what we can see is probably going to happen.
It looks as ifflooks as though/looks like it's going to be a nice day.
We can also use look like + gerund with the same meaning. It looks like being a nice day.

## 3 Comment and truth

As you know, things are difficultjust now.
Putting it another way, why should I bother?
To tellyou the truth, I don't think you've much chance ofsuccess.
Asfar as I can tell, there's nothing wrong.

## 4 In that and in sofar as

The party was a disappointment in that/in sofar as the celebrity guest didn't turn up.
Here the sub clause explains in what way the main clause is true.

## 5 Except

The car's all right, except (that) the heater doesn't work.
Leaving out that is informal.

## 254 Whoever, whateveretc

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 drawfaces, however hard I try.
We can use whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever and however.

## NOTE

For Whoever is going to be in goal?, • 26(6c).
For Whoever plays in goal wears this shirt, •281.
2 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.

## 32 <br> Conditional clauses

## 255 Summary

The use of conditional clauses - 256
We often use if to express a condition.
If you're going into college, I could give you a lift.
Here there is a conditional clause (If you're going into college) and a main
clause (I could give you a lift).
Conditions can be open or unreal.
Open: Ifit rains tomorrow, I won't go.
Unreal: If I was a bit taller, I could reach.
Verbs in conditional sentences - 257
There are many different combinations of verb forms. Here are some examples.
IfI complain, no one ever takes any notice.
IfI complain, no one will take any notice.
IfI complained, no one would take any notice.
IfI had complained, no one would have taken any notice.
Should, were, had and inversion - 258
We can use inversion in clauses with should, were and had.
Should it rain, the reception will be held indoors.
If, as long as, unless, in case etc • 259
Besides if we can use other conjunctions to express a condition.
You can picnic here as long as you don't leave litter.

## 256 The use of conditional clauses

1 This real conversation contains some conditional clauses.
RENEWING YOUR LBRARY 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. Oryou 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 ifyou open the book on thefly-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.
(from M. Underwood Listen to This!)
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 mayjoin the library). An unreal condition expresses something which is not true or is imaginary. (You did not arrive later.)

## NOTE

A condition can also be definitely true.
I'm tired. ~ Well, if you're tired, let's have a rest.
The meaning here is similar to You're tired, so let's have a rest.
2 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.

## 257 Verbs in conditional sentences

## 1 Introduction

a We can use many different verb forms in conditional sentences. Here are some real examples.

If you haven'tgot television, you can't watch it.
If you go to one of the agencies, they have a lot of temporary jobs.
Ifsomeone 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 havefour birthdays).

[^14]b There are some verb forms which often go together. These patterns are usually called Types 1,2 and 3.
Type 1: Ifthe companyfails, we will lose our money.
Type 2: If the company failed, we would lose our money.
Type 3: If the company hadfailed, we would have lost our money.
There is another common pattern which we can call Type 0 .
Type 0: Ifthe companyfails, we lose our money.
c The if-clause usually comes before the main clause, but it can come after it.

- 249(2,3)

We lose our money ifthe companyfails.

## 2 Type 0 conditionals

a The pattern is if...+ present... + present.
Ifthe 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 $\mathbf{0}$ 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.

NOTE
As well as the present simple, we can use the continuous.
Ifyou're practising on the drums, I'mgoing out.

## 3 Type 1 conditionals

a The pattern is if...'+ present... + will.
Ifit rains, the reception will take place indoors.
Ifwe 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 ifit will rain But • (3d).

```
NOTE
a We can use will in the if-clause for a result, something further in the future than the
    main clause.
        Ifitdoes/willdo me more good, I'll take a differentmedicine.
b We can use shall instead of will after \(I / w e\).
Ifwe don'thurry, we will/shallmiss the train.
```

b As well as the present simple, we can use the continuous or perfect. Ifwe're having ten people to dinner, we'll need more chairs. IfI've finished my work by ten, I'll probably watch afilm on TV.

As well as will, we can use other modal verbs and similar expressions in the main clause.

Ifwe miss the train, we can get the next one.
IfSimon 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.
c 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. Ifit's raining already, I'm definitely not going out.
d We can use will in the if-clause for willingness and won't for a refusal.
Ifeveryone will help, we'll soon get the job done.
Ifthe 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...+ past... + would. IfI had lots of money, I would travel round the world. IfPhil 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. IfI 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).
note
We can use should instead of would after $I /$ we.
If had lots ofmoney, I would/should travel round the world.
b 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.
c We also use the Type 2 pattern for a theoretical possibility in the future. If you lost the book, you would have to payfor 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: Ifwe 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.

[^15]d As well as the past simple, we can use the continuous or could.
If the sun was shining, everything would be perfect. IfI 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.

IfI had a light, I could see what I'm doing.
Ifwe 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.

## 5 Open conditions in the past

a We can use the past tense for an open condition in the past.
Perhaps Mike took a taxi. ~ Well, ifhe took a taxi, he ought to be here by now. I used to live near the library. IfI 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 $\mathbf{1}$.
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'tyou?
c We can combine a past condition with a future result.
Iftheyposted the parcel yesterday, it won't get here before Friday.

## 6 Type 3 conditionals

a 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 ifwe'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.
NOTE
Would have (or had have) is not used in the if-clause except in very informal speech. If you'd have taken a taxi, you'd have got here on time.
But many people regard this as incorrect.
b We can use could + perfect in the if-clause.
IfI 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.
IfI'd written the address down, I could have saved myselfsome trouble.
The plan might not have worked if we hadn't had one great piece ofluck.
NOTE
We can also use continuous forms.
Ifhe hadn't been evicted by his landlord, he wouldn't have been sleeping in the streets.
c We can mix Types 2 and 3 .
IfTom was a bit more ambitious, he would havefound himselfa better job years ago.
If you hadn't woken me up in the middle of the night, I wouldn't feel so tired now.
note
We can also use a Type 1 condition with a Type 3 main clause. If you know London so well, you shouldn't have got lost.

## 258 Should, were, had and inversion

The following types of clause are rather formal.
1 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 ifanyone should ring, could you take a message? If you should fail ill, we will pay your hospital expenses.
note
We can also use happen to.
Ifanyonehappenstoring/shouldhappentoring,couldyoutakeamessage?
2 Sometimes we use the subjunctive were instead of was. - 242(3)
If the picture was/were genuine, it would be worth thousands ofpounds.
If it wasn't/weren'tfor Emma, I'd have no friends at all.
(= Without Emma,...)
We can also use were to for a theoretical possibility.
Ifthe 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 ofpounds.
Were the decision to go against us, we would appeal.
We can do the same with the past perfect (Type 3, • 257(6)).
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.

## 259 If, as long as, unless, in case etc

## 1 If and when

Ifthe 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 ifor when. - 257(2a)

## 2 Short clauses

We can use a short clause with if but without a verb.
I'd like a roomfacing the street if(that is) possible.
If(you are) in difficulty, ring this number.
For if so and ifnot, - 43(3e).

## 3 Then

After an if-clause we can use then in the main clause.
Ifthe figures don't add up, (then) we must have made a mistake.
Ifno one else has requested the book, (then) you can renew it.

## 4 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 ofit.
We are willing to acceptyour offer providing (that) payment is made within seven days.
Provided/Providing (that) is a little formal.

## NOTE

a On condition that is formal.
We are willing to accept your offer on condition that payment is made within seven days.
b We can use the adverbial in that case (= if that is so).
I've lost my timetable. ~ Well, in that case I'll give you another one.
c We can use the prepositions in case of and in the event of.
In case of difficulty, ring this number. (= If you have any difficulty,...)
The prepositions with, without and butfor can also express a condition.
With a bit more time, we could do a properjob. (= If we had a bit more time,...)
But for the climate, Edinburgh would be a perfect place to live.

## 5 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?

## 6 Unless

a Unless means 'if... not'.
We're going to have a picnic unless it rains/ifit doesn't rain.
You can renew a book unless another reader has requested it.
Unless you refund my money, Ishall take legal action.
note
We can use not unless meaning 'only if. We won't have a picnic unless it's fine. Aren't you going to join us? ~Not unless you apologize first.
b When an unreal condition comes before the main clause, we cannot use unless.
The horsefell. If it hadn'tfallen, it would have won the race.
NOT Unless it hadfallen, 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 hadfallen.
We do not use unless when we talk about a feeling which would result from something not happening.
Alex wlll be upset if you don't come to the party.
I shall be very surprised if it doesn't rain.
note
The adverb otherwise means 'if not'.
You are obliged to refund my money. Otherwise I shall take legal action.
c We can use and and or to express a condition, especially in informal speech.
Touch me and I'll scream. (= If you touch me, I'll scream.)
Go away or I'll scream. (= Unless you go away, I'll scream.)

## 7 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 Ifelt 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.
NOIE For in case in American English, • 307(2).

## 8 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 roomfor one or not.
Whether it's summer or winter, our neighbour always wears a pullover.

## 33

## Noun clauses

## 260 Summary

## Introduction to noun clauses • 261

A noun clause begins with that, a question word or if/whether. Joanne remembered that it was Thursday. I can't imagine where Peter has got to. No one knew if/whether the rumour was true.
We can sometimes leave out that.
I hope (that) everything will be OK.

## Patterns with noun clauses - 262

Noun clauses come in these patterns.
As object
I noticed that the door was open.
As complement
The idea is that we take it in turns.
As subject
That he could be mistaken didn't seem possible.
With the empty subject it
It didn't seem possible that he could be mistaken.
After a preposition
We had a discussion about who should be invited.
After an adjective
I was ashamed that I'd let my friends down.
After a noun
You can't deny thefact thatyou received the message.

## 261 Introduction to noun clauses

1 A noun clause begins with that, a question word or if/whether.
I expected that we would be late.
We didn't know what time it was.
We'll have to decide if/whether we can afford it.
Here the noun clauses are the object of the sentence.

Compare a noun phrase and noun clause as object.
Phrase: We didn't know the time.
Clause: We didn't know what time it was.
$A$ that-clause relates to a statement.
We would be late. that we would be late
$A$ wh-clause relates to a wh-question.
What time was it? what time it was
A clause with if/whether relates to a yes/no question.
Can we afford it? if/whether we can afford it
In a clause relating to a question we normally use the same word order as in a statement. - 269(2)

NOT We didn't know what 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. • 263
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. • 125 The problem was how to contact everyone.

## 262 Patterns with noun clauses

1 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.
note
We can use a wh-clause or if/whetherwhen the noun clause expresses a question or the answer to a question.

I'llaskwhen the nexttrainis.
Thefiguresshowhowmuchthepopulationhasincreased.
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.

## 262 Patterns with noun clauses

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 | pointout | 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; • 121. 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, • 122(2b) Note a.
d Sometimes there is a phrase with $t o$.
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. • 265(3)

For details about tell and say, •266(1).

## 2 The pattern The problem is that we haven't any money

$A$ noun clause can be a complement of $b e$.
The truth is (that) I don't get on with myflat-mate.
The difficulty was how Emma was going to find us in the crowd.

## 3 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.
nоте
We can use whether (but not if) when the clause is the subject.
Whether I'll be able to come depends on a number of things.

## 4 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 reliefthat 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.
NOTE
a We can also use thefact that or the idea that.
Thefact that everyone got back safely was a great relief.
b For it as empty object, • 50(5b).
I thought it obvious which route would be best.
c For it with seem, happen etc, • 50(5c).
It seems (that) I've made a mistake.
d For the passive pattern It was decided that we should take this route, •109.

## 5 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.
NOTE
Sometimes we can leave out the preposition.
I was surprised (at) how cold it was.
There's the question (of) whether we should sign theform.
Other expressions are to ask (about), aware (of), to care (about), certain (of/about),
conscious (of), curious (about), to decide (on/about), a decision (on/about),
to depend (on), to inquire (about), an inquiry (about), to report (on/about), sure (of/about), to think (oflabout), to wonder (about).
But with some expressions we cannot leave out the preposition.
There was a discussion about when we should leave.
Others are confused about, difficulty overlabout, an effect on, an expert on, an influence on/over, interested in, a report on/about, research into, worried about.

## 6 The pattern I'm afraid that we haven't any money

a 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 |  |  |

note
We can often use should. - 242(2)
I was surprised that Tom should be so upset over nothing.
The organizers were anxious that nothing should go wrong.
b 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 shefaced.

## 7 The pattern Thefact 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 thefact 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 ofradioactivity.
We do not usually leave out that in this pattern.

## 34

## Direct and indirect speech

## 263 Summary

## Introduction to indirect speech - 264

We use direct speech when we repeat someone's words and indirect speech when we use our own words to report what someone says.
Direct speech: 'I like football,' Emma said.
Indirect speech: Emma said she likesfootball.
Verbs of reporting • 265
We use verbs of reporting such as say, tell, ask, answer.
Tell, say and ask • 266
Tell takes an indirect object.
Emma told me she likesfootball.

## Changes in indirect speech - 267

We have to make changes to the original words when there are changes in the situation.

Nick: I won't be at the club next week.
(spoken to you at a cafe a week ago)
You: Nick said he won't be here this week.
(speaking to Polly at the club now)
Here there are changes of person ( $I$ he), place (at the club here) and time (next week this week).

## Tenses in indirect speech - 268

We sometimes change the tense of the verb from present to past, especially when the statement may be untrue or is out of date.

Emma said she likedfootball, but she never watches it.
Leon said he was tired, so he had a rest.

## Reporting questions • 269

In an indirect question we use a question word or if/whether.
I'll ask the assistant how much it costs.
Vicky wants to know if Emma likes football.

## Reporting orders, requests, offers etc • 270

We use a pattern with the to-infinitive to report orders and requests.
'Could you fill in theform, please?' They told/asked us to fill in theform.
We can also report offers, suggestions etc.
'I can lend you some money.' Sue offered to lend me some money.

## 264 Introduction to indirect speech

## 1 Direct speech

We use direct speech when we report someone's words by repeating them.
'I'llgo 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, • 56(4).

## 2 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) hisfeet 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. • 270(2d)
They declared the result to be invalid. - 122(2c)
NOTE
a We use a comma after said, admitted etc and before direct speech, but not before indirect speech.

Fiona said, 'It's getting late.'
Fiona said it was getting late.
b Sometimes the main clause is at the end, as a kind of afterthought. There is a comma after the indirect speech.

His team were beaten by a better side, Gould admitted.
There will be no trains on Christmas Day, British Rail announced yesterday. We cannot use that when the indirect speech comes first.
c For according to, •228(1).
b We can report thoughts as well as speech.
Louise thought Wayne was a completefool.
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'sjob, 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 DavidAndrews said Wilson had stolen a gold wedding ring and credit card and had used the card to attempt to withdraw moneyfrom a bank.
In the second offence Wilson had burgled premises and taken a briefcase containing takingsfrom 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.

## 265 Verbs of reporting

1 We use verbs of reporting to report statements, thoughts, questions, requests, apologies and so on.

Polly says we'll enjoy the show.
You mentioned thatyou were going on holiday.
'What's the reasonfor that?' she wondered.
You might ask the waiter to bring another bottle.
I've apologizedfor 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 | pointout | smile |  |

## note

We use talk and speak to mention who was speaking or for how long.
Angela was talking to Neil. The President spokefor an hour.
But we do not use talk or speak as verbs of reporting.
The President said that he was confident of success.
NOT The President talked/spoke that he was confident ofsuccess.

3 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
4 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.
5 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.

## 266 Tell, say and ask

1 We normally use an indirect object after tell but not after say.
Celia told me she'sfed up. NOT Celia toldshe'sfed up.
Andy told me all the latest news.
Celia said she'sfed up. NOT Celia said me she'sfed up
Dave never says anything. He's very quiet.
We can use ask with or without an indirect object.
Iasked (Celia) if there was anything wrong.
For tell and ask in indirect orders and requests, - 270(1).
We told/asked Celia to hurry up.
NOTE
a Wecanuseathat-clause or a wh-clause.
Celia told me (that) she'sfed up/said (that) she'sfed up. Celia told me what's wrong.
Say + wh-clause is more common in negatives or questions, where the information
is not actually reported.
Celia didn't tell me/didn't say what was wrong. Did your brother tell you/say where he was going?
b Compare ask and say in direct and indirect speech.
'What time is it?' he asked/said. He asked what time it was. 'The time is...,' he said. He said what time it was.
c We can use tell + indirect object + about.
Debbie told us about her new boy-friend.
With talk about there is no indirect object.
Debbie talked about her new boy-friend.
We use say with about only if the information is not actually reported. What did she tell you/say about her new boy-friend?
No one has told us anything/said anything about the arrangements.

2 But we can use tell without an indirect object in these expressions.
Paul told (us) a veryfunny story/joke. You must tell (me) the truth. You mustn't tell (people) lies. The pupils have learnt to tell the time.

3 After say we can use a phrase with to, especially if the information is not reported. The mayor will say afew 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.
NOTE
With direct speech we can use say to.
'I'm OK,' Celia told me. 'I'm OK,' Celia said (to me). 'Are you OK?' Celia asked (me).

## 267 Changes in indirect speech

## 1 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 atyour 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, • 268.)

Whenever we report something, we have to take account of changes in the situation - a different speaker, a different place or a different time.

## 2 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/thefollowing day/on Wednesday etc |
| this week | last week/ that week |
| lastyear | the year beforelhe previous year/in 1990etc |
| next month | the month after/thefollowing month/in August etc |
| an hour ago | an hour beforelan hour earlier/at two o 'clock etc |

[^16]
## 268 Tenses in indirect speech

## 268 Tenses in indirect speech

## 1 Verbs of reporting

a A verb of reporting can be in a present tense.
Theforecastsays 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, • 64(2f).
After a present-tense verb of reporting, we do not change the tense in indirect speech.
'I'm hungry.' Robertsays he's hungry.
NOTE
After a present-tense verb of reporting, the past tense means past time.
The singer says he took drugs when he was younger.
b 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.

## 2 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.
a 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.
'I'm hungry.' Robert said he's/he was hungry, so we're going to eat.
b We can change the tense when it is uncertain if the statement is true. Compare these examples.

We'd better not go out. Theforecast said it's going to rain.
I hope it doesn't rain. ~ It might. Theforecast 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.
c 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 goodfor The party said its policies would be goodfor the the country.' country.
d 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.
Theforecast 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 thatyou wanted to be a film. star.

## 3 The form of the tense change

a The tense change in indirect speech is a change from present to past.
'Ifeel ill.'
'You're crazy.'
'We're losing.' We thought we were losing.
'I've got time.'
'We haven't finished.' They said they hadn't finished.
'She's been crying.'

Kay said shefelt ill.
You said I was crazy.
Simon said he had time.
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.
'Ibought 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.
note
a We do not need to change a past-tense verb when it refers to a complete action. Nicola told me she passed/she'd passed her driving test.
But when it refers to a state or a habit, there can be a difference in meaning. William said hefelt ill. And he did look awful. William said he'd felt ill/he'd been feeling ill. But he'd got over it.
b The past perfect in indirect speech can relate to three different forms.
I've seen the film.' She said she'd seen the film.
'Isaw the film last week.' She said she'd seen the film the week before. I'd seen the film before, but I She said she'd seen the film before. enjoyed watching it again.'
c We do not change a past-tense verb when it means something unreal. • 241(3)
'I wish I had a dog.' My sister says she wishes she had a dog.
'It's time we went.' The girls thought it was time they went.
'If I knew, I'd tell you.' Amy said that if she knew, she'd tell us.
c 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.
NOTE
a Sometimes we use different patterns to report sentences with modal verbs. - 270
' Would you like to comefor tea?' They invited mefor tea.
b Shall for the future changes to would. In rather formal English it can change to should in the first person.
'I shall complain.' He said he would complain.
I said I would/I should complain.
Shall with other meanings changes to should.
'What shall I do?' She asked what she should do.
d 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.
NOTE
When must refers to the future, it can change to would have to.
'I must go soon.' Sarah said she would have to go soon.

## 269 Reporting questions

1 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.
~ Halfpast twelve.
Who have you invited? Peter is wondering who we've invited.
~Oh, lots ofpeople.
When is the lesson?
Someone wants to know when the lesson is.
~ I don't know.
For the pattern We were wondering where to gofor lunch, • 125.
b To report yes/no questions we use if or whether.

Is there a waiting-room?
~ Yes, over here.
Have you bought your ticket?
~No, not yet.

Dan was asking if/whether there's a waitingroom.
Mandy wants to know ifSteve has bought his ticket.

> We can use or not to emphasize the need for a yes/no reply.
> They want to know if/whether it's safe or not.
> They want to know whether or not it's safe.
> But NOT ... if or not it's safe

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.

[^17]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'vefound 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...? •33

Couldyou 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. - 268

What do you want? The man asked what we wanted.
Who are you waitingfor? Alex wondered who I was waitingfor.
Will there be a band? They asked ifthere would be a band.

## 270 Reporting orders, requests, offers etc

## 1 Orders and requests

a We can use tell/ask + object + to-infinitive.
'Please waitoutside.'
'I wantyou to relax.'
'Could you 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.
NOTE
a For more details about this pattern, • 122(2a).
b The main clause can be passive.
We were told to wait outside.
c We can use this pattern with say in informal English.
The teacher said to wait outside.
A We can use ask without an indirect object. Compare these patterns.
'May I sit down?' Peter asked to sit down.
'Please sit down.' Peter asked me to sit down.
e We can use a pattern with ask for and a passive to-infinitive.
The villagers are asking for a pedestrian crossing to be installed.
f We use askfor + noun phrase when someone asks to have something. I asked (the porter)for my key.
g To report a request for permission we use ask if/whether.
'Do you mind ifI smoke?' Alan asked if he could smoke.
b We can also report the sentences like this.
My psychiatrist is always telling me she wants me to relax.
Our hostess asked Alan ifhe would mind not smoking.
c 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.

## NOTE

After most verbs of reporting, we can use a clause with should. • 242(2)
The police ordered that the gates should be closed.

## 2 Offers, warnings, apologies etc

We can report these kinds of sentences with say or ask, or we can use offer, warn, apologize etc.
'I can lend you some money.'
Sue offered to lend me some money. Sue said she could lend me some money.

Here are some patterns we can use.
a A single clause
'I'msorry.'
'Thank you very much.'
'I really must have a break.'
'Be careful. The path is slippery.'
The man apologized.
Ithanked the driver.
Jeffinsisted on a break.
He warned us about the path.
b Verb + to-infinitive
'I'm not going to walk all that way.' Garyrefusedtowalk.
Also: agree, offer, promise, threaten
c Verb + object + to-infinitive
'You really ought to get some help.' Mark advised us to get some help.
"Wouldyou like to stay at our Yourfriends have invited me to stay at house?' their house.
Also: recommend, remind, warn
d Verb + gerund
'Why don't we share the cost?'
'I'm afraid I've lost the photo.'
Someone suggested sharing the cost. Lorna admitted losing the photo.
e Verb + preposition + gerund
I'm sorry I messed up the arrangements.'

Roland apologizedfor messing up the Also: complain about, confess to, insist on, object to
f Verb + object + preposition + gerund
'It was yourfault. You didn't tell us.'
They blamed Jamesfor not telling them.
g Verb + that-clause
Jeffinsisted (that) we had a break. Lorna admitted (that) she had lost the photo.
Also: agree, complain, confess, object, promise, suggest, threaten, warn

## мотE

After agree, insist, promise and suggest we can use a clause with should. - 242(2)
Jeffinsisted that we should have a break.
h Verb + object + that-clause
He warned us that the path was slippery.
Also: advise, promise, remind

## 35

## Relative clauses

## 271 Summary

## Introduction to relative clauses • 272

An adjective or prepositional phrase can modify a noun. A relative clause does the same.

| Adjective: | the red team |
| :--- | :--- |
| Phrase: | the team in red |
| Relative clause: | the team wearing red <br>  <br>  <br> the team who were wearing red |

Some relative clauses do not have commas. They are identifying clauses and classifying clauses.
Identifying: What's the name of the player who was injured?
(The clause tells us which player is meant.)
Classifying: A player who is injured has to leave the field.
(The clause tells us what kind of player is meant.)
Some relative clauses have commas. They are adding clauses and connective clauses.
Adding: Jones, who was injured, left the field.
(The clause adds information about Jones.)
Connective: The ball went to Jones, who scored easily.
(The clause tells us what happened next.)

## Relative pronouns in clauses without commas • 273

We use the relative pronouns who or that for people and which or that for things. These pronouns can be the subject or object of the clause.
Subject: We got on the first bus that came.
Object: We got on the first bus that we saw.
Object of a preposition: Next came the bus that we were waiting for.
We can leave out the pronoun when it is not the subject.
We got on the first bus we saw.

Relative clauses with commas • 274
In an adding clause or connective clause we cannot use that, and we cannot leave out the pronoun.

The first bus, which came after five minutes, was a seven.
Whose • 275
The player whose goal won the game was Jones.
Participle relative clauses • 276
The bus coming now is ours.
The player injured in the leg had to leave the field.
Infinitive relative clauses • 277
United were the first team to score.
Which relating to a clause • 278
United won easily, which pleased their fans.
Relative adverbs • 279
That's the stop where we get our bus.
The relative pronoun what • 280
United's fans got what they wanted.
Whoever, whatever and whichever •281
Whoever used the pans should wash them up.

## 272 Introduction to relative clauses

## 1 SEVERN BODY CLUE

A body recovered from the River Severn at Tewkesbury at the weekend is thought to be a man who disappearedfrom the Midlands in January, police saidyesterday.
(from The Guardian)
There are two relative clauses. Each clause relates to a noun (body, man). The second clause begins with a relative pronoun (who). The pronoun joins the relative clause to the main clause.

The body is that ofa man. He disappeared in January.
The body is that of a man who disappeared in January.

2 There are different ways of modifying a noun.

Adjective:
Noun:
Phrase:
Participle relative clause:
Finite relative clause:
a dead body
a Midlands man
a body in the river a man from the Midlands
a body recovered from the river a man speaking in a Midlands accent
a body which was recovered from the river
a man who disappeared from the Midlands

We usually choose the pattern that expresses the information in the shortest way. For example, a manfrom the Midlands is more usual than a man who comes from the Midlands.

NOTE
A relative clause can come after a pronoun such as everyone, something.
HeisthoughttobesomeonewhodisappearedfromtheMidlandsinJanuary.
But a clause after a personal pronoun is rather formal and old-fashioned.
He who would climb the laddermustbegin at the bottom.
3 The following kinds of relative clause do not have commas around them, and in speech we do not pause before them.
a Identifying clauses
A clause can identify the noun, say which one we mean.
The architect who designed theseflats doesn't live here, of course.
I can'tfindthe book that I was reading.
The clause that I was reading identifies which book we are talking about.
NOTE
When there is an identifying clause, the determiner before the noun is usually the, not $m y$, your, etc.

Ilike the course thatI'mdoing now.
NOT Ilike my course thatI'm doing now.
My identifies which course, so we do not need it with an identifying clause.
b Classifying clauses
A clause can classify the noun, say what kind we mean.
I hate people who laugh at their ownjokes.
We're lookingfor a pub that servesfood.
The clause that servesfood expresses the kind of pub we mean.
c Clauses used for emphasis
We can use a relative clause in a pattern with it in order to emphasize a phrase.
It was Jones who was injured, not Brown. • 51(3)
4 The following kinds of relative clause are separated from the noun, usually by a comma. In speech there is a short pause before the clause.
a Adding clauses
A clause can add extra information about a noun. - 274
Aristotle was taught by Plato, whofounded the Academy at Athens.
The clause whofounded the Academy atAthens adds extra information about Plato. We can leave out the adding clause and the sentence still makes sense.

## 272 Introduction to relative clauses

b Connective clauses
A clause can tell us what happened next.
I shouted to the man, who ran off.
We use a connective clause to link two actions. In spoken English we often use two main clauses.
Ishouted to the man, and he ran off.
5 Whether we use commas or not (or whether we pause) makes a difference to the meaning.
a Compare the identifying clause and the adding clause.
Identifying: Two cars had to swerve to avoid each other. One car left the road and hit a tree, and the other one ended up on its roof. The driver of the car which hit a tree was killed.
Adding: $\quad$ a car had to swerve to avoid a horse and left the road. The driver of the car, which hit a tree, was killed.
The identifying clause tells us which of the two cars is meant. The adding clause adds extra information about the car. It does not identify the car because in this context there is only one.
b In speech we make a difference between the two kinds of clause.
Identifying: the driver of the car which hit a $\searrow$ tree
Adding: $\quad$ the $\searrow$ driver of the car, which hit a $\searrow$ tree
Before the adding clause there is a pause. There is a fall in intonation on both the noun phrase and the adding clause.
c Compare the classifying clause and the adding clause.
Classifying: Cars which cause pollution should be banned. (Some cars should be banned because they cause pollution.)
Adding: $\quad$ Cars, which cause pollution, should be banned. (All cars should be banned because they cause pollution.)
The classifying clause tells us what kind of cars are meant. The adding clause adds information about cars in general.

6 A relative clause usually comes directly after the noun it relates to, but it can come later in the sentence. These two examples are from real conversations.

I can't think ofany good films at the moment that I'd like to see.
The train was just pulling out of the station that we were supposed to connect with.
We can do this when the clause has important information that we need to put at the end of the sentence. But separating the noun and its relative clause can be awkward, and in writing we often avoid it.

[^18]When we use a relative pronoun, we do not use a personal pronoun as well. a man who disappeared in January NOT a man who he disappeared in January a body that theyfound in the river NOT a body that theyfound it in the river NOTE
But in informal spoken English we sometimes use an extra personal pronoun when the relative clause has a sub clause.

We were talking about thefactory that the police believe someone set fire to (it) deliberately.

## 273 Relative pronouns in clauses without commas

Here we look at clauses in which we use who, whom, which or that, and clauses without a pronoun. These are identifying and classifying clauses.

## 1 Who or which?

We use who for a person and which for a thing or an idea.
Who was the girl who arrived late? It was a dream which came true.
The difference between who and which is like that between he/she and it. • 184(3b)
We can use that with any noun.
Who was the girl wholthat you came with?
It was a dream which/that came true.
With people, who is more usual than that. With other things, both which and that are possible, but which is a little more formal.

```
NOTE
The forms are the same whether the noun is singular or plural I don't know the girl/girls who arrived late.
```


## 2 Relative pronoun as subject

The pronoun can be the subject of the relative clause.
The young man wholthat lives on the corner rides a motor-bike.
(He lives on the corner.)
I've got a computer program which/that does thejobfor me.
(It does the job for me.)
NOTE
In general, who is more usual than that as subject of the clause. But we often use that when we do not mean a specific person.
Anyone wholthat knows thefacts must disagree with the official view.

## 3 Relative pronoun as object

a The pronoun can be the object of a relative clause.
It's the same actor wholthat we saw at the theatre.
(We saw him at the theatre.)
You can get back the tax which/thatyou've paid.
(You've paid it.)
We often leave out the relative pronoun. • (5)
It's the same actor we saw at the theatre.

## 273 Relative clauses without commas

NOTE
Who and that are both possible as the object. But we normally use that rather than which for something not specific.

Wecansupplyyouwitheverything(that)youneed.
b When who is the object, we can use whom instead.
It's the same actor who/whom we saw at the theatre.
A man who/whom Neil knew was standing at the bar.
Whom is formal and rather old-fashioned. In everyday speech we use who, or we leave out the pronoun. - (5)

## 4 Prepositions in relative clauses

a The relative pronoun can be the object of a preposition.
I'll introduce you to the man wholthat I share aflat with.
(I share a flat with him.)
Is this the magazine which/that you were talking aboutjust now?
(You were talking about it just now.)
In informal English the preposition comes in the same place as in a main clause (share aflat with, talking about).

We often leave out the relative pronoun. - (5)
I'll introduce you to the man I share aflat with.
note
In this pattern whom is possible but less usual.
I'll introduce you to the man who/whom Ishare aflat with.
b In more formal English we can put the preposition before whom or which.
The person with whom Mr Fletcher shared the flat had not paid his rent.
The topic in which Michael is most interested is scientific theory.
We cannot leave out whom or which here, and we cannot use who or that.

## 5 Leaving out relative pronouns

We can leave out the pronoun when it is not the subject of the relative clause. Clauses without pronouns are very common in informal English.

The woman Gary met knows your sister.
The parcel I posted on Monday still hasn't got there.
That man Angela was sitting next to never said a word.
He certainly could not have committed the crime he was accused of.
But we cannot leave out the pronoun when it is the subject.
That man who was sitting next to Angela never said a word.
Sometimes we can use a participle without a relative pronoun or an auxiliary.

- 276

That man sitting next to Angela never said a word.

[^19]
## 6 Overview: who, whom, which and that

## People

| Subject | the man who was talking <br> the man that was talking |
| :--- | :--- |
| Object of | the man who we met <br> the man that we met |
| verb | the man we met <br> the man whom we met |
| Object of | the man who we talked to <br> preposition <br> the man that we talked to <br> the man we talked to <br> the man whom we talked to <br> the man to whom we talked |

Things
the music which was playing the music that was playing the music which we heard the music that we heard the music we heard
the music which we listened to the music that we listened to the music we listened to the music to which we listened

## 274 Relative clauses with commas

1 An adding clause (or 'non-identifying clause') adds extra information. This news item contains a sentence with an adding clause.
A bank robber escapedfrom prison last week, after climbing aboard a helicopter that had been hijacked by an armed accomplice, in Brittany. Claude Riviere, who was sentenced to 15 years imprisonment in 1987, leapt into the helicopter while on an exercise period.
(fromEarlyTimes)
The clause adds extra information that the reader may not know. But if we leave out the adding clause, the sentence still makes sense.
There are often adding clauses in informative texts. They are rather formal and typical of a written style.

For the difference between identifying and adding clauses, • 272(5).
2 We separate the adding clause from the main clause, usually with commas. We can also use dashes or brackets.

Einstein, whofailed his university entrance exam, discovered relativity.
The new manager is nicer than the old one - whom the staffdisliked.
The cat (whose name was Molly) was sitting on the window-sill.
The drugs, which were hidden in bars ofchocolate, have a street value of $£ 20$ million.

In an adding clause we use who, whom, whose or which but not that. And we cannot leave out the pronoun from an adding clause.

3 A preposition can go before the pronoun, or it can stay in the same place as in a main clause.

Tim's hobby is photography, on which he spends most ofhis spare cash.
Tim's hobby is photography, which he spends most ofhis spare cash on. It is more informal to leave the preposition at the end.

4 We can use a quantifier + of whom/of which to express a whole or part quantity. The police received a number ofbomb warnings, all of which turned out to be false alarms. (All of them turned out to be false alarms.) In the chair lift were two people, one of whom was slightly injured. There are dozens ofTV channels, some of which operate 24 hours a day.

5 We use the same patterns in connective clauses to say what happened next.
He presented theflowers to Susan, who burst into tears.
Mike dropped a box ofeggs, all of which broke.

## 275 Whose

1 Whose has a possessive meaning.
The people whose cars were damaged complained to the police.
(Their cars were damaged.)
Tania is someone whose courage I admire.
Thefriend whose dog I'm looking after is in Australia.
Madame Tussaud, whose waxworks are a popular attraction, died in 1850.
But NOT someone whose the courage I admire
2 Whose usually relates to a person, but it can relate to other things, especially a country or organization.
I wouldn'tfly with an airline whose safety record is so poor.
(Its safety record is so poor.)
The others were playing a game whose rules I couldn't understand.

## NOTE

Instead of whose relating to a thing, we can use this pattern with of which.
The others were playing a game the rules of which I couldn't understand. We are introducing a new system, the aim of which is to reduce costs.

3 Whose + noun can be the object of a preposition.
The President, in whose private life the newspapers are so interested, has
nothing to hide.
Phyllis is the woman whose cottage we once stayed at.

## 276 Participle relative clauses

## 1 Active participles

a We can use an active participle in a relative clause without a pronoun or an auxiliary.

Those people taking photos over there comefrom Sweden.
(= those people who are taking photos)
The official took no notice of the telephone ringing on his desk.
(= the telephone which was ringing on his desk)
To Robin, sunbathing on the beach, all his problems seemedfar away.
The participle can refer to the present (are taking) or the past (was ringing).
For this pattern with there $+b e$ • 50(3).
There was a telephone ringing somewhere.
b An active participle can also refer to a state.
All the equipment belonging to the club is insured.
(= all the equipment which belongs to the club)
Fans wanting to buy tickets started queuing early.
It can also report people's words.
They've put up a sign warning of the danger.
c We can sometimes use the active participle for a repeated action.
People travelling into London every day are used to the hold-ups.
(= people who travel into London every day)
But the pattern is less usual for a single complete action.
The gang who stole the jewels got away.
NOT The gang stealing the jewels got away.

## 2 Passive participles

We can use a passive participle in a relative clause without a pronoun or an auxiliary.

Applications sent in after $23 r d$ March will not be considered. (= applications which are sent in)
Stones thrown at the train by vandals smashed two windows.
(= stones which were thrown at the train)
Police are trying to identify a body recoveredfrom the river.
(= a body which has been recovered from the river)
The first British TV commercial, broadcast in 1955, wasfor toothpaste.
NOTE
We can also use a continuous form of the participle.
Industrial training is the subject being discussed in Parliament this afternoon.

## 3 Word order with participles

We can sometimes put a participle before a noun.
a ringing telephone
But we cannot normally put a whole relative clause before the noun. • 137
NOT the on his desk ringing telephone

## 277 Infinitive relative clauses

Look at this pattern with an adjective and a to-infinitive.
Which was the first country to win the World Cup at rugby?
(= the first country which won the World Cup)
The last person to leave will have to turn out the lights.
(= the last person who leaves)
Maxicorp were the only company to reply to my letter.
William Pitt was the youngest person to become Prime Minister.
We can use a to-infinitive after an ordinal number (first, second etc), after next and last, after only, and after superlative adjectives (youngest).

[^20]
## 280 The relative pronoun what

## 278 Which relating to a clause

Which can relate to a whole clause, not just to a noun.
The team has lost all its matches, which doesn't surprise me.
(= The fact that the team has lost all its matches doesn't surprise me.)
Anna and Matthew spent the whole time arguing, which annoyed Laura.
Iget paid a hit more now, which means I can afford to run a car.
In this pattern the relative clause with which is an adding clause. We normally put a comma before which. We cannot use that or what instead of which in this pattern.

## 279 Relative adverbs

1 There are relative adverbs where, when and why.
The house where I used to live has been knocked down.
Do you remember the time when we all went to a night club?
The reason why I can't go is that Idon't have time.
We use where after nouns like place, house, street, town, country. We use when after nouns like time, period, moment, day, summer. We use why after reason.

```
NOTE
We can use where and when without a noun.
Where I used to live has been knocked down.
Do you remember when we all went to a night club?
```

2 Instead of a clause with where, we can often use one with a preposition.
The house (that) I used to live in has been knocked down.
We can leave out when or why, or we can use that instead. Do you remember the time (that) we all went to a night club? The reason (that) I can't go is that I don't have time.

3 Clauses with where and when can be adding or connective clauses.
We walked up to the top of the hill, where we got a marvellous view.
Can't we go next week, when I won't be so busy?
We cannot leave out where or when here, and we cannot use that.

## 280 The relative pronoun what

We can use what in this pattern.
We'd better write a list of what we need to pack.
(= the things that we need to pack)
I was going to buy a new coat, but I couldn't find what I wanted.
(= the thing that I wanted)
But vhat cannot relate to a noun.
NOT the coat what I wanted
We can use what in indirect speech. • 269(3)
I told you what we need to pack.
We can also use whatin a special pattern to emphasize a phrase. • 51 (4)
What we need to pack isjust afew clothes.

## 281 Whoever, whatever and whichever

Look at these examples.
Whoever designed this building ought to be shot.
(= the person who designed this building - no matter who it is)
I'll spend my money on whatever I like.
(= the thing that I like - no matter what it is)
Whichever date we choose will be inconvenientfor some of us.
(= the date that we choose - no matter which it is)
We cannot use who in this pattern.
NOT Who-dcsigned this building ought to be shot.
But we can use what. - 280
For whoever etc in another pattern, - 254.

## 36

Word-building

## 282 Summary

Compounds • 283
Some words are formed by combining two different words to make a compound.
bath + room $=$ bathroom
It is usually shorter and neater to say a bathroom than a room with a bath in it.
Prefixes - 284
We can add a prefix to a word. For example, we can add the prefix inter in front of the adjective national. A prefix adds something to the meaning.

Is it aflight between different countries?
Is it an international flight?
Here the pattern with the prefix is neater.

## Suffixes • 285

We can add a suffix to a word. For example, we can add the suffix ness to the adjective kind to form the noun kindness.

We won'tforget thefact thatyou've been so kind.
We won'tforgetyour kindness.
The pattern with the abstract noun is neater.

## Vowel and consonant changes - 286

Some related words have a different sound, e.g. hot and heat.

## Words belonging to more than one class • 287

Some words belong to more than one class. For example, cost is both a verb and a noun.

The shoes cost $£ 50$. the cost of the shoes
Nationality words • 288
We can use most nationality words as adjectives and as nouns.
a Canadian town He's a Canadian.

## 283 Compounds

## 1 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, • 147.

NOTE
A few compound nouns are formed from an adjective and noun. Compare these patterns.
Compound noun: $\quad a$ 'darkroom (= a room for developing photos)
Adjective + noun: a dark 'room (= a room that is dark)
Other such compound nouns are greenhouse, blackboard, shorthand, hotplate.

## 2 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.
NOTE
Compare a gerund and participle.
Gerund: $\quad a$ 'sleeping pill (= a pill for helping you to sleep)
Participle: a sleeping 'child (= a child who is sleeping)

## 3 Noun + gerund

A gerund can have a noun object in front of it.
Coin-collecting is an interesting hobby. I'm tired ofsightseeing.
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.

## 4 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).

## 5 Compounds with numbers

We can use a number + noun to modify another noun.
a three-day visit a six-milejourney a car withfour-wheel drive
The noun is singular: NOT a three days visit. But for a three days' visit, • 146(5). 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 queиe

## 284 Prefixes

A prefix comes at the beginning of a word. It adds something to the meaning.
1 Here are some common prefixes.


2 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
note
We do not use in before $l, m, p$ or $r$. We use $i l, i m$ and $i r$ instead.
illegal, illogical; immobile, immoral, impossible, impatient; irrelevant, irresponsible
c dis: dishonest, disunited, disagree, disappear, dislike, disadvantage
d non: non-alcoholic drinks, a non-stopflight, a non-smoker
e de: defrost afridge, the depopulation of the countryside, the decentralization ofgovernment

## 285 Suffixes

## 1 Introduction

A suffix comes at the end of a word. For example, we can add the suffix meritto the verb state to form the noun statement. There is sometimes a change of stress and a change in the vowel, e.g. courage/ 'karid3/ courageous/kə'reidzəs/. Sometimes 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.

## 2 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. • 149
They agreed. their agreement
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: decide decision, permit permission
d Verb + ancelence: performance,acceptance, existence, preference
e Adjective in ent ence: silent silence
Others are absence, intelligence, independence, violence. Examples of ant ance are distance, importance.
f Adjective + ty/ity:
g Adjective + ness:
h Verb + ing:

## 3 Nouns for people

a Verb + er/or:
walker, owner, builder, driver, doctor, editor There are very many such nouns, especially with er.
NOTE We also use $e r$ in nouns for things, especially machines, e.g. a computer, afoodmixer.
b Noun/Verb/Adjective + ist: journalist, motorist, nationalist, tourist
NOTE We can use ism to form an abstract noun, e.g. journalism, nationalism.
c Verb + ant/ent: applicant, assistant, inhabitant, servant, student
d Noun + an/ian: $\quad$ republican, electrician, historian, musician For nationalities, e.g. Brazilian, - 288.
e Noun +ess: 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 $\operatorname{man} / \mathrm{m} \mathrm{n}$, 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.
f Verb $+e e: \quad$ 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.

## 4 Verbs

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { a Adjective }+ \text { ize: } \quad & \begin{array}{l}\text { modernize, popularize, privatize, centralize, legalize } \\ \text { There are many such verbs formed from abstract adjectives. }\end{array}\end{array}$
b Adjective +en: shorten, widen, brighten, harden, loosen These verbs are formed from concrete adjectives.

## 5 Adjectives

a Noun + al: national, industrial, cultural, additional, original
b Noun $+i c: \quad$ heroic, artistic, photographic, energetic
c Verb/Noun + ive: active, effective, exclusive, informative, expensive
d Noun +ful: careful, hopeful, peaceful, beautiful, harmful
NOTE These adjectives end with a single $l$, but the adverbs have two, e.g. carefully.
e Noun + less: $\quad$ careless,hopeless,worthless,powerless
Less means 'without'. Painful and painless are opposites.
f Noun + ous:
g Noun $+y$ :
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
$\mathrm{k} \quad$ Verb + ed: $\quad$ excited, fascinated $\bullet 203$

## 6 Adverbs

We form many adverbs from an adjective + ly, e.g. quickly. • 207

## 286 Vowel and consonant changes

1 Sometimes two related words have a different vowel sound.
It was very hot. We couldfeel the heat.
Also: blood bleed,food feed,full fill, lose loss, proud pride, sell sale, shoot shot, sing song, sit seat, tell tale

2 There can be a different consonant sound.
That's what Ibelieve. That's my belief.
Also: advise advice, descend descent, prove proof, speak speech
3 Sometimes more than one sound changes: choose choice, lend loan, live /liv/ life /larf/, succeed success, think thought

## 287 Words belonging to more than one class

1 Many words can be both verbs and nouns.
Verb: You mustn't delay. Ihope I win.
Noun: a shortdelay 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.

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NOTE For We swim/We have a swim, - 87.
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2 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?

The stress can make a difference to the vowel sounds. For example, progress as a verb is /prə'gres/ and as a noun /'prəvgres/.

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.

NOTE For nouns formed from phrasal verbs, e.g. hold-up, •231(7).
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.
NOTE Some adjectives with similar meanings take en as verbs, e.g. widen. $\cdot 285(4 \mathrm{~b})$

## 288 Nationality words

1 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
Italianfood 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 aboutfootball.
The French are proud oftheir language.
These expressions take a plural verb.
We can also say e.g. Italian people, Russian people.

2 There are different kinds of nationality words.
a 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.
note
a To this group also belong Greek, Czech, Thai, Arab and words ending in i, e.g. Pakistani, Israeli.

The Greeks invented democracy.
b The language of the Arabs is Arabic.
b Some end in ese: Chinese, Portuguese. We cannot add $s$.
Several Chinese (people) 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.

NOTE
From Britain we form the adjective British.
There are a lot of British people in this part ofSpain.
The nouns Brit and Briton are not very usual in spoken British English.
There are a lot ofBrits/Britons in this part ofSpain.
This usage is rather journalistic. Brit is informal. The Americans say Britisher.
For the whole people we say the British.
The British prefer houses to flats.
d With some words, the noun has the suffix man /mən/.
He's English./He's an Englishman.
Englishmenarereserved.
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.
NOTE
a It is less usual to use woman as a suffix, but we can use an adjective + woman.
The English woman works at the university.
b When we talk about people from Scotland, we can use the adjective Scottish or the nouns Scot and Scotsman.

He's Scottish./He's a Scot/He's a Scotsman.
How do you like Scottish people/Scots?
We use Scotch mainly in fixed expressions such as Scotch whisky.

3 Here is an overview of nationality words.

| Africa <br> America | Adjective | Person/man | A whole people |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | African | an African | Africans |
|  | 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 |

## 37

## Word endings: pronunciation and spelling

## 289 Summary

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 • 290
match matches /iz/
The ed ending •291
wait waited /Id/
Leaving out $\boldsymbol{e}$ • 292
make making insure insurance
The doubling of consonants - 293
big bigger regret regrettable
Consonant $+\mathbf{y}$ • 294

> easy easily beauty beautiful

## 290 The s/es ending

To form a regular noun plural or the s-form of a verb, we usually add $s$. rooms games looks opens hides
After a sibilant sound we add es.
kisses watches bushes taxes
But if the word ends in $e$, we add $s$.
places supposes prizes

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
3 The ending is pronounced $/ \mathrm{s} /$ after a voiceless sound, $/ \mathrm{z} /$ after a voiced sound and /lz/ or /əz/ after a sibilant.
Voiceless: hopes /ps/, fits /ts/, clocks /ks/
Voiced: cabs /bz/, rides/dz/, days /eiz/, throws /əuz/

4 The possessive form of a noun is pronounced in the same way.
Mick's/ks/ theteacher's/əz/ MrsPrice's/siz/ or/səz/ But we do not write es for the possessive, even after a sibilant. MrJones's the boss's

## 291 The ed ending

1 The ed-form of most regular verbs is simply verb +ed.
played walked seemed offered filled
If the word ends in $e$, we add $d$.
moved continued pleased smiled
note
For the doubling of consonants before ed, 293.
For $y$ before $e d, 294$.
2 The ending is pronounced /t/ after a voiceless sound, /d/ after a voiced sound and /Id/after /t/ or /d/.
Voiceless: jumped/pt/, baked /kt/, wished / $\mathrm{St} /$
Voiced: robbed/bd/, closed/zd/, enjoyed/ord/, allowed /avd/
$/ \mathrm{t} /$ or $/ \mathrm{d} /+/ \mathrm{Id} /$ : waited $/ \mathrm{tid} /$, expected $/ \mathrm{tid} /$, handed $/ \mathrm{drd} /$, guided $/ \mathrm{did} /$

## 292 Leaving out $e$

1 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
2 When $e$ comes before ed, er or est, we do not write a double $e$.
type typed late later fine finest
3 We usually leave out $e$ before other endings that start with a vowel, e.g. able, ize, al.
love lovable private privatize culture cultural
NOTE
But when a word ends in $c e / \mathrm{s} /$ or $g e / \mathrm{d} 3 /$, we keep the $e$ before $a$ or $o$.
enforce enforceable courage courageous
We can also keep the $e$ in some other words: saleable/salable, likeable/likable, mileage/milage.

4 We keep $e$ before a consonant.
hate hates nice nicely care careful
note
Exceptions are words ending in ue: argue argument, true truly, due duly.
Also: whole wholly, judge judgment/judgement.
5 To form an adverb from an adjective ending in a consonant $+l e$, we change $e$ to $y$. simple simply possible possibly

To form an adverb from an adjective in ic, we add ally. dramatic dramatically idiotic idiotically
NOTE An exception is publicly.

## 293 The doubling of consonants

1 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

NOTE
a Compare top tapping and tope taping.
b The consonant also doubles before $y$ :fog foggy.
2 We do not double $y, w$ or $x$.
stay staying slow slower fix fixed
We do not double when there are two consonants.
hold holding ask asking
And we do not double after two written vowels.
keep keeping broad broader
3 The rule about doubling is also true for words of more than one syllable, but only if the last syllable is stressed.
for'get forgetting prefer preferred
We do not usually double a consonant in an unstressed syllable.
'open 'opening 'enter 'entered
note
In British English there is some doubling in an unstressed syllable. We usually double $l$. travel travelling tunnel tunnelled marvel marvellous jewel jeweller
We also double $p$ in some verbs.
handicap handicapped worship worshipping
But in the USA there is usually a single $l$ or $p$ in an unstressed syllable, e.g. traveling, worshiping.

4 When a word ends in $l l$ and we add $l y$, we do not write a third $l$.
full fully

## 294 Consonant +y

When a word ends in a consonant $+y$, the $y$ changes to $i e$ before $s$.
study studies lorry lorries
Before most other endings, the $y$ changes to $i$.
study studied silly sillier lucky luckily
happy happiness
We do not change $y$ after a vowel.
day days buy buyer stay stayed
But pay, lay and say have irregular ed-forms: paid/perd/, laid/lerd/, said/sed/.
Also day daily.
note
a The possessive forms are singular noun + apostrophe $+s$, and plural noun + apostrophe.
the lady's name the ladies' names
b A one-syllable word usually keeps y before ly: shyly, slyly, dryly/drily.
c We do not change $y$ when it is part of a person's name: Mr and Mrs Grundy the
Grundys.
d We do not change $y$ in by: stand-bys, lay-bys.
2 We keep $y$ before $i$.
copy copying hurry hurrying
nоте
We change $i e$ to $y$ before ing. die dying lie lying

## 38

## Irregular noun plurals

## 295 Summary

Most countable nouns have a regular plural in $s$ or $e s$.
hands dates buses.
For details of spelling and pronunciation, • 290.
But some nouns have an irregular plural. Here are some examples.

## Vowel and consonant changes • 296 <br> man men wife wives

Nouns which do not change in the plural • 297
one/two aircraft one/two sheep
Irregular plural endings. • 298
children criteria stimuli

## 296 Vowel and consonant changes

1 Some plurals are formed by changing the vowel sound.
foot feet goose geese man men
tooth teeth mouse mice woman /'womən/ women /'wimm/
NoTE
a We also use men and women in words like Frenchmen, sportswomen.
b The plural people is more usual and less formal than persons.
Several people were waiting for the lift.
A maximum ofsis perrons may occupy this lift.
A people is a large group such as a nation.
The Celts were a tall, fair-skinned people.
One day the peoples of this world will live in peace.

2 With some nouns we change $f$ to $v$ and add $e s / s$.
loaf loaves thief thieves life lives
Also: calves, halves, knives, leaves, shelves, wives, wolves
NOTE
Some other nouns in f/fe are regular: chiefs, beliefs, cliffs, roofs, safes. A few have alternative forms, e.g. scarfs/scarves.

3 Some nouns have a regular written plural in ths, but the pronunciation of $t h$ changes.
path / $\theta /$ paths /ठz/
Also: mouths, youths (= young people)
note
Some other nouns in th are regular: months, births, deaths $/ \theta$ s $/$. Some have alternative forms, e.g. truths / $/ \mathrm{z} /$ or $/ \theta \mathrm{s} /$.

4 The plural of house is houses/ziz/.
5 The usual plural of penny is pence, e.g. fifty pence. Pennies are individual penny coins.

## 297 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: $\quad$ 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. • 154(3)

NOTE
a Some measurements (e.g. pound, foot) can be singular after a plural number, e.g. two pound/poundsfifty.
b For six hundred and twenty, •191(1) Note c.

## 298 Irregular plural endings

1 en/ən/
child /t t auld/ children /'țildren/ ox oxen
2

```
a/a/
    criterion criteria phenomenon phenomena medium media
    curriculum
                                curricula
```

NOTE Some nouns in on and $u m$ are regular, e.g. electrons, museums.
$i / a \mathrm{a} /$
stimulus stimuli cactus cacti/cactuses
nucleus nuclei / nucleuses
NOTE Some nouns in $u$ are regular: choruses, bonuses.
ae/i:/
formula formulae / formulas
es /i:z/
analysis analyses crisis crises hypothesis hypotheses

## 39

## Irregular verb forms

## 299 Summary

A regular verb takes the endings $s, e d$ and ing. For example, base form look, s-form looks, past tense looked, ing-form looking and past/passive participle looked. For more details, • 58.

List of irregular verbs • 300
Some verbs have ah irregular past tense and participle.
Base form: Did you write the letter?
Past tense: I wrote the letter yesterday.
Past participle: I've written the letter.
We also use the irregular forms after a prefix such as re, un, out, mis.
I've rewritten the letter. He undid the knot.

## Special participle forms - 301

Some special participle forms come before a noun.
a drunken riot

## 300 List of irregular verbs

| Base form | Past tense | Past/passive participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| arise / ${ }^{\prime}$ 'raiz/ | arose / ə'rəひz/ | arisen / $\mathrm{\partial}^{\text {'rizu}}$ / |
| awake / $\mathrm{O}^{\prime}$ werk/ | awoke / ə'wərk/ |  |
| be /bi:/D ${ }^{\text {a }}$ (2) | was / woz / were / wz:(r)/ | been / bi:n/ |
| bear /bea(r)/ | bore /bo:(r)/ | borne /bo:n/ |
| beat /bi:t/ | beat/bit/ | beaten / 'bi:tn/ |
| become /bi'kam/ | became / br'kerm/ | become / brikım/ |
| begin / bi'gin/ | began/bi'gæn/ | begun /bi'gın/ |
| bend/bend/ | bent / bent/ | bent / bent/ |
| bet / bet/ | bet/bet/ | bet/bet/ |
| bid / bid/ (= offer money) | bid/bid/ | bid/bid/ |


| Base form | Past tense | Past/passive participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bid / bid/ (= order) | bade /bæd/ | bidden / 'bidn/ |
| bind /baind/ | bound /baund/ | bound / baund/ |
| bite / bart/ | bit / bit/ | bitten / 'bitn/ |
| bleed /bli:d/ | bled / bled/ | bled /bled/ |
| blow / blau/ | blew /blu:/ | blown / bloun/ |
| break / brerk/ | broke / brəuk/ | broken / 'brəorkn/ |
| breed / bri:d/ | bred/bred/ | bred/bred/ |
| bring / brim / | brought / bro:t/ | brought / bro:t/ |
| broadcast / 'bro:dka:st/ | broadcast / 'bro:dka:st/ | broadcast / 'bro:dka:st/ |
| build / bild/ | built / bilt/ | built / bilt/ |
| burn /bs:n/ | burnt / bs:nt/ | burnt / bs:nt/ |
|  | burned /bs:nd/ | burned /bs:nd/ |
| burst /bz:st/ | burst / b3:st/ | burst / b3:st/ |
| bust /bast/ | bust /bast / | bust /bist/ |
|  | busted / 'bastid/ | busted / 'bastid/ |
| buy /bai/ | bought / bo:t/ | bought /bo:t/ |
| cast / ka:st/ | cast / ka:st/ | cast / ka:st/ |
| catch / kæt / | caught /ko:t/ | caught /ko:t/ |
| choose / t 5 u:z/ | chose /t ${ }^{\text {derz/ }}$ | chosen / 't $\int$ ərzzn/ |
| cling / klıy/ | clung / kl^n/ | clung / klın/ |
| come /kam/ | came / kerm/ | come /kam/ |
| cost / knst/ $\downarrow$ Note b | cost/kpst/ | cost /kpst/ |
| creep /kri:p/ | crept / krept/ | crept / krept/ |
| cut /kıt/ | cut /kıt/ | cut /kıt/ |
| deal / di:l/ | dealt / delt/ | dealt / delt/ |
| dig / dig / | dug / d $\wedge$ g/ | dug / d^g/ |
| dive / daiv/ | dived / darvd/ dove / dəov/ (USA) | dived / daivd/ |
| do / du:/ $\triangle$ Note c | did / did/ | done / dın/ |
| draw / dro:/ | drew / dru:/ | drawn / dro:n/ |
| dream / dri:m/ | dreamt / dremt/ | dreamt / dremt/ |
|  | dreamed / dri:md/ | dreamed / dri:md/ |
| drink / drink/ | drank / dræŋk/ | drunk / drayk/ |
| drive / drarv/ | drove / drouv/ | driven / 'drivn/ |
| dwell / dwel/ | dwelt / dwelt/ | dwelt / dwelt / |
| eat /i:t/ | ate / et/ | eaten /'i:tn/ |
| fall / fo:1/ | fell / fel/ | fallen /'fo:lən/ |
| feed / fi:d/ | fed / fed/ | fed/fed/ |
| feel / fi:l/ | felt / felt/ | felt / felt/ |
| fight / fait/ | fought /fo:t/ | fought / fo:t/ |
| find / farnd/ | found / faund/ | found / farnd/ |
| fit / fit/ $\triangleright$ Note d | fitted /'fitid/ | fitted /'fitid/ |
|  | fit / fit/ | fit / fit/ |


| Base form | Past tense | Past/passive participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| flee / fli:/ | fled /fled/ | fled / fled/ |
| fling / flım/ | flung / flan/ | flung / flan/ |
| fly / flas/ | flew / flu:/ | flown / fləun/ |
| forbid /fo'bid/ $\triangleright$ Note e | forbad(e) / fə'bæd/ | forbidden / fə'bidn/ |
| forecast / 'fo:ka:st/ | forecast / 'fo:ka:st/ | forecast /'fo:ka:st/ |
| foresee / fo:'si:/ | foresaw / fo:'ss:/ | foreseen / fo:'si:n/ |
| foretell / fo:'tel/ | foretold / fo:'tərld/ | foretold / fo:'təuld/ |
| forget /fə'get/ | forgot /fə'gnt/ | forgotten / fə'gbtn/ |
| forgive / fo'grv/ | forgave /fə'gerv/ | forgiven / fa'grvn/ |
| forsake /fo'serk/ | forsook / fa'suk/ | forsaken / fə'serkən/ |
| freeze / fri:z/ | froze / frəuz/ | frozen /'frəuzn/ |
| get / get/ $\triangleright$ Note f | got / gnt/ | got / gnt/ |
| give / giv/ | gave / gerv/ | given /'givn/ |
| go / gəv/ $\downarrow$ Note g | went / went/ | gone / gnn/ |
| grind / gramd/ | ground / graund/ | ground / graund/ |
| grow / grav/ | grew / gru:/ | grown / gravn/ |
| hang /hæり/D Note h | hung /hay/ | hung /hay/ |
|  | hanged / hæyd/ | hanged /hæyd/ |
| have /hæv/ $\triangleright$ Note i | had /hæd/ | had /hæd/ |
| hear /hıə(r)/ | heard /h3:d/ | heard /hs:d/ |
| hide / hard/ | hid /hid/ | hidden /'hidn/ |
| hit /hit/ | hit /hit/ | hit /hrt/ |
| hold / hərld/ | held / held/ | held /held/ |
| hurt /h3:t/ | hurt /h3:t/ | hurt /h3:t/ |
| keep / ki:p/ | kept / kept/ | kept / kept/ |
| kneel / ni:l/ | knelt / nelt/ | knelt / nelt/ |
|  | kneeled / ni:ld/ | kneeled / ni:ld/ |
| knit / nit/ | knit / nit/ | knit / nit/ |
|  | knitted / 'nitid/ | knitted /'nitid/ |
| know / nəu/ | knew / nju:/ | known / nəun/ |
| lay /lei/ $\triangleright$ Notej | laid /leid/ | laid /leid/ |
| lead /li:d/ | led /led/ | led /led/ |
| lean /li:n/ | leant /lent/ | leant/lent/ |
|  | leaned /li:nd/ | leaned /li:nd/ |
| leap /li:p/ | leapt /lept/ | leapt /lept/ |
|  | leaped /li:pd/ | leaped /li:pd/ |
| learn /l3:n/ | learnt /l3:nt/ | learnt /l3:nt/ |
|  | learned /ls:nd/ | learned /ls:nd/ |
| leave /li:v/ | left /left/ | left /left/ |
| lend/lend/ | lent /lent/ | lent /lent/ |
| let /let/ | let /let/ | let /let/ |
| lie /lai/ $\triangleright$ Note j | lay /lei/ | lain /lem/ |
| light /lart/ | lit /lit/ | lit /lit/ |
|  | lighted /'lastıd/ | lighted /'lartid/ |
| lose /lu:z/ | lost /lpst/ | lost/lpst/ |


| Base form | Past tense | Past/passive participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| make / merk/ | made / meid/ | made / meid/ |
| mean / mi:n/ | meant / ment/ | meant/ment/ |
| meet / mi:t/ | met / met/ | met / met/ |
| mishear / mis'hiə(r)/ | misheard / mis'h3:d/ | misheard / mis'h3:d/ |
| mislay / mis'lei/ | mislaid / mis'leid/ | mislaid / mis'lerd/ |
| mislead / mis'li:d/ | misled / mis'led/ | misled / mis'led/ |
| mistake / mis'terk/ <br> mow / maul | mistook / mis'tok/ <br> mowed / movd / | mistaken / mis'teIkən/ mown / morn / |
|  |  | mowed / mərd/ |
| overcome / əひvə'kım/ | overcame / əuvə'kerm/ | overcome / əชvə'kım/ |
| overdo / əuvə'du:/ $\triangleright$ Note c | overdid / əuvə'dıd/ | overdone / $\partial 0 v ə$ 'dın/ |
| overhear / əひvə'hıə(r)/ <br> overtake / əuvə'terk/ | overheard / әЈvə'hз:d/ overtook / əuvə'tuk/ | overheard / əঠvə'h3:d/ overtaken / əuvə'terkən/ |
| pay / pei/ | paid / perd/ | paid / peid/ |
| put / put/ | put / pot/ | put / pot/ |
| quit / kwit/ | quit / kwit/ | quit / kwit/ |
|  | quitted /'kwitıd/ | quitted/'kwitid/ |
| read / ri:d/ | read / red/ | read / red/ |
| repay / ri'pei/ | repaid /rı'perd/ | repaid / ri'peid/ |
| rid / rid/ | rid / rid/ | rid / rid/ |
| ride / raid/ | rode / rəud/ | ridden /'ridn/ |
| ring / rm / | rang / ræn/ | rung / r^y / |
| rise / razz/ | rose / rəuz/ | risen / 'rizn/ |
| run /ran/ | ran / ræn/ | run /ran/ |
| saw / so:/ | sawed / so:d/ | sawn / so:n/ |
|  |  | sawed / so:d/ |
| say / sei/ $\downarrow$ Note k | said / sed/ | said / sed/ |
| see /si:/ | saw / so:/ | seen / si:n/ |
| seek / si:k/ | sought / so:t/ | sought / so:t/ |
| sell / sel/ | sold / səuld/ | sold / səuld/ |
| send / send/ | sent / sent/ | sent / sent/ |
| set / set/ | set / set/ | set / set/ |
| sew / sau/ | sewed/ saud/ | sewn / səun/ |
|  |  | sewed / səud/ |
| shake / Serk/ | shook / Suk/ | shaken /'Serkən/ |
| shed / Sed/ | shed / / ed/ | shed / / ed/ |
| shine / Samn/ $\triangleright$ Note 1 | shone / /pm/ | shone / /bn/ |
|  | shined / Jamd/ | shined / Jaind/ |
| shoot / Ju:t/ | shot / /bt/ | shot / /pt/ |
| show / Səu/ | showed / Soud/ | shown / Soun/ |
|  |  | showed / Soud/ |
| shrink / Srink/ | shrank / / r ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ / | shrunk / Srıjk/ |
|  | shrunk / Srınk/ |  |

Base form
shut / $\int \Lambda t /$
sing / sm/
$\operatorname{sink} / \sin \mathrm{k} /$
sit / sit/
slay / sleı/
sleep / sli:p/
slide / slaid/
sling / slıy/
slink / slıŋgk/
slit / slit/
smell / smel/
sow / sər/
speak / spi:k/
speed / spi:d/ $\triangleright$ Note m
spell / spel/
spend / spend/
spill / spil/
spin / spin/
spit / spit/
split / split/
spoil / sporl/
spread / spred/
spring / sprin/
stand / stænd/
steal / sti:l/
stick / stik/
sting / stim/
stink / stimk/
stride / straid/
strike / strark/
string / strm /
strive / straiv/
swear / swez(r)/
sweep / swi:p/
swell / swel/
swim / swim/
swing / swiy/
take / terk/
teach / ti:t $\mathrm{f} /$
tear / tee(r)/
tell /tel/

Past tense
shut / $\int \Lambda t /$
sang / sæy/
sank / sæŋk/
sat / sæt/
slew / slu:/
slept / slept/
slid / slid/
slung / slay /
slunk / slıŋjk/
slit / slit/
smelt / smelt/
smelled / smeld/
sowed / səud/
spoke / spərk/
sped / sped/
speeded /'spi:dıd/
spelt / spelt/
spelled / speld/
spent / spent/
spilt / spilt/
spilled / spild/
spun / sp $\_$/
spat / spæt/
split / split/
spoilt / spooilt/
spoiled / sporld/
spread / spred/
sprang / spræŋ/
stood / stud/
stole / staul/
stuck / stak/
stung / st $\wedge$ ŋ /
stank / stænk/
strode / strəud/
struck / strak/
strung / $\operatorname{str} \wedge \mathrm{n} /$
strove / strəuv/
swore / swo:(r)/
swept / swept/
swelled / sweld/
swam / swæm/
swung / swan/
took / tok/
taught / to:t/
tore / to:(r)/
told / tovld/

Past/passive participle
shut / $\int \Lambda t /$
sung / $\mathrm{s} \wedge \mathrm{y}$ /
sunk / s s yk/
sat / sæt/
slain / slem/
slept / slept/
slid / slid/
slung / slay/
slunk / slıŋुk/
slit / slit/
smelt / smelt/
smelled / smeld/
sown / saun/
sowed / səud/
spoken /'spərkən/
sped / sped/
speeded /'spi:dıd/
spelt / spelt/
spelled / speld/
spent / spent/
spilt / spilt/
spilled / spild/
spun / sp $\wedge$ /
spat / spæt/
split / split/
spoilt / spooilt/
spoiled / spoild/
spread / spred/
sprung / sprın/
stood / stud/
stolen /'staulan/
stuck / stak/
stung / st $\wedge$ ŋ /
stunk / stıŋk/
stridden /'strıdn/
struck / strak/
strung / stray /
striven /'strivn/
sworn / swo:n/
swept / swept/
swelled / sweld/
swollen /'swəulən/
swum / swam/
swung / sway /
taken /'terkən/
taught / to:t/
torn / to:n/
told / təuld/

## 300 List of irregular verbs

## Base form

think / $\theta \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m} /$
thrive / $\theta$ ravv/
throw / $\operatorname{rr}$ ro/
thrust / $\theta$ rast/
tread / tred/
undergo / andə'gəv/
$\triangleright$ Note g understand / andə'stænd/
undertake / andə'teik/
undo / $\Lambda n^{\prime}$ du: / $\triangleright$ Note c uphold / ap'həचld/
upset / n 'set/
wake / werk/
wear / weə(r)/
weave / wi:v/ $\triangleright$ Note n
weep / wi:p/
wet / wet/
win / win/
wind / waind/
withdraw / wió'dro:/
withhold / wIð'həold/
withstand / wið'stænd/
wring / rm/
write / rait/

Past tense
thought / $\theta$ o:t/
thrived / $\theta$ raivd/
throve / $\theta$ ravo/
threw / $\theta$ ru:/
thrust / $\theta \mathrm{r} \Delta \mathrm{st} /$
trod / trod/
underwent / andə'went/
understood / anda'stod/
undertook / andə'tok/
undid / $\Lambda n^{\prime}$ did/
upheld / $\Lambda$ p'held/
upset / $\Lambda p^{\prime}$ 'set/
woke / wəuk/
wore / wo:(r)/
wove / wauv/
wept / wept/
wet / wet/
wetted /'wetid/
won / wan/
wound / waund/
withdrew / woò'dru:/
withheld / wið'held/
withstood / wIO'stod/
wrung / rny/
wrote / rəvt/

Past/passive participle
thought / $\theta$ o:t/
thrived / $\theta$ rarvd/
thriven /' $\theta$ rivn/
thrown / $\theta$ reon/
thrust / $\theta$ rast/
trodden /'trpdn/
undergone / andə'gpn/
understood / andə'stod/
undertaken
/ andə'terkən/.
undone / $\Lambda n^{\prime} d \Lambda n /$
upheld / $\Delta$ p'held/
upset / $n$ p'set/
woken /'wərkən/
worn / wo:n/
woven /'wəovn/
wept / wept/
wet / wet/
wetted /'wetid/
won / wnn/
wound / warnd/
withdrawn / wIØ'dro:n/
withheld / wioheld/
withstood / wIo'stud/
wrung / r $\wedge \mathfrak{y}$ /
written / 'ritn/

[^21]
## 301 Special participle forms

There are some special past/passive participle forms that we use mainly before a noun. Compare these sentences.
have + participle: The ship has sunk. The metal has melted.
Participle + noun: a sunken ship molten metal
We can also form special participles from drink, shrink, prove, learn and bless.
a drunken spectator a shrunken old man a provenfact
a learned professor/'lz:nid/a blessed relief /'blesid/
NOTE
These participles can have special meanings and are used only in limited contexts.
For example, we talk about molten metal but NOT molten ice.

## 40

## American English

## 302 Summary

The grammar of British English and American English is very similar. There are a few differences but not very many, and most of them are minor points.

Differences with verbs • 303
Differences with noun phrases • 304
Differences with adjectives and adverbs • 305
Differences with prepositions • 306
Differences with conjunctions • 307

## American spelling • 308

There are also some spelling differences, such as GB colour, US color.
The main differences between British and American English are in pronunciation and in some items of vocabulary. A good dictionary such as the Oxford Wordpower Dictionary or the OxfordAdvanced Learner's Dictionary will give American variants in spelling, pronunciation and usage. The Hutchinson British-American Dictionary by Norman Moss explains the meanings of words which are familiar in one country but not in the other.

## 303 Differences with verbs

## 1 Linking verb + noun phrase

The British can use a noun phrase after a linking verb such as be, seem, look, feel.

- 9(1)

Mainly GB: It looks a lovely evening.
She seemed (to be) a competent pilot.
The Americans do not use this pattern except with be and become.
US: It looks like/It looks to be a lovely evening.
She seemed to be a competent pilot.

## 2 Do for an action

The British sometimes use do to refer to an action. - 38 (2c)
GB: $\quad$ He practises the piano, but not as often as he might (do).
You should reply if you haven't (done) already.
This usage is not found in American English.
US: He practices the piano, but not as often as he might.
You should reply if you haven't already.
But Americans use do so.
GB/US: You should reply if you haven't done so already.

## 3 Do for emphasis

The British can use do to emphasize an offer or invitation in the imperative form.
GB: (Do) have a glass of wine.
This usage is less common in American English.
US: Have a glass of wine.
Americans also avoid the emphatic Do let's... and the negative Don't let's...

- 19 (6a)

GB/US: Let's not invite them.
GB only: Don't let's invite them.
NOTE Let's don't invite them is possible in informal American English but not in Britain.

## 4 Question tags

Americans use tags much less often than the British. The British may use them several times in a conversation, but this would sound strange to an American. Americans use tags when they expect agreement. They do not often use them to persuade or argue.
GB/US: Mary likes ice-cream, doesn'tshe?
GB only: You'lljust have to try harder, won'tyou?
Americans often use the tags right? and $O K$ ?
Mainly US: You're going to meet me, right?
We'll take the car, OK?

## 5 Have, have got and have gotten

a Have and have got
GB: I've got/I have some money.
US (spoken): I've got some money.
US (written: I have some money.
b Negatives and questions with have and have got
GB/US: We don't have much time. Do you have enough money?
Mainly GB: We haven't got much time. Have you got enough money?
GB only: We haven't much time. Have you enough money?
c Negatives and questions with have to and have got to
GB/US: You don't have to go. Do you have to go?
GB only: You haven'tgot to go. Have you got to go?
d Got and gotten
GB: He's got a newjob. (= He has a new job.) Your driving has got better. (= It has become better.)
US: He's got a new job. (= He has a new job.)
He's gotten a newjob. (= He has found a new job.)
Your driving has gotten better. (= It has become better.)
e Get someone to do something and have someone do something
GB/US: We got the waiter to bring another bottle.
Mainly US: We had the waiter bring another bottle.

## 6 Present perfect and past simple

Both the British and the Americans use the present perfect for something in the past which is seen as related to the present. - 65(2)
GB/US: I'vejust met an old friend.
Dave has already eaten his lunch.
Have you ever seen St Paul's Cathedral?
I've never had a passport.
But Americans sometimes use the past simple in such contexts especially with just, already, yet, ever and never.
Mainly US: Ijust met an old friend.
Dave already ate his lunch.
Did you ever see the Empire State Building?
I never had a passport.

## 7 Gone and been

The British use been for 'gone and come back', • 84(6), but the Americans mostly use gone.
GB/US: Have you ever been to Scotland?
US only: Have you evergone to Florida?

## 8 Will and shall

The British use will or shall in the first person, • 71(2). Americans do not often use shall.
GB: We will/shall contactyou.
US: We will contactyou.

The British use shall in offers, but Americans prefer should.
Mainly GB: Shall Imeetyou at the entrance?
Mainly US: $\quad$ Should I meetyou at the entrance?
The British can also use Shall we... ? in suggestions.
Mainly GB: Shall we gofor a walk?
Americans would say How about a walk? or Would you like to take a walk?

## 9 Need and dare

Need, •92(3), and dare, 101 , can be ordinary verbs. The British can also use them as modal verbs.
GB/US: He doesn't need to see the inspector. Do we dare to ask?
Mainly GB: He needn't see the inspector. Dare we ask?

## 10 Can't and mustn't

In Britain one use of must is to say that something is necessarily true, •95(1). The negative is can't. Americans can also use mustn't.
GB/US: There's no reply. They can't be home.
US only: There's no reply. They mustn't be home.

## 11 Learned and learnt

Some verbs have both regular and irregular forms: learned or learnt, dreamed/dri:md/ or dreamt/dremt/ etc. The irregular forms are not very usual in America. The British say dreamed or dreamt; the Americans say dreamed.

The verbs dive and fit are regular in Britain but they can be irregular in America.
GB/US: dive - dived - dived fit - fitted - fitted
US only: dive - dove - dived fit-fit-fit
NOTE Fit is irregular in America only when it means 'be the right size'.
GB: $\quad$ The suit fitted him very well.
US: The suit fit him very well.
It is always regular when it means 'make something the right size' or 'put something in the right place'.
GB/US: The tailor fitted him with a new suit.

## 12 The subjunctive

We can sometimes use the subjunctive in a that-clause, •242. In Britain the subjunctive is rather formal. Americans use it more often.
Mainly GB: My parents prefer that my brother lives/should live at home.
Mainly US: My parents prefer that my brother live at home.

## 304 Differences with noun phrases

## 1 Group nouns

The British can use a singular or a plural verb after a group noun. • 156
GB: The committee needs/need more time.
Holland isn't/aren't going to win.
The Americans prefer a singular verb.
US: $\quad$ The committee needs/need more time.
After a name the Americans always use a singular verb.
US: Holland isn't going to win.

## 2 Two nouns together

When we use two nouns together, the first is not normally plural: agrocery store, a word processor, •147(4). There are some exceptions in Britain but Americans almost always use a singular noun.
GB: a careers adviser an antique/antiques dealer
US: a career counselor an antique dealer

## 3 The with musical instruments

The British use the with a musical instrument (play the piano), but Americans sometimes leave it out (play piano).

## 4 The with hospital and university

The British talk about a patient in hospital and a student at (the) university, • 168. Americans say that someone is in the hospital or at the university.

## 5 This and that on the telephone

People in both countries say This is... to say who they are, but usage is different when they ask who the other person is.
GB: Who is that?
Mainly US: Who is this?

## 6 The pronoun one

Americans do not often use one meaning 'people in general'; and they do not use one's oroneself.
GB: One must consider one's legal position.
US: You must consider your legal position.
People must consider their legal position.

## 7 Numbers

The British use and between hundred and the rest of a number, but Americans can leave it out.
GB/US: two hundred and fifty
US only: two hundred fifty

## 8 Dates

There are a number of different ways of saying and writing dates, • 195(2). Americans often say Julyfourth. In Britain thefourth of July and July thefourth are the most usual.

## 305 Differences with adjectives and adverbs

## 1 Well, illetc

The adjectives well, fine, ill and unwell referring to health usually come in predicative position. • 200(2)
GB/US: Our secretary is ill.
But they can be attributive, especially in America.
Mainly US: an ill man

## NOTE

Sick and healthy can go in both positions. In Britain be sick means to vomit, to bring up food.
GB: Trevor's daughter was sick all over the carpet.

## 2 Adjectives and adverbs

In informal speech we can sometimes use an adjective form instead of an adverb. Americans do this more than the British.
GB/US: That was really nice of her. It certainly is raining.
Mainly US: $\quad$ That was real nice of her. It sure is raining.

## 3 Somewhere and someplace

In informal American English everyplace, someplace and noplace can be used as well as everywhere, somewhere and nowhere.
GB/US: Let's go out somewhere.
US only: Let's go out someplace.

## 306 Differences with prepositions

## 1 Out (of) and round/around

The British normally say look out of the window, although look out the window is possible in informal speech. Americans prefer look out the window. The British say either round the park or around the park. Americans prefer around the park.

## 2 Exceptfor and asidefrom

Where the British use exceptfor, Americans can also use aside from. GB/US: I'm all right now, except for a headache.
US only: Im all right now, asidefrom a headache.

## 3 Through and till/until

Americans can use through for the time when something finishes.
US: $\quad$ They will stay in New York (from January) through April.
GB/US: They will stay in London (from January) till/until April.
With through April, the time includes the whole of April. With until April they may leave before the end of April. We can also express the meaning of through like this. GB/US: They will stay in London until the end of April.
In British English we can also use inclusive. This is rather formal.
Mainly GB: Monday to Friday inclusive
US only: Monday through Friday

## 4 Idiomatic uses

GB
in Oxford Street
at the weekend/at weekends
a player in the team twenty (minutes) past ten ten (minutes) to three write to someone visit someone talk to someone protest about/against something

## US

on Fifth Avenue
on the weekend/on weekends
a player on the team twenty (minutes) past/after ten ten (minutes) tolof three write someone/write to someone visit someone/visit with someone talk to/with someone protest something protest about/against something

## 5 Prepositions after different

GB: Your room is differentfrom/to ours.
US: Your room is differentfrom/than ours.

## 307 Differences with conjunctions

## 1 Go/Come and...

Americans can leave out and from this pattern.
GB/US: $\quad$ Go and take a look outside.
Mainly US: Go take a look outside.

## 2 In case and lest

The British use in case meaning 'because something might happen', • 259(7).
Americans use so or lest. Lestis formal.
Mainly GB: Go quietly in case anyone hears you.
GB/US: Go quietly so no one can hear you.
Mainly US: Go quietly lest anyone hear you. (formal).
In America, in case often means 'if.
US: If you need/In case you need any help, let me know.

## 3 Immediately

Americans do not use immediately as a conjunction.
GB/US: As soon as I saw him, I recognized him.
GB only: Immediately I saw him, I recognized him.

## 308 American spelling

Some words end in our in Britain but in or in America: color, labor, neighbor.
Some words end in tre in Britain but in ter in America: center, liter.
Some verbs can end either with ize or with ise in Britain but only with ize in America: apologize, organize, realize.

In Britain there is doubling of $l$ in an unstressed syllable; • 293(3) Note. In some American words there is no doubling: marvelous, signaled, councilor.

Here are some words with different spellings.

| GB | US | GB | US |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| analyse | analyze | labelled | labeled |
| apologize/apologise | apologize | labour | labor |
| axe | axelax | litre | liter |
| behaviour | behavior | marvellous | marvelous |
| catalogue | catalog/catalogue | metre (= 100 cm) | meter |
| centre | center | neighbour | neighbor |
| cheque (money) | check | organize/organise | organize |
| colour | color | plough | plow |
| councillor | councilor | practise (verb) | practice (verb |
| counsellor | counselor | practice (noun) | and noun) |
| defence | defense/defence | pyjamas | pajamas |
| dialogue | dialog/dialogue | realize/realise | realize |
| favour | favor | signalled | signaled |
| grey | gray/grey | skilful | skillful |
| honour | honor | theatre | theater |
| humour | humor | through | through |
| jail/gaol | jail |  | thru (informal) |
| jeweller | jeweler | travelling | traveling |
| kerb (edge of | curb | tyre (on a wheel) | tire |
| pavement) |  |  |  |

## Glossary

## abstract noun See concrete noun.

action verb a verb that refers to something happening or changing, e.g. do, walk, buy, speak • 62
active See passive.
active participle the ing-form of a verb used after be in the continuous (I was watching) and in other patterns - 134
adding relative clause a clause with commas around it that adds extra information, e.g. Bernard, who wasfeeling unwell, left early. 274
adjective a word like big, new, special, famous • 197
adjective phrase An adjective phrase is either an adjective on its own, e.g. sweet, tall, hopeful, or an adjective with an adverb of degree, e.g. very sweet, a lot taller, quite hopeful.
adverb In the sentence The time passed slowly, the word slowly is an adverb.
Adverbs are words like easily, there, sometimes, quite, possibly. They express ideas such as how, when or where something happens, or how true something is.
adverb phrase An adverb phrase is either an adverb on its own, e.g. carefully, often, probably, or an adverb which is modified by an adverb of degree, e.g. very carefully, more often, quite probably.
adverbial The adverb late, the phrase in a hurry and the clause because I was cold all function as adverbials in these sentences: The show started late. We did everything in a hurry. I put a coat on because I was cold.
adverbial clause In the sentence I'll ringyou when Iget home, the clause when I get home functions as an adverbial. Compare I'll ring you later. - 248
agent The agent is the person, animal or thing doing the action. In an active sentence it is the subject: Max told me the news. In a passive sentence there is sometimes an agent after by: I was told the news by Max.
agreement the choice of the correct verb form after a subject: My ear torts but My ears hurt. •150
apostrophe In the phrase Karen'sfriend there is an apostrophe between Karen and $s$.
apposition In the sentence The Chairman, Mr Byers, was absent, the two noun phrases are in apposition. - 14
article $A / a n$ is the indefinite article, and the is the definite article.
aspect A verb can have continuous aspect (is walking, was looking) or perfect aspect (has walked, had looked), or both (have been waiting).
attributive the position of an adjective before a noun, e.g. a cold day
auxiliary verb a verb such as be, have, do, will, can which we use with an ordinary verb • 60 (2)
bare infinitive an infinitive without to, e.g. come, drive • 115
base form the form of a verb without an ending, e.g. come, call, decide
classifying relative clause a relative clause that tells us what kind is meant, e.g. $a$ computer that will correct my spelling • 272 (3b)
clause The sentence We stayed at home is a single clause. The sentence We stayed at home because it rained has two clauses. We stayed at home is the main clause,
and because it rained is the sub clause. A clause always has a verb (stayed, rained). The verb can be finite or non-finite. In the sentence We all wanted to go out, there is a finite clause with wanted and a non-finite clause with to go. See finite.
comment adverb e.g. luckily, incredibly • 215
comparative Comparative forms are older, morefamous, more efficiently etc. - 217
complement a noun phrase or adjective phrase that comes after a linking verb such as be: You're the boss, Al looked unhappy, • 9. These complements relate to the subject; they are subject complements. See also object complement.
compound a word made up of other words, e.g. something (some + thing), wristwatch (wrist + watch)
concrete noun A concrete noun is a noun referring to something that we can see or touch, e.g. man, bottle, grass, shop. An abstract noun refers to an idea, quality or action, something we cannot see or touch, e.g. science, excitement, stupidity, routine.
conditional clause a clause expressing a condition, e.g. If you need a ticket, I'll get you one. • 255
conjunction A conjunction is a word like and, but, because, when, that, which links two clauses.
consonant See vowel.
continuous a verb form with be and an active participle, e.g. Thefilm is starting now. • 61(4)
continuous infinitive e.g. to be doing, to be working
co-ordinate clause a clause linked to another by and, but or or
countable noun a noun that can be either singular or plural, e.g. $\operatorname{bag}(s), \operatorname{road}(s)$, hour(s) • 144
definite article the word the
degree An adverb of degree is a word like very, rather, quite. - 212
demonstrative This, that, these and those are demonstrative determiners or pronouns. • 175
determiner a word that can come before a noun to form a noun phrase, e.g. $a$, the, this, my • 143(2a)
direct object See indirect object.
direct speech See indirect speech.
echo question a form which requests the repetition of information, e.g. She's gone to Siberia. ~Where has she gone? • 35(1)
echo tag a short question form expressing interest, e.g. Iplay chess. $\sim$ Oh, do you? - 35(2)
emphasis/emphatic/emphasize making a word or phrase more important, drawing special attention to a word or phrase
emphatic pronoun a pronoun such as myselfor themselves, emphasizing a noun phrase, e.g. The Queen herselfvisited the scene. $\bullet 186$
empty subject In the sentence It was raining, it is an empty subject. It has no meaning, but we use it because we need a subject.
empty verb In expressions like have a wash, give a laugh, have and give are empty verbs. It is the nouns wash and laugh which express the action. $\bullet 87$
end position at the end of a sentence
exclamation a special pattern with how or what, e.g. What a time you've been! or any sentence spoken with emphasis and feeling, e.g. Quick!
finite A finite verb is one like goes, waited, was causing, have seen, will be, can carry. It either has a tense (present or past) or a modal verb. It can be the verb in a simple one-clause sentence. A non-finite verb is an infinitive, gerund or participle, e.g. to go, waiting. A clause is a finite clause (she goes to college) or a non-finite clause (going to college), depending on whether the verb is finite or not. - 59
focus adverbial e.g. only, even, especially $\bullet 213$
formal We speak in a more formal style to strangers than we do to our friends. We use formal language to be polite, or on official occasions. A business letter is more formal than a letter to a friend. I am afraid I have no information is more formal than Sorry, I don't know.
frequency An adverbial of frequency tells us how often, e.g. always, twice a week - 211
front position at the beginning of a sentence
full form See short form.
future continuous a form with will + be + active participle: I will be playing golf all afternoon. • 75
future perfect a form with will + have + past participle: We will have saved enough money soon. • 79
gender The words waiter (male/masculine) and waitress (female/feminine) are different in gender.
gerund the ing-form of a verb used like a noun, e.g. Sailing isfun. I've given up smoking.
gerund clause a clause with a gerund as its verb, e.g. Running a business isn't easy. I like sitting outside.
group noun (or collective noun) a noun referring to a group, e.g. team, gang, class, audience • 156
identifying relative clause (or defining relative clause) a relative clause that tells us which one is meant, e.g. the man who lives next door • 272(3a)
idiom/idiomatic a group of words with a meaning which is different from the meanings of the individual words, e.g. come off(- succeed), make up your mind (= decide)
imperative the base form of the verb used to give orders, express good wishes etc: Wait there. Have a good time. • 19
indefinite article $a$ or an
indirect object In the sentence They gave the children presents, the noun phrase presents is the direct object, and the noun phrase the children is the indirect object. The indirect object often expresses the person receiving something. • 10
indirect question How much is this picture? is a direct question. In an indirect question, we put the question in a sub clause: Could you tell me how much this picture is?
indirect speech Direct speech is reporting someone's words by repeating them: 'I know the answer,' Karen said. Indirect speech is giving the meaning in our own words: Karen said she knew the answer. • 263
infinitive The infinitive is the base form of the verb, e.g. They let us stay the night. We often use it with to, e.g. They invited us to stay the night. - $\mathbf{1 1 5}$
infinitive clause a clause with an infinitive as its verb, e.g. He decided to open the box. You'll need to work hard.
informal We use an informal style in everyday conversation and when we write to a friend. See also formal.
ing-form the form of a verb with ing added, e.g. making, flying, used as gerund or active participle.
intonation the rise and fall of the voice - 54
intransitive verb a verb that cannot take an object, although it may have a prepositional phrase after it, e.g. Something happened. You must listen to me. - 8
invert/inversion Inversion means changing the order. In the question Has the play started? there is inversion of subject and auxiliary verb (The play has started.).
irregular See regular.
linking adverb e.g. also, however, finally $\bullet 216$
linking verb a verb like be, seem, become, look, feel that can take a complement - 9
literary A literary style is a formal style typical of literature, of writing.
main clause A sentence has one or more main clauses, e.g. It rained or It rained and Igot wet. A main clause can have a sub clause, e.g. I woke up when the alarm went off. Here I woke up is the main clause, and when the alarm went off is a sub clause. A main clause can stand on its own, but a sub clause is part of the main clause. •239(2)
main verb the finite verb in a main clause, e.g. I like classical music. Hearing a knock, hejumped up. Yourfriend will expect us to be ready.
manner An adverbial of manner tells us how something happens, e.g. sadly, in a hurry. • 209
mid position in the middle of the sentence, after an auxiliary verb but before an ordinary verb, e.g. I wasjust writing a note. For details • 208(4).
modal (auxiliary) verb The modal verbs are will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, need, ought to, dare.
modifier/modify In the phrase a narrow street, the adjective narrow is a modifier. It modifies the noun street. It changes our idea of the street by giving more information about it. Other kinds of words can modify: I've got a tennis ball. We stopped suddenly.
nationality word e.g. English, French, Japanese, Mexican • 288
negative A negative sentence has $n^{\prime} t$ or not or a negative word such as never, nothing. • 17
nominalization expressing the meaning of a clause (e.g. They are enthusiastic) in a noun phrase (Their enthusiasm is obvious.) • 149

## non-finite See finite.

noun a word like desk, team, apple, information •141
noun clause In the sentence I knew that England had won, the noun clause that England had won functions as the object. Compare I knew the result. • 260
noun phrase a noun or pronoun on its own, e.g. butter, Helen, you, or a group of words that can function as a subject, object or complement, e.g. a shop, my bag, a lot of spare time $\bullet 143$
object In the sentence He was wearing a sweater, the noun phrase a sweater is the object. The object usually comes after the verb. See also indirect object, prepositional object.
object complement a complement that relates to the object of the sentence, e.g. The quarrel made Al unhappy. They voted her their leader. • 11
ordinary verb a verb such as write, stay, invite, sell, not an auxiliary verb
pair noun a plural noun like jeans, pyjamas, glasses • 155
participle See active participle, past participle, passive participle.
participle clause a clause with a participle as its verb, e.g. Arriving home, Ifound a parcel on the doorstep. We saw a ship launched by the Queen.
passive The sentence Someone stole my coat is active, but My coat was stolen is passive. A passive verb has be and a passive participle: was stolen. • 103
passive gerund e.g. No one likes being made to lookfoolish.
passive infinitive e.g. to be done, to be expected
passive participle the form of a verb used after be in the passive, e.g. The room was cleaned, and used before a noun, e.g. We don't eatfrozenfood.
past continuous a form with the past of be and an active participle: It was raining at the time. • 66
past participle the form of a verb used after have in the perfect, e.g. They have arrived. How long has he known?
past perfect a form with had and a past participle, e.g. / had answered the letter the week before. • 68
past perfect continuous a form with had been and an active participle: I saw that it had been raining. • 68
past simple the past tense without an auxiliary, e.g. it stopped, they left $\cdot 65$
perfect a verb form with have and a past participle, e.g. Thefilm has started. - 61(3)
perfect gerund e.g. He denied having taken the money.
perfect infinitive e.g. to have done, to have waited
perfect participle e.g. Having paid the bill, we left.
performative verb When we say Iagree to express agreement, we are using a performative verb, one which expresses the action it performs. Others are promise, apologize, suggest, refuse. •16(3)
person First person relates to the speaker (7, we). Second person relates to the person spoken to (you). Third person relates to other people and things (he, she, $i t$, they).
personal pronoun e.g. /, you, he, we • 184
phrasal verb a verb + adverb combination, e.g. get up, look out, turn off
phrase a word or group of words that is part of a clause, e.g. yourfriend (a noun phrase), was asking (a verb phrase) • 4
plural A plural form means more than one. Tree is singular; trees is plural.
positive I'm ready is positive; I'm not readyis negative.
possessive a form expressing the idea of something belonging to someone, or a similar relationship, e.g. my chair, theirs, whose sister, Diana'sjob
possessive determiner my, your, his, our etc • 174
possessive pronoun mine, yours, his, ours etc • 174
predicative the position of an adjective after a linking verb such as be, e.g. The day wascold.
prefix Minibus has the prefix mini. Unhappy has the prefix un. • 284
preposition a word like on, by, to, with • 223
prepositional object In the sentence We sat on thefloor, the noun phrase the floor is a prepositional object, the object of the preposition on.
prepositional phrase a preposition + noun phrase, e.g. on my way, in the garden, to you, or a preposition + adverb, e.g. before then.
prepositional verb a verb + preposition combination, e.g. look at, payfor, believe in
present continuous a form with the present of be and an active participle, e.g. we are waiting • 64
present perfect a form with the present of have and a past participle, e.g. it has arrived, we have begun • 65
present perfect continuous a form with the present of have + been + active participle: she has been working all day $\bullet 67$
present simple the present tense without an auxiliary, e.g. we know, she travels - 64
pronoun A pronoun is a word that functions like a noun phrase, e.g. you, he, ourselves, someone. • 183
quantifier a word saying how many or how much, e.g. all, some, half, a lot of, enough
question a sentence which asks for information - 21
question phrase a phrase with what or how, e.g. what time, how long • 28
question tag a short question added to the end of a statement, e.g. That was nice, wasn'tit? • 34
question word These words can be used as question words: who, whom, what, which, whose, where, when, why, how. $\cdot 27$
reflexive pronoun a pronoun such as myself or themselves referring to the subject, e.g. David blamed himselffor the accident. • 186
regular A regular form is the same as most others; it follows the normal pattern. The verb call has a regular past tense called. But the verb sing has an irregular past tense sang.
relative adverb where, when and why in a relative clause, e.g. the hotel where we stayed • 279
relative clause a clause that modifies a noun, e.g. the woman who called yesterday, the caryou were driving, people going homefrom work $\cdot 271$
relative pronoun a word like who, which, that in a relative clause, e.g. the person who started the argument
s-form the form of a verb with $s$ or es added, e.g. The weather looks good.
sentence A sentence can be a statement, question, imperative or exclamation;

- 15. It consists of one or more clauses. A written sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (.) or question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!).
sequence of tenses the use of the same tense in the main clause and sub clause, e.g. I'm going to Greece because Ilike it there. (both present), I realized I had given the wrong answer. (both past)
short answer a subject + auxiliary used to answer a question, e.g. Who's winning?
~ You are. • 29(4) See also yes/no short answer.
short form Some words can be written in a full form or a short form, e.g. have or 've. In the short form we use an apostrophe in place of part of the word. $\cdot 55(2)$
sibilant the sounds $/ \mathrm{s} /, / \mathrm{z} /, / \mathrm{J} /, / 3 /, / \mathrm{t} / /$ and $/ \mathrm{d}_{3} /$
simple tenses the present simple or past simple tense without an auxiliary, e.g. it opens, it opened
singular A singular form refers to one thing only. Car is singular; cars is plural. state verb a verb that refers to something staying the same, not an action, e.g. be, belong, remain, know • 62
statement a sentence which gives information, not a question or request • 16
stress speaking a word or syllable with more force and so making it sound more important
strong form See weak form.


## sub clause See main clause.

subject In the sentence The ship sails in an hour, the noun phrase the ship is the subject. In a statement the subject comes before the verb.
subject complement See complement.
subjunctive The subjunctive is the base form of a verb. We can use it in rather formal English in some contexts, e.g. Ipropose that the money be made available. - 242
suffix The adverb calmly has $a$ suffix $l y$. The noun movement has $a$ suffix ment. - 285
superlative Superlative forms are oldest, mostfamous, most sharply etc. • 217
syllable The word important has three syllables: important.
tag See question tag.
tag question a sentence with a question tag, e.g. We've got time, haven't we?
tense a form of the verb which shows whether we are talking about the present (I refuse, he knows, we are) or the past (I refused, he knew, we were) $\bullet 61(1)$
to-infinitive a verb form like to go, to answer, to sleep • 115
to-infinitive clause See infinitive clause.
transitive verb a verb that takes an object, e.g. We enjoyed the meal. The postman brings the letters. - 8
truth adverb e.g. definitely, possibly, maybe • 214
uncountable noun a noun that cannot have $a / a n$ in front of it and has no plural form, e.g. gold, petrol, music, •144. An uncountable noun takes a singular verb.
verb In the sentence The parcel arrived yesterday, the word arrived is a verb. Verbs are words like play, walk, look, have, discover.
verb of perception e.g. see, hear, feel, smell
verb of reporting a verb used to report what someone says or thinks, e.g. say, tell, answer, promise, think • 265
verb phrase a verb or a group of words that functions as a verb, e.g. opens, went, is coming, had waited, can swim, must have seen • 57
viewpoint adverbial e.g. economically, weather-wise $\bullet 213(3)$
voiced/voiceless These consonant sounds are voiceless: $/ \mathrm{p} /, / \mathrm{t} /, / \mathrm{k} /, / \mathrm{s} /, / \mathrm{f} /, / \mathrm{t} / /$, $\mid \mathrm{f} /, / \theta /$. These consonant sounds are voiced: /b/, /d/, /g/, /z/, /3/, /d3/, /v/, /ð/, $/ \mathrm{l} /, / \mathrm{r} /, / \mathrm{m} /, / \mathrm{n} /, / \mathrm{y} /$. All vowel sounds are voiced.
vowel The letters $a, e, i, o$ and $u$ are vowels. The other letters, e.g. $b, c, d, f$, are consonants.
weak form Some words can be spoken in a strong form or a weak form. For example, the word can has a strong form $/ \mathrm{k} æ n /$ and a weak form $/ \mathrm{kn} / . \cdot 55(1)$
wh-question a question that begins with a question word, e.g. who, what, where - 24
word class a type of word such as a noun, adjective or preposition $\cdot 3$
yes/no question a question that can be answered yes or no, e.g. Are you ready?~ Yes, I am. Did anyone call? ~No. • 24
yes/no short answer an answer such as Yes, it is. or No, they didn't. • 29(2)

## Index

The numbers refer to sections, not pages. For example, 158 means section 158 , and 221 (3c) means part 3 c of section 221. Numbers in bold type mean a direct treatment of or main reference to a topic.

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[^0]:    NOTE
    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.
    For American usage, - 303(1).
    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.

[^1]:    NOTE
    a For who and whom, - 26(3).
    b Since comes before when even in informal English.
    Since when has this area been closed to the public?
    This often expresses surprise. A question with How long... ? is more neutral.

[^2]:    NOTE
    a We can repeat the words of the question to give emphasis, e.g. when we deny something.
    Didyou break this glass? ~No, Idid notbreak thatglass.
    b There is not always a direct grammatical link between a question and answer. The important thing is that the information is relevant.

    Whattime willyou be home? ~Well, these meetingsgo onalongtime.
    Here the questioner would realize that the meeting going on a long time means that 'I will be home late',
    c The hearer may be unable or unwilling to answer.
    What'syourfavouritesubject? ~Ihaven'treallygotafavouritesubject.
    Are you a member ofthis club?~ Why doyou ask?
    Wherearemykeys? ~Yououghtto know wheretheyare.

[^3]:    (from M. Underwood Have you heard?)

[^4]:    NOTE
    a The perfect, the continuous and the passive do not usually all come in the same phrase. A sentence like It might have been being played is possible but unusual.
    b $B e$ and have can be ordinary verbs. - 82
    The money was in the changing room. The club has a chairman.
    c An adverbial can come inside the verb phrase. • 208 (4)
    Someone will probably steal them. A man is now being questioned.
    d For the imperative, e.g. Play something for me, • 19.
    For emphatic $d o+$ base form, e.g. You did play yesterday, • 51(2).

[^5]:    NOTE
    a We can use be going to without mentioning the person who has the intention.
    The flats are going to be for old people.
    b With verbs of movement, especially go and come, we often use the present continuous rather than be going to.
    I'm going out in a minute. I've got some shopping to do.
    Barbara is coming round for a chat tonight.
    I'm going to go out and Barbara is going to come round are possible but less usual.

[^6]:    a Have (got) can express permanent or temporary possession.
    Louise has (got) a new radio. She bought it yesterday.
    Louise has (got) a book that belongs to me.
    b We can use with for possession after a noun phrase.
    We saw a man with a gun. (= a man who had a gun)
    But with cannot replace a main verb.
    The man had a gun. NOT The man was with a gun.

[^7]:    NOTE
    To express probability we can also use be likely to or will probably. We're likely to know the result soon./We'll probably know the result soon.

[^8]:    NOTE
    a Afford (= have enough money/time) and stand (= tolerate) go after can/could or be able to. They are often in a negative sentence or a question.

    Do you think we'll be able to afford to go to India?
    I can't stand sitting around doing nothing.
    b We can use agree with a to-infinitive but not accept.
    Brian agreed to pay half the cost. NOT Brian accepted to pay half.
    c We use be dying (= want very much) only in the continuous.
    I'm dying to have a swim./I'm dying for a swim.
    d Care and mind are normally in a negative sentence or a question.
    Would you care to come along with us? Do you mind carrying this bag for me?
    e After help we can leave out to. We all helped (to) put up the tent.
    f When advise, recommend, allow or permit has another object, it takes a to-infinitive. $I$ advised taking a taxi. They don't allow sunbathing here. I advised the girls to take a taxi. They don't allow people to sunbathe here.

[^9]:    a After a singular noun ending in $s$, we normally add 's: the boss's office, Chris's address. But after a surname ending in $s$, we can add just an apostrophe: Perkins' room/Perkins's room, Yeats' poetry/Yeats's poetry. We can pronounce Perkins' /'ps:kınz/ or /'ps:kinzız/.
    b If there is a short phrase after the noun, then the possessive ending comes after the phrase. the people next door's cat/the cat belonging to the people next door
    c We can leave out the noun after the possessive if the meaning is clear without it. That umbrella is my friend's.
    d Pronouns ending in one/body and the pronouns one, each other and one another can be possessive.

    I found someone's coat here. They visit each other's rooms.
    e We can add an apostrophe $+s$ to a phrase with and. I've just been to Peter and Zoe's flat.
    This is much more usual than Peter's and Zoe's flat.
    f We can sometimes use two possessive forms together. Anita is my cousin - my mother's brother's daughter.

[^10]:    NOTE
    Sports and games are uncountable, so we use the noun on its own: play tennis, play chess. Compare play the piano and play the guitar. For American usage, • 304(3).

[^11]:    NOTE
    a We can use quite before afew and a bit of.
    There are quite afew night clubs in the city.
    This means a fairly large quantity, similar to quite a lot ofnight clubs.

[^12]:    NOTE
    Compare one ...the other, which means an action in one direction only.
    An airline once employed two psychiatrists to watch the passengers and arrest anyone whose nervous behaviour suggested they might be a hi-jacker. On their first flight one of the psychiatrists arrested the other.

[^13]:    a In a question there is inversion of subject and auxiliary.
    Have youjust booked your tickets? Why do Ialways get the worstjobs?
    b If there are two auxiliaries, then mid position is usually after the first one. We'vejust been queuingfor tickets. The shops will soon be closing.
    But adverbs of manner and some adverbs of degree go after the second auxiliary. We've been patiently queuing for tickets. You could have completely spoilt everything.

[^14]:    NOTE
    When the condition is true, we use verb forms in the normal way.
    Well, if your friends left half an hour ago, they aren't going to get to Cornwall by tea time.

[^15]:    NOTE
    It can be more polite to use the Type 2 pattern because it is more tentative.
    Would it be OK if 1 brought a friend? ~ Yes, ofcourse.
    Shall we go along the by-pass? ~ Well, if we went through the town centre, it would probably be quicker.

[^16]:    NOTE
    When we are talking about something other than time, this/that usually changes to the or it.
    'This steak is nice.' Dan said the steak was nice.
    'I like that.' Paula saw a coat. She said she liked it.

[^17]:    NOTE
    a When the question word is the subject, the word order does not change.
    Who left this bag here? Sophie wanted to know who left the bag there.
    b In informal English we can sometimes invert the subject and be.
    I asked where was the best place to have lunch.
    And we use inversion in the indirect speech when the main clause goes at the end, as a kind of afterthought.

    Where did Elaine have lunch, I was wondering.

[^18]:    NOTE
    We can use fronting or inversion to get the noun + clause at the end.
    At the moment I can't think of any good films that I'd like to see.
    Just pulling out of the station was the train that we were supposed to connect with.

[^19]:    NOTE
    We usually leave out the object after a pronoun, a quantifier or a superlative.
    Idon't think there'sanyone Ican really trust.
    Allyoueverget inthisnewspaperissex.
    Thisistheworstsummer1 canremember.
    We can also use that here.

[^20]:    NOTE
    a We can also use a passive to-infinitive.
    The first British monarch to be filmed was Queen Victoria.
    b For I've got some letters to write, • 124(2).

[^21]:    NOTE
    a For verbs which have forms both in ed and $t$, e.g. burned / burnt, dream / dreamt, • 303(11).
    b Cost as a transitive verb is regular.
    They've costed the project. (= estimated the cost)
    c The third person singular of do is does / d $\Delta \mathrm{z} /$.
    d Fit is usually regular in Britain but irregular in the US.
    e In GB the past tense offorbid is forbad or forbade, pronounced /fə'bæd / . In the US it is forbade, pronounced /fa'beid/.
    f For the past participle gotten/'gotn /(US), • 303(5d).
    g The third person singular of go is goes/gəvz/. For gone and been, • 84(6).
    $h$ We use hanged only to talk about hanging a person.
    i The third person singular of have is has /hæz/.
    j For the difference between lay and lie, • 11 (2) Note b. Lie (= tell an untruth) is regular.
    k The third person singular of say is says $/ \mathrm{sez} /$.
    1 Shined means 'polished': I've shined my shoes. Compare The sun shone.
    m We use sped for movement.
    They sped down the hill.
    But we say speeded up (= went faster),
    n Weave is regular when it expresses movement.
    We weaved our way through the traffic.

