

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In its manuscript stage, this book benefited greatly from detailed critical comments made by teachers and English language specialists in various parts of the world. For this help, we are very grateful to Małgorzata Bonikowska, Tom Lavelle, Constant Leung, Juana Marín, Sophia Papaefthymiou-Lytra, Monica Poulter and Edward Woods.

Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd
Nelson House Mayfield Road
Walton-on-Thames Surrey
KT12 5PL UK

51 York Place
Edinburgh
EH1 3JD UK

Thomas Nelson (Hong Kong) Ltd
Toppan Building 10/F
22A Westlands Road
Quarry Bay Hong Kong

© Geoffrey Leech 1989

c 5371

First published by Edward Arnold

ISBN 0-7131-8472-8

This edition first published by Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd 1991

ISBN 0-17-556-0218
NPN 9 8 7 6 5 4 3

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, copied or transmitted save with written permission or in accordance with the provisions of the Copyright, Design and Patents Act 1988, or under the terms of any licence permitting limited copying issued by the Copyright Licensing Agency, 90 Tottenham Court Road, London W1P 9HE.

Any person who does any unauthorised act in relation to this publication may be liable to criminal prosecution and civil claims for damages.

Printed in Hong Kong

Contents

Introduction	viii
How to use this book	x
The grammar	1
List of irregular verbs	564
Complete list of entries	570

Introduction

1. Who is this book for?

This book is a basic guide to the grammar and usage of English for anyone learning or teaching the language. If you are a learner, it is a reference book in which to look up problems you encounter in using the language, as well as a book to find out more about the way English works. If you are a teacher, it is a basic reference book to turn to when faced with something you are not sure of, as well as a source book to help you present grammar in class.

2. How is this book organised?

To make grammar as accessible as possible, *An A–Z of English Grammar and Usage* is arranged alphabetically, like a dictionary. There are plenty of cross references so that, to look things up, it is not necessary to know any grammatical terms. For example, to find information on “the articles”, you could look up *a*, *the*, *zero article* or *articles*, or, for information on conditionals, you could look up *conditionals*, *if* or *unless*. You could even look up the ending *-ed* to find information on the past tense and the past participle. Because of this alphabetical arrangement, there is no need for an index.

3. What is in this book?

There are three kinds of entry in this book.

- (i) There are ordinary words of the language, such as *if*, *when*, *should*, and parts of words, such as the verb ending *-ing*.
- (ii) There are grammatical terms such as *conditional*, *present perfect*, *sentence*, *clause*.
- (iii) There are entries which cover a variety of things not usually found in a book on grammar. Some, such as *invitations*, *thanking people*, *apologies*, *agreeing and disagreeing* give examples of how grammar is used to perform these functions. Others, such as *intonation*, *stress*, *spelling*, *paragraphs*, show how the language is written and spoken. And others, such as *letter-writing*, *formal and informal English*, *geographical names*, give information on a variety of topics.

At the end of the book, there is a list of irregular verbs.

4. What kind of grammar is in this book?

The grammar “rules” in this book are the rules of standard English. Incorrect English is shown by crossing out, e.g.: Adam is very ~~much~~ old. This is a descriptive grammar book and, where a form is considered right by some native speakers and wrong by others, we point this out without being prescriptive. Where American usage is different from British English, the difference is briefly described.

5. How to use this book.

An A–Z of English Grammar and Usage is a reference book. The complete list of entries will show at a glance which words appear in the book. But the book can also be read to find out about the forms and structures of grammar. In that case, we suggest you begin by reading the entries for *sentence* and *clause*, and the entries for word classes (parts of speech): *noun*, *verb*, *adjective*, *preposition*, *conjunction*, *pronoun*, *determiner*. From these, cross-references will lead you to other aspects of grammatical structure, such as *subject*, *object*, *phrase* and *adverbial clause*.

6. How does this book describe grammar?

The explanations in this book avoid difficult grammatical terms. However, it is not possible to write about grammar without using some grammatical terms. If you do not know the meanings of these, you can look them up in their alphabetical position.

All the explanations have carefully chosen examples, often with cartoon drawings to make the meaning absolutely clear. Many of the explanations use diagrams and tables, and there are structural patterns where helpful. In most cases, entries begin with “key points” indicated by a flag: ►. The descriptions usually begin with an explanation of form followed by an explanation of use.

How to use this book

On these pages, pieces from different entries are shown to help you make full use of the features of the book. The numbers ①, ② etc. on the left hand pages refer to the explanations on each facing right hand page.

Entries in alphabetical order ①

Headwords: grammatical and other terms in bold upright type ②

answers [See SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES 1]

any [See SOME AND ANY]

anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere [See SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS]

Headwords: common English words in italics ②

Short entries for cross-reference ③a

Related words treated together

Different forms of the headword

Pronunciation ④

bring **brings, brought, bringing** /brɪŋ/ ←

and **take** **takes, took, taking, taken** /teɪk/ (verbs) ←

► **Bring and take** are both IRREGULAR VERBS. ←

► **Bring and take** contrast in the same way as **come** and **go** [see COME AND GO]. ←

Look up "be able to" under "able to"

Word class (or part of speech)

Cross-references ③

Strong and weak forms ④a

be able to /'eɪbl tə/

Stress marks ④b

American 'r' ④d or linking 'r' ④e

except, except for /ək'sept/, /ək'sept fɔ:/ (preposition)

British pronunciation on left ④c

American pronunciation on right ④c

during /'duərɪŋ/ | /'duərɪŋ/ (preposition)

Detailed explanations

The numbers below, (1), (2), etc., refer to numbers on the opposite page and give further help in explaining the features of this book.

1 Alphabetical arrangement

Entries are arranged alphabetically to help you find what you need easily. You can look up common English words like *the*, *can*, endings like *-ing*, grammatical terms like *noun*, *article*, or terms like *agreeing* and *disagreeing* which describe what you do with the language.

2 Headwords

Common English words or word-parts which are important in grammar are in bold italic type, e.g. **the**, **of**, **-er**, **-est**. Grammatical and other (non-grammatical) terms are in bold upright type, e.g. **noun**, **modal auxiliary**, **invitations**.

3 Cross-references

When you look something up, it will often help you to look up other related entries too. Most entries have cross-references to other entries. These cross-references are in small capital letters, e.g. **SOME AND ANY**. Sometimes the words are part of a sentence (e.g. "Bring and take are both IRREGULAR VERBS."), sometimes they are in square brackets, e.g. "[see WORD ORDER]", "[see QUANTITY WORD 2]". The number (or number and letter) tells you what section of the entry to read.

3a Short entries

Some entries act as cross-references to other entries, e.g. the entry **any** tells you to look up **some** and **any** for a full explanation.

4 Pronunciation

At the top of most entries for common words we give the pronunciation between slant lines / /, using phonetic symbols. [See CONSONANTS AND VOWELS for a list of symbols.]

4a Weak forms

Sometimes there are three slant lines, e.g. /'eɪbl tʊ/tə/ for *able to*. Here the symbols between the last two slant lines show the weak pronunciation of the last word or syllable, usually used in the middle of a phrase or sentence. [For more information on weak forms, see STRESS 4.]

4b Stress

The main stress in a word is shown by a mark in front of the stressed syllable, like this: ' [For more information on stress, see STRESS 2.]

4c American pronunciation

For important differences between British English <G.B.> and American English <U.S.> we use a double line (//) with the British pronunciation (/djuərɪŋ/) on the left and the American pronunciation (/duərɪŋ/) on the right.

4d American r

Most <U.S.> speakers pronounce an /r/ after some vowels and diphthongs, where <G.B.> speakers usually do not. For example, *car* <G.B.> = /ka:/, <U.S.> = /ka:r/; *world* <G.B.> = /wɜːld/, <U.S.> = /wɜːrlɪd/. We use a small raised ' to show this difference, e.g. /ka:'/.

4e Linking r

A raised ' at the end of a word also shows a "linking" /r/ in <G.B.>, that is, an /r/ pronounced at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, e.g. /ək'sept fə'ən/ = *except for Ann*.

How to use this book — continued

Sections and sub-sections

Flags for key points ⑤

Repeat of headword or associated word in bold type

a bit, a bit of /ə'bit/, /ə'bitəv/

- ▶ **A bit** and **a bit of** behave like QUANTITY WORDS and **a bit** also behaves like an adverb of DEGREE.
- ▶ The meaning of **a bit** and **a bit of** is 'a small amount or piece (of)'.
- ▶ **A bit** and **a bit of** are generally used in the same way as **a little** [see LITTLE / A LITTLE], but are <more informal>.

- 1 **A bit (of X)** is used only when X is uncountable.

E.g. **a bit of wood**, **a bit of cheese**

But where X is a drink we use another word such as **drop**.

E.g. **a drop of water**

- 1a You can say just **a bit** (= 'a little') when the hearer knows what you are talking about.

E.g. 'Why don't you try this cake?' 'I've already had **a bit**, thank you.'

▶ **Do you have any string? I just need a bit.**

Examples in italic type

Pointed brackets for "style" or "variety of English" ⑧

Three dots for missing words ⑨

Structural patterns in capital letters

- 2 To use fractions in phrases and sentences, put:
FRACTION + OF + . . . NOUN

The noun following the fraction can be:

- (i) countable (singular). E.g. **a quarter of the cake**
 - (ii) countable (plural). E.g. **two thirds of the children**
 - (iii) uncountable. E.g. **three quarters of the money**
- [See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

▶ NOTE: But before **half** we can omit a*, and after **half** we can omit of. So we can say:
a half of the

Or: half of the } egg / eggs / water

Or: half the

▶ *Except when **half** follows a whole number: two and a half, not two-and-half

Smaller type for notes ⑥ and asterisked notes ⑦

Crossing out for "incorrect" English ⑩

Detailed explanations

5 Flags

We signal important key points at the beginning of entries by flags: ► Make sure you always read these key points.

6 Notes

We put less important points in smaller type in Notes (marked NOTE, NOTE (i), NOTE (ii), etc.)

7 Asterisked notes

Other less important points refer to particular parts of an explanation. These are also in smaller type and are marked by asterisks (*, **, etc.)

8 Pointed brackets

A word in pointed brackets, e.g. <formal>, tells you what "style" a grammatical form or structure belongs to. E.g.: "whom <formal>" means that we use whom in formal kinds of English.

The labels we chiefly use are:

<formal> and <informal> English [look up FORMAL AND INFORMAL ENGLISH]

<written> and <spoken> English (or <writing> and <speech>)

<polite> and <not polite> English [look up POLITE AND NOT POLITE]

<G.B.> and <U.S.> English (i.e. British and American).

9 Three dots

We use three dots . . . to show that extra words can or should be added at this point.

10 Crossing out

When something is "incorrect" or "not English", we show this by crossing it out, using a diagonal line through one word or a horizontal line through a number of words.

How to use this book — continued

Forms of the verb with endings ⑪

1a With the PRESENT PROGRESSIVE form (*be* + *always* + Verb-ing) *always* means 'continually'. We often use it to describe a habit we don't like.
E.g. *She's always smoking and coughing. Ugh!*
I'm always losing my glasses.

4 We can link more than two items by coordination. (Note the use of INTONATION.)

E.g. *Which of these fruit juices do you want? The apple, the grapefruit, or the orange?*

Intonation marks ⑫

Table which can be read horizontally and diagonally ⑬

<i>She</i>	<i>loves</i>	<i>ice-cream.</i>
<i>It</i>		
<i>My son</i>		

<i>I</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>ice-cream.</i>
<i>We</i>		
<i>Italians</i>		

<i>The bus</i>	<i>arrived</i>	<i>late.</i>
<i>They</i>		

Table which can only be read horizontally ⑭

subject	verb phrase	complement	...
<i>Fresh bread</i>	<i>is becoming</i>	<i>expensive</i>	<i>(in this town).</i>
<i>This chair</i>	<i>looks</i>	<i>comfortable.</i>	
<i>Our friends</i>	<i>seem</i>	<i>ready to help.</i>	
<i>The weather</i>	<i>will stay</i>	<i>fine</i>	<i>(tomorrow).</i>

Brackets show words that can be omitted

Detailed explanations

11 Forms of the verb

In structural patterns we use Verb with a capital V as follows:

- | | |
|----------|--|
| Verb | indicates the basic form of the verb, e.g. <i>want</i> |
| Verb-s | indicates the -s form of the verb, e.g. <i>wants</i> |
| Verb-ed | indicates the -ed form of the verb, e.g. <i>wanted</i> |
| Verb-ing | indicates the -ing form of the verb, e.g. <i>wanting</i> |

12 Intonation

We mark intonation (\ / \) when it is important to show how the height or pitch of a voice changes during a sentence. For details of these symbols, look up INTONATION.

13 Tables

Most of the tables in this book can be read without any explanatory notes. But there are two kinds, illustrated opposite, which need some explanation.

The first table has vertical as well as horizontal lines. The vertical lines between different parts of a phrase or sentence show that you can read horizontally or diagonally. In the example opposite, you can make the correct sentences: *She loves ice-cream. It loves ice-cream. My son loves ice-cream.* However, you cannot cross a horizontal line. *My son love ice-cream* would be incorrect.

The second table has no vertical lines so the sentences can only be read horizontally, e.g. *Fresh bread is becoming expensive.* You cannot read diagonally; for example *Fresh bread looks ready to help* is obviously incorrect!

a or **an** **a** /eɪ/ (weak form /ə/ is usual)* **an** /æn/ (weak form /ən/ is usual) (*determiner*)

- **A / an** is called the 'indefinite article'.

*The letter '**a**' is always pronounced /eɪ/ (as in **a**, **b**, **c**, . . .)

1 When to use **a; when to use **an****

Use **a** before a consonant sound.

E.g. *He's a /ə/ doctor.* *What a /ə/ nice picture!*

Use **an** before a vowel sound.

E.g. *He's an /ən/ actor.* *What an /ən/ ugly picture!*

Also: **an hour**, **an honest person**, etc. [See AN: Note (ii).]

[For more examples, see AN.]

2 **A or **an** comes before a singular countable noun:**

a } + singular countable noun
an }

E.g. **a man**, **a union/ju:nɪən/**, **an idea**

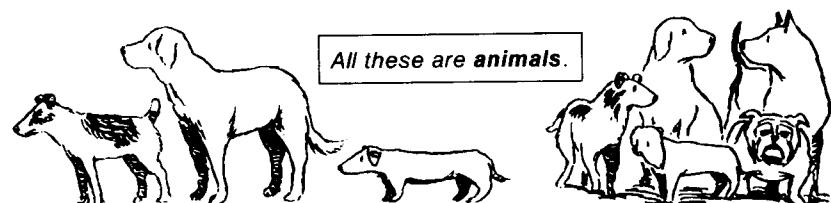
a } + modifier(s) + singular countable noun
an }

E.g. **a happy woman**, **a very famous author**, **an interesting new book**

2a **A / **an** has no plural form. In the plural, instead of **a**, we use either no word at all [see ZERO ARTICLE] or **some**.**



E.g. *This is a cat.* *This is a rabbit.* *And that is a camel.*



a dog + a dog + a dog . . . = some /səm/ dogs

[To find out how to choose between zero article and **some**, see ZERO ARTICLE 2.]

2 a or an

3 The meaning and use of a / an

A / an means any one of a kind or group. It contrasts with **THE** (the definite article) and with the zero article. [See THE 3 and ZERO ARTICLE to see how these are used.]

- 3a **A / an** is used especially after the verb **BE**, for example in naming a person's job.

E.g. 'What does your father do (for a living)?' 'He's **a teacher**.' 'Oh, really? Mine's **a pilot**.'

- 3b **A / an** is used when something is mentioned for the first time. But when the same thing is mentioned again, use **the**.

E.g. *My friends live in **a** very beautiful house. But **the** house has only a small kitchen.*

*Once we had **a** dog and **a** cat. But **the** dog was always eating **the** cat's dinner. In the end, we gave **the** cat to **a** friend.*

- 3c **A / an** means the same as **one** when it contrasts with **two, three**, etc.

E.g. *I'd like **two** cups of tea and **a** glass of milk, please.*

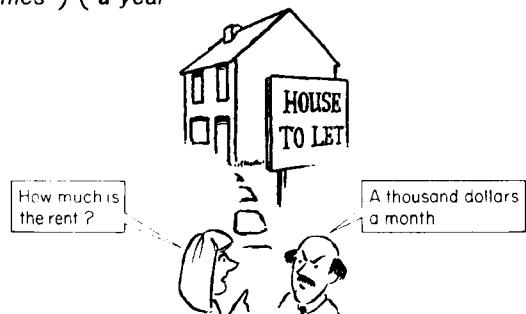
*We stayed in Austria for { **three weeks**,
 a month and a half. (= '1½ months')}*

- 3d In NUMBERS, we generally use **a** instead of **one** in front of:

FRACTIONS	<informal> numbers	large numbers
a half (½)	a couple (= 2)	a hundred (100)
a third (⅓)	a dozen (= 12)	a million (1,000,000)

- 3e **A / an** also means 'per' or 'every' in phrases of MEASURING OR FREQUENCY.

E.g. once } **a day**
 twice } **a week**
 six times } **a month**
 . . . times } **a year**



a or an 3

Some more examples:

An apple a day keeps the doctor away. (a saying)

My son goes to the dentist twice a year.

'How fast are we travelling?' 'Sixty miles **an hour**.' 'That's the same as a hundred kilometres **an hour**, isn't it?'

- 3f **A / an** also has a general use, which describes 'all examples of the same kind', or 'any example of the same kind'.

E.g. 'What is **a dictionary**?' '**A dictionary** is **a book** which tells you about the meanings of words.'

If a man and a woman are in love, they will have a happy marriage.
There are many ways of learning a language.

A teacher earns less than a lawyer.

NOTE (i): **A / an** is not used for describing substances, masses or abstractions in general. [See ZERO ARTICLE 1-3 to find out about these.]

NOTE (ii): A special use of **a** is found before QUANTITY WORDS and ADVERBS OF DEGREE. For example:

a bit * (of) <informal>	a (great) deal (of)
a few * (of)	a (good) many *
a little * (of)	a (large) number (of)
	a lot * (of) <informal>

* [These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

E.g. { **A few** } parents attended the meeting.
 A lot of

In this example, **parents** is a plural noun, but **a** can still come before it because **a few** and **a lot of** are plural in meaning.

NOTE (iii): Often **a** also comes before 'part nouns' like **piece**, 'unit nouns' like **cup, box**, and 'nouns of kind' like **kind, type**.

E.g. **a piece** of cake, **a cup** of tea, **a type** of car *

* After **a kind of, a sort of, a type of**, we usually omit the second **a** which would come before a countable noun.

E.g. *He lived in a kind of tent.*
A Jaguar is a type of car.

NOTE (iv): When the determiners **what, such** and **many** are used with a singular countable noun, **a** follows the determiner.

E.g. **What a noise!** [See WHAT 4.]

She was such a kind person. [See SUCH.]

Many a man died in that battle. <formal and archaic> [See MANY.]

Also, **a** often follows the adverbs **quite** and **rather** [see QUITE AND RATHER].

E.g. **We had { rather quite } a busy day.** (Also . . . **a rather busy day**.)

6 a bit, a bit of

And we can use **a bit of a** with a noun implying degree.

E.g. *He's a bit of a fool.*
We had a bit of a shock.

A bit also goes with COMPARATIVE words (without a negative or unpleasant meaning).

E.g. 'How are you feeling?' 'Oh, I'm feeling **a (little) bit better** today, thanks.'

3 After a negative, a bit adds negative emphasis (= 'at all').

E.g. 'Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thanks, I'm **not a bit** hungry.'
'It must be twenty years since we met'. 'Yes and you haven't changed **a bit**'.

be able to /'eɪbl tu/tə/**1 Be + able to + Verb** is a VERB IDIOM. On the whole, it has the same meaning as CAN, but is <less common>.

E.g. *My father is over 90, but he is still able to drive a car.*
(= 'he can still drive . . .'; 'he is still capable of driving . . .')
Are you able to see the sea from where you live?
(= 'Can you see the sea . . .?'; 'Is it possible to see the sea . . .?')

NOTE (i): There is also a negative form **unable to**.

E.g. *If the bad weather continues, the climbers will be unable to reach the top of the mountain.*

I was unable to swim under water for more than two minutes. (= 'I couldn't swim')

NOTE (ii): Other LINKING VERBS as well as **be**, especially **seem** or **feel**, are followed by **able to**.
E.g. *No one seemed able to help.*

1a When can means 'know how to', we cannot easily replace it by **be able to.**

E.g. *Can you } speak English?
Are you able to }*

2 Can has no infinitive. Therefore **be able to is used instead in places where the infinitive is needed.**

E.g. *I would like to be able to afford a new car.*

2a MODAL AUXILIARIES like **might [see COULD AND MIGHT] are followed by **be able to**.**

E.g. *Why don't you talk to the secretary? She might be able to help you.*

about and around 7**3 Can** has no -ing form [see -ING / -ING FORM], so we use **being able to** instead.

E.g. *I enjoy being able to take a swim every morning.*

NOTE: But do not use the PROGRESSIVE form of **be able to**. We cannot say *I am being able to* etc.

4 Past

Can has no regular past form, so we often use **was / were able to** instead.

E.g. *She was very ill, but the doctors were able to save her.**

*Notice the difference between **could** and **be able to**.

(i) *The clever young doctor could cure many illnesses.*

(ii) *The clever young doctor was able to cure the queen's illness.*

Example (i) means that he **knew how to cure illnesses**, but maybe he didn't actually cure anyone.

Example (ii) means that he **could** and **did** cure the queen (on one occasion).

5 Perfect

Can has no perfect form, so we use **has / have been able to** instead.

E.g. *Unfortunately, he hasn't been able to walk since his accident.*

6 FUTURE with WILL

Can has no future form, so we use **will be able to** instead.

E.g. *When will you be able to repay me?*

If I get a job in London, I will be able to visit you every week.

about /ə'baut/ and **around** /ə'raʊnd/

► **About** and **around** are both PREPOSITIONS and ADVERBS.

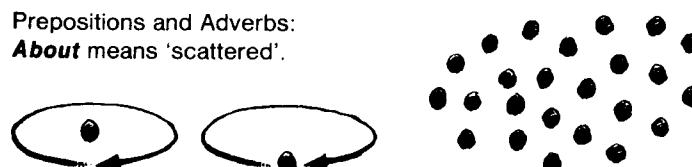
► Their meaning is sometimes the same and sometimes different.

1 About (preposition) means 'on the topic or subject of'.

E.g. 'What's the book **about**?' 'It's **about** the Second World War.'

2 About and **around** are used to talk about place.**2a Prepositions and Adverbs:**

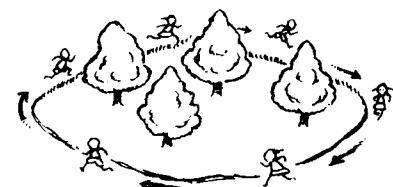
About means 'scattered'.



Around* means 'round'. We also use **around** to mean 'scattered,' however.



E.g. (i) *The children ran {about
around} the park.*



(ii) *The children ran (a)round * the park.*

(iii) *Don't turn (a)round *; there's someone following us.*

***Around** is preferred in <U.S.>; **round** is preferred in <G.B.>.

2b Adverbs:

When we add **around** and **about** to some verbs to make phrasal verbs, **around** means the same as **about**.

E.g. *The guests were standing {about.
around}.*

3 About and **around** both mean 'approximately' or 'not exactly', when we are talking about numbers, e.g. for distance or time or money. With this meaning, **about** and **around** are adverbs of degree.

E.g. 'What's the time please?' 'It's {about
around} 3.'

'How old is your sister?' 'She's {about
around} 40.'

3a About (but not **around**) can be followed by an adjective or a verb when it means 'approximately'.

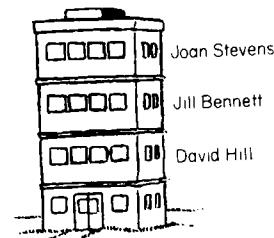
E.g. *I think that's about right.*

We've just about finished the shopping.

above and below /ə'bʌv/, /bə'ləʊ/ (prepositions or adverbs)

- **Above** and **below** have opposite meanings.

1 **Above** and **below** are prepositions of PLACE. **Above** x means 'higher than x', and **below** x means 'lower than x'.



E.g. (i) *Jill Bennett lives above David Hill but below* Joan Stevens.*

***Beneath** and **underneath** are less common words similar in meaning to **below**.

(ii) *Astronauts work a long way above the surface of the earth.*

(iii) *Miners work a long way below the surface of the earth.*

2 **Above** can also mean 'higher in one's job or position', or 'higher on a scale of MEASURING', e.g. of price or speed. Again, **below** means the opposite.

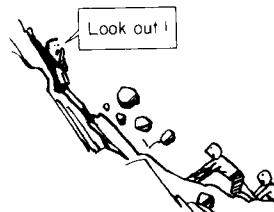
E.g. *On a ship, the captain gives the orders. He is above all the other officers and sailors. The other members of the crew are below him, and take orders from him.*

It is extremely cold at the North Pole: the temperature can sink to 50 degrees below zero.

You were driving above the speed limit.

NOTE (i): When **above** and **below** are adverbs of place, they may follow a noun or a preposition.

E.g. (i) *From the ship, we could see nothing except the sea below and the sky above.*



(ii) *A shout from above warned the climbers of falling rocks.*

NOTE (ii): **Above** can also be an adjective meaning 'at an earlier point in the book'; **below** means 'at a later point in the book'.

E.g. *the example above, the explanation below*

abstract noun

- An abstract noun is the opposite of a CONCRETE NOUN.
- An abstract noun refers to something which has no physical form, something which we cannot see or touch.

10 abstract noun

abstract noun 11

1 Abstract nouns stand for general feelings, ideas or concepts

1a Abstract nouns for feelings:

Love is the name of a feeling we have for certain people, things, ideas. We cannot touch **love**, but we feel it. Each person has this feeling for different people and things, but everyone shares the general idea of what **love** is.

1b Abstract nouns for ideas:

In the same way, **education** is the general name for how our minds develop when we learn things.

2 Abstract nouns are often based on the meanings of adjectives and verbs

particular	general	abstract noun (very general indeed!)
a brave child <i>I know you</i>	brave actions people know lots of things	bravery knowledge

3 Types of abstract noun

Although we cannot see what an abstract noun describes, we can divide abstract nouns into different types or classes.

3a Nouns which describe qualities:

E.g. **ability**, **beauty**, **freedom**, **goodness**, **honesty**, **importance**, **length**, **strength**, **truth**, **wealth**

Most of these are related to adjectives. They can all be used as uncountable nouns. But some can be used as countable nouns too.
[See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

E.g. **able** → { **ability**
abilities } **free** → **freedom** **good** → **goodness**

3b Nouns which describe states (e.g. states of mind): [Compare STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS.]

E.g. **belief**, **hope**, **judgement**, **need**, **emotion**, **employment**, **knowledge**, **peace**, **permission**, **sleep**, **trust**

Most of these are related to verbs. They can be used as uncountable nouns, but some can be used as countable nouns, too.

E.g. **believe** → { **belief**
beliefs } **judge** → { **judgement**
judgements }
know → **knowledge** **permit** → **permission**

3c Nouns which describe events or actions:

E.g. **act**, **answer**, **attempt**, **change**, **cost**, **examination**, **fall**, **fight**, **laugh**, **reply**, **shout**, **start**, **victory**, **whisper**

These are generally countable nouns, and are usually related to verbs. In fact, most of them have the same form as the verb.

E.g. { **The two brothers were fighting.**
What was the fight about?
{ **Emma wants to change her job.**
A change is as good as a rest. (a saying)}

4 Endings of abstract nouns

Many abstract nouns can be recognised by their endings. For example:

quality	trial	feeling	width	happiness
unity	refusal	meaning	strength	weakness
action	judgement	difference	difficulty	manhood
invitation	treatment	appearance	honesty	childhood

5 Countable and uncountable abstract nouns

Some abstract nouns are countable. This means they have a SINGULAR and a PLURAL form: **deed** – **deeds**; **difficulty** – **difficulties**.*

* **Difficulty** can also be an uncountable noun.

E.g. *With great difficulty, the climbers reached the top of the mountain.*

5a Some examples of abstract countable nouns:

accident, **example**, **fact**, **form**, **visit**, **cause**, **process**, **event**, **poem**, **month**

5b Some examples of abstract uncountable nouns. They cannot have a plural or an indefinite article:

advice, **help**, **information**, **music**, **news***, **homework**, **weather**, **anger**, **progress**, **research**

* Although **news** ends in -s, it is uncountable, and is always singular.

E.g. **News** { **travels**
travel } quickly in the modern world.
No **news** is good **news**. (a saying)

5c Many abstract nouns can be both countable and uncountable.

E.g. { **There was a murder last night.** (countable)
Murder is a terrible crime. (uncountable)
{ **The President has introduced many changes.** (countable)
{ **We live in a time of great change.** (uncountable)
{ **How many times** have you visited Italy? (countable)
{ **How much time** did you spend in Italy? (uncountable)

12 abstract noun

adjective 13

Sometimes, however, the meaning is different in the two uses. For example, **work** is normally an uncountable noun (meaning the opposite of 'play' or 'free time').

E.g. **Work** is a necessary evil.

But **works** (countable) means the '**works** of art written or painted or made by an artist'.

accepting and refusing [See OFFERS, INVITATIONS]

accusative

In grammar, accusative is the term sometimes used for pronouns like **me**, **us**, **him**, **her**, **them**, which can act as OBJECT of a clause. In this book, we use the term OBJECT PRONOUN instead.

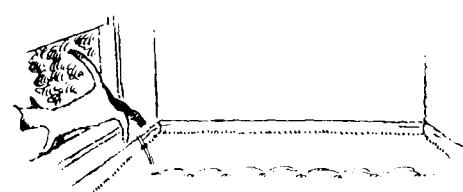
across /ə'krɒs/ (preposition or adverb)

- 1 **Across** is a PREPOSITION of PLACE.
Across = 'on the other side of'.

E.g.



Across = 'from one side to the other'.



E.g. **The cat ran across the room and jumped out of the window.**

- 2 As an adverb [see PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB], **across** has the same meaning.

E.g. **There was no bridge** {**across**} over the river, so we had to swim **across**.

NOTE: **Across** is also part of some PHRASAL VERBS and PREPOSITIONAL VERBS.

E.g. **come across**, **put (something) across**.

action verbs [See STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS]

active [See PASSIVE]

actually /'æktyʃəli/ (adverb)

- **Actually** means 'in fact' or 'in reality'.
- We use **actually** in two ways: (i) for emphasis, and (ii) to disagree with something.
- **Actually** does not mean 'now' or 'at present'.

- 1 **Actually** is used for emphasis (when you have something really surprising to say).

E.g. **She stole a gold ring. I actually saw her pick it up.**
There is a beautiful view from this window. You can actually see the sea on a clear day.

Actually for emphasis occurs in middle position [see ADVERB 3].

- 2 **Actually** for disagreeing:
If you think what someone has said or done is not correct, you can correct them by using **actually** in front or end position [see ADVERB 3].
- E.g. '**Money is not important.**' '**If you're running a business, it matters a great deal, actually.**'
'**Here's the £50 I owe you.**' '**Well, actually you owe me £100!**'

adjective

- After nouns and verbs, adjectives are the largest WORD CLASS in English.
- Adjectives describe the qualities of people, things, places, etc.

E.g. A: **What's your sister like?**
B: **Well, she's tall and slim. She has black hair.**
A: **Is she beautiful?**

- B: No, but she's very **clever**.
 A: How **old** is she?
 B: She's quite **young**.
 A: And is she **married**?
 B: No, she's **single**.
 A: Is she **rich**?
 B: Don't be **nosy** – mind your own business!

subject	verb phrase	complement	...
Fresh bread	is becoming	expensive	(in this town).
This chair	looks	comfortable .	
Our friends	seem	ready to help.	
The weather	will stay	fine	(tomorrow).

1 Positions of adjectives

Adjectives can be used in several different positions in a sentence. The most important positions are described below.

1a Position 1:

When an adjective comes before a noun, we say that it is a modifier of the noun [see MODIFIER AND HEADWORD]. (It is also called an 'attributive adjective').

adjective	noun
a young	woman
tall	trees
this narrow	road

adjective	noun
an old	town
the early	train
our national	sport

More than one adjective can modify the same noun:

adjectives	noun
a tall young	woman
a beautiful old	town

NOTE: Some adjectives occur only in position 1.
 E.g. **only**, **main**, **western**, **chief**, **fellow**, **mere**, **utter**, **upper**

1b Position 2:

Adjectives also come after the verb BE. In this position, the adjective is called the COMPLEMENT. (It is also called a 'predicative adjective'.) It describes a quality of the SUBJECT:

subject	verb phrase	complement	...
The road	is	narrow	(here).
The train	will be	late	(this evening).
Your ideas	are	interesting .	
It	has been	sunny	(today).

Instead of the verb **be**, another LINKING VERB can be used before the adjective, e.g. **become**, **look**, **seem**, **stay**:

NOTE: Some adjectives are not usually used in position 1. They are often used in position 2.

E.g. **able** [see (BE) ABLE TO], **glad**, **ill**, **ready**, **sorry**, **well** ('in good health') [see WELL 3], **bound**.
The children are ready. But not: *the ready children*

2 Order of adjectives

The order of adjectives before a noun is not always fixed. But this table shows some orderings we prefer:

adjectives		noun			
	describing or expressing feeling	size	age	colour	defining
a				green	Indian
an			old	black	mat
a		tall			horse
the	beautiful	little			worker
					flowers

Of course, we can have more than two adjectives in a series.

E.g. **a fine old Spanish wine**
a tall Indian medical worker
a splendid white Arab horse

3 Comparative and superlative adjectives

3a Most adjectives also have comparative and superlative forms using -er, -est or **more**, **most**.

E.g. **good** ~ **better** ~ **best**
large ~ **larger** ~ **largest**
famous ~ **more famous** ~ **most famous**
fortunate ~ **more fortunate** ~ **most fortunate**

[For the rules on how to form them, see COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE, -ER / -EST, and MORE / (THE) MOST.]

3b Some adjectives do not normally have comparative and superlative forms.

E.g. **absent**, **equal**, **left**, **opposite**, **right**, **single**

16 adjective

adjective 17

4 Words which modify adjectives

Very or another adverb of degree can modify most adjectives:

modifier + adjective		modifier + adjective		modifier + adjective	
very	good	rather	hungry	quite	large
too	cold	utterly	stupid	more	careful

The adverb modifier + adjective can modify the noun [see 1a above] or act as complement [as 1b above].

E.g. *This book was written by a **very famous author**.*
= *The author of this book is **very famous**.*

NOTE: The only adverb of degree which follows its adjective is ENOUGH, e.g. **good enough**, a **large enough room**.

5 Forms of adjectives

5a Most common adjectives have no special ending. They can be paired with adjectives of opposite meaning.

E.g. *large ~ small, old ~ young, old ~ new, long ~ short, hard ~ soft, rich ~ poor, hot ~ cold, black ~ white, good ~ bad.*

5b But you can recognise many adjectives by their endings. They include:

-al:	<i>actual, final, general, mental, physical, special</i>
-ent:	<i>ancient, convenient, excellent, frequent, urgent</i>
-ous:	<i>anxious, conscious, famous, serious, various</i>
-ic:	<i>atomic, basic, electric, scientific, sympathetic</i>
-y:	<i>angry, dirty, funny, guilty, healthy, hungry, icy</i>
-ive:	<i>active, attractive, expensive, native, sensitive</i>
-ed*:	<i>confused, excited, limited, related, surprised</i>
-ble:	<i>enjoyable, fashionable, possible, probable, sensible</i>
-ful:	<i>beautiful, careful, faithful, grateful, skilful</i>
-an:	<i>American, Christian, German, human, Indian, Russian</i>
-ing*:	<i>amusing, disappointing, surprising, willing</i>
-less:	<i>blameless, careless, childless, harmless, senseless</i>
-ar:	<i>familiar, particular, popular, regular, similar</i>

Less common endings:

childlike, daily, foolish, solid, wooden, ordinary

*[These endings have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

6 Less common positions for adjectives

In addition to modifier (position 1) and complement (position 2), adjectives can have other, less common positions in a sentence.

6a Position 3:

An adjective can follow **the**, and act as the main word of a noun phrase, i.e. no noun follows it.

E.g. *The **young** should look after the **old**.*
*There is a great division between the **employed** and the **unemployed**.*
*The **English** have a lot to learn from the **Japanese**.**

In these sentences, the adjectives refer to a class of people, so the phrase is plural. But unlike a noun, the adjective does not have an -s ending.

E.g. *the **youngs** the **unemployeds** the **Englishs***

*Only some names of nations have an adjective like **English** and **Japanese**. For other nations we use a Noun ending with -s e.g. **the Americans** [see COUNTRIES 2a].

6b Position 4:

After some verbs [see VERB PATTERNS 12], an adjective can follow the object:

subject	+ verb phrase	+ object	+ adjective
<i>I</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>my coffee</i>	<i>black.</i>
<i>My sister</i>	<i>keeps</i>	<i>her room</i>	<i>very tidy.</i>

Here the adjective is called an OBJECT COMPLEMENT.

6c Position 5:

Occasionally, an adjective follows the noun which it modifies.

E.g. *The chairman asked the **people present** (at the meeting) to express their views.*
*The **boys involved** (in the fight) were sent away to another school.*

This position is used mainly where the adjective is followed by another structure [see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS] such as the prepositional phrases in brackets in the examples above.

NOTE: The adjective is in position 5 after pronouns ending with **-body**, **-one**, and **-thing** [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 3].

E.g. *She hopes to marry **someone rich**.*
*Did you buy **anything nice** at the store?*

6d Position 6:

Another rare position for adjectives is in a VERBLESS CLAUSE.

E.g. ***Sorry!** Very good! Careful!*
Angry and disappointed, the crowd attacked the building.
<formal>

adjective patterns

- Some adjectives are followed by special patterns (compare VERB PATTERNS) which complete their meaning. Here are the most important patterns.

1 ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

1a	afraid of full of	ashamed of proud of	aware of short of	fond of tired of
----	----------------------	------------------------	----------------------	---------------------

E.g. I'm **afraid of** heights.

1b	angry with * bored with	familiar with pleased with	delighted with satisfied with
----	----------------------------	-------------------------------	----------------------------------

E.g. I'm **delighted with** my new camera.

1c	angry at * sorry about different from close to	good at annoyed about distant from due to	hopeless at worried about free from similar to
----	---	--	---

E.g. I'm **hopeless at** sport.

I'm **worried about** the exams.

Jack is very **different from** his brother.

I live **close to** the station.

*There is a difference between **angry with** and **angry at** or **angry about**: you are **angry with** a person, but you are **angry at** or **about** an action or event.

E.g. I'm angry with Jim. But: I'm angry at what he said.

2 ADJECTIVE + THAT-CLAUSE [see THAT 1]

afraid that sorry that	angry that surprised that	happy that pleased that
---------------------------	------------------------------	----------------------------

E.g. I'm **happy that** you have arrived safely.

2a IT + BE + ADJECTIVE + THAT-CLAUSE

In this pattern, the adjective follows **it** [see IT-PATTERNS 1b]:

certain that important * that necessary * that	clear that likely that possible that	essential * that obvious that true that
--	--	---

E.g. It's **certain that** the parcel arrived safely.

It's **essential that** the parcel (should) arrive safely.

It's **important that** we (should) be there on time.

*With the adjectives marked *, we use the BASIC FORM of the verb, or **should** <mainly G.B.> [see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 6] as in the second and third examples above.

3 ADJECTIVE + TO + VERB

able to afraid to anxious to ashamed to careful to certain to	content to delighted to determined to due to eager to fit to	free to glad to keen to likely to nice to ready to	sure to surprised to thankful to willing to wise to worried to
--	---	---	---

E.g. We are **delighted to meet** you.

The plane is **due to take off** at 7 p.m.

They are **ready to sign** the agreement.

You were **wise to sell** that old car.

3a {IT + BE + ADJECTIVE (FOR . . .) TO + VERB ADJECTIVE + (FOR . . .) TO + VERB}

difficult to impossible to	easy to nice to <informal>	hard to pleasant to
-------------------------------	-------------------------------	------------------------

These adjectives can be used in two related patterns, the first with **it** [see IT-PATTERNS 1a] and the second without **it**.

E.g. {It is difficult to park these big cars.
These big cars are difficult to park.

Before the **to**, we can place a **for**-phrase, containing the subject of the TO-INFITIVE verb (**thief** in the example below).

E.g. {It is easy for a thief to break into this house.
This house is easy for a thief to break into.

NOTE: Some adjectives have the **it**-pattern only:

essential to sad to	strange to lovely to	important to annoying to	necessary to surprising to
------------------------	-------------------------	-----------------------------	-------------------------------

Again, a **for**-phrase can be placed before the TO-INFITIVE.

E.g. It would be lovely (for my wife) to meet you again.

It is important (for a witness) to speak the truth.

adverb

- Adverbs form a large and varied WORD CLASS.
- Adverbs add information to a clause (e.g. about the time or place of an action). Here the adverb is called an ADVERBIAL.
- Adverbs add information to another word, such as an adjective or another adverb. Here the adverb is called a modifier [see MODIFIER AND HEADWORD].

1 Adverbs have many different kinds of meaning. The most common are:

MANNER: e.g. *well**, *hard*, *how**, *fast**, *slowly*, *quickly*

PLACE: e.g. *above**, *up**, *here**, *there**, *upstairs*

TIME: e.g. *now**, *then**, *soon**, *recently**, *afterwards*

DEGREE: e.g. *very**, *much**, *really**, *quite**, *too**, *so**

FREQUENCY (including number of times): e.g. *always**, *never**, *often**,
generally, *sometimes*

1a Other kinds of adverb:

linking: e.g. *firstly*, *therefore**, *however**, *nevertheless* [See LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

comment and attitude: e.g. *actually**, *perhaps*, *surely**, *oddly*, *wisely*

adding and limiting: e.g. *also**, *either**, *else**, *neither**, *only**, *too**

viewpoint: e.g. *mentally*, *morally*, *officially*, *strictly*

LENGTH OF TIME: e.g. *long**, *always**, *never**, *just**

* [These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For *above* see ABOVE AND BELOW; for *up* see UP AND DOWN; for *long* see LONG LONGER LONGEST.]

1b Examples of adverbs:

<i>Our new neighbour greeted us politely.</i>	(manner)*
<i>'How long have you lived here?' she asked.</i>	(place)*
<i>'We arrived only yesterday,' we replied.</i>	(time)*
<i>'Well, I hope you'll be really happy.'</i>	(degree)*
<i>After that we met her quite frequently.</i>	(frequency)*
<i>However, we learned very little about her.</i>	(linking)
<i>Strangely, she never talked about herself.</i>	(comment and attitude)
<i>She talked only about us and the weather.</i>	(adding and limiting)
<i>Personally, I found that annoying.</i>	(viewpoint)
<i>Have you ever met anyone like that?</i>	(length of time)*

* [These types of adverb have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For linking adverbs look up LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

2 Wh-adverbs belong to some of the types listed above:

MANNER	PLACE	TIME	DEGREE	(REASON AND CAUSE)
<i>how</i> <i>however</i>	<i>where</i> <i>wherever</i>	<i>when</i> <i>whenever</i>	<i>how</i> <i>however</i>	<i>(why)</i>

[These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. See also WH-WORDS, and WH-EVER WORDS.]

3 Positions of adverbs

3a There are three main positions for adverbs:

(i) FRONT POSITION – before the subject:

ADVERB + SUBJECT + VERB PHRASE (+ . . .)
E.g. *Occasionally John missed lessons*

(ii) MIDDLE POSITION

either: (a) after the first auxiliary:

FIRST REST OF
SUBJECT + AUXILIARY + ADVERB + VERB PHRASE (+ . . .)
E.g. *John has occasionally missed lessons*

or: (b) after *be* as a finite verb:

SUBJECT + BE + ADVERB (+ . . .)
E.g. *John is occasionally absent from lessons*

or: (c) if there is no auxiliary, before the finite verb (other than BE):

SUBJECT + ADVERB + FINITE VERB (+ . . .)
E.g. *John occasionally missed lessons*

(iii) END POSITION – at the end of the clause:

SUBJECT + VERB PHRASE (+ . . .) + ADVERB
E.g. *John missed lessons occasionally*

But for each type of adverb, one position is the most common.

3b The most common positions for adverbs:

type of adverb	typical position	example
manner:	end	<i>She dances very gracefully.</i>
place:	end	<i>Shall I drive you home?</i>
time:	end	<i>I'll be seeing you again tomorrow.</i>
degree:	middle	<i>We are thoroughly enjoying the party.</i>
frequency:	middle	<i>Guy (has) often fished in that lake.</i>
linking:	front	<i>They arrived. . . So we left.</i>
comment or attitude:	front	<i>Fortunately no one noticed.</i>
adding or limiting:	middle	<i>Cora can also play the piano.</i>
viewpoint:	front	<i>Officially, Ivan was the boss.</i>
length of time:	middle	<i>He hadn't long left school.</i>

3c Adverbs as modifiers almost always come before the word they modify (an exception is ENOUGH). Such adverbs are generally adverbs of degree [see DEGREE]:

adverb + adjective	adverb + adverb	adverb + preposition
very <i>broad</i>	too <i>soon</i>	just <i>after</i>
adverb + determiner	adverb + pronoun	adverb + conjunction
too <i>much</i>	so <i>few</i>	right <i>until</i>

4 Forms of adverbs

Adverbs are of three formal kinds:

(I) Most adverbs are formed by adding **-ly** to an adjective [see **-LY**].

E.g. *slow ~ slowly, thorough ~ thoroughly.*

(II) A number of adverbs have the same form as adjectives. The most important are:

hard, straight, far, near, early, late, fast, east, west, north, south, left, right, just, opposite, pretty, direct, little, backward, forward, well

(III) Many of the most common adverbs are not related to adjectives at all. They include PREPOSITIONAL ADVERBS such as **in** and **about**, and also such words as:

so, too, there, here, as, quite, very, now

4a Many adverbs have COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms [see MORE / (THE) MOST, -ER / -EST].

E.g. *early ~ earlier ~ earliest*
well ~ better ~ best
easily ~ more easily ~ most easily

adverbial

► An adverbial is a part of a CLAUSE which gives extra information about the time, place, manner, etc. of the event described by the rest of the clause.

1 Some facts about adverbials

1a An adverbial can usually be omitted; it adds information to a complete clause.

E.g. *Paul plays tennis.*
Paul plays tennis every week.

1b Most adverbials can change their position in the clause.

E.g. *Paul plays tennis every week.*
Every week, Paul plays tennis.

1c We can add more than one adverbial to a clause:

adverbial		adverbial(s)
Every week	<i>Paul plays tennis</i>	with his friend Tim.
Every week	<i>Paul plays tennis</i>	at the club with his friend Tim.

1d Adverbials answer such questions as 'How?', 'Where?', 'When?', 'Why?', 'How far?', 'How much?', 'How often?', 'How long?'.

2 Meanings of adverbials

[To find out about the most common meanings of adverbials, see: DEGREE, DISTANCE, FREQUENCY, INSTRUMENT, LENGTH OF TIME, MANNER, MEANS, MOTION, PLACE, PURPOSE, REASON AND CAUSE, TIME.]

2a [Some other meanings of adverbials are listed under ADVERB 1 and ADVERBIAL CLAUSE 2, 2a.]

3 Forms of adverbials

An adverbial can be:

(i) a single word.

E.g. *Ella visited us yesterday*. [see ADVERB]

(ii) a phrase.

E.g. *Ella visited us on Friday*. [see PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

Ella visited us very recently. [see PHRASE]

Ella visited us last year. [see NOUN PHRASE]

(iii) a clause.

E.g. *Ella visited us before she flew to Japan*. [see ADVERBIAL CLAUSE]

4 Positions of adverbials

4a [For details of the positions of adverbs, see ADVERB 3.]

4b Adverbial phrases and clauses can go in the same positions as adverbs:

(i) FRONT POSITION

E.g. *Because of the strike, the teachers have stopped work*.

(ii) MIDDLE POSITION

E.g. (a) *The teachers have, because of the strike, stopped work*. *

<rare>

(b) *The teachers are, in spite of the strike, working normally*. *

<rare>

(c) *The teachers, because of the strike, stopped work*.

(iii) END POSITION.

E.g. *The teachers have stopped work because of the strike*.

* Adverbial phrases and clauses do not usually go in middle position as in (ii)(a) or (b) above. But unlike most adverbs, they can go before the first auxiliary or *be*. This is called *middle position* too.

E.g. *The teachers, because of the strike, have stopped work*.

4c Some adverbial phrases and clauses can go in all three positions, like *because of the strike* in the examples above. But some adverbials cannot be moved.

E.g. *She sings very well*. (end position only)

4d [For more examples of the positions of adverbial clauses, see ADVERBIAL CLAUSE 3.]

4e As a general rule:

(I) By far the most common types of adverbial are adverbs and prepositional phrases.

(II) By far the most common position for adverbials is end position.

(III) When more than one adverbial is at end position, we prefer to place shorter adverbials (especially one-word adverbs) before longer adverbials.

E.g. *I phoned her yesterday at half past two*.
 | adverb | + | prepositional phrase |

Cora went to the store to buy some vegetables.
 | prepositional phrase | + | clause |

(IV) When more than one adverbial is at end position, place adverbials of manner or means before adverbials of place, and adverbials of place before adverbials of time, i.e. The preferred order of adverbials is 'M P T', with the letters in alphabetical order.

'M' stands for MANNER, and MOTION (OR MOVEMENT).

'P' stands for PLACE, and

'T' stands for TIME, including FREQUENCY and LENGTH OF TIME.

E.g. *Please sit quietly on the floor*. (M + P)

Did you meet anyone in town yesterday? (P + T)

They argued violently for forty minutes. (M + T)

(V) If you write an adverbial in front position, you can separate it from the rest of the clause by a comma.

E.g. *To my knowledge, no one has borrowed your pen*.

Always use the comma when the adverbial is a phrase or a clause.

(VI) An adverbial phrase or clause is rarely used in middle position. If it is, we separate it from the rest of the clause by two commas.

E.g. *Elephants, on the whole, are friendly animals*.

You can, if you prefer, arrive a day later.

4f These rules are only rough. We can change the order of the adverbials for special emphasis. On the whole, the adverbial with the most important information should be placed at the end.

adverbial clause

1 Adverbial clauses are SUBORDINATE CLAUSES which act as an ADVERBIAL part of another Clause (i.e. of a MAIN CLAUSE). They can answer such questions as 'When?', 'Why?', 'If what?', and 'What for?'.

2 Conjunctions which begin adverbial clauses

Most adverbial clauses begin with a CONJUNCTION such as IF, WHEN, and BECAUSE:

meaning	conjunctions which begin the clause
TIME:	after, before, as, once, since, until, when, whenever, while
condition [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE]:	if, unless
CONTRAST:	although, whereas, while
REASON AND CAUSE:	because, since, as
PLACE:	where, wherever

[The conjunctions in the above table have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For **before** see AFTER AND BEFORE.]

- E.g. *Zoe and I once met when we were at school.* (clause of TIME)
I won't know her if we meet again. (CONDITIONAL CLAUSE)
Although Grandpa is over eighty, he is still very active. (clause of CONTRAST)
I bought a new typewriter because the old one was broken. (clause of REASON AND CAUSE)
'Where shall we go for a walk?' 'We can go wherever you like.'
 (clause of PLACE)

NOTE: Some conjunctions contain two or three words:

meaning	conjunctions which begin the clause
TIME:	as soon as, immediately (that), now (that)
condition [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE]:	so long as, provided (that), in case
CONTRAST:	even though
REASON AND CAUSE:	seeing (that)

- E.g. *Now that } you're here, we can enjoy ourselves.*
Now }

2a In addition, adverbial clauses express some less important meanings:

meaning	conjunctions which begin the clause
PURPOSE:	<i>in order to, in order that, so as to, so that</i> <all formal>
RESULT:	<i>so that, so . . . that, such . . . that</i>
comparison of manner [see AS]:	<i>as, as if, as though</i>
proportion:	<i>as . . . (so) *, the . . . the *</i>

E.g. *I left early (so as) to catch the train.* (clause of PURPOSE)
They ignored the young prince, so that he became very angry.
 (clause of RESULT)

*She treats him { as if { as though } } he { 's { were** } } a child.*
 (clause of comparison of manner)

As time passed, so our hopes grew stronger. (clause of proportion)

*The conjunctions of proportion are DOUBLE CONJUNCTIONS [See as 2e].

** [On the choice of **were**, see UNREAL MEANING, WERE 2.]

3 Position of adverbial clauses [see ADVERBIAL 4.]

Adverbial clauses usually go at the end of the main clause, like most examples in 2 above. Most types of adverbial clause (but not result clauses) can also be used in front position.

- E.g. = { *The bus will be waiting at the airport when you arrive.*
 = { *When you arrive, the bus will be waiting at the airport.*
 = { *They finished the game, although the weather was wet.*
 = { *Although the weather was wet, they finished the game.*

4 Nonfinite adverbial clauses

In addition to the FINITE clauses above, NONFINITE CLAUSES can also act as adverbials.

(i) TO-INFITIVE clause: to + Verb . . .

E.g. *The country is working hard to increase food production.*
 (= ' . . . in order to improve . . .') (clause of PURPOSE)

(ii) -ING CLAUSE: Verb-ing . . .

E.g. *Being a teacher, I believe in higher standards of education.*
 (= 'Because I am a teacher . . .') (clause of REASON AND CAUSE)

(iii) PAST PARTICIPLE clause: Verb-ed . . .

E.g. *Taught by Einstein, he became one of the best scientists of his age.*
 (= 'After he was taught . . .') <rather formal> (clause of TIME)

4a 'Reduced' clauses:

Some participle clauses are like finite clauses, except that the subject and finite verb are omitted. In these 'reduced clauses', the conjunction **when** or **after** etc., comes before a participle.

(i) -ING CLAUSE: conjunction + Verb-ing . . .

E.g. **After leaving school**, she worked in an insurance office.
(= ' . . . after she left . . . ')

(ii) PAST PARTICIPLE clause: conjunction + (adverb) + Verb-ed . . .

E.g. **If (firmly) planted in a rich soil**, the tree will grow very quickly.
(= 'If it is (firmly) planted . . . ')

5 Verbless adverbial clauses

'Reduced clauses' can also have no verb [see VERBLESS CLAUSE].

E.g. Old clocks are very valuable **when in good condition**.
(= ' . . . when they are in good condition')

advising, advice

1 In giving advice, these patterns are useful:

If I were you, I'd + Verb . . .

Why { don't you + Verb . . . ?
not + Verb . . . ?

I('d) advise you to + Verb . . . <most formal>

IMPERATIVE <most informal> (E.g. Go! Come!)

2 Examples:



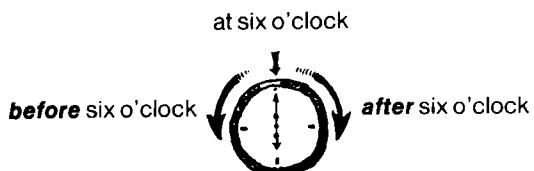
NOTE: You can also use **should** and **ought to** for giving advice. [See SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 3a for further details.]

afraid /ə'freɪd/ (adjective) [see A-WORDS, and ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 1, 2]

after and **before** /'a:ftər/ || 'æftər/, /bə'fɔ:r/ (prepositions, conjunctions or adverbs)

- **After** and **before** have opposite meanings.
- **After** means 'later than . . .'; **before** means 'earlier than . . .'

1 **After** and **before** are prepositions of TIME.



E.g. **After the meal**, we felt sick.
Before 1940, few people owned a telephone.

2 **After** and **before** can introduce CLAUSES. When they do this they are called subordinating conjunctions. [See CONJUNCTION 3.]

2a Position:

The **after**-clause and the **before**-clause can be at the end of the sentence or at the beginning of the sentence.

E.g. (i) **The airport police searched² all the passengers after the plane landed¹.**

Or **After the plane landed¹, the airport police searched² all the passengers.**

(ii) **We cleaned¹ the house before our friends arrived².**

Or **Before our friends arrived², we cleaned¹ the house.**

(¹=first action; ²=second action)

2b Past time:

In the clauses which describe the first action (¹), we can use the PAST PERFECT in place of the PAST SIMPLE.

E.g. (i) **The airport police searched² all the passengers after the plane had landed¹.**

(ii) **We had cleaned¹ the house before my friends arrived².**

NOTE: But the words **before** and **after** are enough to indicate which event happened first, whatever tense you use.

30 after and before

2c Future time:

We use the present form for future time in **after-** and **before-** clauses [see FUTURE 3b].

E.g. *The mother bird will continue to feed her children **after they leave the nest.***

*I'll see you again **before you return home.***

NOTE: In an **after-**clause the Present Perfect can also be used for talking about the future.
E.g. *We will know the results of the election **after the votes have been counted.***

3 **After** and **before** are used as ADVERBS of time. **After*** means: 'after this, after that'. **Before** means: 'before this, before that, before now'. They go at the end of a phrase or sentence.

E.g. *At last the war was over, and not long **after***, the soldiers returned home.*

(**after** = 'after the war was over')

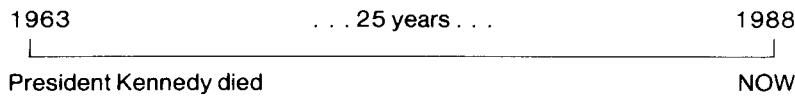
*Haven't I met you **before**?*

(**before** = 'before now')

* Social usage: **after** as an adverb is <informal>; **afterwards** is regarded as more <correct>.

ago /ə'gəʊ/ (adverb)

1 **Ago** is an adverb of TIME. It measures the time from 'now' back to a fixed point. For example:



President Kennedy died 25 years ago. (= 25 years before 'now')

subject	verb in the Past Tense	length of time phrase	ago
Kennedy	died	25 years	ago.

2 **Ago** can follow many different length of time phrases.

E.g. *I got married + a long time*
I can't find my pen. I had it + a minute } **ago.**
The builders started work + ages

NOTE (i): Question form: **How long ago did he leave the University?**

NOTE (ii): The time phrase + **ago** can come first.

E.g. *A few weeks ago, we were complaining about the rain.*

NOTE (iii): Do not use **ago** with the Present Perfect.

E.g. *The doctor has examined her several weeks ago.*

agreeing and disagreeing 31

agreeing and disagreeing

1 agreement

with positive with negative

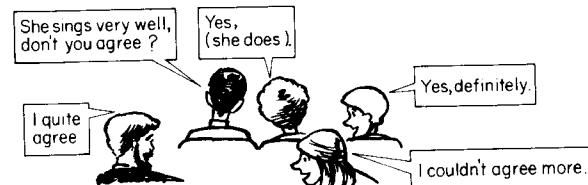
- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| (i) Yes + subject + auxiliary / BE. | (i) No + subject + auxiliary / BE + n't . |
| (ii) Yes, (definitely). | (ii) No, (definitely not). |
| (iii) I quite agree. | (iii) I agree (that . . . not . . .). |
| (iv) I couldn't agree more. | |

disagreement

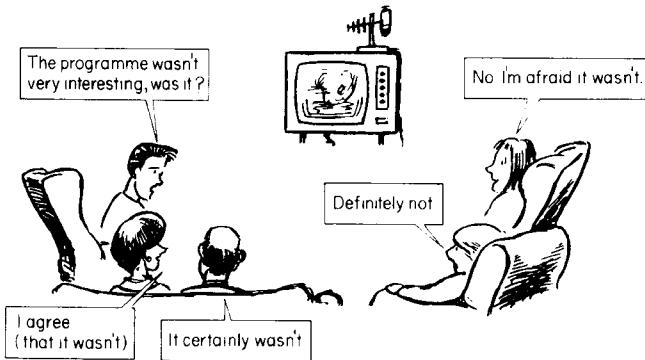
(It is more <polite> to disagree partly than wholly.)

- (i) Yes, but (on the other hand) . . .
- (ii) True, but (then) . . .
- (iii) I'm afraid I disagree (with you).

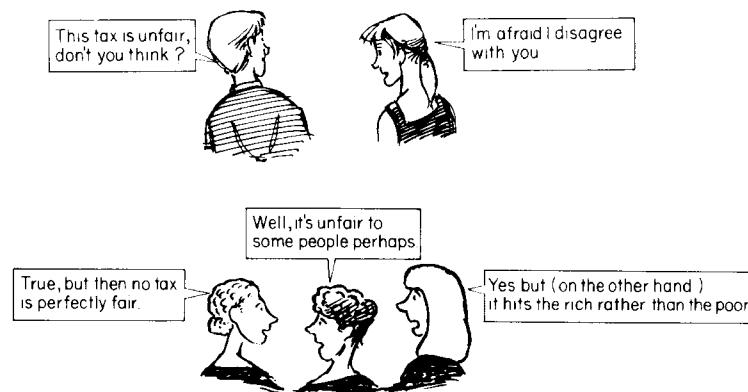
2 Positive agreement:



3 Agreement with a negative:



4 Disagreeing: (It is more <polite> to disagree partly than wholly.)

5 When we want people to agree with us, we often use TAG QUESTIONS like **isn't she?** and **wasn't it?**

NOTE: When asking for agreement, we use a falling tone, not a rising tone, on the tag question (see TAG QUESTION 3a).

agreement

(Also called **concord**) [See also AGREEING AND DISAGREEING]

- Agreement is a matching relation between SUBJECT and VERB (in FINITE clauses).

- The main rule of agreement is simple:

SINGULAR subjects go with SINGULAR verb phrases.

PLURAL subjects go with PLURAL verb phrases.

This rule applies to 3rd Person subjects. But there are some exceptions! [See 2 below.]

1 The rule of agreement

In the Present Tense (3rd Person):

- if the noun is singular, the verb must have an -s.
- if the noun is plural, the verb does not have an -s.

noun	verb
singular	- + -s
plural	+ -s -

E.g. **The carpet needs** cleaning.
The carpets need cleaning.

1a More examples:

subject (SINGULAR)	verb phrase (. . .) + (SINGULAR)
This rose	looks beautiful.
She	does the cooking.
One pear	has been eaten.

subject (PLURAL)	verb phrase (. . .) + (PLURAL)
These roses	look beautiful.
They	do the cooking.
Two pears	have been eaten.

NOTE (i): The noun which marks plural in the subject is the headword of the phrase [see MODIFIER AND HEADWORD]. It is not always the noun next to the verb. In the examples below, **laws** and **chair** are the headwords.

E.g. **The laws of science have** no exceptions.
That chair with the wooden arms belongs to us.

NOTE (ii): Some nouns ending in -s are not plural, e.g. **news, measles, mathematics, billiards**.
E.g. **Measles** is a disease. **Billiards** is a game.

Also, some plural nouns do not end in -s [see IRREGULAR PLURALS]. E.g. **men, women, children**.

NOTE (iii): The singular verb is the form we use when the subject is: (a) uncountable.

E.g. **Milk keeps** children healthy.

or (b) a clause.

E.g. **That he returned the money proves** his honesty.

34 agreement

- 1b** Verbs have singular and plural forms only in the PRESENT TENSE: **looks** ~ **look**, **goes** ~ **go**, etc. In the PAST TENSE there is no agreement problem, because the verb does not change.
 E.g. **The rose looked** beautiful. **The roses looked** beautiful.
- 1c** But the verb **be** has singular and plural forms in both the Present Tense and the Past Tense. It must follow the rule of agreement in the Past Tense too.

singular	plural	
E.g. The box is empty. The box was empty.	The boxes are empty. The boxes were empty.	(PRESENT) (PAST)

- 1d** MODAL AUXILIARIES like CAN, WILL, and WOULD do not have singular and plural forms. They are the same for all subjects.
 E.g. **I can swim.** **She can swim.** **They can swim.**

2 Special problems of agreement

There are some exceptions to the rule of agreement, and sometimes we can choose whether to follow the rule of agreement or not.

- 2a** Agreement with **and** and **or**: Where the subject consists of two or more items joined by AND, the subject itself is plural, and is followed by a plural verb.

E.g. **My husband and I both have** a job.

But two singular noun phrases joined by **(either) . . . or** [see EITHER and OR] are followed by a singular verb phrase. Compare, for example, the following:

I think football and tennis are on the television tonight.

I don't know whether football or tennis is on the television tonight.

NOTE: The rule for **or** is that the verb phrase matches the last of the items joined by **or**.

E.g. **Either the judge or the two witnesses were** wrong.
Either the two witnesses or the judge was wrong.

- 2b** Agreement with quantity words: As subjects, the pronouns **any**, [see SOME AND ANY], EITHER, NEITHER, and NONE sometimes take a singular verb, and sometimes take a plural verb.

E.g. **I don't think** {**any** **either**} **of the winners** {**deserves** **deserve**} **a prize.**

Her sons are grown up, but {**none** **neither**} **(of them)** {**is** **are**} **married.**

The singular verb is preferred in <formal, 'correct'> English. But often, we prefer the plural verb when a strong idea of 'plural' is present, e.g. when **none**, for example, is followed by a phrase like **of them**, containing a plural noun or pronoun.

- 2c** We rarely use nouns such as **number**, **majority**, **plenty**, with a singular verb, in spite of the rule of agreement.

E.g. **A (large) number** {**The majority** **Plenty**} **of the miners** {**was** **were**} **still on strike.**

- 2d** Agreement with group nouns: When singular GROUP NOUNS such as **audience**, **committee**, **family**, **government**, **team**, act as subject, the verb is sometimes plural, especially in <G.B.>.

E.g. **The committee** {**meets** **meet**} **every week.**

It is best to choose the singular verb, except where the idea of 'plural' is strongly suggested.

E.g. **The audience were** clapping and waving **their arms** in excitement.

Here **was** would be odd because of the 'plural idea' expressed by **their arms**.

alike, alive [see A-WORDS]**all** /ɔ:l/ (determiner, pronoun, or adverb)

- **All** (as a DETERMINER OR INDEFINITE PRONOUN) is a QUANTITY WORD.
- **All** contrasts with **some** [see SOME AND ANY].
- **All** has similarities with **EVERY** and **BOTH**.

1 Positions of **all**

All can appear in many different positions in a sentence.

1a Position 1: **all + of + noun phrase or pronoun.**

All of can be followed by:

- (i) a singular countable noun. E.g. **all of the book** *
- (ii) a plural countable noun. E.g. **all of the books**
- (iii) an uncountable noun. E.g. **all of the oil**
- (iv) a personal pronoun. E.g. **all of them**, **all of it**

Other determiners can replace **the**: e.g. **all of our friends**, **all of that soup**.

*With a singular countable noun, **all (of)** is not common. We prefer **the whole** [see WHOLE].

1b Position 2: **all** + noun phrase.

We can omit **of** from Position 1 (i)–(iii). For example:

- (i) singular countable noun: **all the book** **, **all this tree** **
 - (ii) plural countable noun: **all the books**, **all our friends**
 - (iii) uncountable noun: **all the oil**, **all that soup**
- ** [See * above.]

But we cannot omit **of** before a personal pronoun: **all them**.

Instead, we can place the pronoun before **all: them all**.

(This is 'position 3' below.)

NOTE: The **of** must be omitted if the noun has no determiner.

Instead of: **All of roses** are beautiful.

we must say: **All roses** are beautiful.

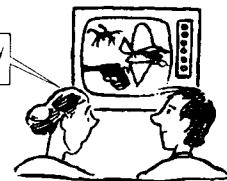
1c Position 3: personal pronoun + **all**.

We place **all** after a personal pronoun whether the pronoun is subject, object, etc.

E.g. (i) **We all enjoyed the play.**

(ii) **A Happy Christmas to you all.**

(iii) Once you've seen one cowboy film, you've seen them all!

**1d** Position 4: noun phrase or pronoun + . . . **all**.

When the noun phrase or pronoun is a SUBJECT, we can often separate **all**, and place it after BE or the AUXILIARY VERB.

E.g. **You are all welcome.**

The children are all playing in the garden.

This snow will all have melted soon.

1e Position 5: pronoun.

As a pronoun, **all** can stand on its own. The **of**-phrase is omitted if its meaning is known [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN].

E.g. 'Would you like to buy anything else?' 'No, thank you. That's all.' (= 'That's all that I want')

NOTE (i): **All** is an adverb of DEGREE in the following examples.

Jim lives all alone. (= 'completely')

They sell their goods all over the world. (= 'everywhere')

If you cut these plants down, they grow all the more.

NOTE (ii): IDIOMS with **all**

all but = 'almost'; **all day**, etc. [see LENGTH OF TIME];

all over [see OVER AND UNDER]; **all right** – an adverb meaning 'O.K.';

all through [see THROUGH].

almost and **nearly**

/'ɔ:lmoʊst/, /'nɛərlɪ/ (adverbs)

► **Almost** and **nearly** are adverbs of DEGREE with the same meaning [see DEGREE].

► **Almost** is more < common > than **nearly**.

E.g. **This bottle is { almost nearly } full.**



(full)

This bottle is { almost nearly } empty.



(empty)

1 **Almost** and **nearly** can go before adjectives, adverbs, and quantity words.

E.g. **My bicycle is almost new.**

She plays the violin almost perfectly.

We got married nearly forty years ago.

2 When **almost** and **nearly** modify a verb, we place them in middle position, before the main verb [see ADVERB 3c].

E.g. **We were late, and nearly missed the train.**

She has a bad cold: she's almost lost her voice.

NOTE (i): When there is a negative auxiliary, **almost** / **nearly** must go before it.

E.g. **When I heard the tickets were £25 each, I almost didn't go to the theatre.**

NOTE (ii): **Almost** and **nearly** cannot always be used in the same place. For example, we generally use **almost**, not **nearly**, in front of **like**.

E.g. **It was { almost nearly } like a dream.**

alone [See A-WORDS]**along** /ə'lɒŋ/ (preposition or adverb)

1 **Along** is a PREPOSITION OF MOTION (OR MOVEMENT) OR PLACE meaning 'from one end towards the other end'. [Compare ACROSS.]

E.g. **Taxis often come along this street.**

I love to see trees along the sides of the road.



Along as a PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB has a meaning similar to 1 above, but the noun phrase after it is omitted.

E.g. **The soldiers marched along, singing noisily.**

Along is also used in the idiom **along with** ('in company with').

E.g. **We're going for a ride. Why don't you come along with us?**

We often omit the **with** + noun phrase.

E.g. *Why don't you come **along**?*

already, still, and yet /ɔ:l'redi/, /stɪl/, /jet/ (adverbs)

- These three TIME adverbs all refer to time before 'now', up to 'now'.
- They are often used with the PERFECT or PRESENT form of the verb (simple or PROGRESSIVE).

1 Meanings

Already = 'sooner than expected'.

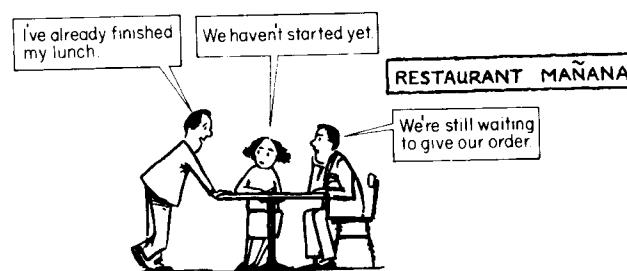
Yet = 'before now' (**yet** is the form we usually use instead of **already** after negatives and in questions).

Still = 'continuing later than expected'.

All these adverbs express an element of surprise.

1a Examples:

(i)



(ii) 'I suppose you've **already** passed your driving test?' 'No, I haven't even learned to drive properly **yet**. I'm **still** having lessons.'

2 **Already / yet / still** with the Present Perfect

2a **Already / yet / still** with the Present Perfect refers to a past action with a present result.

E.g. (i) 'Is Joy in her office?' 'No, she's **already** gone home.'

(ii)



2b **Yet** is used after a negative or in questions with the Present Perfect. [See SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS 2b.]

E.g. (i)



(ii) '**Have you done your homework yet?**' 'No, I've started it, but I **haven't** yet **finished** it.'

NOTE: If we expect a 'yes' answer to the question, we use **already** instead of **yet**.
E.g. '**Have you done your homework already?**'

2c **Still** can be used before the negative auxiliary **hasn't** / **haven't** + past participle.

E.g.



Notice that, in these two sentences, negative + **yet** and **still** + negative have almost the same meaning, but example (ii) emphasises the point and suggests that you are annoyed about it.

E.g. (i) **I haven't** passed my driving test **yet**.

(ii) **I still haven't** passed by driving test.

NOTE (i): In <U.S.>, the Past Simple is often preferred to the Present Perfect with **already** and **yet**.

E.g. **Have you already finished those letters?** <G.B.>
Did you already finish those letters? <U.S.>

NOTE (ii): **Already / still / yet** are also used with the Past Perfect.

E.g. **By the age of 19, Pat had already taken part in several national competitions. But she hadn't yet won any prizes.**

3 **Already / yet / still** with the Present Simple or Present Progressive

3a **Already** and **yet** can go with the Present Simple or Progressive with reference to a present state of affairs.

E.g. 'Would you like to meet my boss?' 'No thanks, I **already** know him.'

Are you going to bed already? It's only nine o'clock.

40 already, still, and yet

already, still, and yet 41

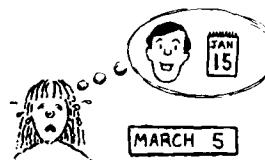
3b Yet is used after negatives and in questions.

E.g. **Is the breakfast ready yet?**

'Is your son working yet?' 'No, he doesn't yet have a job.'

3c Still is also used with the Present Simple and Progressive referring to a continuing state of affairs.

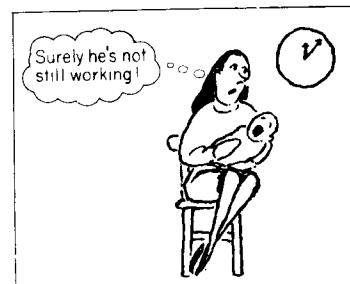
E.g. (i) **My father is still { working. } at work.** He hasn't retired yet.



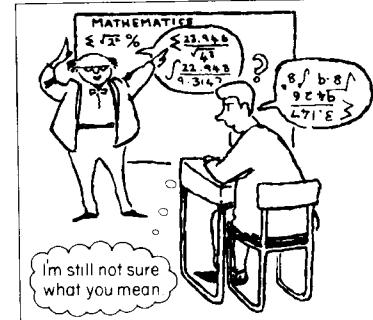
(iii) Are you **still** here? I thought you had gone home a long time ago.

If the clause is negative and the auxiliary or main verb is a part of BE, **still** can be placed before or after the negative word.

E.g. (i)



(ii)



NOTE (i): The usual negative form of sentences with **still** replaces **still** by **not / n't + any more**.

E.g. 'Does Mr. Marin **still** live in that house?'

{ 'Yes, he **still** lives there.'

{ 'No, he doesn't live there **any more**.'

NOTE (ii): **still** and **yet** can also be linking adverbs, and in this case they usually appear in front position. [See LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS]

4 The basic sentence types with the Perfect form of the verb

	positive statement	negative statement	positive question	negative question
already	I've already finished!	*	Have you already finished?	Haven't you already finished? <rare>
yet		I haven't finished yet .	Have you finished yet ?	Haven't you finished yet ?
still	**	I still haven't finished.	**	Have you still not finished?

* A negative sentence 'You haven't finished **already**!' is possible, but it has the effect and intonation of a question [see YES-NO QUESTION 4].

E.g. You haven't finished **already** (have you)?

If you say this, it means that you can hardly believe that the statement is true!

** A positive statement or question with **still** is possible, but not with the Perfect form of the verb [see 5c below].

5 Position (of already, still and yet)

5a already:

– before the verb.

E.g. I **already** know how to get there.

– before the participle.

E.g. I have **already** seen that film.

– at the end of the sentence.

E.g. I know how to get there **already**.

I have seen that film **already**.

5b yet:

– at the end of the sentence.

E.g. Britain hasn't had a communist government **yet**.

– in a negative statement, **yet** can go before the participle.

E.g. Britain hasn't **yet had** a communist government.

5c still:

– immediately after the subject.

E.g. We **still** haven't done the shopping.

– except when the auxiliary is part of the verb **be**. In this case **still** follows it.

E.g. We **were still** waiting for the plane three hours later.

also /'ɔ:lsoʊ/ (adverb)

Also is an adverb meaning 'in addition', 'as well', 'too'.

- E.g. *Eva is captain of the women's hockey team. She **also** plays tennis for her college.*
 (**also** = 'in addition to being captain of the women's hockey team.')

although /ɔ:lðəʊ/ (subordinating conjunction)

Although introduces an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE expressing a CONTRAST with the idea in the main clause.

- E.g. *Although this computer is quite cheap, it is one of the best machines on the market.*

[See ADVERBIAL CLAUSE, CONTRAST, LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

always /'ɔ:lweɪz/ (adverb)

- **Always** is an adverb of 1. FREQUENCY, and 2. LENGTH OF TIME.
- **Always** is generally used in middle position [see ADVERB 3] in the clause.

- 1 Frequency: **always** = 'on all occasions', 'at all times'.

- E.g. *The bus is **always on time**.*
*Meg and Philip **always visit** their parents on Sunday.*
 (= 'They visit them every Sunday').

- 1a With the PRESENT PROGRESSIVE form (**be** + **always** + Verb-ing) **always** means 'continually'. We often use it to describe a habit we don't like.

- E.g. *She's **always smoking** and coughing. Ugh!*
*I'm **always losing** my glasses.*

- 2 Length of time: **always** = 'for all time'.

- E.g. *Have you **always lived** in the country? (= 'all your life')*
*Marion and I will **always be** close friends.*

am /æm/ (contraction: 'm / m/) [See BE]

Am is the form of the verb **be** used after *I*.

- E.g. *I am* } coming.
I'm }

Question: **Where am I?**

NOTE: The negative question contraction (especially in <G.B.>) is **aren't I?**

E.g. *Why **aren't I** on the list?*

among, amongst [See BETWEEN AND AMONG]**amount** [See QUANTITY WORDS, MEASURING]**an** /æn/ (weak form /ən/ is usual) (determiner)

An is the form of **a** (the indefinite article) used before vowel sounds. [See CONSONANTS AND VOWELS.]

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| E.g. <i>an /ən/ apple</i> | <i>an angry fairy</i> |
| <i>an /ən/ egg</i> | <i>an excellent idea</i> |
| <i>an /ən/ idea</i> | <i>an interesting book</i> |
| <i>an /ən/ orange</i> | <i>an open door</i> |
| <i>an /ən/ uncle</i> | <i>an ugly face</i> |

NOTE (i): Words like **European**, **union**, **university**, **used**, **useful** are pronounced with a consonant sound at the beginning (/ju:/), so the form **a** is used with them: **a used car** /ju:zd ka:/.

NOTE (ii): In words like **hour**, **honest**, **honour**, **honourable**, **hourly**, on the other hand, the '**h**' is silent. They are pronounced with a vowel at the beginning, and so the form **an** is used with them.

E.g. *an hour /ən 'aʊəf/*; *an honest witness /ən 'ɒnəst . . ./*.

and /ænd/ (weak form /ənd/ or /ən/ or /n/ is usual) (coordinating conjunction) [See COORDINATION]

- The special symbol & is sometimes used for **and**.
- **And** expresses the general idea of 'addition'.

- 1 An example of **and** used to express 'addition':
*Jane received two letters **and** a postcard.*

2 **And** can also have more particular meanings of:

(a) time ('and then').

E.g. *She washed and wiped the dishes.*
(= she washed the dishes **and then** wiped them.)
He felt in his pocket and pulled out a key.

(b) reason ('and so').

E.g. *It rained hard, and we all got wet.*
(= '... **and so** we all got wet')

(c) condition ('if').

E.g. *You scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours.*
(A saying which means 'If you help me, I'll help you'.)

NOTE (i): In <speech>, we sometimes use **and** in place of **to** (before an infinitive).

E.g. *I'll try **and** help you.* (= 'I'll try **to** help you')

NOTE (ii): **And** in expressions like **up and down**, **in and out**, **round and round**, **again and again**, **on and on**, expresses the meaning of 'repeating' or 'continuing'.

E.g. *There are thousands and thousands of books in the library.*

NOTE (iii): [To find out about agreement when **and** is used in and between noun phrases see AGREEMENT 2a.]

animals

► Nouns describing animals have various plural forms.

1 Most nouns describing animals have regular plurals.

E.g. *a cow ~ two cows one snake ~ some snakes*
an ant ~ many ants that fox ~ those foxes

2 Some animal words have irregular plurals [see IRREGULAR PLURAL 1–4].

E.g. *a goose ~ two geese /gi:s/ one mouse ~ some mice /mais/*

3 Some animal words have no change in the plural ('zero plurals') [see IRREGULAR PLURAL 4a].

E.g. *a sheep ~ two sheep one deer ~ several deer*

another /'a'nʌðə/ (determiner or pronoun)

► **Another** has two meanings: (i) 'one more / additional'.
(ii) 'a different one'.

1 **Another** (determiner) + noun or pronoun.

E.g. *They have two dogs, and now they want another* { **dog**.
one.
(= 'one more / additional dog')

This hotel is too expensive. Let's find another place to stay.
(= 'a different one')

1a **Another** can come before a number or some other expression of quantity or measure.

E.g. *Can I have another two ice-creams, please?*
(= 'two more ice-creams')

In another 50 years, the world will be quite different.
(= 'after 50 more years')

2 **Another** (pronoun) has no following noun or pronoun.

E.g. *You've finished your drink. Have another.*
(= 'one more drink')

answers [See SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES 1]

any [See SOME AND ANY]

anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere [See SOME-Words AND ANY-Words]

anyway /'enwei/ (adverb)

1 **Anyway** is an <informal> linking adverb [see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS] meaning 'in any case'.

E.g. 'Mummy, can I have that doll for my birthday?' 'No. It's too expensive.
Anyway, you have enough dolls already.'

2 In end position, **anyway** can also mean 'in any case', but here it is not always a linking adverb.

E.g. *I don't care what you say, I'm going to do it **anyway**.*

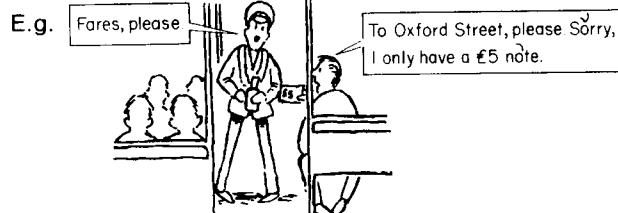
apart from /ə'pa:t frəm/ (preposition)

Apart from is a preposition meaning 'except for'.

E.g. No one knew that one of the aircraft's engines had failed, **apart from** the pilot.

apologies

- 1 When we apologise, we 'say sorry' for something we should not have done. Intonation is important when we apologise, as you will see in the examples below.
- 1a To apologise for something not very important, e.g., not having any change, say **sorry**.



- 1b To apologise for something more serious, you can say:



* As these examples show, we sometimes put stress on the auxiliary verb or the verb **be**. This makes the apology more emphatic.

- 1c A <more formal> apology:

'I'd like to apologise for what I said last night.'

'That's O.K. Forget it.'

'I apologise for leaving school without your permission.'

'Well, don't let it happen again.'

- 1d A formal written apology:

We **regret that**, because of a typing error, you were sent a supply of new **boots**, instead of new **books**. We sincerely apologise for any inconvenience this may have caused.

2 Patterns:

I'm (really) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\text{very}) \\ (\text{extremely}) \\ (\text{terribly}) \\ (\text{so}) \end{array} \right\}$ sorry $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\text{for} + \{\text{noun phrase}\}) \\ (\text{Verb-ing} \dots) \\ (\text{that} + \text{clause}) \end{array} \right\}$

*I
We* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\text{'d like to}) \text{ apologise} \\ (\text{Verb-ing} \dots) \end{array} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\text{noun phrase}) \\ (\text{Verb-ing} \dots) \end{array} \right\}$

*I
We* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{regret that} + \text{clause} \end{array} \right\}$

apposition

- Apposition is a relation between two NOUN PHRASES which describe the same thing, person, etc. One of the phrases is a modifier of the other [see MODIFER AND HEADWORD].

1 Examples of apposition:

Rosa is married to $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Charles Bell, a teacher.} \\ \text{a teacher, Charles Bell.} \end{array} \right\}$

I live in Aswan, a town in the south of Egypt.

The next train, the 10.45 to Dover, leaves from Platform 14.

NOTE: Usually the phrases in apposition are joined by a comma (,).

are is the 3rd person plural present form of BE.

aren't is the negative form of **are**. [See BE 1c]

around [See ABOUT AND AROUND]

articles [See also A OR AN, THE, ZERO ARTICLE]

- The articles are **a** /ə/, **an** /ən/ (indefinite article), and **the** /ðə/ /ði/ (definite article).
- Articles are DETERMINERS.

48 articles

1 Using the articles

The can be used before all COMMON NOUNS, i.e. SINGULAR and PLURAL, countable or uncountable [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS].
A / an can be used only with singular countable nouns:

countable singular	countable plural	uncountable (singular)
the girl a girl	the girls # girls	the milk # milk

1a We do not put **a** / **an** in front of plural or uncountable nouns, because **a** means 'one'. When a noun has no article or determiner before it, we call this a ZERO ARTICLE.

1b NAMES (= proper nouns) do not usually have articles.

E.g. **the Paris**, **a Paris**.

2 Singular **a** / **an** and plural **some** / **any**

Some and **any** [see SOME AND ANY 1] are often used as the plural of **a** / **an**.

E.g. **Would you like a banana?**
Would you like some /səmɪ/ bananas?
Would you like any bananas?

NOTE (i): You can say **some** when you are offering. You can say **any** when you are asking a question for information [see YES-NO QUESTION].

NOTE (ii): [To find out how to choose between zero article and **some**, see ZERO ARTICLE 2.]

3 Word order

The article is usually the first word in a NOUN PHRASE:

the } + number + adjective + noun
a / an }

E.g. **the third floor**, **the three wise men**
a beautiful picture, **a fine old Dutch painting**

3a Only a few words go before **a** / **an** or **the** in a noun phrase. ALL, BOTH, and HALF go before **the**; QUITE, RATHER [see QUITE AND RATHER], SUCH, and WHAT go before **a** / **an**:

all / both / half **+ the** } **quite / rather / such / what / half** **+ a / an** } + (other modifiers) + noun

E.g. **all the men** **half the loaf** **such a pity** **quite a risk**
both the men **half a loaf** **what a pity** **rather a risk**

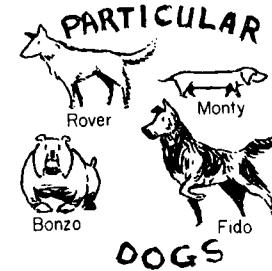
4 Meanings of the articles

Notice that all the articles can have both particular meanings and general meanings.

4a Particular meanings:

The following examples refer to particular or specific dogs:

- (i) **She keeps dogs for breeding.**
- (ii) **I would like to have a dog as a pet.**
- (iii) **Did you take the dog for a walk?**



In examples (i)–(iii), **dogs**, **a dog**, and **the dog** mean something different from one another.

A (indefinite article) means any one of a kind or group: **a dog** in (ii) means any dog – it is not possible to say which.

The (definite article) means one(s) which the speaker and hearer know about: **the dog** in (iii) means a dog which the speaker and hearer know about.

[For more details and examples of the particular meanings of the articles, see ZERO ARTICLE A OR AN 3a–e and THE 3a–f.]

4b General meanings:

In contrast, the following refer to the whole class of dogs in general:

- (iv) **Dogs are man's best friends.**
- (v) **A dog is man's best friend.**
- (vi) **The dog is man's best friend.**



[For details of how to use the articles to refer to things in general, see ZERO ARTICLE 3, A OR AN 3f, and THE 3g.]

as /æz/ (weak form:/əz/) (adverb, conjunction, or preposition)

► You can always use the weak form /əz/.

1 As...as in comparisons [see COMPARISON 3].**1a Forms:**

as + {adjective
adverb + (...) **as** + {noun phrase
{many } {clause
much } {adjective e.g. **necessary / possible / usual**
adverb e.g. **ever**

- E.g. (i) **John is (almost) as tall as his father.** (**as** + adjective + **as** + noun phrase)
(ii) **Please come as quickly as you can.** (**as** + adverb + **as** + clause)
(iii) **As many as five thousand people attended the meeting.** (**as many as** + noun phrase)
(iv) **I'll do as much as possible.** (**as much as** + adjective).

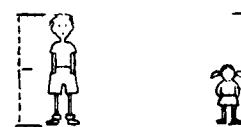
NOTE: If there is an adjective between **as** and the noun, **a / an** must go after the adjective, i.e. **as** + adjective + **a / an** + noun. (Not: **an** + **as** + adjective + noun).

E.g. **The female lion is {as good a } hunter as the male lion.**

1b Quantity expressions before **as...as** [see FRACTIONS and NUMBERS]:

half / two-thirds / twice / } **as** {old
ten times / fifty times } {tall
long } **as ...**

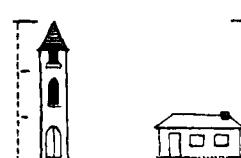
E.g. **This boy is twice as tall as that girl.**



This tree is half as tall as that one.



This tower is three times as tall as that house.

**2 As as a subordinating conjunction**

As introduces different kinds of subordinate clause.

2a As-clauses of COMPARISON [See 1a(ii) above, and COMPARATIVE CLAUSE 2.]

2b There is another type of **as**-clause expressing similarity or comparison.

E.g. **He behaved badly, (just) as I thought he would.**

This is an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE, not a comparative clause. **Just** can be added for emphasis. Some people use **like** here instead of **as** [See LIKE 3].

2c As-clauses of TIME

E.g. **As the police arrived, the crowd began to shout angrily.**

I saw the thief (just) as he was leaving the building.

Here we use **as** to connect two events which happened at the same time.

As has a meaning similar to when.

2d As-clauses of reason [See REASON AND CAUSE 2.]

E.g. **As Linda is the eldest child, she has to look after the other children.**

As the weather was fine, we held the party outside.

As here is similar to BECAUSE or SINCE [See SINCE 3].

2e As-clauses of proportion

E.g. **As prices rise, (so) the demand for higher wages will increase.**

As you get older, (so) you become less willing to change your ideas.

As here means 'over the same period of time that . . .'. The **so** which comes at the beginning of the main clause is <formal>, and can be omitted.

2f As-clauses as comment clauses [See COMMENT CLAUSE].

E.g. **As everyone knows, taxes are unpopular.**

Compare: **Everyone knows that taxes are unpopular.**

The meeting, as often happens, became very noisy.

Compare: **It often happens that the meeting becomes very noisy.**

3 As as a preposition

The preposition **as** has two main uses [compare LIKE 2].

3a As expressing COMPARISON (See 1 above.)

E.g. **She sat there as quiet as a mouse.**

Here, **as** comes before a noun phrase. There are many idiomatic comparisons ('similes') of this kind.

E.g. **as good as gold, as white as a sheet, as brave as a lion,**
as black as pitch, as hard as nails, as old as the hills,
as deaf as a post, as poor as a church mouse

NOTE: In these comparisons we sometimes omit the first **as**.

E.g. **She sat there quiet as a mouse.**

3b As expressing the meaning of the verb be:

- E.g. **As your father**, I have a duty to give you advice.
 (= Being your father . . .)
She worked as a model before she got married.
 (i.e. 'She was a model.')

As can come before not only a noun phrase, but an adjective or a PARTICIPLE.

E.g. **The police described him as**

(**a (dangerous) criminal**. (**as** + noun phrase)
(very) dangerous. (**as** + adjective phrase)
having an ugly face. (**as** + Verb-ing . . .)
badly hurt. (**as** + past participle))

Compare: **The police described him to be a dangerous criminal.**

4 Idioms**4a As if, as though** (subordinating conjunctions):

As if and **as though** are used in the same way, to express a comparison with something that may be true or may be imaginary.

- E.g. (i) **It looks as though the weather is improving.**
 (ii) **She treats me as if she hated me.**
 (iii) **She treats me as if I were her servant.**

Example (i) contains the Present Tense form **is** (for something which may be true).

Example (ii) contains the Past Tense form for UNREAL MEANING.

Example (iii) contains the were-form for unreal meaning, [see WERE 2].

4b As well (adverb) means the same as **too** [See TOO 1] and **ALSO**.

- E.g. 'The food is good **at this restaurant**'.
 'Yes, the prices are quite reasonable, **as well**.'

As well is usually used in end position.

4c As well as (preposition) (= 'in addition to')

- E.g. **As well as** being an actor, Morley was a theatre manager, and even wrote his own plays.

4d There are many other idioms containing **as**. Look them up in a dictionary.**asleep, awake, aware** [See A- WORDS]**aspect**

Aspect is the grammatical term we use for the following structures in the VERB PHRASE:

- (i) Perfect aspect: **have** + past participle.

E.g. **We have had dinner.**

- (ii) Progressive aspect (also called 'continuous'): **be** + Verb-ing.

E.g. **We are having dinner.**

- (iii) Perfect Progressive aspect: **have** + **been** + Verb-ing.

E.g. **We have been having dinner.**

Aspect describes the way we look at an action or state, in terms of the passing of time. [See PERFECT, PROGRESSIVE for further details.]

at /æt/ (weak form: /ət/ (preposition))

- **At** is a common preposition with two main meanings. **At** indicates a **position in space** [see 1 below]; and **at** indicates a **point in time** [see 2 below].
- Also, **at** occurs in many other uses and idioms, such as **laugh at, at last** [see 4 below].

1 At = 'at a position in space'

[See PLACE 2a.]

At is used for place, when you cannot use ON or IN [see PLACE 2b], e.g. **at** = 'close to, with a purpose'.



- E.g. (i) **The children were sitting at the table**, doing their homework.

- (ii) **There's someone at the front door**: I heard the bell ring.

- 1a** Notice the frequent use of **at** before the following nouns referring to place or position.

at the beginning, at the end, at the entrance
at the front, at the back, at her side
at the top, at the bottom, at the centre

- 1b** In some common phrases, **the** is omitted.

E.g. **at home, at school, at work**

1c Either **at** or **in** can be used before buildings or names of places.

E.g. **in** {**the airport** **in** {**Tunis**
 at } {**post office** **at** } {**Stratford-on-Avon**

2 At = 'at a position or point in time'

2a **At** is used with expressions of clock time [See (TELLING THE) TIME].

E.g. *The concert starts at 7.30 on Saturday evening.*

2b **At** is also used for other points of time, or 'stages' of the day.

E.g. *at the moment, at lunch time, at midday*

NOTE: Exceptions are uses where **at** refers to a period of time. Here **at** is similar to DURING.

E.g. (i) **at + time:** *At that time, we lived in Lagos.*

(ii) **at + special times of the year:** *at Christmas, at the New Year, at Easter.*

(Here the period can be more than one day.)

(iii) **at night:** *At night, the noise of traffic kept us awake.*

3 At with Numbers

(i) age.

E.g. *Nowadays most people retire at the age of 60.*

(ii) price.

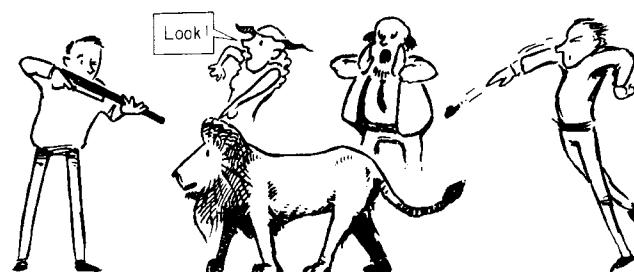
E.g. *You can buy eggs at 80p a dozen.*

(iii) speed.

E.g. *The police arrested him for driving a car at 100 m.p.h. (= miles per hour)*

4 At = 'towards'

At comes before a noun phrase describing the goal of the action: the thing towards which the action of the verb is directed [See PREPOSITIONAL VERB].



E.g. *Smile at the lion, aim at the lion, point at the lion, shout at the lion, throw a stone at the lion.*

NOTE: This use of **at**:

(a) often implies doing something unpleasant.

E.g. *It's rude to point at people, and it's very dangerous to shoot at them!*

(b) does not imply that the goal is reached.

E.g. *You can shoot at the lion, but you probably won't hit him!*

5 At occurs also in many idioms. Look up **at** in a dictionary.

auxiliary verb

- An auxiliary verb is usually before another verb [see MAIN VERB].
- Auxiliary verbs 'help' other verbs to form VERB PHRASES (e.g. **is leaving**, **would help**).



1 These are the auxiliary verbs in English:

primary auxiliary verbs	be have do (these can also be main verbs)
modal auxiliary verbs	{ will { can { may { shall must would { could { might { should ought to* { used to*

[Look up each of these words for further details.]

***Ought** and **used** are less common, and not quite like other MODAL AUXILIARIES, because they are followed by **to**.

2 The forms of auxiliary verbs

2a The primary auxiliary verbs have irregular (i) -S FORMS, (ii) PAST TENSE forms, and (iii) PAST PARTICIPLE forms:

	-S FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
BE:	is	was / were	been
HAVE:	has	had	had
DO:	does/dʌz/	did	done

56 auxiliary verb

bad, badly 57

- 2b** The modal auxiliaries have no -s form at all, and they also have no PARTICIPLE forms and no INFINITIVE.

E.g. **must ~ musts ~ musting ~ to-must**

[For further details of modal auxiliaries, see MODAL AUXILIARY.]

3 Position

If the auxiliary is the first word of the verb phrase:

- (i) To make a negative sentence [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES], add NOT after the auxiliary, or use a negative contraction [see CONTRACTIONS OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES].

E.g. She **will come** → She {**will not**} {**won't**} come.

- (ii) To make a question, put the auxiliary before the subject.

E.g. **She will come** → **Will she come?**

- (iii) We can omit the main verb after an auxiliary if the meaning is clear from the situation.

E.g. 'Will she come tonight?' 'No, she **can't**.'
'I've never been to China. **Have** you?'

This is the exception to the rule that an auxiliary verb requires a main verb.
[See SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES.]

- 3a** The 'empty auxiliary' DO is used for negatives, questions, and to avoid repetition, if there is no other auxiliary.

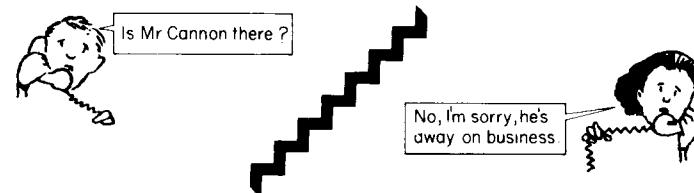
E.g. **I love her.** → **I don't love her.**
→ **Does she love you?** → Yes, she **does**.

- 4** [For more details, look up each auxiliary. See also MODAL AUXILIARY, VERB IDIOMS and VERB PHRASE.]

away /ə'wei/ (adverb of PLACE OR MOTION (OR MOVEMENT)) Also
away from (preposition)

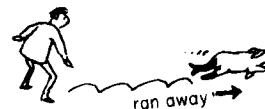
- 1** Place: **away** = 'not here or not there'.

E.g. (i)



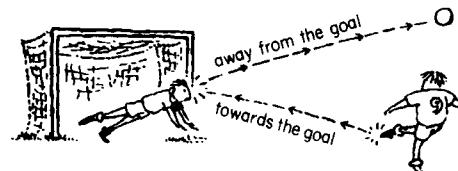
- (ii) **Keep away!** This animal is dangerous.
(iii) I live thirty miles **away**. [See DISTANCE]

- 2 Motion:** **away (from)** = the opposite of 'towards here' or 'towards there'.



E.g. (i) **The dog was afraid, and ran away.**
(ii) **Please go away.** I'm busy.

- 3** **Away from** (preposition) means the opposite of **at** or **towards**.



E.g. **He kicked the ball towards the goalkeeper, who fortunately headed it away from the goal.**

bad, **worse, worst** /bæd/ /wɜː's/ /wɜː'st/ (adjective)

badly, **worse, worst** /'bædli/ /wɜː's/ /wɜː'st/ (adverb)

- **Bad** is an ADJECTIVE and **badly** is an ADVERB.
- **Bad** is the opposite of GOOD.
- **Badly** is the opposite of WELL.
- Both **bad** and **badly** have the irregular forms **worse** as COMPARATIVE and **worst** as SUPERLATIVE.

1 **Bad (adjective)**

E.g. **The bad weather stopped our football game.**
Smoking is bad for your health.
'How was the game?' 'Not **bad**.'

1a Comparative and superlative:

E.g. **The weather this winter is worse than it was last year.**
Sugar is the worst food for your teeth.

1b **Bad at:**

Bad at means 'not able to do it well'. It is the opposite of **good at**.

E.g. I'm **bad at tennis**. I always lose.

2 **Badly (adverb of MANNER)**

E.g. I play football very **badly**, but I play tennis quite **well**.

58 **bad, badly**

be 59

2a Comparative and superlative:E.g. *I play football worse than I play tennis.**In prison, it seemed that the worse you behaved, the worse they treated you.**In times of trouble, old people often suffer (the) worst.*

3 **Bad** and **badly** do not mean 'ill'. There's a difference between: *The child looks ill* (= 'in bad health') and *The future looks bad* (= 'unpleasant'). When **well** is an adjective, its opposite is **ill** (= 'in bad health').

E.g. *James is feeling { well } ill after his operation.*(We don't say: '*He is feeling badly.*')**4 Badly (adverb of DEGREE)**

As an adverb of degree, **badly** means 'very much', and it is used before certain verbs like **want**, **need**, and certain participles like **hurt**, **injured**, **wounded**.

E.g. *Some of the soldiers were badly injured.**This car is so dirty: it badly needs a wash.*

NOTE: As a DEGREE adverb, **badly** does not have the comparative and superlative forms **worse** and **worst**.

basic form [See VERB]

The basic form of the verb is sometimes called the 'base' form. It is the form of the verb which has no ending or change of vowel.

E.g. *take, bring, kill*

The basic form is the verb form you find in a dictionary.

be /bi:/ (weak form /bɪ/) (verb)

► The verb **be** is the most common and most IRREGULAR VERB in English.

1 Forms of the verb be**Be** has 8 different forms:

BASIC FORM	
be	used as the INFITIVE, the IMPERATIVE and the SUBJUNCTIVE
PRESENT forms	
am /æm/, /m/*	with I as subject
are /ɑ:t/, /ə:r/*	with we, you, they , or PLURAL noun phrase as subject
is /iz/	with he, she, it , or SINGULAR noun phrase as subject
PAST forms	
was /wɒz/, /wəz/*	with I, he, she, it , or singular noun phrase as subject
were ** /wɜ:t/, /wə:t/	with we, you, they , or plural noun phrase as subject
PARTICIPLES	
being /bi:ɪŋ/	-ing participle [see -ING / -ING FORM]
been /bi:n/, /bɪn/*	PAST PARTICIPLE

*The second pronunciation is a weak form.

****Were** can be used with singular subject for 'unreal' meaning [see WERE 2].E.g. *If Cleopatra were alive today . . .***1a Examples:**

Basic form.

E.g. *I will be here at ten.*(IMPERATIVE:) *Please be quick.*(SUBJUNCTIVE:) *God be with you.*

Present forms.

E.g. *I am ready to help you now.**It is late. She is ready, but he is not.**You are ready, they are ready, and we are too.*

Past forms.

E.g. *It was late. I was asleep, but Ann was still up.**We were ready before they were. But where were you?*

-ing participle.

E.g. *The road is being widened.*

PAST PARTICIPLE.

E.g. *Where have you been? I've been looking for you.*

- 1b** There are contractions of the Present Tense forms of **be** particularly in <speech>:

I am → <i>I'm</i> /aim/	E.g. <i>I'm sorry I'm late.</i>
you are → <i>you're</i> /jɔ:ə/	E.g. <i>Thanks, you're very kind.</i>
they are → <i>they're</i> /ðeər/	E.g. <i>They're changing the law.</i>
he is → <i>he's</i> /hi:z/	E.g. <i>Where's Dan? He's in bed.</i>
she is → <i>she's</i> /ʃi:z/	E.g. <i>She's writing a letter.</i>
it is → <i>it's</i> /ɪts/	E.g. <i>Look – it's snowing.</i>

NOTE (i): Contractions are not used at the end of a clause or sentence.
E.g. *I'm older than she is.* not: *I'm older than she's.*

NOTE (ii): The contraction 's for *is* is used with many different types of subject.
E.g. *That's my umbrella.* *There's the bus.* *The school's closed.*

- 1c** All the present and past forms of **be**, except **am***, have negative contractions ending in **-n't**:

E.g. is not → <i>isn't</i> /'iznət/	E.g. <i>This pen isn't mine.</i>
are not → <i>aren't</i> /a:'nt/	E.g. <i>Aren't you coming?</i>
was not → <i>wasn't</i> /wɒznt/	E.g. <i>Jim wasn't at home.</i>
were not → <i>weren't</i> /wɜ:n't/	E.g. <i>We weren't noticed.</i>

*In questions in <informal speech>, **aren't** <especially G.B.> is used as a contraction for **am not**. E.g. *Aren't I lucky?*

2 Structures with **be**

- 2a** Main verb **be**:

Be is a MAIN VERB when it is followed by an adjective, a numeral, a noun phrase, or a prepositional phrase (its COMPLEMENT):

subject	+ be	+ complement	
<i>I</i>	'm	<i>hungry.</i>	(adjective)
<i>My son</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>eighteen.</i>	(numeral)
<i>Mrs King</i>	<i>has been</i>	<i>a good friend.</i>	(noun phrase)
<i>We</i>	're	<i>from Japan.</i>	(prepositional phrase)

Here **be** is called a LINKING VERB: it links the subject with a complement which describes it.

NOTE: Other structures with **be** as a main verb are those beginning with **IT** and **THERE**.
E.g. *It's Oscar that she likes best.*

There's someone at the door.

[See IT-PATTERNS 2 and THERE IS THERE ARE.]

2b Auxiliary verb **be**:

Be is an AUXILIARY VERB when it is followed by a PARTICIPLE.

- (i) **be** + -ing form = PROGRESSIVE:

subject	+ be	+ Verb -ing	...
<i>Mr. Joyce</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>waiting.</i>	
<i>My sister</i>	's	<i>studying</i>	<i>physics.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>will be</i>	<i>leaving</i>	<i>tomorrow.</i>

This is the progressive pattern of the verb phrase, and indicates 'temporary' action, or action 'in progress'. [See -ING / -ING FORM.]

- (ii) **be** + past participle = PASSIVE:

subject	+ be	+ past participle	...
<i>The house</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>surrounded</i>	<i>by trees.</i>
<i>Two apples</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>eaten.</i>	
<i>He</i>	's	<i>considered</i>	<i>a great man.</i>

3 Idioms

Be to [see FUTURE 5b, WERE], BE ABLE TO, **be about to** [see FUTURE 5c], **be bound to**, (BE) GOING TO [see FUTURE], **be sure to**.

because /bi'kɒz/ (weak form /bi'kəz/) (subordinating conjunction)

because of /bi'kɒzəv/ (weak form /bi'kəzəv/) (preposition)

Because and **because of** introduce a reason for what is in the main part of the sentence. These are the two structures which occur with **because**:

- (i) BECAUSE + CLAUSE

E.g. *We couldn't play tennis because it was raining.*

- (ii) BECAUSE OF + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. *We couldn't play tennis because of the rain.*

[See REASON AND CAUSE for further details and examples.]

become *becomes, became, becoming, become* /bɪ'kʌm/ (verb)

- **Become** is a LINKING VERB, like **be** and **seem**.
- **Become** has the same forms as **come** (with **be-** added).
- **Become** means that there is a change of state.
- **Become** can be followed by a NOUN PHRASE or by an ADJECTIVE (as COMPLEMENT).

E.g. *Before you **become a doctor**, you have to study for six years in a medical school.*

*He suddenly **became ill**, and died shortly afterwards.*

*Ruth and her new neighbour soon **became friends**.*

being, been are the -ing participle (see -ING / -ING FORM) and the PAST PARTICIPLE forms of the verb **be** [See BE].**before** [See AFTER AND BEFORE]**behind** [See (IN) FRONT OF AND BEHIND]**below** [See ABOVE AND BELOW]**beside** /bɪ'sайд/ (preposition)

- 1 **Beside** means 'by' or 'at the side of'. It is a preposition of PLACE.



E.g. (i) *Why don't you sit {beside } me?*

(ii) *Lord and Lady Mildew stood **beside one another** as they shook hands with the guests.*

besides /bɪ'sаіdz/ (preposition or adverb)

- 1 **Besides** (preposition) means 'in addition to', 'apart from'.

E.g. ***Besides the captain and the crew**, there were fifty passengers on the ship.*

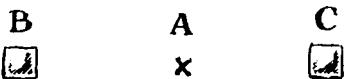
*Olga is a wonderful woman: **besides writing books**, she runs a farm and looks after her six children.*

- 2 **Besides** is also a linking adverb in < spoken English >. In front position, **besides** means 'moreover, anyway'. It adds another point to an argument.

E.g. *Moya didn't want to go out for a walk. The weather was wet and miserable. **Besides**, she had a headache.*

best, better are the SUPERLATIVE and COMPARATIVE forms of GOOD and WELL.**between** and **among** /bɪ'twi:n/, /ə'mʌŋ/ (prepositions)

- 1 **Between** is a preposition of PLACE AND TIME



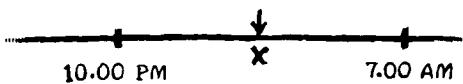
E.g. *A is **between B and C**.*

- (i) Place



E.g. *The river flows **between** two mountains.*

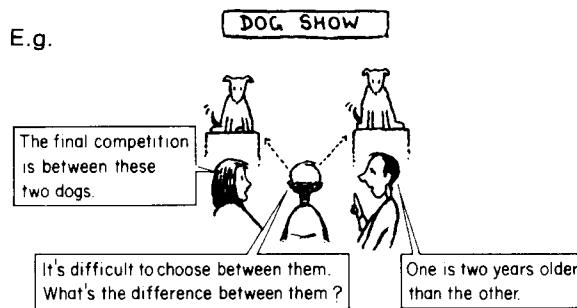
- (ii) Time The Murder



E.g. *The murder must have taken place **between** 10 p.m. and 7 a.m., when everyone was asleep.*

- 1a In addition, ***between*** is used after words like ***difference***, ***divide***, ***choose*** which involve two people or things.

E.g.



NOTE: Occasionally we use ***between*** (or ***in between***) as an adverb.
E.g. Tall cliffs rose on both sides, with a narrow stretch of water (*in*) ***between***.

2 Choosing between *between* and *among*

- 2a ***Among*** is an adverb of PLACE like ***between***, but it always introduces more than two people, things, etc. For example:

a village ***between*** two lakes



means that there are two lakes only.

a village ***among*** lakes



means that there are more than two lakes.

NOTE (i): Some people consider it is not correct to use ***between*** for more than two people or things. So they will say:

E.g. The King divided his kingdom ***between*** his two children.
But: The King divided his kingdom ***among*** his three children.

NOTE (ii): ***Among*** also has a more abstract meaning, when we are talking about members of a group.

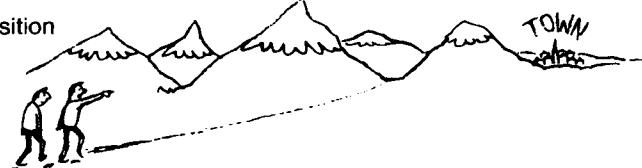
E.g. When you are ***among*** friends, you can say what you like.

NOTE (iii): ***Amongst*** is a <rarer> form of ***among***. <mainly G.B.>.

beyond /bɪ'jɒnd/ (preposition or adverb)

Beyond means 'on the other / far side (of something)'.

1 Preposition



E.g. The nearest town is ***beyond*** those mountains.

NOTE: ***Beyond*** can be used in an abstract way.

E.g. This poetry is very difficult: it is quite ***beyond*** me. (= 'I can't understand it.')

2 Adverb <rare>

E.g. The house has a beautiful view – with the fields and trees in front, and the sea ***beyond***.

a bit, a little, a lot

[See separate entries. For ***a bit*** see **A BIT / A BIT OF**.
For ***a little*** see **LITTLE / A LITTLE**.
For ***a lot*** see **(A) LOT (OF) / LOTS (OF)**]

borrow /'bɒrəʊ/ ***borrowed, borrowed, borrowing*** /'bɒrəʊɪŋ/ ***and lend*** /lend/ (verbs)

These verbs are sometimes confused. Remember: the person who has the money ***lends*** it; the person who doesn't have the money, but who wants it, ***borrow*s** it.

E.g.



NOTE: ***Borrow*** and ***lend*** are used for other things, as well as money.
E.g. Please can I ***borrow*** your ladder?

both /bəʊθ/ (determiner or pronoun)

- **Both** always refers to two things, two people, etc.
- **Both** is very similar to ALL (which refers to more than two). Compare the positions of **both** (see 2 below) with the positions of **all**.
- [For **both . . . and**, see DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 1, 2.]

1 **Both** can be used with singular noun + **and** + singular noun; **Both + of** cannot.

E.g. **Both his mother and father . . .**
Both of his mother and father . . .

Both + of is followed by a plural noun phrase.

E.g. **Both of his parents.**

2. Positions of **both**

2a Position 1: **both + of** + (plural) { NOUN PHRASE.
PRONOUN. }

E.g. **both of the players, both of these jobs**
both of my parents, both of them

2b Position 2: **both + (plural)** { NOUN PHRASE.
PRONOUN. }

We can omit **of** before a noun phrase, but not before a personal pronoun.

E.g. **both the players, both these jobs**
both my father and mother
 But not: **both them**

Also we can omit **the** after **both**.

E.g. **both (the) players, both (the) halves**
*It will be a good match. Both {players
sides} have been playing well*
 recently.

2c Position 3: (plural) PERSONAL PRONOUN + **both**.

Both comes after, not before, the personal pronouns **we, us, you, they, them**.

E.g. *Ann and Jim have similar tastes. For example, they both like music, poetry, and sport.*
I'd like to invite you both to dinner next Saturday.

2d Position 4: (plural) { NOUN PHRASE.
PRONOUN } + **both**.

When a noun phrase or pronoun referring to two people / things is SUBJECT, we can place **both** in middle position* [see ADVERB 3].

E.g. **His father and mother were both excellent cooks.**

The teams have both scored one goal.

* Middle position means that **both** comes after the auxiliary verb or BE as a main verb, but before other main verbs.

2e Position 5: **both** as PRONOUN alone.

As a pronoun, **both** can stand on its own. We can omit the **of-** phrase if its meaning is known.

E.g. *This dress is cheaper, but that one is more attractive. I think I'll buy both.*
 (= 'both of them')

bring brings, brought, bringing /brɪŋ/

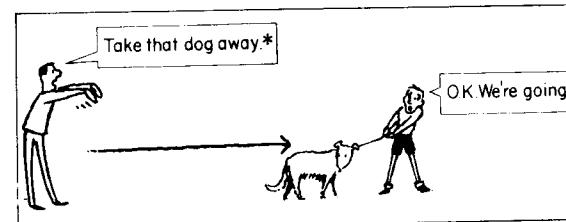
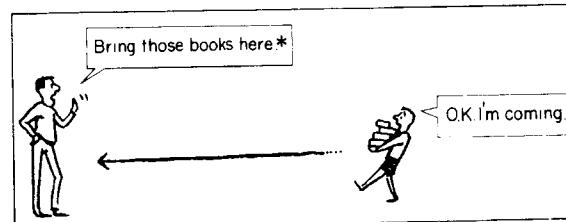
and **take** takes, took, taking, taken /teɪk/ (verbs)

► **Bring** and **take** are both IRREGULAR VERBS.

► **Bring** and **take** contrast in the same way as **come** and **go** [see COME AND GO].

1 **Bring** means 'make {someone something} come' } e.g. by carrying or leading
Take means 'make {someone something} go' }
 (Come → 'towards the speaker / hearer')
 (Go → 'not towards the speaker / hearer')

E.g.



* **Bring** is often followed by **here**; **take** is often followed by **away**.

68 **bring and take**

by 69

2 Bring and take with two objects: [See VERB PATTERNS 11.]

- E.g. When Uncle Bill visits us at Christmas, he always **brings us presents** from the family.
When Mrs White visits her husband in hospital, she always **takes him some fresh fruit**.

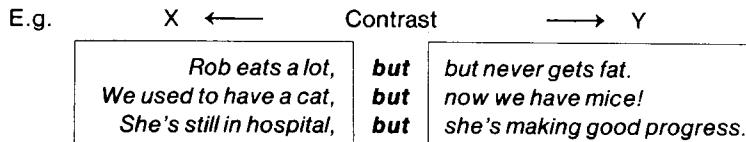
3 Idioms

Bring and **take** often occur in PHRASAL VERBS. Look these up in a dictionary:
bring up, bring about, bring off, bring out, take up, take over, take off, take in.

but /bʌt/ (weak form/bət/) (conjunction, preposition and adverb)

- **But** is nearly always a coordinating conjunction [see COORDINATION]. (Its uses as a preposition and as an adverb are <not common>.)
- The conjunction **but** indicates a contrast [see CONTRAST 1] between two ideas (**but** = 'and yet').
- [For the use of **but** after **not (only)**, [see DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 4, 5].

- 1 In a sentence 'X **but** Y', the information in Y contrasts with the information in X.



- 1a **But** can link two whole clauses, as in the examples above, but sometimes we omit the first part of the second clause.

- E.g. I like Paul, **but** (I) dislike his opinions.
The house is old, **but** (it is) very comfortable.

- 1b Notice the use of **but not** and **but also** at the beginning of the second clause or clause part.

- E.g. I have been to Florence, **but not** to Rome.
I enjoy reading novels, **but not** history books.
The government is increasing its chances of success, **but also** (increasing) its chances of failure.

- 1c **But** can come at the beginning of a sentence. In conversation, you can use it to show that what you have to say contrasts with or disagrees with what someone else has said [see AGREEING AND DISAGREEING].

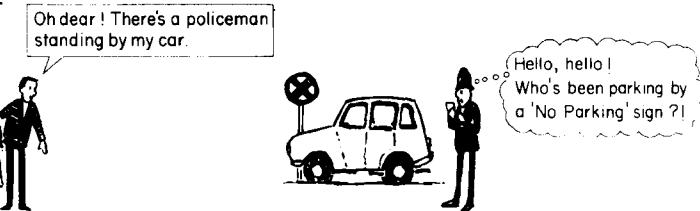
E.g.

JEWELLERNOTE (i): **But** sometimes links contrasting adjectives [see CONTRAST] before a noun.E.g. He gave away all his money. It was a **generous but foolish** thing to do.NOTE (ii): **But** as a preposition means 'except, apart from'.E.g. We've looked everywhere **but** in the kitchen.
Eat snails? I'll do anything **but** that!NOTE (iii): **But** as an adverb is <rare>. It means 'just, only'.E.g. She was **but** a baby when she first appeared on the stage.
We can **but** try. ('Things are not hopeless.')
You can't **but** admire him. ('You cannot help it.')**by** /baɪ/ (preposition or adverb)

- There are four important uses of **by**: PLACE; MEANS; after a PASSIVE; and TIME.

1 By as a word indicating place**By** (preposition) referring to position means 'near' or 'beside' or 'next to'.

E.g.



70 by

- 1a With a verb of MOTION (OR MOVEMENT), **by** has the same meaning as **past**.

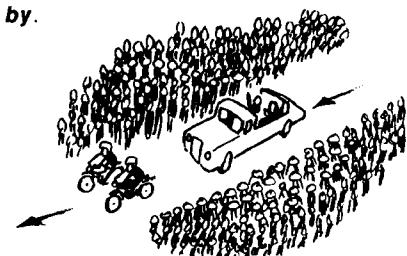
E.g. (i) **We drove by** your house.

(ii) **The bus was going by** the supermarket as I came out.



- 1b **By** as an ADVERB also has the same meaning as **past**. It usually follows the verb, and does not come before a noun phrase.

E.g. **Thousands of people were lining the street, hoping to see the royal visitors go by.**



- 2 **By** as a PREPOSITION indicating means, method (= way of doing something)

E.g. **The thief must have left the building by the back door.**

(= 'through', 'by way of')

You start the car by turning this key.

This coal is mined by a totally new method.

- 2a Notice that **by** can be followed by Verb-ing.

E.g.



- 2b In talking of means of transport in general, we use **by** + noun without **a** or **the** [see ZERO ARTICLE].

E.g. **Fred goes to work** { **by bus.**
 by car. **I came home** { **by bicycle.**
 by train. **by air.**
 by boat.

NOTE: But we say **on foot** and **on horseback**. We can also say:

Fred goes to work { **in his car.** (etc.) [See IN 1]
 on the bus. (etc.) [See (MEANS OF) TRANSPORT]

- 3 **By following a PASSIVE verb**

In a passive clause, the doer of the action is not the subject, but can be added after **by**.

E.g. **This city was built by the Turks.** (i.e. 'The Turks built this city.')
The letter should be signed by the president.

- 3a Past participle + **by** + noun phrase.

E.g. **a city built by the Turks** or:
a story written by Tolstoy

Notice that we can also say:

a story by Tolstoy, a painting by Monet
a play by Shakespeare, a song by Schubert

i.e. we can omit the verb **written**, etc. [For further details, see PASSIVE 3.]

- 4 **By as a preposition indicating TIME**

By as a time preposition means 'on or before'.

E.g. **The photographs will be ready by Friday.**

(= 'on or before Friday')

Please deliver the new motorcycle by next week.

(= 'next week or before')

By the end of the second year, the students have learned most of the basic grammar.

By the end of the third year, the students are using English quite well in conversation.

- 5 **Idioms**

Look up these idioms in a dictionary: **by hand, by now, by all means, by any means, by no means, by day, by night.**

NOTE: **by oneself** = 'alone'.

can /kæn/ (weak form /kən/) is a MODAL AUXILIARY verb.

- **Can** has two negative forms:
cannot /'kænɒt/, /kæ'nɒt/, /kə'nɒt/ <more formal>.
can't /kæ:nt/ || kæ:nt/ <normally used in speech>.
- **Can** goes before another verb in the BASIC FORM.
E.g. **can be**, **can have**, **can see**, etc.
- **Can** is never followed by **to**.
- **Can** has three main uses:
– ability. [Compare (BE) ABLE TO.]
– possibility. [Compare MAY 2.]
– permission. [Compare MAY 3.]

1 Forms of can

positive statement

I you we she noun phrase etc.	can	be... have... see... go... find... etc.
--	------------	--

negative statement

I you we she noun phrase etc.	can't cannot	be... have... see... go... find... etc.
--	-------------------------------	--

question

Can	I you we she noun phrase etc.	be... have... see... go... find... etc.
------------	--	--

negative question

Can't Can	I you we she noun phrase etc.	be... have... see... go... find... etc.
----------------------------	--	--

NOTE: Since **can** has no INFINITIVE or PARTICIPLE forms, we often use (BE) ABLE TO instead of **can** when these forms are needed, e.g. to refer to a future possibility after WILL.

E.g. **We can't finish the job this week, but we will be able to finish it next week.**

2 Can = ability

2a **Can** means (a) 'be (physically) able to'.

E.g. **I can climb that mountain in five hours.**

(b) 'know how to'.

E.g. (i) **Can you ride a bicycle?**

(ii)

Young Jasmin is very clever. She can play the violin, she can speak three languages, and she can beat her father at chess.



Really! Is there anything she can't do?

2b **Can't** and **cannot** mean the opposite of **can**, i.e. they indicate inability to do something.

E.g. **Grandpa is getting old: he can't hear very well, and he can't see without his glasses.**
Tim can't spell very well yet.

3 Can = POSSIBILITY

3a **Can** means 'it is possible'.

E.g. **The weather can be very hot in Delhi.**
(i.e. 'Very hot weather is possible . . .')
If it rains, we can hold the party indoors.
(i.e. 'it will be possible for us to hold the party indoors.')

3b **Can't** (or **cannot**) means 'it is impossible'.

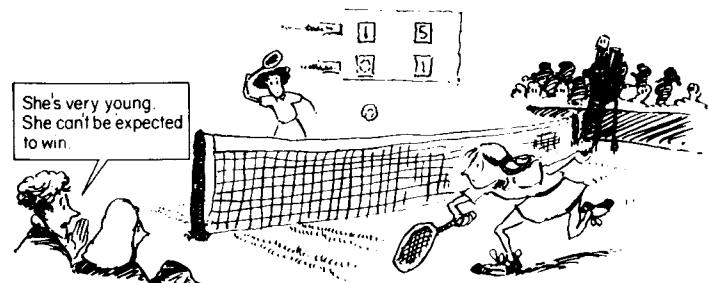
E.g. **People can't live on nothing.**
She lives in Paris but she speaks with a German accent. She can't be French – she must be German. *

*[For this meaning of **can't**, compare MUST 2d, 2e.]

NOTE: **Can't** in questions often expresses annoyance. E.g. Someone might say **Can't you be quiet?** to a noisy person, or **Can't you drive straight?** to a bad driver.

3c After **can** (= 'possible') the PASSIVE is quite <common>.

E.g. **These days, goods can be sent all over the world by air.**
Many plants can be grown easily indoors.



- 3d** Use the PERFECT and PROGRESSIVE forms after the negative **can't** (but not after **can**).
 (i) Perfect:
CAN'T + HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

E.g. *They can't have eaten all that food.*

- (ii) Progressive:
CAN'T + BE + Verb-ing

E.g. *Surely he can't be working at this time of the night.*

4 Can = PERMISSION

- 4a** **Can** means 'be { allowed } to'.

E.g. *You can borrow this radio until tomorrow.*
 (= 'You are allowed to . . .')
The students can live at the college during the vacation, if they wish.

Can I pay by { check <U.S.> } , please?
{ cheque <G.B.> }

When can we start work?
(can we = 'are we allowed to')

It is possible for **MAY** to replace **can** in these sentences, but **may** is more <formal or polite>.

- 4b** The negative forms **can't** and **cannot** mean the opposite of **can**, i.e. that something is forbidden or not allowed.

E.g. (i) *I'm sorry, you can't smoke in the hospital.*



(ii) *Visitors cannot fish on this side of the river.*



(iii) *You can't go abroad without a passport.*

- 5** After some verbs, **can** is often used to refer to the immediate state of being able to do something. These verbs are:

- (i) Verbs like **see**, **hear**, and **smell** [see PERCEPTION VERBS].

E.g. *I can smell something burning.*
Can you hear what he's saying?

- (ii) Verbs of mental state like **remember**, **imagine**.

E.g. *I can't imagine what they're doing.*
I can remember the first day I went to school.

6 Special uses of **can**

Can is used in REQUESTS [see also COULD AND MIGHT].

E.g. *Can you open the door, please?*

Can is also used in OFFERS.

E.g. *Can I help you?*

cardinal numbers

[See NUMBERS]

case

Case is a grammatical term we use for the different forms a word takes according to its role or position in a sentence. For example, the PERSONAL PRONOUNS have case forms in English: **he** (= SUBJECT form), **him** (= OBJECT form), **his** (= POSSESSIVE form). In some grammar books these are called 'subjective case', 'objective case', and 'genitive (or possessive) case'. Case forms are not very important in English, so we avoid the word 'case' in this book.

cause

[See REASON AND CAUSE]

certain

/sɜːrtn/ (adjective or determiner)

and **sure** /ʃʊər/ or /ʃɔːr/ (adjective or adverb)

- 1** **Certain** and **sure** (adjectives) both mean 'there is no doubt'.

E.g. (i) *The President feels { certain } that he will win the next election.*

But many people think he is { certain } to lose.

(ii) *'All the tickets have been sold.' 'Are you { certain } (of that)?'*

[For sentence patterns with **certain** and **sure**, see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 2a, 3, and IT-PATTERNS 1.]

- 2** **Certain** (determiner) is used in these patterns:

{ A **certain** + singular countable noun.

{ **Certain** + plural noun.

A certain + singular = a stronger form of **a** or **an** [see A OR AN].

Certain + plural = a stronger form of **some** [see SOME AND ANY].

Certain = 'particular', or (roughly) 'known but not named'.

- E.g. *If you want to be slim, you should try to lose a certain amount of weight every week.*
The club meets on certain days every month.

- 3 **Sure** (adverb), in <U.S. speech>, means 'certainly'. It is used in replies, and in adding emphasis to STATEMENTS.

- E.g. 'Can you lend me a few dollars?' '**Sure.**'
'*Jill sings well, doesn't she?*' 'Yes, she **sure** does.'

certainly /'sɜːrtnli/ (adverb of comment and attitude)

Certainly means 'without doubt', 'of course'.

- E.g. *She will **certainly** be on time: she's always punctual.*

Certainly appears on its own in replies; it is an emphatic form of **yes**.

- E.g. 'Will you help me move these bags?' '**Certainly.**'

The negative **certainly not** expresses strong disagreement or refusal.

- E.g. 'Could I invite you and your wife to dinner?' '**Certainly not!** It's our turn to invite you!'

[See AGREEING AND DISAGREEING, REPLIES.]

clause

- Clauses are the main structures of which SENTENCES are built.
- A sentence contains at least one MAIN CLAUSE. It may also contain SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

1 **Clause structure**

A clause itself contains one or more clause elements:

element	examples	usual position and form
CONJUNCTION:	and, or, if, when	a word which begins the clause (but conjunctions are not always needed)
SUBJECT:	she, it, something, the car	a pronoun or noun phrase which comes before the verb phrase
VERB PHRASE:	likes, is living, has gone	the central part of the clause, containing one or more verbs
OBJECT: (direct or indirect)	the glass, Ann, people, him	a pronoun or noun phrase which follows the verb phrase
COMPLEMENT:	very cold, bad, a nurse, this	a pronoun, noun phrase, adjective, or adjective phrase which follows the verb phrase and sometimes follows an object
ADVERBIAL	away, well, at home, last night	an adverb, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, or noun phrase which often comes after the other elements in the clause

1a Examples of clauses with:—

- (i) Two elements:

subject	verb phrase	subject	verb phrase
<i>Henry</i>	<i>arrived.</i>	<i>The weather</i>	<i>has changed.</i>

- (ii) Three elements:

subject	verb phrase	object	complement	adverbial
<i>My mother</i>	<i>likes</i>	<i>dogs.</i>		
<i>Sandra</i>	<i>is</i>		<i>very angry.</i>	
<i>They</i>	<i>are living</i>			<i>not far from here.</i>

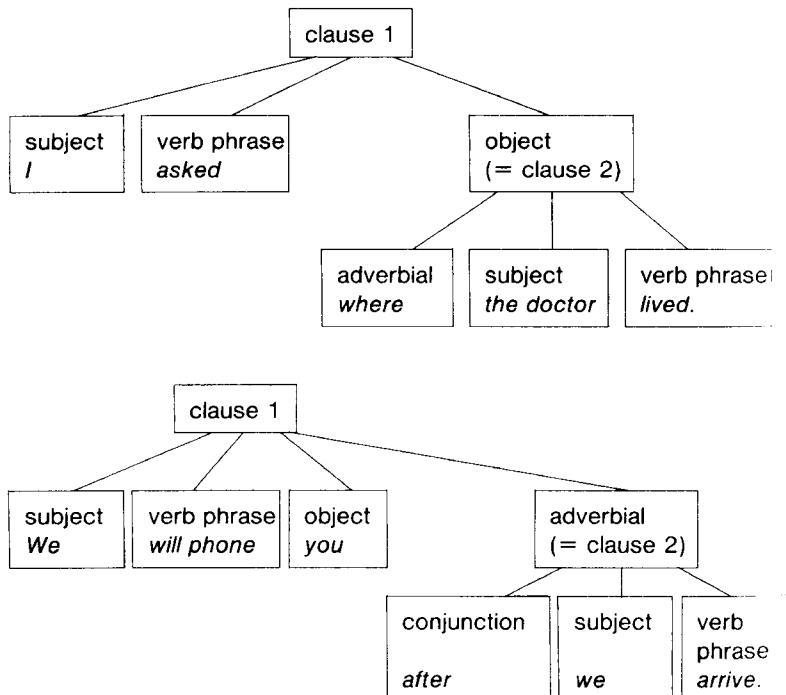
(iii) Four elements:

subject	verb phrase	indirect object	direct object	complement	adverbial
Mary	gave	Sandra	a glass.		
Money	makes	people	us all	greedy.	
Peter	sent				home.

NOTE: Clauses can have many different elements. For example, a clause can contain several adverbials [see ADVERBIAL 1c].

2 Main clauses and subordinate clauses

- 2a One clause may be part of another clause. For example, one clause may be an object or an adverbial in another clause:



The clause (clause 1) which contains another clause is called a **MAIN CLAUSE**; the clause (clause 2) which is part of the main clause is called a **SUBORDINATE CLAUSE**.

3 Types of clause

3a Main clauses:

Main clauses are divided into these types:

types	examples
STATEMENTS:	We are lucky.
QUESTIONS:	How are you?
IMPERATIVES:	Don't be silly.
EXCLAMATIONS:	I'm so hungry!
	Eric's wife will be coming.
	Will Eric's wife be coming?
	Put your books away, please.
	What a surprise you gave me!

3b Subordinate clauses:

Subordinate clauses are classified by the role they have in the main clause. [For further details, see ADVERBIAL CLAUSE, COMMENT CLAUSE, COMPARATIVE CLAUSE, NOUN CLAUSE, RELATIVE CLAUSE.]

- 3c But also, subordinate clauses are classified by the kind of verb phrase they contain. [For further details, see FINITE, INFINITIVE CLAUSE, PARTICIPLE CLAUSE, VERBLESS CLAUSE.]

collective noun

Collective nouns are called GROUP NOUNS in this book.

Come /kʌm/ **comes, came, coming, come**

and go /gəʊ/ **goes, went, going,** { **gone** /gɒn/ **been** /bi:n/ } (verbs)

- **Come** and **go** are verbs of opposite meaning:



Come = move to the place where the speaker or hearer is.



Go = move to a place away from the speaker or hearer.

- **Come** and **go** do not have an OBJECT. But they are related to the TRANSITIVE VERBS **bring** and **take** [see BRING AND TAKE].
- **Come** and **go** are IRREGULAR VERBS. Notice that **go** has two different PAST PARTICIPLE forms, **been** and **gone** [see 3 below].

1 **Come** = 'to me, with me, or to where I'm imagining myself to be'.

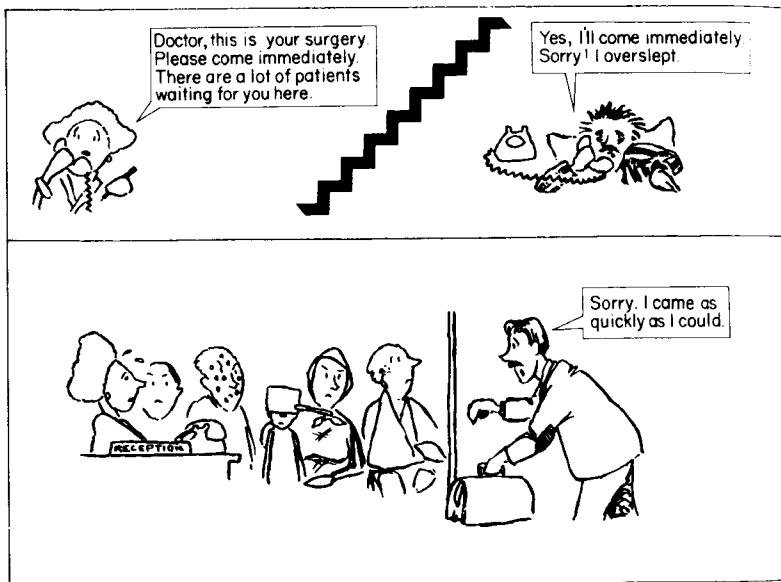
Go = 'away from me or from where I'm imagining myself to be'.

[See TO 1.]

E.g. (i) *'I'm going to the hospital this afternoon. Would you like to come with me?'*

(ii) *'Hello, Roy. Are you coming to the party tomorrow?'
(i.e. 'I'm going to be there')*

(iii)



1a Look at the difference between these two newspaper reports:

The New York Times

This summer more American visitors **went** to Europe for a vacation than ever before.

The London Times

This summer more American visitors **came** to Europe for a holiday than ever before.

2 Notice that we use **come** for movement both towards the speaker (or writer) and towards the hearer (or reader).

E.g. *'Let's meet tomorrow.' 'Okay. Shall I come to your house, or will you come to mine?' 'I'll come to yours, if you prefer.'*

Gone and been

Gone is the normal past participle of **go**, in the sense 'go away', 'leave a place'.

Been is the past participle when it means 'gone away and returned'.

E.g. *'Where has your son **gone**?' 'He's **gone** to China, and he's coming back next month.'*

*'Where has your son **been**?' 'He's **been** to China. He came back last week.'*

Come and **go** are usually INTRANSITIVE VERBS — they have no object. But sometimes they are followed by an adjective [i.e. they are LINKING VERBS similar to **become**].

E.g. *Unfortunately, fairy stories rarely **come true**. **

*In hot weather, meat **goes bad*** and milk **goes sour*** quickly — so be careful.*

*Notice that **come** + adjective usually has a 'good' meaning, and that **go** + adjective usually has a 'bad' meaning.

5 **Come** and **go** can both be followed by **and** + Verb: this is a common pattern in <spoken> English.

E.g. *Why don't you **come and see** us next weekend?
I'll **go and fetch** the car.*

The meaning of this pattern is 'come to / go to + Verb'. For example, **come and see** means 'come to see'.

6 A similar pattern with both **come** and **go** is **come / go + Verb-ing**.

E.g. *My husband **goes fishing** every week.
Would you like to **come swimming** with us?*

In this pattern, Verb-ing describes some activity.

E.g. *Goodbye! I'm going shopping / swimming / dancing / climbing / etc.*

7 **Idioms**

Be going to refers to the future [see (BE) GOING TO].

Come from refers to a person's place of origin.

E.g. *'Where do you **come from**?' 'I **come from** Germany'.
(= 'I am German')*

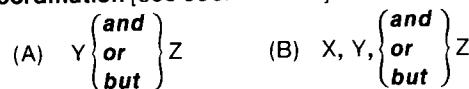
Use **come from** to tell people about your home town, your home country, etc.

- 7a Many common PHRASAL VERBS and PREPOSITIONAL VERBS begin with **come** or **go**. You can look these up in a dictionary: **come along**, **come off**, **come on**, **come up with**, **go away**, **go in for**, **go on**, **go through**, **go without**.

comma (,) [See also PUNCTUATION]

- In writing, use a comma to divide a long sentence into smaller parts.
- Often you have a choice of using the comma or not. i.e., it is optional. If in doubt, leave it out! But if it helps to make your meaning clear, put it in.

1 Coordination [see COORDINATION]



- 1a The comma is optional before a CONJUNCTION (AND, OR, BUT). It is usual when Y and Z are clauses.

E.g. *Wendy works hard, but her sister is lazy.*

It is not usual when Y and Z are words or phrases.

E.g. *buses and trains
by bus or by train*

- 1b But when there is a list of three or more items, e.g. '(...) X, Y, or Z' we can put a comma between each pair of items.

E.g. *bananas, melons, grapes, apples, oranges, and pears**

*[The comma between the last two items is optional. For further details, see COORDINATION 1.]

2 Subordination [See SUBORDINATE CLAUSE]

Place a comma between an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE and the MAIN CLAUSE, especially when the adverbial clause is at the beginning, or seems to be separated from the main clause in meaning.

E.g. *When the weather is hot, I like to sit in the sun.
We can visit the museum, if it's still open.*

- 2a If a subordinate (adverbial) clause is in the middle of the main clause, place a comma both before and after it.

E.g. *The date of Easter, as is well known, changes from year to year.*

- 2b But do not place a comma after a clause when it is subject, or before a clause as object or complement. Notice that both commas in the first example below would be wrong.

- E.g. **What he said**, does not prove, (**that**) he's the murderer. [Wrong]
The judge's opinion was that he was guilty. [Right]

Do not use a comma after a clause which restricts or limits the subject (a RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE).

- E.g. **The person who stole the car,** was never found. [Wrong]

Other adverbials

Like adverbial clauses, adverbial words and phrases are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence if they seem to be separated in meaning. E.g. phrases like **however**, **nevertheless**, **in my opinion**.

- E.g. **In my opinion**, he was guilty.
The judge's opinion, however, was that he was innocent.

In direct speech sentences.

- (a) Place a comma between **He said** (etc.) and the beginning of direct speech.

E.g. *She said (hastily), 'That's none of your business.'*

- (b) Place a comma between the end of direct speech and **he said** (etc.).

E.g. *'Any progress is better than none,' said Pete.*

provided there is no question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!) as in, for example:

'Any progress?' she asked.

- (c) Place a comma before and after **he said**, etc, in the middle of direct speech.

E.g. *'In my view,' said the judge, 'he is innocent.'*

command [See IMPERATIVE, INDIRECT COMMAND]

comment clause

A comment clause is a small CLAUSE which adds a comment to what is said in the MAIN CLAUSE or in the rest of the sentence.

- E.g. **Jill's husband is a lawyer, I believe.**

And the photograph, you see, helped us to find the thief.

As you know, I've always wanted to visit Greece.

The comment clause can occur in front, end, and middle positions in the main clause.

common noun

- Common nouns are the opposite of proper nouns [see NAMES].
- Common nouns are words for a kind of person, thing, substance, etc.

E.g. *friend, town, work, tiger*

Unlike proper nouns, common nouns generally begin with a small letter, and can have *the* in front of them.

E.g. *the friend, the town, the work, the tiger*

[Look up these classes of common noun for further information: COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS, CONCRETE NOUN, ABSTRACT NOUN, GROUP NOUN.]

comparative

- The comparative of a word is the form we use when we compare two things (or groups of things). [For further details, see COMPARISON, -ER / -EST, MORE / (THE) MOST, SUPERLATIVE.]

1 The easiest rule for the comparative form is:

- (I) Add the ending **-er** to one-syllable words and to two syllable words ending in **-y**, e.g. *fast ~ faster, early ~ earlier**.

*Words ending in **-y** change **-y** to **-i** before adding **-er**. With other words, other changes take place [see SPELLING 4].

- (II) Put **more** (adverb of degree) in front of longer words, e.g. *difficult ~ more difficult*.

NOTE (i): Sometimes this general rule is broken: e.g., people will say **more tired** or **gentler**. Exceptions like these are quite rare. [See ER / EST 1c.]

NOTE (ii): There are also some irregular comparative words.

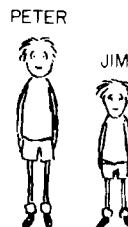
E.g. *good ~ better* [See ER / EST 2, 3c, 4.]

2 Comparative of adjectives

Comparisons involve (at least) two people or two things. We use **than** before the second part of the comparison:

X is adjective + **-er** than Y

E.g. *Peter is taller than { Jim, the other boys in his class.*



or

X is **more** + adjective **than** Y

E.g. *Mary is more beautiful than Sally.*

Short adjectives have other words as their opposites (contrast **younger** with **older**).

E.g. *Mary looks younger than my sister. = My sister looks older than Mary.*

But especially with longer adjectives, we can use **more** and **less** to show the opposite.



E.g. *This bucket is more useful than that one. = That bucket is less useful than this one.*

Comparative of adverbs

The regular comparative form of adverbs is:

more + adjective + **-ly** or: **less** + adjective + **-ly**:

E.g. *He drives { more dangerously, less carefully } than a racing driver.*

But a few words, such as **easy, fast, hard, early, late, high, low, loud**, have the same comparative form for both adjective and adverb.

- E.g. (i) *A racehorse can run faster* (adverb) *than a man.*
- (ii) *This car is faster* (adjective) *than that one.*

NOTE: [See ER / EST 3c] for irregular comparative adverbs (e.g. **well ~ better**) and for other kinds of comparative word.

Leaving out **than**

Comparative words can be used without **than** . . . when we know what is being compared.

E.g. (i) *'Men have greater strength than women.'* 'Yes, but women live longer.' ('longer than men')

(ii) *'Air travel is becoming more popular.'* ('more popular than it used to be')
'True, but I wish it was cheaper.' ('cheaper than it is')

- 1a** In the following, notice the choice of **warmer** for comparing two countries, and **warmest** for comparing three.

E.g. Which is the **warmer** of the two countries? Egypt or Nigeria?
Which is the **warmest** of the three countries? Egypt, Nigeria, or Indonesia?

NOTE: The comparative is the <correct> form for comparing two things, but we sometimes use the superlative instead: before a boxing match, we can say to the two boxers: *May the best man win!*

2 The opposites of **more** and **most** are **less** and **least**

E.g. Guy drives **more** carefully than Hector.
(= Hector drives **less** carefully than Guy.)
But Roger is the **least** careful driver of all my friends.

3 Comparing height, size, age etc.

The structure **comparative + than** and the structure **as + X + as** can be used to measure differences of height etc. [see MEASURING].

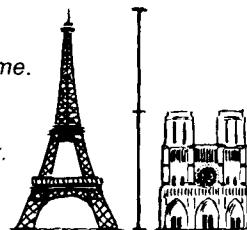
E.g. The Eiffel Tower is 300 metres high, and Notre Dame is 150 metres high. So the Eiffel Tower is **150 metres higher than** Notre Dame.

We can also say:

The Eiffel Tower is **twice as high as** Notre Dame.

Or we can say:

Notre Dame is **half as high as** the Eiffel Tower.



complement

- A complement normally follows the VERB PHRASE. (The main verb is usually BE.)
- A complement tells us something about the nature of the SUBJECT (or OBJECT).

1 A complement can be:-

- (i) An ADJECTIVE (sometimes with modifiers like **very**):

subject	+ verb phrase	+ complement . . .
E.g.		
Her sister	was	(very) famous.
The bottle	is	(nearly) empty.
Those pears	must be	ripe (enough to pick).

(ii) A NOUN PHRASE:

subject	+ verb phrase	+ complement
E.g.		
Her sister	was	a famous dancer.
These	are	my best shoes.
You	must be	Mrs Walker.

(iii) A PRONOUN OR NUMBER:

subject	+ verb phrase	+ complement
E.g.		
My advice	is	this.
That cup	was	mine.
My daughter	will be	ten (years old) on 20th April.
This	is	me.*

*[The choice of pronoun in 'This is I' and 'This is me', etc. is discussed under PERSONAL PRONOUN 2d.]

NOTE: Also some adverbs and prepositional phrases can be complements.

E.g. The radio is on. My mother is in good health.

2 The complement can follow the verb BE, as in the examples above, or another LINKING VERB such as **seem** or **BECOME**:

subject	+ verb phrase	+ complement . . .
The judge	seems	(extremely) annoyed.
Vera and Ted	became	our friends.

3 A complement can also follow the OBJECT of the clause:

subject	+ verb phrase	+ object	+ complement . . .
This work	is making	me	sleepy.
Everyone	thought	Joan	mad.
He	calls	his wife	'Rosie'.

NOTE: In this case, the complement is called an **OBJECT COMPLEMENT**: it describes some quality of the object, not of the subject. In contrast, the complement we showed in 1 and 2 is called a **subject complement**.

4 [For details of verbs used with complements, see LINKING VERB, VERB PATTERNS 2, 12.]

complex sentence [See SENTENCE 3]

compound sentence

[See SENTENCE 3a]

compound word

- 1 A compound word is a word which is formed from two (or more) other words.

E.g. Compound noun: ***rainfall*** (= ***fall*** of the ***rain***)

Compound adjective: ***suntanned*** (= ***tanned*** by the ***sun***)

Compound verb: ***lipread*** (= to ***read lips*** e.g. this is what a deaf person does)

- 2 We sometimes write a compound word with a hyphen (-) between its parts. (Hyphens are not often used in <U.S.>.)

E.g. ***birth-control***, ***home-made***, ***dry-clean***

and we sometimes write a compound word as two separate words.

E.g. ***oil well***, ***ash blonde***, ***sleep walker***

- 3 There are no clear rules for writing compounds. You will find the same word written in different ways.

E.g. ***oilwell***, ***oil-well***, ***oil well***

It is best to look up the compound in a dictionary if you are in doubt.

concord

[See AGREEMENT]

concrete noun

[See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS]

- A concrete noun is the opposite of an ABSTRACT NOUN.
- A concrete noun defines something which you can see or touch, and which has a position in time and space.

- 1 Many concrete nouns refer to:

- (A) people. E.g. ***baby***, ***woman***, ***doctor***, ***cook***
- (B) things. E.g. ***wheel***, ***knife***, ***key***, ***chair***
- (C) animals. E.g. ***horse***, ***rabbit***, ***snake***, ***fish***
- (D) places. E.g. ***island***, ***city***, ***mountain***, ***river***

These kinds of noun are countable: they can be counted and made PLURAL.

E.g. ***two cooks***, ***four wheels***, ***thousands of rabbits*** (etc.)

Other concrete nouns refer to:

(A) substances. E.g. ***iron***, ***flesh***, ***skin***, ***glass***

(B) liquids. E.g. ***water***, ***blood***, ***rain***, ***milk***

(C) gases, etc. E.g. ***gas***, ***air***, ***steam***, ***oxygen***

We call these mass nouns, or uncountable nouns. They describe masses which cannot easily be divided into individual items; hence we do not normally count these nouns or make them plural.

[For further details, see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

conditional clause

A conditional clause is a type of ADVERBIAL CLAUSE. The event described in the MAIN CLAUSE depends on the condition described in the conditional clause.

E.g.	conditional clause	main clause
	<i>If it rains,</i>	<i>we will get wet.</i>

main clause	conditional clause
<i>The door opens</i>	<i>if you press this button.</i>

By far the most common conditional CONJUNCTION is ***if*** [see IF]. Here we deal with conditional clauses in general, and with other conjunctions as well as ***if***. Conditional clauses begin with:

if*

unless* (= 'if . . . not', or more exactly 'except . . . if')

provided (that)* (= 'only if')

so long as or ***as long as***

on condition that <formal> (states a condition to which someone has to agree)

*[These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

E.g. ***If you feel ill, take a couple of these pills.***

We will lose the game unless we try harder. (= 'If we do not try harder, we will lose the game')

This climb is safe provided (that) you are careful.

So long as the baby is fed, he seems very happy.

The loan is offered on condition that it is repaid within 12 months.
<formal>

3 [For real and unreal conditions, see UNREAL MEANING. For 1st, 2nd, and 3rd conditionals, see IF 1.]

congratulations

To express pleasure when something good happens to someone, we **congratulate** them.

- E.g. (i) on passing an examination (ii) on the birth of a baby
 (iii) on an engagement or a wedding (iv) on a wedding anniversary
- For all these, the word you use is **congratulations**, and the reply is: **Thank you (very much)**

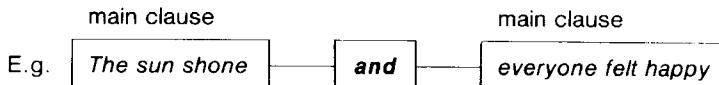
- E.g. (i) <spoken>
Congratulations, Keith! I understand you have passed your exam with excellent marks. Your family will be very proud of you. Well done!
 (ii) <written>
Dear John and Mary,
Congratulations on your engagement. I understand you are getting married quite soon. When will the happy day be? My very best wishes for your future happiness.

[See also GOOD WISHES.]

conjunction [See COORDINATION, SUBORDINATE CLAUSE]

- A conjunction is a 'joining word'. Its main role is to link together two parts of a sentence. [To see how conjunctions compare with other 'linking words', see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]
- There are two types of conjunction: coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

- 1 Coordinating conjunctions join equivalent parts of a sentence, e.g. two CLAUSES which make up a sentence. (This is called COORDINATION.)



- 2 Subordinating conjunctions join a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE to a MAIN CLAUSE. (This is called subordination.)



- 3 The following is a table of conjunctions, showing their meaning and function. Double conjunctions contain two words separated by one or more words.

Table of conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions

meaning or function	simple conjunctions	2- or 3-word conjunctions	double conjunctions
addition, listing:	and *		both . . . and, not only . . . but
alternatives:	or *		either . . . or
contrast *:	but *		not . . . but
negative addition:	nor		neither * . . . nor

Subordinating conjunctions

comparison *:	as *, than *, like * <U.S.>	as if, as though	as . . . so, as . . . as
condition *:	if *, unless *	seeing (that), given (that), provided (that) *, as / so long as	if . . . then
contrast *:	(al)though *, while *, whereas *	even though	although . . . yet
degree * or extent:		as far as	so . . . that
exception:		but (that), except (that)	
place *:	where *, wherever *		
preference:		rather than, sooner than	
proportion:			as . . . so, the . . . the
purpose *:		so that, in order that	
reason and cause *:	because *, as *, since *		
respect:		in that	
result *:		so that, such that	
indirect question *:	whether *, if *		whether . . . or
indirect statement *:	(that) *		
time * (same time):	when(ever) *, while *, as *	now (that)	
(earlier time):	before *, until *, till		
(later time):	after *, since *		
(just after):	once *, when *, whereupon	immediately (that)	

*[These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For **condition** see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE, for **question** see INDIRECT QUESTION, for **because** see BECAUSE BECAUSE OF, for **before** see AFTER AND BEFORE.]

consonants and vowels [See also PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS]

1 The consonant sounds of English are:

/p/ as in <i>part</i>	/f/ as in <i>food</i>	/h/ as in <i>has</i>
/b/ as in <i>but</i>	/v/ as in <i>voice</i>	/m/ as in <i>mat</i>
/t/ as in <i>too</i>	/θ/ as in <i>thing</i>	/n/ as in <i>not</i>
/d/ as in <i>did</i>	/ð/ as in <i>this</i>	/ŋ/ as in <i>long</i>
/k/ as in <i>kiss</i>	/s/ as in <i>see</i>	/l/ as in <i>let</i>
/g/ as in <i>get</i>	/z/ as in <i>zoo</i>	/r/ as in <i>red</i>
/tʃ/ as in <i>chin</i>	/ʃ/ as in <i>she</i>	/j/ as in <i>yes</i>
/dʒ/ as in <i>joke</i>	/ʒ/ as in <i>measure</i>	/w/ as in <i>will</i>

2 The vowel sounds of English are:

(long vowels)	(short vowels)	(diphthongs*)
/ɪ:/ as in <i>each</i>	/ɪ/ as in <i>it</i>	/eɪ/ as in <i>day</i>
/a:(r)/ as in <i>car</i>	/e/ as in <i>then</i>	/aɪ/ as in <i>by</i>
/ɔ:(r)/ as in <i>more</i>	/æ/ as in <i>back</i>	/ɔɪ/ as in <i>boy</i>
/u:/ as in <i>too</i>	/ʌ/ as in <i>much</i>	/əʊ/ as in <i>no</i>
/ɔ:(r)/ as in <i>word</i>	/ɒ/ as in <i>not</i>	/aʊ/ as in <i>now</i>
	/ʊ/ as in <i>put</i>	/ɪə(r)/ as in <i>near</i>
	/ə/ as in <i>again</i>	/eə(r)/ as in <i>there</i>
		/ʊə(r)/ as in <i>true</i>

*Diphthongs are composed of two vowel sounds in sequence.

NOTE (i): The symbol /ɪ/ indicates that the vowel is pronounced with an 'r' sound (i) in <U.S.>, and (ii) in standard <G.B.> when it is immediately followed by another vowel.

E.g. *car* /kɑ:/ <G.B.>: /kɑ:r/ <U.S.>

But: *Take the car out* /tke:kə:tʊt/ <G.B. and U.S.>

NOTE (ii): The two consonants /l/ and /n/ are sometimes pronounced as a separate syllable, i.e. as if they are vowels. In that case, we give them the symbols /l/ and /n/.

E.g. /'bɒtl/ /l/ (*bottle*); /'wʊdn/ /n/ (*wooden*).

NOTE (iii): The letter x normally stands for the two consonant sounds /ks/. E.g. /sɪks/ (*six*). But at the beginning of a word, it is pronounced /z/: *xerox* /zi:rəks/.

NOTE (iv): The letter -e is normally silent when it comes at the end of a word, after a consonant letter. E.g. /meɪk/ (*make*), /haʊs/ (*house*).

continuous [another term for the PROGRESSIVE]

contraction of verbs and negatives [See also AUXILIARY VERB, BE, NOT]

- A contraction is a short form of a word, used both in spelling and in pronouncing the word.

► Contractions are used in <speech and informal writing>. Do not use them in <formal writing>, e.g. business letters.

Contractions of verbs and how to pronounce them

The verbs which have contractions are some forms of **be** and **have**, and also **will** and **would**. The contractions are:

verb:	am	is	are	have	has	had	would	will
contraction:	'm	's	're	've	's	'd	'd	'll
pronunciation:	/m/	/z/ or /s/	*	/v/	/z/ or /s/	/d/ or /əd/	/d/ or /əd/	/l/ or /ɪ/

*The contraction 're' is pronounced in different ways:
you're /ju:ər/, *we're* /wiər/, *they're* /ðeər/.

Where to put contractions of verbs

The contraction is added to the end of a word, and is marked in writing by an apostrophe ('). The word which comes before the contraction is usually a PERSONAL PRONOUN, as these tables show:

BE:	am	<i>I'm</i>
	are	<i>you're</i> <i>we're</i> <i>they're</i>
	is	<i>he's</i> <i>she's</i> <i>it's</i>

HAVE:	have	<i>I've</i>	<i>you've</i>	<i>we've</i>	<i>they've</i>
	has	<i>he's</i>	<i>she's</i>	<i>it's</i>	
	had	<i>he'd</i>	<i>she'd</i>	<i>it'd*</i>	

will	<i>he'll</i>	<i>she'll</i>	<i>it'll</i>	
	<i>I'll</i>	<i>you'll</i>	<i>we'll</i>	<i>they'll</i>
would	<i>he'd</i>	<i>she'd</i>	<i>it'd*</i>	
	<i>I'd</i>	<i>you'd</i>	<i>we'd</i>	<i>they'd</i>

* The contraction 'it'd' is <rare>.

- 2b** Other words can take contractions: e.g. **who** [see WHO / WHOM / WHOSE], WHAT, THERE, HERE, and NOUNS (especially when the noun is a single word as subject).
- E.g. **Who's there?** **There's** someone at the door. **What's the matter?** **Here's** the bus. **Mary's** my friend. **The dinner's** ready.
('s is a contraction of **is** in all these examples.)

NOTE: Contractions do not occur at the beginning or end of a sentence. They also do not occur before or after a major break, for example one marked by a comma.

E.g. {**'s**} Diana ill? 'Yes, she {**is,**} {**'s**}. I'm afraid.'

3 Negative contractions and how to pronounce them

- 3a** A negative contraction [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES] is a short form of NOT, and is spelled **n't**. It is added to BE as a main verb, and to the auxiliaries **be, have, do, can, could, will, would, should, must, might, ought** and **need**.

verb	negative contraction	pronunciation	
be:	is ~ isn't	/ɪz/	/ɪznt/
	are ~ aren't	/a:r/	/a:r'nt/
	was ~ wasn't	/wɒz/	/wɒznt/
	were ~ weren't	/wɜ:r/	/wɜ:r'nt/
have:	have ~ haven't	/hæv/	/hævn't/
	has ~ hasn't	/hæz/	/hæznt/
	had ~ hadn't	/hæd/	/hædnt/
do:	do ~ don't	/du:/	/dəʊnt/
	does ~ doesn't	/dʌz/	/dəʊznt/
	did ~ didn't	/dɪd/	/dɪdnt/
modal auxiliaries:	will ~ won't	/wɪl/	/wəʊnt/*
	can ~ can't	/kæn/	{ /kɑ:nt/* <G.B.> /kæ:nt/ <U.S.>
	would ~ wouldn't	/wud/	/'wʊdnt/
	could ~ couldn't	/kud/	/'kʊdn't/
	should ~ shouldn't	/jud/	/'ʃʊdn't/
	might ~ mightn't	/maɪt/	/'maɪtn't/
	must ~ mustn't	/mʌst/	/'mʌsn't/*
	ought (to) ~ oughtn't (to)	/ɔ:t/	/'ɔ:tnt/
	need ~ needn't	/ni:d/	/'ni:dn't/

* **Won't, mustn't**, and <in G.B. > **can't** have irregular pronunciations.

NOTE (i): There are no negative contractions for **am** and **may**. [But see BE 1c.]

NOTE (ii): Rare contractions: The negative contraction for **shall** is **shan't** (/ʃa:n't//fae:nt), and the negative contraction for **use to** is **usedn't to** (/ju:snt/ or /ju:znt/).

NOTE (iii): As the table above shows, **-n't** after a consonant is pronounced as a syllable (-nt) and not (-/nt/).

Verb contraction or negative contraction?

In <informal> English, we often have a choice, in negative clauses, between contraction of the verb and contraction of **not**; in other cases, only one contraction is possible:

	(A) verb contraction		(B) negative contraction
be:	I'm not an artist. She's not hungry. —	or	— She isn't hungry. They weren't at home.
have:	I've not met him.	or	I haven't met him.
do:	— —		I don't eat meat. We didn't see anyone.
modal auxiliaries:	— —		He couldn't swim. You mustn't forget.

contrast

- There are two types of contrast:
— where fact 2 is surprising in the light of fact 1.
— where fact 2 is the opposite of fact 1.

1 Contrast of surprising facts

Fact 1:



Ann's husband is an **ugly, wicked devil.**

Fact 2:



CONTRAST ← → She loves him.

Fact 1 and fact 2 are in contrast: i.e., fact 2 is surprising or unexpected in the light of fact 1.

Ways of expressing this kind of contrast:

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
but yet	in spite of despite	although though even though	even so however nevertheless

(A) = coordinating conjunctions [see CONJUNCTION, COORDINATION]

(B) = PREPOSITIONS

(C) = subordinating conjunctions [see CONJUNCTION]

(D) = linking adverbs and adverbials [see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS]

98 contrast

- 1a The most important word for expressing contrast of surprising facts in English is BUT, so we can join facts 1 and 2 together as follows, using **but** to link the two clauses.

E.g. *Ann's husband is an ugly, wicked devil, but she loves him.*

But is a coordinating conjunction (A) above). **But** is also used for expressing contrast of opposite facts.

E.g. *This week the weather is good, but last week it was bad.*

[See 2 below for further details of expressing contrast of opposite facts.]

- 1b There are many other ways of expressing contrast of surprising facts in English.

(I) PREPOSITIONS: **in spite of** or **despite** <formal> ((B) above).

E.g. *In spite of his faults, she loves him.*

She loves him, in spite of his faults.

In spite of knowing London, I got lost.

Despite the danger from the earthquake, the firemen continued to look for injured people among the ruins. <rather formal>

(II) ADVERBIAL CLAUSES introduced by ALTHOUGH (or **though**), **even though**: ((C) above).

E.g. *Although I'm very fond of Joe, there are times when I could murder him.*

Tomorrow's weather will stay generally fine, (al)though there will be occasional showers later in the day.

I can still criticise her, even though she's a friend of mine.

(III) LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS ((D) above):

	<rather formal> however	<formal> nevertheless none the less	<rather informal> all the same (but) still
yet			
even so			

E.g. *Sam is not exactly the perfect husband: he is over forty, he is going bald, and he has little money.* { **Nevertheless** } **he** and **Sheila** are going to get married.

They haven't eaten for days, (and) yet they look healthy.*

Stan was lazy, and failed his exam. His brother, however, was successful, and later became a famous lawyer.

The weather was miserable: it rained almost every day. All the same, we all managed to enjoy our { holiday <G.B.> } vacation <U.S.> }

We didn't win a single first prize at this year's flower show. Still, our results were very good.

* **Yet** is limited to front position, and **and** can be placed before it. In some ways, **yet** is more like a conjunction than an adverb. [See YET 2.]

2 Contrast of opposite facts

This is a less important kind of contrast:

Fact 1:

In Britain the hottest month of the year is usually July.

CONTRAST

Fact 2:
In Australia the coldest month of the year is usually July.

Fact 1 and fact 2 are in contrast, i.e., they are directly opposite to each other. This type of contrast can be expressed by the coordinating conjunction **but** [see 1a above], and also by:

The subordinating conjunctions WHILE, WHEREAS.

E.g. *In Britain the hottest month of the year is usually July, { while } whereas in Australia it is usually the coldest.*

2b The linking adverbials: **on the other hand**, **in / by contrast**, (especially <written English>).

E.g. *In Britain the hottest month of the year is usually July. In Australia, on the other hand, July is usually the coldest month.*
In Britain the hottest month of the year is usually July. By contrast, July is usually the coldest month in Australia.

coordination

Coordination is a way of linking clauses, phrases and words. [See CONJUNCTION.]

The main words which link by coordination are AND, OR, and BUT (also NOR). **And**, **or**, **but** and **NOR** are called coordinating CONJUNCTIONS [see also DOUBLE CONJUNCTIONS].

Coordinating clauses

The conjunctions **and**, **or**, and **but** can join two clauses:

clause 1	link	clause 2
<i>The police arrived (.)</i>	and	<i>the thieves were arrested.</i>
<i>Would you like tea (.)</i>	or	<i>would you prefer coffee?</i>
<i>We rang the bell (.)</i>	but	<i>nothing happened.</i>

Using a comma in coordinating clauses:

In <writing> you should put a comma (,) at the end of the first clause unless

you have a good reason not to, for example, if the sentence is very short.

E.g. *The nation's industrial performance has improved greatly, and there is every reason to believe that it will continue to improve in the future.*

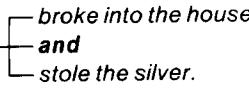
1b Omitting words in coordination:

We can often omit part of the second clause, and in this case we usually omit the comma, too:

- (i) *The thief broke into the house and (he) stole the silver.*
- (ii) *Many students can write English but (they) can't speak it very well.*
- (iii) *Edna ordered an ice-cream, and Jill (ordered) a fruit juice.*
- (iv) *If you are young and (if you) want adventure, this is the job for you.* [an advertisement]

The pattern of (i) and (ii) above is very common. We may call these 'forked clauses'.

E.g. *The thief broke into the house
and → The thief
The thief stole the silver.*



Coordination can also join smaller units, such as PHRASES and words.

2 Coordination of phrases

E.g. *Jill and my sister Ida are friends.
I'd like a cup of tea and a sandwich, please.
You can pay in cash or by credit card.
The hotel is small but very comfortable.*

3 Coordination of words

E.g. *My favourite subjects are history and literature.
Do you like your coffee with or without milk?
No one has seen or heard anything of them for ages.
I have spoken to her only once or twice.*

NOTE (i): We usually do not repeat a DETERMINER (e.g. *a, the, my*) after *and*, *or*, and *but*:

E.g. *my father and mother* is more common than: *my father and my mother*

NOTE (ii): We usually do not coordinate possessives before a noun. So instead of *our and your friends*, we prefer to say *our friends and yours* [see POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN].

NOTE (iii): [See COMMA 1 for details of how to use a comma in coordinating words and phrases.]

4 We can link more than two items by coordination. (Note the use of INTONATION.)

E.g. *Which of these fruit juices do you want? The apple, the grapefruit, or the orange?*

As in the above example, in a coordinated list of three or more items, *and* or *or* is placed between the last two items in the list.

correlative (conjunction) [See DOUBLE CONJUNCTION]

could and **might** /kud/, /maɪt/ are MODAL AUXILIARIES.

- **Could** and **might** go with a main verb, e.g. **could go**.
- They do not change their forms.
- They are the Past Tense forms of CAN and MAY – but their meaning is not usually past time.
- **Could** and **might** often have the same meaning.

1 Forms: present simple

			negative		
<i>I</i>			<i>I</i>	{ <i>couldn't</i> }	be . . . have . . . feel . . . look . . . etc.
<i>You</i>	could	might	<i>You</i>	{ <i>could not</i> }	be . . . have . . . feel . . . look . . . etc.
<i>We</i>			<i>We</i>	{ <i>mightn't</i> }	be . . . have . . . feel . . . look . . . etc.
<i>They</i>			<i>They</i>	{ <i>might not</i> }	be . . . have . . . feel . . . look . . . etc.
noun phrase			etc.		
etc.					

question

			negative question		
Could	<i>I</i>		Couldn't	<i>I</i>	be . . . have . . . feel . . . ?
Might	<i>you</i>		Couldn't	<i>you</i>	be . . . have . . . feel . . . ?
	<i>we</i>		Mightn't	<i>we</i>	be . . . have . . . feel . . . ?
	<i>they</i>		Mightn't	<i>they</i>	be . . . have . . . feel . . . ?
	noun phrase			<i>etc.</i>	be . . . have . . . feel . . . ?
	etc.				etc.

* *couldn't* = /'kudnt/; *mightn't* = /'maɪtn̩t/..

1a Perfect. E.g. *They { could } have arrived.*

Progressive. E.g. *They { could } be coming late.*

Passive. E.g. *They { could } be delayed.*

Perfect Passive. E.g. *You { could } have been killed.*

[See VERB PHRASE.]

2 Meanings and uses [Compare CAN, MAY 2, 3.]

2a Could / might means 'possible but unlikely'.

E.g. Well! It {**could**
might} rain tomorrow, but there are no clouds in the sky today.

One day I {**could**
might} become a millionaire, but the chances are very small.

'You **might** be offered the job of manager.' 'Yes, and pigs **might** fly!'^*

*'Pigs might fly' is a saying which means that everything is possible, even if it's very very unlikely!

NOTE: This meaning of **could** / **might** is used in **WARNINGS**.

E.g. Don't cross the road here; you {**could**
might} be run over.

2b Could (and rarely, might) is used for asking PERMISSION.

E.g. 'Could I see you for a few minutes?' 'Yes, certainly.' <polite>

Do you think } I **could** borrow { a pen?
I wonder if } some sugar? } <more polite>
your typewriter?

Could and **might** are more polite than **can** and **may**, because they are more tentative.

2c Could / might is used in making a SUGGESTION.

E.g. Student: What shall I do to improve my English?

Teacher: Well, you **could** / **might** try some of these grammar exercises.

2d Could / might is used in complaining about someone's behaviour. (This is not <polite>!)

E.g.



NOTE (i): Complaining often involves a COMPARATIVE form.

E.g. You **could** try to talk **more** quietly!

NOTE (ii): To complain about past behaviour, we use the Perfect Tense.

E.g. You **could have told** me the boss was angry!
You **might have asked** me before you took the money!

3 Differences between could and might

3a We use **might** more often for POSSIBILITY and **could** more often for PERMISSION.

3b Could can be used in REQUESTS.

E.g. Could you wait over there, please?
Could you possibly lend me \$10?

3c Could can be used to mean 'was able to' or 'would be able to'.

E.g. In those days, you **could** buy a coat for \$20.
If you **were** here, we **could** play tennis together.
[See IF 1c.]

3d The negative meanings of **could** and **might** are different:

In **could not** + Verb . . . , **not** applies to **could**.

In **might not** + Verb . . . , **not** applies to the Verb and what follows it.

E.g. You **couldn't** have met my grandmother: she died before you were born.
(i.e. 'it is not possible that you met . . .')

You **might not** have met my grandmother.
('It is possible that you have not met her.')

3e There is also a slight difference in the use of **could** and **might** for UNREAL MEANING, e.g. in IF-clauses.

E.g. If it **should** rain, the games **could** take place indoors.
(= 'It would be possible to organise the games indoors'.)
If it **should** rain, the games **might** take place indoors.
(= 'It is possible that the games would take place indoors'.)

4 We express a possibility in the past by **could** / **might have*** [see PERFECT].

E.g. A: 'Did you pass the exam?'

B: 'No, I didn't.'

A: 'Well, if you had worked harder, you **might have** passed it.'

***could have** = /'kudəvə/; **might have** = /'maɪtəvə/.

count noun

Another term for a countable noun [See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS]

countable and uncountable nouns

- In English, NOUNS can be divided into countable and uncountable nouns.
 - Most COMMON NOUNS are countable: i.e. they have both SINGULAR and PLURAL forms: e.g. hand – hands.
 - Other common nouns are uncountable: they have a singular, but no plural: e.g. bread – breads.
- [See UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS for more details, and for a list of such nouns.]

1 Examples of countable and uncountable nouns

1a Countable nouns can be both singular and plural:

singular ~ plural
<i>the baby</i> ~ <i>the babies</i>
<i>a rose</i> ~ <i>some roses</i>
<i>that cup</i> ~ <i>those cups</i>

singular ~ plural
<i>the bird</i> ~ <i>the birds</i>
<i>a key</i> ~ <i>some keys</i>
<i>that shout</i> ~ <i>those shouts</i>

[For details of how to form plurals, see PLURAL and IRREGULAR PLURAL. For types of countable noun, see COMMON NOUN.]

1b Uncountable nouns have no plural: they refer to things you cannot count. Here are examples of CONCRETE NOUNS (referring to the physical world) which are not countable.

E.g. substances: *bread* ~ *breads*, *dust* ~ *dusts*, *steel* ~ *steels*
liquids: *blood* ~ *bloods*, *milk* ~ *milks*, *alcohol* ~ *alcohols*
gases: *air* ~ *airs*, *steam* ~ *steams*, *oxygen* ~ *oxygens*

Many ABSTRACT NOUNS are also uncountable.

E.g. *peace* ~ *peaces*, *evidence* ~ *evidences*, *information* ~ *informations*, *history* ~ *histories*, *work* (= job) ~ *works*, *advice* ~ *advices*, *gratitude* ~ *gratitudes*

[For more examples, see UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

2 How countables and uncountables behave

2a Countable nouns:

- (i) can follow **a**, **an** or **one** [see A OR AN, ONE].
- (ii) can follow MANY, **few** [see (A) FEW], **these** [see THIS AND THESE], THOSE.
- (iii) can follow a NUMBER such as **two**, **three**, **four**, ...

(countable)	(uncountable)
E.g. (i) <i>Do you have a pleasant job?</i> (But not: ... <i>a pleasant work</i> .)	
(ii) <i>Those meals you cooked were delicious.</i>	(But not: <i>Those foods</i> ...)
(iii) <i>I bought two loaves.</i>	(But not: ... <i>two breads</i> .)

2b Uncountable nouns:

- (i) can have no article and can follow **some*** [see SOME AND ANY] (in the singular).
- (ii) can follow MUCH or **little** [see LITTLE / A LITTLE].
- (iii) can easily follow expressions like **most of the**, **all of the***, **all the***, **half the** (in the singular).

(uncountable)	(countable)
E.g. (i) <i>It's made of wood.</i>	(But not: <i>made of tree</i> .)
(ii) <i>There's too much traffic.</i>	(But not: <i>too much vehicle</i> .)
(iii) <i>I sold all the furniture.</i>	(But not: <i>all the table</i> .)

* **Some** and **all the** are occasionally followed by a singular countable noun. But this is exceptional.

E.g. *That was some party!* (= 'a very special party.')
I've eaten all the loaf. (= 'the whole loaf'.)

[See ALL 1a, 1b, SOME AND ANY, WHOLE.]

3 Many nouns have both countable and uncountable uses. Some common examples:

(countable)	(uncountable)
A dozen (= 12) eggs , please. <i>I've told him so many times.</i> <i>The crowd threw rocks at us.</i> <i>a strong wind</i> ; <i>light winds</i> . <i>She gave a talk on sailing.</i> <i>the bright lights</i> of the city.	<i>There's some egg</i> on your chin. <i>We've wasted so much time.</i> <i>a tunnel through hard rock.</i> <i>There's a lot of wind</i> about. <i>That's foolish talk.</i> <i>Light</i> travels very fast.

Some more examples:



a glass



a cake



two papers



(some) glass



(some) cake



(some) paper

For many nouns, the countable use is for separate items or things, but the uncountable use is for (an amount of) the material or substance. For example:



two onions



a (whole) cheese



a chicken



(some) onion



(some) cheese



(some) chicken

NOTE (i): Less commonly, a countable noun describes '*a kind* or *type* of X', where X is the uncountable noun.

E.g. *Gold and silver are valuable metals.* ('kinds of metal')
This store sells health foods and baby food(s).
Oak is a hard wood.

NOTE (ii): We sometimes change an uncountable noun into a countable noun. E.g. nouns for liquids such as *tea* and *coffee* are normally uncountable, but we can use them as countable nouns meaning (a) '*a glass* or *cup* of X' or (b) '*a type* of X'.

E.g. (a) '*A tea and two coffees* please.'
'i *This is an excellent mineral water* from Belgium'.

NOTE (iii): The meaning of a noun does not always help us to decide whether it is uncountable. For example, *traffic*, *furniture* and *baggage* (<G.B. > *luggage*) refer to a group of separate things. But English treats them as uncountable: we could say that English 'sees' these as a mass.

countries

- 1 With the name of a country, there is also an adjective describing the people, places, language, etc. which belong to that country. There is also a noun describing people of that country (the noun often has the same form as the adjective):

name of country	adjective	noun for people	
		singular	plural
<i>China</i>	<i>Chinese</i>	<i>a Chinese</i>	<i>Chinese*</i>
<i>Brazil</i>	<i>Brazilian</i>	<i>a Brazilian</i>	<i>Brazilians</i>
<i>Pakistan</i>	<i>Pakistani</i>	<i>a Pakistani</i>	<i>Pakistanis</i>

*Nouns ending *-ese* do not change in the plural: *a Chinese* ~ *two Chinese*; *a Japanese* ~ *many Japanese*.

NOTE: Notice that we spell the adjective, like the noun, with a capital letter: *Brazilian*, not *brazilian*.

1a Examples:

- (i) A: *Where do you come from?*
B: *I'm from Italy.*
A: *You must be Italian, then.*
B: *Yes, I'm an Italian, and my parents were Italians, too.*
- (ii) A: *Where do you come from?*
B: *I'm from Poland.*
A: *You must be Polish, then.*
B: *Yes, I'm a Pole, and my children are Poles too.*

- 2 In the following tables are examples of the main patterns in which the 'people noun' has the same form as the adjective.

2a Adjectives ending in *-an*:

name of country	adjective († = also language name)	noun for people singular	noun for people plural
<i>America</i>	<i>American</i>	<i>an American</i>	<i>Americans</i>
<i>Australia</i>	<i>Australian</i>	<i>an Australian</i>	<i>Australians</i>
<i>Belgium</i>	<i>Belgian</i>	<i>a Belgian</i>	<i>Belgians</i>
<i>Germany</i>	<i>German†</i>	<i>a German</i>	<i>Germans</i>
<i>India</i>	<i>Indian</i>	<i>an Indian</i>	<i>Indians</i>
<i>Hungary</i>	<i>Hungarian†</i>	<i>a Hungarian</i>	<i>Hungarians</i>
<i>Norway</i>	<i>Norwegian†</i>	<i>a Norwegian</i>	<i>Norwegians</i>
<i>Russia</i>	<i>Russian†</i>	<i>a Russian</i>	<i>Russians</i>

2b Adjectives ending in *-ese*:

<i>China</i>	<i>Chin'ese</i> *†	<i>a Chin'ese</i>	<i>Chin'ese</i>
<i>Japan</i>	<i>Japan'ese</i> *†	<i>a Japan'ese</i>	<i>Japan'ese</i>
<i>Portugal</i>	<i>Portu'guese</i> *†	<i>a Portu'guese</i>	<i>Portugu'ese</i>
<i>Vietnam</i>	<i>Vietnam'ese</i> *†	<i>a Vietnam'ese</i>	<i>Vietnam'ese</i>

* Adjectives ending in *-ese* move their stress to the first syllable when they precede a noun.
Compare: *This vase is Chin'ese* But: *a Chin'ese vase*

2c Adjectives ending in *-i*:

<i>Iraq</i>	<i>Iraqi</i>	<i>an Iraq</i>	<i>Iraqis</i>
<i>Israel</i>	<i>Is'ræli</i>	<i>an Is'ræli</i>	<i>Is'rælis</i>
<i>Pakistan</i>	<i>Paki'stani</i>	<i>a Paki'stani</i>	<i>Paki'stanis</i>

2d Exceptions:

<i>Argentina</i>	<i>'Argentine</i>	<i>an 'Argentine</i>	<i>'Argentines</i>
<i>Greece</i>	<i>Greekt</i>	<i>a Greek</i>	<i>Greeks</i>
<i>Switzerland</i>	<i>Swiss</i>	<i>a Swiss</i>	<i>Swiss</i>

3 In the following tables are examples where the 'people noun' has a different form from the adjective.

108 countries

3a Adjectives ending in *-ish*:

name of country	adjective († = also language name)	noun for people singular	plural
(Great) 'Britain	'British	a 'Briton *	'Britons *
'Denmark	'Danish†	a Dane	Danes
'Finland	'Finnish†	a Finn	Finns
'Poland	'Polish†	a Pole	Poles
'Scotland	'Scottish	a Scot	Scots **
'Spain	'Spanish†	a 'Spaniard *	'Spaniards *
'Sweden	'Swedish†	a Swede	Swedes
'Turkey	'Turkish†	a Turk	Turks

* *Briton* and *Spaniard* are not often used. We refer to the people in general as *the British* or *the Spanish*. [See GENERIC (OR GENERAL) USE OF ARTICLES.]

** For *Scotland*, there is also an adjective *Scots*, and a noun *Scotsman*.

3b In the following group, the noun has *-man* or *-woman*:

'England	'English *†	an 'Englishman *	'Englishmen *
France	'French *†	a 'Frenchman *	'Frenchmen *
{ 'Holland, the 'Netherlands	Dutch *†	a 'Dutchman *	'Dutchmen *
'Ireland	'Irish *	an 'Irishman *	'Irishmen *
Wales	Welsh *†	a 'Welshman *	'Welshmen *

* The noun is *-man* in a male form, and the female form ends in *-woman* (plural *-women*): *Frenchman*, *Frenchwoman*, etc. But often today we avoid these words, and use *a French person*, etc., instead. In any case, to describe the people of a country in general we use the + adjective: *the English*, *the French*, *the Dutch*, *the Irish*, *the Welsh* [see THE 3g].

'd is the contraction (or short form) of *had* and *would* [see CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 2].

dare /deə†/ (verb)

1 **Dare** is a regular verb (~ **dares**, **dared**, **daring**), normally followed by a TO-INFITIVE [see VERB PATTERNS 7].

E.g. *He dared to criticize the king.*

2 **Dare** also sometimes behaves like a MODAL AUXILIARY, e.g. in coming before NOT. (But **doesn't** / **didn't dare to** is more common.)

E.g. *The administration dare not increase the tax on cigarettes.*

dates – saying them and writing them.

1 The months of the year

January	May	September
February	June	October
March	July	November
April	August	December

NOTE (i): Always write the names of months and days with a capital letter: *April*, *Monday*, but not *spri*, *monday*.

NOTE (ii): Write the four seasons without a capital: *spring*, *summer*, *autumn* <G.B.> / *fall* <U.S. >, *winter*.

2 The days of the week

Monday	Thursday	Saturday
Tuesday	Friday	Sunday
Wednesday		

3 <speech>

Here are examples of how to talk about dates:

- 1 'What's the date today?' 'It's **the twenty-fifth of May**'.
 'When were you born?' '**On the ninth of July, 1956**'.
 'In what year was Beethoven born?' '**In 1770**'.

* [For details of how to pronounce these numbers see 3b below.]

[On the use of *on* and *in*, see TIME 4.]

3 Notice you can use either of these patterns:

A: (name of day)	the	number of day	of	name of month	(number of year)
(Monday)	the	first	of	June	(1927).

or

B: (name of day)	name of month	the	number of day	(number of year)
(Tuesday)	March	the	third	(1564).

- (a) Highest degree: *absolutely, altogether, completely, entirely, quite *, totally, utterly*
- (b) High degree: *very **, very much ***, much ***, a lot ***, a great deal ***, considerably ***. extremely ***
- (c) Middle / Low degree: *rather, quite *, fairly **, pretty ** <informal>, somewhat, a bit <informal>. (a) little, a little bit <informal>, slightly.*

[The following words have separate entries in this book; look them up for further details: QUITE AND RATHER, VERY, MUCH, A LOT (OF) / LOTS(OF), A BIT / A BIT OF, LITTLE / A LITTLE. For the asterisked notes see 2a below.]

2a Examples:

(a) Highest degree

E.g. *I agree with you completely.*
'What I said was quite true.' 'No, it wasn't – it was utterly false.'

(b) High degree

E.g. *'How do you like his paintings?' 'I admire them very much.'*
Thank you for your extremely useful advice. I'm very grateful for your help.

(c) Middle / Low degree

E.g. *I was slightly disappointed with my results in the test: I found it rather difficult.*
The climb was somewhat easier than I expected.

* Notice that **quite** belongs to the two classes (a) and (c) [See QUITE AND RATHER 2].

** **Extremely**, **very**, **fairly**, and **pretty** go with ordinary adjectives and adverbs, but they do not go with:

(i) verbs.

E.g. You can say: *The party was extremely enjoyable.*

But not: *I enjoyed the party extremely.*

Instead, say: *I enjoyed the party very much.*

(ii) comparative words:

You can say: *This party is fairly good.*

But not: *This party is fairly better than the last.*

Instead, say: *This party is somewhat better than the last.*

Other degree adverbs which behave like **extremely** and **fairly** (modifying adjectives and adverbs but not verbs and comparatives) are **as** [see as 1], **so** [see so 1], and **too** [see too 2].

*** **Much**, **very much**, **a lot**, and other adverbs marked *** do the opposite of those marked **:

they go with verbs or comparative words, but not with adjectives or adverbs.

E.g. You can say: *Adam is very much older than Eve.*

But not: *Adam is very much old.*

Instead, say: *Adam is very old.*

(On the choice of **much** and **very much**, see MUCH 2c).

- zb Other adverbs (particularly adverbs of high degree) go with particular verbs. For example, **hard** goes with **work** and **try**.

E.g. *We are working hard, but the manager says we must try harder.*
We rely heavily on our overseas market.
I thoroughly approve of your action.

3 The positions of degree words

Degree words usually go before ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS and COMPARATIVE words.* For example:

adjectives	adverbs	comparative words
quite young so quiet	very often too slowly	much older rather more

* **Enough** is a special exception to this rule: as a degree word, it follows the words it modifies, even when they are adjectives or adverbs, e.g. **strong enough**, **strangely enough**. [See ENOUGH.]

3a With verbs the position of the degree word varies:

- (i) Some degree words go before the verb (**quite**, **rather**). [See QUITE AND RATHER.]

E.g. *I rather like her.* *Have you quite finished?*

- (ii) Some (those adverbs which begin with **a**, such as **a bit**, **a lot**, **a great deal**) go after the verb (and after the OBJECT, if there is one).

E.g. *I like her a lot.* *It doesn't worry me a bit.*

- (iii) Most go both before and after the verb (+ object).

E.g. *We completely failed.* *We failed completely.*

3b Three more kinds of degree word

These words are different from the three kinds (a–c) in 1 above, because they relate to the **limits** of a scale:

- (d) ↑ d **almost**, **nearly** and **practically** indicate something near the limit of the scale. [See ALMOST AND NEARLY.]

E.g. *I almost won the race.*
My father is nearly blind. (= 'He can hardly see at all.')

- (e) ↓ (not) at all, and (not) a bit refer to the negative end of a scale.

E.g. *That lecture wasn't at all useful.* (= 'It was completely useless.')

- (f) ↓ f HARDLY, **scarcely**, and **barely** indicate something near the negative end of the scale.

E.g. *Nora is scarcely awake.* (= 'almost asleep')
You've changed so much – I hardly recognized you.

114 degree

- 5 Some degree words express attitudes (e.g. a 'good' or a 'bad' feeling about something). [For further examples, see ENOUGH 1, and TOO 2, QUITE AND RATHER, HOW 4, and so 1.]

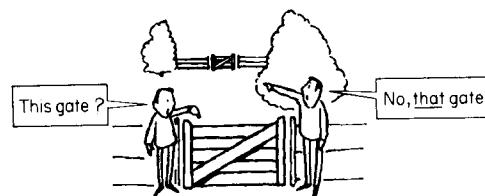
6 What kinds of word can degree words go with?

Apart from adjectives, adverbs, and verbs, degree words can go with some QUANTITY WORDS: MANY, MUCH, **more**, **most** [see MORE / (THE) MOST]; (A) FEW, (a) **little** [see LITTLE / A LITTLE]; **fewer**, **fewest**; **less**, **least** [see LESS / (THE) LEAST].

E.g.

**demonstrative**

- 1 The term demonstrative means 'showing' or 'pointing to' something. It refers to the four words **this**, **that**, **these**, and **those**, whose basic use is to point to something in the situation. [Look up THAT 3, THIS AND THESE, and THOSE for further details.]



	singular	plural
'near'	this	these
'far'	that	those

This and **these** are called 'near' because they indicate something near to the speaker. * **That** and **those** refer to something less near to the speaker.

*But there are other uses where **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** do not express the 'near' / 'far' difference. [See especially THAT 3, THOSE.]

All four demonstratives can act as (a) DETERMINER (usually with a following noun) or as (b) PRONOUN (without a following noun). For example:

determiner	pronoun
' That man is my father.'	'And who is that ? Your mother?'
' This room is where I work.'	'Oh, so this must be your desk.'
'Have one of these nuts.'	'No, thanks, I'd prefer one of these .'
' Those trees in the corner are oak trees,'	and those over there are apple trees.'

dependent clause

[Another term for SUBORDINATE CLAUSE, see CLAUSE 2]

determiner

A noun usually has to have a determiner in front of it: **the drum**, **our children**. [See NOUN PHRASE.]

The <most common> determiners in English are the definite article [see THE] and the indefinite article [see A OR AN].

Determiners also precede other words which precede a noun; e.g. adjectives and numbers: **the big drum**, **our three children** [see NOUN PHRASE].

The table below shows which determiners go with the different types of noun. [The determiners in this table have separate entries in this book; look them up for further details; See also POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN.]

	kinds of determiner	with countable nouns		with uncountable nouns
		singular	plural	singular
definite	DEFINITE ARTICLE	the book	the books	the coffee
	POSSESSIVES POSSESSIVE nouns	my book Mary's book	my books Mary's books	my coffee Mary's coffee
	DEMONSTRATIVES	this book that book	these books those books	this coffee that coffee
indefinite	INDEFINITE ARTICLE	a book	~ books **	~ coffee **
	QUANTITY WORDS (general) (without comparison)	(all the book ***) (some book ***) (any book ***) no book	all books some books any books no books	all coffee some coffee any coffee no coffee
		every book each book either book neither book one book another book		
			both books several books	
			enough books	enough coffee
	QUANTITY WORDS (with comparison)		many books more books most books (a) few books fewer * books fewest * books	much coffee more coffee most coffee (a) little coffee less coffee least coffee
wh-words	For expressing attitudes, etc	such (a) book! what (a) book!	such books! what books!	such coffee! what coffee!
	For asking QUESTIONS (POSSESSIVE)	what book? which book? whose books?	what books? which books? whose books?	what coffee? which coffee? whose coffee?
	WH-EVER WORDS	whatever book whichever book	whatever books whichever books	whatever coffee whichever coffee

* We sometimes use **less** and **least** instead of **fewer** and **fewest**.

** ~ signals that the indefinite article is absent before plural and uncountable nouns. [See ZERO ARTICLE.]

*** **All**, **some** and **any** are less common with singular countable nouns. They have special uses in this position. [See ALL 1a, 1b, COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS 2b*]

NOTE: the words within the heavy boxes in the table do not change their form; they stay the same whatever kind of noun follows.

2 When there is more than one determiner follow these useful rules:

2a Place **all** and **both** in front of other determiners.

E.g. **We ate all the food.** **Both my sons are at college.**

2b Place **what** and **such** in front of **a** or **an** in exclamations.

E.g. **What an awful day!** **I've never seen such a crowd!**

2c Place **many**, **much**, **more**, **most**, **few**, **little** after other determiners.

E.g. **His many successes made him famous.**

They have no more food.

What little money I have is yours.

different /'dɪfrənt/ (adjective)

1 In <G.B.>, **different from** . . . is normally considered the <correct> construction.

E.g. **Maggie's views are different from mine.**

Picasso's latest paintings are in a very different style from his early work.

But many people use **different to** instead: **different to mine**, etc.

2 In <U.S.> especially, **than** can be used instead of **from**.

E.g. **Maggie's views are different than mine.**

<G.B.> speakers often consider this 'incorrect'.

direct object [See INDIRECT OBJECT, OBJECT]

direct speech [Compare INDIRECT SPEECH]

- 1 'Direct speech' means using the actual words spoken by someone.

E.g. (i) '**There's our taxi,**' she said.

The words **There's our taxi** are in direct speech. In English we normally use ' ' or " " (quotation marks or quotes) at the beginning and end of the words in direct speech.

- 2 The direct speech can be placed at the beginning (see example (i) above), at the end (see example (ii) below), or at the beginning and end of the sentence (see example (iii) below).

E.g. (ii) She said, '**There's our taxi.**'

(iii) '**There,**' she said, '**is our taxi.**'

NOTE (i): If the direct speech is an exclamation or a question, place the ! or ? before the closing 'quote', even if it is the middle of the sentence.

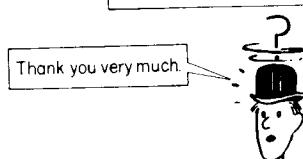
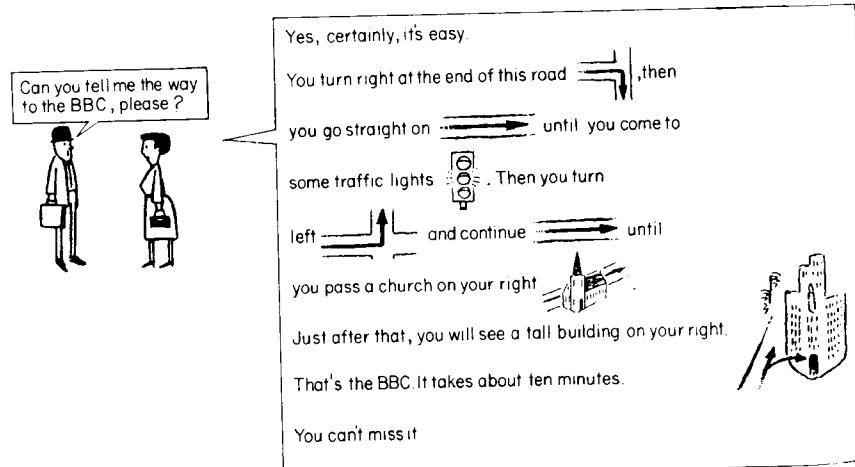
E.g. '**There's our taxi!**' shouted Max.

'**Where's our taxi?**' asked Jill.

directions

1 Spoken directions

Here is an example of how to give directions in <speech>.



2 Written directions [See INSTRUCTIONS.]

disagreeing [See AGREEING AND DISAGREEING.]

distance [See also MEASURING]

1 How to measure distances

We measure distance in **inches, feet, yards, miles**, etc., or in **centimetres, metres, kilometres** <G.B.> (or **centimeters, meters, kilometers** <U.S.>). The 'old' system for measuring distances (widely used in English-speaking countries) is:

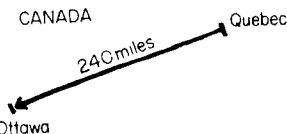
12 inches make one foot, 3 feet make one yard
5280 feet make one mile (one mile is about 1.6 kilometres)

2 Far and further

Far and **further** are words expressing distance.

E.g. (i) '**How far** is it (from here) to the nearest bank?'

'It's $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{about} \\ \text{exactly} \\ \text{nearly} \end{array} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{five miles.} \\ \text{a hundred yards.} \\ \text{a mile and a half.} \end{array} \right\}$



(ii) '**It's 240 miles from Quebec to Ottawa.**'

'How much further is it to Toronto?'

'It's (at least) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{200 miles (further).} \\ \text{another 200 miles.} \end{array} \right\}$ '

Some other expressions of distance

Yesterday I walked 30 kilometres.

I have to travel a long way (to work).

Our grandson lives several miles away.

The post office is only 100 yards from here.

This book says it's 6790 miles from Singapore to London.

do /du:/ does, did, doing, done (verb)

- **Do** is important both as an AUXILIARY VERB and as a MAIN VERB.
- The auxiliary **do** is important for forming negatives and questions.
- [For further information, look up AUXILIARY VERB, DO AND MAKE.]

1 Forms of do

Do is an IRREGULAR VERB with 5 different forms:

do is the BASIC FORM, used as the INFINITIVE, the IMPERATIVE (and the SUBJUNCTIVE), (also as a Present Tense form – see below).

subject	forms	
	Present Tense	participles (main verb only)
he, she, it, or singular noun phrase	does /dəz/, /dəz/ *	ing form: doing /du:ɪŋ/
I, we, you, they, or plural noun phrase	do /du:/, /du/ *	
	Past Tense	past participle: done /dʌn/
all kinds of subject	did /dɪd/	

* The second pronunciation is a weak form [see STRESS 4].

2 Auxiliary do

As an auxiliary verb, **do** goes with the BASIC FORM of the main verb:

negative				question			
auxiliary	not*	main		auxiliary		main	
I do	-n't	play	golf.	Do	you	play	...?

* In <spoken English> use the contraction **-n't** for **not**. [See CONTRACTIONS OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES.]

- 2a** As this example shows, auxiliary **do** is mainly used to form QUESTIONS and negative sentences [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES]. It has no meaning itself, but it is an 'empty helping verb', to help to form negatives, questions, etc. We also use **do** in forming tag questions, 'shortened answers', emphatic sentences, etc. [See also the use of **do** in INVERSION 4, QUESTIONS.]

NOTE: We do not use auxiliary **do** to form questions and negative sentences with **be** or with another auxiliary verb. [For further details, see BE, AUXILIARY VERB.]

- 2d** Negatives: **don't /dəʊnt/** (= do not)
doesn't /'dəznt/ (= does not)
didn't /'dɪdn̩t/ (= did not)

With the main verbs (except BE) we form a negative sentence like this:

DO + -N'T + MAIN VERB

- E.g. *I enjoy walking.* → *I don't enjoy walking.*
He likes cats. → *He doesn't like cats.*
They waited for us. → *They didn't wait for us.*
Please go away. → *Please don't go away.*

Notice that the **-s** and **-d** move from the main verb to **do** in the negative. But with IRREGULAR VERBS, there may be no **-d** in the Past Tense:

Past Simple	→ negative	Past Simple	→ negative
took	→ didn't take	saw	→ didn't see
came	→ didn't come	went	→ didn't go etc.

* In **doesn't** and **didn't**, **-n't** is pronounced as a separate syllable, rather like **-ənt/-əntɪ/**.

- 2c** In <formal writing> and business letters, use:

DO / DOES / DID + NOT + MAIN VERB

- E.g. *Dear Sir,*
I do not agree with the view that violence is essential, as implied in yesterday's edition of your newspaper...

- 2d** Questions:

With main verbs (other than **be**) we form a YES-NO QUESTION by placing the correct form of **do** in front of the subject. For example:

She			Does	she	
It			Doesn't	it	
My son				your son	
I					
We			Do	you	
Italians			Don't	they	
				Italians	
The bus			Did	the bus	
They			Didn't	they	
					arrive late?

We also use **do** in some WH-QUESTIONS and in TAG QUESTIONS when the statement has just a main verb (other than **be**).

- E.g. *'What music do you like best?' 'I like jazz best of all.'*

- 2e** **Do** in tag questions:

When there is no auxiliary or **be**, we can make a statement into a question by adding:

, + DO + PRONOUN + ?

E.g. You speak Spanish, **don't you?**
She speaks Spanish, **doesn't she?**

2f Do in SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES:

We use **do** at the end of an answer, to avoid repeating the same words.

E.g. 'Does your husband smoke more than ten cigarettes a day?' 'Yes, I'm sorry to say **he does**'.
('he does' = 'he does smoke more than ten cigarettes a day.')
'You **don't** do enough exercise.' 'Perhaps I **don't**.'
('I don't' = 'I don't do enough exercise')

The following are examples of shortened clauses [see SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES 3] e.g. in COMPARATIVE CLAUSES:

She speaks English much better than he does.

(= 'than he speaks English.')

The Chinese learned to make glass long before the Western nations did.

(= 'before the Western nations learned to make glass.')

NOTE: In the examples above, **do** comes at the end of the clause or sentence. Sometimes, however, it comes in the middle.

E.g. *Barry cooks dinner for his wife more frequently than she does for him.*
(= 'than she cooks dinner for him.')

2g Do for emphasis:

We use **do** in positive sentences, but only for special emphasis.

E.g. *I did enjoy that dinner! It was delicious.*
We don't need advice, but we do need money.
'I wish I could lose weight.' 'Yes, well, you do eat a lot.'

Here **do** always has stress, and emphasises positive meaning.

Do also comes at the beginning of an imperative sentence, for emphasis.

E.g. *Do write to us and tell us how you are.*
(Compare the negative: **Don't** forget to write . . .)

Sometimes **do** replaces the whole imperative.

E.g. *'May I have another cup of tea?' 'Yes, do.'* (= 'Yes, certainly.')

3 Do as a main verb [See also DO AND MAKE.]

Like the auxiliary **do**, the main verb **do** is an 'empty' verb. It has little meaning itself, but can save us the trouble of repeating other words twice. You can often combine it with other words: **do so**, **do it**, **do that** etc.

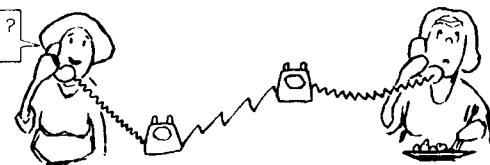
3a What + do:

What + do is a general way of getting information:

– asking about the present.

E.g.

What are you doing?
Are you eating?



– asking about the future.

E.g.

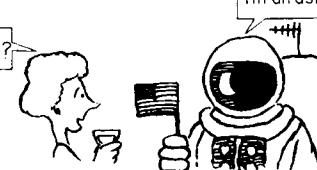
What are you doing
this afternoon?
tomorrow?
next weekend?



– asking about someone's job.

E.g.

What do you do?
I'm an astronaut



[See PRESENT TIME 2 for the difference between the Present Simple and the Present Progressive.]

* Notice that the auxiliary **do** and the main verb **do** can both be in the same clause, e.g. in a question.

3b Do so:

We may use **do so** to refer to an action which we have already mentioned.

E.g. If you have not posted the **{ cheque <G.B. >, check <U.S. >, }** will you please

do so immediately? (**do so** = 'post the cheque')

They intended to reach the top of the mountain, but no one knows if they did so. (**did so** = 'reached the top of the mountain')

'Are you taking your driving test?' 'No, I've already done so.'

(= 'taken my driving test.')

NOTE: Rarely, **do so** precedes the words whose meaning it repeats.

E.g. If you have not already **done so**, will you please post the **{ cheque & check }** immediately?

3c Do with IT and THAT:

Like **do so**, **do it** refers to an action we have mentioned elsewhere.

E.g. 'Is Julia still writing her essay?'

'Yes, she should have **done it** ages ago.'
(= 'written her essay')

Do that is similar, but is more emphatic.

E.g. 'I'm resigning from my job.'

'Don't **do that!** You'll never find a better one.'
(= 'resign from your job')

4 Do in greetings

How are you doing? is a friendly question about a person's life

(= 'How are you getting on?').

How do you do is a greeting we use when we meet someone for the first time.

do and **make**

[See also DO and MAKE separately.]

- 1 Both these general verbs can be followed by a noun or noun phrase describing some object or action. We show the difference between them in the following table:

make means 'bring into existence', 'produce some result'	do means 'perform an action'
For example:	For example:
make a cake, a meal	do a job
make bread, jam	do something for a living
make a pot of tea, coffee	do business (with someone)
make an appointment	do one's homework
make war (on someone)	do damage (to something)
make peace (with someone)	do the housework, the dishes
make a good impression	do the cooking, the shopping
make progress	do one's hair, one's teeth
make a mistake	do physical exercises
make a fuss, a noise	do someone a favour, a good turn
make fun of someone, a fool of someone	do well, better
make a phone call	do something to someone
make a decision	do something with something
make a fortune	do anything, nothing
	do what you like

double conjunction

[See COORDINATION, CONJUNCTION]

- 1 The CONJUNCTIONS **and**, **or**, **but**, and **nor** sometimes follow another word which emphasises their meaning:

both X and Y **either X or Y** **not X but Y**
neither X nor Y **not only X but Y** **if X then Y**

We call these pairs **double conjunctions**. [The above words all have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

2 **both . . . and . . .** (Adding one item or idea to another)

E.g. **Both** my mother **and** her sister were born in Mexico.
*The cat family includes both lions **and** tigers.*

3 **either . . . or . . .** (Alternatives)

E.g. You can have **either** a dog **or** a cat. You can't have both.
Either you like boxing **or** you hate it.

4 **not . . . but . . .** (Replacing one idea by another)

E.g. We're leaving **not** next week, **but** the week after.
*It's not the players, **but** the supporters, that cause trouble at football matches.* [See IT-PATTERNS.]

5 **not only . . . but (also) . . .** (Adding one idea to another: emphatic)

E.g. She's **not only** beautiful, **but (also)** a great actress.
Not only is television boring, **but it (also)** wastes a lot of time.
[On the WORD ORDER here, see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a]

This double conjunction has the same meaning of 'addition' as **both . . . and**. But in **not only X but Y**, the X is something known or expected, and the Y is something unexpected, which receives emphasis. For extra emphasis, add **also** after **but**.

6 **neither . . . nor . . .** (Adding two negative ideas together)

E.g. She's **neither** beautiful **nor** clever, **but** everyone admires her.
(= She is not beautiful and she is not clever.)
Neither Otto **nor** his wife wanted children.

NOTE: [On the similar use of **neither** as an adverb with INVERSION, see NEITHER 4.]

7 **If . . . then . . .** (Logical Result)

This is a different kind of double conjunction: the first word **if** is a subordinating CONJUNCTION, and the first part of the sentence is therefore a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE. We place **then** after the end of the if-clause, to emphasise the link between the condition (**if . . .**) and its result (**then . . .**).

126 double conjunction

- E.g. *If you hate violence, then you must hate war films.*
If the law has been broken, then the police must take action.

down [See UP AND DOWN]**due to** /'dju:tə:/ /'du:tə:/ (weak form: /'dju:tə/ /'du:tə/ (preposition))

Due to expresses REASON AND CAUSE, and is similar in meaning to **because** or **owing to**.

- E.g. (i) *His success was due to patience and hard work.*
(ii) *Due to bad weather, the farmers have lost much of their fruit crop.*

Some people dislike the use of **due to** in example (ii), because they consider that **due** is an adjective.

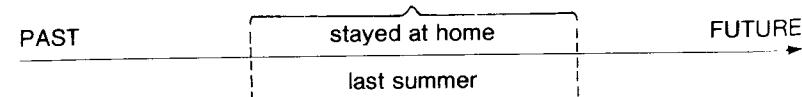
duration [See LENGTH OF TIME]**during** /'djuərɪŋ/ /'duərɪŋ/ (preposition)

- 1 We use **during** with periods of time.

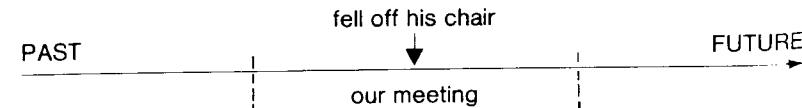
- E.g. (i) *We stayed at home during last summer.*
(ii) *I'll speak to him during dinner.*
(iii) *Jim fell off his chair during our meeting.*

- 2 **During** can describe:

- (1) a state continuing throughout the period, as in example (i) above:



- (2) a single happening in the period, as in example (iii) above:

**each** /i:tʃ/ (determiner or pronoun)

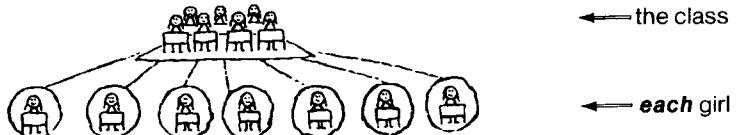
- **Each** (like **EVERY**) refers to all members of a group.
- **Each** makes us think of the members of a group one by one.

1 **Each as DETERMINER**

Each is followed by a SINGULAR countable noun, or by **one** [see ONE 2].

- E.g. *each girl, each ticket, each new performance, each one, each taxi, each toy, each country in the world, each one of us*

Each girl in the class has her own desk.

2 **Each as a PRONOUN**

Each as a pronoun has the above meaning, but is not followed by a noun.

- E.g. *Each of the rooms has a telephone.* [See INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2.]
When the children entered, each was given a present.
('each of the children was given a present.')

- 2a There is a difference between **all** and **each**. Compare (i) and (ii):



The teacher said 'hello' to each of the new students.



The teacher said 'hello' to all of the new students.

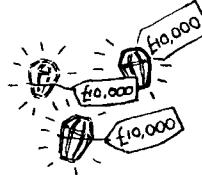
Each means that the teacher repeated 'hello' many times; once for every student.

All probably means that the teacher said 'hello' just once for the whole class.

3 **Each following the noun or pronoun**

Each can follow the noun or pronoun it describes. You can use it in middle position [see ADVERB 3] after the subject or an auxiliary verb or **are** or **were**.

- E.g. (i) *The king divided his land equally between his three sons. So when he died, they each owned a third of his kingdom.*
(‘Each of them owned a third of his kingdom.’)
- (ii) *The children have each won a prize.*
(‘Each of the children has won a prize.’)

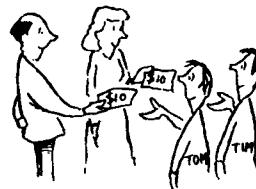


- (iii) *These diamonds are each worth £10,000.*

Notice that the verb in examples (ii) and (iii) above is plural, because the subject (*children*, *diamonds*) is also plural [see AGREEMENT].

- 3a Sometimes **each** follows not the subject, but the object.

- E.g. (i) *We gave the children a prize each.* (‘Each of the children got a prize.’)



- (ii) *They paid Tom and Tim ten dollars each for the work that they did.*

4 Idioms

Each other has the same meaning as **one another** [see ONE 4]. It behaves like a single pronoun, as object or after a preposition.

E.g. ‘Do you and Joan know **each other**?’

‘Yes, we talked to **each other** at the party last night.’

-ed forms (written in this book as Verb-ed)

- 1 The -ed forms of the verb are the PAST TENSE form and the PAST PARTICIPLE form. REGULAR VERBS are spelled with -ed, e.g. **wanted**, **wanted**. IRREGULAR VERBS do not end in -ed: **cut**, **cut**. And with some irregular verbs the two forms are different: **ate**, **eaten**. But we will still call them -ed forms’.

E.g.	Past Tense form	past participle form
regular	I asked for help	I have asked for help
irregular	I cut the cake I ate lunch	I have cut the cake I have eaten lunch.

[On the spelling of the -ed forms, see SPELLING.]

Rules for pronouncing -ed forms

Pronounce -ed as /ɪd/ only after verbs ending /t/ or /d/.

E.g. visit → **visited** /'vɪzɪtɪd/ Compare: name → **named** /neɪmd/
land → **landed** /'lændɪd/ look → **looked** /lʊkt/

-ed sounds like /d/ after verbs ending in other voiced consonants (/b/, /ð/, /g/, /l/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /r/, /v/, /w/, /z/, /dʒ/, /ʒ/) and vowels.

-ed sounds like /t/ after verbs ending in other voiceless consonants: (/p/, /θ/, /k/, /f/, /s/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/).

•g. /i:dʒi:/ (adverb) (abbreviation)

E.g. is a linking adverb, abbreviated from the Latin **exempli gratia**. It stands for ‘for example’. We can use it to link clauses or phrases in APPPOSITION.

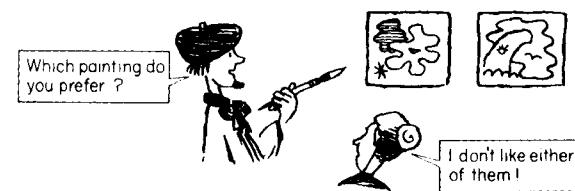
E.g. *The palace contains many famous works of art; e.g. paintings by Titian, Rembrandt, and Goya.*

E.g. is chiefly found in <written> English. Another abbreviation like this is **i.e.** [see I.E.].

either /'aɪðər/ or /'i:ðər/ (pronoun, determiner, or adverb)

► **Either** is a word which we use chiefly in questions and after negatives, like **any** [see SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS].

► Unlike **any**, **either** involves a choice between two alternatives:



► [On **either...or...**, see DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 3].

1 Either as PRONOUN

Either is a pronoun which describes a choice between two. It is often followed by **of** + NOUN PHRASE.

- E.g. (i) 'Would you like **either** of these hats?' 'No, I don't want **either** (of them), thanks.' (= 'I dislike both of them.')
 (ii) **Noel is Rosa's boyfriend, but he hasn't met either of her parents**, yet.
 (= 'either her father or her mother.')

2 Either as ADVERB

Either can be a linking adverb at the end of a negative sentence.

- E.g. (i) 'I didn't agree with John.' 'No, I didn't, **either**'
 (ii) **John doesn't like Pam, and Pam doesn't like John, either**.

Either here is the opposite of the adverbs **too** or **also** [see **too 1**]. It has heavy stress. The meaning of example (i) is similar to the following example:

'I disagreed with John.' 'Yes, I did **too**.'

2a Either as adverb always takes end position in the clause. But **neither [see ADVERB 4] usually takes front position (with INVERSION).**

E.g. 'I wasn't hungry.' 'No, **{ I wasn't, either. neither was I.}**'

'I've never met his wife,' 'No, **{ I haven't, either. neither have I.}**'

'I can't swim very fast.' 'No, **{ I can't, either. neither can I.}**'

3 Either as DETERMINER

The determiner **either** has a similar meaning to the pronoun, but it comes before a noun.

E.g. As the President's car drove through the town, there were crowds on **either side** of the road. (= 'on both sides of the road.')

else /els/ (adverb)**1** The adverb **else** is related in meaning to OTHER, and follows pronouns and adverbs ending in **-one**, **-body**, **-thing**, and **-where**.

- E.g. 'Why did you sit there?' 'There was **nowhere else** to sit.' ('no other place')
 I'm sorry, I'm too busy. Perhaps **someone else** will help you.
 ('some other person').

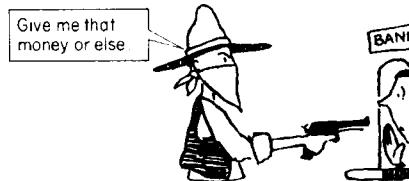
10 Else can also follow what, who, etc. in questions or subordinate clauses [see WH-WORDS].

E.g. I've invited Omar and Ella to the party. **Who else** shall we invite?
 ('Which other people shall we invite?')

2 (Or) else is a linking adverb meaning 'if not' or 'otherwise' [see also OR 3].

E.g. They should leave immediately, **or else** they will miss the train.
 The judge ordered him to pay the costs, **or else** to go to prison.

NOTE: **Or else** . . . is sometimes used as a threat.

**end position**

End position is the position of an adverbial (or other optional element) in the clause when it follows the verb (+ object or complement). [See ADVERB 3]

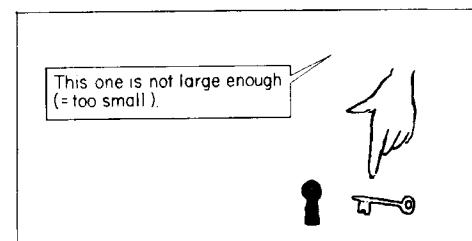
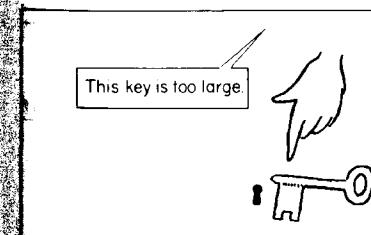
enough /ɪ'nʌf/ (adverb, pronoun, or determiner)

Enough means 'sufficient' or 'sufficiently'.

Not . . . enough means 'not sufficient(ly)', i.e. 'less than one would like'.

Enough is the opposite of **too (much)** [see **too 2**].

Enough is often followed by FOR or TO:



ENOUGH + FOR + NOUN PHRASE
 E.g. Is the water hot **enough for** a bath?

or: **ENOUGH + TO + INFINITIVE**
 He is old **enough to** be her father.

1 **Enough as an ADVERB OF DEGREE**

Enough as an adverb of degree follows the word whose meaning it influences: adjective / adverb / verb + **enough**.

adjective + **enough**:

E.g. *This house is not big enough (for our family).*

adverb + **enough**:

E.g. *Did you get up early enough (to eat a good breakfast)?*

verb + ... **enough**:

E.g. *She doesn't love her children enough (to look after them properly).*

2 **Enough as a PRONOUN**

Enough as a pronoun means the opposite of **too much** (i.e. the right amount).

E.g. 'Would you like some more bread?'

'No, thank you – I've eaten (quite) **enough**.'

'How is your new job?'

'Fine, thank you – I will soon be earning **enough** to buy a car.'

3 **Enough as a DETERMINER**

Enough as a determiner precedes a singular uncountable noun or a plural noun, as in these patterns:

enough + uncountable noun	
<i>Do they have</i>	<i>enough money?</i>
	<i>enough water?</i>
	<i>enough time?</i>

enough + plural noun	
<i>enough people?</i>	
<i>enough jobs?</i>	
<i>enough cups?</i>	

-er

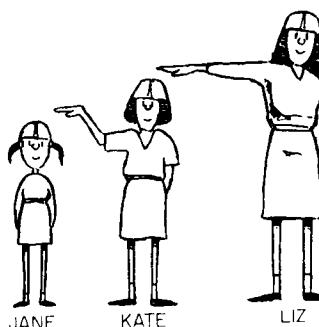
-/ər/

-est

-/ɪst/

} endings for adjectives and adverbs

- -er is the ending of the COMPARATIVE form of most common adjectives: **higher, older, taller**. [Compare **more**: see MORE / (THE) MOST.]
- -est is the ending of the SUPERLATIVE form of the most common adjectives: **(the) highest, (the) oldest, (the) tallest**. [Compare **most**: see MORE / (THE) MOST.]
- Don't forget that **the** generally goes before the superlative ending in -est.



E.g. *Jane is tall for a five-year-old.*

Kate is taller than Jane, but shorter than Liz.

Liz is taller than Kate, and in fact she's the tallest of the three girls.

1 There are a number of categories of adjective which can end with -er and -est

1a 'Short' adjectives of just one syllable. For example:

comparative		superlative
<i>high</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>highest</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>older</i>	<i>oldest</i>
<i>hot</i> *	<i>hotter</i>	<i>hottest</i>
<i>wet</i> *	<i>wetter</i>	<i>wettest</i>
<i>nice</i> **	<i>nicer</i>	<i>nicest</i>
<i>late</i> **	<i>later</i>	<i>latest</i>

comparative		superlative
<i>low</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>lowest</i>
<i>young</i>	<i>younger</i>	<i>youngest</i>
<i>cold</i>	<i>colder</i>	<i>coldest</i>
<i>dry</i> ***	<i>drier</i>	<i>driest</i>
	etc.	

*Some adjectives double the last letter before adding -er or -est. [See SPELLING 1]

Other adjectives lose their final -e before the endings are added, e.g. **large, larger, largest.

***[See SPELLING 4.]

1b 'Longer' two-syllable adjectives which end with consonant + -y.*

<i>busy</i>	<i>busier</i>	<i>busiest</i>
<i>happy</i>	<i>happier</i>	<i>happiest</i>

<i>early</i>	<i>earlier</i>	<i>earliest</i>
<i>heavy</i>	<i>heavier</i>	<i>heaviest</i>

*[See SPELLING 4b on changing -y to -i-.]

1c Some other two-syllable words can take either -er and -est or **more** and **most**.

E.g. *common* { *commoner* { *commonest*
 more common { *most common*

Other examples are: **able, clever, narrow, noble, simple, shallow, unkind**.

2 Irregular forms of adjectives

Three very common adjectives have irregular forms:

*good ~ better ~ best
bad ~ worse ~ worst
far ~ further ~ furthest*

For example:

Exam results:	65%	75%	90%
<i>In the exam, Sally was good, John was better, and Eva was the best!</i>			

[See GOOD, BAD / BADLY and FAR 4 for examples.]

NOTE (i): **Longer, longest, stronger, and strongest** have irregular pronunciation. They have a /g/ sound after the /ŋ/.

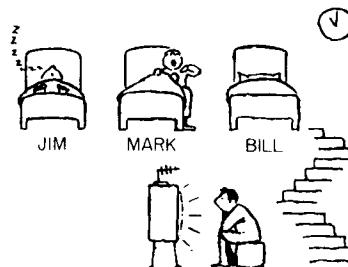
*long /lɒŋ/ ~ longer /'lɒŋgə(r)/ ~ longest /'lɒŋgɪst/
strong /strɒŋ/ ~ stronger /'strɒŋgə(r)/ ~ strongest /'strɒŋgɪst/
young /jʌŋ/ ~ younger /'jʌŋgə(r)/ ~ youngest /'jʌŋgɪst/*

NOTE (ii): **Elder** and **eldest** are old forms of **older** and **oldest**. Nowadays they are used mainly in such phrases as **elder brother**, **elder sister**, **elderson**, **elder daughter**. We do not use them with than: *I am elder than my sister.*

3 Adverbs with -er / -est

3a -er and -est are added to adverbs which have the same form as adjectives, to make their comparative and superlative forms:

early	earlier	earliest	late	later	latest
fast	faster	fastest	hard	harder	hardest

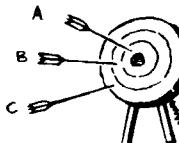


E.g. *Jim always goes to bed earlier than Mark, but Bill goes to bed (the) latest.*

Other adverbs with -er comparison are:

soon ~ sooner ~ soonest near ~ nearer ~ nearest

E.g. (i) *They arrived sooner than I expected.*



(ii) 'A' is **nearest** to the centre.

3c Five common adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms:

*well ~ better ~ best badly ~ worse ~ worst
far ~ further ~ furthest much ~ more ~ most
little ~ less ~ least*

[See WELL, BAD / BADLY, FAR / FURTHER, MUCH, MORE / (THE) MOST, LITTLE / A LITTLE, LESS / (THE) LEAST for further details.]

4 Quantity words + -er / -est

The following QUANTITY WORDS (determiners and pronouns) also have special comparative and superlative forms:

*much ~ more ~ most little ~ less ~ least
many ~ more ~ most few ~ fewer ~ fewest*

[These words appear as separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For **most** see MORE / (THE) MOST, for **least** see LESS / (THE) LEAST, for **fewer** and **fewest** see (A) FEW.]

even /'i:vən/ (adverb or adjective)

- **Even** as an ADVERB goes before the word, phrase, or clause it qualifies.
- **Even** is also an ADJECTIVE, as in: '2, 4, 6 and 8 are even numbers.'

1 **Even** (adverb) means 'This is something more than you expected'.

E.g. *I liked her last book, but this one is even better.
'Can you stand on your head?' 'Yes, that's easy. Even a fool can do that.'*

After NOT or n't, **even** means 'This is less than you expected'.

E.g. *'Have you finished your homework yet?' 'No. I haven't even started it.'*

2 Idioms

2a **Even if** and **even though** (subordinating conjunctions) mean: 'This is a condition that you would not expect'.

E.g. *He enjoys sailing even if the weather is rough.*
I wouldn't sell that house even if you gave me a million pounds!

Even if expresses a real or unreal condition. [See UNREAL MEANING.]

2b **Even though** is a stronger form of **although**.

E.g. *Even though the captain was badly injured, he managed to save several of the crew from drowning.*

NOTE: Notice the difference between **even if** and **even though**:

- (i) 'Even if' } *he loves her, he can't marry her.'*
- (ii) 'Even though' }
- (i) **even if** = 'I don't know whether he loves her . . .'
- (ii) **even though** = 'I know he loves her, but in spite of this . . .'

2c **Even so** is a linking adverb expressing CONTRAST.

ever /'evər/ (adverb)

- **Ever** means 'at any time' or 'at any time in your life'.
- **Ever** is the opposite of NEVER (**never** = 'at no time').
- **Ever** is often used with the PRESENT PERFECT form of the verb.

1 **Ever** is an any-word [see SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS]. It is generally used in questions and after negatives.

E.g. *Have you ever been to Paris?*

'Did you ever see a snake dance when you lived in India?' 'No, never.'

I haven't ever seen such wonderful paintings.

(= 'I have never seen such wonderful paintings.')

NOTE (i): **Ever** is used in the comparative expressions **as ever** and **than ever**.

E.g. *She's over fifty, but she sings as beautifully as ever* (= 'as she has at any time in the past').
You'll have to try harder than ever, if you want to win a prize (= 'than you have at any time in the past').

NOTE (ii): We use **ever** to add emphasis to a WH-WORD.

E.g. *What { ever } on earth are you doing?*
 [Compare WH-EVER WORDS.]

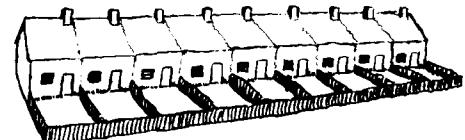
every /'evri/ (determiner)

► **Every** has roughly the same meaning as ALL.

► We use a singular countable noun after **every**.

E.g. *every day, every house, every growing child*

► Compare **every** with EACH [See 4 below].

1 **Every + singular noun**

E.g. (i) *Every house in the street has a garden.*

(ii) *She gets up early every day of the week.* (= 'on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday')

2 **Every + ONE**

Every has no PRONOUN form. [Contrast NO, which has the pronoun form NONE.] Instead, use **every + one** (and put a stress on **one**). *



E.g. (i) *Our cat had five kittens, and every one of them was white.*



Last year, she had four and none of them was white.

(ii) *I like Iris Murdoch. I've read every one of her novels.*

*Notice the difference between **every one** (spelled as two separate words) and **everyone** (spelled as one word, with stress on the first syllable), which means 'everybody'.

Every followed by a singular verb

When **every** (. . .) + noun is the SUBJECT, use a singular verb (Verb + -s) [see AGREEMENT].

E.g. *Every growing child needs milk.*

The same applies to **every one** (. . .) as subject.

E.g. *Every one of the public telephones is broken.*

NOTE: [On **every** followed by **he / she** or **they**, see HE AND SHE 2 and THEY 2a.]

4 Every and each

Every (one) and **each** have generally the same meaning. But:

- (a) You cannot use **every** in referring to **two**:
each of my parents but not: **every one of my parents**
- (b) Use **each** when thinking of all members of a group one at a time. [See EACH 1, 2.]

everything /'evriθɪŋ/ **everyone** /'evriwʌn/

everybody /'evrɪbɒdɪ/ (*indefinite pronouns*),

and **everywhere** /'evrɪweə/ (*adverb of place*)

- 1 These '**every**-words' contain the meaning of ALL [compare **EVERY**].

Everything means 'all things'.

Everyone means 'all people'

(**everybody** has the same meaning as **everyone**, but is less common).

Everywhere means 'at / in all places'.

E.g. *The village store sells everything that you need.*

The priest knows everyone in the village.

Have you seen my watch? I've looked everywhere for it.

- 2 **Everything** and **everyone**, if they are SUBJECT of a CLAUSE, take a SINGULAR verb.

E.g. *Everything has changed since I was last here.*

Everyone needs friends.

NOTE: [On **he / she** or **they** after **every**- words, see HE AND SHE 2, and THEY 2a.]

3 Everything + ADJECTIVE

Everything comes before, not after, an adjective.

E.g. *We'll do everything possible to support you.*

except, except for /ək'sept/, /ək'sept fər/ (*preposition*)

- **Except (for)** is the opposite of **in addition to** or **as well as**. It means 'apart from'.

- 1 **Except for** introduces an adverbial, which can occur in front position.

E.g. *Except for her awful hairstyle, she's a good-looking woman.*
The office was empty, except for the secretary.

- 2 You can use **except** or **except for** before a phrase which modifies a noun.

E.g. *Everyone in the family is tall and dark, except (for) my mother: she's short and fair.*

None of the Common Market countries except (for) Belgium has agreed to the proposal.

except that /ək'sept ðæt/ (*subordinating conjunction*)

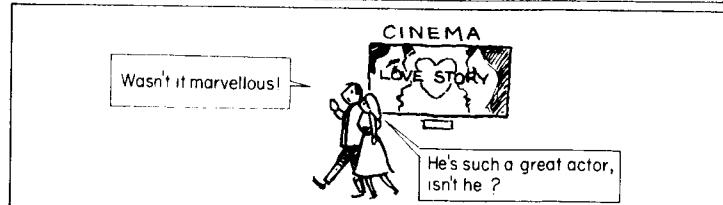
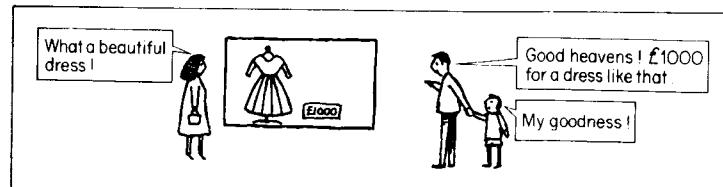
Except that introduces an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE. It expresses the same idea as **except for**.

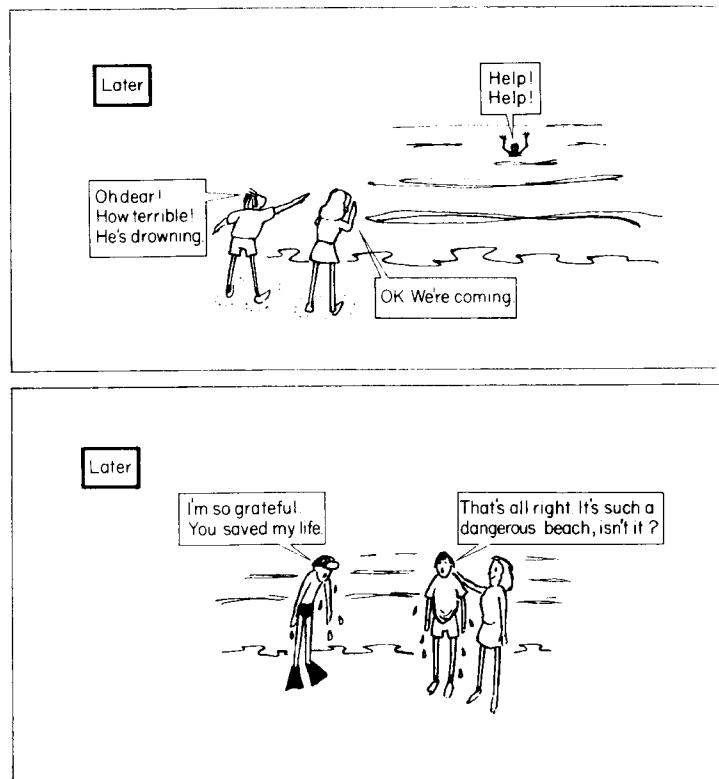
E.g. *We had a great time, except that the weather was freezing.* (i.e. 'There was only one thing that was bad: the freezing weather.'

exclamations

- We use exclamations to express our feelings or emotions about something.

Here are some examples of exclamations in use:





- 2 Some exclamations are special 'emotion words' (sometimes called 'interjections'). For example:

ah /ə:/ satisfaction, recognition.

E.g. **Ah, there he is.**

hey /hei/ calling for attention.

E.g. **Hey! Just look at that!** <not polite>

oh /əʊ/ surprise, disappointment.

E.g. **Oh, I wasn't expecting you yet.**

ooh /u:/ pleasure.

E.g. **Ooh, how lovely!**

ow /au/ pain.

E.g. **Ow, that really hurts!** (also **ouch /autʃ/**.)

ugh /ʌh/ disgust.

E.g. **Ugh, this tastes awful.**

- 3 **mm . . .** (a continuous 'm' sound) has several different meanings.

E.g. **mmmm. That smells good!** (with long falling pitch.)
mm? (with high rising pitch) means 'Sorry, I didn't hear.'
mm . . . mm (with falling pitch) means 'Yes. (I agree).'

- 4 These exclamations are in order of greater and greater feeling:

Great!
Wonderful!
Fantastic!

Oh dear!
Damn! !*
Oh hell! !!*
Bloody hell! !!!*

Blast! !*
Oh God! !!!*
Well!
Good heavens!
Good God! !*

*The words marked !, !!, !!! are taboo, i.e. are not in polite use. Don't use them unless you want to make a very strong impression (especially that marked !!!).

NOTE: We usually use the exclamation mark (!) with exclamations, but this is not necessary [see PUNCTUATION 1d]. **Good**, and **Good!** are both correct, but **Good!** expresses a stronger feeling.

5 What and How exclamations

WHAT (A) + (ADJECTIVE) + NOUN

E.g. **What a surprise!** **What a shame!** **What fun!** **What a lovely day!**

HOW + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB

E.g. **How wonderful!** **How strange!** **How silly!** **How unfortunate!**

- 6 Exclamations are sometimes whole sentences. They contain one of these words: **what** [see WHAT 4], **how** [see HOW 4], **such** [see SUCH 1a], **so** [see SO 1].

6a Patterns:

WHAT (A)	+ (ADJECTIVE) + NOUN	What (a)	(tasty) soup!
. . . SUCH (A)		Such (a)	
HOW	+ { ADJECTIVE	How	{ quick!
	. . . SO }		So }
	ADVERB		{ quickly!

- 6b Exclamations with **what** and **how** have the **what-** or **how-**phrase at the front. After the **what-** or **how-**phrase the word order must be subject + verb.

E.g. (i) **What terrible weather we're having for the time of year!**
(ii) **What an awful example this is!**
(iii) **How lovely the garden looks today!**

142 exclamations

6c The word order for exclamations with **such** and **so** is:

SUBJECT + VERB + { SUCH-PHRASE
SO-PHRASE}

Contrast examples (i)–(iii) above with:

E.g. (i) *We've been having such terrible weather for the time of year!*

(ii) *This is such an awful example!*

(iii) *The garden looks so lovely today!*

7 Questions as exclamations

Finally, we sometimes use YES-NO QUESTIONS as exclamations.

E.g. (i) *Isn't it a pity!*

(ii) *Aren't you working hard!*

(iii) *Didn't Janet sing well!*

The exclamation begins with a negative and has a falling pitch. It is not really a question. Example (i) means 'What a pity it is!'.

excuse me [See PARDON, SORRY AND EXCUSE ME]**extent** [See DEGREE]

far /fa:/ (adverb or adjective) Comparative: **further*** /'fɜːrθər/

Superlative: **furthest*** /'fɜːrθɪst/

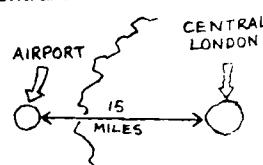
- The adverb and the adjective have the same form.
- **Far** refers basically to DISTANCE.
- **Far** means 'a long way (away)'.
- **Far** is the opposite of NEAR.
- [See the separate entry for FURTHER for more information.]

*There are two <less common> comparative and superlative forms **farther** and **furthest**. But you can always use **further** and **furthest** instead.

1 The adverb **far**

Far expresses distance in questions and after negatives.

E.g. (i) **'How far is it from London Airport to central London?'**
'Not far. It's about 15 miles.'



far 143

(ii) *'I'm going home now.'* 'Do you have **far** to go?' 'No, I don't live (very) **far** from here.'

A long way is used in positive statements.

E.g. 'Do you live **far (away)?**' 'Yes, I live **a long way (away)** from here.' (Not: 'live **far**...')

Far as an adverb of DEGREE

As an adverb of degree, **far** goes before **too** and comparative forms.

E.g. 'Grandfather used to be a **far better** golfer than I am.'
'Yes, but he's seventy. He's **far too old** to play golf now.'

Here **far** means the same as **MUCH**.

Far as an ADJECTIVE

Far comes before a noun and is <quite rare>.

E.g. *I heard an explosion at the **far end** of the street, but I didn't see what happened.*
(The **far end** = 'the other end')

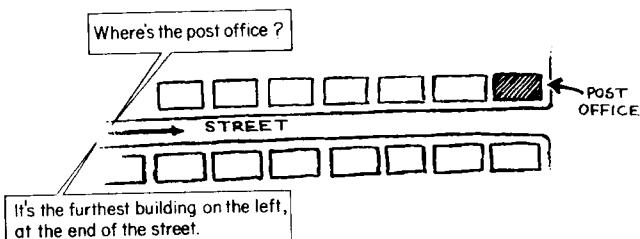
Further and furthest

Further and **furthest** can be ADVERBS.

E.g. (i) *I've run ten miles – I can't possibly run any **further!***
(ii) *'Who walked (the) **furthest?**' 'We did. We walked 20 miles.'*

Or, **further** and **furthest** can be adjectives.

E.g.

**Idioms:**

Far is often used with an abstract meaning.

E.g. *She really **went too far** when she called me an ugly old cow.*
(= 'was too extreme')
*That child **will go far**:* he's only 16, and he already has a place at Oxford University. (= 'will be successful')

fast /fa:st/ (adverb or adjective) Comparative: **faster**Superlative: **fastest** [See -ER / -EST 3; ADVERB 4.]**feel** /fi:l/ (irregular verb) Past Tense and participle form: **felt**

- **Feel** has several different uses. It means:

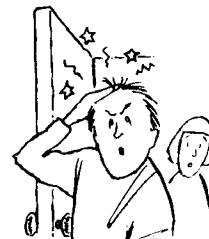
'think'.
'have the sensation of'. [See PERCEPTION VERB.]
'touch'. [See STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS.]

- 1 When **feel** means 'think' –
 - (a) it is followed by a **that**-clause [see THAT 1].

E.g. **I feel (that) you are right.**

 - (b) it is not used in the Progressive form.

E.g. **I am feeling that you are right.**
- 2 When **feel** means 'have the sensation of being . . .' it is followed by a COMPLEMENT, or a LIKE-phrase, or an **as if** clause [see AS 4a].
- 2a It is not usual in the Progressive form, but if you are talking about a person's health, you can say:
'How are you feeling today?' 'I'm not feeling too good, actually.'
- 2b Like other PERCEPTION VERBS, **feel** often follows CAN.
E.g. **'Can you smell the fire?' 'No, but I can feel the warmth.'**
This **can feel** describes a state, so the Progressive is not used.
[For further details, see PERCEPTION VERB.]
- 3 When **feel** means 'touch', it is followed by an object.
E.g. (i) **Feel this cloth – it's like silk.**
(ii) **Why are you feeling your head? Did you bang it on the door?**



Here it is an action verb, not a state verb – so you can use the Progressive **be feeling**. [See STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS.]

feminine [See SEX]**(a) few** /'(ə)'fju:/ (determiner or pronoun) Comparative: **fewer**/'**fju:ər**/ Superlative: **fewest** /'**fju:ist**/

- **A few** is a QUANTITY WORD meaning 'a small number (of)'.
- **Few** (without **a**) has the negative meaning 'not many', 'only a small number'.
- **(A) few** goes in front of countable nouns. It is equivalent to the uncountable **(a) little**: e.g. **a few apples, a little sugar**. [See LITTLE / (A)LITTLE.]

1 A few as a DETERMINER**A few** as a determiner is followed by a PLURAL noun.

E.g. **'We're asking **a few friends** round * to dinner.'**
'Would you mind waiting for **a few minutes?**

* <G.B. >: round || <U.S. >: around.

A few is often used in measurement of time, or distance: **a few years, a few miles.**

2 A few as a PRONOUN

A few as a pronoun is often followed by **of** + noun phrase. * [See INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2.]

E.g. **Would you like **a few of these flower pots**?**

A few contrasts with MANY or MOST.

E.g. **Only **a few** of the committee members went to the meeting.**
Most of them stayed at home.

You can omit the **of**-phrase if the meaning is clear from the situation.

E.g. **'You should give up smoking cigarettes.'**
'But I only smoke **a few (of them) a day.'**

* **A few** must be followed by **of** if the noun phrase is a pronoun or a determiner + noun.
E.g. **a few of us** **a few of my friends**.

Few (without **a**) means 'not many'. It can be a DETERMINER OR PRONOUN, and behaves like **a few**, but the meaning is different. **A few** has a more positive meaning than **few**.

E.g. **Unfortunately, the museum has **few visitors**.**

(= 'not many visitors', 'only a few visitors')

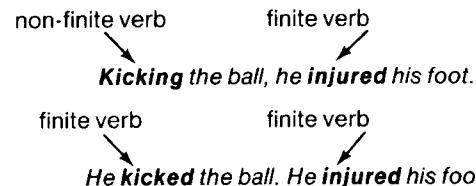
(Very) **few of the climbers reached the top of the mountain.**

NOTE (i): **Few** on its own is < rather formal > [compare MANY]. It is more common to say **a few**, **very few, so few** or **only a few**.

NOTE (ii): [On **fewer** and **less**, see LESS 2a.]

finite

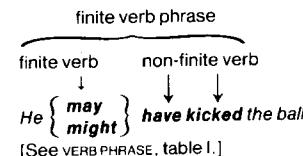
- 1 All forms of the verb except INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES (-ING FORM and -ED FORM), are called finite verbs.
 - 2 MAIN CLAUSES contain finite VERB PHRASES. Non-finite verb phrases are generally found only in SUBORDINATE CLAUSES:



- 3** Finite verbs can normally be changed from Present Tense to Past Tense, or from Past Tense to Present Tense.

E.g. *He kicked the ball.* ↔ *He kicks the ball*

NOTE: In a finite verb phrase, the first verb is the only one which is finite. The other words cannot change. For example:



first person

- 1 The first person pronoun forms are

singular:	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>	<i>myself</i>
plural:	<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>ourselves</i>

[For further information, see PERSONAL PRONOUN, -SELF / -SELVES.]

- 2 *I* refers to the speaker.

E.g. 'Hello, can I help you?

We refers to the speaker and others.

E.g. (i) *In my family, we always eat a good breakfast.*
(ii) *'What shall we do?' 'Why don't we go for a swim?'*

Sometimes, as in example (i), **we** does not include the hearer. At other times, as in example (ii), the hearer is included.

- 3 For **politeness**, we put the first person after the second or third person (i.e. after other pronouns and noun phrases).

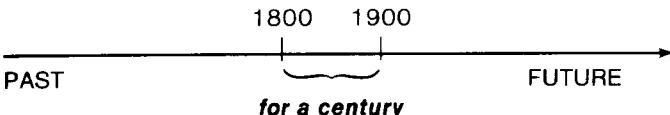
E.g. **You** and **I** ought to work together. (Not: **I** and **you**)
Marilyn and **I** are just good friends. (Not: **I** and **Marilyn**)

- With one verb, the verb BE, *I* has a special verb form: ***am*** or ***'m***. In all other examples of the Present Tense, first person subjects are followed by the BASIC FORM of the verb: ***I like, we like***, etc.

for /fɔ:/ (weak form /fə/) (preposition or conjunction)

- **For** is a PREPOSITION with two main uses: 'LENGTH OF TIME' and 'PURPOSE'.
 - In <writing>, **for** is also a CONJUNCTION meaning 'because' [see BECAUSE / BECAUSE OF].

- ## **1 For (preposition) meaning ‘length of time’:**



- E.g. **for** a second, **for** three hours, **for** weeks, **for** ever
*I've been studying English **for five years**, but I've lived in England
only **for a short time**.*
'Could you wait here **for a minute please?'**
'Darling, I will love you **for ever.'**

NOTE: We omit **for** in front of *all*.

- E.g. ***all my life, all day, all night, all the time***
Hurry up! I'm not going to wait here all night. (Not: *for all night*)

- 1a** **For** is used with the Perfect (or Perfect Progressive [see PRESENT PERFECT 3, 7]) when referring to a period of time which began in the past and continues up to the moment of speaking (or the moment we are thinking of).

- E.g. *This farm has belonged to my family for centuries.*
(= we bought it in 1540 and we still own it now.)

- The new political party **has been developing** its policy **for only a year**.
(= it began developing it last year and is still developing it.)*

- 1b** **For** can also be used with the PAST SIMPLE, in talking about a completed period of time.

- E.g. The course **lasted for a month**. It finished yesterday.

- 1c** **For** can also be used with the PAST PERFECT, in talking about a period in the past which lasted up to a specific point in the past.

E.g. *Jim had been divorced for five months when he met his second wife.*

- 1d** **For** can be used with any other verb forms, e.g. to describe a period of time in the future.

E.g. *The Prime Minister is likely to stay in hospital for two weeks.*

NOTE: Contrast **for** with SINCE.

E.g. *The police have been trying to find the stolen diamonds
{ for eighteen months. (It is now March 1986)
since September 1984.*

2 For (preposition) meaning 'purpose'

Examples:

These pills are for headaches.

What did you do that for? (i.e.: 'Why did you do that?')

I'm working for the United Nations.

NOTE (i): There are other meanings of **for**. For example, **for** means the opposite of **against**.

E.g. *Did you vote for the President or against him?*

Also, **for** sometimes has the meaning of motion: 'to go to'.

E.g. *The children left home for school at 8.30 a.m.*

For also has the meaning of 'intended receiver'.

E.g. *I gave her a present for the children.*

NOTE (ii): **For** also introduces a subject in INFINITIVE CLAUSES [see INFINITIVE CLAUSES 2a, 2b]:

E.g. *The best plan is for Janet to lend you her typewriter.*

4 For (conjunction) meaning 'because'

In <written> English **for** is sometimes a conjunction meaning the same as BECAUSE. [See REASON AND CAUSE.] You can use **for** instead of **because** only when **for** is:

(a) in the middle of the sentence (not at the beginning), and (b) before a clause.

E.g. *The village was full of crowds of people dressed in brightly-coloured shirts and summer dresses, for it was the middle of the tourist season.* <written only>

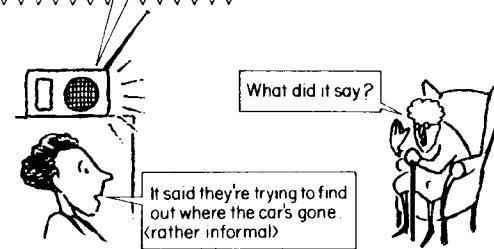
formal and informal English

[See also POLITE AND NOT POLITE]

- <Formal> English is the kind of English we use for serious public purposes, especially in print. E.g. official reports, business letters, serious books, public notices, important speeches, news broadcasts.
- <Informal> (or 'colloquial') English is the kind of English we use for private or personal reasons, especially in <speech>. E.g. conversations between friends, private letters, popular television programmes.

An example:

The police are attempting to discover the location of the missing vehicle.
<formal>



- For most purposes, a neutral style (with not too many <formal> or <informal> features) is the best.

1 Some marks of <formal> style are:

- long, complex SENTENCES.
- ABSTRACT NOUNS (e.g. **influence, establishment**).
- long, complex NOUN PHRASES.
- words with Latin or Greek roots such as **ameliorate** (= 'improve') and **metamorphosis** (= 'change of form').
- frequent use of the PASSIVE.
- frequent use of IT-PATTERNS (e.g. **It seems that** . . .)

2 Some marks of <informal> style are:

- contractions (e.g. **I'm, didn't**). [See CONTRACTIONS OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES.]
- use of simpler words, especially PHRASAL VERBS (e.g. **find out** instead of **discover**) and PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERBS (e.g. **put up with** instead of **tolerate**).

E.g. *The wedding has been postponed* <rather formal>
They've put off the wedding. <rather informal>

3 Remember to use the right kind of English for the right situation. E.g.

This is <too informal>: (Letter to a headteacher)
Dear Sir, How are my kids getting on?

(Better would be: *I am writing to inquire about my children's progress*)

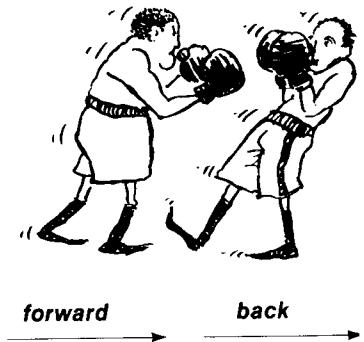
3b This is <too formal>:

(Better would be: *I'm sorry we don't have any fresh coffee.*)



forward, forwards /fɔ:ˈwə:d/, /fɔ:ˈwə:dz/ (adverbs)

- 1 The adverb **forward** refers to MOTION (OR MOVEMENT) towards the front. It is the opposite of **back**:



E.g. As one boxer moves **forward**, the other moves **back**.

Forwards can sometimes be used instead of **forward**, and **backwards** instead of **back**.

2 **Idiom**

Look forward to + Verb-ing . . . means 'think about something nice in the future'. For example, at the end of a letter:

I look forward to hearing from you.

And at the end of a conversation:

I'm looking forward to seeing you again.

fractions How to write and speak them.

- A **fraction** is less than **one**. [See DECIMAL NUMBERS, NUMBERS, HALF.]

- 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ = **a half** /əl/ 'ha:f/ $\frac{2}{3}$ = **two thirds**
 $\frac{1}{4}$ = { **a quarter** /'kwo:tər/ $\frac{3}{4}$ = { **three quarters**
 a fourth /ə'fɔ:tθ/ <U.S.> **three fourths** <U.S.>

- 1a Except for **half** and **quarter**, we use the ordinal number for the bottom part of a fraction:

$$\frac{1}{5} = \text{a fifth} \quad \frac{1}{8} = \text{an eighth} \quad \frac{1}{15} = \text{a fifteenth}$$

- 1b And we use the cardinal number [see NUMBERS 1] for the top part, except that we often use **a** / **an** instead of **one**:

$$\frac{1}{16} = \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{a} \\ \text{one} \end{array} \right\} \text{sixteenth} \quad \frac{3}{16} = \text{three sixteenths}$$

- 1c If the fraction is used with a whole number, we add **and** after the whole number when we say the fraction:

$$1\frac{1}{2} = \text{one and a half} \quad 2\frac{3}{8} = \text{two and three eighths}$$

- 2 To use fractions in phrases and sentences, put:
FRACTION + OF + . . . NOUN

The noun following the fraction can be:

- (i) countable (singular). E.g. *a quarter of the cake*
 - (ii) countable (plural). E.g. *two thirds of the children*
 - (iii) uncountable. E.g. *three quarters of the money*
- [See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

NOTE: But before **half** we can omit **a***, and after **half** we can omit **of**. So we can say:

a half of the }
 Or: **half of the** } egg / eggs / water
 Or: **half the**

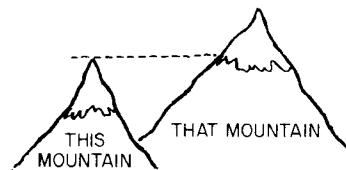
*Except when **half** follows a whole number: **two and a half**, not **two and half**.

- 2a Fractions (without **of**) come before nouns and adjectives [See COMPARISON 3].

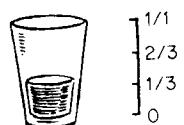
Examples:



This house is only half as big as that one.



This mountain is (almost) three-quarters the height of that one.



The glass is (over) a third full.

2b Fractions also come before TIME and DISTANCE words.

E.g. *We finished the run in less than half the time allowed.
I couldn't finish the race: I ran only two-thirds of the distance.*

2c [For **half an hour**, **a quarter of an hour**, etc. see TIME, (TELLING THE TIME).]

frequency

- **Frequency** words and phrases talk about 'number of times'. They answer the question 'how often?'

E.g. (i) *Ron goes running once a day, except at weekends, when he goes running twice a day.*



(ii)
Do you come here often?
Yes. About three times a week.

- 1 Adverbs of frequency form a scale:
always = 'every time'; **ever** = 'at any time'.
usually, **generally** = 'most times'.
often, **frequently** = 'lots of times'.
sometimes = 'some times'.
rarely, **seldom** = 'not many times'.
never = 'no times'.

[All the above adverbs except for **generally** and **frequently** have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For **seldom** see RARELY AND SELDOM.]

- 1a These adverbs are often placed in middle position [see ADVERB 3]:

noun phrase pronoun	(auxiliary)	adverb	main verb	...
The sun		always	rises	in the east.
We		usually	have	rolls and coffee for breakfast.
Presidents	are *	often		in danger of being killed.
The trains		sometimes	arrive	late.
I	have *	rarely	met	a more charming person.
You	should *	never	drink	before driving.

*Notice the position of the adverb after the auxiliary or after BE.

- 1b But the adverbs can also appear in front or end position.

E.g. *Sometimes he's late, but very often he doesn't come at all.
Why don't you come and visit us more often?*

NOTE: [On **never**, **rarely**, and **seldom** in front position, see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a.]

2 **Adverbs or adjectives of frequency in -ly** [See -LY.]

daily = 'once a day' **monthly** = 'once a month'
hourly = 'once an hour' **yearly** = 'once a year'

For example:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
a daily newspaper	↔ <i>The newspaper appears daily.</i>
a monthly meeting	↔ <i>The meeting takes place monthly.</i>

Always put the **-ly** adverb in end position.

3 Frequency phrases**3a** Pattern I:

EVERY + SINGULAR NOUN [See EVERY.]

E.g. *Every day } he goes to the office.
Every morning } Our family visits the country { every weekend.
every month.*

Phrases of this pattern occur in front and end positions.

NOTE: These are some less common patterns with **every**:

every two weeks (= 'once in two weeks')
every five years (= 'once in five years')
every other week (= 'every second week')
twice every winter **every half hour** **three times every hundred years**.

3b Pattern II:

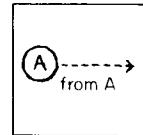
ONCE / TWICE, etc. + A + SINGULAR NOUN

Use **a** instead of **every** after words like **once** and **twice**.

E.g. *We meet **once a month**.
Twice a year they give us a medical examination. (= twice every year)*

from /frɒm/ (weak form: /frəm/) (preposition)

- **From** is a PREPOSITION of motion or movement [see MOTION (OR MOVEMENT) 5].
- **From** is the opposite of **to** [see TO 1].



- E.g. *I had an excellent flight from Tokyo to Hong Kong.*
The train from Philadelphia is just arriving at Platform 4.
'Where did you get this book?' 'I borrowed it from the library.'
Every year, I get a birthday present from Canada, from my grandmother.

NOTE (i): When you want to ask about someone's town or country, you can say: 'Where do you come from?'

- E.g. *I come from Spain – I was born in Madrid.*
But my wife is Russian – she comes from Leningrad.

NOTE (ii): **From** always indicates movement, but **away from** [see AWAY 3] often indicates position.

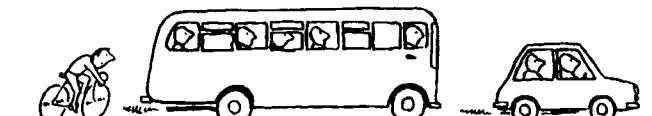
- E.g. *Mr Webb, our boss, is ill: he has been away from the office all week.*

in front (of) and **behind** /ɪn 'frʌnt (əv)/, /bɪ'haind/ (prepositions or adverbs)

- **In front of** acts as a PREPOSITION (and is followed by a noun phrase or pronoun).
- **In front** acts as an ADVERB.
- **Behind** is the opposite of **in front of** and **in front**.

1 Prepositions

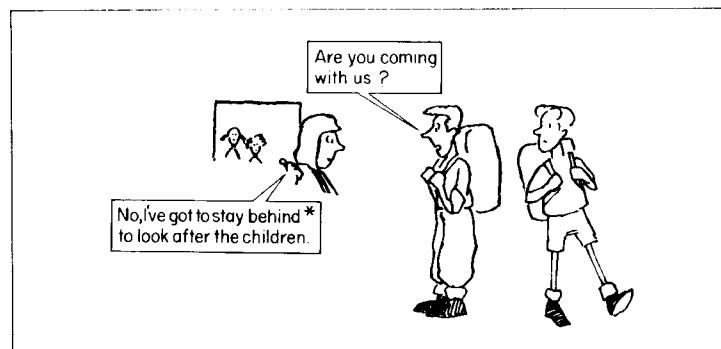
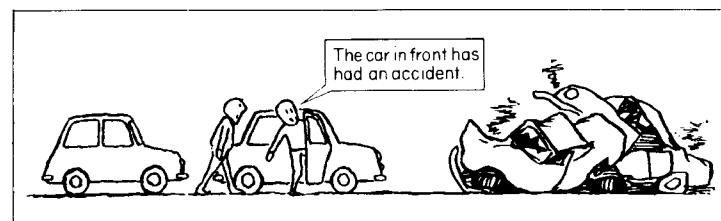
- E.g. *The car is in front of the bus.*



The bus is in front of the cyclist.
The cyclist is behind the bus, which is behind the car.

2 Adverbs

E.g.

**front position**

Front position is the position of an adverbial (or other optional element) when it comes at the beginning of a clause, before the subject. [See ADVERB 3.]

functions

- **Function** is a term used to describe the various things we can do with language.

- If you speak you have a reason: the words have a function or purpose. For example, if you want to apologise, you say '**I'm sorry**'. The function of the words '**I'm sorry**' is **apologising**.

- 1a** To find the function of words, put the words into indirect speech [see INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT].

E.g. 'Stand up.' → **He ordered** them to stand up.
 'Please sit down.' → **She asked** them to sit down.
 'Would you like to sit down?' → **She invited** us to sit down.

In some cases we cannot use the same words in indirect speech.

E.g. 'Hello, how lovely to see you!' → **She greeted** us enthusiastically.

- 2** In this table of functions, we include the functions for which there are special entries in this book:

Table of functions

function	an example: direct speech	an example: indirect speech
advising [see ADVISING ADVICE]	'I think you'd better see a doctor.'	→ My friend advised me to see a doctor
AGREEING (AND DISAGREEING)	'I agree. The price is too high.'	→ She agreed that the price was too high
apologising [see APOLOGIES]	'I'm sorry (I spilt your coffee)'	→ I apologised (for spilling his coffee)
condoling	'I'm very sorry to hear of ...'	→ I offered my condolences (or sympathy)
congratulating [see CONGRATULATIONS]	'Congratulations (on passing your exam).'	→ The teacher congratulated me (on ...)
GOOD WISHES	'Good luck (with your interview)!'	→ He wished me good luck (with ...).
(SAYING) GOODBYE	'Goodbye (See you next week!)'	→ We said 'goodbye' to them.*
GREETINGS, saying 'hello'	'Hello! (How nice to see you)'	→ She greeted me. She said 'hello'.
introducing [see INTRODUCTIONS]	'Jane, this is my friend, Peter.'	→ She introduced Peter to Jane.
inviting [see INVITATIONS]	'Won't you stay for a meal?'	→ They invited me to stay for a meal.
offering [see OFFERS OFFERING]	'Would you like an apple?'	→ She offered him an apple.
giving opinions	'In my view, Bob's lying.'	→ He {thought expressed the opinion } that Bob was lying
giving PERMISSION	'You can use my phone.'	→ He gave us permission to use the phone.
prohibitions	'Do not walk on the grass.'	→ Walking on the grass is prohibited
promising [see PROMISES]	'I will definitely pay the bill.'	→ John promised to pay the bill.
giving REPLIES OR ANSWERS	('How are you?') 'I'm fine.'	→ Pat replied that she was fine.
requesting [see REQUESTS]	'Would you please shut the door?'	→ She asked (or requested) me to shut the door.
seasonal greetings	'Happy New Year!'	→ They wished us a happy New Year
suggestions	'Why don't we go by train?'	→ I suggested that we go by train.
THANKING PEOPLE	'Thank you (for being so kind.)'	→ They thanked her (for being so kind)
warning [see WARNINGS]	'Drive carefully, now.'	→ She warned me to drive carefully.

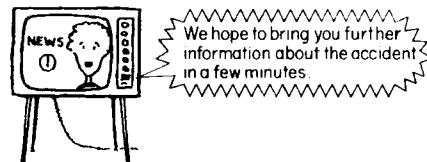
*There is no verb or noun for 'saying goodbye' in English. So we have to use direct speech even in reporting.

further

/'fɜːrə/ (adjective, adverb or verb) [See also FAR]

- As an ADJECTIVE, **further** means 'extra', 'in addition', 'more'.

E.g. (i)



(ii) **The administration is having further discussions with the unions about pay and conditions.**

(iii) **I have nothing further to say at present.**

- As an ADVERB, **further** has a meaning similar to **further** as an adjective.

E.g. **The administration wishes to discuss the matter further.**

It is also a linking adverb meaning 'moreover', 'in addition', 'furthermore' [see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS].

E.g. **Many people do not like the idea of performing experiments on animals. Further(more), they disagree with those who kill animals for sport.** <rather formal>

Very occasionally, **further** is a verb.

E.g. **He married the boss's daughter to further his career.** (i.e. 'to be more successful in his job'.)

Further is also the COMPARATIVE form of **far**:

future

We use a number of different verb forms to refer to the **future** (= 'the time after now') in English:

1 **will + Verb**

2 **be + going to + Verb**

3 Present Simple

4 Present Progressive

5 **will + be + Verb -ing** (and other forms)

↑ (most important)

↓ (least important)

[See WILL, (BE) GOING TO, PRESENT SIMPLE, PRESENT PROGRESSIVE.]

[On future in the past, see PAST TIME 4.]

Will

There is a future auxiliary **WILL** (or '**ll**') + Verb which is used in the following ways:

1a Prediction (i.e. describing something we know or expect will happen).

E.g. *It'll be windy tomorrow. There will be rain in places.*
My horoscope says that next year will bring me success and happiness.

1b Expressing a decision about the immediate future.

E.g. *'Which handbag do you want?' 'I'll take the brown one, please.'*

[See also SHALL.]

2 **Be + going to + Verb** [See (BE) GOING TO.]

2a This is very frequently used to talk about plans or intentions. The decision has been made before the moment of speaking.

E.g. (i) *'Do you remember that job I was talking about? I'm going to accept it.' 'Ah, good, you've made up your mind about it.'*

(ii)

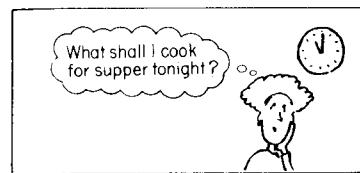
2b **Be + going to** is also used for something in the future for which we have present evidence.

- (i) *It's going to rain.* ('I can see the clouds')
- (ii) *Steve's running well. He's going to * break a few records this afternoon.*

*Very often you can use either **will** or **be going to** for the same predictions. E.g., in (ii), you could say: '*He'll break a few records this afternoon.*' But in the main clause of conditional sentences [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE] you cannot usually replace **will** by **be going to**.

E.g. *If you take this road you { will | are going to } get home quicker.*

[See 1b.]

2c How to choose between **will** and **going to**:

(MOMENT OF DECISION)



(LATER)

3 The Present Simple

3a The Present Simple is used for **future** certainties.

- E.g. *It's the 29th of May next Friday, isn't it?*
My English language course finishes next week.
What time does your plane take off?

3b The Present Simple is used for the future in some SUBORDINATE CLAUSES. We use the Present Simple instead of **will** mainly in clauses of TIME and in CONDITIONAL CLAUSES [see PRESENT SIMPLE 3a]. Examples of words which begin these clauses are:

if:	E.g. <i>If it rains, the match will be cancelled.</i>
as soon as:	E.g. <i>I'll call you as soon as I'm ready.</i>
before:	E.g. <i>Before the princess arrives, the band will play</i>
after:	<i>After } some music.</i>
when:	<i>When }</i>
in case:	E.g. <i>I'll bring an umbrella, just in case it rains.</i>
unless:	E.g. <i>Unless I find the tickets, we won't be able to go to the theatre.</i>
until:	E.g. <i>Let's wait until it stops raining.</i>
while:	E.g. <i>I'll take a photo while you are on the dance floor.</i>

NOTE: There are also some **that**-CLAUSES [see THAT 1] and WH-CLASUES which have a Present Simple verb for the future. E.g. after **hope**, **whatever** or **which**:

I hope (that) you have a pleasant journey.

Don't get lost, whatever you do.

The team which wins tomorrow's match will be the best team in the world.

4 The Present Progressive (be + Verb-ing)

This structure is used for talking about future plans or arrangements (but these plans are not so fixed as with the Present Simple).



E.g. (i) Mr Black is working in Glasgow next Friday. But he'll be back in the office on Monday.

- (ii) I'm meeting her next week.
- (iii) Next winter, the rock group is touring the U.S.A.
- (iv) Their friends are driving to Scotland at the weekend.
- (v) 'When are you leaving?' 'On Saturday.'

5 Other ways of talking about the future

These are some other ways of talking about the future:

- (a) WILL + BE + Verb-ing [See WILL.] ('future progressive')
E.g. Next week I'll be talking about how to use a microscope.
- (b) IS + TO + Verb or: ARE + TO + Verb
E.g. The West German President is to visit Russia.
- (c) BE + ABOUT + TO + Verb (= near future)
E.g. The mayor is about to announce the result of the election.
- (d) BE + ON THE POINT OF + Verb-ing (= near future)
E.g. The oil company is on the point of making an important decision.

gender is a grammatical term. It refers to the difference between male and female words such as HE AND SHE. (In grammar, the terms 'masculine' and 'feminine' are often used instead of 'male' and 'female'.) [See SEX.]

generic (or general) use of articles [See ARTICLES 4, A / AN 3f, THE 3g, ZERO ARTICLE 3.]

genitive [See POSSESSIVE.]

geographical names (= names of places)

- 1 Like names of people [see NAMES], names of places generally have no ARTICLE in front of them.

E.g. Asia, India, Bali, Lagos, Texas, Oxford Street, Central Park.

2 Some geographical names – especially names of mountain ranges and of islands – are plural. In this case, they usually have **the**.

E.g. Mountains: **the Andes**, **the Rockies**, **the Himalayas**.
Islands: **the West Indies**, **the Canaries**, **the Bahamas**.
Others: **the Netherlands**, **the Midlands** (= part of England)

3 With two-word names for the following features, we normally use **the**.

- (a) Hill and mountain ranges.

E.g. **the Appalachian Mountains**, **the Black Hills**.
(b) 'Watery' places such as seas, canals, islands.

E.g. **the Indian Ocean**, **the Black Sea**, **the Suez Canal**, **the Canary Islands**.

(c) 'Manmade' places: buildings, etc.*

E.g. **the Globe Theatre**, **the Hilton Hotel**, **the British Museum**, **the National Gallery**, **the Albert Hall**, **the Eiffel Tower**.

* But no **the** is added if the first part of the name is POSSESSIVE.

E.g. Brown's Hotel, Guy's Hospital, St. John's Church.

4 The names of rivers, lakes, and mountains are often in the opposite order to the examples in 3: not 'name word' + 'general word', but 'general word' + 'name word'.

E.g. **the (River) Thames**, **the (River) Amazon**, **the (River) Seine**, **Lake Erie**, **Lake Titicaca**, **Lake Baikal**.
(Mount) Vesuvius, **(Mount) Everest**, **Ben Nevis**.

NOTE: The word **mount** or **river** is often omitted.

gerund [See -ING, -ING FORM, -ING CLAUSE.]
Some grammar books use the word 'gerund' for -ing participles which act like nouns.

get /get/, **gets, got, getting**, {got <G.B.>
gotten <U.S.>} (verb)

[See also HAVE GOT, HAVE GOT TO.]

- **Get** is a very useful verb in <spoken> English.
- **Get** has many meanings: look them up in a dictionary.

162 *get*

- In <writing> it is better to avoid **get** (except in personal letters), because it belongs to <informal> style.
- Here are some patterns with **get**:

1 GET + NOUN PHRASE (= 'receive, obtain') [See VERB PATTERN 1.]

E.g. *He got this car from a friend.*
She's hoping to get a job as a nurse.

NOTE: There are particular meanings in this pattern; e.g. **get** = 'fetch'.

E.g. *Would you get some stamps from the Post Office, please?*

2 GET + ADJECTIVE (PHRASE) (= 'become') [See VERB PATTERN 2.]

E.g. *Don't eat so much. You'll get fat!*
The weather's getting colder again.
They got lost. (i.e. 'They lost their way')

3 GET + ADVERBIAL OF PLACE (= 'arrive') [See VERB PATTERN 3.]

E.g. *The family gets home at six.*
When I get to New York, I'll phone you.

4 GET + PAST PARTICIPLE (+ *by* . . .) [See VERB PATTERN 10.]

This pattern is like the PASSIVE.

E.g. *I { don't get } paid very much.*
Nothing gets done around here unless I do it.

5 GET + NOUN PHRASE + NOUN PHRASE (= 'fetch') [See VERB PATTERN 11.]

E.g. *Could I get you something to eat?*

6 GET + NOUN PHRASE + ADVERBIAL (= 'take', 'put', etc.) [See VERB PATTERN 13.]

E.g. *Wait a minute – I have to get some money out of the bank.*

7 GET + NOUN PHRASE + TO-INFINITIVE (= 'make someone do something') [See VERB PATTERN 17.]

E.g. *They tried to get me to sign an agreement, but I refused.*

8 GET + NOUN PHRASE + Verb-ing (= 'make someone / something start an activity') [See VERB PATTERN 19.]

E.g. *My car is stuck in the mud. Could you help me to get it moving?*

9 GET + NOUN PHRASE + PAST PARTICIPLE ('make something be done') [See VERB PATTERN 20.]

(be) going to 163

E.g. *I'm getting my motorcycle repaired tomorrow.*
Jason is getting his hair cut at last.

10 Idioms

There are many idioms with **get**, so look in a dictionary for examples. They are all <informal>.

go /gəʊ/ goes, went, { been } , going

Go is the most important verb of MOTION in English. [See COME AND GO for details.]

There is also a verb idiom **be going to** which refers to the FUTURE [See (BE) GOING TO].

(be) going to /'gəʊɪŋ tu/tə/ (verb idiom)

- This verb idiom is a common way of talking about the future. [See FUTURE 2 for a general comparison with **will** and other Future verb forms.]
- **Be going to** begins with a form of the verb BE, and is followed by an INFINITIVE (*to* + Verb).

Forms

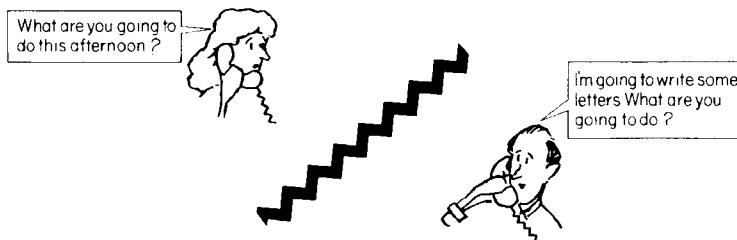
She is } **going to** { *have a meal in town.*
We are } **going to** { *do the washing.*
He was } **going to** { *go * shopping.*

* Notice we do say **going to go**.

Meanings

- **Be going to** is used for talking about what we intend* to do (often in the near future).

E.g.



* This is after the decision is made. contrast **will** [see FUTURE 2c].

- 2b** **Be going to** is also used for a future event or state for which there are signs or tendencies already in the present (i.e. 'future beginning in the present').

E.g.



- 2c** **Be going to** is often used as a general verb form for future, especially in <spoken English>. If in doubt about the future, use **be going to** and it will usually sound all right.

3 **Be going to can be used with any tense or verb form**

(A) PAST TENSE: [see PAST TIME 4, 7.]

E.g. 'Can I offer you a drink?' 'Oh, thanks. I **was just going to** offer one to you.'

(B) MODAL AUXILIARIES: (e.g. where the future is not certain)

E.g. 'She looks happy.' 'Yes – I understand that she **may be going to** have a baby.'

(C) PERFECT: (e.g. for an intention which has not been achieved.)

E.g. For the past ten years they've **been going to** mend the bridge. Now at last they are doing the job.

(D) PASSIVE:

E.g. The whole house **is going to be** rebuilt.

good /gʊd/ (adjective [or noun])

- 1** **Good** has the irregular COMPARATIVE **better** /'betər/ and SUPERLATIVE **best** /'best/

- 1a** **Good** as COMPLEMENT (predicative adjective).

E.g. Jan is (very) **good** (at art). She is also **better** than her sister (at science). Her sister is the **best** in her class (at games).

- 1b** **Good** before a noun.

E.g. Bob is a (very) **good swimmer**. (= He swims well.) He is also a **better student** than his brother. But his brother is the **best actor** in the school.

Better and **best** are also the comparative and superlative of the adverb **WELL**, and of the adjective **well** [see WELL 3] meaning 'in good health'. Notice the difference between:

E.g. 'She looks **really good**. That new jacket suits her.' (**good** = 'handsome, good-looking') 'Yes, she looks **better** in that jacket than in her old one.'

'She looks **really well**. I'm so glad she's recovered from her illness.' (**well** = 'in good health') 'Yes, she says she feels much **better**.'

Idioms

Good is sometimes a noun, especially in the phrases:

for X's good, for the good of Y.

E.g. Take this medicine – it's **for your own good**. Parliament should make laws **for the good** of everyone – not just **for the good** of a few.

Good is also a noun when it has a determiner (**no, any, much, some**) in front of it. Examples:

any good.

E.g. Will the exhibition be **any good**? (= 'at all good') 'Yes, the newspapers say it's excellent.'

no good.

E.g. This map **may help you if you get lost**. 'That's **no good** (= 'not useful at all'). It's a map of Hong Kong, and we're going to Singapore.'

good wishes

What to say to people when you wish them luck.

E.g. **Good luck!** **Good luck with** your exam!



166 good wishes

2 Here are good wishes for special occasions**2a** Birthday.E.g. *Happy birthday. Many happy returns (of the day).***2b** Christmas and New Year.E.g. *Happy } Christmas! Happy New Year!*
*Merry } Best wishes for the New Year. <written>***2c** Before a holiday, a vacation, a journey, a party, etc.E.g. *Have a good time!* { *Enjoy yourself. (one person)*
Safe journey! { *Enjoy yourselves. (more than one)*

More <formal>.

E.g. *I (do) hope you have a wonderful time.*
*I hope you enjoy your vacation. I wish you a safe journey.***saying **goodbye****

- There are a number of ways of saying '**goodbye**'.
- '**Goodbye**' is the most general and useful word.
- Always use rising (↗) or fall-rise (↘) INTONATION when saying '**goodbye**'.

1 An example

('**Bye**' is a shorter form of '**goodbye**' – it's more <informal> or <casual>).

2 Other <casual> forms of 'goodbye**'****2a** Among younger people or close friends.E.g. *'See you later.'*
*'Yes, okay. Bye!'***2b** One student might say to another.E.g. *'Well, I'm off now. I'll see you (around).'*
'Yes, sure. Next week, possibly?'
'Okay, fine. Bye.'
'Cheers. Bye.'

group noun 167

Some more <formal> or <polite> forms of 'goodbye**'**

To someone you know a little; for example, someone you have met in the street.

E.g. A: *'Well, I look forward to { meeting } seeing you again.'*
B: *'Yes, that would be nice.'*
A: *'Bye-bye.' (or 'Goodbye.')*
B: *'Bye-bye.' (or 'Goodbye.')*

To someone you have just met for the first time.

E.g. *'Well, it's been really nice meeting you. I hope we meet again sometime. Goodbye.'*

[See LETTERS 4 for how to say '**goodbye**' in a letter.]

greetings

A **greeting** is something you say when you meet someone.

Common **greetings** are:

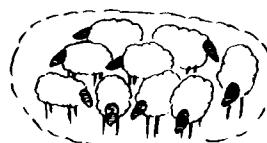
Hello <informal>, (also spelt **hullo** in <G.B.>).

Hi! <very informal>.

Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening <more formal>. (Use these at the time of day mentioned.)

group noun

A **group noun** describes a set or group of people, animals, or things.
A **group noun**, like other nouns, can be SINGULAR or PLURAL.

Examples of group nouns

a **flock** (of sheep)



a **team** (of players)

168 group noun

- 2 Group nouns (especially general nouns such as **group**, **set**) are often followed by OF + PLURAL NOUN.

E.g. **a committee of scientists** **a family of actors**
a team of climbers **a herd of cattle**
a set of books **a class of children**

- 3 Especially in <G.B.>, there is often a choice between SINGULAR and PLURAL verb, after a singular human group noun.

E.g. **The crowd** { **was** } **were** delighted by the actor's performance.

[For further details, see AGREEMENT 2d.]

3a A list of some nouns like this is:

army,	audience,	band,	class,	club,
committee,	council,	crowd,	department,	family,
government,	group,	nation,	navy,	the police *
population,	the press **,	race,	team,	union ***.

* **The police** and **the press** (= the group of people who work on newspapers) always follow **the** or some other definite determiner. They are rather like NAMES. Similar expressions are **the working class** and **the middle class**.

** **Union** in the sense of 'trade union'.

had better /hæd 'betər/, or more usually '**d better** /('d) 'betər/ (verb idiom)

- **Had better** is similar to a MODAL AUXILIARY: it does not change its form for tense, person etc, and is followed by the BASIC FORM of the verb.
- **Had better** is used for recommending action or giving advice.

1 Structure

I	'd	better Verb . . . (POSITIVE)
You	had	

We	'd	better not Verb . . . (NEGATIVE)
etc.	had	

2 Use

E.g. 'I think you'd better type this letter again, before Mr Lawrence sees it.'
 'Oh dear! Is it as bad as that?'



People who say **I'd better** or **We'd better** are offering advice to themselves.

E.g. **I'd better** go to bed early. I have to catch a train at 6 o'clock tomorrow morning.

Note the use of the negative form.

E.g. **We'd better not** make any mistakes.

NOTE: In negative questions [see YES-NO QUESTION], we add **n't** to **had**.

E.g. **Hadn't you better** be more careful? <rare>

We also add **n't** to **had** in negative tag questions.

E.g. **They'd better** improve the standard of their work, **hadn't they?**

half /ha:f/ || hæ:f/ (determiner, pronoun, noun, or adverb)

Half represents the FRACTION $\frac{1}{2}$ or the DECIMAL 0.5:



half a cake



a whole cake

Half as a determiner and pronoun

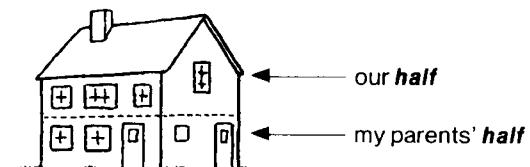
Half is used a lot in expressions of MEASURING and QUANTITY, also in telling the TIME.

E.g. **half** a pint of milk **half** an hour = 30 minutes
half a dozen = 6 **half** a dollar = 50 cents
 It's **half past three**. (= 3.30)

Half as a noun

When it is a noun, **half** has the plural form **halves** /ha:vz/ || hæ:vz/

E.g. Two **halves** make a **whole**.
 We bought the top **half** of the house, and my parents bought the other **half**.



2a **Half** (noun) can also come before another noun.

E.g. *a half hour, a half pound, a half mile.*

3 **Half as an adverb**

As an adverb, **half** usually comes before the verb or adjective which it modifies.

E.g. *She half promised to lend us her house.
The poor animal looked half dead with fear.*

[For further details, see FRACTIONS, especially FRACTIONS 2 NOTE.]

hardly /'ha:dli/ (adverb)

- **Hardly** is an adverb of degree with a negative meaning (= 'scarcely', 'almost . . . not . . . at all'). E.g. *I hardly know her.*
- **Hardly** goes with verbs and adjectives, and also with any-words, such as **any, anyone**.
- Do not confuse **hardly** with **hard**, which is an adjective (as in **hard work**) or an adverb of degree (as in *He {works tries} hard*).

1 **Hardly before an adjective**

E.g. *They made him start work, even though he was hardly able to walk.* (= 'almost unable')

I read the newspapers. It's hardly necessary to listen to the news on the radio as well. (= 'almost unnecessary')

2 **Hardly before a main verb**

E.g. *She was so ill that she could hardly open her eyes.* (= 'only with difficulty')

Wendy has changed a lot: I hardly recognized her. (= 'almost didn't recognize')

2a **Had hardly + past participle** in the main clause, followed by a *before-* clause [see AFTER AND BEFORE] or a *when*-clause [see WHEN 2], means 'only just':

E.g. *I'd hardly finished my breakfast {before when} the doorbell rang.* (= 'only just finished')

You can reverse the order for more emphasis [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a].

E.g. **Hardly had I finished my breakfast when the doorbell rang.** <formal written English>

Hardly + any-word

Hardly any { (one) (thing) } (= 'almost no { (-one) (thing) }').

E.g. *We've hardly talked to anyone* { about the accident.

They looked very thin. They had hardly had anything to eat for weeks.

Hardly at all (= 'only a little bit', 'almost not at all').

E.g. 'Do you know Switzerland well?' 'Oh, no, **hardly at all.**'

Hardly ever (= 'very infrequently', 'almost never').

E.g. *The old lady hardly ever goes out at night, because she's afraid someone will rob her.*

have /hæv/ (weak form /(h)əv/) (verb) [See also HAVE GOT, HAVE GOT TO, HAVE TO.]

Have is both a MAIN VERB and an AUXILIARY VERB.

Have as a main verb means 'possess', 'have got', etc.

Have as an auxiliary verb is used to form the PERFECT.

Forms of the verb have

Have has 4 different forms: **have, has, had, having.**

have is the BASIC form, used as the INFINITIVE, the IMPERATIVE, and the SUBJUNCTIVE (as well as a present form – see below)

present forms	
has /hæz/, //(h)əz/* contraction: 's /s/ or /z/* *	with <i>he, she, it</i> or SINGULAR NOUN PHRASE as subject
have /hæv/, //(h)əv/* contraction: 've /v/	with <i>I, we, you, they, or PLURAL NOUN PHRASE</i> as subject
past form	
had /hæd/, //(h)əd/* contraction: 'd /d/	with all subjects
participles	(Main Verb only)
having /'hævɪŋ/ had /hæd/	-ING participle PAST PARTICIPLE

* The second pronunciation is the weak form.

** We pronounce 's as /s/ after voiceless consonants (e.g. **Pat's** /pæts/, and as /z/ after voiced consonants or vowels (e.g. **Jim's** /dʒimz/, **he's** /hɪz/. [See CONTRACTIONS.]

1a Negative forms: (auxiliary verb) [See CONTRACTIONS.]

have not → **haven't** /'hævnt/
has not → **hasn't** /'hæzn̄t/
had not → **hadn't** /'hædnt/

2 The main verb **have**: questions and negatives

To ask a question, use:

do / does / did + **have** + ?

To make the negative, use:

don't / doesn't / didn't + **have**

exactly as you do with all main verbs.

E.g. **She has a job.** **Does she have a job?** **She doesn't have a job.**

NOTE (i) In <G.B.> the auxiliary verb pattern [see 5 below] is sometimes used for a main verb **have**.

E.g. 'Have you any stamps?' 'No, I'm sorry – **I haven't** a single one.'

NOTE (ii) Instead of the main verb **have**, in <speech> we often use the idiom HAVE GOT.
E.g. 'Have you got any stamps?' 'No, I'm sorry – **I haven't got** a single one.'
Here **have** is an auxiliary verb.

3 Using the main verb **have**

We can use **have** as main verb after all auxiliaries including the auxiliary **have!**

SUBJECT + VERB HAVE + OBJECT

Present Simple:	He has a large house in the country.
Past Simple:	We had lots of pets when we were children.
Present Progressive:	Are you having dinner at the Ritz?
Past Progressive:	Everyone was having a good time.
Present Perfect:	Have you had any news from your son?
Past Perfect:	After they had had breakfast, they went out.
modal + have	Will you have some more to eat?
modal + Perfect	I'm feeling sick. I must have had too much to eat. (= I no doubt had too much)

NOTE: **Have** with the passive is rare: **you've been had** (= 'you've been tricked').

3a As a main verb **have** means

- (A) 'possess, have got' (which is a state meaning), or
(B) 'take, receive, eat, take part in' (which is an action meaning.)
[See STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS.]

3b For the state meaning:

We can use **have got**.

We cannot use the Progressive (BE + Verb -ing).

E.g. **Ella has a cold.** = { **Ella has got a cold.**
 { **Ella is having a cold.**

Some examples of the state meaning.

E.g. (i) have { an idea { an opinion	(ii) have { a headache { a toothache
(iii) have { four legs { a gold watch	(iv) have { the measles { a cold

For the action meaning:

We cannot use **have got**.

We can use the Progressive.

E.g.	Present Simple = habit	Present Progressive = activity now
	We have a good time (every Saturday night.)	We're having a good time at Monte Carlo.
		But not: We have got a good time.

Some examples of the action meaning.

E.g. (i) have { a bath, a shower* { a haircut	(ii) have { drinks { tea or coffee
(iii) have { breakfast { an evening meal	(iv) have { a good time { an argument, quarrel { (some) trouble (with . . .)
(v) have { a baby (i.e. give birth to . . .) { an operation	(vi) have { a look (= look) { a rest

* In <U.S.> **take a bath** is more common than **have a bath**.

Sometimes **have** + noun phrase can take both the **have got** and the **be having** constructions:

future meaning:	We've got	{ a test an exam
future or present meaning:	We're having	{ a lesson a class

Special verb patterns with **have**

HAVE + { PRONOUN
 { NOUN PHRASE } + Verb -ing . . .

E.g. **He had us working every night.** (= 'made us work')

HAVE + { PRONOUN
 { NOUN PHRASE } + PAST PARTICIPLE . . .

E.g. **John is having his car repaired.**
 { his car repaired.
 { his hair cut.
 { his temperature taken.

In these examples, **have** has the meaning of 'causing . . . to happen'.

- 4a** Another pattern with the 'causing . . . to happen' meaning uses the basic form of the verb:

HAVE + {PRONOUN
NOUN PHRASE} + Verb . . .

E.g. You really ought to **have** the doctor take a look at that eye.
<especially U.S.>

- 4b** With **to** before the basic form of the Verb, the meaning is not 'causing . . . to happen':

HAVE + {PRONOUN
NOUN PHRASE} + TO Verb . . .

E.g. Have you **had** something **to eat**?
Old Mr Bell **has** no one **to look after** him.

5 Auxiliary verb **have**

The auxiliary verb **have** is used to make the Perfect forms of all main verbs. Auxiliary **have** is normally pronounced as a weak form or contraction [see 1 above].

- E.g. Present Perfect: They **have lived** in Canada for years.
Past Perfect: The tourists said they **hadn't enjoyed** staying in the hotel.
Perfect Progressive: What **have you been doing** today?
Perfect Passive: Some of the furniture **has been damaged** in the fire.

[For further details, see PERFECT.]

6 Tag questions after **have**

Tag questions following the main verb **have** with state meaning are formed with **have** or **do**.

E.g. Cora **has** beautiful eyes, {**hasn't** <G.B.>
doesn't} she?

But with action meaning they are formed only with **do**.

E.g. We **had** a marvellous time, **didn't** we?

[See TAG QUESTIONS if you are not sure what they are.]

have got /**(h)əv'got/** (verb idiom)

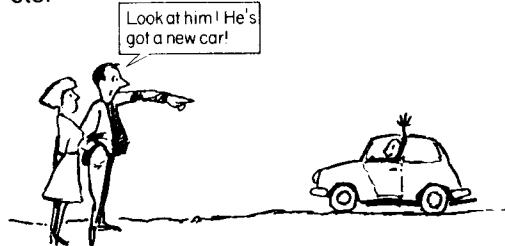
- **Have got** is Present Perfect in form, but its meaning is the same as a Present Simple.
- [For more on **have got**, see HAVE 2 NOTE, 3a, 3b, 3c, and HAVE GOT TO.]

Forms of **have got**:

basic form and -s form	short forms (contractions)	negative forms
have got / (h)əv'got/	' ve got /v 'got/ has got / (h)əz'got/	haven't got
	' s got { /s 'got/ /z 'got/	hasn't got

The past forms **had got**, '**d got**', **hadn't got** are <rare>. Use **had** (main verb) instead.

Have got means the same as the main verb HAVE (when HAVE has a state meaning). But it is more <informal>. Its meaning is 'possess', 'own', etc:



3 **Have got** in different sentence types

Question:



Negative:



Shortened sentence: In this case, we use **have** without **got**.

E.g. '**Has** your son **got** a bicycle?' 'Yes, he **has**.'
'Who **has** **got** a football?' 'I **have**.'

- 4 **Have got** cannot follow an auxiliary verb. (In the idiom '**have got**', **have** is always a finite verb.) So we must use **have**, not **have got** in:

E.g. One day, we **will have** (got) our own home.
Sheila **has had** (got) many advantages in her life.

NOTE (i) **Have got** is common in the U.K., but not so common in the U.S.A.

E.g. <G.B.> **Have** you got the time?
<U.S.> **Do** you **have** the time?

NOTE (ii) In <G.B.>, **have got** is also the **PERFECT** of the verb **GET** meaning 'become', 'obtain', etc.

E.g. She's **got tired** of this game.
In <U.S.>, the form is **have gotten**.
E.g. She's **gotten tired** of this game.

have got to /'(h)eɪv 'gɒt tu/ (weak form: /'v'gɒt tu/, /v 'gɒt tə/, /'gɒtə/) (verb idiom)

- **Have got to** is an <informal> idiom with a meaning very similar to **HAVE TO**. [Compare also **MUST**.]
- We usually use the short (contracted) forms '**'s got to** (/z'gɒtə/ or /s'gɒtə/) and '**'ve got to** (/v'gɒtə/). We even omit **have** entirely in <speech>: /'gɒtə/.
- **Have got to** is followed by the **BASIC FORM** of the verb. It has three forms: **have got to**, **has got to**, **had got to**.

- 1 **Have got to** + Verb means 'be obliged to' ('obligation by someone who is not the speaker').

E.g. She's **got to** take an English test tomorrow.
The cook says you've **got to** prepare the vegetables.

- 2 **Have got to** + Verb means 'necessity'.

E.g. You've **got to** work hard if you want to get rich.

- 3 **Have got to** + Verb means 'It is necessary to conclude that . . .' ('deduction')

E.g. I have ten sons and ten daughters. 'Twenty children? You've got to be joking!' 'No, it's a serious matter, believe me.'

- 4 **Have got to** + Verb does not vary its form much. Also, it does not follow an auxiliary verb. In the following cases, use **have to** instead.

E.g. **had** (got) **to** **is having** (got) **to** **will have** (got) **to** **has had** (got) **to**

- 5 [Compare **have got to** with **MUST**.]

have to /'hæv tʊ/, /'hæv tə/ (also pronounced /'hæf tə/) (verb idiom)

1 **Have to** is followed by the basic form of the verb: **have to** + Verb.

The meaning of **have to** is similar to **must**: it means 'obligation', 'necessity', or 'deduction'.

[Compare **MUST**, **HAVE GOT TO**.]

2 Forms of **have to**

have to, **has to**, **had to**, **having to**

Have to has all the forms of **have** as main verb. [See **HAVE 1, 2.**]

3 Uses of **have to**

3a Obligation.

E.g. This is a terrible job. We **have to** start work at 7 a.m.
In this country you **have to** be over 17 before you're allowed to drive.

3b Necessity.

E.g. Everyone **has to** eat to live.



3c Deduction.

E.g. You **have to** be joking! (= 'you can't be serious.')
There **has to** be some mistake.

NOTE: **Have to**, **have got to**, and **must** have similar meanings.

E.g. You {**must**
have to} pass this test before you are allowed to join the course.

But **have (got) to** can have a slightly different meaning from **must**, because it usually describes 'obligation by someone else, not the speaker'. [See **MUST 2C NOTE**.]

4 Sentence types with have to

E.g. Question: *Do I have to sign this form?*

Negative: *We didn't have to leave early.*

Shortened answers: '*I have to catch the 9 o'clock train.*'
'*Yes, I do, too.*'

5 Don't have to compared with mustn't

Don't have to does not correspond to **mustn't**.

Mustn't means 'it is essential that something does not happen'.

Don't have to means 'it is not necessary or essential'.

E.g. *Witnesses mustn't tell lies at a trial; they must tell the truth.*

But: *The defendant (the person accused) does not have to give evidence. He can remain silent if he chooses to.*

6 Have to can follow auxiliary verbs, e.g. will have to, may have to, has had to, is having to.

E.g. Future: *We will have to get up early to catch the bus.*

Perfect: *We have had to cut down the size of our work force.*

Progressive: *We've had no rain for months: people are having to save water.*

he and she /hi:/ (weak form /(h)i/), /ʃi:/ (weak form /ʃi/) (pronouns)

- **He** and **she** are third person singular personal pronouns. [See PERSONAL PRONOUN 1, 3.]
- **He** refers to a male person, and **she** refers to a female person [but see 2 below].

1 Forms

He and **she** are forms used as SUBJECT of a clause or sentence. Their other forms are:

	object pronoun	possessive determiner	pronoun	reflexive
male:	he:	him /hɪm/	his /hɪz/	his /hɪz/
female:	she:	her /hɜː/	her /hɜː/	hers /hɜːz/

2 Choosing he or she

There is a problem: what pronoun should we use when we don't know whether the person is male or female?

Many people (especially in <G.B.>) use **he (him, his, himself)**.

- E.g. (i) *Before starting the examination, every student should write his name on the paper.*
(ii) *A good teacher always makes sure that he is well prepared for the lesson.*

(This used to be generally considered 'correct'.)

2b Many other people use **he or she (him or her, his or her, etc)**.

- E.g. (i) *Before starting the examination, every student should write his or her name on the paper.*
(ii) *A good teacher always makes sure that he or she is well prepared for the lesson.*

(This is preferred because it does not favour males; but it can be awkward.)

2c In <informal English> we often use the third person plural pronoun **THEY (them, their, etc)**.

- E.g. (i) *Before starting the examination, every student should write their name on the paper.*
(ii) *A good teacher always makes sure that they are well prepared for the lesson.*

(This form is popular, because **they** can refer to females and males. But **they** is plural, so many people think it is not 'correct' here. It is best to avoid **they** (meaning '**he or she**') in serious writing.)

2d Some people use a special written pronoun form **s/he**, meaning '**she or he**'.

2e None of these choices is completely satisfactory. [For further discussion, see SEX.] But you can usually avoid the problem if you try. For example, you can change sentences (i) and (ii) into the plural.

- E.g. (i) *... all students should write their names on the paper.*
(ii) *Good teachers ... make sure that they are well prepared ...*

3 He and she in contrast to it

It is like **he** and **she**, except that it refers to something which is not a person (or to a newborn baby whose sex we do not know). [See IT 2.]

headword (or head)

The main word of a phrase. For example, a noun is usually the **headword** of a noun phrase. [See MODIFIER, PHRASE 3a.]

hear /hɪər/ **hears, heard, hearing** (verb) [See PERCEPTION VERB.]

her /hɜːr/ (weak form /(h)eər/). (third person singular female personal pronoun or possessive determiner)

Her is (a) the OBJECT PRONOUN form of **she**, and (b) the POSSESSIVE DETERMINER form of **she**.

E.g. 'Do you know Joan?' 'Yes, I've met **her**, but I haven't met **her** husband.'

[See PERSONAL PRONOUN, HE AND SHE.]

here /hɪər/ (adverb of place)

► **Here** means '(at) this place': it is the opposite of THERE.

1 **Here** can point to something near the speaker

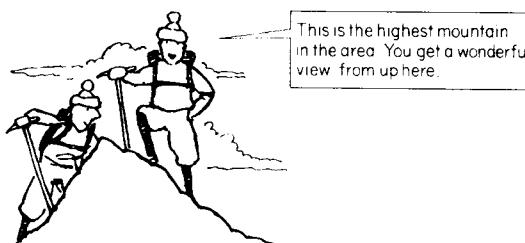
E.g. 'Where's the newspaper?' 'It's **here**, on this table.'

or a place where the speaker is:

E.g. This is a very good restaurant. I have eaten **here** lots of times. (**here** = at this restaurant)

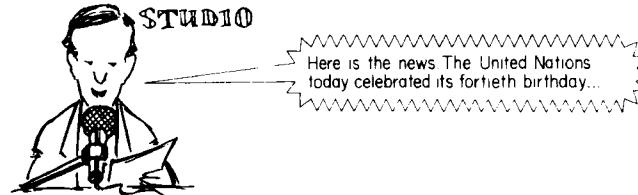
2 **Here** can come after some prepositions of place

in here, up here, down here, over here



3 **Here** can announce something which the speaker is going to say

BROADCASTING STUDIO



4 Some sentences begin with **Here is**, **Here are**, **Here come(s)**.

E.g. **Here's** the money I owe you. (We say this when we are giving the money.)

'Have you seen my glasses?' 'Yes, **here they are**, on this shelf.'

Here comes the taxi you ordered. (We say this when we can see the taxi coming.)

These sentences are emphatic, almost like exclamations.

We put the subject of the sentence at the end [see INVERSION 6, 6 NOTE] unless it is a personal pronoun. Contrast:

Here are the children. but: **Here they are.** *

* No contraction is possible if the verb comes at the end: **Here they're**.

hers /hɜːz/ (third person singular female possessive personal pronoun)

Hers is the POSSESSIVE PRONOUN form of **she** [see HE AND SHE].

E.g. 'Whose is this car?' 'It's **hers**.'

That smoker's cough of **hers** will kill her one of these days.

Ivan and Sonia are both good dancers, but his performance was better than **hers**.

herself /haː'self/ (weak form /(h)eə'self/) (third person singular female reflexive pronoun) [see -SELF, -SELVES.]

Herself is the reflexive form of **she** [see HE AND SHE].

E.g. That girl has hurt **herself**. Please help **her**.

him /hɪm/ (weak form /hɪm/) (third person singular male personal pronoun)

Him is the OBJECT PRONOUN form of **he** [see HE AND SHE].

E.g. 'I've just met Vera's brother.' 'Do you like **him**?'

himself /hɪm'self/ (weak form: /hɪmself/) (third person singular male reflexive pronoun)

Himself is the reflexive form of **he** [see HE AND SHE].

E.g. That boy has hurt **himself**. Please help **him**.

[Compare HERSELF.]

his /hɪz/ (weak form /hɪz/) (third person singular male possessive determiner and pronoun)

1 **His** is

(a) The possessive determiner form of **he**.

E.g. Sam loves **his** job.

(b) The possessive pronoun form of **he**.

E.g. 'Have you seen Andrew? This cassette is **his**.'

[See HE AND SHE.]

2 Compare the different roles of **his** and HER / HERs:

	possessive		
	object pronoun	determiner	pronoun
male:	him	his	his
female:	her	her	hers

historic present [See PRESENT SIMPLE 3b]

This is the name usually given to the PRESENT TENSE describing the PAST.

home /həʊm/ (noun)

1 '**Home**' is the place where you live. **Home** normally has no ARTICLE (**a** / **an** or **the**) in front.

E.g. I left **home** when I was 18.

Home is where I am happiest.

His **home** is in Brussels, although he's Italian.

2 Notice these common adverbial expressions:

at home E.g. I'm **at home** if you need me.

(away) **from home** E.g. She's studying { away from a long way from } **home**.

home (adverbial of motion) E.g. You're going **home** early. Are you bored?

how /haʊ/ (wh- adverb)

► **How** is a WH-WORD, used in WH-QUESTIONS, EXCLAMATIONS, and for introducing SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

► **How** is the only wh-word which is not spelled with a **wh-** (Compare **who**, **what**, **when**, **why**, etc.)

► **How** has many uses.

1 **How** asks a question about means, manner, or instrument

[See WH-QUESTION]. It means 'In what way?', 'By what means?'.



E.g. **How** do you spell your name?

'**How** do you get from here to the City Hall?' (asking for directions)

'**How** are you travelling?' 'By plane, and then by boat.'

'**How** was he murdered?' 'With a knife, or with some other kind of sharp instrument.'

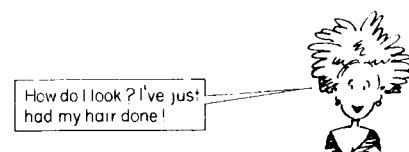
2 **How** also asks for your feeling or opinion about something

- 2a It acts as an adverbial (= adverb of degree) with verbs such as *like*.

E.g. '**How** did you {*like*
enjoy} the party?' 'Very much.'

- 2b It acts as COMPLEMENT with *be*, *feel*, *look*, *seem*, *appear*, *sound*, *smell*, *taste*.

E.g. '**How** is your leg? I hear you broke it when you went skiing.' 'Much better thank you.'



- 3 **How** also comes before an adjective, an adverb, or a quantity word, in asking questions about DEGREE, DISTANCE, FREQUENCY, and LENGTH OF TIME.

- 3a Before adjectives (degree).

E.g. '**How old** are you?' 'Nearly twenty.'
'**How tall** are you?' 'About six foot.'

- 3b Before adverbs:

(I) degree

E.g. '**How soon** does the next bus leave?' 'In 40 minutes.'
'**How well** can you speak Chinese?' 'Not at all well – I'm only a beginner.'

- 3c (II) distance: **how far?**

E.g. '**How far** is it to the next garage?' 'Less than a mile'.

- 3d (III) frequency: **how often?**

E.g. '**How often** do you visit the dentist?' 'I go for a check-up every six months.'
'**How often** is there a flight to Caracas?' 'Three times a week.'

- 3e (IV) length of time: **how long?**

E.g. '**How long** are you going to stay in Bombay?' 'For two years.'
'**How long** will the meeting last?' 'About a couple of hours.'
'**How long** ago did all this happen?' 'More than three thousand years.'

Before quantity words: **how much? how many?**

E.g. '**How much** does that jacket cost?' 'Ninety dollars'
'**How much** do you weigh?' '{ About 140 pounds.' < U.S. >
'About 10 stone.' < G.B. >.

'**How much** { gasoline < U.S. >
petrol < G.B. >} did you put in the tank?'
'Fifteen gallons.'

'**How many** people voted for the motion?' '210'. 'And **how many** voted against?' 'Only 52.'

- 4 **How** (as adverb of degree) also introduces exclamations [see EXCLAMATIONS 5, 6].

E.g. '**How silly** these latest fashions are!
'**How** I loved that little dog!' (= 'I loved him very much indeed')

- 5 **How + about** frequently introduces suggestions in conversation.

E.g. '**How about** going to the disco tonight?
'**How about** a cup of tea? Would you like one?

- 6 We often say: *Hello, how are you?* when we greet somebody.

however /həʊ'vevər/ (adverb)

- **However** is used to make contrasts [see CONTRAST]

- (a) as a WH-EVER word (like WHOEVER, WHENEVER), and
(b) as a LINKING ADVERB, meaning 'yet' or 'nevertheless'.

- 1 As a wh-ever word, **however** has functions similar to **HOW**, especially as an adverb of degree.

However expresses a contrast between two ideas. (This type of clause is <rarer in U.S. >.)

E.g.	positive idea	negative idea
	<u>However rich he may be,</u>	<u>he's still not marrying my daughter.</u>
	negative idea	positive idea
	<u>However hard the work is,</u>	<u>you can always succeed if you try.</u>

- 2 As a linking adverb, **however** also expresses a contrast, (like BUT). Its style is <rather formal>. **However** can be placed in the front, middle, or end position in the sentence.

E.g.	negative idea	positive idea
	<u>We've been advised by the government not to make any further offers to the unions.</u>	<u>We have decided, however, to carry out a thorough re-examination of the pay and conditions of the work force.</u>

(a) hundred /'hʌndrəd/ (number) = 100 [See NUMBERS 5a, QUANTITY WORD.]

hypothetical meaning

[See UNREAL MEANING.]

I /aɪ/ (1st person singular personal pronoun) [See PERSONAL PRONOUN.]

The forms of **I** are:

subject pronoun	object pronoun	possessive		reflexive pronoun
		determiner	pronoun	
I /aɪ/	me /mi:/	my /maɪ/	mine /maɪn/	myself

I refers to the speaker or writer.

E.g. 'How are you?' hearer → becomes → speaker '**I'm fine.**'

Notice that **I** is written with a capital letter, even when it is in the middle of a sentence.

E.g. *Can I help you?*

idiom

1 An **idiom** is a group of two or more words which we have to treat as a unit in learning a language. We cannot arrive at the meaning of the **idiom** just by adding together the meanings of the words inside it.

E.g. *John and Mary used to be hard up.* (= 'They had very little money'.)

2 PHRASAL VERBS and PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERBS are an important class of **idioms**.

E.g. *I get on with my teacher very well.* (This is an **idiom**: it's a phrasal-prepositional verb. It means, 'I have a friendly relationship with my teacher.')

I saw him get on the bus. (This is not an **idiom**)

i.e. /aɪˈɛ/ (linking adverb) (abbreviation) is short for Latin **id est** ('that is'). It links two clauses or ideas, where the second explains first.

E.g. *It's raining cats and dogs, i.e., it's raining heavily.*

[Compare E.G., viz.]

If /ɪf/ (subordinating conjunction) [See CONDITIONAL CLAUSE.]

- **If** introduces a CONDITION (something which may or may not happen, depending on circumstances).
- The adverbial clause beginning with **if** usually comes before the main clause [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE].
- The **if**-clause does not contain WILL for future time.
- **If** also means 'whether', and introduces an indirect question [see INDIRECT QUESTION 1].

The four main kinds of condition

There are four main kinds of condition expressed by **if**-clauses:

- (A) The present condition (most common)
- (B) The will-condition (often called the 'first conditional')
- (C) The would-condition (the 'second conditional')
- (D) The would-have-condition (the 'third conditional')

We give examples of these kinds, using this common pattern:

IF + CLAUSE, MAIN CLAUSE

NOTE (i): You can also place the **if**-clause after the main clause, or < rarely > in the middle of it.

E.g. **If you like**, you can borrow my bicycle.
= You can borrow my bicycle, **if you like**.
= You can, **if you like**, borrow my bicycle.

NOTE (ii): We can place **then** in front of the main clause to emphasise the preceding **if**.

E.g. **If you are right, then everyone else is wrong.**
[For further examples, see DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 7.]

(A) Present condition

Form:

IF + . . . PRESENT SIMPLE PRESENT SIMPLE . . .

Meaning: This has the present simple in both clauses, and means that the condition can be true at any time [see PRESENT SIMPLE 2a, 2b].

E.g. **If** **When** } *I eat too much, I get fat.* ('This always happens.'
If **When** } *somebody waves a red flag, it usually means danger.*
(A general rule)

In this type of condition, **if** means almost the same as WHEN or WHENEVER.

NOTE: But when **if** = 'if it is true that . . .', the present simple does not describe a general habit, and so **when** cannot replace **if**.

E.g. *If you own a house in Hollywood, you are very lucky.* ('If it is true that . . .').

1b (B) The will-condition (the '1st conditional') [see WILL 2].

Form:

IF + . . . PRESENT SIMPLE WILL / WON'T . . .

Meaning: Predicting a likely result in the future (if the condition is fulfilled).

E.g. 'The sky looks dark. If it rains, we'll get wet.' 'OK. Let's go by car.'

Other examples:

E.g. If your boyfriend phones, I'll tell him you've gone out with your mother. (= It is possible or likely that he will phone.)

'If we leave now, we'll catch the 11.30 train.' 'Well, we will if we hurry.'

If you take this medicine, you will soon feel better.

NOTE: When has a different meaning from if: it claims that the event will definitely happen.
E.g. When the Queen dies, her son will become king. (i.e. 'This is a fact.')

1c (C) The would-condition (the '2nd conditional') [see WOULD 1, 2].

Form:

IF + . . . PAST SIMPLE . . . , { . . . 'D
 } . . .
 { . . . WOULD } . . .

Meaning: Imagining the present or future to be different



Here, both speakers are talking about something unreal, unlikely or untrue. [See UNREAL MEANING.] They are talking about the situation now, and not in the past. Other examples:

'Would you accept that job, if they offered it to you?' 'No, I wouldn't take it even if they gave me an extra £10,000 a year.'

Imagining:

E.g. If I were * a millionaire, I'd buy some land and a beautiful house.
'Would you? I wouldn't. If I had a million pounds, I'd give it all away.'

* You can use were for all forms of be in the if-clause of would-condition sentences. [For further details, see WERE 2.]

NOTE: You can use were to + basic form of verb to express an imaginary condition in the future (not the present).

E.g. If you { won
 were to win } the first prize, what would you do with the money? 'I would buy a new car.'

2d (D) The would-have-condition (the '3rd conditional')

Form:

IF + . . . PAST PERFECT 'D / WOULD HAVE . . . + PAST PARTICIPLE . . .

Meaning: Imagining the impossible, i.e. something which did not happen. The speaker is dreaming of or imagining a different past. But the past cannot be changed!

E.g. If Christopher Columbus hadn't discovered America, the history of the world would have been quite different.

Poor man! If he had driven more carefully, he wouldn't have been injured.

If television had not been invented, what would we have done in the evenings?

Other forms of condition

There are other forms of condition, apart from the four main types, so please don't think that (A)–(D) are the only possible forms. Here are a few others:

2a IF + PRESENT SIMPLE, . . . IMPERATIVE . . .

E.g. If you are hungry, please help yourself.

2b IF + { WILL } { WILL } . . .
 { WON'T } { WON'T } . . .

In this type will / won't in the if-clause means want to / don't want to. Promises or offers:

E.g. If you'll come this way, I'll show you our latest fashions.

Threat:

E.g. If you won't agree, there'll be trouble.

2c IF + PAST SIMPLE, . . . PAST SIMPLE . . .

E.g. If I wanted anything, I always got it.

Here, when can replace if as in 1a.

2d IF + PAST SIMPLE, . . . PRESENT TENSE . . .

If + Past Simple = if it is true that . . .

E.g. If she went to school in 1962 then she's older than I thought.

3 If means the same as whether when it follows a verb like ask or wonder

E.g. 'Sally, what did your teacher say to you?' 'She asked me { if
 } { whether (or not) } I liked school.'

This is an indirect question [see INDIRECT QUESTION 1].

* You cannot say if or not, but you can say whether or not [see WHETHER 3].

4 Idioms

as if [see AS 4a], **even if** [see EVEN 2a], **if I were you** [see ADVISING].
 [See also the separate entry for IF ONLY below.]

if only /ɪf 'əunli/ (conjunction)

- 1 **If only** is an idiom followed by a clause in the PAST TENSE. It begins an exclamation of regret or sadness about something which did(n't) or does(n't) happen. [See UNREAL MEANING, WISHES 1.] **If only X** means the same as *I wish X*.

- 2a **If only + . . . PAST SIMPLE** (regret about the present):

IF ONLY + NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN + PAST SIMPLE VERB . . .

E.g. **If only we knew where she was staying!** (= 'we regret that we don't know')

If only that piece of land belonged to me! (= 'It doesn't belong to me, but I wish it did.')

- 2b **If only + . . . WOULD / COULD** (regret about the present):

IF ONLY + NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN + { WOULD }
 COULD } + Verb . . .

E.g. **If only that boy would listen to his parents.** (But he never does.)
If only I could swim! (But I can't.)

- 2c **If only + . . . WERE** (unreal) (regret about the present):

IF ONLY + NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN + { WERE* }
 WEREN'T } . . .

E.g. **If only the weather weren't** so awful.
If only I were still your age!

* **Were** with unreal meaning: [See WERE 2.]

- 3 **If only + . . . PAST PERFECT** (regret about the past):

IF ONLY + NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN + HAD + PAST PARTICIPLE
 . . .

E.g. **If only you'd been driving more carefully!**
If only my mother and father hadn't quarrelled about me!

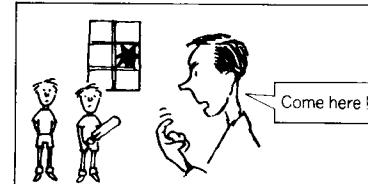
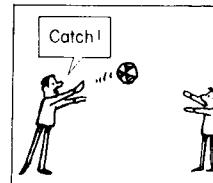
operative

We use **imperatives** to make people do things.

To form **imperatives**, we use the basic form of the Verb.

Imperatives can be impolite*.

- * But they can be used, for example, if the other person is a close friend, or if you are telling the other person to do something pleasant or useful.



We use **imperatives** for giving orders or commands, and also for making offers, suggestions, invitations, giving directions, etc.

- (a) Offers.

E.g. **'Have a cigarette.'** 'No, try one of mine.'

- (b) Invitations.

E.g. **Come in and sit down.**

- (c) Instructions.

E.g. **Take two tablets with a glass of water.**

- (d) Suggestions.

E.g. **Enjoy yourself. Relax. Have fun.**

To make a request a little more <polite>, add **please** at the beginning or end of the sentence.

E.g. **Please wait a moment.**

Turn off the television, please.

[See REQUESTS.]

- 3 To make an **imperative** negative, add **don't** before the verb.

E.g. **Don't come home too late!**
Don't make such a noise!
Don't worry. Everything is fine.
Please don't forget to write a letter.
Don't work too hard.

- 4 INTONATION is important for **imperatives**. A falling tone (\) makes the **imperative** more < abrupt >, and perhaps < impolite >.

E.g. **Come over here. Look at this.**

A rising tone (\) makes the **imperative** more gentle: it is more like a suggestion.

E.g. **Come along. Don't cry.**

- 5 To give emphasis to an **imperative**, put **do** before the verb. The emphasis can have a < friendly > effect.

E.g. **Do have another peach.**
Do sit down, and make yourself at home.

Or it can have an < unfriendly > effect.

E.g. **Do be quiet, please!**
Do sit down, and get on with your homework.

NOTE: (i) We sometimes add **won't you** after an **imperative** sentence. [See TAG QUESTION.]
E.g. **Look after your money, won't you.**

This makes the sentence sound more like a piece of advice. After a negative, **will you** has the same effect.

E.g. **Don't miss the bus, will you.**

NOTE: (ii) If we feel angry, we sometimes add **will you** after a positive **imperative**.

E.g. **Be quiet, will you.**

This is < impolite >.

in /in/ (preposition or adverb)

- **In** is a common preposition of PLACE and TIME.
- Be careful in choosing between AT, ON, and **in**. [You will find rules for this under PLACE 2, TIME 4.]

E.g. 'Where is my coat?' 'It's { **at the office.**'
on the table.'
in the cupboard.'

- The opposite of **in** is **out** (adverb) and **out of** (preposition).
- The general meaning of **in** is 'inclusion'.

Examples of **in** meaning 'inside an area or space': [see PLACE 2]

E.g. **The car isn't in the garage; I left it in the street.**

Also: **in the town**, **in the country**, **in the sky**, etc.

Also without **the** [see ZERO ARTICLE 4d]: **in bed**, **in church**, **in town**, etc.

E.g. **I arrive in (or at) Berlin on Sunday.**

Examples of **in** meaning 'inside a period of time': [see TIME 4]

E.g. **Beethoven was born in 1770.**

I like going for a walk in the afternoon.

Also: **in (the) spring**, **in the twentieth century**, etc.

(But: **on Monday**, **on Friday evening**, **at Christmas**, etc.)

Examples of **in** before ABSTRACT NOUNS

in love (with): Romeo was **in love** (with Juliet).

in trouble: This is an S.O.S. The ship is **in trouble** . . .

in danger: . . . and the passengers are **in danger**.

in doubt: If you are **in doubt** (about what to do), I will help you.

in public: I don't like arguing **in public**.

in private: Shall we talk **in private** in my room?

Also: **in debt**, **in a hurry**, **in time**, **in tears**, **in good condition**, **in good health**, etc.

NOTE: **In** is also used for membership of groups, etc.

E.g. **My brother is in the army.**

How many people are there in this club?

In as adverb

As a place adverb, **in** can replace **in** or **into** as preposition, if the 'place' is so obvious that we don't need to mention it.

E.g. 'Ms Cox is waiting **at** the door.'

'Well, why don't you invite her **in**?' (i.e. 'into the room or house')



4a Some verbs followed by *in*:**be in:** 'Is your sister *in*?' (= 'at home')

'No, but she'll be back later.'

come in: *Come in*, please. (= 'enter')**break in:** *The thief broke in through an upstairs window.***jump in:** 'There's a boy *in* the river.''Did he *jump in*?''No, someone pushed him *in*.'**4b** Notice also these common PHRASAL VERBS:**fill in / out.**E.g. Please $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{fill in} <\text{G.B.}\rangle \\ \text{fill out} <\text{U.S.}\rangle \\ \text{complete} \end{array} \right\}$ this form.**hand in.**E.g. *Will you please hand in* your homework at the end of the class.
 (= 'submit')**take in.**E.g. *I was taken in* by his lies. (= 'deceived')**5 Some other idioms with *in******in addition (to)*** (= as well (as), also) <formal>.E.g. *The post requires someone who is hard-working and able. In addition, knowledge of foreign languages is an advantage.*
<formal, written> (Linking adverbial)***in any case*** = anyway (making a stronger point).E.g. *He can't come to the party this evening because his mother is ill.*
In any case, he doesn't enjoy parties very much. (Linking adverbial)***in case*** (in preparation for something which might happen).E.g. *Take an umbrella, in case it rains.*
In case the bomb exploded, people were told to leave their houses.
(Subordinating conjunction)***in fact*** ('I might go further, and say . . .').E.g. *The Minister of Transport is the worst minister in the government. In fact, his policy has been a complete failure.* (Linking adverbial)***in front of*** [See *in FRONT OF AND BEHIND.*]***in order to, in order that*** (subordinating conjunctions) [see PURPOSE for examples.]***in other words*** ('expressing the same in different words').E.g. *I sometimes find it difficult to believe what Hugh says. In other words, I think he's a liar.* (Linking adverbial)***in particular*** (making a more particular point).E.g. *Most people don't like staying in a hospital. In particular, they are afraid of operations.* (Linking adverbial) <formal, written>***in short (or in brief)*** (making a summary).E.g. *'It's cold, cloudy, and wet, and the wind has been blowing hard since morning. In short, it's been a terrible day!* (Linking adverbial)***in that case*** ('if that is so').E.g. *'She's not very clever: she got only 29 % in the last test.' 'In that case, she won't pass the exam.'* (Linking adverbial)**indeed /ɪn'di:d/ (adverb)*****Indeed*** adds emphasis to VERY (as an adverb of degree):E.g. *She is very clever indeed.* (= 'very, very clever')Notice that ***indeed*** follows the adjective (or other words) after ***very***.When ***indeed*** is in middle position in the clause, it indicates emphatic agreement with what has been said.E.g. *She is indeed a great artist.* (= 'I agree that she is.')So here ***indeed*** is a linking adverb.When ***indeed*** is in front position, it is also a linking adverb.E.g. *Her paintings are well known all over the world. Indeed, she's a great artist.* (= 'In fact')

But here the meaning is that this sentence strengthens the force of what was said earlier.

indefinite article [See A or AN, ARTICLES.]**indefinite pronoun** [See QUANTITY WORDS.]

Some PRONOUNS have a definite meaning: PERSONAL, reflexive and DEMONSTRATIVE pronouns.

Other pronouns, which do not have definite meaning, are called ***indefinite pronouns***.Here we deal with the two kinds of ***indefinite pronoun***: we call them ***of-pronouns*** and ***compound pronouns***.

[See PRONOUN for various kinds of pronoun.]

- 1 **Indefinite pronouns** are like other pronouns. They can stand alone as SUBJECT, OBJECT, etc. of a sentence.

E.g. **Everyone** has **something** to say.

They can also be the head (or main word) of a NOUN PHRASE.

E.g. **Most** (of the boys) are camping, but **some** (of them) are staying in a hostel.

2 Of-pronouns

Pronouns like MOST and SOME in the example above are called **of**-pronouns because they can be followed by an **of**-phrase, indicating quantity. [See also QUANTITY WORDS.]

- 2a If the **of**-phrase is omitted, its information has to come from the situation.

E.g. 'Where are the boys staying?' **Most** are camping, but **some** are staying in a hostel.'

Here, **most** means 'most of the boys' and **some** means 'some of the boys'.

- 2b Opposite is a Table of **of**-pronouns, showing how they combine with COUNTABLE and UNCOUNTABLE nouns in this pattern:

PRONOUN + OF + NOUN

- 2c Compare the Table opposite with the table of determiners [see DETERMINER 1]. You will notice that all (except one) of the words which are **of**-pronouns are also determiners. The one exception is **none**, for which there is a different determiner form, **no**. Contrast:

E.g. **No girls** took part. But: **None** (of the girls) took part.

With other words there is no difference.

E.g. **Some girls** took part. And: **Some** (of the girls) took part.

The word is a determiner if a noun follows it without **of** between them.

Table of **of**-pronouns

group	countable		uncountable singular
	singular	plural	
(I) ALL SOME ANY NONE HALF ENOUGH	all (of the book) some (of the book) any (of the book) none (of the book) half (of the book) enough (of the book)	all (of the books) some (of the books) any (of the books) none (of the books) half (of the books) enough (of the books)	all (of the rice) some (of the rice) any (of the rice) none (of the rice) half (of the rice) enough (of the rice)
(II) EACH EITHER NEITHER ONE ANOTHER	*	each (of the books) either (of the books) neither (of the books) one (of the books) another (of the books)	
(III) BOTH SEVERAL		both (of the books) several (of the books)	
(IV) MUCH MANY MORE MOST (a) LITTLE (a) FEW LESS LEAST	much (of the book) more (of the book) most (of the book) (a) little (of the book) (a) few (of the book) less (of the book) least (of the book)	many (of the books) more (of the books) most (of the books) (a) few (of the books) fewer (of the books) fewest (of the books)	much (of the rice) more (of the rice) most (of the rice) (a) little (of the coffee) less (of the coffee) least (of the coffee)

* In Group II, the asterisk (*) indicates that these pronouns are normally considered singular, although they are followed by a plural noun. This means that they go with a singular verb. E.g. **Each** of my friends {has} {have} children.

3 Compound pronouns

We call these 'compound pronouns' because they each contain two word-elements:

First element: **every-, some-, any-, no-**

Second element: **-thing, -one, -body**

The first syllable has the stress. Here is a table of compound pronouns:

	Not referring to persons	Referring to persons*
every-	' everything	' everyone
some-	' something	' someone
any-	' anything	' anyone
no-	' nothing	' no one
		' nobody

* The **-one** and **-body** pronouns have the same meaning, but the **-body** forms are less frequent.

[To find out more about these pronouns, look them up under their first element, e.g. **EVERY-** etc.]

3a After compound pronouns, **of-phrases rarely occur, but other types of MODIFIERS are possible.**

E.g. **Everything else** ('all other things') [see ELSE]

Anything strange [see ADJECTIVE 6C NOTE]

Nobody in the office [see PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

Someone I know ('some person . . .') [RELATIVE CLAUSE]

4 Indefinite pronouns, unlike personal pronouns, do not vary their form. There is just one exception: pronouns ending in **-one and **-body** can have the POSSESSIVE ending '**s**'.**

E.g. **'Whose is this belt?'** **'Nobody's.'**

'Everyone's life was in danger.'

independent clause [See MAIN CLAUSE]**indirect command** (or IMPERATIVE) [see INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT]**1 When we put an IMPERATIVE sentence into INDIRECT SPEECH, we usually use a verb like **tell**, followed by a TO-INFITIVE CLAUSE.**

E.g. (i)



(ii)



(i) 'Give me the money.' →

(ii) He **{ told
ordered }** me to give him the

money.

'Come in, please.' → The manager **asked** me to come in.

For a NEGATIVE IMPERATIVE, we put NOT before to:

DON'T + Verb . . . → . . . NOT TO + Verb

E.g.



(i) 'Don't sit there!' → (ii) I told you not to sit there!

'Don't worry.' → I advised her not to worry.

NOTE: We also use the INFITIVE for INDIRECT SPEECH with REQUESTS, INVITATIONS, etc. [See FUNCTIONS.]

indirect object [See OBJECT.]

Some verbs can be followed by two objects [see VERB PATTERN 11].

In many cases, the **indirect object** (or first object) names someone (e.g. 'Margaret') who receives something.

E.g. (i) **I gave** **Margaret** **the flowers.**

(ii) **I bought** **Margaret** **a new dress**

a WORD ORDER:

The **indirect object** always goes before the direct object. The order shows which is indirect and which is direct.

b Notice that we can change the **indirect object** into a phrase beginning to [see TO 3] or for [see FOR 2 NOTE(i)].

E.g. (i) **I gave the flowers to Margaret.**

(ii) **I bought a dress for Margaret.**

200 indirect object

- 1c** Like direct objects, **indirect objects** can become the SUBJECT of a PASSIVE.

E.g. (i) **Margaret was given the flowers.**
(ii) **Margaret was bought a new dress.**

- 2a** Common verbs with an **indirect object** or TO-phrase:

bring	hand	owe	send	tell
give	lend	promise	show	throw
grant	offer	read	teach	write

E.g. **The dog brought his master the stick.**
= **The dog brought the stick to his master.**

- 2b** Common verbs with an **indirect object** or FOR-phrase:

buy	find	leave	order	reserve	spare
cook	get	make	peel	save	

E.g. **She made her grandson a birthday cake.**
= **She made a birthday cake for her grandson.**

- 2c** Common verbs which behave differently:

ask allow charge cost refuse wish

We cannot use **to** or **for** with these verbs.

E.g. **He asked me a lot of questions.**

But not:

**He asked a lot of questions { or
to me*.**

The coat cost George £70.

But not:

The coat cost £70 for George.

* It is possible but <rare>, to say: **He asked a lot of questions of me.**

indirect question [See also INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT]

1 YES-NO QUESTIONS

YES-NO QUESTIONS begin with **if** in INDIRECT SPEECH. (These are questions which invite **yes** or **no** as an answer).

E.g. 'Is it raining?' → **The old lady asked if it was raining.**
'Do you have any stamps?' → **I asked them if they had any stamps.**
'Can I borrow your dictionary?' → **He asked her if he could borrow her dictionary.**

Notice that in DIRECT SPEECH the questions have inversion, but that in INDIRECT SPEECH the word order is normal: IF + SUBJECT + VERB . . .
[See IF 3.]

indirect question 201

NOTE: (i) Instead of **if**, we can use **whether** or **whether or not**.

E.g. **The old lady asked whether it was raining.**
I asked them whether or not they had any stamps.

(ii) **Whether or not** is more emphatic than **if** or **whether**, because it means an answer is being demanded.

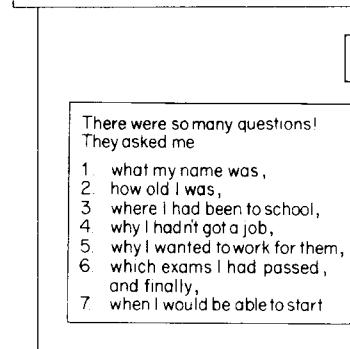
WH-QUESTIONS

WH-QUESTIONS begin with the WH-WORD (HOW, WHAT, WHEN, WHERE, WHICH, WHO, WHOM, WHOSE, WHY) in indirect speech, just as in direct speech.

E.g. '**Where** are you going?' → **He asked her where she was going.**
'**When** do you get up in the morning?' → **I asked him when he got up in the morning.**

Notice also that the word order in indirect speech is normal, i.e. SUBJECT + VERB.

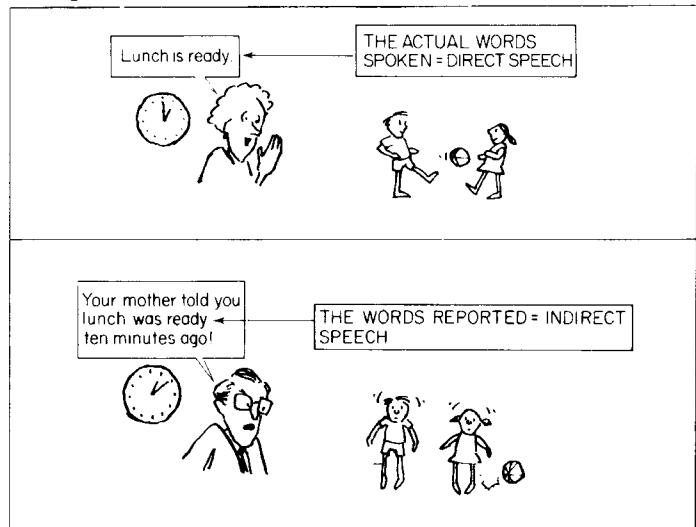
Some examples:



indirect speech and thought [Compare DIRECT SPEECH.]

- When we report what someone else has said, we use the form of language called **indirect speech**.

E.g.



1 Changing from direct to indirect speech

We usually change the forms of verbs when we report in **indirect speech**:

- 1a Present forms** — change to — **Past forms**
- | | |
|---|--|
| Present Simple
E.g. 'I love you.' | Past Simple
→ He told* her that he loved her. |
| Present Progressive
E.g. 'Be quiet. I'm talking on the phone.' | Past Progressive
→ She told us to be quiet while she was talking on the phone. |
| Present Perfect
E.g. 'The rain has stopped.' | Past Perfect
→ He said* that the rain had stopped. |
| Present Perfect Progressive
E.g. 'She's been having a wonderful time in Italy.' | Past Perfect Progressive
→ Mary's mother said she had been having a wonderful time in Italy. |

IMPORTANT: We don't always have to change the verb from present to past. Look at this example:

E.g. **'I love Jane.'** → **Jim admitted that he *{loved / loves}* Jane.**

We can leave the verb in the present form here, because 'Jim' probably still 'loves Jane' at the time of the report.

* Notice that after **tell** we have to mention the person addressed: **He told her that . . .** But after **say** we do not: **He said that . . .**

Past Forms — change to — **Past Perfect Forms**

Past Simple E.g. 'I met you when you were a student.'	→ Past Perfect She told me she had met me when I was ** a student.
---	---

Past Progressive E.g. 'I was driving carefully when the accident happened.'	→ Past Perfect Progressive He told the police he had been driving carefully when the accident happened**.
---	--

** The Past Simple form in a subordinate clause in **DIRECT SPEECH** doesn't usually change into Past Perfect in **indirect speech**.

E.g. **She said she had been very unhappy after her mother (**had**) died.**

NOTE: If a Past Perfect form occurs in direct speech, it does not change in **indirect speech**.

E.g. **'I phoned you yesterday to find out if my letter **had arrived**.'** → **He claimed that he had phoned them the previous day to find out if his letter had arrived.**

What happens to MODAL AUXILIARIES in **indirect speech?**

WILL, CAN, } — change to — **WOULD, COULD**
MAY, SHALL } **MIGHT, SHOULD**

WILL, CAN, MAY, SHALL	→ He promised that he would meet her at 10.
→ I can fly.	→ He said he could fly.
→ What shall we give Bill?	→ They asked what they should give Bill.
→ The train may be late.	→ He agreed that the train might be late.

NOTE: If the modal auxiliaries **MUST**, **OUGHT TO**, **USED TO** occur in direct speech, they do not change in **indirect speech**.

E.g. 'You must relax.'	→ The doctor said you must relax.
E.g. 'You ought to give up smoking.'	→ The doctor said I ought to give up smoking.
E.g. 'I used to smoke forty a day.'	→ I confessed to him that I used to smoke forty a day.

There is also no change if the 'past' modal auxiliaries **would**, **could**, **should** and **might** occur in direct speech.

E.g. 'Would you mind lending me your typewriter?'	→ I asked Betty if she would mind lending me her typewriter.
--	---

2 Other changes in indirect speech

As well as changes in verb form, some other changes are often* required in *indirect speech*.

- 2a** First and second person pronouns usually change to third person pronouns [see PERSONAL PRONOUNS].

E.g. '*I like ice cream.*' → *He said he liked ice cream.*
 '*We enjoyed your singing.*' → *They said that they had enjoyed his singing.*

- 2b** Other words which talk about 'here' and 'now' may change:

<i>this</i> → <i>that</i>	<i>today</i> → <i>that day</i>
<i>these</i> → <i>those</i>	<i>yesterday</i> → <i>the previous day</i>
<i>here</i> → <i>there</i>	<i>tomorrow</i> → <i>the next day</i>
<i>now</i> → <i>then or at that moment</i>	

E.g. '*This is our favourite walk.*' → *They said that . . . that was their favourite walk.*
 '*We like it here.*' → *. . . they liked it there.*
 '*We are leaving now.*' → *. . . they were leaving at that moment.*
 '*We'll see you tomorrow.*' → *. . . they would see me the next day.*

* Whether these changes are really required depends on the point of view of the reporter. For example, if you are reporting your own words, you do not change *I* to *he* or *she*.
 E.g. '*I am sorry.*' → *I said I was sorry.*

3 Different kinds of sentence in *indirect speech*.

If the direct speech sentence is:	in indirect speech, use:
a STATEMENT	a THAT-clause (THAT can be omitted)
a QUESTION	a WH-CLAUSE (or IF-clause)
a command (IMPERATIVE)	an INFINITIVE CLAUSE

For further details, see INDIRECT STATEMENTS, INDIRECT QUESTIONS, INDIRECT COMMANDS, FUNCTIONS].

4 Indirect thought

Verbs which describe thinking, feeling, etc. can also introduce indirect statements and indirect questions.

E.g. *Many people* {*believed*
supposed
thought} *that the spy was lying.* (INDIRECT STATEMENT)

Indirect statements

[See also INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT.]

If you want to report a statement someone has made, use this pattern:

SUBJECT + VERB (. . .) + (THAT) + SUBJECT + VERB . . .

E.g. '*The bus will be late.*' → *He said (that) the bus would be late.*
 '*The snow has melted.*' → *The radio reported (that) the snow had melted.*

You can omit *that*, especially in <speech> [see THAT 1].

[See INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT 1 for further examples.]

NOTE: If you don't want to report exactly what was said, or if you don't know exactly what was said, you can use a WH-CLAUSE or an IF-clause, just like INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

E.g. *He explained why he was late.*
They didn't tell me how they got home.
Did Jan say if she is coming to the party?

Infinitive

[See VERB, VERB PHRASE, NONFINITE, TO-INFINITIVE]

An infinitive often has **to** in front of it.

The term infinitive refers to three different kinds of thing:

- An infinitive is a word, that is, a form of the verb.
- An infinitive is a phrase, that is, a verb phrase which begins with an infinitive word.
- An infinitive is a clause, that is, a clause with an infinitive verb phrase.

This is how (a), (b), and (c) fit together in a sentence:

E.g. (a) infinitive word: *have*
 (b) infinitive phrase: *to have met*
 (c) infinitive clause: *to have met your family*
 whole sentence: *I'm pleased to have met your family.*

An infinitive word (see (a) above) is a BASIC FORM of the verb (without any ending).

E.g. *(to) be*, *(to) have*, *(to) do*, *(to) say*, *(to) make*, *(to) want*.

But a basic form is not always infinitive: it can be a present tense, imperative, or subjunctive form. It is called 'infinitive' only when it is a NONFINITE VERB form, especially when it follows **to**.

206 infinitive

- 1b** An infinitive phrase (see (b) above) is a VERB PHRASE which contains an infinitive word as its first or only word.

E.g. **(to) be, (to) know, (to) be done, (to) have said, (to) be helping, (to) have been wanted.**

- 1c** An infinitive clause (see (c) above) is a CLAUSE which contains an infinitive phrase as its verb phrase.

E.g. **(to) be hungry. (to) be eaten by a tiger.
(to) have a headache. (to) give a child a toy.**

[See INFINITIVE CLAUSE.]

2 to-infinitives and bare infinitives

- 2a** Most infinitive phrases begin with **to**. We call such a phrase a TO-INFINITIVE, and represent it: to + Verb.

E.g. **They allowed the children to leave school early.**
(Not: **They allowed the children leave**) [See VERB PATTERN 17.]

- 2b** An Infinitive phrase without **to** is called a 'bare infinitive', and we simply represent it: Verb.

E.g. **They let the children leave school early.**
(Not: **They let the children to leave**) [See VERB PATTERN 18.]

- 2c** In some sentences, both the to-infinitive and the bare infinitive are possible.

E.g. { **What she did was to give all her money away.**
 { **What she did was give all her money away.**
 { **He prefers to rent a house, rather than to buy one.**
 { **He prefers to rent a house, rather than buy one.**

[See INFINITIVE CLAUSE 3 and 4 about when to use to-infinitives, when to use bare infinitives, and when you can use both.]

- 3** In main clauses (which are FINITE clauses) after (a) MODAL AUXILIARIES, (b) auxiliary **do**, the form of the verb is the bare infinitive.

E.g. You should know I don't understand
 modal + Verb do + Verb

infinitive clause

[See INFINITIVE, TO-INFINITIVE.]

1 There are two kinds of infinitive clause

- (a) The to-infinitive clause, in which the verb follows **to** (to + Verb), and
(b) The bare infinitive clause, in which the verb does not follow **to** (Verb).
[See INFINITIVE 2 for examples.]

infinitive clause 207

The infinitive clause is called a 'clause' because it can have clause elements such as SUBJECT, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT, and ADVERBIAL, as well as an infinitive VERB PHRASE:

subject	verb phrase	object	complement	adverbial
	to	write	those letters	immediately.
for us all	to	be	ready	by 5 o'clock.
	to	clean	the windows	thoroughly.
for the job	to	be done		by an electrician.
	to	be finishing	the work	when the boss comes in.

As you see in the Table in 2a, infinitive clauses usually have no subject. When they do have a subject, it usually comes after the word **for**.

An infinitive clause is similar to a finite or subordinate clause [see FINITE and SUBORDINATE CLAUSE] – e.g. a THAT-clause – as this example shows:

I'm sorry to have spelt your name wrongly.

means the same as:

I'm sorry that I spelt your name wrongly.

Also:

It's best for us all to be ready by 5 o'clock.

means the same as:

It's best if we are all ready by 5 o'clock.

to-infinitive clauses – how to use them

To-infinitive clauses have many uses. Here are the main ones:

They follow some verbs (as object) [see VERB PATTERN 7], e.g. **hope, like, want, begin, learn, expect:**

... VERB + TO + Verb (...)

E.g. **I hope to see you soon.**

NOTE: They also follow some LINKING VERBS as complement, e.g. **be, seem, appear.**

E.g. **This timetable seems to be out of date.**

They follow the object after some verbs [see VERB PATTERN 17], e.g. **ask, tell, expect, consider:**

... VERB + OBJECT + TO + Verb (...)

E.g. **The secretary asked us to come back later.**

- 3c They follow some adjectives [see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 3], e.g. **easy**, **hard**, **difficult**, **ready**:
- ... ADJECTIVE + TO + Verb (...)
- E.g. Some of these questions are **difficult to answer**.
- 3d They follow some ABSTRACT NOUNS:
- NOUN + TO + Verb (...)
- (a) Nouns which come from verbs or adjectives.
- E.g. I mentioned my {**desire**} to work overseas.
- (b) General nouns like **time**, **way**, **place**, **reason**.
- E.g. It'll soon be **time to go home**.
- 3e They follow some COMMON NOUNS, or PRONOUNS. The infinitive is similar in meaning to a RELATIVE CLAUSE. The meaning is one of PURPOSE:
- NOUN / PRONOUN + TO + Verb (...)
- E.g. Can I borrow **something to read**?
- NOTE: Sometimes there is a preposition at the end of the clause which links back to the noun / pronoun.
E.g. Could I have **something to sit on**?
- 3f They can follow **too** [see TOO 2] or ENOUGH, usually with a word between:
- TOO ... } + TO + Verb (...)
ENOUGH(...)
- E.g. They gave us **too much to eat**.
- 3g They can act as SUBJECT. More usually, the **to-infinitive** is a 'delayed subject' at the end of a clause beginning with **it** [see IT-PATTERNS 1]:
- TO + Verb (...) + VERB (...)
- Subject
- E.g. **To prove his guilt** would be very difficult.
- Also:
- IT + VERB (...) + TO + Verb (...)
- Delayed Subject
- E.g. It would be very difficult **to prove his guilt**.
- Delayed Subject
- E.g. It's a pity **to be so mean**.

They can act as an ADVERBIAL, especially of PURPOSE (answering the question **why?** or **what...for?**).

E.g. Why did you get up so early? To meet my family at the airport.'

In <formal> style, we add **in order** or **so as** before **to**:

CLAUSE + ({ IN ORDER } SO AS) + TO + Verb (...)

E.g. They are introducing new labour laws, (in order) to improve the performance of industry.

The sea wall must be repaired, (so as) to prevent further flooding.

Using bare infinitive clauses

Bare infinitive clauses are much less common than **to**-infinitive clauses. Some examples of the use of bare infinitive clauses are:

After the verb **help**, or after a verb idiom such as HAD BETTER, or **would rather** [see VERB PATTERN 8].

E.g. This medicine **helps keep you healthy**. *
We'd better be careful.

After the object after some verbs [see VERB PATTERN 18], e.g. **make**, **sure**, **hear**, **let**.

E.g. The book was so sad, it made me cry.

After {**what**} } X (...) DO + BE ...
all

E.g. What they've done is mend the water pipe. *
All I did was report the accident. *

After **rather** (...) than (expressing preference).

E.g. I'd rather work at home than travel thirty miles to work every day.

I prefer to do my own repairs, rather than take the car to a garage. *

* These sentences could also have a **to**-infinitive, instead of a bare infinitive; e.g. **to keep**, **to mend**, **to report**, **to take**.

Informal English [See FORMAL AND INFORMAL ENGLISH.]

-ing, -ing form [See -ING CLAUSE, VERB PHRASE, NONFINITE VERB.]

-ing (-ɪŋ/) is a very important ending (= suffix) in English:

- (a) For all VERBS, -ing is added to the basic form to make an -ing form:
do → **doing**, etc. *

- (b) Also, many ADJECTIVES and NOUNS are formed by adding **-ing** to the verb: e.g. the adjective **missing** (person) or the noun **feeling**. (We will call these '**-ing** adjectives' and '**-ing** nouns'.)
- The **-ing form** of the verb has two uses:
 - (I) With **be**, it makes the PROGRESSIVE form of the verb phrase: **were eating**, **is playing**, etc.
 - (II) Without **be**, it forms the **-ing** participle, which is the first verb of an **ING CLAUSE**, e.g. **I like reading, I like reading novels**.
 - We write the **-ing form** like this: Verb-ing.
 - Some grammar books use the term 'gerund' for **-ing** participles which act like nouns (e.g. **reading** in (II) above).

* Except modal auxiliaries, which have no **-ing form**.

- 1 Spelling changes happen to some verbs when we add **-ing**.
E.g. **get, getting begin, beginning have, having love, loving**.
[For examples and exceptions, see SPELLING.]
- 2 Do not confuse the **-ing form** of the verb with **-ing** nouns and **-ing** adjectives. Here are some ideas for recognizing the differences:
 - 2a **-ing** nouns:
 - (I) **-ing** nouns often have a plural: **feeling → feelings**
Also: **wedding(s) meeting(s) warning(s) drawing(s)**
(These are COUNTABLE NOUNS.)
 - (II) **-ing** nouns can follow a determiner (e.g. **the, a / an**) or an adjective or a noun.
E.g. **the meaning of life, dirty washing, her beautiful singing, chemical engineering, oil painting**.

NOTE: **-ing** nouns can also come before another noun.
E.g. **'dining room, 'closing time, 'heating system'**.
In these cases the main stress is on the first word. Sometimes the two words are joined by a hyphen (-): **dining-room**. It is best if we think of these two words as forming a single compound noun.
 - 2b **-ing** adjectives:
 - (I) **-ing** adjectives can come before a noun.
E.g. **the following night, a paying guest, growing children**.
 - (II) **-ing** adjectives can often come after adverbs of DEGREE, such as **VERY, QUITE AND RATHER, SO, TOO, AS**.
E.g. **very surprising, quite promising, so charming**.

-ing forms of the verb (**Verb-ing**):
-ing forms are verbs when they go before
(a) an OBJECT.

E.g. **buying a present, driving the bus**

(b) a COMPLEMENT.

E.g. **becoming old, feeling tired, being a child**

(c) an ADVERBIAL (e.g. an adverb).

E.g. **singing beautifully, living alone**.

NOTE: Sometimes we cannot decide if a word is a **Verb-ing** or an **-ing Noun**.

E.g. **I enjoy dancing.**

Farming is the world's biggest industry.

-ing clause [See **-ING FORM, NONFINITE.**]

You can usually recognize an **-ing clause** because it begins with **Verb+ing**
[See **-ING FORM** above.]

An **-ing clause** is a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE with several different uses within the sentence.

It is important to notice differences between the use of the **-ing clause** and the use of the **INFINITIVE CLAUSE**. [See 6 below.]

Always use **Verb-ing** when you need a verb after a preposition.

E.g. **The builder insists on seeing you now.**

NOTE: The use of terms: An **-ing clause** is sometimes called a gerund construction (when it behaves like a noun phrase) and is sometimes called a present participle construction (when it behaves more like an adjective phrase). You do not need to worry about this difference.

The form of -ing clauses

We call **-ing clauses** 'clauses' because they can have clause elements such as OBJECT, COMPLEMENT and ADVERBIAL after the **Verb-ing**. They do not usually have a SUBJECT before the **Verb-ing**, but it is possible. Compare:

	subject	Verb-ing	object	adverbial
(i) He insists on		seeing	you	now.
(ii) He insists on	you(r)	seeing	him	now.

[See 3 below.] If the **Verb-ing** has a subject, as in (ii) above, the subject can be

either: a POSSESSIVE form (e.g. **your**) <formal>

or: a non-posessive form (e.g. **you**) <informal>.

In the case of a PERSONAL PRONOUN subject, we use the OBJECT pronoun (e.g. **us**) rather than the SUBJECT pronoun (e.g. **we**).

E.g. *He insists on { our } seeing him now.* { < formal >
{ < informal > }

NOTE: In a negative -ing clause, **not** goes before the Verb-ing.
E.g. *He insists on not seeing you until next week.*

2 How to use -ing clauses

2a They follow many verbs (as object) [see VERB PATTERN 9]:

MAIN VERB + Verb-ing (. . .)

E.g. *I have enjoyed meeting you.*
Do you mind being quiet?

NOTE: [See COME AND GO 6 for the use of Verb-ing after these verbs: **come shopping**, **go walking**, etc.]

2b They follow the noun phrase after some verbs [see VERB PATTERN 19]:

VERB + NOUN PHRASE + Verb-ing (. . .)

E.g. *I don't mind them staying here.*
You could still feel the animal's heart beating.

2c They come before the main verb as subject:

Verb-ing (. . .) + VERB (. . .)

E.g. *Reading (poetry) improves the mind.*
Watching television can be a waste of time.

3 -ing clauses after a preposition

The next set of patterns show Verb-ing after a PREPOSITION:

3a ABSTRACT NOUN + OF + Verb-ing (. . .)

E.g. *The possibility of travelling to India is very exciting.*
Also: **hope of** Verb-ing, **chance of** Verb-ing, **act of** Verb-ing.

3b ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION + Verb-ing (. . .)

E.g. *The President is used to being attacked by the press.*
Also: **good at** Verb-ing, **afraid of** Verb-ing, **tired of** Verb-ing.

3c VERB + (ADVERBIAL / NOUN PHRASE) + PREPOSITION + Verb-ing (. . .)

E.g. *They accused a friend of mine of stealing food.*

Also in the passive.

E.g. *A friend of mine was accused of stealing food.*

Also: **prevent someone from** Verb-ing . . .
look forward to Verb-ing . . .

-ing clauses after a noun or pronoun

-ing clauses after a noun or pronoun are similar to RELATIVE CLAUSES, but without WHO or WHICH + BE. They are more common in < writing >.

E.g. *All the people eating in the restaurant were tourists.*

(= . . . people **who were** eating in the restaurant . . .)

The waiter brought a dish containing a delicious soup.

(= a dish **which contained** a delicious soup.)

The phone was answered by someone speaking with a Scottish accent. (= some **who spoke** with a Scottish accent.)

-ing clauses as adverbials

-ing clauses as adverbials can come before or after the main clause. These are also more common in < writing >, and are < formal > in style.

E.g. *The manager greeted us, smiling politely.*

Being a friend of the President's, she has considerable influence in the White House. ('Since she is a friend . . .')

The -ing clause can also go in middle position in the main clause.

E.g. *The children, having eaten a large supper, were ready for bed.*
(. . . after eating . . .)

Differences between -ing clauses and to-infinitive clauses

It is difficult to give rules for the choice between the **to**-infinitive clause [see INFINITIVE CLAUSE 3] and the **-ing clause**. But here are one or two helpful ideas:

Remember that a **to**-infinitive never follows a preposition, but an **-ing clause** often does.

After a main verb (e.g. **love**, **like**), the **to**-infinitive often describes a possible action, while an **-ing clause** describes the actual performance of the action. [See VERB PATTERNS 7, 9, 17, 19.]

E.g. *I'd love to visit the country – but I've got to stay here in the city.*
I love visiting the country. It's so nice, walking and getting some fresh air.

There are similar differences for other verbs of liking and disliking:
like, **dislike**, **prefer**, **hate**, etc.

For the verbs **remember**, **forget**, **regret**, **to**-infinitives are used for future or present events.

E.g. *Don't forget to lock the door this evening.*

-ing clauses are used to talk about past events.

E.g. *I'll never forget getting lost when we were climbing in the Alps last year.*

- 7 With the verbs **begin**, **start**, **continue**, and **cease**, there is often little or no difference between the two verb forms.

E.g. *Iris started {to work working} at the post office last Monday.*

Our business has continued {to expand expanding} during the last two years.

NOTE: But avoid using two **to**-infinitives or two **-ing** forms one after the other.

E.g. *I'd like to begin {studying to study} as soon as possible.*

They are beginning {to improve improving} the road.

instead of /ɪn'stedəv/ (preposition)

instead /ɪn'sted/ (adverb)

- 1 **Instead of** means 'in place of'

E.g. *Could I have a glass of fresh orange juice, instead of this lemonade, please?*

Instead of sitting there, you could help me clean the kitchen.

- 2 **Instead** is the adverb, meaning 'in place of X'

E.g. *I'm sorry I can't give you a cup of tea. Would you like a cup of coffee instead? (instead = 'in place of tea').*

instructions [See also DIRECTIONS.]

- 1 In <written> instructions, e.g. in recipes, we often use the IMPERATIVE.

E.g. *First, empty the powder into a cup. Add $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of boiling water and stir well. Then sit back and enjoy the delicious flavour of Mangolade.*

- 2 We often omit words (little words like **a** and **it**) in <written> instructions. For example, [] shows where a word is omitted:

Empty [] powder into [] water container.

instrument [See ADVERBIAL.]

Here are some examples of how to express the idea of **instrument**.

E.g. *'The burglar broke into the house.'*

'How did he do it?'

'With an axe.'

'How do you play chess?'

'You play it with a board and some chessmen.'

'What did you mend the pocket of your dress with?'

'I used a needle and thread.'

'I lost my key.'

'So how did you get into the house without a key?'

'With a brick!'

intensification of meaning [See DEGREE]

Interjection is the grammatical term for an 'exclamation word' such as **oh**, **ah**, and **wow**. [See EXCLAMATIONS 2, 4.]

interrogative [See QUESTION, INDIRECT QUESTION, WH-WORD.]

into /'ɪntu/ (weak form /'ɪntə/) (preposition) [Compare IN]

- 1 **Into** is a preposition of motion, and is the opposite of **out of**.

E.g. He {entered went into walked into came into} the room and took off his jacket.



My wife's got to go into hospital.

- 2 Note idiomatic abstract meanings.

E.g. **go into:** They went into business together in 1972, and soon became rich and successful.

come into: Long hair and long dresses are coming into fashion again.

intonation

Intonation (the way your voice moves up or down in speaking) can be important. So be careful!

1 The three main patterns are

Falling:	Really (<i>really</i>)	Thank you (<i>thank you</i>)
Rising:	Really (<i>really</i>)	Thank you (<i>thank you</i>)
Fall-rise:	Really (<i>really</i>)	Thank you (<i>thank you</i>)

2 If you use a falling tone too much, you may not sound <polite>.

3 Asking a question

3a If you use a falling tone when you are asking a question, you can sound as if you are making a statement. For example, a student asks a teacher this question:

student: '*The exam is very difficult.*'
 teacher: '*Is it?*'
 student: '*I don't know. I'm asking you.*'
 teacher: '*Oh, you mean, "The exam is very difficult?"*'

Why did the teacher misunderstand? Because when the voice falls ↴ you are probably making a statement. You are certain about what you say – nothing needs to be added. When the voice rises ↑ you are probably asking a question [see YES-NO QUESTION 1].

E.g. A: *Can I ask you a question?*
 B: *Yes? What's the problem?*
 A: *How do you spell machinery?*

3b However, we usually use a falling tone if the question begins with a WH-WORD [see WH-QUESTION].

E.g. '*What's the problem?*' '*How do you spell machinery?*'

A rising tone on a WH-QUESTION sounds particularly interested and friendly.

4 How to use the three patterns

4a Falling ↓ :

This usually means something **certain** or **final** or **definite**. Especially a statement.

E.g. *It's five o'clock. Here is the news.*

or an <abrupt> **order** or **instruction**.

E.g. *Go away. Please sit down.*

(More <polite> is: *Please sit down.*)

4b Rising ↗:

This usually means something **uncertain** or where something needs to be added, for example in a YES-NO QUESTION.

E.g. '*Are you cold?*' '*No, I feel quite warm.*'

'*Can I help you?*' '*Oh, yes. Do you sell T-shirts please?*' '*No, I'm afraid we don't.*'

4c Fall-rise ↘

This means you feel certain, but something needs to be added. Perhaps there is a problem.

E.g. '*Would you like to go swimming this weekend?*' '*Well, I'd like to, but*

'*This chicken is delicious.*' '*Chicken?* We're not having **chicken**. It's **turkey!**'



'*That's not my signature.*' (It must be someone else's.)

Intransitive verb [See VERB PATTERN]

1 An **Intransitive verb** is a verb that is not followed by an object (or a complement).

E.g. *They laughed. We paused.*

2 Some verbs are both intransitive and TRANSITIVE, i.e. can be used with or without an object.

E.g. *Mary was reading. Mary was reading a novel.*

3 **Intransitive verbs** include 'verbs of position' (e.g. **sit**, and **lie**) and 'verbs of MOTION' (e.g. **come**, **go**, **fall**). But these are often followed by phrases of place or motion.

E.g. *We were sitting by the fire.*
I went to the theatre.

introductions [See GREETINGS 4, THIS 4a]

inversion

- **Inversion** ↪ means changing the word order in the sentence (especially changing the order of SUBJECT and VERB).

1 Summary: kinds of inversion

(A) subject-auxiliary inversion:

SUBJECT + AUX. (+ . . .) → AUX. + SUBJECT (+ . . .)

E.g. You can . . . → Can you . . .?

(B) subject-be inversion:

SUBJECT + BE (+ . . .) → BE + SUBJECT (+ . . .)

E.g. You are . . . → Are you . . .?

(C) 'inversion' pattern with auxiliary **do**:

SUBJECT + MAIN VERB (+ . . .) → DO + SUBJECT + MAIN (+ . . .)
(not **be**) VERB

E.g. You know . . . → Do you know . . .?

(D) subject-verb inversion:

SUBJECT + MAIN VERB + ADVERBIAL (. . .) → ADVERBIAL + MAIN
VERB + SUBJECT (. . .)

E.g. Anna is here → Here is Anna.

NOTE: In some grammar books, all three patterns (A) (B) (C) are called 'subject-operator' **inversion**.

2 Subject-auxiliary inversion

The usual order in STATEMENTS is:

SUBJECT + AUXILIARY + REST OF VERB (+ . . .)

E.g. We are studying.
The cat has been sleeping here all day.
The plane will be two hours late.

2a But to form a QUESTION *, we place the AUXILIARY VERB (which begins the verb phrase) in front of the subject:

AUXILIARY + SUBJECT + REST OF VERB (+ . . .)

E.g. Are you studying?
Has the cat been sleeping here all day?
Will the plane be two hours late?

[* See WH-QUESTION 9, YES-NO QUESTION 1, for details. Not all questions have **inversion**.]

Subject-be inversion

Sometimes there is no auxiliary verb, but **BE** is the main verb:

SUBJECT + BE + . . .

E.g. Diana is older than me.
They are art students.

In this case, **be** behaves like an auxiliary, so place it in front of the subject:

BE + SUBJECT + . . .

E.g. Is Diana older than me?
Are they art students?

Inversion pattern with auxiliary **do**

Sometimes there is no auxiliary, and the main verb is not **be**:

SUBJECT + VERB (SIMPLE PRESENT / PAST TENSE) (+ . . .)

E.g. I play football most weekends.

In this case, use **do** as 'empty auxiliary' to form the question [see do 2d]:

DO + SUBJECT + VERB (BASIC FORM) (+ . . .)

E.g. Do you play football most weekends?

Inversion in statements

Sometimes **inversion** occurs in statements, to give emphasis, especially when the statement begins with a negative word or idea, or with so.

E.g. She at no time admitted she was a murderer.
→ At no time did she admit she was a murderer.

[For further examples, see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a, so 4a.]

Subject-verb inversion

There is also a kind of **inversion** in which the main verb (not only **be**) comes before the subject in statements:

ADVERBIAL + VERB + SUBJECT (. . .)

E.g. Here comes the taxi.
In the town square stands the market hall.
Now is the best time to plant roses.
Up went the prices again!

This pattern is mainly limited to (a) adverbials of place, and (b) verbs such as BE, COME AND GO, sit, lie, stand. It is used to put the focus on the subject, which is the most important part of the sentence.

NOTE: Do not use subject-verb **inversion** if the subject is a pronoun. Compare:

There goes the bus. but: *There it goes.*

Down came the rain. but: *Down it came.*

invitations

- 1 Here are some examples of **invitations** in <informal speech>:

'Would you like to join me for { a cup of tea?
something to eat?'

'Thanks very much - it's very kind of you. But I'm afraid I have to catch a train.'

'Are you doing anything tomorrow evening?'

'No.'

'Then why don't you come and have a meal with me at the Copper Kettle?
We can talk about old times.'

'What a nice idea. Thanks. I'd love to come.'

'I wonder if you'd like to come and stay with us in the country some time.
You're very welcome to come for a week or two this summer! How
kind of you. That's a great idea. Are you sure it wouldn't be too much
trouble?'

NOTE: If someone **invites** you to something, accept or refuse <politely> as shown in the examples. Do not just say **Yes** or **No**. It is not very <polite>!

- 2 Here is a <very formal written> **invitation**:

Mr and Mrs James Maxton
request the pleasure of your company
at Dinner
on Tuesday, 12 May
at 8.30 p.m.

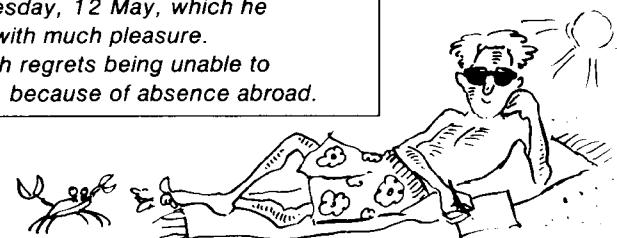
R.S.V.P.*
12, Rosemary St.,
Birmingham



* R.S.V.P. = 'Répondez s'il vous plaît.' (French, = 'Please reply').

A <formal written> reply:

William Muffin thanks Mr & Mrs James Maxton for their kind invitation for Tuesday, 12 May, which he accepts with much pleasure.
{ very much regrets being unable to accept, because of absence abroad.



An <informal> written **invitation**:

Dear Frederic,

Jan and I are holding a party on Saturday,
6th June at 8.30 p.m. Please come if you
can. We look forward to seeing you very
much.

{ Yours sincerely <G.B.>
{ Sincerely yours <U.S.>
Michael

Irregular plural

We form the regular plural of English nouns by adding -s or -es [see PLURAL 2a]: **day** → **days**, **box** → **boxes**.

Irregular plurals are exceptions to this general rule. Below are the different types, with their most common examples.

Changing the vowel

singular	plural
man /mæn/	→ men /men/
woman /'wʊmən/	→ women /'wɪmɪn/
mouse /maʊs/	→ mice /maɪs/

singular	plural
foot /fʊt/	→ feet /fi:t/
goose /gu:s/	→ geese /gi:s/
tooth /tu:θ/	→ teeth /ti:θ/

Adding -(r)en:

child /tʃaɪld/ → **children** /'tʃɪldrən/ **ox** /ɒks/ → **oxen** /'ɒksən/

Changing the last consonant (voicing /f/, /θ/, or /s/)

In most cases the change is from -f/-f/ to -ves/-vz/:

E.g. **knife** /naɪf/ → **knives** /naɪvz/.

calf	→ calves	leaf	→ leaves	shelf	→ shelves
half	→ halves	life	→ lives	thief	→ thieves
knife	→ knives	loaf	→ loaves	wife	→ wives

NOTE: Here, the spelling and pronunciation change; in 3b and 3c the spelling stays the same and the pronunciation changes.

3b Change from -th/-θ/ to -ths/-ðz/:

E.g. **mouth** /maʊθ/ → **mouths** /maʊðz/
path /pa:θ/pæ:θ/ → **paths** /pa:ðz/pæ:ðz/

3c Change from -se /-s/ to -ses /-ziz/:

E.g. **house** /haus/ → **houses** /'haʊzɪz/

NOTE: For the following words, the change in the last consonant is possible, but the regular plural is also possible.

E.g. *truth(s)*, *oath(s)*, *sheath(s)*, *wreath(s)*, *youth(s)*, *dwarf(s)*,
hoof(s), *scarf(s)*, *wharf(s)*, (also: *dwarves*, *hooves*, *scarves*, *wharves*).

4 With the following nouns, the plural is the same as the singular

4a Nouns for some animals, birds and fish.

E.g. *sheep* → *sheep* *deer* → *deer*
grouse → *grouse* *fish* → *fish* *

* Rarely: *fishes*.

4b Nouns for people ending in -ese or -ss [see COUNTRIES].

E.g. **Chinese** → **Chinese** **Japanese** → **Japanese**
Swiss → **Swiss**

Also: **Portuguese**, **Lebanese**, **Vietnamese**, **Sinhalese**

E.g. *one* } **Chinese** *a* } **Japanese** *this* } **Swiss**
many } ten } these }

4c Some nouns referring to numbers [see NUMBERS 5] and measurement [see MEASURING], when they come after a number or a quantity word.

E.g. 'How many plants would you like?' { 'Three **dozen**.'*
'A few **hundred**.'*
'This engine has 15 **horse power**.'
'One pound is worth about 230 **yen**.'(yen = Japanese money).

* The nouns **dozen** (12), **score** (20), **hundred** (100), **thousand** (1,000) and **million** (1,000,000) normally have a regular plural.

E.g. **hundreds** of people. [See NUMBERS 5a.]

4d Nouns ending in -ies (-/ɪz/) in the singular:

series → **series** **species** → **species**

E.g. *a new species* ~ *several new species* of insects

4e Some nouns ending in -s in the singular.

E.g. **crossroads** → **crossroads** **barracks** → **barracks**
means → **means** **headquarters** → **headquarters**

E.g. *a busy crossroads* ~ *several crossroads*
every means ~ *all means* of transport

A mixed group of nouns:

offspring → **offspring** **dice** → **dice**
data* → **data** **(air)craft** → **(air)craft**

* People disagree on the singular use of **data**. The 'correct' Latin singular is **datum**.

Foreign plurals

Some words from foreign languages keep their foreign plural in English. But they also usually allow a regular plural. The foreign plural tends to be more <formal>, and to be preferred in <scientific> English.

5a Latin nouns changing singular -us (-/əs/) to plural -i (-/ai/):

Latin plural only:

E.g. **stimulus** /'stɪmjuːləs/ → **stimuli** /'stɪmjuːləɪ/

Other words allow both a regular and a Latin plural. The Latin plurals are as follows.

cactus → cacti	crocus → croci	focus → foci
nucleus → nuclei	octopus → octopi	radius → radii
syllabus → syllabi	terminus → termini	

NOTE: **Genus** has the Latin Plural **genera** /'dʒenərə/ (and the regular plural).

5b Latin nouns changing singular -a (-/ə/ or -/a:/) to -ae (-/i:/):

Latin plural only:

E.g. **larva** → **larvae** **alga** → **algae**

Usually with the foreign plural:

formula /'fɔː'mjʊlə/ → **formulae** /'fɔː'mjʊləɪ/

Other examples of nouns with both a regular and a Latin plural:

antenna → antennae	nebula → nebulæ
vertebra → vertebrae	

5c Latin nouns changing singular -um (-/əm/) to -a (-/ə/ or -/a:/):

Latin plural only:

E.g. **curriculum** /kə'rɪkjʊləm/ **curricula** /kə'rɪkjʊləɪ/

Other words allow both plurals.

medium → media*	aquarium → aquaria
memorandum → memoranda	
spectrum → spectra	stratum → strata
millenium → millenia	

* The Latin plural **media** is used for means of communication, e.g. **mass media**.

- 5d** Latin nouns changing singular **-ix** or **-ex** (-/iks/ or -/eks/) to **-ices** (-/isi:z/).

E.g. **index** /'indeks/ → **'indices** /'indisi:z/

Also: **appendix** → **appendices** **apex** → **apices**

Nouns of this type allow both the Latin and the regular plural.

- 5e** Greek nouns changing singular **-is** (-/is/) to **-es** (-/i:z/): Nouns of this type have the Greek plural only.

E.g. **analysis** /ə'nælisis/ → **analyses** /ə'næləsi:z/

Other examples:

axis	→ axes	diagnosis	→ diagnoses
oasis	→ oases	crisis	→ crises
hypothesis	→ hypotheses	thesis	→ theses

- 5f** Greek nouns changing singular **-on** (-/ɒn/) to **-a** (-/ə/ or -/a:/).

E.g. **criterion** /kraɪ'tɪ:rɪən/ → **criteria** /kraɪ'tɪ:rɪə/

Other examples:

phenomenon → **phenomena** **automaton*** → **automata**

* **Automaton** can also take a regular plural.

- 6** **Compound nouns** (i.e. nouns consisting of more than one word element – see COMPOUND WORD)

Some compound nouns have the plural ending on the first noun element, instead of on the whole compound. This is because the first noun is the head.

sister-in-law	→ sisters-in-law (Also: sons-in-law , etc.)
court martial	→ courts martial
commander-in-chief	→ commanders-in-chief

irregular verb

- 1** Many of the most common main verbs in English are **irregular**. This means that they form their PAST TENSE form and their PAST PARTICIPLE form in a different way from the regular **-ED** ending.

- 2** At the back of the book there is a detailed list of **irregular verbs**.

- 3** [See also AUXILIARY VERB, BE, DO, HAVE, MODAL AUXILIARY.]

the 3rd person singular present tense form of **be** [See BE.]

/it/ (3rd person singular personal pronoun), **its** /its/, **itself** /it'self/.

It refers to anything which is not a person. [See HE AND SHE on choosing between **he**, **she**, and **it**.]

It is also an 'empty' pronoun in such sentences as:

'**It** is raining.' 'It's lucky that you came.'

[See 3 below, and also IT-PATTERNS.]

The forms of **it** are:

subject / object pronoun	possessive determiner*	reflexive pronoun
it /it/	its ** /its/	itself /it'self/

* **It** has no possessive pronoun.

** Note no apostrophe. (**It's** = **It is**.)

Some uses of it

We use **it** in talking about a thing or (sometimes) an animal.

E.g. Jill made **a cake** and gave **it** to the children.

'Why is **this cat** so fat?' 'It eats too much.'

NOTE: Sometimes we use **she** (instead of **it**) to refer to vehicles or machines, and especially to boats.

E.g. 'What a lovely car!' 'Yes, isn't **she** a beauty?'
'What a lovely **boat**! Is **she** yours?' 'Yes, I bought **her** last month?'

It introducing people.

E.g. on the phone: 'Hello; **it's Margaret**.'
in the street: 'Who's that over there?' '**It's the Queen**!'
at the door: 'Who was that?' '**It was Dr Small**.'

'Empty' it

We use **it** as an 'empty' SUBJECT in talking about the **time**, the **weather**, and other background conditions.

E.g. 'What time is **it**?' 'It's nearly eight o'clock.'
'It's warm today, isn't **it**?' 'Yes, it's been very fine just recently.'
'How far is **it** to Los Angeles?' 'It's over 3000 miles.'

- 3b** We use *it* in talking about 'life in general' <very informal>.

E.g. '*How's it going?*' 'Not too bad, thanks.'

NOTE: *It* can replace a COMPLEMENT; e.g. a NOUN PHRASE or an ADJECTIVE.

E.g. *She was rich – and she looked it.* ('looked rich')
He was an old man – but he didn't seem it.

it-patterns

- **it-patterns** are special clause patterns which occur when a clause begins with 'empty *it*' [see **IT 3**]. E.g. *It's a pity that she left*. The 'empty *it*' has no meaning: its function is simply to fill the position of SUBJECT. So it may be called 'introductory *it*'.
- There are two main types of **it-patterns**: we call them
 - (a) delayed subject patterns [see 1 below], and
 - (b) divided clause patterns [see 2 below].

[Other types of clause patterns or structures are illustrated in VERB PATTERNS and THERE IS / THERE ARE.]

1 Delayed subject patterns

A clause as a subject is rather awkward.

E.g. (i) *That she left is* {*a pity*.
 certain.

In (i) the subject is a THAT-clause. To avoid this, we replace the subject by introductory *it*, and place the **that**-clause at the end.

E.g. (ii) *It is* {*a pity*.
 certain} **that she left.**

- 1a** Notice that the delayed subject may be (i) a THAT-clause, (ii) a WH-CLAUSE (= INDIRECT QUESTION), (iii) a TO-INFITIVE clause, (iv) an -ING CLAUSE, (v) an IF-clause.

E.g. (i) *It's odd that the bicycle has disappeared.*

(ii) *It doesn't matter what you say.*

(iii) *It is compulsory to wear a safety belt.*

(iv) *It was fun looking after the children.*

(v) *It would be a shame if they forgot their passports.*

1b Common delayed-subject patterns

- (a) IT + BE + ADJECTIVE (PHRASE) + CLAUSE

E.g. *It's strange that Janet is so late.*

- (b) IT + BE + NOUN PHRASE + CLAUSE

E.g. *It's no use getting angry with the waiter.*

(c) IT + VERB + CLAUSE

E.g. *It happened that the summer was particularly dry.*

(d) IT + PASSIVE VERB + CLAUSE

E.g. *It's not known whether any lives were lost.*

1c Some other patterns.

E.g. *It shocked me that she couldn't even speak to her own sister.*

It gives me great pleasure to announce the winner of the competition.

2 Divided clause patterns

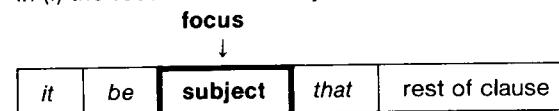
In these patterns we divide a clause into two parts, in order to place emphasis or **focus** on one element. The general pattern is:



E.g. (i) *It is Ann that owns the cottage.*

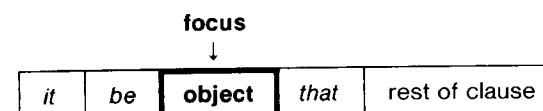
This is the Basic Pattern of (i): ----- **Ann** *owns the cottage.*

2a In (i) the **focus** was the subject:



E.g. *It 's my father that was born in India.*

Other patterns have another element as **focus**:



E.g. *It was the last dance that I enjoyed most.*

2c



E.g. *It 's in London that the traffic is noisiest.*

NOTE (i): If the **focus** refers to a person, we can replace **that** by **who**.

E.g. *It's my father who was born in India.*

It's my father who(m) I really miss.

NOTE (ii): We can omit **that** entirely if the **focus** refers to something that is not a person, or else if it is an adverbial.

E.g. *It was the last dance I enjoyed most.*

It's in London the traffic is noisiest.

These details show that the second part of a divided clause is very similar to a RELATIVE CLAUSE.

3 It-Patterns can be negatives, questions, or shortened answers

3a Examples of delayed subject sentences.

E.g. Negative: **It's not necessary to lock the window.**

Question: **Is it important to take your passport?**

Negative Question: **Wasn't it lucky that they caught the bus?**

3b Divided clause sentences:

Shortened answers contain only **it + be** + noun phrase.

E.g. 'Who cooked the dinner?' '**It was Rick.**' (= 'It was Rick who cooked the dinner.')

Further examples of divided clause sentences:



* 'It was me . . .' is an <informal> equivalent of 'It was I . . .' in this example. [See PERSONAL PRONOUN 2d.]

Just /dʒʌst/ (adverb [or adjective])

Just is an adverb with several meanings.

Just goes before the word or phrase to which it applies.

Just usually goes in middle position [see ADVERB 3].

just = 'very recently', 'a short time ago':

E.g. 'I saw her **just now**' means 'I saw her a moment ago'.

HAVE + JUST + PAST PARTICIPLE [See PRESENT PERFECT 5d.]

E.g.



b **Just** = 'immediate future':

BE + JUST { Verb-ing
GOING TO Verb
ABOUT TO Verb } [See FUTURE 2, 4, 5c.]

E.g.



Degree and emphasis

Just = 'exactly'.

E.g. *That house is **just** what I've always wanted.*

*My children are **just** as good at science as your children are!*

2b **Just** = 'only', 'not more than'

E.g. 'Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thank you, I'll **just** have a cup of tea.'

*You can't blame him – he's **just** a silly little boy.*

'**Just a moment / minute!**' is a useful phrase meaning 'wait for a short time.'

2c Just = emphasis

E.g. 'She's in a hurry.' 'Too bad. She'll **just** have to wait!'
'I **just** don't like it. That's all.'

3 Just is an adjective meaning 'fair'.

E.g. 'The judge sent the thief to prison for twelve months. I thought it was a **just** decision.'

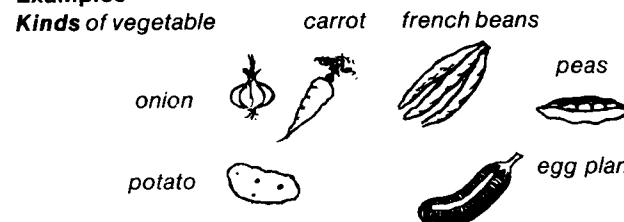
(Compare the noun **justice** and the adverb **justly**.)

kind (of), sort (of), and type (of)

/'kaɪnd(əv)/, /'sɔ:t(əv)/,
/taɪp(əv)/ (nouns)

- These three nouns are interchangeable in 1 and 2 below.
- These three nouns are often followed by **of**.
- They are nouns which 'classify' other nouns [see NOUN OF KIND].

1 Examples



E.g. An egg plant is a {kind
sort
type} of (a) vegetable.

Coffee is a {kind
sort
type} of drink.

- 1a We can omit **of** + noun when the noun's meaning is obvious from the situation.

E.g. Let me get you an ice-cream. What **kind** would you like? Chocolate, strawberry, or vanilla?

- 2 Notice these patterns.

E.g. I enjoy most **kinds of** {novel. < more formal>
novels. < more informal>}

A new **kind of computer**
An odd **kind of (a) man** } (Place the adjective before **kind (of)**)

This **kind of lock** is very secure. < more formal>
These **kind of locks** are very secure. < informal>

Kind of and sort of meaning 'rather' [see QUITE AND RATHER.]

In <informal> conversation, **kind of** and **sort of** can come before adjectives, verbs, and adverbs as adverbs of DEGREE.

E.g. Some people are {kind of*
sort of*} **careless** about their appearance.

(= 'rather careless', or 'careless, in a way')

I **sort of respect** him for admitting his mistakes. (= 'respect him, in a manner of speaking')

* **Kind of** and **sort of** are commonly used in this way, but many people feel them to be 'bad English'. **Kind of** is especially <U.S.>, and **sort of** especially <G.B.>.

kindly /'kaɪndlɪ/ (adverb of manner / politeness) (or adjective)**Kindly** (a) can be <polite> (= 'please')

(b) is more often too polite! (i.e., the speaker is just pretending to be <polite>!)

E.g. (a) 'Would you **kindly** keep us informed?' 'Yes, certainly.'

(b) Mother: You never tidy up your room.

Son: But . . .

Mother: And could you **kindly** put away all these records and tapes.

Son: Okay, Mum.

2 **Kindly** is also an adverb meaning 'in a kind manner'.

E.g. The children like Dr Molloy. He always talks to them **kindly**.

last /la:st//æ:st/ (ordinal or adverb) [See ORDINALS 1]

- **Last** refers to anything / anyone that comes at the end of a series.

1 **Last is the opposite of first**

Last is an ordinal in:

'The captain was the **last** of the crew to leave the sinking ship.' ('Everyone else left before the captain.')

Beethoven's Ninth Symphony was the **last** one that he wrote.

Last is an adverb in:

Because of engine trouble, Watson's car finished **last**.

- 2 When **last** goes before nouns of time, it means 'the most recent', or 'the one before this'.

E.g. **last night**, **last Tuesday**, **last week**, **last year**

In the following example, **last** contrasts with **this** and **next**.

E.g. **Last month** was July, **this month** is August, and **next month** will be September.

[See TIME 4c, 5.]

late /leɪt/ (adjective or adverb) Comparative: **later**, Superlative: **latest**

- **Late** usually means 'not in time; after the right time'.
- **Late** is the opposite of **early**.
- The adjective **late** and the adverb **late** have the same forms. [See ADVERB 4(II).]

1a Adjective

E.g. *The train's late. It should have arrived at nine o'clock, and it's now half-past nine.*
We'll get there in the late afternoon, if we leave now.

NOTE: **Late** before a human noun can mean 'recently dead'. E.g. *your late father* <formal>

1b Adverb

E.g. *I have to work late this evening, so don't wait for me.*

2a **Later** = '(further) in the future' (as well as being the comparative form of **late**).

E.g. *Goodbye for now – I'll see you later.*
The baby arrived later than expected.

2b **Latest** = 'most recent' (as well as being the superlative form of **late**).

E.g. *The latest news is that the patient's health is improving.* (= 'most recent news')

least [See LESS, LEAST.]

length of time (or 'duration')

- Adverbials of **length of time** answer the question **How long?**

Patterns

MAIN CLAUSE +	for + NOUN PHRASE
	from + NOUN PHRASE + { to* through* } + NOUN PHRASE
	{ since } + { NOUN PHRASE }
	{ until } + { CLAUSE }
	{ till** } + { CLAUSE }
	{ all through } + NOUN PHRASE
	{ throughout } + NOUN PHRASE
	up to + NOUN PHRASE
	while + CLAUSE
	during + NOUN PHRASE

[See FOR, FROM, SINCE, UNTIL, THROUGH, WHILE, DURING for further details.]

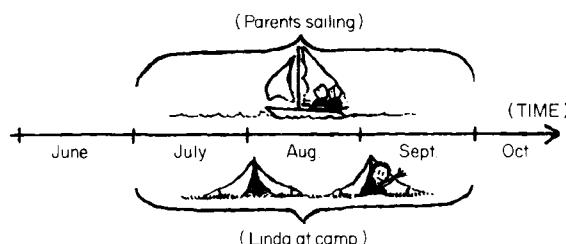
* In <U.S.> English, **through** means 'up to and including'.

** **Till** is a <less common and less formal> form of **until**.

An example

Here is a short story, as an example:

Linda's parents decided to sail around the world. They left home on 1st July, and returned on 30th September. During the same period, Linda stayed at a summer camp for children.



So, if someone asks:

How long did Linda stay at the camp?

we can answer in many different ways.

Compare these examples with the patterns at 1 above:

<i>She stayed at the camp</i>	for three months.
	from July { to through } September.
	since the beginning of July. *
	until { the end of September. }
	till { her parents returned. }
	all through { the summer. }
	throughout { up to 30th September. }
	while { her parents were away. }
	during { her parents' absence. }

* **Since** sometimes causes problems. See SINCE for more information.

3 Other expressions

These are some other expressions of **length of time**:

*My cousin is staying here over { the weekend.
Christmas.*

The mountain top is covered with snow all the year round.

That boy's been watching TV all evening.

(Also: **all day (long)**, **all night (long)**, **all the summer**, etc.)

less, (the) least /les/, /ðə'lɪ:st/ (adverbs, determiners, or pronouns), comparative and superlative forms of LITTLE. [See -ER / -EST 3c, 4]

1 Adverbs



2 Determiners and pronouns

E.g. 'The **least** amount of money I can live on is £100 per week.'
'Well, I have to live on **less** than that: I earn only £80 a week.'



let and make 235
Use **less** and **(the) least** with uncountables, and **fewer** and **fewest** with countables.

E.g. 'This year we had **less** rain than last year.' 'Yes. We also had **fewer** thunderstorms.'

NOTE: LITTLE as an adjective has no comparative or superlative. Instead of **littlest**, **least**, people usually say **smaller**, **smallest**. However, **least** can be used with abstract ideas [see ABSTRACT NOUN] in the sense of '**smallest**'.

E.g. I don't feel the **least** bit hungry. That is the **least** of our problems.

Idioms

at least = adverb of degree ('not less than').

E.g. This temple is **at least** 3000 years old.

at least = linking adverb ('if nothing else').

E.g. The food at school isn't very good, but **at least** it's cheap.

in the least (adverb of degree) means 'at all' after negatives.

E.g. I'm not **in the least** upset that we lost.

Let /let/ lets, let, letting

and make /meɪk/ makes, made, making (verbs)

Let and **make** are verbs with similar meanings and related sentence patterns [see VERB PATTERN 18.]

Let means 'allow / not prevent' and **make** means 'force / compel'.

[On other uses of **let**, see LET'S.]

[On other uses of **make**, see DO and MAKE.]

LET + OBJECT + VERB **MAKE + OBJECT + VERB**

Notice there is no **to** in these patterns.

E.g. Some parents **let their children stay up late**. Other parents **make their children go to bed early**.

The police **let the thief escape**. But when they caught him, they **made him give back the money**.

NOTE: With **allow**, **force**, and **compel**, **to** would be used.

E.g. They **allowed him to escape**.

They **forced him to give back the money**.

let's /lets/

- **let's** = let us (plural)

1 **Let's + Verb** is a way of making a suggestion for the speaker and hearer(s) to do something.

E.g. **Let's play cards.**

Let's have a meal at the new restaurant.

'Let's go swimming next Sunday (, shall we)?' 'Yes, let's.'*

* In <G.B.> the TAG QUESTION **shall we?** can be added at the end of the sentence.

NOTE: Do not confuse **let us** (= let's) with the IMPERATIVE form of **LET** (= 'allow').

E.g. **Please let { me } help you.** (= 'allow me / us to help you')

2 **Negative of let's**

E.g. **Let's not talk about it: it makes me feel ill even to think of it.**

<G.B.> speakers can also say **don't let's** <informal>.

E.g. **Don't let's invite George to the party: he's such a bore!**

letters, letter-writing

1 If you are writing a **letter** to a friend or relative, the language is friendly or <informal> as in example A below. If you are writing a business **letter**, the language is <formal> as in example B below. [See FORMAL AND INFORMAL ENGLISH.]

2 Example A: a **letter** to a friend

(1) *51, Poplar Grove,
London W6 7RE*

(2) *29th December, 1988*

(3) *Dear Jenny,*

(4) *It was great to hear from you! I'm glad you're enjoying your life and
your job in Angola.*

(5) *If you'd like to come and stay in July, you're welcome. I'd love to see
you, though you know how busy I am!*

(6) *Everything is fine here. My new job is keeping me active, and I have
plenty of friends. My new flat in London has given me a few problems.
but I've stopped worrying about it.*

(7) *I'm really looking forward to seeing you again. Let me know your
plans.*

(8) *Love,*

(9) *Brenda*

(10) *P.S. Do you know my phone number? It's 682-8117*

key

1. Your address (but not your name)
2. The date
3. Greeting (saying 'hello')
4. Why you are writing or replying
5. What you want to say (= 'the message')
6. . . . including news about yourself
7. Finishing remarks
8. 'Friendly' way to end the letter
9. Your (first) name
10. 'Postscript' or P.S.: for things you may want to add as an afterthought

Example B: a business letter

(1) *51, Poplar Grove,
London W6 7RE*

(2) *29 April 1986*

(3) *Stevens and Dickinson, Solicitors,
203, Castle Street,
Farnham,
Surrey GU9 7HT*

(4) *{ For the attention of } Mr R. Cox { <especially G.B. >
Attention } <especially U.S. >*

(5) *Dear Sir,*

(6) *Re: The late Roland James, 26, Waveney Rd., Farnham*

(7) *I am writing to you because I understand that you are my late
uncle's solicitor.*

(8) *Since I have heard nothing from you regarding my uncle's will, I
would be grateful for any information you may have.*

(9) *He died on Sunday, 6th April, 1986, and Mrs Vera Smith, my
aunt, tells me that he left me a sum of money in his will.*

(10) *I look forward to hearing from you.*

(11) *Yours faithfully,
B.M.G. Kelly*

(12) *Miss B.M.G. Kelly*

key

1. Your address (but not your name)
2. The date
3. The name and address you are writing to
4. <Not usual>: The person who should receive the letter (if not mentioned in 3.)
5. Greeting to a person you don't know
6. Heading: the subject of the letter
7. Why you are writing
8. Any further information
9. Concluding the letter
10. Formal way to end a letter
11. Your name, under your signature

4 Saying 'hello' and 'goodbye' in letters

These examples show a range, from the most <formal> to the most <informal>:

4a

the situation	'hello'	'goodbye'
You haven't met, and it's a business matter:	Dear Sir, Dear Madam, Dear Sirs,	Yours faithfully J. M. Wright

4b

the situation	'hello'	'goodbye'
You have met in business or social life, but you are not great friends:	Dear Mr Green, Dear Miss * Black, Dear Mrs * Brown, Dear Dr White,	Yours sincerely, John Wright

4c

To good friends, relatives, etc.:	Dear Jim, Dear Jenny, Dear Uncle Sam,	Best wishes, All the best, Kind regards, John
-----------------------------------	---	--

4d

To very close friends or close relatives:	Dear Tom, My dearest ** Ann, Darling ** Roy,	Love, ** Lots of love, ** Love ** from Mum
---	--	---

* [On the use of **Miss**, **Mrs**, and **Ms**, see NAMES OF PEOPLE 1(B).]

** Generally used only in writing to people of the opposite sex, or by parents in writing to their children. Not generally used by men writing to men.

5 British and American styles

The **letters** in the examples above show British styles. In American **letters** there are one or two differences:

5a The opening 'Dear X' is followed by a colon.

E.g. Dear Mr. Smith: Dear Sir: etc.

5b In the date, change the order to month, day, year.

E.g. April 29, 1986

5c Before signing the letter, put **sincerely yours** or **sincerely**, instead of <G.B.> **yours sincerely**.

Letters of the alphabet

How to pronounce their names

a /eɪ/	b /bi:/	c /si:/	d /di:/	e /i:/	f /ef/	g /dʒi:/
h /eɪtʃ/	i /aɪ/	j /dʒeɪ/	k /keɪ/	l /el/	m /em/	n /en/
o /əʊ/	p /pi:/	q /kju:/	r /a:ɾ/	s /es/	t /ti:/	u /ju:/
v /vi:/	w /dʌb ju:/	x /eks/	y /waɪ/	z /zed zi:/		

Consonant letters

b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z.

Vowel letters

a, e, i, o, u

Consonant-and-vowel letters

w and y are **consonant letters** when they come before a **vowel letter**: **want**, **yet**, **backward**, **back-yard**. But they are **vowel letters** when they come after another **vowel letter**: **cow**, **day**, **laws**, **boyhood**. Also, y is a vowel when it follows a **consonant letter**: **cry**, **silly**.

* Between **vowel letters**, w and y are **consonant letters** when the following syllable is stressed: **awake**, **beyond**. But they are **vowel letters** when the syllable before them is stressed: **showing**, **player**.

like /laɪk/ (verb or preposition or conjunction)

Verb forms: **like**, **likes**, **liked**, **liking**

Like as a verb is for talking about people's preferences.

The verb like

Like is followed by different structures:—

(i) **like** + object (noun). E.g. **I like ice-cream**.
(pronoun). E.g. **Mary likes him**.

(ii) **like** + Verb-ing. E.g. **My father likes working** for the BBC.

NOTE: This pattern is often used for talking about hobbies in <G.B.>.

E.g. **We like swimming**. **Do you like running?**

(iii) **like** + object + Verb -ing. E.g. **We don't like anyone interfering**.
('anyone' is the subject of 'interfering')

(iv) **like** + to + Verb means 'prefer' or 'choose' in <G.B.>. E.g. **'I like to go to bed early'**.

(v) **like** + object + to + Verb. E.g. **'The Prime Minister likes reporters to get their facts right.'**

- 1b ***Would like* (or '*d like*)** is a <polite> way of saying 'want'.

E.g.



Would like is followed by the same structures as ***like***:

E.g. ***Would you like an ice-cream?***

Your father would like working for the B.B.C.

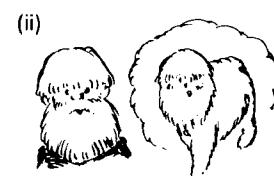
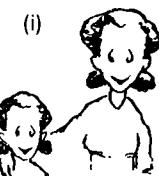
You wouldn't like anyone interfering in your business, so don't interfere in mine.

Would you like to go to bed early?

The Prime Minister would like reporters to get their facts right.

2 The preposition *like*

The preposition *like* means 'similar to': it is used for comparison.



E.g. (i) *Marilyn is like her mother.* (i.e. 'she resembles her.')

(ii) *Bill looks just like a sheepdog, with that beard!*

Like Spain, Portugal has many sunny beaches.

NOTE (i): *like* and *as* [see AS 3] have different meanings in:

E.g. *My mother works like a slave.* (i.e. 'she isn't a slave, but she works as hard as a slave.')

My mother works as a teacher in the local school. (i.e. 'she's a teacher: that's her job.')

NOTE (ii): ***what... like?*** is a question about the nature or manner of something.

E.g. **'What was the dinner like?'** *'It was delicious!'*

'What does she sing like?' *'Well, her voice is rather loud, but she sings quite well.'*

NOTE (iii). [On *like this, like that*, see MANNER.]

3 ***Like* as a conjunction** <informal only>

- 3a Be careful about using *like* instead of *as if* [see AS 4a]. Some people say:

(i) *It looks like it's going to rain.* <informal, esp. U.S.>

But most people prefer:

(ii) *It looks as if it's going to rain.*

- 3b Be careful, too, about using *like* instead of *as* in sentences like this:

(iii) *Janice is a good cook, like her grandmother used to be.*
<informal>

Some people, especially in <G.B.>, consider this 'bad English', and prefer *as*.

E.g. (iv) *Janice is a good cook, (just) as her grandmother used to be.*

So the safest rule is:

Use *like* as a preposition (followed by a pronoun or noun phrase), but do not use *like* as a conjunction (followed by a clause).

i.e. Preposition *like* + pronoun / noun phrase.
Conjunction *as* + clause.

E.g. (v) *This curry tastes hot, (just) like all good curries.*
as it should.

linking adverbs and conjunctions

- **Linking words** link ideas together in a sentence or a text.
- There are three main kinds of **linking words**: (a) coordinating conjunctions, (b) subordinating conjunctions, (c) linking adverbs. [See CONJUNCTION, COORDINATION.]

- 1 The **linking words** on the next page are followed by:

- a coordinate clause
- a subordinate clause
- a sentence (in written English)

- 2 [To find examples of these linking words in use see the following words:]

- 2a Coordinating: [see AND, OR, BUT.]

- 2b Subordinating: [see AFTER AND BEFORE, ALTHOUGH, AS, BECAUSE, FOR 3, SINCE 3, THOUGH, WHEN, WHILE.]

They link: some meanings	(a) a coordinate clause	(b) a subordinate* clause	(c) a sentence (in written English or (a) or (b))
	conjunctions		linking adverbs
	coordinating	subordinating*	
adding ideas together:	<i>and</i>		<i>In addition, Also moreover</i> <formal> <i>Further(more),</i> <formal> ... too ... as well
showing alternatives:	<i>or</i>		<i>Alternatively,</i> (or) else <i>Otherwise,</i>
contrasting ideas: [See CONTRAST]	(a) <i>but yet**</i>	<i>Although Even though Though</i>	<i>However,</i> <rather formal> <i>Yet**, Even so,</i> (but) <i>still, Still</i> <i>Nevertheless,</i> <formal> <i>Nonetheless,</i> <formal>
	(b)	<i>Whereas While</i>	<i>On the other hand</i>
showing cause reason or effect: [See REASON AND CAUSE]		<i>Because Since As for so**</i>	<i>Therefore</i> <formal> <i>Consequently</i> <formal> (and) <i>so** thus</i> <formal> <i>hence</i> <formal>
relating ideas in TIME (a) one idea following another: (b) one at the same time as another:		(a) <i>After Before When(ever) As soon as</i> (b) <i>While As When(ever)</i>	(a) <i>Then After(wards) Beforehand Soon</i> (b) <i>Meanwhile</i>

NOTE: All words in the above table which begin with capital letters can go first in a sentence. All words without capital letters must usually go in the middle. ***

* A subordinate clause is 'dependent on' a main clause. [See CLAUSE 2.]

** Yet and so are a mixture: sometimes they behave like conjunctions, and sometimes they behave like **linking adverbs**.

*** But in <informal written English>, we often begin a sentence with **and, or, or but**.

- 2c Linking Adverbs: [see AFTER AND BEFORE, ALSO, ELSE 2, FURTHER 2, HOWEVER 2, OTHERWISE, TOO 1, YET 2.]

- 3 Here are some examples of **linking adverbs**. They are all of the kind found in <formal written> English.

- (i) *The government has serious problems because of the economic troubles, and the rise in the value of the dollar. Moreover, the nation's debt to the World Bank is worse than ever before.*
- (ii) *The princess is very intelligent. Nevertheless, she has a lot to learn.*
- (iii) *We agree that the weather is bad and not suitable for working in the open. However, we have the seeds, and they must be planted now.*
- (iv) *The students haven't seen the play being performed on the stage. Therefore they can't discuss it on the basis of experience.*

NOTE: Most **linking adverbs** can go in middle position in the clause. For example, (ii) above could change to:
... *She nevertheless has a lot to learn.*

Some **linking adverbs** (**so, yet**) can go only at the front of the clause. Others (**too, as well**) cannot go at the front of the clause.

linking verb [See VERB PATTERNS 2, 3]

- Some verbs are called **linking** because they link the subject of a clause to another element, which describes something about the subject.
- The most important linking verb is **BE** (called the 'copula').
- Verbs which behave like **be** are also linking verbs. E.g.: BECOME, FEEL, LOOK, GET (= become), **seem, appear**.

1 The chief patterns for linking verbs are

- (A) SUBJECT + LINKING VERB + ADJECTIVE (PHRASE)

E.g. *The manager is (too) busy*

[See VERB PATTERN 2.]

- (B) SUBJECT + LINKING VERB + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. *Football is my favourite sport.*

[See VERB PATTERN 2.]

- (C) SUBJECT + LINKING VERB + ADVERBIAL

E.g. *This place is where Napoleon died.*

[See VERB PATTERN 3.]

2 Here is a list of the main *linking verbs* other than *be*

			patterns		
2a	(I) verbs of 'seeming' or 'perception'		(A)	(B)	(C)
	The children This	appear appeared*	happy enough. the only solution.	✓ ✓	
	The teachers I	are feeling felt*	very annoyed. a complete idiot.	✓ ✓	
	The patient It	is looking looks	much better. a fine day.	✓ ✓	
	The class The show	seems seemed*	rather restless. a great success.	✓ ✓	
	This soup	smells	delicious.	✓	
	The party That	sounded sounds*	very noisy. a good idea.	✓ ✓	
	Our apples	tasted	rather sour.	✓	

* In <U.S. > English, this pattern is very rare. Pattern (D) or (E) [see 3 below] can be used instead.

2b	(II) verbs of 'becoming'		(A)	(B)	(C)
	The hotel Margaret	has become became	quite famous. a famous singer.	✓ ✓	
	The couple He	ended up ended up	married. chairman of the club.	✓ ✓	
	Many thieves	end up	in prison.		✓
	We A large dog	must get got	ready to go into the garden.	✓ ✓	
	Children	grow	tired (easily).	✓	
	Your lectures Mr James	have proved has proved	very useful. a good boss.	✓ ✓	
	The weather	has turned	very cold.	✓	
	The dinner Her illness	turned out may turn out	delicious. a blessing.	✓ ✓	

2c	(III) verbs of 'remaining'			(A)	(B)	(C)
	The President Ann and Jim You	remains remain should remain	popular. good friends. in bed.	✓	✓	✓
	The witness The children	kept must keep	silent. out of sight.	✓		✓
	The soldiers You	stayed 'd better stay	perfectly still. at school.	✓		✓

3 Other patterns typical of linking verbs

(D) SUBJECT + VERB + TO BE + COMPLEMENT.

E.g. Jacobs **seems to be** an excellent golfer. [See VERB PATTERN 7.]

(E) SUBJECT + VERB + LIKE + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. The object **looked like** a flying saucer.

(F) SUBJECT + VERB + AS IF* + CLAUSE

E.g. The milk **tastes as if** it has been boiled.

* In pattern (F), **seem** and **appear** can follow an 'empty it' as subject [see 1] before **as if**.

E.g. It { **seems** } **as if** the earth is gradually moving nearer to the sun.
(See LIKE 3a about the use of **like** in this pattern.)

little, a little /'lɪtl/, /ə'lɪtl/

► **Little** is (1) an adjective, or (2) a QUANTITY WORD, or (3) an adverb of DEGREE.

► **A little** is (1) a quantity expression, or (2) an adverb of degree.

► **A little** is the opposite of **a lot**.

► (A) **little** is UNCOUNTABLE; (a) **few** is COUNTABLE. Compare:

E.g. **a little** cheese ('a small quantity of cheese')

a few apples ('a small quantity of apples')

We have **little** time. (= 'not much time')

We have **few** friends. (= 'not many friends')

1 **Little**

1a **Little** (adjective) means the opposite of **big**.

E.g. They have a beautiful **little** garden.

Those **big** tomatoes are not so cheap as these **little** ones.

- 1b** **Little** (quantity word) has a negative meaning (= 'not much').

E.g. *In those days there was very little food in the shops.* (determiner)
When you go away, you should lock all doors and windows: give
thieves as little help as possible. (determiner)
I remember little about my childhood. (pronoun)

- 1c** **Little** (adverb of degree) means 'not much'.

E.g. *'How is your mother?' 'Not very well: she eats and sleeps very little.'*
But she talks quite a lot.'

NOTE: Like **MUCH**, **little** is not often used alone. It is unusual to say *She eats little*: it is better to say *She eats very little*, or *She doesn't eat much*.

2 **A little**

- 2a** **A little** (quantity word) means 'a small amount'. Here it is a determiner:



Here it is a pronoun:

'How much money do we have in the bank?' 'Only a little, I'm afraid.'
'What would you like to eat?' 'I'd like just a little of that cheesecake,
please.'

- 2b** **A little** (adverb) means 'a bit', 'to some extent'.

E.g. *'How is your grandmother?' 'She's getting a little better, thank you.'*
She is sleeping a little in the afternoon, and she is eating and
drinking a little at every mealtime.'

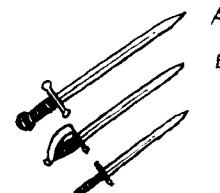
- 3** [On **a little bit**, see **ABIT**.]

II [See **WILL**]

long, longer, longest /lɒŋ/ /'lɒŋgər/ /'lɒŋgɪst/ (adjective or adverb)

- Both adjective and adverb have the same forms.
- The adjective has meanings of size, distance and time.
- The adverb has a meaning of time only.
- Remember to pronounce the /g/ in **longer** and **longest** [see -ER / -EST 2 Note (i)].

- 1** **Long** is an adjective in:



Of the three swords, A is long and C is short, while B is shorter than A and longer than C. (size)

New York is a long way from Los Angeles. (distance)

'How long is the longest bridge in the world?' 'I think it's about four miles long.' (size)

It's a long time since we saw each other. (length of time)

- 2** **Long** as an adverb means length of time only*.



E.g. *'How long have you been waiting?'*

{ 'Not long – about five minutes.'
 'A long time – more than half an hour.'

Notice that we prefer **a long time** (with the adjective **long**) when the meaning is positive. But when we use a question or a negative, we can use **long** as an adverb.

E.g. *'How long will the meeting take?' 'It won't take longer than 2 hours.'*

* For distance, use **far**, not **long**.

E.g. *'How far is your house from here?' 'Not very far – about half a mile'.*

look, looks, looked, looking /luk/ (verb or noun)

- *Look* is a REGULAR VERB, but it is an example of a verb with many idioms and structures, such as *look at*, *look like*.

1 *Look* is a LINKING VERB like BE, **appear**, and **seem** in:

(i) LOOK + ADJECTIVE or NOUN PHRASE

E.g. *He is happy.*

He looks tired.

She seems (to be) a good player.

(ii) LOOK LIKE + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. *The children naturally look like their parents.*

He looks like a boxer: strong but ugly.

It looks like rain. ('The weather looks as if it is going to rain.')

(iii) LOOK AS IF + CLAUSE

E.g. *The children look as if they need a bath.*

You look as if you've had a hard day.

It looks as if the weather is improving.

2 Some idioms with *look*:

look after

look at

look for

look into

look up — This is a PHRASAL VERB

E.g. *'Sally! Come here!' 'I can't come now. I'm looking after the children.'*

If you don't know the meaning of a word, you should look it up in a dictionary.

NOTE: *Look* is also a noun, as in:

'Would you like to have a look at the photos we took in Greece?'

3 The difference between *look (at)*, *see* and *watch*

All these verbs are concerned with vision.

3a *See* is the most common verb: it is normally followed by an OBJECT.

E.g. *We saw some rare animals at the zoo.*

But *see* has no object here:

I can't see very well: I need some glasses.

3b *Look (at)* means 'using your eyes for a purpose'.

E.g. *Look! There's a strange bird in that tree.*

But *look* refers to appearance when the thing you see is the SUBJECT.

E.g. *Their house looks very modern and comfortable.*

3c *Watch* is used when people or animals look at something (happening) for a period of time.

E.g. *I always watch a film on Saturday afternoon.'*
'Do you? I prefer watching sports.'

3d *See* (meaning vision) usually cannot take the PROGRESSIVE form, but *look (at)* can.

E.g. *What are you looking at?*

But not: *What are you seeing?*

[For further examples and details, see PERCEPTION VERBS and STATE AND ACTION VERBS.]

a lot (of), lots (of)

/ə'lɒt(əv)/, /'lɒts(əv)/ (quantity words or adverbs of degree)

- We use ***a lot (of)*** and ***lots (of)*** in <informal> English instead of MANY and MUCH.

- ***A lot (of)*** and ***lots (of)*** both mean 'a large quantity (of)'.

1

	Countable plural	Uncountable
<rather formal>	<i>many</i>	<i>much</i>
<informal>	<i>a lot (of)</i>	<i>a lot (of)</i>
<more informal>	<i>lots (of)</i>	<i>(lots) of</i>

E.g. *We've invited {a lot lots} of guests to the party,*

so we'll need to buy {a lot lots} of food.

- 1a Do not use ***many*** *guests* or ***much*** *food* in the above example [for explanation, see MANY 2 and MUCH 1]. But in the negative, it is better to use ***not (.) much*** or ***not (.) many*** rather than ***not a lot of / not lots of***.

E.g. *We haven't invited many guests, so we won't need to buy much food.*

250 **a lot (of), lots (of)**

- 2 Notice that both **a lot of** and **lots of** can be used with singular (uncountable) and plural nouns and verbs.

There was **{a lot of}** traffic on the road.
{lots of}

There were **{a lot of}** cars on the road.
{lots of}

- 3 **A lot** and **lots** can be used without **of** when we know what we are referring to.

E.g. 'Have the children eaten **any of the** {cake?}
sandwiches?'
 'Yes, (they've eaten) {**a lot.**}
lots.'

- 4 The following table shows when you can use **a lot (of) / lots (of)** and when you should use **much / many** [see MUCH and MANY]:

Statement	I've got {a lot} lots of money / friends. not: I've got much money. not: I've got many friends.
Question	Have you got much money? Have you got many dollars? Have you got a lot of money / friends?
Negative	I haven't got much money. I haven't got many friends. I haven't got a lot of money / friends.
<Formal>	I spend much of my time reading. Many of my friends also enjoy reading.
<Informal>	I spend a lot of my time reading. A lot of my friends also enjoy reading.

- 5 **A lot** and **lots** are adverbs of degree.

E.g. 'How is your mother?' 'She's feeling **lots** better, thank you. She sleeps **a lot** in the daytime, but she also reads **a lot** and listens to the radio.'

-ly -/l/

- Most ADVERBS end in **-ly**: e.g. **quickly**, **usually**, **finally**.
- Some ADJECTIVES also end in **-ly**: e.g. **likely**, **beastly**, **friendly**.

- 1 To make an **-ly** adverb, add **-ly** to an adjective*.

E.g.	adjective + ly	=	adverb
	strange + ly	=	strangely
	particular + ly	=	particularly

You sometimes have to change the spelling of the adjective [see SPELLING, e.g. **happy** → **happily**.]

* Exceptions: adjectives ending **-ic** normally form their adverbs by adding **-ally**. (This does not change the pronunciation of the root e.g. **basic**.)

E.g. **basic** /'bɪk/ → **basically** /'bɪklɪ/

One **-ic** adjective does not behave like this: **public** → **publicly**.

- 2 Many **-ly** adverbs are adverbs of MANNER. Compare:

a slow march → **They marched slowly.**
a loud shout → **He shouted loudly.**
her gentle speech → **She spoke gently.**

- 3 But many **-ly** adverbs are of other kinds [see ADVERB].

E.g. degree: * **absolutely**, **completely**, **entirely**, **nearly** [see ALMOST].
 time: * **immediately**, **lately**, **recently**, **suddenly**.
 frequency ** **frequently**, **rarely**, **usually**, **occasionally**.
 linking: * **alternatively**, **consequently**, **firstly**, **lastly**.
 attitude: **actually** [see ACTUALLY 2], **fortunately**,
personally, **possibly**.

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. [For 'linking', see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

** The frequency words **daily**, **monthly**, **nightly**, **weekly**, **yearly** can be both adjectives and adverbs [see FREQUENCY 2].

main clause

- A SENTENCE must have a main clause.
- A main clause is a clause which is not dependent on, or part of, another clause. [See CLAUSE 2.]

main verb

- Verbs are either main verbs or auxiliary verbs.

- 1 There are 14 auxiliary verbs in English:

be * *will* * *can* * *may* * *shall* * *ought (to)* * *must* *
have * *would* * *could* * *might* * *should* * *used (to)* * *do* *

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.

- 2 All other verbs (e.g. *make* *, *go* *, *take* *, *come* *, *see* *, *get* *, *look* *, *become* *) are main verbs.

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.

[For the forms of main verbs, see REGULAR VERBS and IRREGULAR VERBS. For the way main verbs pattern in phrases and clauses, see VERB PHRASE 2, 3, and VERB PATTERNS.]

- 3 *Be*, *have*, and *do* can be main verbs as well as auxiliary verbs.

E.g. *have*:

We **have** finished our homework. (auxiliary verb)
 We **have** three children. (main verb)

make /meɪk/ **makes, making, made** /meɪd/ (verb)

- [See DO AND MAKE for the difference between these verbs. See also LET AND MAKE.]

- 1 **Make** is a transitive verb with a number of different uses and patterns. The most important uses are:
make = 'create'.

E.g. 'What are you **making**?' 'I'm **making** a summer dress, for my daughter.' [See VERB PATTERN 1.]

make = 'prepare, produce'.

E.g. Would you **make** me a cup of tea? [See VERB PATTERN 11.]

make = 'force . . . to'.

E.g. They **made** him pay his taxes. [See VERB PATTERN 18.]

2 Idioms

Make sure and **make certain** have the same meaning, and are normally followed by a THAT-clause.

E.g. Please **make sure** (that) you lock the door when you leave.
 (= Please be careful to . . .)

The crew **made certain** (that) no one was left on the sinking ship.

man /mæn/ has the irregular plural **men** /men/ (noun)

- 1 In a general sense, **man** refers not just to male people, but also to the whole human race (= 'mankind').

E.g. **Man** is the only animal that uses language.

Early {**man**}
men learned how to use simple tools.

With this meaning, **man** is often singular, and has no determiner such as **the**. It is almost like a proper noun.

E.g. Christians believe that God created **man**.

- 2 Nowadays, many people dislike this general use of **man**, because it seems to give more importance to the male sex. We can instead use **human being**, **people**, **the human race**, etc. [See SEX.]

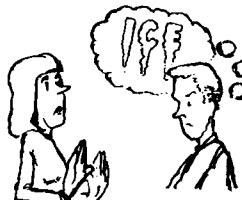
manner

- Adverbials of manner answer the question HOW? or **In what manner?**

- 1 E.g. 'How did she greet him?'



(i) 'She greeted him **warmly**.'



(ii) 'She greeted him **coldly**.'

- 2 We usually express the manner or way of doing something by using manner adverbs. These are formed with an adjective +ly (e.g. *badly*, *quickly*, *slowly*) or else have exactly the same form as adjectives (e.g. *well*, *better*, *worse*, *straight*, *hard*).

NOTE: But not all adjectives have a manner adverb. E.g. *lively* has no adverb *lively*, which would be difficult to pronounce.

3 To express manner, use these patterns:

main part of clause + {
 (a) MANNER ADVERB
 (b) IN A(N) + ADJECTIVE +
 MANNER / WAY
 (c) WITH (...) + ABSTRACT NOUN

Patterns (b) and (c) are <less common> and <more formal> than (a).

- E.g. *He faced his problems* { (a) **bravely**.
 (b) **in a responsible manner**.
 (c) **with great courage**.
She always dances { (a) **gracefully and skilfully**.
 (b) **in a lively manner**.
 (c) **with grace and skill**.

4 Manner expressions usually go in end position in the clause [see ADVERB 4]. But you can also put manner adverbs in middle position, especially if there is another adverbial or clause in end position.

- E.g. *Linda politely asked me to go away.*
Mark carefully placed the bottle on the table.

many /'meni/ (determiner or pronoun) (The comparative and superlative forms of **many** are MORE and MOST.)

- **Many** is a QUANTITY WORD meaning 'a large number (of)'.
- **Many** can come before PLURAL nouns only: **many friends**, **many windows**. (Here it is a determiner.)
- **Many** is also an **of-pronoun** [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2] (followed by OF or by nothing): **many of us**, **many of her friends**.

1 **Many** is similar to MUCH, except that **much** is uncountable. **Many** is <rather formal> in positive statements.

E.g. **Many** of his friends lived in Hamburg.

[See (a) LOT (OF), LOTS (OF) 1a, 4.]

2 With **many** there should be 'something special' about the sentence. For example, it should be either:

2a NEGATIVE.

E.g. *I haven't read many of Lawrence's novels.*

2b A YES-NO QUESTION.

E.g. *'I've been looking for wild flowers.' 'Did you find many?'*

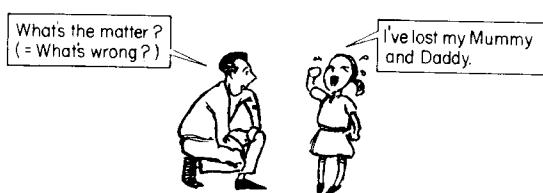
2c Or else **many** should follow a degree adverb such as AS, HOW, SO, TOO.

E.g. *'How many wine glasses did you bring?' 'As many as I could.'*
'I've never seen so many people in one car!' 'Yes, there are far **too many** for safety.'

masculine is the word we often use in grammar for 'male' words such as **man** (noun) or **he** (pronoun). [See SEX.]

mass noun another word for UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

matter /'mætər/ (noun or verb)

1 Both the noun **matter** and the verb **matter** are used in idioms.2 **Matter** is a noun in:

Also in:

E.g. *'Is anything the matter?' 'No, nothing's the matter.'*

3 **Matter** is a STATE verb.

E.g. *'I'm sorry I forgot to return the books I borrowed.'* 'It doesn't **matter!**' (= 'It's not important')
'They're closing that soap factory.' 'Does it **matter?**' 'It **matter**s to me - I have a job there.'

4 **{ No matter wh-** } **{ It doesn't matter wh- }** are idioms introducing a clause of CONTRAST. You can use any **wh**-word after **matter**.

- E.g. French food is good, **no matter where** you eat. (= 'wherever you eat')
It doesn't matter what I say, she still takes no notice. (= 'whatever I say')

may /meɪ/ (modal auxiliary) [Compare COULD AND MIGHT.]

- **May** goes before a main verb, e.g. **may lose**.
- **May** never changes its form.
- **May** is not followed by **to**.

1 Forms

1a present simple: negative:

You		have . . .
We	may	get . . .
They		see . . .
etc.		etc.

You	may not	have . . .
We		get . . .
They		see . . .
etc.		etc.

question (used only for asking PERMISSION) + answer:

May	I we	leave the room? see the photographs? offer her a drink?	{ Yes, you may . { No, you may not .
------------	-------------	---	---

- 1b Perfect: **They may have missed** the bus.
 Progressive: **They may be arriving** tomorrow.
 Passive: **The ladder may be needed** next week.
 Perfect Progressive: **We may have been making** mistakes.
 Perfect Passive: **The road may have been blocked**.
 etc. [see VERB PHRASE.]

(NOTE: **might** is often preferred to **may** in <U.S.>)

2 **May** = POSSIBILITY

- 2a **May** means 'It is possible that something will happen or is happening'.
 E.g.



The same meaning is expressed by **perhaps** or **possibly**.

- E.g. **Perhaps** he's ill.

2b **May** often refers to a future possibility.

- E.g. **It may rain tomorrow, but I hope it will be sunny.**
 'Will they reach the South Pole before winter sets in?' 'I don't know.
 They **may possibly*** succeed, but on the other hand they **may well*** fail.'

* After **may, possibly** weakens the possibility, while **well** strengthens the possibility.

2c We can also use:

- (I) **may have** + PAST PARTICIPLE (for a past possibility), or
 (II) **may be** + Verb-ing (for a continuing possibility).

- E.g. 'Where's James?' 'I don't know, Mr. Baker. **He may have missed** the bus. **He may be** coming to school on foot.'

2d Negative of **may** = possibility.

May not means 'It is possible that something will not happen, or is not happening'.

- E.g. 'How do you feel about the exam? Do you think you **will pass** it?'
 'It's difficult to say. **I may pass**, but on the other hand **I may not**: **I may fail**.'
 'The weather is bad. **We may not be able** to go swimming today. **We may have to stay indoors**.'

NOTE: The difference between **can't** or **cannot** (see CAN 3b) and **may not**. **Cannot** means 'It is not possible'. **May not** means 'It is possible that something does not happen.' Compare:
 That { **cannot** } be true: **it must be false**. ('I'm sure')
 That **may not** be true, but on the other hand, **it may be** (true). ('I'm not sure')

2e Questions about possibility:

We cannot ask questions about possibility with **may**. Instead, we use **CAN** (or could) [see COULD AND MIGHT]:

- E.g. { **Can** } **they have lost** their way? ('Is it possible . . .?')

3 **May** = permission

- E.g. 'May I use your telephone?' 'Yes, certainly you **may**. Help yourself!'
 'May we leave now, Miss Black?' 'No, you **may not**. You haven't finished your work yet.' (**May not** means there is no permission!)

- 3a **May** (= 'permission') is <less common> than **can**. You can always* use **can** (= 'permission') instead of **may**, but many people think that **may** is more <polite> and 'correct' than **can**.

* An exception is the phrase **if I may**.
 E.g. 'I'd like to make a phone call if I may.'

me /mi:/ (*personal pronoun*)

- ***Me*** is the 1st person singular object pronoun [see the subject pronoun, *I*.]
- ***Me*** refers to the speaker or writer.
- ***Me*** comes after a verb or a preposition. (In <informal> style, this also means after BE, AS, LIKE, THAN). [See PERSONAL PRONOUN 2d.]

means [See BY 2.]**measuring** – How to talk about measurements

[See also DISTANCE, MONEY, AGO.]

1 Some units of measurement

You will find a table of **weights** and **measures** in many dictionaries. These are a few examples:

	measurements		(abbreviations)		adjective
	'old style'*	'new style' (metric)**	'o.s.'*	'n.s.'	
1a	length	<i>inch(es)</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>cm</i>	<i>long</i> <i>wide /</i> <i>broad</i> <i>high</i> <i>deep</i>
	width	<i>foot / feet</i>	<i>ft</i>	<i>m</i>	
	height	<i>yard(s)</i>	<i>yd</i>	<i>km</i>	
	depth [see DISTANCE]	<i>mile(s)</i>	<i>mi, m</i>		
1b	area	<i>square inch(es)</i> <i>square feet</i> <i>square mile(s)</i>	<i>sq in</i> <i>sq ft</i> <i>sq mi</i>	<i>sq cm</i>	
1c	volume	<i>pint(s) / paint/gallon(s)</i>	<i>litre(s)</i> <i>decilitre(s)</i>	<i>l</i> <i>dl</i>	
1d	weight	<i>ounce(s)</i> <i>pound(s)</i> <i>ton(s)</i>	<i>gram(s)</i> <i>kilo(gram)(s)</i>	<i>oz</i> <i>lb</i>	<i>g</i> <i>kg</i>
1e	age length of time	<i>day(s)</i> <i>week(s)</i> <i>year(s)</i>			<i>old</i>

[See also separate entry LENGTH OF TIME]

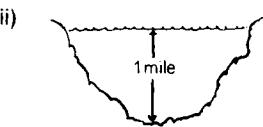
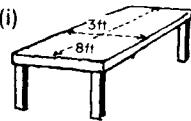
* The 'old style' measures are still in common use in English-speaking countries. But the metric system ('new style') is used in science and technical writing and is becoming more general.

** *Metre*, etc. are <G.B.> spellings. In <U.S.>, the words end in *-ter*, e.g. *meter*.

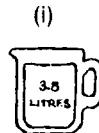
2 Measure phrases are often used before adjectives and nouns such as *long* and *length*

Pattern:

(ADVERB OF DEGREE) + NUMBER + UNIT(S) + { IN + NOUN}

E.g. . . . *about twenty miles* { *long*
in length.**2a Length, height, depth, width:**E.g. (i) *The table is (exactly) 8 feet long and 3 feet wide.*
(ii) *At this point, the sea is (over) a mile deep.*

We can also say:

E.g. *The depth of the sea at this point is (over) a mile*, etc.**2b Area:**E.g. *The average football pitch is 9600 square yards in area.*(Or: *The { area size } of the average football pitch is 9600 square yards.*)**2c For volume and weight we use a verb + measure phrase pattern.**E.g. (i) *This jug holds (just) (under) four litres.*(ii) *This can holds (just) (over) a gallon of* { *gasoline*. <U.S.>
petrol. <G.B.>NOTE: A *gallon* is a smaller measure in <U.S.> than in <G.B.>.**3 Comparing measurements** [see COMPARISON 3.]

middle position is the position of an adverb or other adverbial element when it is in the middle of the clause, especially after the auxiliary or the main verb BE. [See ADVERB 3.] We also use middle position in talking of other adverbials, e.g. prepositional phrases [see ADVERBIAL 4].

might /maɪt/ (*modal auxiliary*) [See COULD AND MIGHT.]**a million** /'mɪljən/ (*number, noun*) = 1,000,000. [See NUMBERS 5a.]**mind** /maɪnd/ **minds, minding, minded** (*verb or noun*)**1 Mind as a verb means 'look after'**E.g. *Will you please mind* (= 'look after') *the baby while I'm out?***2 Notice these special uses of mind (verb)****2a Warning:**E.g. **Mind!** ('Be careful') <G.B.>*Mind your head!* ('Be careful of . . .')**2b Request:**E.g. 'Do you **mind** (= 'have any objection') *if I open the window?*'
'No, I don't – please open it.''Would you **mind** { *lending me this pen?*
 if I borrowed this pen?'
 No – help yourself!' [See IF 1c.]NOTE: In requests, **mind** means 'dislike', (i.e. *Would you dislike it if I borrowed your pen?*), so when we agree to these requests, we say **no!****2c Replying to an offer:**E.g. 'What would you like to drink?' 'I **wouldn't mind** a cup of tea.'
(= 'I'd like . . .')
'What would you like to do?' 'I **wouldn't mind** going for a walk.'**mine** /maɪn/ (*possessive pronoun*)**1 Mine** is the 1st person singular possessive pronoun [see POSSESSIVE DETERMINER and POSSESSIVE PRONOUN], related to **I**.E.g. *This new bicycle is mine.* (= 'It belongs to me.')**modal auxiliary** [See also AUXILIARY VERB, VERB PHRASE.]**1 There are 11 modal auxiliary verbs in English**

- 1a** Here is a diagram of the modal auxiliaries and their usual meanings. Look up each modal auxiliary for further details:

meanings	modal auxiliaries										
	can*	may*	might*	could*	would*	will*	shall*	must*	should*	ought*	used to*
possibility	●	●	●	●							
ability	●			●							
permission	●	●	●	●							
habit						●					
volition (or wish)		●			●	●	●				
prediction (or future)					●	●	●				
unreal meaning			●	●	●				●		
'tentative' meaning										●	
strong } obligation weak }										●	
strong } deduction weak }								●			
past state or habit											●

● = Main use

● = Less important use

● = Uncommon use

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.

NOTE: Also, **need** and **dare** sometimes behave like modals.**2 The modals are a special class of words which behave in a special way****2a** Modal auxiliaries have no -S FORM for the 3rd person singular. Compare:*He works ~ They work* But: *He will ~ They will*Also, modal auxiliaries do not change their form in other ways: they have no **-ing** form or past participle form. We have:*works ~ working ~ worked* But not: **must ~ musting ~ musted****2b** Modal auxiliaries always take the first position in a verb phrase [see VERB PHRASE].

E.g.	verb phrase	verb phrase
They	must win.	They
They	must have won.	The cup
They	must be winning.	The cup

2c Modal auxiliaries come before the NEGATIVE word **not**.

E.g. *She may see the play.* → *She may not see the play.*

2d Modal auxiliaries (except MAY) have a negative contraction.

E.g. *She could not see the play.* → *She couldn't see the play.*

2e Modal auxiliaries go before the SUBJECT in YES-NO QUESTIONS.

E.g. *She could see the play.* → *Could she see the play?*

(Also in other cases of subject-auxiliary inversion) [see INVERSION 2.]

2f Modal auxiliaries carry the emphasis in emphatic sentences.

E.g. '*You should speak to Paul.*' → '*Yes, I will speak to him.*'

NOTE: In contrast, main verbs require **do** to carry the emphasis [see DO 2g].
E.g. '*Why didn't you win the game?*' → '*But I did win.*'

2g Modal auxiliaries are used in SHORTENED SENTENCES.

E.g. *Will you speak to him?* → { Yes, *I will*.
 No, *I won't*.
I'll speak to him. → Yes, so *will I*. [See so 4a.]

2h Modal auxiliaries come before adverbs like ALWAYS and words like ALL and BOTH, when they are in middle position [see ADVERB 3].

E.g. *I always enjoy acting.* → *I will always enjoy acting.*
All the girls will be here. → *The girls will all be here.*

modifier and head-word

1 In English PHRASES, there is usually one word which is the main word in the phrase, and we can add one or more **modifiers** to this to specify its meaning more exactly. The main word is called a **head-word**.

2 In a NOUN PHRASE, a noun is usually the head-word.

E.g.	modifier(s)	head-word	modifier(s)
<i>I like</i>	<i>popular</i> <i>the</i> <i>these new</i> <i>a cooked</i> <i>most</i> <i>every</i>	<i>music</i> <i>wines</i> <i>dresses</i> <i>breakfast</i> <i>concerts</i> <i>hour</i>	<i>of France</i> <i>very much.</i> <i>I spend here</i>

Notice that we can usually omit the modifiers. E.g. *I like music / wines / dresses / breakfast.*

3 In an ADJECTIVE PHRASE [see PHRASE 3d], an adjective is the head-word.

E.g.	modifier(s)	head-word	modifier(s)
<i>This photograph is</i>	<i>rather</i> <i>much</i> <i>the very</i>	<i>good</i> <i>small.</i> <i>better</i> <i>best</i>	<i>enough.</i> <i>than that one.</i> <i>of them all.</i>

4 Modifiers which come before the head-word are 'premodifiers'. Those which come after the head-word are 'postmodifiers'.

5 [See PHRASE for examples of modifiers in different kinds of phrases.]

money (and how to talk about it)

1 **Sums of money**

Notice the difference between the way we write sums of money, and the way we talk about them:



[On pronouncing numbers, see NUMBERS.]

1a The dollar sign (\$) and the pound sign (£) come before the numeral in writing, but after the numeral in speech.

E.g. \$420 = 'four hundred and twenty dollars'
£5215 = 'five thousand two hundred and fifteen pounds'

1b But the signs for 'cent(s)' and 'penny / pence' come after the numeral.

E.g. 84¢ = 'eighty-four cents'
15p = 'fifteen pence' (or 'fifteen p' /pi:/*)

- 1c** If the sum of money includes both \$ and ¢ (or both £ and p) we write it and say it like this.

E.g. \$11.64 = 'eleven dollars (and) sixty-four cents'
or 'eleven dollars sixty-four'
or 'eleven sixty-four' <informal>

£3.99 = 'three pounds ninety-nine pence / p'*
or 'three pounds ninety-nine'
or 'three ninety-nine' <informal>

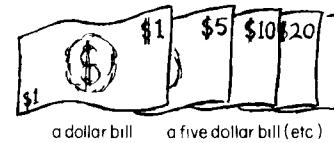
We can omit the words **cent(s)** etc., if we want to.

* We shorten **pence** to **p** in writing, and often pronounce it /pi:/, also, in <informal speech>.

2 Coins and notes <G.B.> / bills <U.S.>

2a U.S. coins and bills:

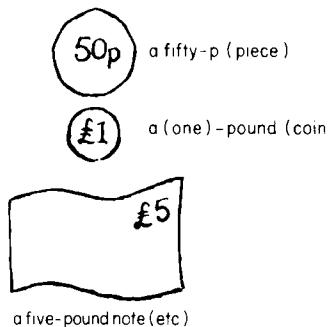
- 1¢ a cent
- 5¢ a nickel
- 10¢ a dime
- 25¢ a quarter



a dollar bill a five dollar bill (etc.)

2b British coins and notes:

- 1p a one-p (piece)
- 2p a two-p (piece)
- 5p a five-p (piece)
- 10p a ten-p (piece)
- 20p a twenty-p (piece)



a five-pound note (etc.)

We sometimes omit the word **piece**, so that a **one-p** /pi:/ and a **two-p** can refer to the 1p and 2p coins, etc. Note the plural **p's** /pi:z/.

E.g. Can you change this pound coin for two 50p's /pi:z/ please?
<informal>

- 3** Notice that the nouns **money** and **change** are UNCOUNTABLE nouns. They go with a question *How much . . .?*, not *How many . . .?*.

E.g. { How much **money** did she give you?
{ How many pounds did she give you?
{ How much **change** do you have in your purse?
{ How many coins do you have in your purse?

NOTE: **Pence**, however, is a countable noun – the plural of **penny**.

E.g. How many **pence** are there in a pound?
The shortened form of **pence**, **p**, is also a countable noun.
E.g. How many **p**/pi:/ are there in a pound?

mood is a grammatical term sometimes used for the IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, and SUBJUNCTIVE forms of the Verb. The usual finite verb form (*he / she likes, they like*), is called the 'indicative mood'. We do not use these words 'mood' or 'indicative' in this book.

more /mo:/ (adverb, determiner, or pronoun)

(the) most /maʊst/ (adverb, determiner, or pronoun)

1 More and most as adverbs of degree

- 1a** **More** expresses a comparison between two people or two things (or between two groups of people or things) [see COMPARATIVE].



E.g. Jill is **more** popular than her brother.

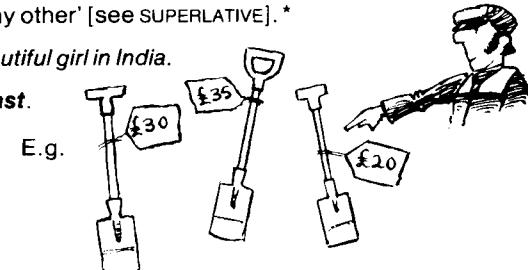
The opposite of **more** is **less**. The example above means the same as:

Jill's brother is **less** popular than Jill.

- 1b** **Most** means 'more than any other' [see SUPERLATIVE]. *

E.g. She is the **most** beautiful girl in India.

Most is the opposite of **least**.



I'll buy this shovel: it's the **least** expensive (of the three). (**least** expensive = cheapest)

* **Most** before an adjective or adverb can also mean 'very'.

E.g. You have been **most** { kind,
 { helpful.

2 More and most before adjectives

- 2a** **More** (adverb of degree) is used for the comparative of 'long' adjectives; e.g. **more** polite. [See COMPARATIVE 1, 2.] (Adjectives of one syllable take -er.)

266 **more (the) most**

- 2b** **Most** (adverb of degree) is used for the superlative of long adjectives; e.g.: **the most polite**. [See SUPERLATIVE 1, 2.] (Adjectives of one syllable take -est.)

3 More and most before adverbs

- 3a** **More** (adverb of degree) is used for the comparative of adverbs ending in -ly; * e.g. **more slowly**. [See COMPARATIVE 4.]

* Exceptions: the COMPARATIVE of badly is **worse**; the SUPERLATIVE form is **worst**.

- 3b** **Most** is used for the superlative of adverbs ending in -ly; e.g. **(the) most slowly**. [See SUPERLATIVE 1, 2.]

- 4 More and most (adverbs) as the comparative and superlative of much**
More (adverb of degree) or **most** (adverb of degree) is used on its own after a verb or verb + object.

E.g. 'Which do you enjoy **more**? Swimming or walking?' 'Swimming. But I enjoy tennis **(the) most** of all sports.'

- 5 More and most as quantity words (= comparative and superlative of much / many)**

- 5a** **More** (determiner) and **most** (determiner) go before a noun. Here **more** means 'a larger amount or number of' and **most** means 'the largest amount or number of'.

E.g. **More** people live in cities than in the country.
I dislike most modern music. (= I don't like much modern music.)

- 5b** **More** (pronoun) and **most** (pronoun) often come before **of**.

E.g. **Most** of you are from other countries.

- 5c** **More** (as a determiner or pronoun) can have the meaning 'extra, additional, in addition'. With this meaning it often goes after **some, any, no; one, two, three, . . .**; and quantity words like **many, much, a few, several**.

E.g. I would like {**two**
a few
several} **more** of those pears, please.
 'Do you have **any more** milk?' 'Yes, how **much more** do you want?'
 'Just **one more** pint, please.'

- 5d** **More** and **most** (pronouns) can also occur on their own without **of** or a noun.

E.g. 'This is good coffee.' 'You can have some **more** (of it) if you like.'
 Ten dollars is the **most** I can afford. ('The largest amount')

motion (or movement) 267

- 5e** **More** and **most** (determiners or pronouns) with countable and uncountable nouns:

- (I) **More** and **(the) most** are the comparative and superlative forms of **many** with countable nouns:
many ~ more ~ most

E.g. 'How **many** coins do you have for the telephone?' 'I don't have **many**. I did have **more**, but I have used **most** of them.'

- (II) **More** and **(the) most** are also the comparative and superlative forms of **most** with uncountable nouns:
much ~ more ~ most

E.g. 'How **much** money do you have?' 'I don't have **much**. Tom has **(the) most** money – he has **more** than either of us.'

most [See MORE, (THE) MOST]

motion (or movement) [See also PLACE, COME AND GO.]

- 1 Many verbs describe motion or movement from one place to another**

E.g. **come, go, enter** (= 'go in(to)'), **progress** (= 'go forward'), **climb** (= 'go upward'), **fall** (= 'go downward'), **hurry** (= 'go quickly'), **pass** (= 'go past'), **return** (= 'go back').

- 2** In addition, verbs of motion are often followed by PREPOSITIONS OR ADVERBS which describe the direction, goal, etc. of the movement:

- 3 The main prepositions of motion go in pairs, as in the table below**

(The words in { brackets } are the equivalent prepositions of position.)

E.g. { She went **to** school. }
 { She is **at** school. }

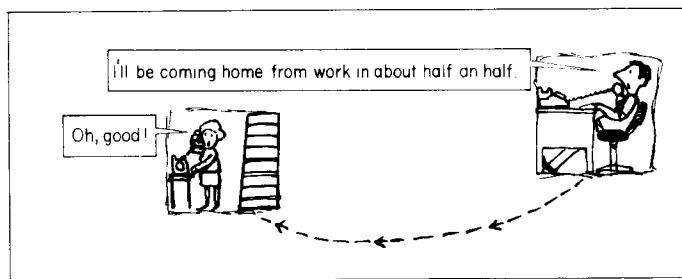
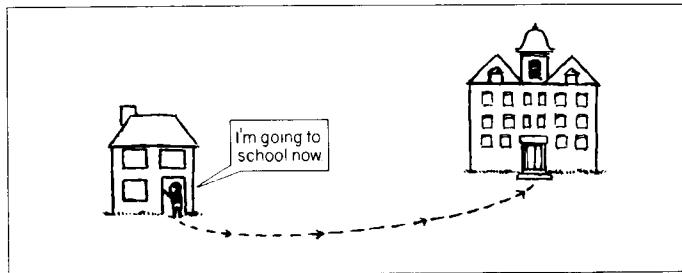
to {at}	from {away from}	across	along
into {in}	out of	around <U.S.>	round <G.B.> *
onto {on}	off	over	under
up	down	through	past
		toward <U.S.>	towards <G.B.> *

[You can look up each preposition or pair of prepositions for further details.]

* Here '<U.S.>' means mainly in American English and '<G.B.>' means mainly in British English.'

268 motion (or movement)

- 4 The main adverbs of motion are the same as the prepositions, except that **to**, **from**, **into** and **out of** are not adverbs. (The adverbs equivalent to **from**, **into**, and **out of** are **away**, **in**, and **out**.)
- 5 The most important prepositions of motion are **TO** and **FROM**:



To names the endpoint of the journey, and **from** names the starting point.

- 5a If you want to, you can combine **from** and **to** in the same phrase.
 E.g. *The train travels from Tokyo to Osaka in about three hours.*
How far is it from Cairo to Aswan?
The Orient Express runs from Paris to Istanbul.

NOTE: You can also use these prepositions after nouns like *bus* or *train*.
 E.g. *the bus to London* *the train from Brussels*

- 5b Notice that these verbs do not go with **from** or **to**:

*The plane left Hong Kong at 7.00, and {reached
arrived at} Karachi at 14.00.*

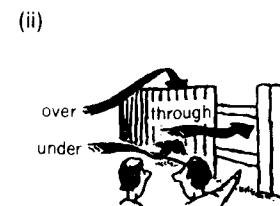
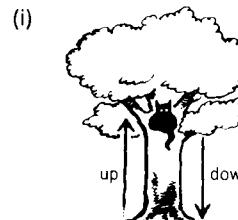
Arrive is followed by the 'position' prepositions **AT**, **ON**, and **IN**.

E.g. *We will arrive {on the island
in Japan} on Tuesday morning.*

[On the choice between **at**, **on**, and **in**, see PLACE.]

much 269

- 6 Here are some examples of pairs of opposites acting as prepositions and as adverbs of motion.

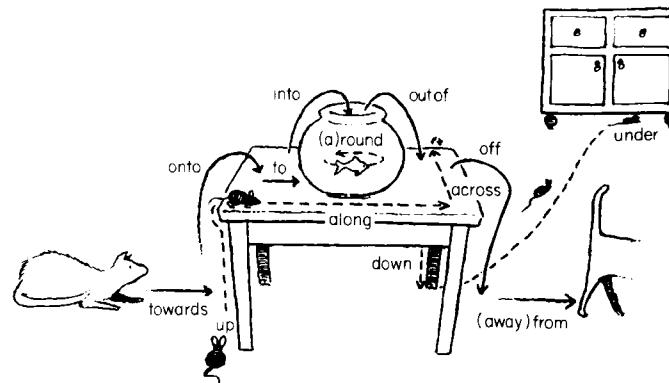


E.g. (i) *The cat climbed **up** the tree, but then she couldn't get **down** again.*

(ii) *'Is it easier to climb **over** the fence or to crawl **under** it?'*
*'The fence is broken here, so it's easiest to crawl **through**.'*

When the word is not followed by a NOUN PHRASE (e.g. **down** in (i) and **through** in (ii)) it is an adverb. [See PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB.]

- 7 This picture shows other prepositions / adverbs of motion:



much /mʌtʃ/ (determiner, pronoun, or adverb of degree) The comparative and superlative forms of **much** are **MORE** and **MOST**.

- **Much** is a QUANTITY WORD meaning 'a large amount (of)'.
- **Much** (as a determiner) can go before UNCOUNTABLE nouns only: **much water**, **much food**, **much time**.
- **Much** is also an **of**-pronoun [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2], followed by OF or by nothing.
 E.g. *They don't own **much of the land** / **much of it** / **much**.*
- As an adverb, **much** means 'a great deal', 'to a considerable extent'.
 E.g. *I (very) **much** enjoyed the play.*

1 Much as a quantity word [see also A LOT (OF), LOTS (OF).]

Much is used with uncountable nouns; **MANY** is used with countable nouns. With **much**, as with **many**, there should be 'something special' in the sentence. E.g. It should be either:

1a NEGATIVE:

E.g. *We haven't had much snow this winter.*

1b or a YES-NO QUESTION:

E.g. *'Are you doing much painting these days?' 'No, not much.'*

1c or it should follow a degree adverb such as AS, HOW, SO, TOO:

E.g. *'I've never seen so much traffic on this road.' 'I know. There's far too much. It's dangerous for children.'*

1d *Much* is <rather formal> in positive statements. [See A LOT (OF), LOTS (OF).]

E.g. ***Much** of his time was spent studying the Italian painters.*
***Much** art represents the personal vision of the artist.*

(These sentences are <rather formal>, but would be normal, for example, in a book on the history of art.)

2 *Much* as an adverb of degree

Again, **much** requires 'something special' in the sentence.

2a *Much* can go before some verbs and most comparative forms.

E.g. *'I much admire the work of Michelangelo.' 'Do you really? I much prefer Leonardo da Vinci.'*
This exam is much more difficult than the last one.

2b *Much* can follow a negative or be in a yes-no question.

E.g. *'Our daughter is working overseas.' 'Really? Do you miss her much?'*
'Yes, we miss her {much, a great deal, a lot.'

2c Like the quantity word **much, the adverb **much** can go with adverbs of degree, especially VERY, AS, HOW, SO, TOO.**

E.g. *'How much do you weigh?' 'I don't know exactly, but I weigh far too much.'*

NOTE: You can use **very much** in many places where you cannot use **much**: especially at the end of the sentence. E.g., you can say:

Thank you very much. But not: *Thank you **much**.*

If you are in doubt, it is safer to use **very much**, rather than **much**.

must /mʌst/ (weak form: /məst/, /məs/)

- **Must** is a MODAL AUXILIARY.
- **Must** goes before a main verb, e.g. **must go**.
- **Must** does not change its form.
- **Must** has a negative form **mustn't** (/mʌsn't/).
- **Must** is not followed by **to**.

1 Forms**1a Present Simple**

negative

E.g.	I You We They etc.	must	be . . . have . . . go now. see . . . etc.	I You We They etc.	mustn't must not	be . . . have . . . go yet. see . . . etc.
------	--------------------------------	------	--	--------------------------------	---------------------	--

question (use these for making protests!)

E.g.	must (Why must)	you we they etc.	go now? leave before midnight? be so noisy? make such a noise?
------	--------------------	---------------------------	---

1b Perfect: *They must have left early.*

Progressive: *They must be working late.*

Passive: *The bag must be mended.*

Perfect Passive: *The bag must have been mended.*

etc. [See VERB PHRASE.]

1c *Must* has no past tense form. For the Past Simple, use **had to [see HAVE TO]: (meaning 'was / were obliged to').**

E.g. *'Where is the post office? I {have to
must} post this letter.'*

But: *'Where have you been?' 'I've been to the post office – I had to post a letter.'*

NOTE: In indirect speech we can use **must** for describing something in the past [see INDIRECT SPEECH 1c Note].

E.g. *I told her she must be more careful.*

2 Meanings of **must****2a Must = obligation.**

Must means 'It is important or essential to do something.'

E.g. **You must eat to live.** ('... if you don't, you will die.'

Teacher: **Sheila must work harder:** if she doesn't, she'll fail her exams.

Doctor: **You must give up smoking:** it's bad for your health.

**2b Mustn't = negative obligation:**

The negative **mustn't** means 'it is important or essential not to do something.'

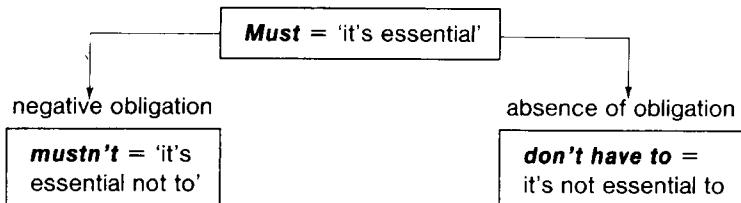
E.g. **You mustn't drink water from the river.**

**2c Absence / lack of obligation:**

There is a different way to make **must** negative.

don't have to + Verb } All these mean
don't need to + Verb } 'It is not important
needn't + Verb <G.B.> } to do something.'

E.g.:



NOTE: **I must(n't)** and **we must(n't)** describe the speaker's own feeling about what is important.

E.g. **I must be more careful** – I have lost my keys.

We must go home early – my mother is ill in bed.

Compare **have to** [see HAVE TO 3], which often describes what other people – e.g. **the boss** or **the government** – require.

E.g. **I have to type these letters** (for the boss).
We have to pay our taxes (to the government).

2d Must = deduction.

Must means 'I feel certain that this is true'. We use it when we do not know, but we have plenty of evidence, that it is so. Compare:

That church is very old. ('I know.')

That church must be very old. ('I don't know, but it certainly looks old.')

A: **There's somebody knocking on the door.**

B: **Yes, it must be my son. He always gets home at this time.**

A: **Hasn't he got a key?**

B: **He must have left it at the office. He often does that.**

NOTE: This meaning of **must** can go with the Perfect form.

E.g. **James has a black eye. Someone must have hit him.**

And the Progressive form.

E.g. **What a wonderful present! It can't be real! I must be dreaming!**

2e Negative deduction

The negative of this meaning of **must** is **cannot** or **can't** (= 'it's impossible') [see CAN].

E.g. **She can't be happy with her husband in prison.** (= 'She must be unhappy . . .')

The thief can't have escaped through this window. It's much too small.

3 Must and should

Must is stronger than **SHOULD**. Both have similar meanings of obligation and deduction, but **should** is weaker. (**OUGHT TO** has the same meaning as **should**.)

<p>3a</p> <p>Obligation MUST + VERB = 'it's essential' i.e. If this isn't done, there will be a lot of trouble, or a big problem.</p> <p>E.g. You must lose weight. (You are dangerously overweight.)</p>	<p>SHOULD + VERB = 'it's important, but not essential' i.e. If this isn't done, it is likely there will be trouble, but it is not certain.</p> <p>E.g. You should lose weight. (You are slightly overweight.)</p>
<p>3b</p> <p>Deduction MUST + VERB = 'This is a logical conclusion'</p> <p><i>She was born in 1945. It's 1989 now, so she must be 44.</i></p>	<p>SHOULD + VERB = 'This is a logical conclusion, but I may be wrong.'</p> <p>E.g. She's famous. She's rich. She's beautiful. She should be happy, (but maybe she's not).</p>

my /maɪ/ (1st person singular possessive determiner, related to *I* [see *I*]).

myself /maɪ'self/ (1st person singular reflexive pronoun, related to *I*).

names

- Names begin with capital letters: *Eric, Diana, Smith, Mrs Williams, Chicago, Sri Lanka.*
- The most important names are:
 - (I) Names of places [See the separate entries GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES and COUNTRIES.]
 - (II) Names of people [For further details, see NAMES OF PEOPLE below.]
- A 'proper noun' is normally a single-word name. It usually refers to just one person (e.g. *Mary*), or just one place (e.g. *Rome*), or just one organization (e.g. *UNESCO*).

1 Proper nouns in contrast to common nouns

A proper noun normally has no determiner in front of it: * *The Chicago, The Napoleon, The Frederic.*

It also normally has no plural: *Chicago\$, Frederic\$.* *

* [See geographical names for exceptions, e.g. *The Hague* is the capital of *The Netherlands*]

2 Proper nouns behaving like common nouns

But sometimes proper nouns behave like common nouns. In this case, they can have articles, adjectives, etc. before them.

E.g. ***She's a modern Cleopatra.***

2a Proper nouns behaving like common nouns can have a following PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

E.g. ***She's written a new historical novel. It's about the Paris of Louis XIV.****

Or can have a following RELATIVE CLAUSE.

E.g. ***'I'm staying with my friend Helen. Is she the Helen (that) I met last year?***

* Read the names of kings, queens, etc. as follows:

<written>	<spoken>
George I	= George the first
Queen Elizabeth II	= Queen Elizabeth the second
Louis XIV	= Louis the fourteenth
Pope John XXII	= Pope John the twenty-second

2b They can also be used in the plural.

E.g. ***Have you met our neighbours the Carters?*** (= 'the family called Carter.')
There are three Susans in my class. (= 'people called Susan.')

NOTE: Notice that we can add adjectives like **dear** before a person's name to express our feelings about him/her.

E.g. **dear José, poor Mrs Miller, old Mr Bailey.**

We can also add adjectives before place names to describe the place.

E.g. **beautiful Greece, historic York, ancient Nara.**

names of people

- How to name people when you talk to them or about them.

1 Talking to people and about people

You can use:

(A) The first name (also called 'given name' or 'Christian name').

E.g. **Ann, Susan, Andrew, Frederic, James**

This is <friendly>.

or:

(B) The last name (also called 'family name' or 'surname') after:

Mr /'mɪstə/ e.g. Mr White

Mrs /'mɪsɪz/ (for married women) e.g. Mrs Jones

Miss /mɪs/ (for unmarried women) e.g. Miss Williams

Ms /miz/ (for both married and unmarried women – this is becoming popular) e.g. *Ms Jackson*
This form of address is <polite and respectful>.

NOTE (i): Don't use both first name and last name when you are speaking **to** people (e.g. *(Mr) Michael Long*). But you can use them when you are talking **about** people.

NOTE (ii): The last name alone, e.g. *Short*, *Kennedy*, *Mills* is <not friendly> and <not respectful>. So we do not use it very much, except for convenience, in talking or writing about well-known people. E.g.: *Mozart*, *Shakespeare*, *Gorbachov*.

or:

(C) The shortened first name, or 'pet' name, or nickname.

E.g. *Annie*, *Sue*, *Andy*, *Fred*, *Jim*

This is especially for people you know well: it is <casual and informal>.

1a You can add a title before the name in all three types:

(A) title + first name, e.g.: *Uncle James*.

(B) title + last name, e.g.: *Dr Fraser* (= Doctor).

(C) title + 'pet' name, e.g.: *Auntie Sue*.

2 Position

The name of the person you are talking to usually goes in the front or end position* in a sentence [see ADVERB 3].

E.g. **Mrs Smith**, would you come this way, please?
Would you please come this way, **Mrs Smith**?

* Middle position is possible, but <rare>.

E.g. Would you, **Mrs Smith**, come this way, please?
Here, middle position puts emphasis on the word **you**.

3 Different ways of addressing someone

3a <friendly and casual> (first name)

E.g. *Good luck, Bill*.

Moira, what are you doing this evening?

3b <very friendly and casual>

E.g. *Lovely to see you, my dear*.

How about a game of cards, you guys. <U.S.>

Darling, you're looking wonderful.

3c <distant and showing respect> (second name)

E.g. **Ms Carter**, I believe you wanted to see me.

3d <very respectful>

E.g. *Can I help you, madam?* (talking to a female customer)

Would you like a menu, sir? (talking to a male customer)

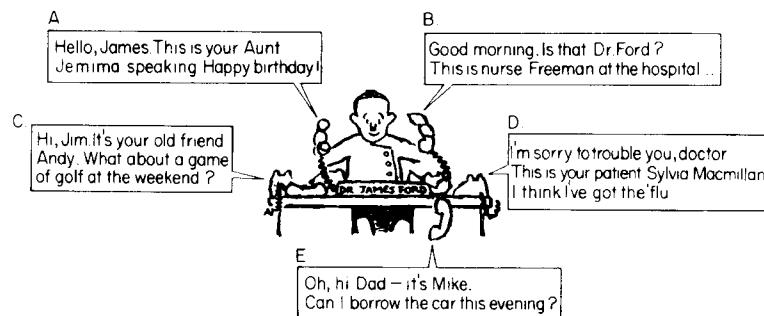
3e <impolite>

E.g. (i) *Don't make such a noise, you fool*.

(ii)



3f Here are five methods of addressing the same person:



4 Different ways of talking **about** people

4a When talking **about** people, you can name them in any of the ways (A)–(C) in 1 and 1a above:

E.g. (A) 'Have you seen **Ann**?'

(B) 'Yes, she's talking to the sales manager, **Mr White**.'

(C) 'Well could you tell her that **Sue** and **Fred** are waiting to see her?'

(A) **Uncle Mark** is my mother's brother.

(B) He's the captain of a ship,
so people call him **Captain Kennedy**.

(C) He's married to my favourite aunt, **Auntie Jill**.

4b You can also name them in one of these ways, adding first name(s), pet name(s), or initial(s) in front of the surname:

(Mrs) Susan Smith; **(Ms) Sue Smith**; **(Dr) S. Smith**.

E.g. *The Nobel Prizes are named after Alfred Bernhard Nobel*, who invented dynamite. Born in Sweden in 1833, *Nobel* was known as the "mad scientist". The only woman to win two Nobel Prizes was **Mme* Marie Curie**, who shared the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1903 with her husband, **Pierre Curie**. The youngest winner of the Nobel Peace Prize was **Dr Martin Luther King**, of the U.S.A.

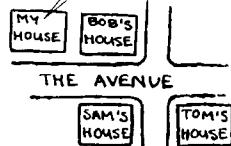
* **Mme** is the French for Mrs (although Mme Curie was actually Polish!). We quite often use the French titles **Mme** (Madame = Mrs), **M** (Monsieur = Mr), and **Mlle** (Mademoiselle = Miss) for French names in English texts.

nationality words [See COUNTRIES.]

near /nɪər/ (preposition or adverb or adjective)

- 1 **Near** has the comparative and superlative forms **nearer** /'nɪərə/ and **nearest** /'nɪərist/:

I have three sons and they all live near me. Sam lives nearer than Tom, but Bob lives the nearest.

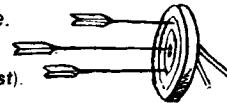


- 2 **Near** can be a
PREPOSITION ~ We sat **near** the door.
ADVERB ~ Don't go too **near**.
ADJECTIVE ~ There will be another meeting in the **near** future.
- 3 Instead of the preposition, we can use **near to**, **nearer to**, and **nearest to**.

E.g. She runs a dress shop **near (to)** the station.

I would like to live **nearer (to)** my job.

The longest arrow came **nearest (to)** the centre.



NOTE: **Near** (**nearer**, **nearest**) is the opposite of **far** (**further**, **furthest**).

nearly /'nɪəli/ (adverb of degree) [See ALMOST AND NEARLY.]

need /ni:d/ (verb or noun)

- **Need** is a regular main verb **need**, **needs**, **needing**, **needed**.
- **Need** is a modal auxiliary verb **need**, **needn't** (/ni:dnt/).
- **Need** has only one main meaning, whatever the form.

1 The main verb **need**

Like many other verbs (e.g. **want**, **like**) [see VERB PATTERNS 1, 7], **need** can go with a noun phrase or with a **to** + infinitive. For example:

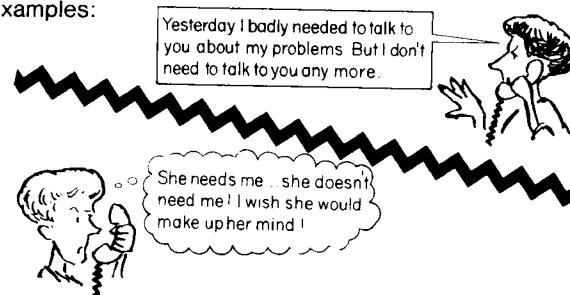
1a NOUN PHRASE + NEED + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. All animals **need** food.

1b NOUN PHRASE + NEED + TO + INFINITIVE . . .

E.g. All animals **need** to eat.

1c Other examples:



* Notice that the negative of **need** as a main verb is **don't** + **need to** + Verb. Compare the negative of the modal auxiliary, **needn't** + Verb [see 2 below].

NOTE: Instead of the passive infinitive, i.e. **to be washed** (e.g. *my hair needs to be washed*), we can use the -ing form: *My hair needs washing*; *my car needs mending*; *it needs cleaning* etc.

2 The modal auxiliary **need**

The modal auxiliary **need** is found mainly in <G.B.>, and is quite rare these days.

Auxiliary **need** has no past tense form, and in general occurs only in negatives (see (i) below) or in questions (see (ii) below). * To be safe, always use the main verb **need**.

E.g. (i) You { don't need to } (main verb)
{ needn't <G.B.> } hurry: we have plenty of time.
(auxiliary)

(ii) 'Go away!' { Do you need to } (main verb)
'Please!' { Need you <G.B.> } be so rude?
(auxiliary)

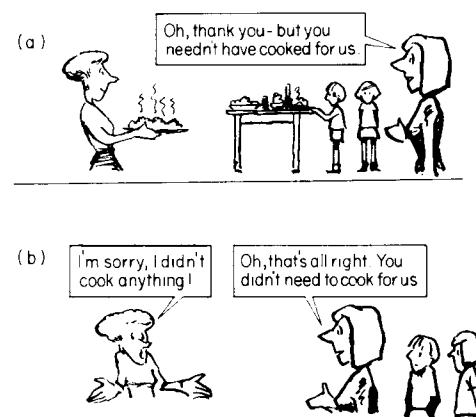
* **Need** as an auxiliary can occur in other contexts, where the meaning is 'negative' or 'questioning'.

E.g. I don't think she **need** be informed.
I doubt whether anyone **need** know.

NOTE (i): **Needn't** is one of the negative equivalents of **must** [see MUST 2c].

E.g. You **must** wear your uniform every day except Sunday. But on Sunday you **needn't** wear it. (= 'you don't have to wear it') (**Mustn't** would mean: 'you are forbidden to wear it')

NOTE (ii): There is a small difference between ***didn't need to*** (past form of main verb) and ***needn't have*** (Perfect form of auxiliary).
 E.g. (a) *You needn't have cooked for us.*
 (b) *You didn't need to cook for us.*
 Both (a) and (b) mean 'It wasn't necessary to cook for us', but (a) also implies that 'you did cook for us'. Note this contrast:



3 The noun ***need*** is both (a) COUNTABLE and (b) UNCOUNTABLE.

E.g. (a) *Young babies have many needs.*
 (b) *The poorer nations are in great need.*

negative words and sentences

1 Negative and positive

Negative STATEMENTS have the opposite meaning to positive statements.

E.g. { (i) positive: *I am fond of Maria.* (ii) negative: *I am not fond of Maria.*
 { positive: *Joe sometimes makes mistakes.* (ii) negative: *Joe never makes mistakes.*



[On negative questions, see YES-NO QUESTION 2.]

2 The most important negative word: ***not***

Not makes a whole clause negative. [See NOT, DO 2.] ***Not*** is often contracted to **-n't**.

E.g. ***was not*** → ***wasn't*** ***do not*** → ***don't***
have not → ***haven't*** ***would not*** → ***wouldn't***

[See CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 3, 4.]

3 Other negative words

Other negative words are in the following table.

<i>neither*</i>	determiner, * pronoun, * adverb*
<i>neither . . . nor</i>	double conjunction*
<i>never*</i>	adverb* (of time or frequency)
<i>no*</i>	determiner, * 'response word'
<i>nobody*</i>	pronoun (referring to people)
<i>no one*</i>	pronoun (referring to people)
<i>none*</i>	pronoun*
<i>nor</i>	adverb (linking), * conjunction*
<i>nothing*</i>	pronoun (not referring to people)
<i>nowhere*</i>	adverb (of place)

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.

4 Words with negative meaning

In addition to the words in the above table, there are several words which are negative in meaning, but which do not begin with ***n(o)***:

<i>few*</i> , <i>little*</i>	determiners*, pronouns*
<i>rarely</i> , <i>seldom</i>	adverbs of frequency*
<i>hardly*</i> , <i>scarcely</i> , <i>barely</i>	adverbs of degree*

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.

5 Negative and positive clauses behave differently

All the words above give a clause negative meaning. Notice the difference between a negative and a positive clause:

(a) After negative words, we normally use ANY, ANYONE etc.

E.g. *He sometimes says something interesting.*
He never says anything interesting.

[See SOME-WORDS and ANY-WORDS.]

(b) After a negative clause, we normally add a positive TAG QUESTION.

E.g. *She often makes mistakes, doesn't she?*
She rarely makes mistakes, does she?

6 Negative words and phrases which require a change of word order

To emphasise a negative, we can place it at the front of the clause.

E.g. *She at no time mentioned her earlier marriage.*

At no time did she mention her earlier marriage.

- 6a In the example above notice that there is inversion [see INVERSION 2–4]. This means the order of the new sentence is:

NEGATIVE PART + AUXILIARY / BE + SUBJECT + (VERB) (. . .)

E.g. *I not only heard the car, I actually saw it crash.*

→ *Not only did I hear the car, I actually saw it crash.*

He hasn't once offered to help.

→ *Not once has he offered to help.*

You must under no circumstances make jokes about religion.

→ *Under no circumstances must you make jokes about religion.*

No sooner was I in bed, than the phone started to ring.

*Hardly * had we arrived at the camp site, when it began to rain cats and dogs. **

*Seldom * have I been to a more terrible concert.*

* *Hardly* and *seldom* are negative in meaning.

** *Rain cats and dogs* is an idiom meaning 'rain very heavily.'

7 'Negative transfer'

To make the THAT-clause in example (i) below negative, we can say either (ii) or (iii).

- E.g. (i) *I think (that) Mary takes sugar.*
 (ii) *I think (that) Mary doesn't take sugar.*
 (iii) *I don't think (that) Mary takes sugar.*

Sentences (ii) and (iii) have the same meaning, but (iii) 'transfers' the negative to the main clause. We call this 'negative transfer', and we prefer it to the ordinary negative in (ii). Negative transfer takes place with verbs like **think**, **believe**, and **expect**. Some more examples:

Jan believes (that) Harry is honest. → Jan doesn't believe that Harry is honest.

I expect (that) we will win the match. → I don't expect (that) we will win the match.

neither /'naɪðə/ or /'ni:ðə/ (conjunction, pronoun, determiner or adverb)

- **Neither** is a word with 'double negative' meaning. It always means: 'not one and not the other.'
 - **Neither** is always negative, so the verb following it is always positive: **Neither can I** but not: **Neither can't I**.
 - As a conjunction, **neither** is part of the double conjunction **neither...nor**. [See DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 6.]
 - **Neither** can also be an indefinite pronoun, normally in the pattern: **NEITHER + OF + PLURAL NOUN PHRASE**
- E.g. *neither of the boys*

- **Neither** can also be a DETERMINER, normally in the pattern:

NEITHER + SINGULAR NOUN

E.g. *neither boy*

- **Neither** can be a LINKING ADVERB, normally in the pattern:

**NEITHER + { AUXILIARY VERB } + NOUN PHRASE (. . .)
THE VERB BE }**

E.g. *neither are they*

Examples:

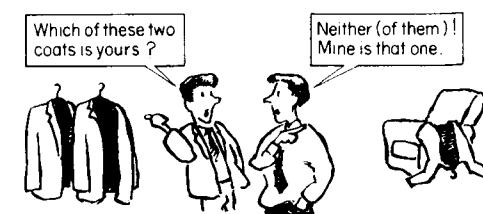
1 **Neither...nor** as conjunction

E.g. *Neither Emma nor Laura like Susan.*

(= 'Both Emma and Laura dislike Susan.')

(= 'Emma and Laura don't like Susan.')

2 **Neither** as pronoun



3 **Neither** as determiner

E.g. *The game was very even: neither player was able to beat the other.*

4 **Neither** as linking adverb

If someone says something negative, and you agree with them, you can use **neither**.

E.g.



Her family couldn't help her, and neither could her friends.

Note different ways of saying the same thing.

E.g. *'I don't like mathematics.' 'Neither do I.'*

'I dislike mathematics.' 'So do I.' [See so 3.]

'I don't like mathematics.' 'I don't, either.' [See EITHER.]

never /'nevər/ (adverb of FREQUENCY OR LENGTH OF TIME)

1 **Never** is a negative word meaning '0 times' or 'at no time'.

E.g. 'I'm terribly sorry. I'll **never** tell you (any) lies again.'

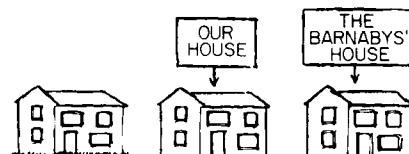
[Compare **ALWAYS**.]

next /nekst/ (ordinal or adverb) [See ORDINALS.]**1** **Ordinal**

In any sequence, *first*, *second*, *third* . . . , **next** means 'the one after this one':

1a Time:

E.g. (i) **Next Thursday** (= 'the Thursday after this') *I'm working late, but I'm free the Thursday after that.* [See TIME 4c, 5.]

**1b** Place:

E.g. *Our house is the second one in the street. The **next** house belongs to the Barnabys. They're our **next-door** neighbours.*

2 **Adverb of time**

Next means 'after this / that.'

E.g. *First fry the onions. **Then** add the tomatoes. **Next** add the meat.*

3 **Linking adverb**

Next means 'after this.'

Next belongs to the list of introductory words *first*, *second*, *next*, . . . *last*.

E.g. . . . **Next**, I would like to introduce the Minister of Education, Mr. Geoffrey Smith; and **last**, but not least, here is the Prime Minister.

no /nəʊ/ (determiner, response word or adverb)

► **No** is always a NEGATIVE WORD.

1 **No as a response word**

No as a response word [see REPLIES (OR ANSWERS)] gives a negative answer to YES-NO QUESTIONS, IMPERATIVES, REQUESTS, etc.

E.g. 'Did he pass the driving test?' '**No**, he failed it.'
'Have a chocolate cake.' '**No**, thank you.'

NOTE: If you want to agree with a negative statement, you use **no**.

E.g. 'I don't enjoy boxing.'
'No, I don't, either.' [See EITHER]

Also use **no** if you want to agree with a negative question.

E.g. 'Didn't you go?' '**No**, I didn't.'
'You didn't go, did you?' '**No**, I didn't.'

2 **No as a determiner**

No as a determiner (= 'not (. . .) any', 'not . . . a') can go before:

singular countable nouns	plural nouns	uncountable nouns
<i>no pilot</i> <i>no recent photograph</i>	<i>no passengers</i> <i>no clean cups</i>	<i>no meat</i> <i>no heavy rain</i>

E.g. **No** trained **pilot** would make a mistake like that.
*I have **no** cigarettes left.* (= 'I haven't any . . .')

After **no** we can use **any**-words [see SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS].

E.g. *We received **no** help from **any** of the politicians.*

3 **No as an adverb of degree**

No as an adverb of degree (= 'not (. . .) any') goes before comparative words.

E.g. *The team played badly last week, and I'm sorry to say that they were **no better** this week.*
*The painting fetched **no less** than £5 million.* (= 'as much as £5 million')

4 **Idioms****4a** **No longer** means 'not any longer', 'not after this'.

E.g. *I **no longer** live in that house.*

4b No sooner X than Y means 'As soon as X, Y'.

E.g. **No sooner had the keeper opened the cage door, than the lion attacked** and injured him. <formal, written>

[See NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a.]

4c No one [See the separate entry below.]**4d No matter wh-** [See MATTER 4.]**no one, nobody** /'nəuwan/, /'nəubədi/ (indefinite pronouns)

- **No one** is a negative pronoun [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES] meaning 'no person'.
- **No one** is normally spelled as two words: **no one**.
- **Nobody** can be used wherever **no one** is used, but **nobody** is less common.

1 Example

'Where's Alice?' '**No one** knows where she is.'
No one understands me – not even my psychiatrist.

2 No one can be followed by an any-word

E.g. **No one saw anyone leave the building after the murder.**
No one has ever climbed this mountain.

3 No one can be followed by his, he, him, her, she, their, them, they

E.g. **No one had finished** {*his homework**} {*her homework**} {*their homework*.} <formal, written>
<informal, spoken>

* [On the choice of these forms, see HE AND SHE.]

nominative

In grammar, the term 'nominative' is sometimes used for the form which a word has when it is SUBJECT of a clause. E.g. **he** (nominative) contrasts with **him** (accusative). We do not use the term 'nominative' in this book. We call words like **he** subject pronouns instead. [See PERSONAL PRONOUN.]

nominal clause is another term for NOUN CLAUSE.

noncount noun the same as UNCOUNTABLE NOUN.

nondefining relative clause [See RELATIVE CLAUSE 4.]**none** /nʌn/ (indefinite pronoun)

- **None** means: (i) 'not one' (countable)
(ii) 'not any' (uncountable)

- 1 **None** is a negative **of**-pronoun [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2].
It can be:

- (i) followed by an **of**-phrase.

E.g. **None of us speaks Italian. One of us speaks German, and the others all speak Japanese.**

- (ii) followed by **at all**.

E.g. 'Have you got any money?' 'No, **none at all**. Sorry!'

- (iii) at the end of a phrase or sentence.

E.g. 'How many fish did you catch?'
'**None.**'

2 Form of verb after none

- 2a When **none** means 'not any of it' (uncountable) it takes an **-s** form of the verb.

E.g. **None (of this bread) looks** fresh.

- 2b When **none** means 'not one of them' (countable) we often use a plural form of the verb in <informal English>.

E.g. **None (of these apples) are ripe.**
None (of the guests) have arrived yet.

In <formal written> English, however, people consider the **-s** form more <'correct'>.

E.g. **None (of these apples) is ripe.**
None (of the guests) has arrived yet.

[See AGREEMENT 2b.]

nonfinite clause

[See also CLAUSE, INFINITIVE CLAUSE, -ING CLAUSE, PARTICIPLE CLAUSE, TO-INFINITE.]

- A **nonfinite clause** is a clause without a finite verb.
- It will be helpful, before you read this entry, to read the next entry, NONFINITE VERB.
- In a **nonfinite clause**, the first verb form is either:
 - (a) an infinitive form with **to** (**to** + Verb) [see 1 below]
 - or (b) an -ing form (Verb + **ing**) [see 2 below]
 - or (c) a past participle form (Verb + **ed**) [see 3 below]
 - or (d) an infinitive without **to** (Verb) (less common) [see INFINITIVE CLAUSE and 4 below]

These verb forms are all called nonfinite verbs.

1 To + infinitive clauses

- 1a** These clauses usually have no subject.

E.g. *The best thing is to leave your family at home.*

- 1b** If there is a subject, it is usually introduced by **for**.

E.g. *The best thing is for you to leave your family at home.*

- 1c** A **to**-infinitive clause can replace a finite clause.

E.g. *I hope to be present.*

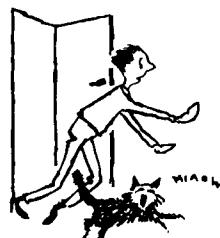
Instead of: *I hope that I will be present.*

NOTE: This depends on the verb, however. For example you can say:
I want to be happy. But not: *I want that I will be happy*. [See VERB PATTERNS 4 and 7.]

2 -ing clauses

- 2a** There is usually no subject in the **-ing** clause, but the **-ing** verb uses the subject of the main clause as its own subject.

E.g. *Entering the room, I fell over the cat.* (i.e. 'I entered the room')



- 2b** In <more formal>, written English, **-ing** clauses sometimes do have a subject.

E.g. *The two sides having reached agreement, we shook hands and went home.*

- 2c** An **-ing** clause can take the place of a finite clause.

E.g. *Living in the country, we had few visitors.*

Compare: *When we lived in the country, we had few visitors.*

- 2d** An **-ing** clause can be like a finite clause with the subject and the verb **be** omitted.

E.g. *He wrote his greatest novel while working as an ordinary seaman.*

Compare: *He wrote his greatest novel while he was working as an ordinary seaman.*

3 Past participle clauses

These are more common in <written> than in <spoken> English. They have a PASSIVE meaning.

- 3a** Usually they have no subject.

E.g. *The woman lay on the ground, ignored by the people around her.*
 (i.e. '... she was ignored . . .')

- 3b** But a past participle clause can have a subject different from the subject of the main clause.

E.g. *Both sides signed the agreement. That done, the chairman brought the meeting to an end.* (*That done* = 'After that was done.')

- 3c** A past participle clause can take the place of a finite clause.

E.g. *The boy who was injured by a bullet was taken to hospital.* [See FINITE (Relative Clause).]
 → *The boy injured by a bullet was taken to hospital.*

These sentences mean the same.

Here, as in 2d, the participle clause omits the subject and the verb **be** of the finite clause.

- 4** Nonfinite clauses are useful, especially in <formal, written> English, because they do not require so many words as finite clauses.

E.g. Finite clauses:

Since we had arrived late and were exhausted by the journey, we decided that we should go to bed immediately.

Nonfinite clauses:

Arriving late and exhausted by the journey, we decided to go to bed immediately.

nonfinite verb, nonfinite verb phrase

- 1 There are two kinds of verb forms: FINITE and nonfinite:

finite verb forms		nonfinite verb forms	
-s form:	<i>likes, takes</i>	-ing form:	<i>liking, taking</i>
basic form: (when used for the present tense)	<i>like, take</i>	basic form: (when used for the infinitive)	<i>(to) like, (to) take</i>
past tense form:	<i>liked, took</i>	past participle form:	<i>liked, taken</i>

The finite forms are normally required for the main clause of a sentence, i.e. every sentence normally has a finite verb.

- 2 We also use the words 'finite' and 'non-finite' for VERB PHRASES:

- 2a A finite verb phrase is a verb phrase which contains a finite verb form.

E.g. *She {studies / studied} English.*

(It may also contain nonfinite verbs after the finite verb form, e.g. **studying** in this example.)

- 2b A nonfinite verb phrase is a verb phrase which contains one or more nonfinite verb forms (but no finite verb forms).

E.g. **Studying English is useful.**
It is useful to have studied English.

- 3 Compare:

finite verb phrases	non-finite verb phrases
<i>John smokes heavily.</i>	To smoke like that must be dangerous.
<i>Mary is working hard</i> <i>When he had left the office,</i> <i>he went home by taxi.</i>	<i>I found her working hard.</i> Having left the office, he went home by taxi.
<i>The message which they (had) sent from Berlin never reached me.</i>	<i>The message sent from Berlin never reached me.</i>

- 4 [For further information, see VERB, PARTICIPLE, INFINITIVE, -ING FORM.]

nonrestrictive relative clause is another term for nondefining relative clause. [See RELATIVE CLAUSE 4.]

not /nɒt/ (negative word), -n't /nt/, /nt/ (contraction)

- **Not** is the main NEGATIVE word in English.
- To make a clause negative, place **not** after the AUXILIARY VERB or the verb BE.
- When there is no other auxiliary, use **do (does, did)** before **not** [see do 2].
- In <speech>, we usually use the negative contraction or 'short form' -n't /nt/ instead of **not** [see CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 3]. E.g. **didn't** /dɪdn't/.

- 1 **This is how to form a negative clause (or sentence) using not** (notice that all these examples are more natural with contractions)

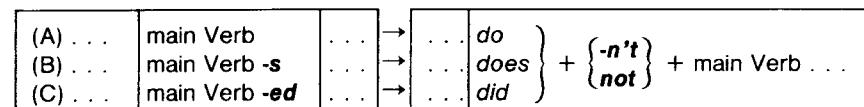
- 1a If the clause has a form of **be**, simply put -n't or **not** after **be**.

E.g. *My parents are at home.* → *My parents {aren't
are not}* at home.
Margaret was angry. → *Margaret {wasn't
was not}* angry.

- 1b If the clause has an auxiliary verb, simply put **not** after the auxiliary (or 1st auxiliary, if there is more than one).

E.g. *Max has left home.* → *Max {hasn't
has not}* left home.
We will win a prize. → *We {won't
will not}* win a prize.
Eva would have liked that. → *Eva {wouldn't
would not}* have liked that.

- 1c If the clause does not have a form of **be** or an auxiliary verb, add a form of the 'empty' auxiliary **do** before **not**.



E.g. (A) *I feel tired.* → *I {don't
do not}* feel tired.

(B) *Paul enjoys poetry.* → *Paul {doesn't
does not}* enjoy poetry.

(C) *It rained last night.* → *It {didn't
did not}* rain last night.

292 *not*

noun 293

2 Not can be followed by any or any-words [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 5.]

- E.g. *They have some fruit.* → *They do not have any fruit.*
I want something to eat. → *I don't want anything to eat.*
The pears are already ripe. → *The pears are not yet ripe.*

3 In questions with inversion [see YES-NO QUESTION]

Mostly speakers use the contraction *-n't*, which goes before the subject.

- E.g. *Have you been to Rome?* → **Haven't** you been to Rome?
Can I help you? → **Can't** I help you?

If you don't use the contraction (*-n't*), then **not** must follow the subject.

- E.g. **Have you not been to Rome?** **Can I not help you?** <rare>

[On negative questions, see YES-NO QUESTION 2.]

4 In IMPERATIVE sentences, not goes after do

- E.g. **Don't waste time.** Or: **Do not waste time.**

5 In NONFINITE CLAUSES, not goes before the main verb, normally at the beginning of the clause

- E.g. *They told me not to say anything.* (**not** + to + Verb)
They accused him of not reporting a crime. (**not** + Verb-ing)

[See INDIRECT COMMAND.]

No contraction is possible here, or in 6–7 below.

6 Not acts as a replacement for a negative that-clause [see THAT 1]

- E.g. *'Are the tickets ready?' 'I'm afraid not.'* (= 'I'm afraid that they are not ready.')
They told me that the flight would arrive late, but I hope not. (. . . 'that it won't arrive late.')

Not here is the opposite of **so** [see so 3].

7 Not is not always linked with the verb

It can go before phrases of various kinds, especially of QUANTITY OR DEGREE.
In this case, it often begins the sentence.

7a Not many, not much, not all:

- E.g. **Not many** tourists visit this part of the coast.
Not much attention has been given to the country's labour troubles.
Not all (of) our students live on the campus.

7b In replies:

- E.g. *'I'm afraid I have been troubling you.'* **'Not at all.'**
'Have you finished your homework?' **'Not yet.** I'm still working on it.'

8 Idioms

not . . . but . . . , not only . . . but . . . [See DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 1, 4, 5.]
not at all, not a bit, not in the least. These are emphatic negatives.

- E.g. *I'm not at all busy at the moment, so I have plenty of time to talk to you.*
I'm not a bit surprised that they refused the offer. I would have done the same.
'I hope you didn't find my speech too boring.' **'Not in the least:** it was very interesting.'

- 9 Not at all** is also a < polite > reply to an apology. [See APOLOGIES.]

nothing /'nʌθɪŋ/ (indefinite pronoun)

Nothing is the negative pronoun which applies to things or to anything that is 'not a person.' (For a person, use **no one** or **nobody**.)

- E.g. *'Did you buy anything at the market?'* **'No. I bought nothing at all.'**
There's nothing in the room: it's completely empty.

(You can also say: *'I didn't buy anything at all'* and *'There isn't anything in the room.'*)

noun

- Nouns are the largest class of words.
- Nouns are the main words of NOUN PHRASES.
- Most nouns have a PLURAL form in -(e)s: *ear ~ ears, wish ~ wishes* [but see IRREGULAR PLURAL.]

- 1** This table shows the main kinds of noun.
Those on the left contrast with those on the right.

countable nouns (<i>a ball ~ balls</i>)	uncountable nouns (<i>food</i>)
--	--------------------------------------

concrete nouns* (<i>a ball ~ balls</i>) (<i>food</i>)	abstract nouns* (<i>a dream ~ dreams</i>) (<i>love</i>)
--	--

common nouns*	proper nouns (names*) (James) (Madrid) (Andes)
---------------	---

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. [See also COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

- 2 In addition, there are some small but useful classes of noun (often followed by OF) which you can look up under their own entries.

GROUP NOUNS: e.g. *a crowd ~ crowds; the press*.

NOUNS OF KIND: e.g. *kind ~ kinds; type ~ types*.

noun clause

- 1 Noun clauses are SUBORDINATE CLAUSES which can fill the position of NOUN PHRASES. That is, they take the position of SUBJECT, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT, etc. in a clause.
- 2 There are four main kinds of noun clause in English:

that-clause:	<i>No one believes that the earth is flat.</i> [See THAT 1.]
wh-clause:*	<i>What I believe is no business of yours.</i>
infinitive clause:*	<i>Our plan is to catch the early train.</i>
-ing clause:*	<i>You are in danger of making a bad mistake.</i>

* [Look up each of these clause types for further information.]

noun of kind

- Nouns of kind are nouns such as *kind, type, sort, species, class, variety, make, brand*.
- 1 These words divide a mass or a set of objects into 'kinds' or 'species'.
E.g. *Pine is a type of wood.*
A Cadillac is a make of car.
Players is a brand of cigarette.
A bee is a species of insect.
'A tomato is a kind of vegetable.' 'No, it isn't – it's a *kind* of fruit.'
- 2 **Kind, sort and type** are the most general and useful of these nouns.
[See KIND (OF), SORT (OF) AND TYPE (OF).]

noun phrase [See PHRASE]

- A noun phrase usually begins with a DETERMINER.
 - It normally has a NOUN as its most important word, or head-word. (But often the head-word is a pronoun.)
 - A noun phrase can act as SUBJECT, OBJECT, or COMPLEMENT in the clause. It can also follow a PREPOSITION [see PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE].
- 1 Examples of noun phrases. The determiner is in bold; the head is marked like this: head:

<i>the future</i>	<i>a young woman</i>	<i>all the schools in the country</i>
<i>this problem</i>	<i>an old man</i>	<i>the people at the meeting</i>

yesterday

The other parts of the noun phrase (not marked) are MODIFIERS. They include adjectives (before the noun) and prepositional phrases (after the noun).

- 2 Notice that some noun phrases contain one word only. We still call them noun phrases, because they can act as subject, object, etc. in a clause.

noun phrase	noun phrase	noun phrase	phrases have:
subject (i) <i>My father</i>	indirect object gave <i>my mother</i>	direct object <i>this book.</i>	2 words
(ii) <i>Marriage</i>	brought <i>Dorothea</i>	<i>unhappiness.</i>	1 word

- 3 Noun phrases like those in example (i) and (ii) above can be replaced by PRONOUNS. (The noun phrases in the following example are in **bold** print.):
E.g. *My father gave this book to my mother.*

→ *He gave it to her.* [See PERSONAL PRONOUN.]

- 3a A pronoun is (usually) the only word of its noun phrase. It is still called the head-word.

- 4 In the following, noun phrases are in **bold**.

E.g. *The boy went out. They had eaten with no light on the table and the old man took off his trousers and went to bed in the dark. He rolled his trousers up to make a pillow, putting the newspaper inside them.*

(Ernest Hemingway, *The Old Man and the Sea*)

now /naʊl/ (adverb)**1 Adverb of time**

Now means (a) 'at this time', 'at the present time'.
 (b) 'very soon'.

E.g. (a) *He used to be a miner. Now he's retired.*
 (b) *We'd better eat now: it's eight o'clock.*

NOTE: When **now** refers to a long(ish) period of time, as in (a), you can replace it by **nowadays**.
 E.g. *In the old days, people used to go out to enjoy themselves. Nowadays they stay at home and watch television.*

2 Linking adverb

As a linking word in spoken English, **now** means 'I am changing the subject, and returning to something I was thinking about before'.

E.g. (i) *Now where did we put those maps?*
 (ii) *Let's see, now. You must be older than me.*
 (iii) *Now, I have one more point to make. . .*

With this meaning, **now** is either unstressed, as in (i), or heavily stressed, as in (iii).

3 Idioms**By now**

E.g. *The train's late. They should be here by now.* (= 'before now')

Now (that) is a subordinating conjunction mixing the meanings of time and reason.

E.g. *Let's have a drink, now (that) you're here.* (= 'because you are now here')

Now (that) *I've learned to drive, I will be able to go to work by car.*

nowadays /'naʊədeɪz/ (adverb of time) [See now 1 note.]**nowhere** /'naʊweə/ (adverb of place)

Nowhere (or *no place* <informal U.S.>) is negative, in contrast to **somewhere**, **anywhere**, and **everywhere**.

E.g. 'Where did you go last night?'
'Nowhere. I stayed at home.'

-n't (= not) [See NOT, CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 3.]

number In English grammar, the term 'number' refers to the difference between singular and plural. [See PLURAL.]

a number of /ə'nʌməbərəv/ (quantity term)

A number of + plural noun means 'several', 'a few'.
 [See AGREEMENT 2c.]

numbers [See also ORDINALS, FRACTIONS, DATES, DECIMALS, MONEY, MEASURING.]

- There are two kinds of number words in English:
 - (A) Cardinal numbers (for counting): *one, two, three, . . .* etc.
 - (B) Ordinal numbers (for putting things in a sequence or order): *first, second, third, . . .* etc.

1 Note the spellings and pronunciations in this table

cardinal	ordinal (Add -th (-θ) to the cardinal)
0 zero* /'ziərəʊ/	1st <i>first</i> ** /fɜːst/** 2nd <i>second</i> ** /'sekənd/** 3rd <i>third</i> ** /θɜːd/** 4th <i>fourth</i> /fɔːθ/ 5th <i>fifth</i> ** /fɪfθ/** 6th <i>sixth</i> /sɪksθ/ 7th <i>seventh</i> /'sevənθ/ 8th <i>eighth</i> ** /eɪtθ/ 9th <i>ninth</i> ** /nainθ/ 10th <i>tenth</i> /tenθ/
11 <i>eleven</i> /ə'levən/	11th <i>eleventh</i> /ə'levənθ/
12 <i>twelve</i> /twelv/	12th <i>twelfth</i> ** /twelfθ/**
13 <i>thirteen</i> /θɜː'tiːn/**	13th <i>thirteenth</i> /θɜː'tiːnθ/**
14 <i>fourteen</i> /fɔːr'tiːn/**	14th <i>fourteenth</i> /fɔːr'tiːnθ/**
15 <i>fifteen</i> /fɪf'tiːn/**	15th <i>fifteenth</i> /fɪf'tiːnθ/**
16 <i>sixteen</i> /sɪks'tiːn/**	16th <i>sixteenth</i> /sɪks'tiːnθ/**
17 <i>seventeen</i> /sevən'tiːn/**	17th <i>seventeenth</i> /sevən'tiːnθ/**
18 <i>eighteen</i> /eɪt'iːn/**	18th <i>eighteenth</i> /eɪt'iːnθ/**
19 <i>nineteen</i> /nain'tiːn/**	19th <i>nineteenth</i> /nain'tiːnθ/**
20 <i>twenty</i> /'twentɪ/**	20th <i>twentieth</i> /'twentɪθ/**

* **0** has three pronunciations:

/zɪərəʊ/ **zero** especially in mathematics and for temperature.

/nɔ:t/ **nought** <G.B. >.

/əʊ/ especially when reading out long numbers, e.g. telephone numbers like **01-643 etc.**

** Notice that these are exceptions in the spelling or pronunciation of ordinals.

*** Notice that the stress is on **-teen** /'ti:n/, while for **thirty**, **sixty**, etc the stress is not on /tI/. Contrast.

E.g. **13** /θɜ:ti:n/ and **30** /θɜ:ti:/ (etc).

16 /sɪks'ti:n/ and **60** /'sɪks'ti:/ (etc).

But the stress moves from **-teen** in the middle of a phrase, or in counting.

E.g. **We had 15** /fifti:n/ **guests.**

... **16** /sɪks'ti:n/, **17** /sevənti:n/, **18** /eɪti:n/ ...

2 Numbers from 20 to 100

cardinal	ordinal	cardinal	ordinal
21 twenty-one	21st -first	40 forty	40th -tieth
22 twenty-two	22nd -second	50 fifty	50th -tieth
23 twenty-three	23rd -third	60 sixty	60th -tieth
24 twenty-four	24th -fourth	70 seventy	70th -tieth
...	...	80 eighty	80th -tieth
30 thirty	30th thirtieth	90 ninety	90th -tieth
...	...	99 ninety-nine	99th -ninth
35 thirty-five	35th -fifth	100 a hundred*	100th -edeth

* It is possible, but not usual, to say **one hundred**. Similarly: **a / one thousand, a / one million.**

3 Larger numbers

(Note that the ordinal numbers are formed regularly, using the forms from 1–100. Note the use of **and**.)

E.g. **101 a hundred and one**

203 two hundred and three

310 three hundred and ten

421 four hundred and twenty-one

1538 a/one thousand five hundred and thirty-eight

11,649 eleven thousand six hundred and forty-nine

50,000 fifty thousand

600,000 six hundred thousand

1,000,000 a million

NOTE (i): 250,000 = **a quarter of a million**; 500,000 = **half a million**; 750,000 = **three-quarters of a million**.

NOTE (ii): Very large numbers include: **billion** = (in <U.S. >) 1,000,000,000 or (in <G.B. >) 1,000,000,000,000.

4 How number words behave in grammar

Number words have varied roles in the sentence: they can behave like:

(A) Determiners before nouns, etc.

E.g. **The zoo contains 3 elephants and 7 lions.**

I've got **five** elder sisters, and **one** younger one.

(B) Pronouns at the end of a phrase or sentence or followed by **of**.

E.g. **'How many people were competing in the race?' 'About two hundred and fifty.** (250) **Only five of them finished the race, though.**

(C) Nouns: As a noun, a number word can be plural, can have determiners, etc.

I've got a six
and a five.

I've got two sixes!



E.g. **Seven** is a lucky number.

He's in his thirties. ('His age is between 30 and 40.')

{ **Nine times eight is 72.** } (9 × 8 = 72)
{ **Nine eights are 72.** }

5 Number nouns

hundred = 100

thousand = 1000

million = 1,000,000

couple = 2

dozen = 12

score = 20

rather <informal>

Although these nouns have an exact meaning, they can also be used in an inexact way. For example, **a couple of days** often means 'a few days', and **hundreds of people** often means simply 'a large number of people'.

5a **Hundred, thousand, and million** are basically nouns. They can be used:

(I) with determiners.

E.g. **several hundred men, a thousand copies, half a million.**

(II) with a plural -s and an **of**-phrase.

E.g. **hundreds of people, many thousands of tourists, millions and millions of ants.**

But: Do not add -s when using them as exact numbers.

E.g. **two hundred** (= 200), not **two hundreds**.

6 Approximate numbers

6a **About** (or **around**) means 'approximately' or 'roughly', i.e. 'not exactly'.

E.g. **There are about 400 children in the school.**

[See ABOUT AND AROUND 3.]

object complement

- An object complement is a 'complement after the OBJECT' of a clause.
- An object complement contrasts with a subject complement, which is a 'complement after the SUBJECT'.
- [See COMPLEMENT, VERB PATTERN 12 for further information and examples.]

1 Here are some examples of sentences with an object complement (the object is marked like this: object).

- E.g. (i) *The minister considers himself a supporter of free speech.*
 (ii) *I have often wished myself a millionaire.*
 (iii) *The long walk made us all hungry.*
 (iv) *They keep the streets nice and clean.*

In (i) and (ii) the object complement is a noun phrase. In (iii) and (iv) the object complement is an adjective phrase.

2 The relation between the object and object complement can be represented by the verb BE. (i) and (ii) above mean the same as:

- (i) *The minister considers that he is a supporter of free speech.*
 (ii) *I have often wished I was a millionaire.*

object pronoun [See PERSONAL PRONOUN 2.]

- 1 The object pronouns in English are **me, her, him, us, and them**. They are special forms of the personal pronouns used, among other things, in the position of OBJECT in the sentence.
- 2 Other terms for object pronouns are 'objective pronouns' or 'accusative pronouns'.

objective case

Objective case is a grammatical term sometimes used for the OBJECT PRONOUN form of personal pronouns.

obligation

To express obligation we can use **must**, * **have got to**, * or **have to**. *

* These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. [See also SHOULD AND OUGHT TO.]

o'clock /ə'klok/ (adverb) [See TIME, (TELLING THE) TIME.]

of /ɒv/ (use the weak form: /əv/) (preposition)

- **Of** is the most common preposition in English.
- **Of** usually makes a link of meaning between two nouns or noun phrases: we will call them N₁ and N₂.
- **Of** has many different meanings: see 2–12 below for eleven different uses of **of**.

1 Forms of nouns which follow **of**

N ₁	of	N ₂
----------------	----	----------------

- (a) If N₂ is a pronoun, it must normally be a possessive pronoun*.
 (b) If N₂ refers to a particular person, it is usually a possessive noun, i.e. *noun + 's*.
 (c) If N₂ refers to an unspecified person – or is not a person – it cannot be a possessive noun, i.e. it cannot have 's':

	N ₁	of	N ₂
(a)	a book	of	mine *
(b)	a friend a { movie film }	of of of of	Mozart('s) Paul McCartney('s) * my father('s) a Rolls-Royce
(c)	the Queen the income the heart the colour	of of of of	Spain an average teacher a lion a rose

* See 13 below about exceptions to (a), and about the change of meaning if you omit the 's of McCartney's.

2 **Of** often means 'having', 'owning', possession

E.g.	N ₁	of	N ₂	N ₂	has	N ₁
	the owner	of	the car	↔	the car	has an owner
	a friend	of	Mozart's	↔	Mozart	has a friend

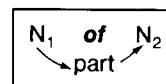
Here **of** is an alternative form for the possessive 's:

N₁ **of** N₂ ↔ N₂ 's N₁

E.g. *the uniform of a policeman* ↔ *a policeman's uniform*

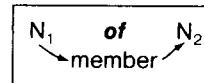
[For further information, see POSSESSIVE 4.]

- 3 **Of** is used to link **part** to **whole** in:



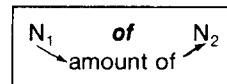
*the top of the hill the roof of the house the handle of a knife
the end of the week the front page of a popular newspaper*

- 4 **Of** is used to link a **member** to its group in:



*a Member of Parliament the last month of the year
the youngest of the three girls*

- 5 **Of** is very common in expressions of **amount** [see QUANTITY WORDS]:

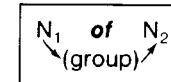


a lot of noise / noises a large number of people a pair of trousers a litre of oil thousands of babies two tons of coal

- 5a **N₁** is often a pronoun such as **all**, **some**, **much** [see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2].

*all of the women a few of those nuts
much of his advice none of these animals*

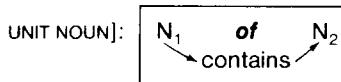
- 6 **Of** is used after GROUP NOUNS like **crowd**, **group**, **bunch**:



*a group of students a range of mountains a bunch of flowers
a flock of sheep*

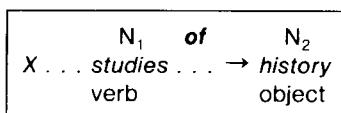
Here **N₂** describes **members of the group**.

- 7 **Of** follows nouns referring to **containers** or **units** of something [See UNIT NOUN]:



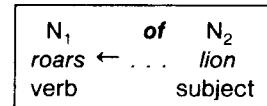
*a bowl of fruit a bag of nails a bottle of milk
a handful of coins*

- 8 The relation between **N₁** and **N₂** can be like the relation between verb and object:



*the election of the President
the study of history
the invention of radio
your kind offer of help*

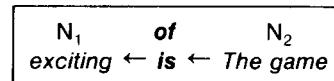
- 9 The relation between **N₁** and **N₂** can be like the relation between verb and subject:



the death of Alexander
~ the roar of a lion
the growth of industry*

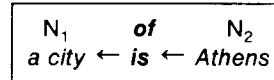
* This is an exception to Rule 1(b) above.

- 10 The link between **N₁** and **N₂** can be like the link of the verb **be** [see LINKING VERB]:



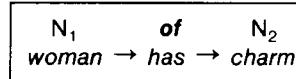
*the weakness of the pound
~ the excitement of the game
the difficulty of learning English*

- 10a In the following examples, **N₁** and **N₂** refer to the same person or thing:



*the art of painting
~ the city of Athens
the job of being President
the problem of how to improve education*

- 11 **Of** can link **N₁** to a quality expressed by **N₂** <formal, written>:



*a man of courage
~ a woman of charm
a building of great beauty*

- 12 There are many other ways in which **of** can link two nouns.

E.g. *a game of football
a difference of age
the people of ancient China
a ring of pure gold*

- 13 After nouns such as **picture**, **drawing**, **film**, **movie**, **of** can be followed by ordinary personal pronouns like **him** and **me**.

E.g. *This is an old photograph of me.
Joan does not like this painting of her. (= 'this painting representing her')*

NOTE (i): A **painting of her** has a different meaning from **her painting**, or a **painting of hers**, which would usually mean 'The / a painting that belongs to her'.

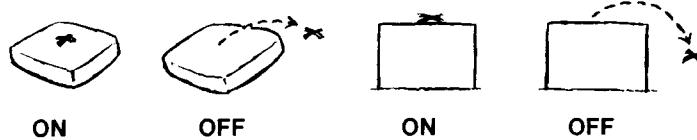
NOTE (ii): Also, a **film / movie of Paul McCartney** (= 'about Paul McCartney') is different from a **film / movie of Paul McCartney's** (= 'one made by him').

- 14 **Of** does not always come between two nouns. It also follows some adjectives and verbs.

E.g. *I am afraid of snakes.
You must be tired of watching television.
The explorers died of hunger and cold. (**of** = 'because of')*

of-pronoun [See INDEFINITE PRONOUN 2.]**off** /ɒf/ (preposition or adverb)

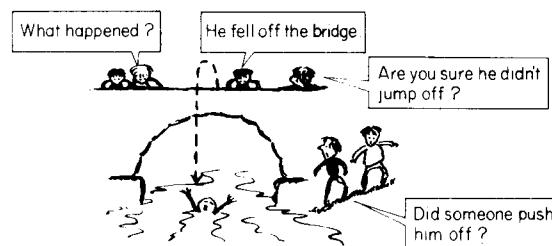
- As a word meaning place or movement, usually **off** means the opposite of **on**:



1 *He fell off** the stage. (preposition)

He fell off. (adverb)

I watched the airplane taking off. One minute it was taxiing **on** the runway. The next minute it was **off** the ground.

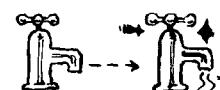


* < U.S. > speakers sometimes use **off of** as a preposition, instead of **off**.

2 **Off** is also the opposite of **on** in other meanings.

E.g. *put on* your coat
switch on the light

take it off again
switch off the light



turn on the water

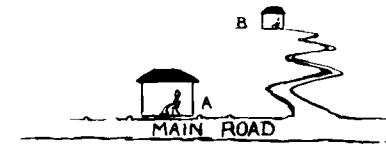


turn off the water

[See PHRASAL VERB.]



*The town is **on** the coast.*
*The island is (just) **off** the coast.*



*A lives **on** the main road.*
*B lives (a mile) **off** the main road.*

*There's a 15% tax **on** furs.*
*But there's 20% **off** in the sale.*



*I'm taking a day **off** (= away from work) next week, so I'm staying **on** late (= continuing work) this week.*

3 **Off** can mean 'leaving a place' or 'starting a journey, a race,' etc.

E.g. *We're going {**off**
away} to the seaside for the summer.*

4 **Idioms**

There are some common PHRASAL VERBS with **off**, such as *put off* ('postpone'), *lay off*, *come off*.

offers, offering

- Some ways of making an **offer** are:

Type A. { *Shall I*
Do you want me to
Would you like me to } + Verb (...)?

Type B. { *Would you like*
Do you want } + Noun Phrase?

1 Type A

E.g. Shall I...? (**offering** to do something – <mainly G.B.>)

E.g.



Do you want me to buy the tickets?

Would you like me to phone the doctor? <a little more polite and more formal>

2 Type B

These structures are used in **offering** a drink, etc.

E.g. <more polite> *Would you like* } a coffee? { Yes, please. *
Do you want } No, thank you. *

* This is how you should accept or refuse an **offer**. If you say only 'Yes' or 'No', it's not very <polite>!

2a These structures are also used in **offering** a choice between two (or more) things [see OR 6b]:

{ *Would you like tea or coffee?* } { *I'd like some coffee, please.*
Tea or coffee? } { *Coffee, please*

3 Reporting offers

E.g. He **offered** to help me. [See VERB PATTERN 7.]

She **offered** the visitor a cup of coffee. [See VERB PATTERN 11.]

She **offered** a meal to all the visitors. [See VERB PATTERN 13.]

often /'ɒf(t)ən/ (adverb of FREQUENCY)

Often means 'many times'. It usually goes in middle position [see ADVERB 3].

E.g. 'Do you **often** play football?'

'Yes, quite **often** – about once every two weeks.'

[See FREQUENCY for details of word order.]

NOTE: The usual COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms are **more often** and **most often**. But **oftener** and **oftest** are also occasionally used.

On /ɒn/ (preposition or adverb)

► **On** concerns PLACE, movement, means of travel, or TIME.

1 On for 'place'

1a **On** means 'in contact with a surface' or 'touching'.

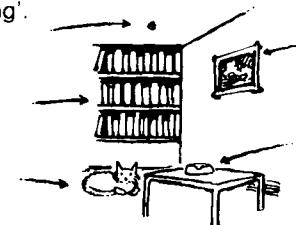
E.g. There's a fly **on** the ceiling.

The books are **on** the shelves.

The cat is sitting **on** the floor.

The picture is hanging **on** the wall.

The ashtray is **on** the table.



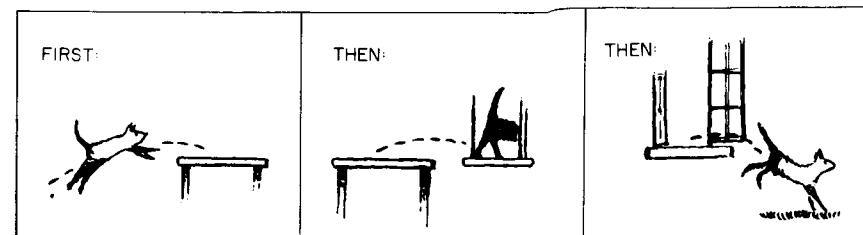
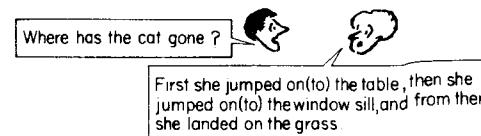
Notice that **on** frequently means 'on top of':



E.g. **on** the table **on** the chair etc.



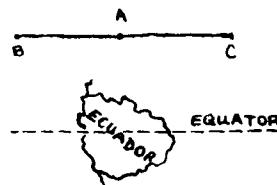
Also: **on** the sea, **on** land, **on** a ship, **on** my head, etc.

1b **On** and **onto** are used for movement to a place (surface):

NOTE: **On** is the opposite of **off** when used for movement [see OFF].

1c We also use ***on*** for a line.

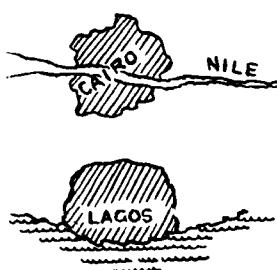
E.g. (i) *A is on the line B-C*



(ii) *Ecuador is on the equator.*



(iii) *Cairo is on the River Nile.*



(iv) *Lagos is on the coast.*



1d When giving directions, we say ***on this side***, ***on that side***, ***on the left***, ***on the right***, etc.

2 ***On* for 'means of travel'**

We use ***on*** for means of travel [see TRANSPORT, MEANS OF].

E.g. *I go to work on the bus.*

3 ***On* for 'time'**

We use ***on*** for referring to days [see TIME 4].

E.g. *On Sunday we stayed at home.*

4 Other meanings of ***on***

4a What's ***on***? <informal> This question asks 'What's happening?' 'What interesting things are going on?' (Here, ***on*** is an adverb.)

E.g. *What's on at the movies? <U.S.> / cinema? <G.B.>*
What's on at the theatre?

4b In phrases like ***on (the) television*** and ***on the radio***, ***on*** means 'through the medium of'.

E.g. *I heard it on the radio.*

Be quiet! I'm (talking) on the phone.

Would you mind putting a tape on?

'Are you going to watch anything on T.V.? 'No, there's nothing on.'
(But 'The T.V. is ***on***' means 'The T.V. is ***switched on***' [see OFF 2].)

4c ***On*** means 'about', 'on the subject of':

E.g. *The teacher gave us a { talk
lesson
test
a lecture } on { French.
history.
biology.
keeping fit. }*

*I've been { writing
reading } { a book
an essay } on { Indian cookery.
Greek architecture. }*

4d In <rather formal> English, ***on + Verb-ing*** means 'when or as soon as something happens / happened'.

E.g. *On reaching the end of negotiations, the ministers agreed to send more aid.*

On can also precede a NOUN PHRASE with this meaning.

E.g. *On his retirement, my father went to live in the country.*
The wounded soldier was dead on arrival at the hospital.

5 Idioms

5a ***On*** is the first word of many idioms. Some, like ***on business*** are prepositional phrases. Some, like ***on behalf of***, are complex prepositions [see PREPOSITION 2a]. Some, like ***on condition that***, are conjunctions.

E.g. *on holiday / vacation / business:* 'Did you go to Italy on vacation <U.S.>?' 'No, I went on business.'

on account of: [see REASON AND CAUSE]

on behalf of: *I am writing this letter on behalf of my husband, who is very ill.*

on condition that: [see CONDITIONAL CAUSE]

on earth: *What on earth are you doing?* [see WH-WORDS 2b Note.]

on purpose: *Did they hurt you accidentally or on purpose?*

on sale: *The new model of our sports car will be on sale next week.*

on to, onto: [see ON 1b]

on top of: (= 'on the top of') *Don't leave your coffee on top of the television set!*

5b ***On*** also follows some verbs:

depend on } are PREPOSITIONAL VERBS.
rely on }

E.g. *You can { depend
rely } on him: he's very honest.*

Carry on, come on, go on are PHRASAL VERBS.

E.g. *Please carry on (= 'continue') with your work.*

Once /wʌns/ (adverb)

- Once has two uses:

- 1 as an adverb of frequency (= 'on one occasion')
- 2 as an adverb of time (= 'at some time in the past')

1 Once = 'on one occasion' is generally in end position

E.g. 'How many times have you visited Cairo?'

(only) once.
I've been there { twice.
 three times.

Other expressions of frequency containing once:

once a day, once a week, once a month, once a year.

2 Once = 'at some time in the past' is generally in front or middle position. It goes before a PAST TENSE verb.

E.g. Once we stayed in a little cottage by the sea.
I once saw a girl save a man from drowning.

3 Idioms

Look up the following adverbial idioms in a dictionary:

at once for once once again once more once or twice
 once upon a time

One There are three different words spelled one:

- 1 one /wʌn/ is the cardinal NUMBER '1'.
- 2 one /wʌn/, ones /wʌnz/ is an INDEFINITE PRONOUN.
- 3 one /wʌn/, one's /wʌnz/, oneself /wʌn'self/ is a PERSONAL PRONOUN.

1 The number one

1a Like other numbers, one can occur (i) in front of a noun or (ii) alone, as a subject, object, etc.

E.g. 'Would you like one lump of sugar or two in your coffee?' 'One is enough, thanks.'

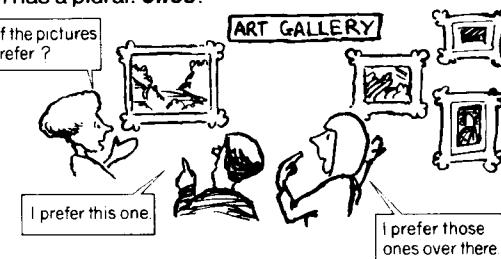
1b One as a number often contrasts with ANOTHER or the OTHER [see the idiom one another in 4 below].

E.g. A king had two sons: one (son) was thin, and the other (son) was fat.

2 The indefinite pronoun one

- 2a This pronoun has a plural: ones.

E.g. Which of the pictures do you prefer?



Notice that one 'replaces' a singular countable noun that has been mentioned, and ones 'replaces' a plural noun.

E.g. 'I'm having a drink. Would you like one?' * 'Yes, just a small one, please.' 'I thought you preferred large ones!'

* Notice we don't use a directly in front of one.

E.g. We need a taxi. Would you please order {a taxi } for us?
 (a one)

3 The personal pronoun one <rather formal>

Here one is a pronoun of general meaning ('people in general'). In <less formal> English, we use you [see YOU 2] instead.

The personal pronoun one has the possessive form one's and the reflexive form oneself [see SELF / SELVES].

E.g. These days, one has to be careful with one's money. *
 How does one unlock this door?
 It's sometimes a good idea to see oneself through the eyes of one's worst enemy!

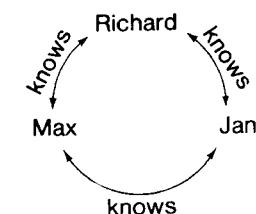
* Sometimes in <U.S.> one / one's / oneself is replaced by he / him / his / himself to avoid repetition.

E.g. These days, one has to be careful with his money.

4 Idiom

One another is a double pronoun, with the same meaning as each other [see EACH 4].

E.g. I didn't know that Max, Richard and Jan were friends. 'Oh, yes, they've known one another for years.'



ones, oneself [See ONE 2, 3.]***only*** /'əunli/ (adverb, conjunction or adjective)

- **Only** is a common adverb, and can appear in many different positions in a sentence.
- As an adjective, **only** usually goes after **the** or a possessive: *the only person, his only close friend*.

1 **Only as a 'limiting' adverb means 'no {more other} than'**

1a In <speech>, **only** frequently goes in middle position [see ADVERB 3].

- E.g. *I've only visited France once.* ('no more than once')
We've only spoken to the secretary. ('to no one other than the secretary')

1b But in <writing> it is best to put **only** just before the phrase it applies to. Instead of the examples above, we prefer:

I have visited France only once.
We have spoken only to the secretary.

This is because in <writing> we cannot use main stress. In <speech> we can give a sentence with **only** a different meaning if we move the main stress from one place to another. This is an example of a sentence with 2 different meanings of **only**:

- Maurice only peeled the potatoes.* (= 'He didn't do anything else to the potatoes, e.g. cook them.')
Maurice only peeled the 'potatoes. (= 'He didn't peel the carrots, onions, etc.') (Or: 'He didn't do anything else, e.g. cook the dinner.')

1c **Only** often goes before a noun phrase, especially a noun phrase beginning with a QUANTITY word or a NUMBER.

- E.g. (i) '*They pay him only £100 per month.*' 'Yes, but he works only a few hours a week.'

The meaning of **only** in (i) above is 'no more than . . .'. In example (ii) the meaning is 'no one other than . . .':

- (ii) '**Only** the manager is allowed to sign this agreement.' 'Yes, and **only** a lawyer can understand it!'

1d Since **only** is a negative adverb, it can cause inversion [see INVERSION 5] when it is placed before an adverbial at the front of the sentence [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6]:

E.g. **Only** in a few Western countries **does** religion remain an important power in politics. <formal>
Only recently **has it become** clear that both sides are ready for peace. <formal>

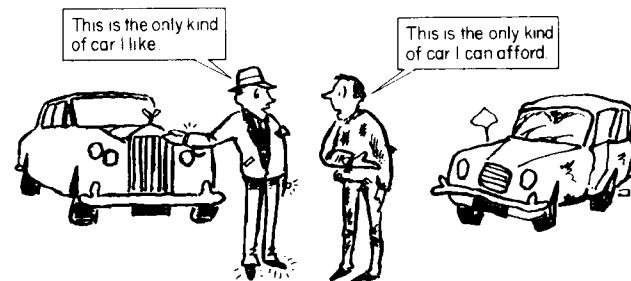
2 **Only as a conjunction means 'but', 'except that'**

It is <informal> and expresses a CONTRAST between what has been said and what is going to be said.

- E.g. *I'd like to stay and help you, only I've promised to be home at 5 o'clock.* (= 'but, except that')

3 **Only as an adjective means 'there is no other', and normally comes between the or a possessive and a noun.**

- E.g. (i) **The only work I can offer you is looking after the pigs.** (only = 'sole'; i.e. 'I can't offer you any other kind of work'.)
(ii) **Her only mistake was being too generous.**



4 **Idiom**

[See the separate entry for IF ONLY.]

onto (preposition) (Also spelt **on to**) [See ON 1b.]

operator

- The first AUXILIARY VERB in a finite verb phrase is called the **operator**. [See FINITE, VERB PHRASE.]
- Also, the finite verb BE is an **operator**, even when it is a MAIN VERB.
- The **operator** is a helpful idea for explaining how we form negatives, questions, and other patterns in English.

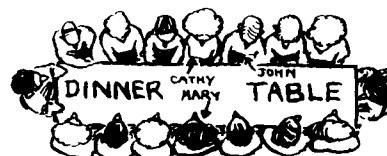
opposite /'ɒpəzɪt/ (preposition or adjective or noun)

- **Opposite** means 'facing', 'on the other side of'.

1 Preposition

E.g. *My house is opposite the post office.* (= 'on the other side of the street')

2 Adjective



E.g. *At the dinner table, Cathy sat next to John, and talked to Mary, (who sat) opposite.*

My wife and I have opposite views on divorce. (i.e. she agrees with divorce, but I don't)

3 Noun

E.g. *We asked Pamela to arrive early, but she did just the opposite.* (i.e. 'She arrived late'.)

Or /ɔ:/ (weak form: /ə/) (coordinating conjunction)

- **Or** expresses a choice between alternatives.

When we say **X or Y**, we mean **one of X and Y, but not both**.

E.g. *You can sit in this chair or in that chair. Which would you prefer?*

1 We can link, (i) words, (ii) phrases, or (iii) clauses with **or**.

E.g. (i) *'When is Emma's birthday?' 'It's in July or August – I'm not sure which.'*
 (ii) *Why don't we go swimming or sit on the beach? It's a very nice day.*
 (iii) *Travel Agent: We could arrange a whole tour, or we could book the flight and the hotel for you, or we could just book the flight. The choice is yours.*

2 **Or** linking more than two elements

Notice from example (iii) above that we can link three or more elements with **or**. We usually omit **or**, except between the last two elements.

E.g. *'You can buy one of these handbags in black, brown, blue, or dark green.' 'I'll take the blue one, please.'*

3 **Or (else)** = 'otherwise' [see ELSE 2]

In <informal> style, we can even use **or** to link two sentences.

E.g. *We must act quickly and prevent violence on the streets. Or (else) the situation will become very dangerous.*

Or (+ else) here means 'otherwise'. It means we should choose the first alternative rather than the other!

4 **Not . . . or instead of and**

We often use **or** instead of **AND** after a negative.

E.g. *I don't want anything to eat or drink.* (= I don't want anything to eat, and I don't want anything to drink.)

5 **Or** in threats

When **or** goes after an IMPERATIVE clause, it has a conditional meaning [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE].

E.g. *Don't telephone me again – or I'll report you to the police.* (. . . if you telephone, I'll . . .)

Don't make a move, or I'll shoot. (If you move, I'll shoot.)

6 **Or** in questions

In QUESTIONS, **or** has two meanings:

6a **Or** in yes-no questions is like **or** in statements (e.g. as in 1–2 above).

E.g. *'Would you like something to eat or drink?' 'Yes – thanks, I'd like a glass of milk.'*

This is a YES-NO QUESTION with a rising tone [see INTONATION].

6b **Or** in alternative questions has a falling tone at the end.

E.g. *'Would you like coffee or tea?' 'Coffee, please.'*

This type of question invites you to choose one of two alternatives.

There may also be three or more alternatives, with a rising tone on all alternatives except the last, which has a falling tone.

E.g. *'Is she married, single, or divorced?' 'Married.'*

'How will you get home? By bus, by bicycle, or on foot?' 'On foot.'

6c There is a kind of alternative question which has nearly the same meaning as a yes-no question. It offers a second, negative alternative **or not**.

E.g. (I) { *Are you going to resign or not?*

(II) { *Are you or are you not going to resign?*

(I) { *Should I lock the door or not?*

(II) { *Should I or should I not lock the door?*

These questions (especially type (I)) can be <impolite> because they insist on an answer.

7 Indirect alternative questions: *whether...or*

Like yes-no questions, these are introduced by ***whether***, but they also have ***or***.

E.g. *I don't know whether it's made of gold or of silver.*

[See WHETHER for further examples and discussion.]

8 Or sometimes joins two equivalent names for the same thing

E.g. *The Soviet Union (or the U.S.S.R., as it is often called) is the largest country in the world.*

9 Either...or... are sometimes used to emphasise the two alternatives.

[See DOUBLE CONJUNCTION 3.]

10 You can use *or* when you are not interested in exact numbers

E.g. *He's thirty or forty years old.* (= 'Somewhere around 30–40')
I'm asking one or two people to dinner. (= 'a few')

11 Idioms

Special idioms are ***or more*** and ***or so***.

E.g. *a hundred or more* = 'about a hundred or more than a hundred'
a hundred or so = 'about a hundred'.

[See ELSE, OR 3 for ***or else***; see DOUBLE CONJUNCTION for ***either...or***.]

giving **orders** [See IMPERATIVE, INDIRECT COMMAND, REQUESTS, SUGGESTIONS]

ordinals (including NEXT and LAST)

- **Ordinals** are the numbers we use when we put things in order, e.g. *1st, 5th, 10th*, etc.
- How to form **ordinals**: this is explained (with exceptions) in NUMBERS 1 and 2.

1 Next and last as ordinals

We call ***next*** and ***last*** ordinals because they refer to position in a sequence, and because they are just like ordinals in grammar.

2 How ordinals function in sentences

- 2a** They are like adjectives after ***the, my***, etc.

E.g. *her {first
next
last} novel the {second
next
last} town we visited*

Or after the verb ***be***.

E.g. *The guests have all arrived. Mr and Mrs Green were (the) first to arrive, and Dr Brown was (the) last.*

(We can omit ***the*** before the ordinal word.)

- 2b** They behave like pronouns (of-pronouns) when followed by ***of***.

E.g. *Mr. and Mrs. Garrido were the first of the guests to arrive. And they were the last (of the guests) to leave.*

- 2c** They behave like adverbs of time.

E.g. *'Who won the race?' 'Tim came first, John came second, and Bill came third. I finished next to last.'*

(Notice we cannot use ***the*** here.)

- 2d** They also behave like linking adverbs. We use them when we want to present a list of points, or a series of events.

E.g. *'Why did the President's party lose the election?' 'First(ly), they had led the country into a financial crisis. Second(ly), they had caused a shortage of food and other consumer goods. Third(ly), their leaders were unpopular. Fourth(ly), their TV broadcasts were not successful. Last(ly), * the weather was so bad that their supporters stayed at home!*

We often prefer to use an adverb ending in ***-ly*** as a linking adverb, as the above example shows.

* It is better to use ***lastly*** or ***finally*** as linking adverbs, rather than ***last***.

NOTE: We also use ***last*** and ***next*** in referring to periods of time, meaning 'the one before now' and 'the one after now'. [See TIME 4C, 5.]

other /'ʌðə/ (adjective or indefinite pronoun) (The pronoun has the plural form ***others***.)

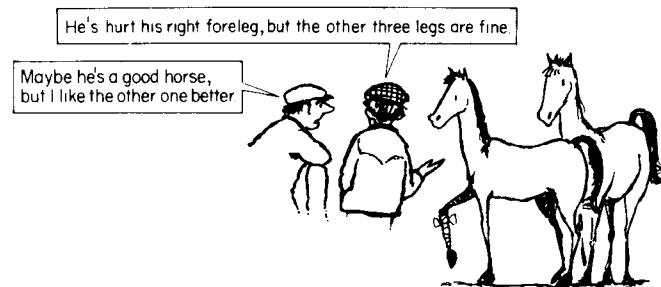
- **Other** means '(one(s)) apart from the one(s) already mentioned.'

1 Other as adjective

- 1a** **Other** as an adjective goes before a noun.

- E.g. *Peter Smith is younger than the other teachers in his school.* (i.e.
Peter is the school's youngest teacher.)
*My sister Lucy is very generous: she's always giving her things away
to other people.*

1b *Other* as an adjective also goes before numbers and the pronoun *one*:



2 *Other, others* as a pronoun

As a pronoun *other* is always singular, and *others* is always plural.



- E.g. *She carried a case in one hand and an umbrella in the other.*
I enjoyed her first novel so much, that I'm going to read all the others.
(= 'other novels')

3 Idioms

Each other [See EACH 4], **(the) one... the other** [See ONE 1b].
On the one hand... on the other (hand) are linking adverbs presenting opposite points of view.

- E.g. *On the one hand, the law must be obeyed. On the other (hand), we must show sympathy for those whose sufferings have caused them to break the law.*

The other end (of), the other side (of): In these phrases *other* means 'opposite'.

- E.g. *I saw him on the other side of the road.*

Other than (preposition) means 'except, apart from':

- E.g. *I like all dairy products other than yoghurt.*

otherwise /'ʌðə'waɪz/ (linking adverb)

- 1 **Otherwise** = 'apart from this', 'if we disregard this'.

E.g. *The weather was terrible, but { otherwise apart from that } we had a good time.*

- 2 **Otherwise** = 'if this does not happen'.

E.g. *I should wear an overcoat if I were you, { otherwise if you don't } you'll catch a cold.*

ought to /'ɔ:t tu:/ (weak form /'ɔ:tə/) (modal auxiliary)

- **Ought to** is a modal auxiliary with the same meanings as **should**. [For more information on *ought to*, see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 1, 2 below.]
- **Ought to** is <not common> and is especially rare in <U.S.>. We can always use **should** instead of **ought to**.
- **Ought to** has a negative form **ought not to** or **oughtn't to** /'ɔ:tnt tu:/ (weak form /'ɔ:tntə/).
- **Ought to** never changes its form or adds an -s.
- Unlike most other modal auxiliaries, **ought to** has an infinitive marker **to**.

- 1 **Meanings of ought to** [see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 3]

E.g. *You ought to clean your teeth before you go to bed.* (= It's a good thing to do this.)
It's June: the roses ought to be in flower by now. (= It's reasonable to assume this.)

- 2 **Negative:** *You oughtn't to smoke so much!*

Question: <not common> **Ought (n't) we to go home soon?**

NOTE (i): In 'shortened' sentences, people sometimes omit **to**.

E.g. *He doesn't pay his staff as much as he ought (to).
(... as much as he ought to pay them.)*

They also omit the **to** in TAG QUESTIONS.

E.g. *She ought to see a doctor, oughtn't she?*

NOTE (ii): The only past time form is **{ ought to
oughtn't to }** + have + past participle.

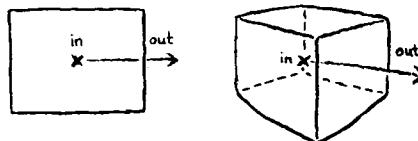
E.g. *You ought to have gone to the dentist earlier.*

our, ours /auər/, /auəz/ (1st person plural possessives). They are related to **we** and **us**. [See POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN.]

ourselves /auər'selvz/ (1st person plural reflexive pronoun). [See -SELF, -SELVES.]

out /aut/ (adverb of place or motion) [see also OUT OF]

- 1 **Out** is the opposite of **in** (adverb), especially expressing motion or (sometimes) position. [See IN, MOTION, PLACE 3a Note (i).]



E.g. *He put his hand in(to) his pocket, and pulled out a sharp knife.*
This room contains radioactive material. Keep out!
'Is Jill at home?' 'No, sorry, she's out.'

- 2 **Out** has many abstract meanings. E.g. **to be out** means 'to be no longer taking part in a game'.

E.g. *The first player to go out loses the game.*

- 3 **Out** appears in many PHRASAL VERBS:

E.g. *look out* ('be careful')
try (something) out ('test')
find (something) out ('discover')

out of /'autav/ (preposition) [see MOTION, PLACE 2 Note (ii).]

Out of is the preposition matching **out**. It is always followed by a NOUN PHRASE.

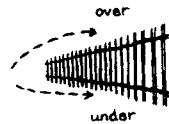
E.g. *She took some money out of her purse.*
John's mother missed him when he was out of the country.
 [Compare INTO.]

over and under /'əuvər/, /'ʌndər/ (prepositions or adverbs)

- **Over** and **under** are opposites. (**Underneath** is sometimes used instead of **under**.)

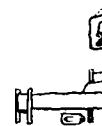
- 1 **Over and under** are prepositions connected with MOTION and PLACE.

- 1a **Over and under** with verbs of motion:



E.g. (i) *The dog jumped over the fence. The dog crawled under the fence.* (ii) *I ran over a bridge. The boat was going under the bridge.*

- 1b **Over and under** when there is no movement:
 (These sentences usually have the verb **be** in them.)



E.g. (i) *There is a picture of my mother over my bed.* (ii) *You can see the moon over the trees. There are some children under the trees.*

- 1c **Over** means 'across' in some cases:

E.g. *We often walk over the fields.*
My neighbour over the road has a large house.

- 1d **Over** sometimes means 'covering', 'everywhere on/in', especially in the phrase **all over**:*

E.g. *This town is so busy: there are people and cars all over the place.*



That child is always running over the floor with muddy feet.

* *All over the world* and *all over the country* are common phrases.

- 1e Other meanings of **over** and **under** as prepositions:

- (I) **Over** in time phrases means 'during'.

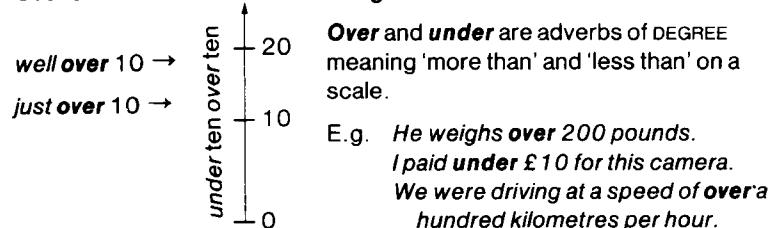
E.g. { *We stayed with my aunt* } { *over the weekend*.
 I'll be seeing you again } { *over the New Year*.

*There have been a lot of industrial problems
 over the years.
 over the last century.*

(II) When we talk of the status or position of people, **over** and **under** mean 'superior' and 'inferior'.

E.g. *This ship is under the command of Captain Peabody.*
I don't like working with a younger man over me. (i.e. a younger boss)

2 Over and under as adverbs of degree



She was { just } { over } twenty when she became world champion.
(just = 'a little'; well = 'a lot')

3 Over is a prepositional adverb with various uses

3a Movement:

E.g. *I hurt my knee when I fell over.*



{ This poor old lady has been knocked over by a cyclist.
 The cyclist knocked over this poor old lady.

3b Place:

Over means 'a small distance away' in phrases like **over here** and **over there**.

E.g.



Well, why don't you ask her to come over and talk to us?

3c Time:

Over means 'past' or 'finished' after the verb **be**.

E.g. *It's Monday: the weekend is over.*
That bell means that the class is over.
When the war was over, Floyd returned to his job as an electrician.

NOTE: **Under** is occasionally a prepositional adverb.

E.g. *I'm a very poor swimmer. I can keep my head above water for a while, but I soon go under.*

4 Idioms

Over is common in phrasal and prepositional verbs.

E.g. *run over: The car ran over a rabbit.*
get over: = 'recover from': It took her a long time to get over her illness.

owing to /'əʊɪŋ tʊ/tə/ (preposition) [See REASON AND CAUSE 2.]

paragraphs

- A piece of writing is usually divided into **paragraphs**.
- Each **paragraph** contains one or more sentences.
- The **paragraph** is about a topic.
- Anything in writing has a theme. Each **paragraph** should be about a topic related to the theme.

1 Example

Look at the description (on the left below) of the three **paragraphs** (on the right below). (The arrows show connections between sentences in a **paragraph**.)

[Theme: **communications satellites**]

paragraph 1 Topic: **Satellites**

1st sentence: defines satellites.

2nd sentence: communications satellites.

3rd sentence: added information about communication satellites.

1. **Satellites** are spacecraft that circle the earth in a carefully chosen orbit.

2. **Communications satellites** are equipped to receive signals from one ground station and then relay them to another.

3. They can relay many television programmes and telephone calls at once.

paragraph 2 Topic: Advantages of satellites

1st sentence: advantage of satellites over aerials.

2nd sentence: added information about aerials.

3rd sentence: added information about satellites.

4th sentence: the same

paragraph 3 Topic: Orbit

1st sentence: orbit of satellites.

2nd sentence: added information about orbit.

3rd sentence: satellite's appearance.

[Source: Leonard Sealey (ed.) *Children's Encyclopaedia*. Macmillan (2nd ed.) Vol. II, p. 575.]

2 How to write paragraphs

If you are beginning to write **paragraphs**, this will help you:

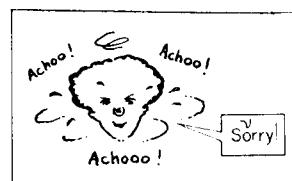
1st sentence: Introduce the topic.

Middle sentences: Explain, add supporting information, give examples, etc.

Last sentence: Try to make a summary or some other kind of conclusion, and point the way to the next paragraph.

pardon, sorry and excuse me /'pɑ:dən/, /'sɒri/, /ək'skjuz mi/ are <polite> expressions we use in various situations.

- 1 When you do something wrong or impolite, e.g. pushing in front of someone, treading on someone's toe, you say **sorry**.



[See also APOLOGIES.]



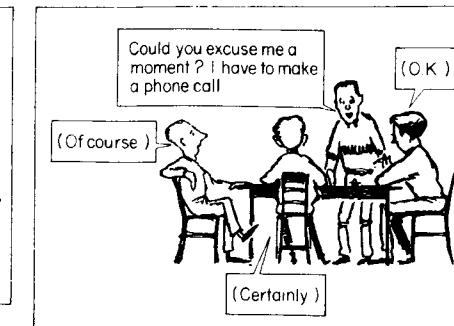
- 2 When you have to do something slightly impolite, e.g. interrupting a talk, sneezing, passing through a group of people, you can say **excuse me**.

E.g.

(a)



(b)



- 3 When you can't hear what someone is saying, and you want them to repeat it, you can say **Sorry?** / **Excuse me?** <U.S.>, or (**I beg your pardon?** / **Pardon me?** <U.S.>).

participle [See also PARTICIPLE CLAUSE]

- 1 This is the term we often use for two forms of the English verb:

- (A) The **-ing** participle (or **-ing** form) e.g. **working**, **losing** (sometimes called a 'present participle')
(B) The PAST PARTICIPLE e.g. **worked**, **lost***

* (Note irregular forms in the list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the back of the book.)

These are nonfinite forms of the verb [see REGULAR VERB, NONFINITE VERB].

- 2 Many adjectives have the same form as participles. Compare:

	Participle	Adjective
-ing form	<i>His mother is working in a factory.</i>	a working * mother a boring * lecture
past participle	<i>I have lost my purse.</i> <i>I was bored by the lecture.</i>	a lost ** purse the bored ** students

[For further discussion see -ING FORM, PAST PARTICIPLE.]

* The **-ing** form is an active adjective: it says what the noun 'is doing' or 'is feeling'.

** The **-ed** form is a passive adjective: it says what 'happens to' the noun.

participle clause [See -ING CLAUSE, PAST PARTICIPLE.]

1 A participle clause is a subordinate clause in which the **-ing** participle or the past participle is the main word. Such clauses are found particularly in <written> English [see NONFINITE CLAUSE 4].

2 The participle normally begins the clause.

adverbial participle clause		relative participle clause
-ing clause	Being a woman of firm views, Margaret decided to resign.	<i>The train arriving at Platform 3 is the 14.30 for Glasgow Central.</i>
past participle clause	Accused of dishonesty by the media, the Minister decided to resign.	<i>The police are looking for a man known as 'The Grey Wolf.'</i>

2a Adverbial participle clauses:

Adverbial participle clauses are similar to clauses of TIME or REASON. Compare the (bracketed) clauses in each of the following examples.

E.g. { **Being a woman of firm views,** } **Since she was a woman of firm views,** Margaret decided to resign.

{ **Accused of dishonesty by the media,** } **After he had been accused of dishonesty by the media,** the Minister decided to resign.

2b Clauses beginning with these conjunctions can be formed with participles and without a subject:

E.g. **if**, **unless** [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE]

(al)though, **while**, [see CONTRAST]

where, **wherever**, [see PLACE]

whether [see CONDITIONAL CLAUSE + CONTRAST]

when, **whenever**, **before**, **after**, **while**, **once**, **until** [see TIME]

The pattern is:

Conjunction	+	Participle	+	Rest of Clause
After		being		<i>accused of dishonesty . . .</i>
Before		meeting		<i>the President . . .</i>
While		working		<i>in a factory . . .</i>
If		bought		<i>from a recognized dealer . . .</i>
Once		taken		

E.g. **After being accused of dishonesty, he resigned.**

Before meeting the President, the press were warned not to ask awkward questions.

Once taken, the drug has a deadly effect.

2c Relative participle clauses:

Relative participle clauses give more information about a noun. The relative pronoun + **be** are omitted.

E.g. **the train (which is) arriving at Platform 3 . . .**
a man (who is) known as 'The Grey Wolf' . . .

2d On the whole, it is better not to use participle clauses in <speech>: they are too <formal>. But in <writing> they can be useful, because they allow us to say the same thing as a finite subordinate clause, but with fewer words.

2e Sometimes a participle clause has an expressed subject:

E.g. **Our company's performance this year has been slightly disappointing. That said**, we can look forward to improved results next summer. (= 'Once that has been said, . . .')

parts and wholes [See WHOLE, FRACTIONS.]

passive [See VERB PHRASE]

► The **passive** form of the verb phrase contains this pattern:

be + past participle, e.g. { **is used**
was wanted
can be seen }

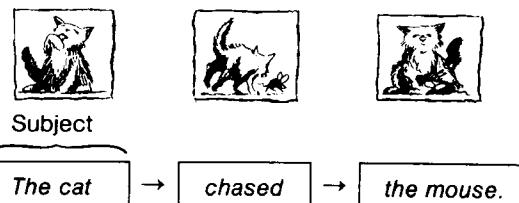
[See the list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the end of the book for irregular past participle forms.]

► The opposite of **passive** is **active**.

1 What is the passive?

In most clauses, the subject refers to the 'doer', or 'actor' of the action of the verb.

E.g. **Active:**



But the passive form allows us to put someone or something that is not the actor first, in the position of subject.

E.g. **Passive:**



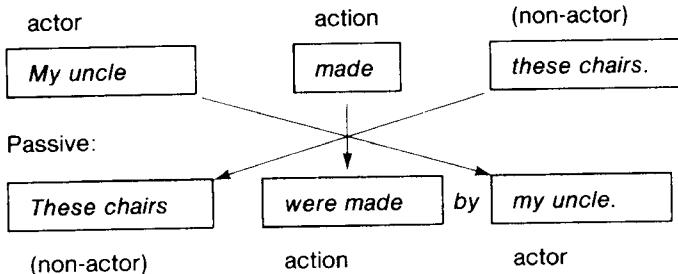
Subject

The mouse

was chased

(by the cat).

1a Active:



2 Main forms of the passive verb phrase

(Verb patterns show **ask** (regular verb) and **eat** (irregular verb).)

2a Present Simple:

Active	Passive
E.g. asks → is asked	
eat → are eaten	

E.g. (active) **My wife calls me 'darling'.**

(passive) **I am called 'darling'** (by my wife).

2b Past Simple:

E.g. asked → was asked
ate → were eaten

E.g. (active) **The police brought the child home.**

(passive) **The child was brought home** (by the police).

2c Modal pattern:

E.g. will ask → will be asked
could eat → could be eaten

E.g. (active) **Everyone can enjoy this type of music.**

(passive) **This type of music can be enjoyed** (by everyone).

2d Present Progressive:

E.g. is asking → is being asked
are eating → are being eaten

E.g. (active) **The Council is rebuilding the city hall.**

(passive) **The city hall is being rebuilt** (by the Council).

2e Past Progressive:

E.g. was asking → was being asked
were eating → were being eaten

E.g. (active) **My parents were discussing my future.**

(passive) **My future was being discussed** (by my parents).

2f Present Perfect:

E.g. has asked → has been asked
have eaten → have been eaten

E.g. (active) **The students have invited us to a dance.**

(passive) **We have been invited to a dance** (by the students).

2g Past Perfect:

E.g. had asked → had been asked
had eaten → had been eaten

E.g. (active) **He claimed that the club had wasted a lot of money.**

(passive) **He claimed that a lot of money had been wasted** (by the club).

2h Modal Perfect:

E.g. could have asked → could have been asked
could have eaten → could have been eaten

E.g. (active) **A bomb might have destroyed the building.**

(passive) **The building might have been destroyed** (by a bomb).

3 by + agent [see BY 3.]

If you want to say who does the action of a passive verb, add **by** + noun phrase after the verb phrase. But we can omit this if we want. (The noun phrase following **by** is called the **agent**.)

Passive with agent:

I have been offered a new job by the manager.

Passive without agent:

I have been offered a new job.

4 Why do we use the passive?

- 4a The passive without agent allows us to omit the 'actor' if we want to – e.g. if the 'actor' is not important or is not known:



In fact, most passives have no agent phrase.

- 4b The passive with agent allows us to save the 'actor' to the end of the clause. This is useful:

(I) if the 'actor' is the most important piece of new information.

E.g. '*This painting is very valuable. It was painted by Van Gogh.*' (Here the most important information is the name of the painter – ***Van Gogh***.)

(II) if the 'actor' is described by a long phrase which could not easily be the subject.

E.g. '*The school will always be remembered and supported by the boys and girls who received their education here.*' (Here the agent is a long noun phrase (in bold letters), and would be awkward as subject.)

5 Which verbs allow the passive?

The passive normally requires a verb which takes an object (i.e. a 'TRANSITIVE VERB'). The object of the active sentence can become the subject of the passive.

E.g.

subject	verb	object
		↓
<i>The president</i>	<i>welcomed</i>	<i>the visitors.</i>

subject	passive verb	agent
↓		
<i>The visitors</i>	<i>were welcomed</i>	<i>by the president.</i>

- 5a Most verbs with an object [see VERB PATTERNS 1, and 11–19] allow the passive. 5b–5d show examples of the different patterns:

- 5b The simple subject + verb + object pattern [see VERB PATTERN 1], (e.g. with ***believe, do, keep, enjoy, meet, bring***):

E.g. *The show was enjoyed by everyone.*

- 5c The pattern with indirect object [see VERB PATTERN 11], (e.g. with ***give, bring, promise, tell, teach***):

E.g. *My father was given a gold watch (by . . .).*

With this verb pattern, it is normally the first object (or INDIRECT OBJECT) which becomes the subject of the passive.

E.g. *John sent me a card. → I was sent a card (by . . .).*

- 5d The other patterns are shown in these examples:

E.g. *The wine must be kept cool.* [See VERB PATTERN 12.]

The lamp was placed in the corner of the room. [See VERB PATTERN 13.]

I was told that my mother was ill. [See VERB PATTERN 14.]

The secretary was asked how long the meeting would last. [See VERB PATTERN 15.]

We were taught how to drive a truck. [See VERB PATTERN 16.]

Helen was advised to take a long rest. [See VERB PATTERN 17.]

He has been known to object to the smallest change in the script. [See VERB PATTERN 18.]

The spy was seen leaving the building. [See VERB PATTERN 19.]

6 'Prepositional passives'

The passive is not limited to cases where the object of an active becomes subject. There are some unusual passives, where the noun phrase following a preposition becomes the subject:

- 6a *be + past participle + preposition:*

This pattern can only be used if the verb and the preposition form a unit (e.g. if they form a PREPOSITIONAL VERB).

<i>be called for</i>	<i>be hoped for</i>	<i>be looked after</i>
<i>be called upon</i>	<i>be shouted at</i>	<i>be talked about</i>

(Active): *People talked about the wedding feast for many years.* →

(Passive): *The wedding feast was talked about for many years.*

Other examples:

The President was called upon to make a speech.

Some improvement in the weather can be hoped for later next week.

I'm not going to stand here and be shouted at by a crowd of ignorant fools!

6b *be + past participle + adverb + preposition:*

(This pattern is sometimes used with PHRASAL PREPOSITIONAL VERBS.)

E.g. *They have recently done away with the tax on cars.* →
The tax on cars has recently been done away with. (*do away with* = 'abolish')

Another example is ***put up with***.

past /pɑ:st/ | /pæ:st/ (preposition or adverb)

- **Past** has two main uses: (a) MOTION (OR MOVEMENT) and (b) TIME

1 **Past = motion**

- 1a The preposition **past** is followed by a pronoun or noun phrase.



E.g. *The taxi-driver drove past us without stopping.*

- 1b The adverb **past** is followed by nothing.

E.g. *The customs-officer was watching the passengers as they walked past.*

2 **Past = time** means 'after', and is used especially in telling the time.

E.g. 'What's the time?' 'It's ten **past** three.' (= '3.10')

3 **Past** is also a noun or an adjective: e.g. *in the past*, *in past years*.

past continuous [See PAST PROGRESSIVE.]

past participle [See PARTICIPLE.]

- Every verb in English (except MODAL AUXILIARIES) has a past participle form.

1 **The form of the past participle**

- 1a With regular verbs, we form the past participle by adding **-ed** [see **-ED**] to the basic form of the verb.

E.g. *walk* → **walked** *play* → **played** *wait* → **waited**

[See SPELLING for the rules for adding the **-ed** ending.]

- 1b With irregular verbs, we form the past participle in different ways.

E.g. *know* → **known** *come* → **come** *drink* → **drunk**

[See the list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the end of the book.]

2 **The uses of the past participle**

- 2a The past participle follows the auxiliary verb in a:

perfect verb phrase	passive verb phrase	
<i>has walked</i>	<i>am known</i>	<i>was eaten</i>
<i>have waited</i>	<i>is played</i>	<i>were found</i>
<i>had come</i>		

- 2b The past participle is also the verb of a past participle clause [see PARTICIPLE CLAUSE].

past perfect [See PERFECT.]

- The **Past Perfect** form of the verb phrase contains **had** (the past form of **have**) and a past participle:

had + past participle

1 **Forms**

Examples of forms:

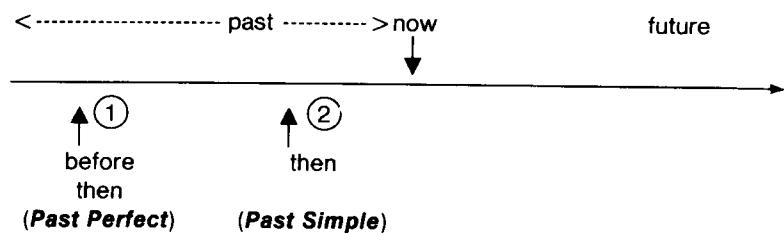
positive and negative			question		
<i>I, you we, he, she, it, etc</i>	had 'd	been used done not / n't eaten	Had Hadn't	<i>I, you, we, he, she, it, etc</i>	been used done eaten . . . ?

2 **Uses**

- (A) 'Past in the past':

We use this form to show that one thing in the past (marked ① below) (expressed by the Past Perfect) happened before another thing in the past (marked ② below) (expressed by the Past Simple).

336 past perfect



- E.g. (i) *The army had won^① an important battle before they crossed^② the border.*
(ii) *The prisoner was released^② after he had been^① in prison for several years.*
(iii) *When the play had finished^①, the audience left^② quietly.*
(iv) *It was^② the first time he'd ever visited^① a night club. (= 'He'd never visited a night club before that.'*)

2a If it is clear that one action happened before another action, you don't have to use the Past Perfect: you can use the Past Simple instead. In examples (i) and (iii) above you can change the Past Perfect to the Past Simple.

- E.g. (i) *The army won an important victory before they crossed the border.*
(iii) *When the play finished, the audience left quietly.*

In example (i), **before** shows the relation between the two actions without the help of the verb. In example (iii), **when** means the play finished 'just before', so again you don't need the **Past Perfect**.

3 Uses

(B) Unreal Past Perfect:

The Past Perfect is also used for unreal past states and actions [see UNREAL MEANING 2b]. E.g., in the *if*-clause of the *would-have* condition [see IF 1d]:

- E.g. *If you had been born in Finland, you would have been Finnish.
(impossible)
(But actually, you were born in Sweden, so you're Swedish!) (true)*

4 More complex forms of the Past Perfect form of the verb phrase

4a Past Perfect Progressive:

Form: *I / we / you / he / etc. + {had 'd} + been + Verb-ing . . .*

- E.g. (i) *It had been raining all night, and the streets were still wet in the morning.*

past perfect 337

Question: **Had + I / we / you / he / etc. + been + Verb-ing . . . ?**

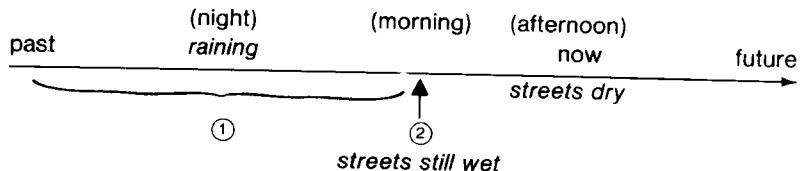


- E.g. (ii) *Had it been raining before he crashed his car?*

Negative answer:

- E.g. *No, it hadn't been raining at all.*

The meaning of the Past Perfect Progressive form of the verb phrase is that something happened for a period of time before the past time you are thinking about. This is a picture of example (i) above:



4b Past Perfect Passive:

Form: *I / we / you / they / etc. + {had 'd} + been + past participle . . .*

- E.g. *When we arrived at the party, all the food had been eaten.*

Question: **Had + I / we / you / they / etc. + been + past participle . . . ?**



- E.g. *Had the body been touched before the police arrived?*

Negative answer:

- E.g. *No, no one had been near it.*

5 The Past Perfect in indirect speech

[See INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT 1b.]

past progressive (or 'past continuous')

- The **Past Progressive** form of the verb phrase contains **was** or **were** followed by the **-ing** form of the verb [see PAST, PROGRESSIVE]:

was / were + Verb -ing

1 Forms

I, she, he, etc.	was wasn't	having a good time. staying at a hotel. etc.
you, we, they, etc.	were weren't	fishing. etc.

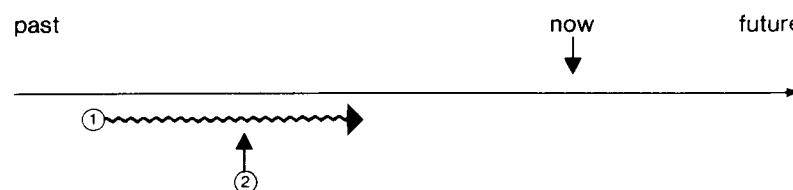
question forms:

Was Wasn't	I, he, she, etc.	having a good time? waiting for the bus?
Were Weren't	you, we, they, etc.	eating? etc.

2 Meaning

We use the Past Progressive to show that a state or action was in progress in the past, i.e. it continued for a temporary period, but not up to the present. Often, this also means that the action was not complete at the time we are thinking about.

- 2a When one action (marked ① below) continued over a period, and a second action (marked ② below) happened in the middle of that period, we use the Past Progressive for ① and the Past Simple for ②:



E.g. **It was raining** ① **when the doctor left** ② **his house this morning.**

One action (②) may interrupt the other action (①).

E.g. **The phone rang** ② **when you were watching T.V.** ①.

While I was driving ① **from Rome to Naples, my car broke down** ②.



- 2b We use the Past Progressive for both actions ① and ② if both were continuing at the same time.



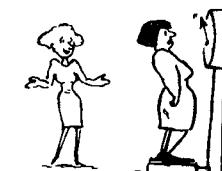
E.g. **I was mending the TV while my wife was reading.**
As I was driving to Rome, I was listening to music on the car radio.

- 2c We use the Past Progressive as the only verb in a sentence to talk about a continuing action at a point or during a period of time:

E.g. **'What were you doing** {at 8 o'clock
between 8 and 9} **last Sunday morning?**
'I was eating breakfast.'

NOTE: If the past time or period you are thinking of is clear, you do not need to mention it.
E.g. **Harry got up early to feed the animals. It was a beautiful day, and the birds were singing.** (i.e. . . . 'when he got up'.)

- 3 The Past Progressive can refer not only to past time, but to the unreal present. It can be used in an *if*-clause with a *would*-condition [see IF 1c].



E.g. **'You're not gaining weight.'** **'No, but I'd be happier if I were losing weight.'** [On the use of **were** here, see WERE 2]

- 4 Also, the Past Progressive can refer to future in the past [see PROGRESSIVE 2c], especially in indirect speech.

E.g. **When I told Pam that I was getting married** (next month), she **wouldn't believe me.**

past simple

- When we use a PAST TENSE main verb and no auxiliary verb, the form of the verb is called **Past Simple**. *
- Most verbs form their Past Tense with **-ed**. [See PAST TENSE for details of regular and irregular Past Tense forms.]
- The **Past Simple** has two main uses:
 - (I) to describe something which happened at a definite time in the past [see 2a below].
 - (II) to describe something which could not happen (or would be unlikely) in the present or future [see 2b below]. [See also UNREAL MEANING.]

* We do, however, make the negative or question form of the Past Simple with the auxiliary **did(n't)** + Verb [see do 2].

1 Forms

<i>I, we,</i>	played	football	(recently)
<i>you, he</i>	heard	about the exam	(last week)
<i>she, etc.</i>	gave	Jason a present	(ages ago) etc.

question:

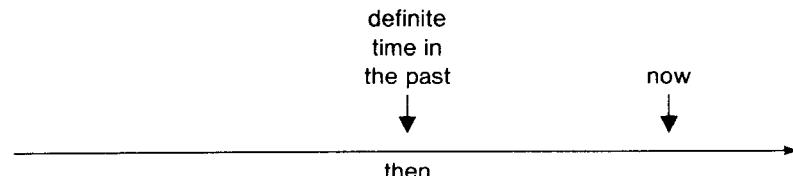
Did	(n't)	we, I, you, he, she, etc.	play	...?	I, We, You, She, They, etc.	{didn't did not}	play hear give	...?
			hear	...?				

negative:

2 Meanings of the Past Simple

2a Past time:

The Past Simple places an action or state at a definite time in the past.



- E.g. (i) 'When did you first meet your husband?'
 'I met him **in 1954**, but we **didn't marry until quite recently**.'
- (ii) **For many centuries** the Greeks were the rulers of the Mediterranean.
- (iii) **Before their first child was two years old**, Maurice and Vera moved to a cottage in the country.

Each of (i), (ii), and (iii) mention a period or point of time (marked by **bold italics**) in the past, although the exact time may be unclear. Other examples do not mention a time, but it is clear that the speaker is still thinking of a particular time.

- E.g. (iv) '**Where did you get that dress?**' 'I **bought** it in a sale, at Harrods.'
- (v) '**Did you see that marvellous TV programme on tortoises?**' 'No, I **was busy upstairs**.'

2b Unreal present or future time:

(I) We use the Past Simple in the *if*-clause of a *would*-condition to show that this is not true.

E.g. *If I owned a house, I would look after it properly.* (I do not own a house).

(II) We use the Past Simple in some polite requests.

E.g. *Would you mind if I borrowed your lamp?*

[For further details, see UNREAL MEANING, also IF 1c, 1d.]

3 Other uses of the Past Simple

3a In addition to 'completed action', the Past Simple is used with state verbs to describe a state of affairs in the past [see STATE AND ACTION verbs].

E.g. *Once there **was** a fisherman, who **lived** in a little house by the sea.*

3b Also it is used with action verbs to describe a habit – i.e. a set of repeated actions.

E.g. *Every morning the two men **got up** and **ate** breakfast before they **went fishing**.*

The habit meaning *usually* requires a phrase of FREQUENCY (like **every morning** in the example above); or a phrase of LENGTH OF TIME.

E.g. *All the summer they **went** out in their tiny boat to catch fish.*

NOTE (i): Instead of the Past Simple, it is often clearer to use the *used to* + Verb form for state and habit in the past.

E.g. *They **used to go** fishing every morning.*

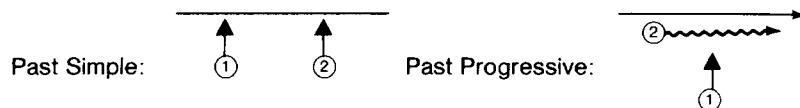
4 The difference between Past Simple and Past Progressive

The Past Progressive describes a state or action 'in progress', i.e. continuing, not completed.

4a Look at the difference between these examples

- (i) **When we arrived** ①, the judge **made** a speech ②.
- (ii) **When we arrived** ①, the judge **was making** a speech ②.

The Past Simple in example (i) sees the action of 'making a speech' as a whole, as a complete event in the past. The Past Progressive in example (ii) sees it as a continuing action, i.e. in progress, and incomplete:

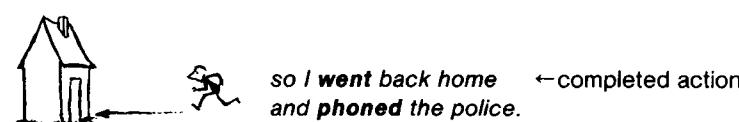


The judge in example (i) began his speech after we arrived. In example (ii), he began his speech before we arrived, and finished it after we arrived.

4b Now look at these examples:

- (i) *The boy drowned,*
 (ii) *The boy was drowning,* } but I dived into the water and saved him.

We cannot use the Past Simple in example (i), because it says that the drowning was 'complete', i.e. *the boy died*. But the Past Progressive in example (ii) says that the drowning was incomplete – it could be interrupted.



past tense [See PRESENT TENSE, PAST SIMPLE, PAST PERFECT, PAST TIME]

- 1 If a word is a finite verb it normally has a difference of form between the Present Tense form and the Past Tense form. Both main verbs and auxiliary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO change their form for Past Tense:

	regular	irregular
Present Tense: Past Tense:	<i>use(s)</i> <i>used</i>	<i>look(s)</i> <i>looked</i>

- 2 The Past Tense contrasts with the Present Tense, and indicates either (a) past time (excluding the present moment) or (b) unreal meaning.

E.g. (a) *In those days I looked young and handsome.* (i.e. 'then')
 (b) *I wish I still looked young and handsome.* (i.e. 'now')

[See PAST TIME for the contrast between Past Simple and Present Perfect in describing past events.]

- 3 The regular Past Tense is formed by adding **-ed** [see -ED FORM]:
wait → **waited**, *ask* → **asked**, etc.

[See SPELLING for details of the spelling changes, and see PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS for how to pronounce the **-ed**.]

- 4 Many common verbs have irregular Past Tense forms. E.g. *see* /si:/ → **saw** /sə:/, *bring* /brɪŋ/ → **brought** /brɔ:t/, etc. In one case (*go* → **went**) the form changes completely. [For details, see the list of IRREGULAR VERBS in the back of this book.]

- 5 The Past Tense forms of **be**, **have**, and **do** as auxiliaries are used at the front of larger verb phrases:

	be	have	do
Past Tense:	{ was (singular) were (plural) }	had	did

E.g. Past Progressive: *was / were reading*
 Past Perfect: *had eaten*
 negative Past Simple: *did not leave*

- 5a BE is the only verb with a difference between singular and plural forms of the Past Tense: *it was*, *they were*.

6 How to use the Past Tense

[See PAST SIMPLE and PAST TIME. Also UNREAL MEANING]

past time

- 1 There are several different ways of using a verb to refer to the past
 Look up each of these for further details:

PRESENT PERFECT

PAST SIMPLE

PAST PERFECT

PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

PAST PROGRESSIVE

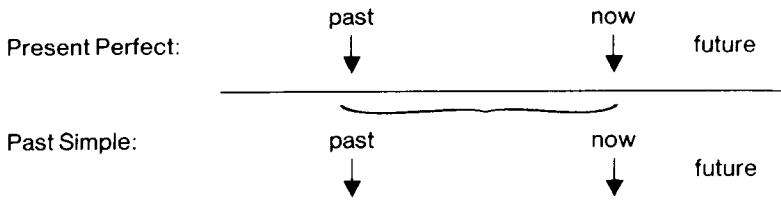
PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

(Also, for past habit, we can use USED TO or would [see WOULD 3b].)

2 The difference between the Present Perfect and the Past Simple

The most important forms for expressing past time are the Present Perfect and the Past Simple.

- 2a** In general, the Present Perfect relates a happening in the past to the present: the Past Simple relates a happening in the past to a past time:



- 2b** The Present Perfect sometimes means that a period of time continues up to the present (and will perhaps continue beyond the present into the future).

- E.g. (i) *Mr Bird has lived in this street all his life.*
(ii) *Mr Bird lived in this street all his life.*

Example (i) suggests that Mr Bird is still alive and still lives in this street.

Example (ii) suggests that he is dead.

- 2c** The Present Perfect often implies that the result of the action continues up to the present.

- E.g. (i) *Joan has broken the teapot.* (and it is still broken)
(ii) *Joan broke the teapot.* (but now it may have been mended)

- 2d** The Present Perfect often implies that the action happened recently.

- E.g. (i) *Have you had breakfast?* (= 'recently')
(ii) *Did you have breakfast this morning?*

In example (i) no time is mentioned, so we assume a recent time.

- 2e** The Present Perfect is the form we can use when we have no definite time in mind.

- E.g. (i) A: '*Have you (ever) visited a mosque?*'
(ii) B: '*Yes, I visited one when I was in Cairo, two years ago.*'

Speaker A does not have a definite time in mind, so he uses the Present Perfect. But speaker B is thinking of a particular visit, so he uses the Past Simple.

NOTE: In <U.S.> the Past Simple is used more often than in <G.B.>. It can be used in examples (i), especially in 2c, 2d, and 2e, instead of the Present Perfect.

- 2f** Choosing verb forms with adverbials [see ADVERBIAL, TIME.]

- (I) The Present Perfect goes with adverbials describing a period up to the present.

E.g. *Mike and I have been good friends* *so far.*
up to now.
since 1984.
since we met.

- (II) The Past Simple goes with adverbials naming a time in the past.

E.g. *I met his wife* *last night.*
at 8 o'clock.
in 1984.
three months ago.

- (III) Other adverbials of time or length of time can occur with both the Present Perfect and the Past Simple. But the meaning may be different.

- E.g. (i) *She has already had the baby.*
(ii) *She already had the baby.*

In example (i) **already** means 'by now'. In (ii) **already** means 'by that time' (in the past) [see ALREADY, STILL AND YET].

- 2g** But finally remember that there is sometimes little difference between the Present Perfect and the Past Simple! You can sometimes use both forms for the same situation.

3 Past in the past

To describe an event or state which is past from the viewpoint of 'another' past time, we can use the PAST PERFECT.

- E.g. *When we arrived at the bus station, our bus had already left.*

4 Future in the past

There are several verb forms we can use if we particularly want to describe a past event as seen in the future from a point further in the past:

- (I) **was / were to.** [See FUTURE 5b.]

- E.g. *Henry, who joined the navy in 1798, was to become a captain in 1808.*

Other verb forms expressing future in the past:

- (II) **was / were going to.** [See GOING TO.]

- E.g. *Everyone was excited because the new theatre was going to be opened the next evening.*

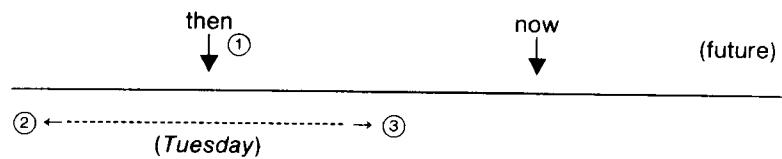
- (III) **would.**

- E.g. *The building of the bridge was an important event which would be remembered for many years to come.* <written>

- (IV) **was / were + Verb -ing.** [See PROGRESSIVE 2c, PAST PROGRESSIVE 4.]

- E.g. *Julia left the meeting early, because she was flying to Montreal the next morning.*

- 5 Here is a diagram of the Past Simple^①, the past in the past^②, and the future in the past^③:



E.g. *Julia visited^① us briefly on Tuesday: she had flown^② home from Spain the previous evening, and was going to^③ fly on to Montreal the next day.*

- 6 But note that you can repeat the Past Simple for a series of actions in the past. You do not have to use the Past Perfect, or a Future in the Past form.

E.g. *Julia flew home on Monday, visited us on Tuesday, and flew on to Montreal on Wednesday.*

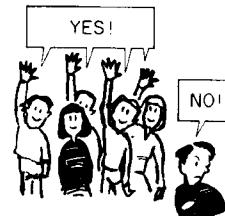
The building of the bridge was an important event which was remembered for many years.

- 7 The Future in the Past is particularly common in INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT.

E.g. *She asked the nurse if her father would soon be better. The passengers were afraid that the plane was going to crash.*

people /'pi:pəl/ (plural or singular noun)

- 1 **People** is the irregular plural form of **person**.



E.g. *Several people agree with me. Only one person disagrees with me.*

NOTE: There is also a regular plural of **person**, **persons**, which is <more formal> and less common.

E.g. *This law does not apply to young persons under the age of eighteen.*

- 2 **People** can also be a singular countable noun, meaning 'a race or nation'.

E.g. *The Chinese are a people with a long and splendid history.*

This use of **people** has a plural.

E.g. *The peoples of Africa speak many different languages.*

perception verbs (or verbs of 'sensation')

- 1 Perception verbs include **see**, **hear**, **feel**, **smell**, **taste**, **look**, **sound**, **listen**, **watch**. These verbs describe the 5 senses: sight, sound, feeling, smell, taste.

In addition, the verbs **seem** and **appear** describe what we may call 'general perception' – not particular to one sense or another.

- 2 Perception verbs take several different verb patterns depending on the meaning you want to express. Notice that patterns (I)–(V) below start with the person who perceives something; the other patterns start with the thing / person which is perceived.

- 2a Patterns showing the most important perception verbs.

- (I) NOUNP + VERB + NOUNP (event)

E.g. *I heard a noise (upstairs). I felt a stone in my shoe.
I smelled the fresh bread. I tasted it too.*

[See VERB PATTERN 1.] NOUNP = noun phrase or pronoun.

- (II) NOUNP + VERB + NOUNP (state)*

E.g. *You can see the stars. I can feel the wind.
I can smell onions. I could taste the salt in the soup.*

[See VERB PATTERN 1.]

* With **can** or **could** this verb pattern suggests a continuing state of affairs.

- (III) NOUNP + VERB + NOUNP (activity)*

E.g. *I am looking at some photographs. I am listening to the radio.
I am feeling the thickness of the paper. I am smelling these roses.*

[See VERB PATTERN 1.]

* The activity meaning is clearest when we use the PROGRESSIVE form **be** + Verb -ing. This suggests that the person is consciously doing something. The Progressive is not generally used with other patterns.

- (IV) NOUNP + VERB + NOUNP + Verb (event)

E.g. *I saw him break his leg. I heard the bomb explode.
We felt the earth shake.*

[See VERB PATTERN 18.]

- (V) NOUNP + VERB + NOUNP + Verb -ing (activity)

E.g. *I saw her talking to Ann. I heard the train leaving the station.
I could feel the airplane losing height. I could smell the wood burning.*

[See VERB PATTERN 19.]

(VI) NOUNP + VERB + ADJECTIVE (state)*

- E.g. *That church looks old.* *His voice sounded thin.*
This room smells damp. *John seems unhappy.*
The plan appears successful.

[See VERB PATTERN 2.]

* [See * under (VII)].

(VII) NOUNP + VERB + LIKE + NOUNP (state)*

- E.g. *He looks like a farmer.* *She sounds like an actress.*
This cloth feels like silk. *Her death seemed like an accident.*

* We can, if we want, add a *to*-phrase, to indicate who is the perceiving person.
E.g. *He looks like a farmer to me.* *The Church looks old to me.*

(VIII) NOUNP + VERB + AS IF / AS THOUGH* + CLAUSE (state)

- E.g. *Your hair looks as if it needs cutting.*
*It ** sounds as if you made a mistake.*
I felt as if I was dying.
*It ** { seemed } as if the plan would fail.*

* *As if* and *as though* have the same meaning of comparison here. Particularly in <U.S.>, *like* can be used instead of *as if* [see LIKE 3a].

E.g. *The water feels like it's almost freezing.* <informal>

* * As these examples show, 'empty' *it* can occur with pattern (VIII) [see IT 3, IT-PATTERNS].

NOTE (i): *Seem* and *appear* also take the following pattern [see VERB PATTERN 7]:

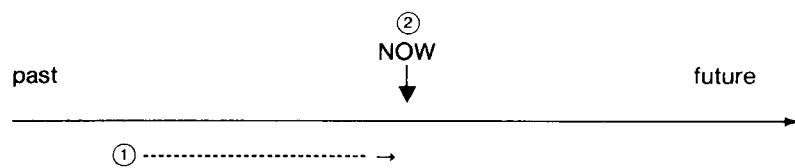
NOUN + { SEEM
APPEAR } + TO + Verb . . .

- E.g. *The guests appeared to enjoy the dinner.*
Marcia seems to have a bad cold.

NOTE (ii): [On patterns (IV) and (V) above, see VERB PHRASE, table III, * .]

perfect

- The Perfect form of the VERB PHRASE contains **have** + past participle: e.g. **has eaten**, **have worked**, **had eaten**, **'s eaten**, **'ve worked**, **'d eaten**. [See PRESENT PERFECT and PAST PERFECT for further details.]

1 The Perfect refers to something which happened before or leading up to another time or event**1a**

① Present Perfect ----- leads to ----- → ② present

E.g. '*I've been here since yesterday.*' ----- therefore ----- → '*I'm here now.*'

1b

① ----- →

① Past Perfect ----- leads to ----- → ② past

E.g. '*He'd been elected.*' ----- therefore ----- → '*He became president (in 1968).*'

[See PRESENT PERFECT, PAST PERFECT, and PAST TIME for further details.]

2 Other forms of the Perfect**2a** Perfect PROGRESSIVE forms

E.g. '*I've been reading.*' *'I'd been reading.*'

[See PRESENT PERFECT 3, 7, 8 and PAST PERFECT 4a.]

2b Perfect passive forms:

E.g. *Kim has been arrested.* *Kim had been arrested.*

[See PRESENT PERFECT 4, PAST PERFECT 4b, PASSIVE.]

2c The Perfect after a MODAL AUXILIARY:

MODAL + HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

E.g. *Must have gone*, *couldn't have left*, *will have arrived*, *might have been eaten*

[See also COULD AND MIGHT.]



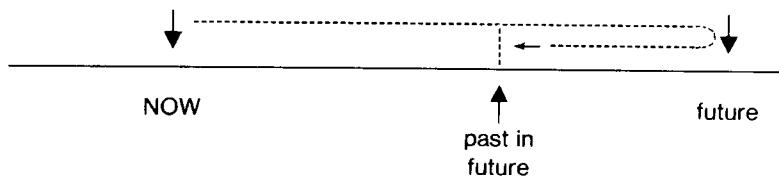
These people are talking about something in the past; but they are uncertain about it:

NOTE: Unlike the Present Perfect [see PRESENT PERFECT 5a Note], the Perfect after a modal auxiliary can go with an expression of PAST TIME, such as **yesterday**, **last week**, **a year ago**.
 E.g. **Joe is twenty years old tomorrow. So he must have been born in 1966.**
You ought to have locked the door last night.

3 Will / shall + Perfect

Will + Perfect (or **shall** + Perfect) has the meaning of 'past in the future'. I.e., it refers to something which is in the past from a viewpoint in the future.

E.g. **I am sure that the parcel will have arrived** by Tom's birthday.
Next year is our silver wedding: that means we'll have been married for 25 years.



4 We can use the perfect in TO-INFITIVE and -ING CLAUSES [see NONFINITE CLAUSE]:

TO HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE or HAVING + PAST PARTICIPLE

E.g. **I'm sorry to have caused** so much trouble.
Having seen all your films, I have been longing to meet you.

NOTE: Like the Perfect with modal auxiliaries, these infinitive and participle Perfects can go with an expression of past time [see 2: Note above].

E.g. **I'm delighted to have met** your wife **yesterday**.
Having left her native country **25 years ago**, she can no longer remember the language of her parents.

perfect continuous

This form of the verb is called Perfect Progressive in this book. [See PRESENT PERFECT 3, 7 and 8.]

permission asking and giving it

1 To ask and give permission, you can use one of these patterns

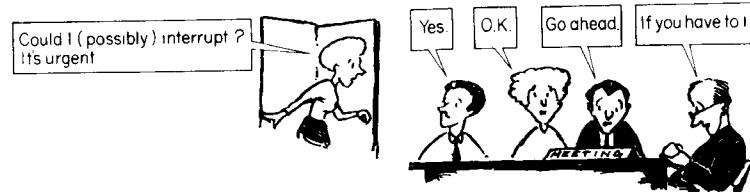
asking permission	giving permission
E.g.	Yes, that's O.K. Of course. Certainly. O.K.
<i>I wonder if . . .</i> <i>Would you mind if . . .</i> } + Past Tense <i>Do you mind if . . .</i> + Present Tense <i>Could I (possibly)</i> <i>May I</i> <i>Can I</i> } + Verb . . .	(please)?
	refusing permission <i>I'm afraid not.</i> <i>I'm sorry, you can't.</i> + explanation

2 Asking and giving permission is a matter of politeness [see POLITE AND NOT POLITE], so the forms we use vary in different situations. The following illustrations give a rough idea of how forms vary.

2a <Very polite; talking to your manager!>
 Employee: '**I wonder if you would mind if I took tomorrow morning off to go to the dentist's?**'
 Employer: '**No, I don't mind at all. That's quite all right.**'

2b <Still polite; not such a big request>
 Employee: '**Do you mind if I leave half an hour early? I need to meet my mother from hospital.**'
 Employer: '**Of course not, Emily.**'

2c <Polite but more direct>



2d <Manager talks to employee>

Manager: '**Can I see you for a moment, please?**'
Assistant: 'Yes, **of course.**'

2e <More casual>

Son: '**Can**
'Could} I borrow your car, Dad?'
Father: '**No, you can't.** I'm going to use it myself.'

NOTE: MAY is less common and more formal than CAN.

E.g.



3 Reporting permission.

E.g. Stephen **asked permission to go to the dentist.** The manager

{**gave**
refused} (him) **permission.**

Emily **asked (the manager) if she could leave early.** The manager said she **could.**

Laura {**was**
was not} **allowed to interrupt the meeting.**

person is a grammatical term. We talk of '**1st person**', '**2nd person**', and '**3rd person**'.

1 Personal pronouns change according to **person** [see PERSONAL PRONOUN 1, 5].

2 Nouns and noun phrases are always 3rd **person**.

3 Verbs are affected by the **person** of the subject. [See -S FORM.]

personal pronoun

► **Personal pronouns** are used when it is clear who or what is being talked about. For example, **He** is a personal pronoun in:

John is my best friend. He's a student.

- **Personal pronouns** are very important: you cannot omit them.
- All **personal pronouns**, except **IT**, can refer to people. (**THEY** can refer to both people and things.)
- [See HE AND SHE, IT, THEY, and ONE for further details of these pronouns.]

1 **Subject pronouns**

We use subject pronouns as the subject of the clause:

singular	plural	(person)
I * /ai/ you /ju:/ (/ju/, /jə/) ** he /hi:/ (/hi/, /h/) ** she /ʃi:/ (/ʃi/, /ʃ/) ** it /ɪt/ ***	we /wi:/ (/wi/) *** you } they /ðeɪ/	1st 2nd 3rd
one /wʌn/ <rather rare and formal>	—	3rd

* We always write **I** as a capital letter, even when it is in the middle of a sentence.

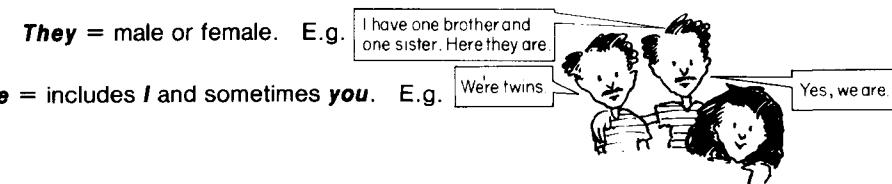
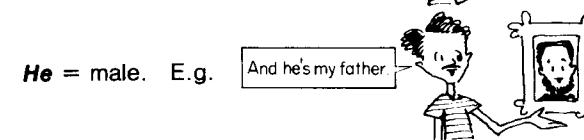
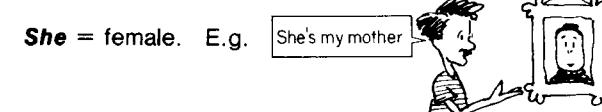
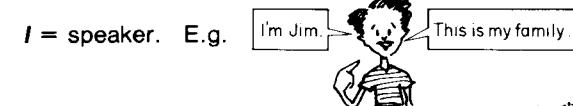
E.g. *Am I right?*

** The weak forms of pronouns are in brackets (). For **he**, **him**, etc. the form with no /h/ is usual when the pronoun is unstressed, except at the beginning of the sentence.

E.g. *'What's he/z/ doing?' 'He's /hɪz/ working.'*

*** Note **It** is pronounced /ɪt/, not /i:t/.

1a People



1b Things

It = anything that is not a person. E.g.



They = plural of *it*. E.g.



NOTE: **One** = people in general. E.g.



2 Object pronouns

We use the object pronouns in all positions apart from subject. E.g. after the verb, or after a preposition.

subject → object etc.

<i>I</i>	→ me /mi:/ (/mɪ/) *	E.g. <i>Help me</i> , please.
<i>we</i>	→ us /ʌs/ (/əs/) *	E.g. <i>Visit us</i> , soon.
<i>you</i>	→ you** /ju:/ (/ju/) *	E.g. <i>I'll drive you home</i> .
<i>he</i>	→ him /hɪm/ (/hɪm/) *	E.g. <i>Don't send him away</i> .
<i>she</i>	→ her /hɜː/ (/hɜː/) *	E.g. <i>They welcomed her</i> .
<i>it</i>	→ it** /ɪt/	E.g. <i>Can I read it</i> , please?
<i>they</i>	→ them /ðem/ (/ðəm/) *	E.g. <i>I'll phone them</i> tonight.
<i>one</i>	→ one** /wʌn/	E.g. <i>It makes one angry</i> .

* The weak forms again are in brackets ().

** *You*, *it*, and *one* are unchanged as object pronouns.

- 2a Remember: we call these pronouns object pronouns, but we use them in other positions, as well as object. A fairly safe rule is: use the subject pronoun as subject (i.e., generally, before the verb), and use the object pronoun elsewhere [but see 2d below].

- 2b In all the examples above the object pronoun acts as direct object. Now here is an example where the object pronoun follows a preposition:

The examiners were annoyed with { **me / us / him / her / them**.

2c And here is an example where the pronoun is an INDIRECT OBJECT:

Mark sent { **me / us / him / her / them** } *a Christmas card.*
 ↑ ↑
 (indirect object) (direct object)

NOTE: You can also say:
Mark sent a Christmas card to me.

- 2d There are three situations where the object pronoun is sometimes used (especially in <informal> English) although it is the subject in terms of meaning:

- (A) After THAN or AS in COMPARISONS.

E.g. *Her sister can sing better than* { **she**.
 her.

- (B) In replies without a verb.

E.g. *'I am feeling very tired.'* '**Me too.**'

- (C) After the verb BE (as COMPLEMENT).

E.g. *'Is that the Prime Minister, in the middle of the photograph?'*
 { **that is he**.
 that's him.

In all three cases, the subject pronoun is <uncommon and formal>, although some people think it is 'correct'. The object pronoun is much more common.

To be safe, use the subject pronoun + auxiliary; everyone is happy with this!

E.g. *Her sister can sing better than she can.*
 'I am feeling very tired.' 'I am, too.'

- 3 HE AND SHE, IT, and THEY are 3rd person pronouns. This means we can use these words to refer to people and things already mentioned.

E.g. *We asked the* { **girl** how old **she** was.
 boy how old **he** was.
 students how old **they** were.

We can also use these pronouns to refer to people or things in another sentence.

E.g. *The guests have arrived. Shall I show them in?*
Can you mend this chair? I broke it yesterday.
'Bella and Jenny are here.' 'What do they want?'

NOTE: Usually the pronoun (as above) follows the noun phrase (etc.) it refers to. But occasionally the noun phrase follows the pronoun. This happens when, for example, the pronoun is in a subordinate clause, and the noun phrase is in the main clause.

E.g. *When she became Queen, Elizabeth already had two children.*

4 Personal pronouns with AND

4a It is <polite> to put ***I*** and ***we*** after other noun phrases or pronouns.

E.g. ***my husband and I*** (not: ***I and my husband***)
you and I (not: ***I and you***)
them and us (not: ***us and them***)

Also, it is <polite> to put ***you*** before other noun phrases and pronouns.

E.g. ***you and your family*** (not: ***your family and you***)
you and her (not: ***her and you***)

4b When you need to refer to a phrase with ***and***, such as ***my husband and I***, follow these rules:

(I) If the phrase contains a 1st person pronoun, refer to it by ***we / us***.

E.g. ***You and I have met before, haven't we?***

(II) Otherwise, if the phrase contains ***you*** (a 2nd person pronoun), refer to it by ***you***.

E.g. ***If you and your daughter meet me tomorrow, I'll show you the sights of the city.***

(III) Otherwise, refer to it by ***they / them***.

E.g. ***Marlene and Peter live in Berlin: they know the city very well.***

5 Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns

Here, to finish, is a table of personal pronouns and their matching possessive and reflexive pronouns [see POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN; -SELF, -SELVES for further details of reflexive pronouns]:

		subject pronoun	object pronoun	possessive		reflexive pronoun
				determiner	pronoun	
singular	1st person	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>	<i>myself</i>
	2nd person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>yourself</i>
	3rd person male female neither	<i>he</i> <i>she</i> <i>it</i>	<i>him</i> <i>her</i> <i>its</i>	<i>his</i> <i>her</i> *	<i>his</i> <i>hers</i> *	<i>himself</i> <i>herself</i> <i>itself</i>
plural (general)	1st person	<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>ourselves</i>
	2nd person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>yourselves</i>
	3rd person	<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>themselves</i>
	3rd person (singular) <rather rare and formal>	<i>one</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>one's</i>	*	<i>oneself</i>

* There is normally no possessive pronoun for ***it*** or for ***one***.

phrasal-prepositional verb

► **Phrasal-prepositional verbs** are quite common in <informal, spoken English>.

► They are idioms with the form:

VERB + ADVERB + PREPOSITION

E.g. ***put up with*** (= 'tolerate')

► They are partly PHRASAL VERBS and partly PREPOSITIONAL VERBS.

► **Phrasal-prepositional verbs** can often be replaced by a single-word verb in <more formal> English. In this, they are like phrasal verbs.

1 Here are some examples.

E.g. ***I have to catch up on my reading.***

I've got a bad cold. You'd better keep away from me. ('avoid')

We've got to face up to our problems. ('confront')

Children ought to look up to their teachers. ('respect')

We're looking forward to meeting you again.

Also:

catch up with = 'overtake'

cut down on = 'reduce'

stand up for = 'defend'

keep up with

run away with

get away with

phrasal verb

► A **phrasal verb** consists of verb + adverb (e.g. ***give up***). The two words form an idiom: it is called a **phrasal verb** only if the adverb changes the meaning of the verb.

► English has many **phrasal verbs**: you will find their meanings in a dictionary.

► There are two kinds of **phrasal verb**: Group A has no OBJECT, and Group B has an object [see 4, 5 below].

1 Phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs

You can add prepositions and adverbs to verbs in three different ways:

(I) prepositional verb:

VERB + PREPOSITION + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. ***Listen to the radio.***

The purpose of the preposition is to link the noun phrase to the verb.

(II) phrasal verb:

VERB + ADVERB

E.g. *Carry on.*

The purpose of the adverb is to change the meaning of the verb [see 2 below].

(III) PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERB:

VERB + ADVERB + PREPOSITION + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. *Put up with the noise.*

The purpose of the adverb is to change the meaning of the verb and the purpose of the preposition is to link the noun phrase to the verb (+ adverb). (*Put up with* means 'tolerate').

2 Phrasal verbs are common in <informal> English

We can often replace them with one word, which is more <formal>.

E.g. *The oil tank blew up.* (= 'exploded')

We decided to carry on. (= 'continue')

The two girls fell out. (= { 'quarreled' <U.S.> } { 'quarrelled' <G.B.> })

Don't give away any information. (= 'reveal')

Don't leave out anything important. (= 'omit')

He's turned down an excellent job. (= 'refused')

3 What words can be used in phrasal verbs?

The verb is usually a common English verb.

E.g. **ask come get keep make set**
be fall give let put take
break find go look run turn

The adverb is usually an adverb of place.

E.g. **about* around* by* in* out under***
across* away down* off* over* up*
along* back forward on* through*

* These words can also be prepositions, so it is possible to confuse them with the second word of a prepositional verb [see 5b below].

4 Group A: phrasal verbs without an object

These are easy: they are like intransitive verbs [see VERB PATTERN 0]. Some examples are,

E.g. *My car has broken 'down.'* ** (= 'stopped working')

Lydia turned 'up' at the last moment. (= 'arrived')

The children are growing 'up' fast. (= 'becoming adults')

Look 'out!' There's someone coming. (a warning)

Go 'on!' We're all listening. (= 'continue what you were saying')

** Unlike prepositions, adverbs are usually stressed. This is why they have a stress mark in the examples. [See STRESS.]

NOTE: Many IMPERATIVES have the pattern of Group A.

E.g. *Wake up, Get up, Come in, Sit down, Stand up, Shut up, Go away, Come on, Watch out, etc.*

5 Group B: phrasal verbs with an object

E.g. *She's bringing up three children.* (= 'rearing')

Try to find out whether he's coming. (= 'discover')

I'll fix up the meeting (tomorrow). (= 'arrange')

Don't give away all my secrets. (= 'reveal')

You should give up smoking cigarettes. (= 'stop')

Can you fill { in out } this form, please. (= 'complete')

5a If the object is a noun phrase, you can move the adverb after it.

E.g. *She brought **up** the children **up**.*



If the object is a personal pronoun, it **must** come before the adverb.

E.g. *She brought them **up**.*

This means that the phrasal verb is separated into two parts. Compare the following patterns.

(i) VERB + ADVERB + OBJECT

E.g. *Please put on { the light. }*

(ii) VERB + OBJECT + ADVERB

E.g. *Please put { the light } on.*

Compare the order of words:

'Have you **looked up** those words in the dictionary?'

'Yes, I **looked them up** last night.'

'Have they **put off** the meeting?' (= 'postponed')

'Yes, they've **put it off** until next month.'

'Has the army **taken over** the airport?'

'No, they haven't **taken it over** yet.'

5b Group B phrasal verbs often look like prepositional verbs, i.e. verb + preposition. But we can see they are different when we use a pronoun as an object.

E.g. phrasal verb:

I looked up the word.

→ *I looked { the word } up.*

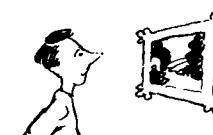


LOOK IT UP

E.g. prepositional verb:

I looked at the painting.

→ *{ I looked it at. }*



LOOK AT IT

360 phrasal verb

Sometimes, also, a **phrasal verb** uses the same words as a verb + preposition.

phrasal verb (idiom):

E.g. *He ran down his own wife.* (= 'criticised her')
→ *He ran her down.*

but:

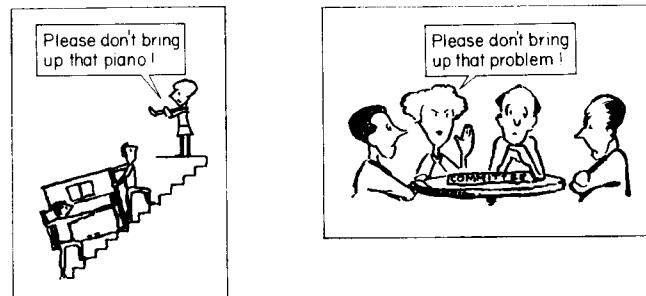
prepositional verb (not an idiom):

E.g. *He ran down the hill.*
→ *He ran down it.*



NOTE: There is sometimes also a difference between a literal meaning and an idiomatic meaning.

E.g.



bring up a piano (= 'carry it up')

bring up a problem (= 'introduce it, as a topic for discussion')

(i) *Bill and Jean fell out.*



(ii) *Bill and Jean fell out.* (= 'quarrelled')

phrase

- A **phrase** is a unit of grammar.
- We build clauses and sentences out of **phrases**.
- A **phrase** may consist of one word or more than one word.

1 There are 5 kinds of phrase in English.

- (A) A **noun phrase** generally has a noun (or pronoun) as its main word.
- (B) A **verb phrase** generally has a main verb as its main word.
- (C) A **prepositional phrase** has a preposition as its first word.
- (D) An **adjective phrase** has an adjective as its main word.
- (E) An **adverb phrase** has an adverb as its main word.

1a [See separate entries for NOUN PHRASE, VERB PHRASE, and PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE for the details of these kinds of phrase. Here we give just a general idea of how phrases are built.]

2 It is useful to call the main word (which normally has to be there) the **headword**, and the words which can be added to it **modifiers** [see MODIFIER AND HEADWORD]. Modifiers give more information about a headword.

3 The structure of phrase types: some examples**3a Noun phrases:**

noun phrase			
determiner(s)	modifier(s)	headword	modifier(s)
		him	
		Paula	
		wedding	
Alice's		boy	with the long hair
that		days	we had last summer
all the	nice warm expensive	clothes	
		milk	in bottles
my	favourite TV	programme	

3b Verb phrases:

verb phrase		
auxiliary / auxiliaries	main verb	
The door {	opened	
	was	opening
	has been	opened
	must have been	opened

3c Prepositional phrases:

prepositional phrase		
preposition	noun phrase	
on	<i>the telephone</i>	
at	<i>six o'clock</i>	
from	<i>a town in northern France</i>	
for	<i>dinner</i>	

I called her

3d Adjective phrases:

adjective phrase		
modifier(s)	adjective	modifier(s)
	<i>sad</i>	
	<i>full</i>	<i>of holes</i>
<i>It is</i>	<i>impossible</i>	
<i>almost</i>	<i>easy</i>	
<i>too</i>	<i>colder</i>	
<i>much</i>		<i>than last winter</i>

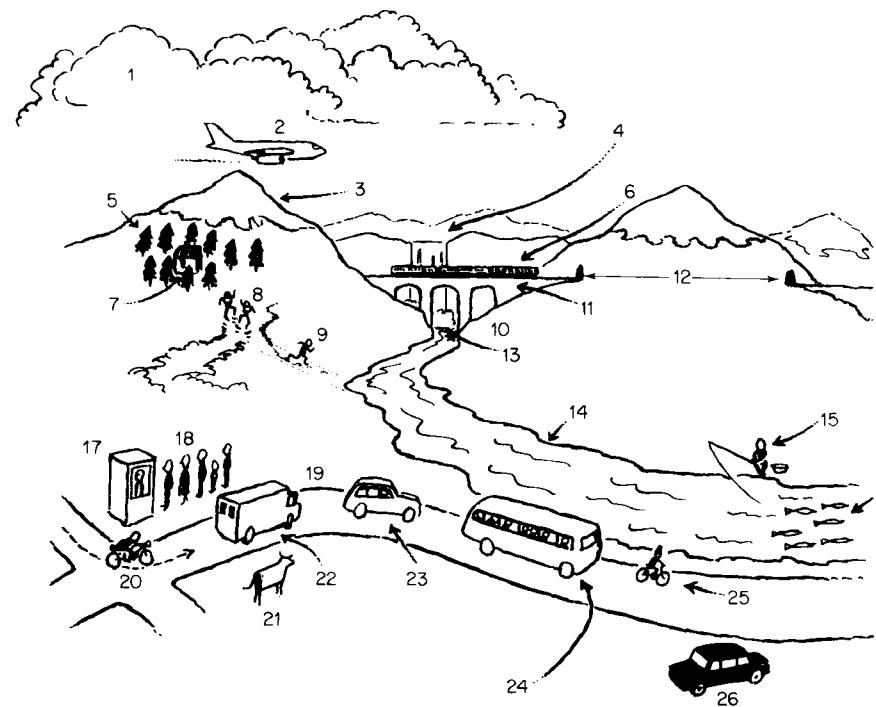
It is

3e Adverb phrases:

adverb phrase		
modifier(s)	adverb	modifier(s)
	<i>regularly</i>	
	<i>often</i>	
<i>He comes here</i>	<i>later</i>	
<i>quite</i>	<i>willingly</i>	
<i>much</i>	<i>quickly</i>	
<i>less</i>		<i>than he used to</i>
<i>as</i>		<i>as possible</i>

He comes here

river. 16. There are a lot of fish *in* the river. 17. There's a telephone *at* the crossroads. 18. There is a line of people *outside* the phone box. 19. The traffic is going *along* the road. 20. The motorbike is going *(a)round* the corner. 21. The cow is *opposite* the phone box. 22. The van is driving *past* the cow. 23. The car is *behind* the bus and *in front of* the van. 24. There are lots of people *inside* the bus. 25. The cyclist is *in front of* the bus. 26. The car is parked *off* the road.



place [See also MOTION and DISTANCE]

1 Prepositions of place

- E.g. 1. The clouds are **above** the plane. 2. The plane is **in** the sky.
 3. There is snow **on top of** the mountain. 4. There is a waterfall **beyond** the bridge. 5. Trees grow **below** the snowline. 6. The train is **on** the bridge. 7. There is a hut **among** the trees. 8. Two people are climbing **up** the mountain. 9. One person is coming **down** the path. 10. The valley lies **between** two mountains.
 11. The bridge stretches **across** the valley. 12. The tunnel goes **through** the mountain. 13. The river flows **under** the bridge.
 14. Here it runs **beside** the road. 15. A fisherman is sitting **by** the

Place expressions answer the question: *Where?*

2 At, on, and in are three important prepositions of place

- E.g. 'Where were you last night?' 'At home **in** bed.'
 'Where's Mary?' 'She's over there **on** the other side of the street.'
 'Where's your bicycle?' 'It's **in** the street outside the house.'

- 2a** When do you use **at**? With places, when you are not interested in exact position, but in general location.
at home, **at school**, **at the airport**,
at the shops, **at the door**, **at the station**,
at the bus stop, **at a hotel**.



- 2b** When do you use **on**? When you are talking about 'on top of', 'on a surface', 'on a line'.
on a mountain, **on the roof**, **on the bus**,
on the table, **on the wall**, **on the coast**.



- 2c** When do you use **in**? When you mean 'within' or 'enclosed by' an area of a space.
in this box, **in the water**, **in the town**,
in the garden, **in the sky**, **in that drawer**,
in the kitchen.

NOTE (i): Different prepositions with the same noun suggest different 'viewpoints'.

- E.g. $\begin{cases} \text{at the hotel} (= \text{'the hotel as a general location'}) \\ \text{in the hotel} (= \text{'inside the hotel as a building'}) \\ \text{on the ground} (= \text{'on the surface of the ground'}) \\ \text{in the ground} (= \text{'under the surface'}) \\ \text{at the door} (= \text{'general location'}) \\ \text{on the door} (= \text{'on the surface of the door'}) \end{cases}$

NOTE (ii): The opposite of **at** is **away from**.

The opposite of **on** is **off**.

The opposite of **in** is **out of**.

- E.g. *Jim has been away from school for several days.* ('not at')
The island is a mile off the coast. ('not on')
I have been out of hospital for a week. ('not in')

3 Place adverbs

There are quite a few place adverbs. The following words and parts of words in **bold** have separate entries; look them up for further details:

here, **there**, **somewhere**, **anywhere**, **everywhere**, **nowhere**, **upstairs**.

- 3a** In addition, place prepositions (except for AT, BETWEEN AND AMONG) become place adverbs when no noun phrase follows them.

- E.g. (i) *He got off the bus.* → *He got off.*
(ii) *She climbed up the hill.* → *She climbed up.*
(iii) *They swam across the water.* → *They swam across.*

We use the adverb when it is clear what noun phrase ought to follow.

- E.g. *They came to a river. There was no boat, so they swam across.*
('across the river')

NOTE (i): Complex prepositions like **away from**, **on top of**, and **out of** have similar adverbs:
away from → **away** **on top of** → **on top** **out of** → **out**
E.g. *He ran away from home.* ~ *He ran away.*

NOTE (ii): Prepositional phrases of place are used as:

(A) ADVERBIALS.
E.g. *She works in our office.* (*In our office* tells you more about where she works.)

(B) MODIFIERS.
E.g. *The girl in our office likes her new computer.* (*In our office* tells you more about the *girl* (noun).)

please /pli:/z/ (adverb or verb)

The adverb **please** is used to make a <polite> request. [See POLITE AND NOT POLITE 2b.]

pluperfect

This is another term for the Past Perfect form of the verb.

plural

- **Plural** is the grammatical term for describing *more than one person or thing*. It is the opposite of SINGULAR.
- Most nouns, pronouns, and verbs have **plural** forms.

1	singular	plural
	one spoon 	two spoons

2 Nouns

The nouns which have a plural form are called COUNTABLE NOUNS. Most nouns are countable.

- 2a** The regular plural form of a noun adds **-s** (or **-es**) to the singular.

- E.g. *week* → *weeks* *cup* → *cups* *plan* → *plans*
law → *laws* *uncle* → *uncles* *toy* → *toys*

Most nouns add **-s**, but if the noun already ends in **-s** or **-z**, **-x**, **-ch**, **-sh**, it adds **-es**.

- E.g. *bus* → *buses* *buzz* → *buzzes* *box* → *boxes*
peach → *peaches* *bush* → *bushes*

NOTE (i): [On other spelling changes in forming the plural, see SPELLING.]

NOTE (ii): [On how to pronounce the **-es** ending, see PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS 2.]

- 2b** Most nouns form their plural with **-es**. But a small number of nouns have a special plural form.

E.g. **man** → **men** **child** → **children** **foot** → **feet**

[See IRREGULAR PLURAL for details of these special plural forms.]

3 Pronouns and verbs

[On the plural pronoun forms, see PERSONAL PRONOUNS. On the plural verb form, see AGREEMENT 1.]

polite and not polite

[See also APOLOGIES, PARDON, SORRY AND EXCUSE ME, PERMISSION, REQUESTS, THANKING]

- Being **polite** means showing consideration for the feelings or wishes of others.
- Sometimes we have to be more **polite** than at other times.
- In general, the people we wish to be more **polite** to are 'important' people or strangers. [See 2c below.]
- The usual rule is: 'The more words you use, the more **polite** you are!'

- 1** This is how the sentence gets more polite, the more words you use.

E.g. Order:	The door!
Imperative:	Close the door.
Imperative + please:	Please close the door.
Question:	Can you (please) close the door?
Question + Explanation:	Can you close the door, please? It's rather cold.
Unreal past forms:	Could you close the door please?
Or:	Would you mind closing the door, please?
Extra polite:	I wonder if you'd mind closing the door, please?

- 1a** The above gives a general guide to how to be polite. But remember that being polite is different in different countries. E.g. the 'super polite' request forms you hear in Britain are often felt to be too polite in the U.S.A. and in other countries. One country tends to use politeness in one way, and another in another.

- 2** You decide how polite you are going to be, according to how close you are to the person you are talking to.

- 2a** It isn't necessary to be so very polite to friends, equals, or members of your family, unless they are old. (If you are too polite to them, they will think you are joking, or worse!)

Here is an example: you want someone to close the door. If it's a very good friend or member of the family you will probably use the IMPERATIVE.

E.g. **Close the door.**

(A rising tone at the end makes it less like a command [see INTONATION].)

- 2b** To make it a little more polite, you can add **please**.

E.g. '**Close the door, please.**' '**Okay.**'

As well as saying **please**, you can offer an explanation of your request.

E.g. '**It's a bit cold in here.** { **Can**
 Could
 Would } **you close the door?**'
'All right.'

- 2c** Usually you will want to be polite to people such as your boss, your bank manager, your teacher. Also, to people you don't know well, to old people, etc.

- 2d** If you want to be very polite, e.g. in talking to a stranger, you can say.

E.g. '**Would you mind closing** { **the door, please?** } '**'Yes, certainly.'**'
'Could you possibly close { **the door,** }

- 2e** Another way to be polite is to give a hint, so that the other person can guess what you want!

E.g. '**It's rather cold in here, isn't it?**' '**'Oh, sorry! Do you want me to close the door?' 'Yes, please.'**'

- 3** In English, it is polite to:

- Greet people when you see them, e.g. **Good morning** [see GREETINGS]
- Talk about **them** first. E.g. **How are you?**
- Use **please** and **thank you**.
- Say **sorry** if you do anything wrong, however small.
- Say **excuse me** if you want to ask someone a question in the street.

- 4** In this book, we mark politeness wherever we can by signs like this:
<polite>, <more polite>, <rather polite>, etc.

positive

This is a grammatical term for 'the opposite of negative.'

E.g. Question: '**Do you like dogs?**'

Answer: { Positive Statement: '**Yes, I like dogs.**'
 Negative Statement: '**No, I don't like dogs.**' }

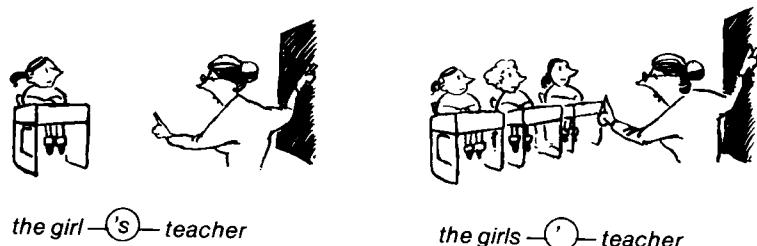
[See NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES, and NOT for fuller details.]

possessive [See also POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN]

- Nouns have a **possessive** form, for which we add -'s (singular) or -' (plural) to the regular form of the noun.
E.g. *girl* → *girl's*, *girls* → *girls'*
- The **possessive** form usually precedes another noun.
E.g. *the girl's toys*, *the girls' teacher*
- The meaning of the **possessive** pattern X's Y is typically: { 'the Y belonging to X'
'the Y of X'
'the Y which has some special relation to X'.

1 An example of the possessive

the girl's teacher (= 'the teacher {of
who teaches} the girl')
the girls' teacher (= 'the teacher who teaches the girls')



2 How to write and pronounce the possessive

2a The possessive form of regular nouns:

	< written >		< spoken >	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
ordinary noun:	boy	boys	/bɔɪ/	/bɔɪz/
possessive noun:	boy's	boys'		/bɔɪz/

Note that we write the plural and possessive forms differently, but we pronounce them the same. The possessive, like the plural, is pronounced with -/s/, -/z/, or -/iz/, according to the normal rule for pronunciation of endings. [See PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS 2].

2b The possessive form of plural nouns which do not have -s added:

[See IRREGULAR PLURAL.]	< written >		< spoken >	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
ordinary noun	child	children	/tʃaɪld/	/tʃɪldrən/
possessive noun	child's	children's	/tʃaɪldz/	/tʃɪldrənz/

In the plural, we add 's to the noun, just as in the singular.

E.g. *men* → *men's clothing*, *women* → *women's rights*, *people* → *some people's opinions*.

NOTE: Occasionally the possessive just spelled ' can be added to a singular noun ending in -s. This can happen with classical or religious names.

E.g. *Socrates' death* *St (= saint) James' church*.

But with other names, it is usual to add 's (-/iz/) after -s.

E.g. *Mrs Jones's house* *Dennis's girlfriend*.

3 How possessives occur with phrases and clauses

3a Possessives are basically like determiners. Compare:

{ John's } book	{ women's } political views
{ this }	{ some }
{ man's } future	{ China's }
{ the }	{ a }

new economic policy

3b The possessive noun can itself become the main word (headword) of a phrase. Then it can have determiners and modifiers before it:

X's	Y
(i) <i>My friend's</i>	<i>new bicycle</i>
(ii) <i>Many people's</i>	<i>happiness</i>
(iii) <i>The youngest girls'</i>	<i>teachers</i>
(iv) <i>Every actor's</i>	<i>job</i>
(v) <i>The French team's</i>	<i>recent successes</i>
	<i>cost \$150.</i>
	<i>depends on your decision.</i>
	<i>have not been invited.</i>
	<i>is to please the audience.</i>
	<i>have been widely reported.</i>

Also: *this country's economy*, *our plane's crew*.

NOTE: We see above that X's in the possessive pattern can be several words. One result of this is that the 's can be added to a word which is not the main noun describing the 'possessor'.

E.g. *The President of Mexico's arrival* (= 'the Mexican President's arrival')

In some cases, the word ending 's is not even a noun.

E.g. *someone else's ticket* (= 'the ticket belonging to someone else')
in an hour or so's time (= 'in about an hour's time')

4 Possessives compared with **of**-phrases

The possessive pattern **X's Y** often has the same meaning as the **of** pattern **the Y of X** [see OF 2]. For example, (ii), (iii) and (iv) in 3b can be replaced by

- E.g. (ii) *the happiness of many people*
- (iii) *the teachers of the youngest girls*
- (iv) *the job of every actor*

The rule is:

$$\mathbf{X's Y = the Y of X}$$

E.g. *the ship's side = the side of the ship*

But this rule does not always work, because we prefer the possessive pattern or the **of** pattern in different conditions. So when do we choose the possessive?

In general, it is useful to follow this advice: prefer the possessive pattern **X's Y** in the following conditions. (If one or more of conditions I–IV do not apply, preference for '**'s**' will be weaker.)

(I) when **X** describes a person rather than a thing*.

E.g. *Laura's face, my uncle's return, Jim's boss*

* We can, if we like, allow 'people' (rather than 'things') to include not only humans, but (a) animals, and (b) groups of humans (e.g. *government, committee, audience*): *a bird's tail, the government's policy*.

(II) when **X's Y** describes a relation of possession (i.e. **X** has or possesses **Y**).

E.g. *my aunt's furniture, a monkey's brain
the doctor's house, the club's members*

(III) when **X's Y** describes the relation of a subject to a verb.

E.g. *the train's arrival* (↔ 'the train arrived')
the company's development (↔ 'the company developed')

NOTE: Notice that in the longer pattern **X's Y of Z**, **X** is the subject of the 'verb' expressed in **Y**, and **Z** is its object.

E.g. *Newton's discovery of the laws of motion* (= 'Newton discovered the laws of motion')
Liverpool's defeat of Manchester United (= 'Liverpool defeated Manchester United')

(IV) when, in **X's Y**, **X** is much shorter than **Y** (i.e. contains many fewer words than **Y**).

E.g. *the town's increasing problems of crime and violence.*



5 The possessive with place and time nouns

For the possessive with place and time nouns there is no corresponding **of**-phrase.

5a Place noun + '**'s**' + superlative or ordinal.

E.g. *The world's tallest building* (= 'the tallest building **in** the world.')
Africa's first railway (= 'the first railway **in** Africa.')

5b Time noun + '**'s**'.

E.g. *Next Friday's meeting*, (= 'the meeting next Friday')
this year's fruit crop.

6 Two special patterns with the possessive

6a Sometimes we use both the possessive and the **of** pattern to express possession. Thus we have a 'mixed' pattern **Y of X's**.

E.g. *a friend of my mother's some books of James's*

We use this mixed pattern particularly when **X** is a person, when **Y** has an indefinite meaning, and when **Y** is something belonging to **X**.

6b Sometimes we omit altogether the noun that would follow the possessive.

E.g. *My house is older than Chris's.* (= 'Chris's house')
'Whose are these books?'
'They're my sister's.' ('my sister's books')

This is possible when the meaning of **Y** in **X's Y** is obvious from the situation.

NOTE: The possessive without a following noun can also describe (i) someone's home, or (ii) someone's place of work.

E.g. (i) *We're spending a few days at {Peter's.
the Smiths'.*
(i.e. 'at his / their house')
(ii) *I have to go to the {baker's.
dentist's.* (= 'baker's shop')
 (= 'dentist's surgery')

possessive determiner and possessive pronoun

1 The possessive forms of personal pronouns

	(I)	(you)	(he)	(she)	(it)	(we)	(they)
determiner: pronoun:	<i>my mine</i>	<i>your yours</i>	<i>his his</i>	<i>her hers</i>	<i>its -</i>	<i>our ours</i>	<i>their theirs</i>

[See PERSONAL PRONOUN.]

Personal pronouns have two possessive forms.

1a We call the first possessive form a possessive determiner, because it occurs before a noun, in the position of a word such as **the** or **a(n)**.

E.g. *my cup* (Compare: *John's cup* [see POSSESSIVE 3.])

- 1b** We call the second possessive form a possessive pronoun, because it can stand alone as subject, object, etc, as pronouns can.

E.g. *This cup is mine.*

(Compare: *This cup is John's.* [See POSSESSIVE 6.])

2 What is the difference between determiners and pronouns?

- 2a** Notice the different positions of the determiner and pronoun forms in the following.

E.g. 'Have you seen **my** tennis racket?' (determiner)

'No. This one is **mine**.' (pronoun)

'You should improve **your** handwriting.' (determiner)

'Well, it's better than **yours**!' (pronoun)

The possessive determiner is usually not stressed, and the possessive pronoun is always stressed.

- 2b** Add **own** to a possessive determiner to give it emphasis.

E.g. *Malcolm always cooks his own dinner.*

(Compare -SELF pronouns: = 'cooks dinner for **himself**.')

E.g. 'Do you buy **your** vegetables at the market?' 'No, we grow them in **our own** garden.'

We can also omit the noun after **own**.

E.g. 'Do you want to borrow **my** typewriter?' 'No, thanks. I'll use **my own**.'
(= 'my own typewriter.')

Notice the pattern with **of** + possessive + **own**.

E.g. *She keeps wanting to use my telephone. I wish she would get { a telephone } **of her own**.*

- 3** The possessive forms can either refer back to the subject, or to someone / something else. The situation makes it clear.

E.g. 'Myra lent Peter **her** watch.' 'Why did Peter want to borrow **her** watch?' 'Because someone else had borrowed **his**.'

- 3a** Notice that when a person is the subject, we use **his**, **her**, etc. in referring to parts of that person's body.

E.g. (i) *My brother broke **his** leg skiing.*

(ii) *Maria is drying **her** hair.*

- 3b** But when the person is the object, and the part of the body follows the object, we use **the**.

E.g. *She kissed **her** mother on **the** cheek.*

*William banged **himself** on **the** head.*

*We all gave **the** winners a pat on **the** back.*

possibility

1 Different ways of expressing possibility.

E.g. **can could may perhaps possibly**
can't couldn't may not maybe It's (just*) possible
that...

AIRPORT ARRIVALS



[See CAN, COULD AND MIGHT, MAY.]

For example:

The people in the above example could also have said:

E.g. **Could** they have had an accident, do you think?
They **couldn't** (**possibly**) * have forgotten about us, surely?
They { **may** } (**well**) ** have decided to catch the next plane.

Maybe their car broke down. < especially U.S. >

Can, **can't** and **could** (past time) also indicate general possibility.

E.g. *Odd things **can** happen at airports, **can't** they?*
*In the old days, you **could** depend on trains. But these days you **can't** rely on air travel, **can** you?*

* **Possibly** and **just** < G.B. > make the possibility weaker.

* * **Well** makes the possibility stronger.

prefixes

- A **prefix** is an element which we place at the front of a word.
- In English, **prefixes** add something to the meaning of a word, but they do not usually change its word class. [Contrast SUFFIXES.]

Common prefixes are.

E.g. a-	ahead, afloat	[see A-WORDS]
anti-	antisocial, anti-war	= 'against'
arch-	archenemy, archduke	= 'supreme, highest'
bi-	bicycle, biplane	= 'two'
co-	cooperate, copilot	= 'with'
de-	decrease, descend	= 'down' or 'negative'
dis-	disconnect, disown	= 'do the opposite of'
ex-	export¹, ex-president²	= 'out of', ² 'former'
fore-	foreground¹, foretell²	= 'in front of', ² 'before'
in-	income¹, incomplete²	= 'in', ² 'not'
inter-	international	= 'between or among'
mal-	malformed, maltreat	= 'badly'
mis-	mishear, mislead	= 'wrongly'
mono-	monorail, monosyllabic	= 'one'
multi-	multi-purpose, multiracial	= 'many'
non-	nonsense, non-smoker	= 'not'
out-	outcast¹, outnumber²	= 'out', ² 'more than'
over-	overeat, overwork	= 'too much'
post-	postpone, post-war	= 'after'
pre-	preface, pre-war	= 'before'
pro-	provide, pro-communist	= 'for, on behalf of'
re-	return, re-use, repay	= 'back, again'
sub-	subconscious, subdivide	= 'under, below'
super-	supermarket, superman	= 'higher, superior'
trans-	transatlantic, transact	= 'across'
un-	unfair¹, untie²	= 'negative', ² 'opposite to'
under-	undercooked, underpaid	= 'too little, not enough'

preposition [See also PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE]

- 1 A preposition is a word which typically goes before a NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN.

E.g. *of the world, with my best friend, by us, at a hotel*

2 Common prepositions

about	at	down	near	past	to
above	before	for	of	per	under
across	below	from	off	since	until
after	beside	in	on	till	up
along	between	into	onto	than	with
around	but	like	over	through	without
as	by				

[Look these words up under their own entries.]

- 2a Many less common prepositions are written as two or three words. We call these complex prepositions.

E.g. *because of, instead of, other than, out of, up to, in accordance with, on top of, with reference to.*

[Look these up under their first word: we treat them as IDIOMS.]

3 Position

As its name tells us, a preposition is normally 'placed before' a noun phrase or some other element. The preposition + noun phrase together form a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

- 3a Sometimes the preposition goes at the end of a clause or sentence.

Social usage: The preposition at the end is common in <speech> and <informal writing>. But some people regard it as 'more correct' to put the preposition at the front of the clause. This is possible for (I) and (II) in 3b below.

E.g. (I) **For whom is she working?** <formal>

(II) **The town in which he was born.** <rather formal>

But the preposition at the front is common only in <formal writing>. In general, do not be afraid to put the preposition at the end.

3b Position of prepositions in different kinds of sentence:

In (I)–(VIII) below, the first example in each section shows the preposition at the end of the sentence, and the second example shows the preposition in its usual position, at the front of its noun phrase.

(I) QUESTION: **Who is she working for?** *She's working for a friend.*

(II) RELATIVE CLAUSE: **the town (that) he was born in.** *He was born in the town of Omsk.*

(III) INDIRECT QUESTION: **I wonder which team he plays for.** *He plays for the home team.*

(IV) EXCLAMATION: **What a terrible situation she's in!** *She's in a terrible situation.*

(V) PASSIVE: **He's being well looked after.** *They're looking after him well.*

(VI) COMPARATIVE: **She's been to more countries than I've been to.** *I've been to fewer countries.*

(VII) INFINITIVE: **This pen is difficult to write with.** *It's difficult to write with this pen.*

(VIII) EMPHATIC WORD ORDER: **Some games I'm quite good at . . . but I'm hopeless at golf.**

prepositional adverb

- Many word forms which are prepositions are also adverbs. We call them **prepositional adverbs**. Most of them are adverbs of place.

1 A list of common prepositional adverbs.

about	around	beyond	near	past	under
above	before	by	on	round	up
across	behind	down	opposite	since	within
after	below	in	outside	through	without
along	between	inside	over	throughout	

[Look up these words (except for *beyond*, *inside*, and *outside*) in their separate entries.]

2 Prepositions are usually in front of a noun phrase, whereas prepositional adverbs usually stand alone, without a following noun phrase. Compare.

E.g. (i) preposition: *He stayed in the house.*

adverb: *He stayed in.*

(ii) preposition: *The guests were standing around the room.*

adverb: *The guests were standing around.*

2a Prepositional adverbs are always stressed. Prepositions are frequently unstressed.

prepositional phrase

[See also PREPOSITION, PHRASE.]

- A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words composed of a preposition and the word(s) which follow(s) it (normally a noun phrase).

- Like ADVERBS, **prepositional phrases** express many different meanings, such as PLACE, TIME, REASON.

E.g. *We must discuss the matter* {**in private**. (prepositional phrase)
privately. (adverb)}

- Like adverbs, **prepositional phrases** are often optional parts of a sentence: we can omit them if we like.

1 Forms of prepositional phrases

most common:

PREPOSITION + { (i) NOUN PHRASE
(ii) PRONOUN}

less common:

PREPOSITION + { (iii) -ING CLAUSE
(iv) WH- CLAUSE
(v) ADVERB

1a Examples:

- (i) *Here's a letter from my son Philip.*
- (ii) *Come with me, please.*
- (iii) *This is an oven for baking bread.*
- (iv) *I was surprised at what they said.*
- (v) *From here, the road is very rough.*

2 Positions of prepositional phrases in the sentence

Prepositional phrases have two main roles in sentences:

- (I) They can be ADVERBIALS.

E.g. *On Friday, the Prime Minister will make a press statement.* (Front position)

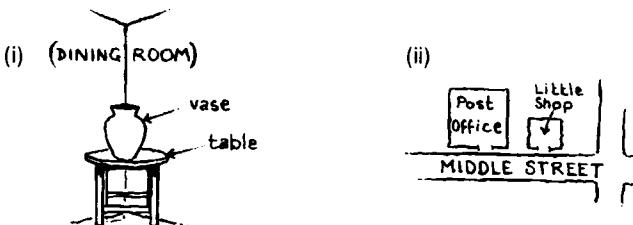
The castle is closed for urgent repairs. (End position)

This year's figures, to everyone's surprise, showed a loss of \$500 million. (Middle position)

- (II) They can be MODIFIERS after a noun.

E.g. *a loss of \$500 million,* *the meeting on Friday,*
the smile on her face, *his marriage to a princess*

2a One prepositional phrase can contain other prepositional phrases.



E.g. (i) 'Where did you get that vase (on the table (in the corner (of the dining room)))?)?

(ii) 'I bought it (at a little shop (near the post office (in Middle Street))).'

3 A preposition sometimes follows a verb or an adjective, and forms an IDIOM with it.

(I) VERB + PREPOSITION

E.g. *Look at that picture.*

I approve of what he said.

[See PREPOSITIONAL VERB.]

(II) ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION

E.g. *I'm not fond of tennis.*
She's afraid of losing money.

[See ADJECTIVE PATTERNS.]

prepositional verb

- 1 We use the term prepositional verb for an IDIOM made up of verb + preposition.

E.g. add to	believe in	insist on	pay for
agree with	belong to	listen to	pray for
aim at / for	call for / on	live on	refer to
allow for	care for	long for	rely on
apply for	consent to	look after	run for
approve of	deal with	look at	stand for
ask for	decide on	look for	take after / to
attend to	hope for	object to	wish for

- 2 The verb and preposition express a single idea.

E.g. *She takes after her grandmother.* (= 'resembles')
We've asked for help. (= 'requested')
I have to look after the house. (= 'take care of')
I'm looking for my keys. Have you seen them? (= 'seeking')

- 3 The verb and preposition are often together at the end of a sentence [see PREPOSITION 3].

E.g. 'What are you **listening to**?' 'I'm **listening to** the news.'
*I don't know who this book **belongs to**.*
*We scarcely have enough to **live on**.*
*Have the new chairs been **paid for**?*

It is sometimes awkward or impossible to separate the preposition from the verb.

E.g. *To what are you listening?*
I don't know to whom this book belongs.

- 4 It is important to distinguish prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs such as **look up**. [See PHRASAL VERB 1, 5b.]

present participle

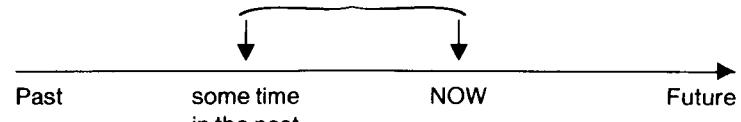
This term is used in some grammars for the **-ing** participle, or **-ing** form.

E.g. 'What are you **doing**?' 'I'm **making** tea.'

[See PARTICIPLE, -ING FORM.]

present perfect

- The **Present Perfect** form of the verb phrase contains **has** or **have** + past participle.
- See PAST TIME for the choice between the Past Simple form and the **Present Perfect**.
- The **Present Perfect** describes a past happening which is related in some way to the present time.



- 1 Here is a summary of the main uses of the Present Perfect, as shown below:
- (i) Talking about something which began in the past and hasn't changed. (especially with FOR, SINCE) [see 5a below].
 - (ii) Talking about general experience; e.g. what you have done in your life up to now (especially with EVER or NEVER) [see 5b below].
 - (iii) Talking about recent events or states (especially with ALREADY, STILL AND YET) [see 5c below].
 - (iv) Talking about very recent events (with JUST) [see 5d below].
 - (v) Talking about events whose results are still noticeable (especially with the Present Perfect Progressive) [see 5e, 7d below].

NOTE: In <U.S.> the Past Simple is often used instead of the Present Perfect, especially with meanings (ii), (iii), and (iv).

E.g. *Did your friend arrive yet?*

2 Present Perfect forms**2a STATEMENT:**

<i>I / you / we / they /</i>	<i>{ have }</i>	+ past
<i>noun phrase</i>	<i>{ 've }</i>	participle

<i>he / she / it /</i>	<i>{ has }</i>	+ past
<i>noun phrase</i>	<i>{ 's }</i>	participle

E.g. **I've been** * to Africa and Europe. My husband **has promised** to take me to the United States next year. <mainly G.B.>

* [For the use of **been** see 5e: NOTE below.]

2b QUESTION form:

Have { I / you / we / } they / etc. } + past participle
--

E.g. **Have you had** breakfast?

Has { he / she / } it / etc. } + past participle

Has the bank opened yet?

2c NEGATIVE form:

{ I / you / we / } { haven't }	{ They / etc. } { have not }	+ past participle
---------------------------------------	-------------------------------------	-------------------

{ He / she / } { hasn't }	{ It / etc. } { has not }	+ past participle
----------------------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------

E.g. **I haven't paid** the bill, and they've cut off my phone.
It hasn't rained for months.

2d Negative question form:

Haven't { I / you etc. }	+ past participle
------------------------------------	----------------------

Hasn't { he she etc. }	+ past participle
-------------------------------------	----------------------

Has { he she etc. } not	+ past participle
---	----------------------

E.g. **Haven't you tasted** Chinese tea before? <mainly G.B.>
Has it not arrived yet? <more formal>

3 Present Perfect Progressive forms

HAS / HAVE + BEEN + Verb -ing

3a Statement:

E.g. **I have been reading** all afternoon. **It has been raining** again.

3b Question form:

E.g. **Has anyone been working** today? **What have you been doing?**

3c Negative form:

E.g. **I haven't been getting** much exercise recently.
My watch hasn't been keeping time since I wore it in the bath!

3d Negative question form:

E.g. **Hasn't anyone been doing** the housework?
Why haven't you been sleeping properly?

4 Passive forms

HAS / HAVE + BEEN + PAST PARTICIPLE

4a Statement:

E.g. **My car has been stolen.** The police **have been informed**.

4b Question form:

E.g. **Has the house been sold** yet?
Have you been given any information?

4c Negative form:

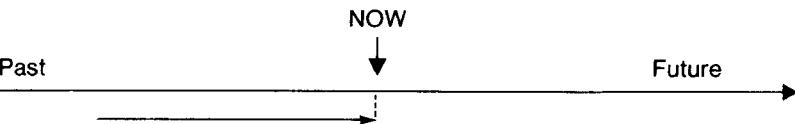
E.g. **The bill hasn't been paid** yet. But fortunately the gas and electricity **have not yet been cut off**.

4d Negative question form:

E.g. **Haven't you been told** what to do? **Hasn't the plan been decided** yet?

5 How to use the Present Perfect

5a When talking about something which began in the past, and has continued up to the present we use the Present Perfect:

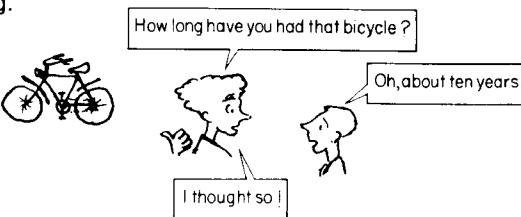


We always need to mention a period of time, e.g. a FOR-phrase, a SINCE-phrase, or a SINCE-clause.

E.g. **I have studied English since I started secondary school.**

The question **how long?** asks for a LENGTH OF TIME expression in reply.

E.g.



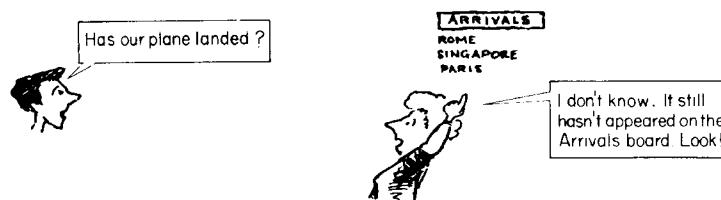
NOTE: The Present Perfect cannot go with an expression of PAST TIME.
E.g. **I have studied English for a long time last year.**

- 5b We use the Present Perfect when talking about our experience up to now in life:

E.g. *I have visited Rio, but I have never been to Buenos Aires.*
 (never = at no time up to now)
'Has anyone ever climbed that mountain?' 'Yes, several times.'
 (ever = at any time up to now)

- 5c We use the Present Perfect when talking about something in the more recent past:

E.g. (i)



(ii) 'Do you want to see the new { movie <U.S.> } film <G.B.>' "Flood and Fire"? I've already seen it. Have you seen "Zero"?"

[See ALREADY, STILL, AND YET for further details. **Already** occurs mainly in statements, and **yet** occurs in questions or with negatives.]

- 5d When talking about something that happened very recently, we can use *has* or *have + just + past participle*:

E.g. *I've just had a delicious meal.*

- 5e When talking of an event or action which happened very recently, we often use the Present Perfect (especially the Present Perfect Progressive) without any adverbial. The meaning in this case is usually that the results are still there in the present.

E.g. (i) *Somebody's been washing the floor.* ('It's still wet')
 (ii) *Somebody's borrowed my pen.* ('I can't find it')
 (iii) *Haven't you heard the news? The President has been shot!*
 (iv) *Pam isn't here. She's gone shopping.*

NOTE: The verb **go** has two past participles, **gone** and **been**. [See COME AND GO for further details.]

6 Present Perfect referring to the future

After WHEN, AFTER, AS SOON AS, OR UNTIL we use the Present Perfect (instead of *will be + Past Participle*) in talking about the future [Compare PRESENT SIMPLE 3a].

E.g. *You can leave as soon as your passport has been checked.*
'Can I borrow your ladder for a moment?'
'No, I'm using it. You'll have to wait until I've finished.'

7 How to use the Present Perfect Progressive

[For the forms, see 3 above.]

- 7a We use the Present Perfect Progressive in talking about an activity in the recent past:

E.g. 'Where have you been?' *I've been returning a library book.*'
reading.'
'What have you been doing?' 'I've been { washing the car. }
cooking lunch.'

- 7b We can use this form to talk about a job or activity which is not finished:



E.g. (i) *He's been writing the story of his life. It will take him years to finish.*

Contrast the ordinary Present Perfect:

E.g. (ii) *He's written the story of his life.* (i.e. 'He's finished the whole job.')



- 7c We generally use the Present Perfect Progressive with a FOR- or SINCE-expression in talking about an action or activity which began in the past and has continued up to the present. This is similar to the ordinary Present Perfect in 5 above.

E.g. *They've been building that bridge for ages.*
She's been working at the factory since she left school.
We've been living in this { flat <mainly G.B.> }
apartment <U.S.> since 1980.

NOTE (i): The Present Perfect Progressive is not used with a STATE VERB e.g. *know, understand, seem.*

E.g. *I've { known been knowing } the Browns for about a year.*

NOTE (ii): In this use, the Progressive can refer to something continuing over quite a long period.
 E.g. *'How long have you been learning English?' 'Oh, for over ten years now.'*

- 7d When the Present Perfect Progressive has no adverbial, this often means that the results of the activity can still be seen:

E.g. *Look! It's been raining.* (i.e. 'The streets are wet')
You've been cooking onions! ('I can smell it')



NOTE: The Present Perfect Progressive can occur with the Passive, but it is <very rare>. E.g. *That bridge has been being built for ages.*

- 8 Here are some examples showing the difference between:
 Present Perfect Present Perfect Progressive



- (i) '**Who's eaten my sandwich?**'
 (The plate is empty.) '**Who's been eating my sandwich?**' (some is left.)
- (ii) '**It has snowed every winter for years.**' (A repeated occurrence)
 '**It has been snowing all day.**' (A continuing activity)
- (iii) '**I've read your book.**'
 (I've finished it.) '**I've been reading your book.**'
 (I haven't finished it.)

present progressive (Also called 'Present Continuous')

This is the form of the Verb with **am**, **is**, or **are** followed by the -ING FORM.

E.g. '**What are you doing this evening?**' '**Richard is going to the football match, but I'm staying at home.**'
 '**Do you want to come for a walk now?**' '**No, I'm working.**'

[See PROGRESSIVE for details of the Progressive form and its meaning. See PRESENT TIME and FUTURE to find out how to use the Present Progressive.]

present simple [See VERB PHRASE]

- When we use a Present Tense main verb and no auxiliary verb, the form of the verb is called **Present Simple*** [contrast PRESENT PROGRESSIVE, PRESENT PERFECT]. E.g. **come, comes**.

- The **Present Simple** is the most common way of expressing PRESENT TIME.
- The **Present Simple** has three major meanings [see 2 below] and two 'special meanings' [see 3 below].

* In questions and negatives, however, the **Present Simple** is formed with **do + main verb**. [See do 2.]

1 Forms of the Present Simple

1a 3rd person singular subjects:

He works

Jane (= she) works

The boss (= he or she) works

The telephone (= it) works

Her best friend works

All other subjects:

I work

You work

We work

They work

Her best friends work

NOTE (i): [On how to pronounce and spell the -s form, see PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS, SPELLING.]

NOTE (ii): Note the following irregularities:

	be	have	do	say
I	am			
we / you / they	are			
he / she / it	is /ɪz/	has /hæz/	does /dʌz/	says*

* The irregularity here is in the pronunciation: /sez/.

1b In questions, use **do** or **does** [see do 2] before the subject:

DO + SUBJECT + Verb **DOES + SUBJECT + Verb**
 E.g. **What do you mean?** **Does Mr Jones smoke?**

1c In negative sentences / clauses use **do** or **does** followed by **not** or **-n't**:

E.g. **Cats don't like ice-cream.** **This lamp doesn't work.**

2 Three important meanings of the Present Simple

2a A present state:

The Present Simple often indicates a state which exists now. For example, it refers to a fact which is always or generally true.

E.g. **The sun rises in the east.**

Some teachers have a difficult job.

'Are you from Singapore?' 'No, I am Japanese.'

The Present Simple can also refer to states which could change.

E.g. '**Where does Mr Barr live?**' 'I'm sorry, I **don't know**. I think he **lives** in the next street.' [See STATE VERBS.]

NOTE: [On the difference between **lives** and **is living** see PRESENT TIME.]

2b A present habit:

The Present Simple can also refer to 'an action we repeat regularly', i.e. a habit or custom.

- E.g. (i) '**What do you do on weekdays?**' 'Well, I **get up** at seven, **have breakfast**, **walk** to the station, and **catch** the train to work. I **arrive home from work** at about six o'clock.'
- (ii) A: **I'd like to buy a present for my husband.**
B: **Does he smoke?**
A: **No, he doesn't.**
B: **Does he play any sport?**
A: **Yes, he sometimes plays tennis.**

The Present Simple can be used with FREQUENCY adverbs like **always**, **never**, **sometimes**, **ever**, **usually**, **often**.

E.g. '**What do you do at weekends?**' 'Well, I **don't work** at weekends, so I **usually go shopping** on Saturday. In summer I **sometimes go fishing** and in winter, I **often play football**. I **never go swimming**. I **hate it**.'

2c A present event:

This meaning of the Present Simple is less common; it refers to an event which happens at the very moment of speaking, for example when we describe what we are saying as 'offering', 'accepting', 'begging'.

Form: **I / we + Verb + . . .**

E.g. **I regret that I made a mistake.**
We accept your kind offer.
I beg you to be more careful. } <rather formal>

NOTE: The 'event' meaning of the Present Simple is found also (i) in newspaper headlines.

E.g. **Italy wins World Cup.** **Monkeys escape from London Zoo.**

(ii) in sports commentaries [e.g. football]. E.g. **Gardiner passes the ball to Jones.**

3 Two special meanings of the Present Simple

These meanings are called 'special' because in them the Present Simple describes not present time, but future or past time.

3a Referring to future time:

The Present Simple can refer to the future [see FUTURE 3] in the following cases:

(i) in describing fixed or planned events.

E.g. **Tomorrow is Bella's birthday.**
My plane leaves at 7 o'clock this evening.

(ii) in IF-clauses, WHEN-clauses, etc.

E.g. **If it rains**, we'll get wet.
They will phone us when they **arrive**.

3b Referring to past time:

The Present Simple sometimes refers to events in the past. This is called the 'Historic Present' and is used in telling stories, but it is not common. The Present Simple makes a story more exciting and like real life.

E.g. So she **comes** through the door, and he **says** 'Where were you at 9 o'clock?' She **replies** 'With Jack.' His face **goes** white with anger . . .

Generally, however, we prefer the Past Simple.

E.g. So she **came** through the door, and he **said** . . .

present tense

1 If an English word is a FINITE verb, it normally has a difference of form between Present Tense forms (e.g. **look**, **looks**) and a Past Tense form (e.g. **looked**).

2 Forms

Most verbs form their Present Tense form like this:

singular		plural	
I, you	like, know		
he, she, it	likes, knows	we you they	like, know

When the subject is 3rd person singular, we use the -S FORM of the verb. Otherwise, we use the BASIC FORM of the verb (without any ending) [see AGREEMENT 1].

E.g. **take** → **takes** **eat** → **eats** **go** → **goes**

[On how to spell and pronounce the -s form of the verb, see SPELLING, PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS.]

2a The verb BE is an exception; it has three Present Tense forms:

singular		plural	
I	am		
you	are	we you they	are
he, she, it	is		

- 2b** MODAL AUXILIARIES are also exceptions; they have no -s form, and so do not change their form at all:

E.g. *it { will
will's } ~ they will.*

- 2c** [See VERB PHRASE on how to combine Present Tense verbs with other verbs, to form the Present Progressive, Present Perfect, and Present Passive.]

3 Meanings and uses

[See PRESENT PERFECT, PRESENT SIMPLE and PRESENT TIME for further information.]

present time

- There are two main ways of using a verb to refer to the **present time**: the Present Simple and the Present Progressive. Here we show how to choose between them. [For further details, see the separate entries for PRESENT SIMPLE and PROGRESSIVE.]

1 Present Simple (e.g. **comes**)

Choose this if the time you are thinking of includes the present moment and is unlimited in length (i.e. it is always true):

1a General facts:

E.g. *Ice melts in a warm climate.*

1b Habits, i.e. happenings which are repeated:

E.g. *My brother smokes twenty cigarettes a day.
The doctor gets up at 6.30 every morning.
In Britain we have turkey for Christmas dinner.*

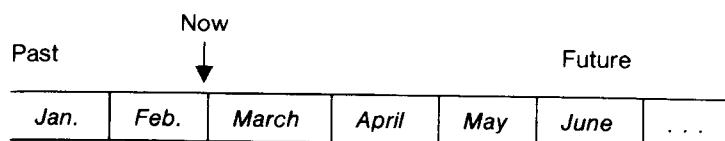
1c States, [See STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS]:

E.g. *She looks like her mother.
This building is very old.
I don't know his name.*

2 Present Progressive (e.g. **is coming**)

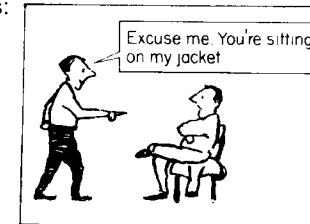
Choose this if the time you are thinking of includes the present moment and is limited (i.e. temporary):

- 2a** The Present Progressive is used for actions over a temporary period (short or long). This period includes the time leading up to and following the present moment:



{ *I am living in Paris at the moment.
I am staying here for six months.*

Other examples:



NOTE: The temporary period can be as long as a few years, e.g. *Industry is growing in South America*, or as short as a few seconds, e.g. *Listen, it's thundering*.

- 2b** Also, choose the Present Progressive for a habit (or set of repeated events) which is temporary (i.e. lasts for a limited period).

E.g. *Gomez is scoring a lot of goals this season.*

3 Note the contrast

- | | |
|--|---|
| (i) <i>I don't usually eat sweet things.</i> | <i>But I'm eating some birthday cake today because it's Alan's birthday.</i> |
| (ii) <i>This watch generally keeps perfect time.</i> | <i>But these days it's not working properly.</i> |
| (iii) <i>Normally I smoke twenty cigarettes a day.</i> | <i>But now I'm smoking only five a day, because I'm saving up for a new motorcycle.</i> |

4 Other uses of the Present Simple

- 4a The Present Simple is used to refer to what is truly now.

E.g. *I beg your pardon. I apologise.*
I pronounce you man and wife.
Gilbert passes the ball to Jones . . .

These are examples of the 'event present' [see PRESENT SIMPLE 2c]. Here the present is truly now, i.e. an event at this moment.

- 4b With some verbs called 'state verbs' [see PROGRESSIVE] we use the Present Simple for a temporary situation.

E.g. *I have a headache. It is windy today.*
You seem hungry. She thinks we are wrong.

This is because these verbs cannot normally combine with the Progressive form.

E.g. *It is being windy today.*

5 Other uses of the Present Progressive

- 5a The Present Progressive is used in the following examples even though they refer to an unlimited period.

E.g. *You're always biting your nails. Stop it!*
Accidents are always happening on this terrible road.
Politicians aren't honest. They're always telling lies.

These are examples of the Progressive with **always**: we use this IDIOM when we are annoyed about something which keeps on happening.

progressive (also called 'Continuous')

- The **Progressive** form of the verb phrase contains a form of the verb BE + the -ING FORM:

BE + Verb-ing E.g. {*is*} {*was*} {*coming*} {*looking*}

- The **Progressive** form usually describes a temporary happening, i.e. something which happens during a limited period.
- [See PRESENT TIME, PAST PROGRESSIVE, and PRESENT PERFECT 3, 7, 8 for further details of how we use the **Progressive**.]

1 Forms

(A) Present & Past: **be** + Verb-ing

<i>I</i>	{'m am was}	<i>coming</i>	<i>he</i>		<i>coming</i>
<i>you</i>			<i>she</i>		
<i>we</i>	{'re are were}	<i>doing</i>	<i>it</i>	{'s is was}	<i>doing</i>
<i>they</i>		<i>talking</i>	noun phrase (singular)		<i>talking</i>
(plural)		<i>singing</i>			<i>singing</i>
		etc.			

(B) Perfect: **have** + **been** + Verb-ing

<i>I</i>		<i>been</i>	<i>coming</i>	<i>he</i>		<i>coming</i>
<i>you</i>	{'ve have}	<i>been</i>	<i>doing</i>	<i>she</i>	{'s has}	<i>doing</i>
<i>we</i>	{'d had}	<i>been</i>	<i>talking</i>	<i>it</i>	{'d had}	<i>talking</i>
<i>they</i>			<i>singing</i>	noun phrase (sing.)		<i>singing</i>
noun phrase (plural)		etc.				etc.

- 1a Other forms include:

(C) Modal Progressive: Modal + **be** + Verb-ing

E.g. *She should be working.*
You must be joking.

[See MODAL AUXILIARY.]

(D) Progressive Passive: **be** + **being** + Past Participle

E.g. *Our team was being beaten.*
We are being followed.



(E) Infinitive:

E.g. **to be playing****to be lying**NOTE: There are also < rare > forms which combine Modal, Perfect, and **Progressive**.E.g. **They may have been going to the theatre.**And there are < very rare > forms which combine Modal and / or Perfect with the **Progressive** Passive.E.g. **The cake must be being cooked.****The cake has been being cooked** for an hour.**The cake must have been being cooked.**

[See VERB PHRASE, table II.]

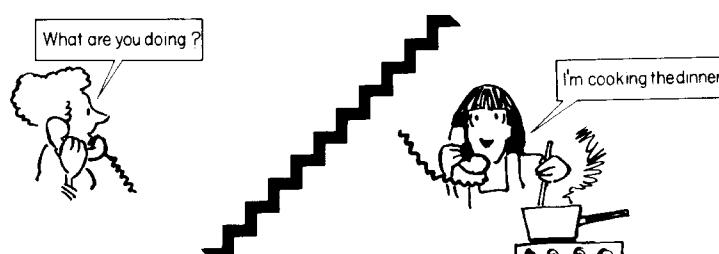
1b To form the negative:

Add **-n't** or **not** after the auxiliary verb. (In < speech > we usually use a contraction [see CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 3].)E.g. **isn't**, **aren't**, **wasn't**.)E.g. Lukas {**isn't**
is not} playing very well: he has scored only two goals
this season.'Did you see that strange bird?' 'No, I {**wasn't**
was not} looking.'

1c To form a question:

Put the auxiliary verb (**am**, **is**, **was**, etc.) in front of the subject.E.g. (i) **'Are you getting on all right?'** 'Yes, I'm getting on fine.'

(ii)



2 Uses of the Progressive

2a We usually use the Progressive to describe something that is temporary:
i.e. it doesn't last long.

(i)

Past

NOW

Future

Present
Progressive

E.g. **It is raining.**

(ii)

Past

THEN

NOW

Future

Past
Progressive

E.g. **It was raining at this time yesterday afternoon.**

(iii)

Past

NOW

Future

Present Perfect
Progressive

E.g. **It has been raining since yesterday afternoon.**

2b Normally, if something continues for a long time, it is no longer temporary: it is a state or a habit, and we use the Present Simple [see PRESENT SIMPLE 2a, 2b].

Compare: **We're living** in a small {**apartment** < U.S. >
flat < mainly G.B. >} (at present).**We (normally) live** in a village near Rome.

However, we can use the Progressive for a habit if it is temporary.

E.g. **She's travelling** to work by bicycle while the bus strike is on.**Margot was working** in a night club when she was noticed by the manager of a West End theatre. Soon after that, **she was appearing** regularly on the West End stage.We can also use the Progressive for annoying habits [see PRESENT TIME 5a] with **always**.

E.g. *You're always interrupting when I talk.*
She was always running away from home and being brought home by the police.

Here the habit is not temporary: it goes on and on!

2c The Progressive for future actions:

The Progressive describes an action planned in the future. [See FUTURE 4.]

E.g. '*When are you meeting Bob?*'
'*I'm meeting him at 12 o'clock tomorrow.*'

2d Will + Progressive for future happenings:

Also will + Progressive has a special meaning in describing future happenings.

E.g. '*When will you be meeting Bob?*' '*I'll be meeting him at 12 o'clock tomorrow.*'

Unlike the example in 2c above, this example suggests that the meeting has not been specially planned.

3 Verbs not normally taking the Progressive

Be careful with verbs of the kinds outlined in 3a–3f below. They usually do not have a Progressive form, because they describe a state [see STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS].

3a Perception verbs (including 'seeming' verbs):

E.g. **see hear taste sound seem**
look feel smell recognize appear

[See PERCEPTION VERBS.]

See, hear, feel, taste, and smell occur with CAN or COULD to express a continuing state.

E.g. *Can you hear the wind?*

We can see the mountains from our bedroom window.

'That was delicious onion soup.' 'Onion soup? I couldn't taste any onion!'

3b Emotion verbs and wishing verbs:

E.g. **want (to) refuse (to) wish (to) like love**
prefer (to) forgive care (for) dislike hate
intend (to) hope (to) can't stand can't bear (to)
don't mind



NOTE (i): Emotion and wishing verbs can sometimes occur quite easily with the Progressive. The Progressive can have a <polite> and <tentative> meaning.

E.g. *I am hoping that you will take the part of Hamlet.*

In this situation, *I am hoping* is <more polite> than *I hope*. The Past Progressive makes the sentence even <more polite>: *I was hoping*. But in this case the Past form **would** has to be used, too.

E.g. *I was hoping that you would take the part of the Hamlet.*

NOTE (ii): Enjoy is an emotion verb, but it can occur easily with the Progressive: *I am enjoying this game.*

3c Verbs of thinking:

E.g. think	know	understand	realize	forget
<i>feel (= think)</i>	mean	believe	consider	remember
imagine	suppose	expect	doubt	guess
suspect	wonder	agree	disagree	note

These verbs cannot take the Progressive especially when they are followed by a THAT-clause or WH-clause.

E.g. '**Do you know whether the castle is open to visitors?**'

'No. *I think* it is open on weekdays, but today is Sunday, so *I imagine* it is closed.'

NOTE: But thinking verbs sometimes take the Progressive when thinking is an activity, not a passive state of mind.

(i)



E.g. (i) *Be quiet! I'm thinking.*

(ii) *The police are expecting trouble.*

3d BE and HAVE as main verbs:

These are the most common state verbs.

E.g. *The children have been upstairs since 8 o'clock.*

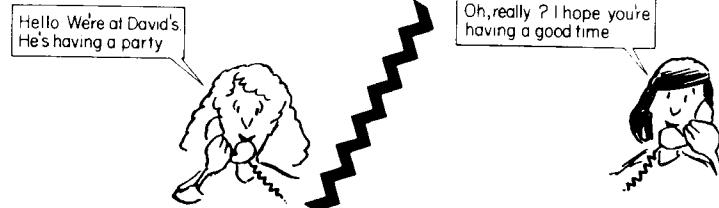
They were very tired, so I expect they are already asleep.

(Not: *are already being asleep*)

I have a headache. Do you have any sleeping pills? (Not: are you having . . . ?)

NOTE (i): **Have** is also an action verb in expressions such as **having dinner, having a bath, having a baby, having fun**. [See HAVE 3c]

E.g.



NOTE (ii): **Be** can also occur with the Progressive in expressions like **being awkward, being kind, being a fool, being a nuisance**, when these refer to actions or activities.

E.g. You are stupid. (A state that you can't change!)
but: You are deliberately being stupid. (An activity).

3e Other state verbs:

E.g. **belong to** **contain** **deserve** **owe**
concern **cost** **keep on** **own**
consist of **depend (on)** **matter** **resemble**

How much does this dictionary cost?

It doesn't matter if you arrive late.

This bottle contains a litre of milk.

[See STATE VERBS.]

NOTE: Again there are exceptions where the Progressive is used, e.g. to emphasise temporary meaning.

E.g. God knows what this meal is costing me!

3f Some verbs, although they are state verbs, can occur easily with the Progressive. Here there is little difference of meaning between the Simple and the Progressive forms.

(i) **live, sit, lie, stand, surround**

E.g. We **{were sitting}** **{sat}** underneath the trees.

These verbs refer to position.

(ii) **hurt, feel, ache**

E.g. I **{feel}** **{am feeling}** ill, doctor. My back **{hurts}** **{is hurting}** and my head **{aches}** **{is aching}**.

These verbs refer to feelings inside the body.

promises

1 Forms of promise

I promise (that) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I'll + \text{Verb} \dots \\ \text{you will} + \text{Verb} \dots \\ \text{you can} + \text{Verb} \dots \end{array} \right.$

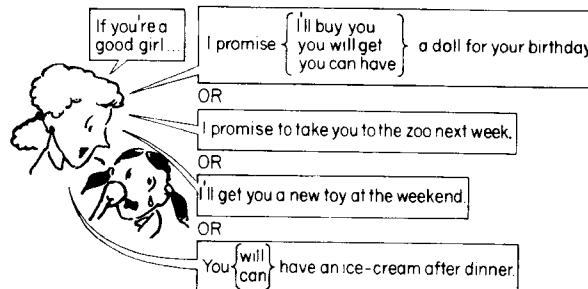
Or

I promise (not) to + Verb . . .

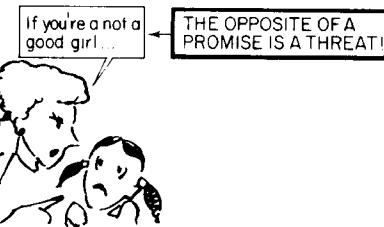
Or

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I'll + \text{Verb} \dots \\ \text{You will} + \text{Verb} \dots \\ \text{You can} + \text{Verb} \dots \end{array} \right.$

2 Examples



OR



3 How to report a promise

*(I
She
They)* promised *((that)
they)* would + Verb...
(not) to + Verb...

E.g. DIRECT SPEECH: 'I'll help you.'

INDIRECT SPEECH: **She promised** *{ that she would help me.
to help me. }*

pronoun

- A **pronoun** is a grammatical word which we use instead of a NOUN or NOUN PHRASE.
- **Pronouns** can be SUBJECT, OBJECT, or COMPLEMENT in a sentence. They can also follow a preposition.
- **Pronouns** have a very general meaning (either definite or indefinite – see Table below).

There are the following kinds of pronoun in English [look up each of them for further information]:

	personal pronouns: <i>e.g. I, you, he, her, we, they, them</i> (including POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS, e.g. <i>hers, ours</i>)	
(definite pronouns)	reflexive pronouns: [see -SELF, -SELVES]	<i>e.g. myself, herself, yourself, themselves</i>
	demonstrative pronouns: [see DEMONSTRATIVES]	<i>this, that, these, those</i>
indefinite pronouns:		<i>e.g. all, any, none, some, each, everyone, anyone, nobody, something</i>
relative pronouns: [see RELATIVE CLAUSE]		who (whom, whose), which, that
wh-pronouns: [see WH-WORDS]		who (whom, whose), what, which (including also WH-EVER pronouns)

pronunciation of endings

- 1 The two most regular endings in English are the **-s** ending and the **-ed** ending. The rules for their pronunciation do not change. They are the same for different types of word. [See SPELLING for how to spell these endings.]

- 2 The **-s** ending has four different uses:

-s is used to form:	pronunciation		
	add -/iz/	add -/z/	add -/s/
PLURAL nouns	<i>voice</i> → voices <i>/vɔɪs/</i> → <i>/vɔɪsɪz/</i>	<i>day</i> → days <i>/deɪ/</i> → <i>/deɪz/</i>	<i>act</i> → acts <i>/ækt/</i> → <i>/ækts/</i>
POSSESSIVE nouns	<i>James</i> → James's <i>/dʒeɪmz/</i> → <i>/dʒeɪmzɪz/</i>	<i>Ann</i> → Ann's <i>/æn/</i> → <i>/ænz/</i>	<i>Mark</i> → Mark's <i>/ma:k/</i> → <i>/ma:ks/</i>
3rd PERSON singular verbs (-S FORM)	<i>teach</i> → teaches <i>/ti:tʃ/</i> → <i>/ti:tʃɪz/</i>	<i>lead</i> → leads <i>/li:d/</i> → <i>/li:dz/</i>	<i>like</i> → likes <i>/laik/</i> → <i>/laiks/</i>
CONTRACTIONS of <i>is</i> and <i>has</i>	(no contraction)	<i>she is</i> → she's <i>/ʃi:/</i> → <i>/ʃi:z/</i>	<i>it is</i> → it's <i>/ɪt/</i> → <i>/ɪts/</i>

- 2a How to choose between the three pronunciations **-/iz/**, **-/z/**, and **-/s/**: Add **-/iz/** after consonants which have a 'hissing' or 'buzzing' sound, i.e. after */z/, /s/, /dʒ/, /tʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʃ/*.

E.g. *refuses, passes, judges, watches, garages, wishes*.

Add **-/z/** after any other voiced sound: i.e. after a vowel, or after the voiced consonants */b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /ll/, /rr/*.

E.g. *boys, lies, ways, pubs, words, pigs, loves, bathes, rooms, turns, things, walls, cars*.

Add **-/s/** after any other voiceless sound: i.e. after the consonants */p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /θ/*.

E.g. *cups, cats, walks, laughs, tenths*.

NOTE: [See IRREGULAR PLURAL for nouns which do not form their plural in this way. See **-S FORM** for irregular 3rd person singular verbs.]

- 3 The **-ed** ending is used for the Past Tense and Past Participle of regular verbs:

-ed is used to form:	pronunciation		
	add -/ɪd/	add -/d/	add -/t/
past forms of the verb	<i>need</i> → needed /ni:d/ → /ni:did/	<i>fill</i> → filled /fil/ → /fild/	<i>work</i> → worked /wɜ:k/ → /wɜ:kt/
	<i>want</i> → wanted /wɒnt/ → /wɒntɪd/	<i>try</i> → tried /traɪ/ → /trɪd/	<i>help</i> → helped /help/ → /helpt/

- 3a How to choose between the three pronunciations -/ɪd/, -/d/, and -/t/:
Add -/ɪd/ after a /d/ or a /t/.

E.g. **added**, **landed**, **arrested**, **started**, **visited**, **demanded**

Add -/d/ after any other voiced sound: i.e. after a vowel, or after the voiced consonants /b/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/.

E.g. **stayed**, **tied**, **paid**, **robbed**, **lived**, **used**, **judged**, **seemed**, **turned**, **longed**, **failed**, **cared**.

Add -/t/ after any other voiceless sound, i.e. the consonants /p/, /k/, /f/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /tʃl/.

E.g. **developed**, **looked**, **laughed**, **berthed**, **missed**, **wished**, **watched**

NOTE (i): [See the list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the back of the book for verbs which have irregular Past forms.]

NOTE (ii): [On how to pronounce the endings **-er** and **-est** (comparative and superlative), see -ER / -EST (especially 2 Note (i), on exceptions).]

proper noun [See NAMES.]

provided (that), providing (that) /prə'veɪdɪd (ðət)/, /prə'veɪdɪŋ (ðət)/

These are conditional conjunctions with the same meaning. They mean 'if and only if', 'on condition that', and they introduce a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.

E.g. **Provided** } (**that**) you leave now, you'll reach the library before it closes.

punctuation

- 1 The main punctuation marks of English are:

- 1a A full-stop <G.B.> (or period <U.S.>) marks the end of a sentence.

It also sometimes marks an abbreviation, as in:

m.p.h. = miles per hour

etc. = et cetera

in. = inch

- 1b A comma helps us to divide a sentence into smaller units of meaning (e.g. clauses), so that it is easier to make sense of it when reading. [See the separate entry COMMA.]

- 1c The question mark goes at the end of a sentence which is a question.

E.g. **Is that your answer?** **Why don't you listen?**

- 1d An exclamation { mark <G.B.> } goes at the end of a sentence to express emotional emphasis, e.g. in an exclamation [see EXCLAMATION 4: Note]. But we do not use it too often. Compare:

What a nuisance! } **We've run out of fuel.**
What a nuisance.

NOTE: If a sentence has direct speech in it, question marks and exclamation marks can be used at the end of the direct speech within that sentence.

E.g. **'What a mess!'** } she said. **'Where to?' asked the taxi-driver.**

- 1e The semi-colon is used in <rather formal> writing. It is 'heavier' than a comma. Use it especially to separate two sentences which are closely linked in meaning.

E.g. **Many people dislike using semi-colons; personally, I find the semi-colon a very useful punctuation mark.**

- 1f The colon is similar to the semi-colon. But it implies that what follows is an explanation of what goes before it.

E.g. **They ordered a huge four-course lunch: first they had soup, then a chicken curry; this was followed by ice-cream, and finally cheese and biscuits.**

- 1g The dash <informal>.

() Brackets* <more formal>. } These are useful for separating a part of a sentence which adds subordinate information, and could be omitted.

E.g. *The second of the two wanted men* {— George Matthews —} has not been seen for several years.

* Called 'parentheses' in <U.S.>.

- 1h “ ” or ‘ ’ Quotation marks or 'quotes' are used to enclose direct speech or other quoted material. [See DIRECT SPEECH for further details.]

purpose

- **Purpose** expressions answer the question WHY?

1 Ways of expressing purpose

- 1a Prepositional phrase beginning with FOR { + noun (phrase). + Verb-ing}

E.g. 'What is this £5 for?' 'It's for food.'
'What is this hole for?' 'For measuring rainfall.'

- 1b Clauses beginning with TO; or **in order to** <formal>; or **so as to** <formal>.

E.g. 'Why did you phone your wife?' 'To tell her I would be late.'
(**In order**) to improve safety on the roads, the Ministry of Transport has begun a big new advertising programme. <rather formal>

The negatives are: **not to**, **in order not to**, **so as not to**.

E.g. **In order** } **not to** disappoint the miners, the minister
So as } **has offered them better pay and conditions.**

- 1c Clauses beginning with **in order that** <formal> or **so that*** <not so formal>.

E.g. We are advertising the course {**in order that**} everyone will know about it.

* [So that can also mean RESULT.]

quantity words

- To express **quantity**, we use DETERMINERS, PRONOUNS, NUMBERS, and NOUNS.

I Patterns

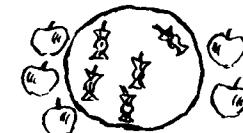
These are the different patterns for expressing quantity:

- (I) QUANTITY WORD alone

E.g. 'How many apples did you buy?' 'Five.'

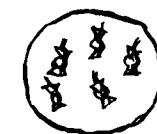
- (II) QUANTITY WORD + OF + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. I ate five of the apples.



- (III) QUANTITY WORD + (MODIFIER(S)) + NOUN

E.g. I ate five apples.



- 1a These quantity words can be used in all three patterns:

all, half, each, either, neither, some and any, enough, both, several, many, few, a few / fewer / fewest, more / most, less / least, much, little, a little, one, the whole

NOTE: These words have separate entries. Look them up for further details.

Also cardinal NUMBERS: **two, three, . . . ten, . . . twenty, . . . forty-five, . . . a hundred, . . . a thousand, . . . a million, . . . etc.** [see NUMBERS 5]

- 1b These quantity words can be used in patterns I and II only:

(pronoun): **none**

(nouns): **a lot lots** [see LOTS OF, A LOT OF]

a bit a / the majority [see A BIT, A BIT OF]

a number numbers

a quantity quantities

a mass masses

a quarter, two-thirds, 2.3, etc. [see FRACTIONS, DECIMALS]

a couple, a dozen

dozens, hundreds, thousands, millions, etc.

- 1c These quantity words can be used in pattern III only:

(determiners): **every, no**

NOTE: In pattern I or II, the **quantity word** is a noun or a pronoun. In pattern III, the **quantity word** is a determiner.

2 The noun phrase that goes with the quantity word

Different quantity words go with different types of noun phrase. For example, **every** can be followed only by a singular countable noun phrase.
E.g. *We study English every day.*

[To find out what type of noun phrase to use with a quantity word, look up the entry for the word.]

3 Meaning

There is an important difference of meaning between these two patterns:

QUANTITY DETERMINER + and QUANTITY PRONOUN + **of** +
NOUN PHRASE
(Here **of** means '**part**', '**not all**')

E.g. *He gave me **a few** books.*



(= 'about 3 or 4 books')

and *He gave me **a few of** the books.*



(= 'He had lots of books (e.g. 20), and he only gave me some of them (say, 3 or 4).')

This applies to all the words in 1a above.

4 Whole and half

WHOLE and HALF are rather different from other quantity words. [Look them up for details.]

(a) quarter /'kwo:tər/ (noun)

A **quarter** = $\frac{1}{4}$. [See FRACTIONS.] (also called **a fourth** <U.S.>)

A **quarter** past eight = 8.15.

A **quarter** to seven = 6.45. [See TIME (telling the)]

A **quarter** is also the name of a U.S. coin (= 25 cents) [see MONEY].

question

- On how to ask a question, please see the following: YES-NO QUESTION; WH-QUESTION; TAG QUESTION; INDIRECT QUESTION.]

[On questions about alternatives, see OR.]

[On the way the voice rises or falls at the end of a question, see INTONATION 3.]

question word [See WH-WORD]

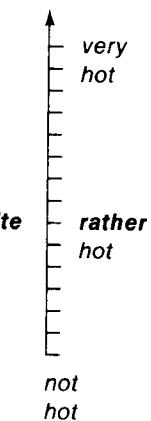
quite and rather /'kwaɪt/, /'ra:ðər/ /'ræðər/ (adverbs of degree)

► **Quite** and **rather** are similar adverbs: they indicate a medium point on a scale [see DEGREE 2].

But **quite** and **rather** sometimes suggest different attitudes [see 2 below].

Also, **quite** has a special meaning of 'completely', 'entirely'. E.g. **quite impossible**.

Rather is less used in <U.S.>.



Positions of quite and rather

QUITE } + { ADJECTIVE (a)
RATHER } + { ADVERB (b)
 } MAIN VERB (c)

QUITE A } + SINGULAR NOUN (PHRASE) (d)
RATHER A }

E.g. (a) adjectives:

quite old, **quite tall**
rather old, **rather tall**

(b) adverbs:

quite easily, **quite often**
rather easily, **rather often**

(c) main verbs:

She quite likes him.
We rather enjoyed it.

(c) noun phrases:

There's quite a large crowd
I felt rather a fool.

NOTE: Notice the word order in:

This coat is quite
My boss is rather

nice
strict

→ **It's quite**
→ **He's rather**

adjective

a nice coat.
a strict boss.

noun phrase

Uses of quite and rather

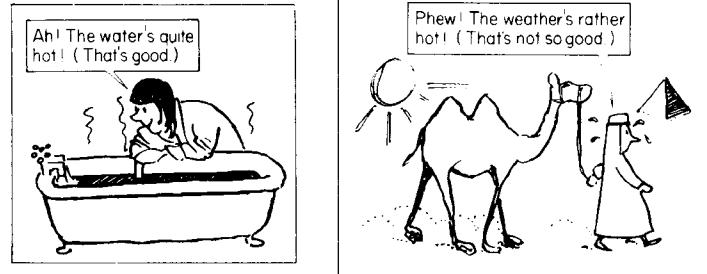
Quite and **rather** have a similar meaning of medium degree.

- E.g. *My neighbour is **quite** old: he must be nearly 60.
This house is **rather** old: it was built in 1880.*

But we prefer to use:

- quite** for a positive attitude: 'something good'.
rather for a negative attitude: 'something bad'.

E.g.



So we choose **quite** especially for words of 'good' meaning.

- E.g. **quite** bright, **quite** exciting, **quite** nicely, **quite** a good player

We choose **rather** especially for words of 'bad' meaning.

- E.g. **rather** dull, **rather** boring, **rather** badly, **rather** an idiot

NOTE (i): But we sometimes use these words in the opposite way.

E.g. *I'm **rather** fond of tennis. That play was **quite** dull.*

The difference between **quite** and **rather** is a matter of preference, not of strict rule.

NOTE (ii): Especially in <U.S.>, **kind of** can be used instead of **rather**.

2b **Quite** also has the meaning 'completely' or 'entirely' with some words (for example, some verbs and adjectives).

- E.g. *I **quite** agree with you. (= I completely agree.)
The statement in the newspaper was **quite** false. It was also **quite** unfair.*

Or **quite** has the meaning 'very much' with words which have an extreme meaning.

- E.g. *His was **quite** the best performance of Macbeth I have ever seen.
It was **quite** magnificent.*

NOTE (i): The meaning of **quite** when it follows **not** is 'completely' (i.e. **not quite** = not completely).

E.g. *I'm **not quite** ready to go. The garage hasn't **quite** finished mending my car.*

NOTE (ii): The two different meanings of **quite** have different intonation especially when **quite** occurs at the end of a sentence or alone.

- E.g. *'Did you enjoy the party?' 'Yes, **quite**. (= 'but not too much'.)*

*'They must keep their promises.' 'Yes, **quite**. (<G.B. only = 'I entirely agree with you.')*

rarely and **seldom** /'reərli/, /'seldəm/ (adverbs of frequency)

- **Rarely** and **seldom** have the same meaning (= 'infrequently' or 'not often') [see FREQUENCY 1].

- E.g. *I've {**rarely** **seldom**} seen a better game.*

NOTE: Word order: if **rarely** or **seldom** goes at the beginning of the sentence, the auxiliary follows [see INVERSION 5, NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES 6a].

- E.g. *Rarely } have the media been so mistaken about the result of an election. <formal>
Seldom }*

rather [See QUITE AND RATHER]

- [For examples of **rather than**, see THAN 3.]

- [For examples of **would rather**, see VERB IDIOM.]

're (= are) [See BE]

really /'riəli/ (adverb)

- 1 **Really** adds emphasis to the meaning of a sentence.

- E.g. *I'm **really** sorry that I forgot to return your umbrella.
(**really** = 'very')
'There's **really** no need to apologise. I didn't need it.'
(**really** = 'absolutely')*

- 2 Often **really** goes in front of the auxiliary or BE. (This is not the usual middle position for adverbs: [compare ADVERB 3]).

- E.g. *I **really** can't believe she's serious.
You **really** should be more careful.*

- 3 At the front of a sentence, **really** often indicates that the speaker is shocked, or disapproves of something.

- E.g. ***Really**, I'm terribly disappointed by your behaviour.*

- 4 In a reply to a statement, **really** expresses surprise or polite interest.

E.g. 'Is that **really** true?'

'Boris is giving up his job and becoming a priest.' '**Really?** I didn't know he was a religious person.'

NOTE: **Really** is an adverb of degree when it is used before an adjective or adverb.

E.g. It was a **really** exciting race. She cares **really** deeply about her work.

reason and **cause**

- 1 Phrases and clauses of reason or cause answer the question '**Why?**'.

E.g. 'Why did Ted give up his job in the city?'

{ '(Because) he wanted to live in the country.'
reasons { '(Because) he was too old to continue.'
 { '(Because) they didn't pay him enough.'

2 Patterns

- 2a The reason usually comes last:

MAIN CLAUSE + CONJUNCTION (**because, as, since, for**) + CLAUSE
MAIN CLAUSE + PREPOSITION (**because of, on account of, owing to**)
+ NOUN PHRASE

E.g. The car crashed **because** the driver was careless.

I can't give you this dictionary { **as** } { **since** } it's the only one I've got.

My father never left his native country, **for** in those days only rich people travelled abroad. <rather formal, written>

He gave up his job **because of** his age.

The rice crop failed **on account of** bad weather. <rather formal>

The game was cancelled **owing to** bad weather. <rather formal>

NOTE: Compare also **due to**: NOUN PHRASE + BE + DUE TO + NOUN PHRASE

E.g. The failure of the rice crop was **due to** bad weather. [See DUE TO.]

- 2b The reason can also come first:

CONJUNCTION (**Because, As, Since**) + CLAUSE, + MAIN CLAUSE
PREPOSITION (**Because of, On account of, Owing to**) + NOUN PHRASE
+ MAIN CLAUSE

This is a much less usual order, but is quite common with **as** and **since**.

E.g. **As** this is the beginning of the football season, there are bound to be large crowds at the match.

Since Britain is in the Northern Hemisphere, it has its summer in June, July, and August.

Because of the drought, all the plants had turned brown.

- 3 In <written English>, there are other ways of expressing reason and cause in linking sentences.

E.g. **Luckily**, none of the passengers were killed in the fire. **The reason** { **explanation** } **for this was** that the seats were not

flammable, and everyone had time to escape through the emergency doors.

NOTE: It is not considered correct to write **The reason . . . because**. This would use two 'reason' words when you need only one.

E.g. **The reason (why) he lost the court case was** { **that** { **because** } **he didn't have a witness.**

recently /'ri:səntli/ (adverb of time)

Recently means 'not long ago'. It is used with a PAST TENSE or with a PERFECT form. It can go in front, middle or end position. [See ADVERB 3]

Past Simple: { **recently escaped**
E.g. Present Perfect: { **Three prisoners have recently escaped**
Past Perfect: { **had recently escaped**

reflexive pronoun [See -SELF / -SELVES]

regret, expressing [See APOLOGIES, IF ONLY, WISHES 1]

regular verb

- 1 Most English verbs are regular. They have four different forms:

BASIC FORM: (This is the form you will find in a dictionary).

-S FORM: Used in the 3rd person PRESENT TENSE.

-ED FORM: Used for the PAST TENSE and PAST PARTICIPLE.

-ING FORM: Used for the -ing (or 'present') participle.

- 2 In this book we write the above forms as follows:

BASIC FORM: Verb

-S FORM: Verb-s

-ED FORM: Verb-ed

-ING FORM: Verb-ing

3 Examples:

Verb	Verb-s	Verb-ed	Verb-ing
look	looks	looked	looking
call	calls	called	calling
seem	seems	seemed	seeming
want	wants	wanted	wanting

4 [See SPELLING for details of how to spell regular verb forms.]

5 [See IRREGULAR VERBS and the A-Z list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the back of this book.]

relative clause

- A **relative clause** adds extra information about one of the nouns in the main clause.
- The **relative clause** goes immediately after the noun it relates to.
- The relative pronoun goes at the beginning of the **relative clause**.
- The relative pronouns are WHO (WHOM, WHOSE), WHICH and THAT.
- The relative pronoun can be omitted unless it is the subject of the **relative clause**. [See 2b below.]

1 The relative pronoun as subject of a relative clause.

1a Relative clauses about people:

WHO (or THAT*) links two separate ideas about the same person or people. We join these two ideas by using **who** instead of the personal pronoun HE, SHE or THEY in the second clause.

E.g. *There's the doctor.* *She used to live next door.*

→ *There's the doctor* (main clause) { *who** *that* } *used to live next door.* (relative clause)

* Some people think **who** is more correct. You can use **that**, but not to refer to a name (and not in non-defining clauses [see 4b below, and THAT 2]).

E.g. *I spoke to Mrs Pearson,* { *who* *that* } *owns the bookstore.*

1b Relative clauses about things:

WHICH (or THAT*) links two separate ideas about the same thing or things. We join these two ideas by using **which** or **that** instead of **it** or **they**.

E.g. *I'm writing about a camera.* *It doesn't work properly.*

→ *I'm writing about a camera* (main clause) { *which* *it* } *doesn't work properly.* (relative clause)

* We use **that** commonly instead of **which**, especially in <speech>. But **which** is used in non-defining clauses [see 4b below].

2 The relative pronoun as object of a relative clause.

2a The relative pronoun goes at the beginning of the relative clause, even when it is the OBJECT of the clause.

E.g. (i) *There's the doctor.* *I met him yesterday.*

→ *There's the doctor* { *that* *who** *whom* } *I met yesterday.*

(ii) *I am writing about a camera.* *I bought it in your shop.*

→ *I am writing about a camera* { *that* *which* } *I bought in your shop.*

* Who, whom, or that can all be used as a relative object pronoun referring to a person. Whom is <rare>, but is more <'correct'> than who in <written English>.

2b Omitting the relative pronoun:

We often omit the relative pronoun when it is the OBJECT of the relative clause. (But don't omit it when it is the SUBJECT.) In these examples, the brackets (#) show where the pronoun is omitted.

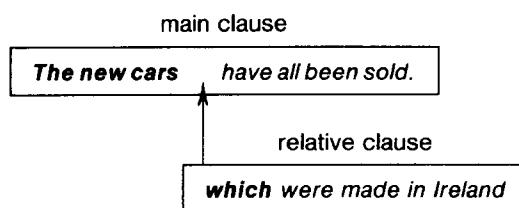
E.g. (i) *There's the doctor () I met yesterday.* (Compare 2a (i))
(ii) *I am writing about a camera () I bought in your shop.*
(Compare 2a (ii))

NOTE: This is sometimes called a ZERO RELATIVE PRONOUN. The CLAUSE is called a zero relative clause.

3 The position of the relative clause

A relative clause follows the NOUN it relates to, wherever the noun is in the SENTENCE. Here the relative clause is in the SUBJECT:

The new cars have all been sold. They were made in Ireland.
→ *The new cars which were made in Ireland have all been sold.*



4 The functions of relative clauses

Defining and non-defining* relative clauses have two functions:

412 relative clause

requests 413

- 4a** Defining – to give essential information in order to identify what / who you are talking about.

E.g. '*The house has just been sold.*' '*Which house are you talking about?*'
'The house (which) I showed you last week (has just been sold.)'

- 4b** Non-defining – to give extra information, not essential for identifying what you are talking about.

E.g. '*Mrs Porter's house has just been sold.*'

Adding another piece of information:

'Mrs Porter's house, which has been for sale for two years, has just been sold.'

We usually separate non-defining clauses from the rest of the SENTENCE.
 We do this by COMMAS in <writing> and by separate INTONATION in <speech>.

NOTE: Don't use **that** at the beginning of a non-defining clause. Use **who (whom, whose)** or **which** instead.

* Defining clauses are sometimes called 'restrictive', and non-defining clauses are sometimes called 'non-restrictive'.

5 Whose + clause

Whose is the POSSESSIVE DETERMINER form of **who**. It usually refers to a person or people. It replaces **his, her, or their**.

E.g. *That woman is a well-known actress.* You met her son.

That woman whose son you met is a well-known actress.

NOTE: If you add commas here, they show that the relative clause is non-defining [see 4a above].
 E.g. *That woman, whose son you met, is a well-known actress.*

6 Prepositions in relative clauses

We can place the preposition in front of the relative pronoun. But more often we place the preposition at the end [see PREPOSITION].

E.g. *This is the knife with which he was killed.*
This is the knife (which) he was killed with. <more informal>

When the preposition is at the end, we can use **that** instead of **which**, or we can omit the relative pronoun.

E.g. *Sam is a student that * I once shared a room with.*
The bus we were waiting for never arrived.

* Do not use **that** after a preposition:
This is the school that my children go to.
 But not:
This is the school to that my children go.

7 Sentence relative clauses

Sentence relative clauses refer back to the whole clause or sentence, not just to one noun. They always go at the end of the clause or sentence.

E.g. *Tina admires the Prime Minister, which surprises me.* (= 'and this surprises me.')

He never admits his mistakes, which is extremely annoying.
 (= 'and this is extremely annoying.')

8 Relative adverbs

WHEN and WHERE can be 'relative adverbs': they link a relative clause to the main clause by a connection of TIME or PLACE.

E.g. *Do you remember the day (when) we first met?* (defines which day)
One day I'm going back to the town where I spent my childhood.
 (defines which town)

NOTE: After the noun such as **time** or **place**, we can use **that** or ZERO THAT-CLAUSE, as well as **when** or **where**.

E.g. *She felt ill all the time { (that) (when) } we were living in that cottage.*

I've lost my purse. I'm going back to look for it in the place { (that) (where) } I was sitting.

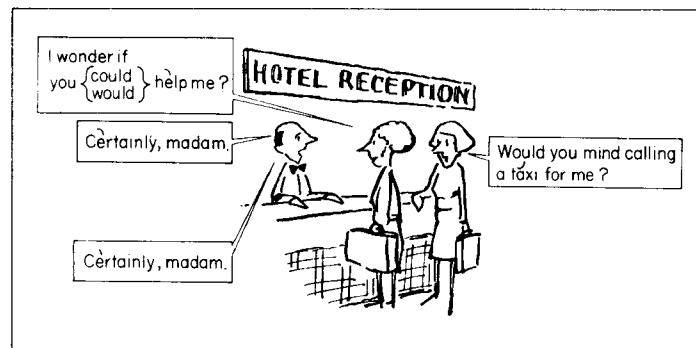
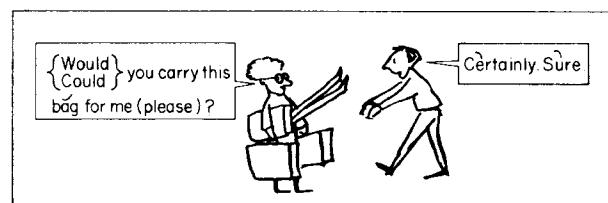
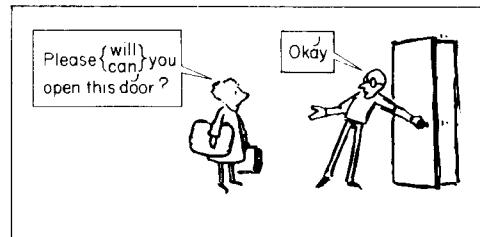
reported speech is another name for INDIRECT SPEECH**requests**

- If you want somebody to do something for you, you can use one of the forms in 1 below.
- Intonation is important when making **requests** and when replying to them.

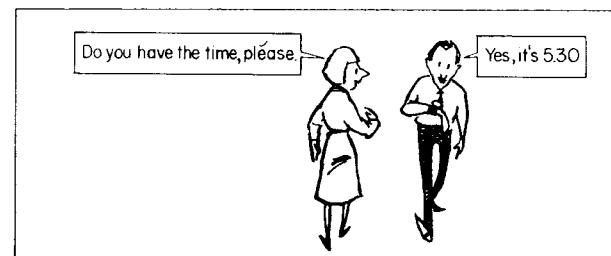
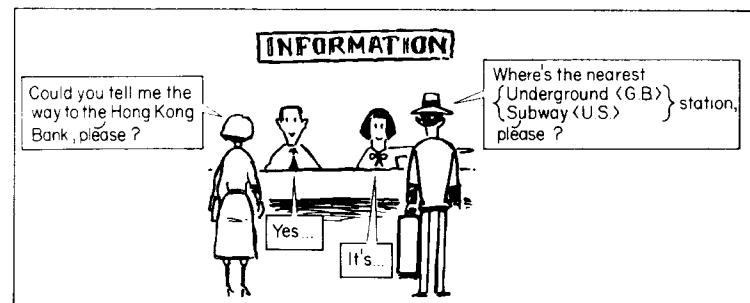
1 Forms**Requests****Replies**

(I) (Please **)	{ will can would could } you + Verb ...	{ please * * } ?	Okay. Certainly. Of course. All right. Yes, . . .
(II) I wonder if you { would could } + Verb . . . ?			
(III) { Can Could } you (possibly) + Verb . . . ?			
(IV) { Do Would } you mind* + Verb-ing . . . ?			No. Not at all.

2 Examples



3 Requests for information



* [See MIND 2b.]

** Please can go at the beginning or at the end of a request.

- 2a On how to make a request <more polite> or <more direct>, see POLITE AND NOT POLITE. Remember these four MODAL AUXILIARIES:

<more direct>	<more polite>
WILL	CAN
WOULD	COULD
+ you	

restrictive relative clause is another name for defining relative clause [See RELATIVE CLAUSE 4]

result

The following are useful patterns introducing result clauses. Patterns (b) and (c) are a mixture of DEGREE and result.

- (a) MAIN CLAUSE + { **so that** + RESULT CLAUSE
with the result that + RESULT CLAUSE }

- E.g. *The prisoners had a secret radio, so that they could receive messages from the outside world.*
There had been no rain for six months, with the result that the ground was as hard as iron.

(b) $\dots \underline{\text{so}} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{adjective} \\ \text{adverb} \\ \text{much} (\dots) \\ \text{many} (\dots) \end{array} \right\} + \text{that} + \text{RESULT CLAUSE}$

MAIN CLAUSE

- E.g. *I feel so hungry that I could eat anything!*
Martin worked so hard that he fell ill.
We have had so much rain that most of our land is flooded.
They had so many children that they couldn't remember their names.

(c) $\dots \underline{\text{such} (+\text{a}) \text{NOUN PHRASE}} + \text{that} + \text{RESULT CLAUSE}$

MAIN CLAUSE

- E.g. *The factory has been such a success that we are employing an extra 500 workers.*



- (iii) *It was a cold evening, so we all sat round the camp fire, to keep warm.*

NOTE: In <U.S.>, **around** is preferred to **round** here.

2 Round (= adjective)

Round means 'of circular shape'.



- E.g. *The child looked up with big, round eyes.*

round /raʊnd/ (preposition, adverb, adjective, or noun)

- **Round** is a word with many different uses.
- Most of the uses of **round** are connected with circular motion or circular shape.

1 Round (preposition or adverb)

Round is used to express the idea of circular motion or position [see ABOUT AND AROUND.]

- E.g. (i) *Don't look round! There's someone following us.*



- (ii) *To keep fit, he runs round the block every morning.*

's

- 1 (a) 's is the ending for the singular possessive form of nouns [see POSSESSIVE for further information].

E.g. *Mary → Mary's friend.*

- (b) 's is also the contraction (or 'short form') of **is** and **has**.

E.g. *Mary's coming. (= Mary is coming.)*
Mary's gone home. (= Mary has gone home.)

[See CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 2.]

- 2 [On how to pronounce 's, see PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS 2.]

-
- s'** This is the regular ending of the possessive form of plural nouns [see POSSESSIVE 2 for further information].

E.g. *the girls' faces.*

-s form

- We add **-s** (or **-es**) to a regular noun to make it PLURAL.
E.g. *day* → **days**, *cat* → **cats**, *bus* → **buses**
- We add **-s** (or **-es**) to a verb to make it 3rd person singular Present Tense.
E.g. *take* → **takes**, *need* → **needs**, *wish* → **wishes**

1 Nouns

Many nouns have an irregular plural which does not end in **-s**.

E.g. *man* → **men**, *sheep* → **sheep**

[See IRREGULAR PLURAL.] Some other nouns have an irregular **-s** plural.

E.g. *leaf* → **leaves**, *house /haus/* → **houses** /haʊzɪz/.

2 Verbs

The **-s** form of the verb is used only in the PRESENT TENSE, with 3rd person PRONOUNS or NOUN PHRASES which are SINGULAR:

singular	Present Tense
<i>He / She / It / The world etc.</i>	Verb + -s . . .

E.g. *The world longs for peace.*

[For details of when to use the **-s** in the Present Tense, look up AGREEMENT.]

NOTE: Modals such as CAN and WILL have no **-s** form. [See MODAL AUXILIARY 2a.]

3 Pronunciation

The **-s** form is pronounced /s/, /z/, or /iz/. [See PRONUNCIATION OF ENDINGS 2 for details.]

(the) same /ðə'seɪm/ (determiner or pronoun)

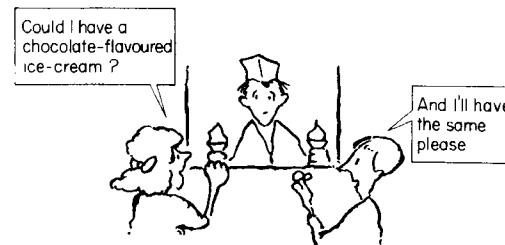
- **The same** means 'identical'. It is the opposite of ANOTHER or (a) DIFFERENT.

1 DETERMINER: the same + NOUN = NOUN PHRASE.

E.g. (i) *My son and yours go to the same school.*
(ii) *Charles and I have the same tastes: we like the same music, we read the same books, and we watch the same TV programmes. No wonder we find one another so boring!*

2 PRONOUN: the same = NOUN PHRASE.

E.g. (i)



(ii) *'I'm sorry I got angry with your father.' 'Don't worry – I would have done the same.'*

3 The same is often followed by an AS-phrase, or AS-clause of comparison [see COMPARATIVE CLAUSE 2].

E.g. *My son goes to the same school as yours.*

(Compare 1 (i) above.)

She looks just the same as she did five years ago: she hasn't changed a bit.

4 Idiom

All the same is a linking adverb (see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS) which starts a new sentence, expressing contrast. It is like YET, nevertheless; but not so <formal>.

E.g. *This year our team has lost some of its best players. All the same, we have won more games than we have lost.*

scarcely /'skɛəslɪ/ is a negative adverb of DEGREE meaning 'almost not at all'. It has the same meaning as HARDLY, but is less common.

second person [See YOU]

see [For the difference between **look**, **look at**, **see** and **watch**, look up LOOK 3.]

seem (verb) [See PERCEPTION VERB]
E.g. *She seems rather worried about something.*

seldom /'seldəm/ is a negative adverb of frequency, meaning 'infrequently', 'hardly ever'. It means the same as *rarely*. [See RARELY AND SELDOM.]

-self, -selves /'self/, /'-selvz/

- Words ending in **-self** or **-selves** are called 'reflexive pronouns': **myself**, **ourselves**, etc.
- Reflexive pronouns usually refer back to the SUBJECT of the clause or sentence.



E.g. *I admire myself. But: James hates himself*

- They can also be used for emphasis.
- E.g. *The manager himself telephoned me.*

- 1 The following shows how **-self** pronouns can occur after subject pronouns [see PERSONAL PRONOUNS 5]:

singular (-self)

*I helped myself
You helped yourself
He helped himself
She helped herself
It helped itself
(One helped oneself *) [see ONE 3]*

plural (-selves)

*We helped ourselves
You helped yourselves
They helped themselves*

* *Oneself* is rare in <G.B.> and very rare in <U.S.>.

- 1a If a singular noun phrase is subject, the **-self** pronoun is **himself** (male), **herself** (female), or **itself** (not a person). [See HE AND SHE, SEX on the problem of choice between male and female pronouns.]

- E.g. (i) *My brother has hurt himself.* (male)
(ii) *My aunt lives by herself.* * (female)
(iii) *A young bird soon finds itself a new nest.*
(iv) *My neighbour's not feeling herself** today.*
(v) *I hope that the children are enjoying themselves.*

If a plural noun phrase is subject, the **-self** pronoun is **themselves**.

- E.g. (vi) *I hope that Sue and Stanley are enjoying themselves.* **

* *By -self* is an idiom meaning 'alone'.

** *Feel -self* is an idiom meaning 'feel well'. A few verbs, such as **behave** -self and **enjoy** -self, have a -self pronoun which forms an idiom with the verb.

- E.g. *Enjoy -self* means 'have a good time'.
Behave -self means 'behave well'.

NOTE: If the clause does not have a subject, the -self pronoun agrees with the implied subject.

- E.g. *Behave yourself, John.
Help yourselves to food, everybody.
We invited them all to make themselves at home.*

2 The -self pronoun can appear in the following positions:

- (i) DIRECT OBJECT, as in (i) above.
- (ii) After a PREPOSITION, as in (ii) above.
- (iii) INDIRECT OBJECT, as in (iii) above.
- (iv) COMPLEMENT, as in (iv) above.

3 The -self pronoun and the object pronoun

There is a difference of meaning between the object pronoun and the -self pronoun in sentences like these:

- E.g. *Mary poured herself a drink. (**herself** = 'Mary')
Mary poured her a drink. (**her** = 'someone else')*

4 -self pronouns for emphasis

The -self pronoun gives emphasis to the noun phrase or pronoun in front of it.

- E.g. (i) *The great man himself visited us. We felt very proud.*

- (ii) *We ourselves cooked the dinner. (= and nobody else)*

- (iii) *They were introduced to the princess herself.*

- (iv) *The garden's very untidy, but the house itself is beautiful.*

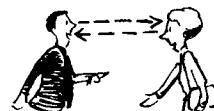
The pronoun has strong stress, as shown above.

- 4a If the -self pronoun follows the subject, the pronoun can be moved to the end. So instead of (i) and (ii) above we can say:

- E.g. (i) *The great man visited us himself.*

(ii) *We cooked the dinner ourselves.*

- 5 Note the difference between the **-self** pronouns and **each other** (or **one another**).



E.g. (i) *They saw each other at the airport.*



(ii) *They saw themselves in the mirror.*

sentence

- A **sentence** is the major unit of grammar.
- In <writing>, we begin a **sentence** with a capital letter and end it with a full-stop .

- 1 A simple sentence consists of one clause, and a complex sentence consists of more than one clause. [See CLAUSE for details of the structure of clauses, and their regular word order. See also WORD ORDER.]

2 **Sentence types**

We divide sentences into four sentence types:

(I) a **STATEMENT**.

E.g. *I like ice-cream. Michael doesn't like sweet things.*

(II) a **QUESTION**.

E.g. *Do you like ice-cream? [see YES-NO QUESTION]*

Who likes ice-cream? [see WH-QUESTION]

You like ice-cream? [see INTONATION 3]

(III) an **IMPERATIVE**.

E.g. *Come here. Don't sit there, please.*

(IV) an **EXCLAMATION**.

E.g. *What a terrible noise! How wonderful!*

NOTE: A simple sentence generally has a **SUBJECT** and **VERB**. We usually omit the subject in imperatives. We also often omit the subject and verb in exclamations.

E.g. *How wonderful it is! → How wonderful!*

3 **Complex sentences**

We make a complex sentence by joining clauses together by either subordination or coordination or both. [See CLAUSE for further details.]

- 3a A sentence which consists of clauses linked by coordination is often called a 'compound sentence'.

E.g. *I like ice-cream, but Michael doesn't like sweet things.*

NOTE: You can make a sentence as long as you like, by adding more clauses. But remember that the average length of a sentence in <written> English is about 17 words. If you make your sentences much longer than this, they may be difficult to understand.

- 3b [For further information, see CONJUNCTION, COORDINATION, SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.]

sentence adverb

[See ADVERB, LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

sentence relative clause

[See RELATIVE CLAUSE 7.]

several /'sev(ə)rəl/ (determiner or pronoun)

- 1 **Several** means 'a small number (of)', usually between 3 and 9. **Several** is similar to (A) FEW, but has a more 'positive' meaning.

2 **Patterns**

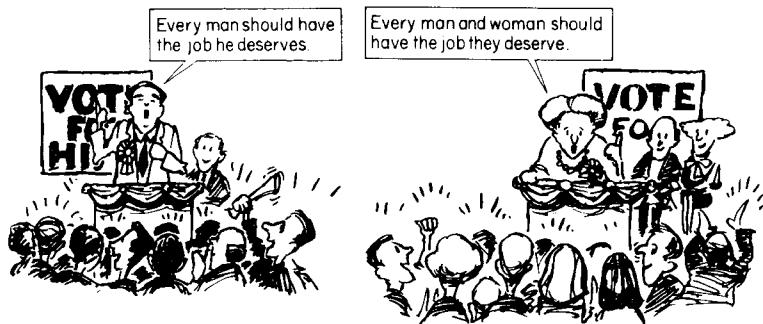
- 2a **Several** + plural noun:

E.g. *There was a bad accident in the street outside our house: several people were injured.*

- 2b **Several** + (of . . .):

E.g. *I know Hamburg very well. Several of my friends live there.
'Can I borrow a pen?' 'Yes – help yourself. There are several on my desk.'*

- 3 [See QUANTITY WORDS to compare **several** with other words which tell 'how many'.]

sex how to refer to male and female**1 Pronouns**

In English, the difference of sex between male and female is shown only in the singular pronouns **he** and **she** [see HE AND SHE]. The plural pronoun **they** can refer to both sexes:

	singular	plural
male	he	they
female	she	

2 Nouns

Sometimes, the choice of different nouns shows the difference of sex:

(I) male		female	
man	uncle	woman	aunt
boy	nephew	girl	niece
father	brother	mother	sister
son	king	daughter	queen

(II) male		female	
policeman	priest	policewoman	priestess
Frenchman	prince	Frenchwoman	princess
actor	duke	actress	duchess
manager	host	manageress	hostess

In List (II), the female word has a special ending **-woman**, **-ess**.

However, these endings are becoming rarer nowadays, especially **-ess**.

2a Many other nouns are neutral: they are used for both males and females.

E.g. **student, teacher, doctor, secretary, scientist, nurse**.

If necessary, we can add a word in front of these to indicate sex.

E.g. **female student, woman doctor** (Plural: **women doctors**), **male nurse**.

3 So what is the problem?

3a There is no problem where English has a neutral word for male or female, as well as the male and female words.

E.g. **boy / girl = child**
mother / father = parent
brother / sister = sibling < rare >

3b But there is a problem where English has no neutral word.

E.g. **he / she = ? chairwoman / chairwoman = ?**

3c In the past, English has used the male pronoun to refer to both sexes.

E.g. **Everyone thinks he is right, so no one will admit that he is wrong.**
(he = 'he or she')
Men have lived on earth for more than a million years.
(men = 'men and women')

3d But nowadays, many people (especially women) dislike this. They prefer:

- to use **or** (i.e. **he or she** instead of **he**).
- to use a new word (i.e. a new pronoun **s/he**, for **he / she**; or **chairperson**, for **chairman**).
- to use the plural **they** for the singular < in speech > [see HE AND SHE].

[See HE AND SHE 2, and MAN 2, for further examples and discussion.]

3e The problem is: (a) **he or she** is sometimes awkward, and (b) not everyone likes new words! (c) In exams, using the plural instead of the singular is considered < incorrect >.

Is there an answer to the problem?

There is no 'correct' choice. So we suggest that you:

- Avoid the problem where you can, i.e. by using neutral words like **they, person, and human being**.
- Otherwise, choose the form that you like best!

shall /ʃæl/, (weak form: /ʃəl/) (negative: **shan't** /ʃənt/ |ʃæ:nt/ < rare >) (modal auxiliary)

► **Shall** is used mainly in questions with **shall I . . . ?** or **shall we . . . ?**

► **Shall** is rather rare in < G.B. > and very rare in < U.S. >.

- 1 **Shall** {*I*
we} . . .? is used in making an offer.



E.g. (i) **Shall I open the door?** (= 'Do you want me to . . .?')
 (ii) **Shall we carry those bags for you?**

- 2 **Shall we** . . .? is a way of making a suggestion about the future in <G.B.> (**we** here usually means 'you and I').

E.g. '**Shall we go abroad?**' 'Yes, let's go to Morocco, **shall we?**'*

* Note that **shall we** can be used as a TAG QUESTION following LET'S.

- 3 **Shall** {*I*
we} . . .? is a way of asking for ADVICE or a SUGGESTION.

E.g. (i)



(ii) 'What **shall we** do this afternoon?' 'Let's go for a walk in the park.'

- 4 **Shall** is also used for <formal> instructions.

E.g. All students **shall** attend classes regularly.

- 5 In an older or <more formal> kind of English, **shall** is sometimes used instead of WILL in STATEMENTS. Some people feel that it is <not correct> to use **will** after **I** or **we** in statements about the future, especially in writing. So they use **I shall** or **we shall** instead. You will often find **shall** used in this way in English literature written before c. 1950.

E.g. **I shall** arrive next Monday.
We shall never forget you.

- 6 **Shan't** (/ʃə:nt || ʃæ:nt/), the NEGATIVE form of **shall**, is <rare>, especially in <U.S.>.

E.g. **I shan't be here tomorrow, I'm afraid.** <G.B.>
I won't be here tomorrow, I'm afraid. <G.B.> and <U.S.>

she /ʃi:/ (weak form /ʃɪ/) **her, hers, herself**

- **She** is the 3rd person singular female personal pronoun. [See HE AND SHE for details of the use of **she**.]
- **She** is the form of the pronoun used as SUBJECT of a clause.
 E.g. 'Where's your mother?' '**She**'s gone to the bank.'
 [See PERSONAL PRONOUN.]

shortened sentences and clauses

- **Shortened sentences** are often used to answer questions.
- **Shortened sentences** consist of SUBJECT and AUXILIARY or BE (+ NOT) with the rest of the sentence omitted.
 E.g. 'Are you enjoying the play?' 'Yes, **I am** (enjoying the play).'
- **Shortened sentences** are useful, because they save words. The omitted words are not needed, because they repeat what has been said before.
- Notice that INTONATION is important in **shortened sentences**.

- 1 We often use **shortened sentences** in reply to other sentences.

- 1a Shortened sentences to answer questions
 Use the same choice of auxiliary or BE as in the question.

E.g. '**Have** you ever been to Istanbul?' 'No, **I haven't**.'
I can't speak Portuguese. **Can you?** 'Well, **I can**, but only a little.'

- 1b Shortened sentences to answer statements, requests, etc.

E.g. '**The bus must be late.**' 'Yes, **it always is** (late).'
Please sit down.' 'Thanks, **I will** (sit down).'

- 2 There are also shortened clauses
 They may be coordinated clauses [see COORDINATION].

E.g. **Ann said she would win the game, and she has** (won the game).
 or SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

E.g. **I would pay the whole fare, if I could** (pay the whole fare).

- 3 Notice we use **do** as an 'empty' auxiliary [see do 2f].

E.g. Ann plays chess, and **Betty does**, too. (= 'plays chess, too')

- 4 Shortened clauses and sentences are used in many different sentence patterns. [See EITHER; NEITHER; SO; TAG QUESTION; COMPARATIVE CLAUSE 4 for further details].

should and ought to /ʃʊd/ (weak form: /ʃəd/), /'ɔ:t tu:/ (weak form: /'ɔ:tə/) (modal auxiliaries)

- **Should** and **ought to** are MODAL AUXILIARIES with similar meanings.
- You can always use **should** instead of **ought to**.
- **Should** and **ought to** have negative forms **shouldn't** /'ʃudnt/ and **oughtn't to** /'ɔ:tnt tu:/.
- **Should** was once the Past form of **shall**. But now there is little connection between these two auxiliaries. [See 8 below.]

1 Forms

		main verb
<i>I You We He, She They etc.</i>	{ should ought to }	be <i>grateful.</i>
		have <i>sent them a card.</i>
		go <i>to bed early.</i>
		feed <i>the animals regularly.</i>
		etc. etc.

negative:

		main verb
<i>I You We He, She They etc.</i>	{ shouldn't oughtn't to }	be <i>so noisy.</i>
		have <i>forgotten her name.</i>
		leave <i>the children at home.</i>
		tell <i>lies.</i>
		etc. etc.

question:		main verb
{ Should* Shouldn't }	<i>I</i>	be <i>working now?</i>
	<i>you</i>	have <i>sent her a present?</i>
	<i>we</i>	do <i>the washing?</i>
	<i>he, she</i>	phone <i>the police immediately?</i>
	<i>they</i>	etc.
	etc.	etc.

* **Ought to** is <rare> in QUESTIONS. The **to** follows the SUBJECT.
E.g. **Ought(n't) we to** post these letters? (**we** = subject).

Past time

Should and **ought to** have no PAST forms. To express past time, use **should** or **ought to** + PERFECT:

SHOULD / OUGHT TO + HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

E.g. **You should write to her.** (present)

You should have* written to her yesterday. (past)

* Note that **should have** is pronounced /'ʃudəv/.

Meanings of **should** and **ought to**

- a **Should / ought to** + Verb means that Verb-ing is a good thing to do: something that is right or desirable (but is probably not done at the moment).

E.g. **The government should lower taxes.**

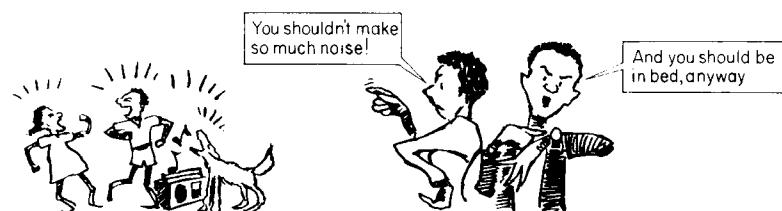
You ought to phone your mother every week. (but you don't!)

- b **Should** and **ought to** are sometimes used for rules and instructions.

E.g. **Children should be seen and not heard.** (an old saying)

- c The negative **shouldn't** / **oughtn't to** + Verb means that something isn't right – and probably no one will put it right!

E.g. **I shouldn't smoke so much.** (but I do!)



- 3d** **Should / ought to + Verb** also means that something is probable, i.e. is likely to happen.

E.g. *The plane should be landing at Copenhagen right now.* ('It is 7 o'clock, and the plane is due to land at 7.')
You should be able to see the Alps from here: they're only a few miles away.

- 3e** **Shouldn't / oughtn't to + Verb** has the opposite meaning – that something is improbable.

E.g. *There shouldn't be any problems at the airport. I've checked everything – tickets, passport, baggage . . .*

4 **Should have and shouldn't have**

- 4a** With past events, **should have** or **ought to have** implies that the event did not happen.

E.g. *You should have posted those letters. Why didn't you?*
He should have been home long ago. Where is he?

- 4b** **Shouldn't have** or **oughtn't to have** implies that the past event did happen.

E.g. *You shouldn't have lent him so much money.* ('but you did')

5 **The difference in meaning between must and should / ought to**

The meanings of **should / ought to** above (3a–3e) are less strong than the meanings of **must** [see **MUST 2**]. [See **MUST 3** for a comparison of **must** and **should**.]

- 5a** **Must** is useful for giving orders.

E.g. *You must clean your teeth after meals.*

But **should** or **ought to**, being weaker, is useful for giving advice.

E.g. *You should take more exercise: it would do you good.*

- 5b** **Must + Verb** implies that the 'verb' definitely happens.

Should / ought to + Verb implies that it may not happen.

E.g. *The boys must be working.* ('I feel certain')
The boys should be working. ('But they may not be working.')

6 **Should has a special 'tentative' use**

This is a use of **should**, but not of **ought to**. It is used mainly in <G.B.>.

- 6a** **Should** in a conditional clause [see **IF, CONDITIONAL CLAUSE**] means that the condition is doubtful and unlikely to happen.

E.g. (i)

If anyone **should** phone,
tell them I'm very busy



(ii) **Should there be a problem, I hope you will call me immediately.**
 (= 'If there's a problem')

- 6b** Some adjectives, verbs, and nouns can be followed by a **THAT-clause** [see **THAT 1**] containing **should**. When we use **should** in these patterns, it means we are interested in the idea in the **THAT-clause**, not in the fact that something happened. [See **ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 2, VERB PATTERNS 4.**]

E.g. (i) *It's { odd
a pity
annoying } that the neighbours **should** object.*

(ii) *I was anxious that the game **should** be a draw.*

(iii) *I was { sorry
pleased } that they **should** think that.*

(iv) *The bank insisted that he **should** resign.*

- 6c** You can always use another form instead of 'tentative **should**'. Instead of 6a (i) above you can say:

E.g. *If anyone phones, tell them I'm very busy.*

Instead of 6b (iv) you can say:

E.g. *The bank insisted that he { resign. <more formal>
resigned. <less formal>*

7 **Should in WH-QUESTIONS**

Should expresses a feeling of surprise, protest, or disbelief.

E.g. *How should I know? Why should Philip resign?*

This is common in both <G.B.> and <U.S.>.

- 8** **Should** is occasionally the past form of **SHALL** in unreal conditions [see **IF 1c**].

E.g. *I should be grateful if you could help me.*

Here **should** is <polite and formal>, and it can be replaced by **would** [see **WOULD 1**].

9 [On **should** and **ought to** in indirect speech, see INDIRECT SPEECH 1c: Note.]

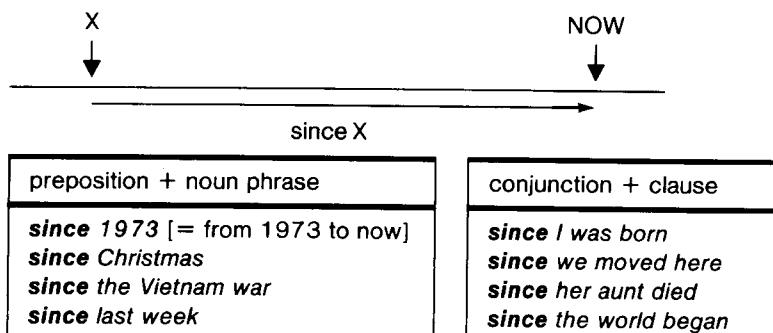
simple sentence [See SENTENCE 1, 2]

since /sins/ (preposition, conjunction or adverb)

- **Since** is a preposition, subordinating conjunction, and adverb of LENGTH OF TIME.
- **Since** is also a subordinating conjunction of REASON OR CAUSE [see 3 below].

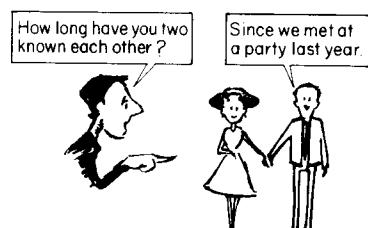
1 **Since** meaning 'time up to now'

When referring to time, **since** measures time from a point in the past up to now:



1a **Since** answers the question **How long?** + PERFECT.

E.g.



1b Other uses of **since** referring to time:

(A) **since** + -ING CLAUSE.

E.g. **Since losing his wife** he has been very unhappy.

(B) **since** + ADVERB.

E.g. I first met Adam 10 years ago. **Since then** we have been great friends.

(C) **Since** meaning 'a time from one point in the past up to another point in the past'. (The main clause contains a PAST PERFECT verb phrase.)

E.g. Sam met his future wife in Nigeria in 1950. She **had** lived there **since** 1939.

1c **Since** as an adverb means the same as **since then**; but it cannot go at the front of the clause.

E.g. Sam wrote to me last winter, and I have had no news from him **since**. (= 'since last winter')

2 The verb with **since**

Don't forget: **since** has to have a Perfect* verb phrase in the main clause [see PRESENT PERFECT 5].

E.g. 'How long has the President been in power?' 'Oh, he's **been** in power **since 1985**.' **

I arrived at 10 o'clock, but the meeting **had been** in progress **since 9 o'clock**.

Our neighbours **have lived** next door ever since *** I was a child.

* A 'Perfect' verb phrase means either Present Perfect, Past Perfect, or modal + Perfect.

E.g. They **must have known** each other **since childhood**.

** Notice we do not say 'He **is** in power **since . . .**'.

*** Ever adds emphasis to **since**.

3 **Since** (subordinating conjunction) also means 'because'; it is < rather formal>.

E.g. These plants should not be planted in the shade, **since** they require sunlight for healthy growth.

[See REASON AND CAUSE.]

singular [See PLURAL]

'Singular' means 'one; not more than one'.

In English grammar, we use singular to describe:

(A) pronouns. 1st person singular = **I**

2nd person singular = **you** (**you** can also be plural)

3rd person singular = **he**, **she**, **it**

(b) nouns. A singular noun has no ending added to it.

A regular plural noun (i.e. 'more than one') ends with **-s**.

E.g. **One boy**, **two boys**

(C) verbs. A regular verb has **-s** in the 3rd person singular of the PRESENT TENSE. In the plural, the verb has no ending added to it.

E.g. **A dog barks**. **Dogs bark**.

[See also PERSONAL PRONOUN, REGULAR VERB, AGREEMENT, -S FORM.]

SO /səʊ/ (adverb, conjunction, linking adverb or pronoun)**1 So as an adverb of degree** [Compare SUCH.]**1a SO + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB / MUCH / MANY**

In this pattern, **so** means 'very', but it doesn't express exactly how much. **So** shows that the speaker feels strongly about something.

E.g.



[See also EXCLAMATIONS 6.]

NOTE: **So** is common in negative IMPERATIVES and EXCLAMATIONS.
E.g. *Don't be so silly!* *I've never been so angry in my life.*

1b SO + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB / MUCH / MANY + THAT + CLAUSE
In this pattern, **so** expresses result.

E.g. (i) *The teacher speaks so clearly that everyone can understand her.*
 (ii) *The wind was so strong that it blew the roof off the house.*

[See RESULT for further examples. See also COMPARATIVE CLAUSE 2c.]

2 So as a linking word*

So links two clauses or sentences:

Fact 1, → (**and**) **so** → Fact 2

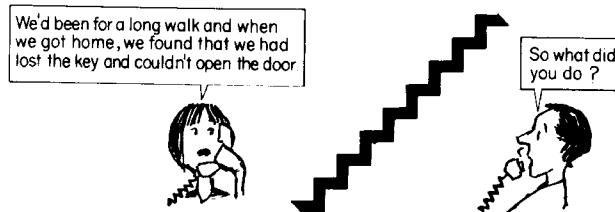
where { (i) Fact 1 is a reason for Fact 2. [See REASON AND CLAUSE.]
 (ii) Fact 2 is a result of Fact 1. [See RESULT.]

E.g. (i) *We all felt tired, and so we went to bed.*
 (ii) *Ben had lost his money, so he had to borrow some from me.*

* **So** in this pattern is either a conjunction or a linking adverb. Its word class is unclear.

- 2a** In <spoken> English, we often begin a sentence with **so**, making a link with what has been said before.

E.g.



- 2b** **So** is also a shortened form of **so that**, expressing PURPOSE:

E.g. *You'd better get up early, so (that) you don't miss the train.*
<informal>

3 So as a pronoun in replies etc.

- 3a** **So** replaces a **that**-clause [see THAT 1] after some verbs [see VERB PATTERN 4, 14]:

E.g. '*Will you be able to help us?*' I { **hope**
expect
believe } **so.**' (= '... that I will be able to help you.')

- 3b** You can use **so** after some negative verbs, or you can use **not** instead [see NOT 6]:

E.g. '*Has the new carpet arrived?*' *I don't think so.*' (= *I think not.*
<rare>)

- 3c** **So** also replaces a **that**-clause after **afraid**:

E.g. '*Have they cancelled the match?*' *I'm afraid so.*'

- 3d** **So** replaces a CONDITIONAL CLAUSE in **If so*** [see IF]:

E.g. *They say the potato crop will be the best ever this year. If so*, the price of potatoes will go down steeply.* (= 'If the potato crop is the best ever')

* The opposite of **If so** is **If not**.

- 3e** **So** is more or less equivalent to **true**:

E.g. '*I understand that you are the wife of Robert Owen, who disappeared last week. Is that so?*' *'Yes, that's so.'* <formal>

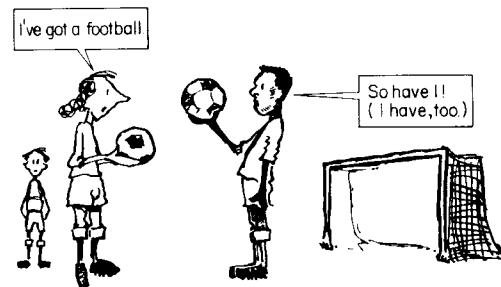
4 So at the front of a clause

If **so** is used at the front of a clause, the word order is changed [see INVERSION 2–4]. (But see the Note below for an exception.)

4a SO + AUXILIARY / BE + SUBJECT

In this pattern, **so** is an adverb meaning '**too**'.

E.g. (i)



- (ii) 'We often go to the theatre.' '**So do* we.**' (= 'We often go to the theatre, **too**.')

The negative of **so** in this pattern is **neither** [see NEITHER 4].

E.g. 'We don't often go to the theatre.' '**Neither do* we.**' (= 'We don't often go to the theatre, **either**.')

* Here we use **do** as an 'empty' auxiliary [see do 2].

NOTE: SO + SUBJECT + AUXILIARY / BE

This pattern is a shortened clause like pattern 4a [see SHORTENED SENTENCES AND CLAUSES], but there is no inversion. It expresses surprise and agreement with what has just been said.

E.g. 'It's starting to snow.' '**So it is!**'

'You've spilled some coffee on your dress.' 'Oh dear, **so I have.**'

- 4b** Moving SO + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB to the front of a clause also requires inversion [see INVERSION 2–4]. In this pattern **so** expresses result, as in 1b above, but the meaning is more emphatic than in 1b.

E.g. { **The concert was so terrible** that half the audience left.
So terrible was the concert that half the audience left.

5 Idioms

There are many idioms with **so**. If you wish, look up the following in a dictionary, and also look up the sections of this book as shown: **do so** [see DO 3b]; **even so** [see CONTRAST 1]; **... or so** [see NUMBERS 6b]; **so as to** [see PURPOSE]; **so (that)** [see PURPOSE, RESULT].

some and any /səm/ (weak form: /səm/), /'eni/ (determiners, pronouns or adverbs)

- **Some** and **any** are QUANTITY WORDS.

1 When to use **some** and **any**

A / AN means 'one', but **some** replaces a / an when we are talking either about more than one or about something which we cannot count [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS]. **Some** = 'an amount / number of'.

E.g.



- 1a** **Any** usually replaces **some** in questions and after negatives.

E.g. (i) **I want some eggs.**

(ii) **Do you want any eggs?**

(iii) **No, I don't want any eggs, thanks.**

- 1b** Examples: (= positive; = question; = negative)

plural countable

There are some boys in the swimming pool.



There is some salt on the table.



Are there any girls in the pool?

No, there aren't any girls * in the pool, because they're all playing tennis.

Is there any pepper on the table?

No, I'm afraid there isn't any pepper. *



* We can also say **there are no girls** or **there is no pepper** [see NO].

NOTE (i): With UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS such as **pepper** the verb is singular [see AGREEMENT 1a: Note (iii)].

NOTE (ii): [See SOME-WORDS AND ANY-WORDS 2b: Note for some other situations in which we can use **any**.]

2 Some /səm/ * and any as DETERMINERS

Determiners come before a noun:

(I) plural noun.

E.g. **We have invited some students to the party.** **? Have you invited any students to the party?** **X We haven't invited any students to the party.**

(II) uncountable noun.

E.g. **They gave us some advice about the exam.** **? Did they give you any advice about the exam?** **X They didn't give us any advice about the exam.*** When **some** is a determiner, we usually use the weak form /səm/. [But see 5 below.]**3 Some /səm/ and any as PRONOUNS**As pronouns, **some** and **any** are followed by **of**, or they stand alone as subject, object, etc:

plural:

E.g. **Some of the guests are married, and some (of them) are single.**

uncountable:

E.g. **Some of the tea in Chinese, and some (of it) is Indian.**

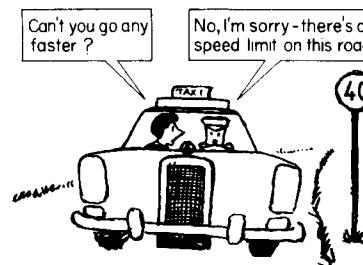
plural:

E.g. **? Have you met any of the passengers?** **X No, I haven't even seen any (of them) yet.**

uncountable:

E.g. **? Have you tried any of this delicious apple juice?** **X No, and I don't want any (of it). I'm not thirsty, you see.'****4 Some in requests and offers**(A) You can use **some** in requests (even when they have the form of questions).E.g. **Can I have some milk, please?****Could you lend me some money?**(B) You can also use **some** in OFFERS.E.g. **Will you have some cake?****I've just picked these apples. Would you like some?****Some** makes the request or offer more positive. It means that you want the answer 'yes'.NOTE: You can also use **some** in any question when you expect the answer 'yes'.E.g. **'I've just been shopping.' 'Oh. Did you buy {any
some} rice?****5 The 'strong' use of some and any**As determiners (as well as pronouns) **some** and **any** can be (strongly) stressed.**5a The 'strong' use of some pronounced /sʌm/:**In example (i) below, **some** is an important word because it implies a contrast between two groups of people.E.g. (i) **'Some** people like red wine, and **some** people prefer white.(ii) **There has to be some reason for the murder.****5b The 'strong' use of any:**The 'strong' use of **any** can occur in positive statements, often with a singular countable noun.'Strong' **any** generally goes with words like CAN, COULD, and WILL, and means that there is a choice from every possibility.E.g. **You can paint the house any colour you like.****'Any good guide will tell you the best places to visit.****'Any dictionary is better than none.****6 Some and any as ADVERBS OF DEGREE**Less commonly, **some** (/sʌm/) and **any** (/enɪ/) are adverbs of degree.E.g. (i) **Some** two million tourists visit our country every summer. (**some** = 'about')(ii) **Was the play any good? (any = 'at all')**

(iii)

**some- words and any- words**► **Some-** words and **any-** words are DETERMINERS, INDEFINITE PRONOUNS and ADVERBS.► [For further details of **some-** words and **any-** words as pronouns, see INDEFINITE PRONOUN 3.]

1 List of some- words and any- words

Not all the words in this list begin with **some-** or **any-**. But they all behave in the same way.

(I) pronouns	(not person)	(person)*	(person)*
some- words	something /'sʌmθɪŋ/	someone /'sʌmwʌn/	somebody /'sʌmbɒdɪ/
any- words	anything /'enɪ,θɪŋ/	anyone /'enɪ,wʌn/	anybody /'enɪ,bɒdɪ/

(II) adverbs	(place)* *	(frequency)	(degree)
some- words	somewhere /'sʌmweə/	sometimes /'sʌmtaɪmz/	somewhat /'sʌmwɒt/
any- words	anywhere /'enɪ,weə/	ever /'evə/	at all /ət'ɔ:l/

* There is no difference of meaning between the words ending **-one** and **-body**, except that those ending **-one** are more common.

** In <U.S.> **somewhere** and **anywhere** are often used, instead of **somewheres** and **anywheres**.

2 How some- words and any- words behave [See SOME AND ANY]

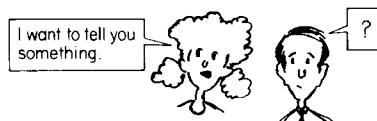
Use **some-** words in positive STATEMENTS.

Use **any-** words instead of **some-** words in QUESTIONS and after negatives [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES].

2a Examples:

(I) Pronouns. (E.g. **something**, **anything**):

positive statement:



question:



negative:

You don't know anything about the accident. You weren't there.



(II) Adverbs. (E.g. **sometimes**, **ever**):

Margaret **sometimes** visits her grandmother.

Does she **ever** telephone her parents?

No, I don't think she **ever** writes to them, either.

2b There are some other pairs of adverbs which correspond in this same way:

some- words: { **already*** **still*** **too***
any- words: { **yet*** **any more** **either***

* [These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. See also **too 1** and **either 2**.]

NOTE: In addition to questions and negatives, there are some other places where you can use an **any-** word:

(A) In an INDIRECT QUESTION:

E.g. We asked the doctor **whether anything** was wrong.

(B) In an **if-** clause [see **if**].

E.g. If **anyone** calls, please tell them I'm out.

(C) In a COMPARATIVE CLAUSE.

E.g. We get more rain **here than anywhere else** in the country.

(D) After a word with negative meaning.

E.g. It was { **impossible** } for **anyone** to escape from the castle.

3 Some- words in OFFERS and REQUESTS

Some- words can be used in special questions, particularly when they are offers or requests [compare SOME AND ANY 4].

E.g. Would you like **something** to eat?

Could **someone** open this door, please?

4 Any- words are used in positive statements when they mean there is a choice from every possibility [compare SOME AND ANY 5b].

E.g. **Anyone** can make a mistake like that. (**anyone** = 'everyone')

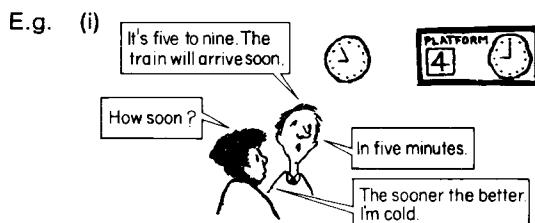
Help yourselves to **anything** you want. (**anything** = 'everything')

sometimes /'sʌmtaimz/ and **sometime** /'sʌmtaim/ (adverbs)

- 1 **Sometimes** (= 'on some occasions') is an adverb of frequency. **Sometimes** generally goes in front position or in middle position in the sentence [see ADVERB 3].
E.g. *Sometimes I cook my own dinner, but often I prefer to eat at a cafe.*
The trains from London to Liverpool sometimes arrive late, but they are usually on time.
- 2 **Sometime** is an adverb of time meaning 'at some time in the future'. **Sometime** generally goes in end position. It is much less common than **sometimes**. We can also write it as two words: **some time**.
E.g. *Why don't you come and stay with us sometime?*

soon /su:n/, **sooner** /'su:nə/, **(the) soonest** /'su:nist/ (adverb of time)

- **Soon** means 'in the near future, within a short time'. **Sooner** means 'nearer to now'. **The soonest** means 'nearest to now'.



(ii) 'How soon can you mend this watch?' 'The soonest we can do it is next Saturday.'

Sorry [See PARDON, SORRY AND EXCUSE ME]

sort (of) (noun of kind) [See KIND (OF), SORT (OF), AND TYPE (OF)]

spelling [See CONSONANTS AND VOWELS]

- When we add an ending to a word, we sometimes have to change the word's **spelling**. There are four rules:

- 1 Double the consonant. E.g. *get ~ getting*.
- 2 Drop the silent -e. E.g. *love ~ loving*.
- 3 Add -e before -s. E.g. *pass ~ passes*.
- 4 Change -y to -i(e) (or -ie to -y). E.g. *fly ~ flies; die ~ dying*.
These changes of spelling do not alter the way we pronounce the word itself. [But see 3 on -es.] [For words with changes of pronunciation see IRREGULAR VERB and IRREGULAR PLURAL.]

- 1 **Double the final consonant** when the last two letters of a word are a single vowel letter followed by a consonant letter (e.g. *stop*) and when the ending begins with a vowel (e.g. *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*). The rule is: (C) + V + C + C + V . . . E.g. *stop, stopped, stopping, stopper*.

1a Examples:

VERB	+ -ing	+ -ed*	+ -er (= noun)
get	getting		go-getter
rub	rubbing	rubbed	rubber
sit	sitting		baby-sitter
plan	planning	planned	planner
run	running		runner
swim	swimming		swimmer

* This column shows regular verb forms only.

1b Examples:

ADJECTIVE	+ -er	+ -est	-en (verb)
big	bigger	biggest	
sad	sadder	saddest	sadden
hot	hotter	hottest	

NOTE (i): Do not double the consonant if the vowel is written with two letters
E.g. *great, greater, greatest*
look, looking, looked

NOTE (ii): The letters **w** and **y** count as vowels when they come after a vowel. So there is no doubling in these cases.

E.g. *play, playing, played, player*
row, rowing, rowed, rower

NOTE (iii): Never double an **X**.
E.g. *box → boxing* *tax → taxing*

1c In two- or three-syllable words, the rule for doubling is changed as follows:

Double the final consonant as described in 1, if the last vowel in the word is stressed (as in (A) below), but not if it is unstressed (as in (B) below):

Examples:

(A) <i>be'gin</i>	<i>be'ginnin<i>g</i></i>	<i>oc'cur</i>	<i>oc'currin<i>g</i></i>	<i>ad'mit</i>	<i>ad'mittin<i>g</i></i>	<i>pre'fer</i>	<i>pre'ferrin<i>g</i></i>	<i>be'ginner</i>	<i>oc'currence</i>	<i>ad'mittance</i>	<i>[preference]</i>
(B) <i>'enter</i>	<i>'enterin<i>g</i></i>	<i>'visit</i>	<i>'visitin<i>g</i></i>	<i>de'velop</i>	<i>de'velopin<i>g</i></i>	<i>'entered</i>	<i>'visited</i>	<i>de'veloped</i>			

NOTE: An exception to (B) in <G.B.> is that doubling does take place in words ending with an unstressed vowel + *t* or (sometimes) *s*, *p*, or *g*.

E.g.	{ <U.S. >:	<i>travel</i>	<i>traveling</i>	<i>traveled</i>
	{ <G.B. >:	<i>travel</i>	<i>travelling</i>	<i>travelled</i>
	{ <U.S. or G.B. >:	<i>worship</i>	<i>worshipping</i>	<i>worshipped</i>
	{ <G.B. >:	<i>worship</i>	<i>worshipping</i>	<i>worshipped</i>

2 Drop the silent -e when you add an ending beginning with a vowel.
(E.g. -ed, -er and -est, -ing*).

2a Examples:

VERB	+ -ing	+ -ed	+ -er (= noun)
<i>use</i>	<i>using</i>	<i>used</i>	<i>user</i>
<i>love</i>	<i>loving</i>	<i>loved</i>	<i>lover</i>
<i>come</i>	<i>coming</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>newcomer</i>
<i>write</i>	<i>writing</i>	<i>wrote</i>	<i>writer</i>
<i>change</i>	<i>changing</i>	<i>changed</i>	-
<i>suppose</i>	<i>supposing</i>	<i>supposed</i>	-
<i>argue</i>	<i>arguing</i>	<i>argued</i>	-

2b Examples:

ADJECTIVE	+ -er	+ -est
<i>pale</i>	<i>paler</i>	<i>palest</i>
<i>large</i>	<i>larger</i>	<i>largest</i>
<i>white</i>	<i>whiter</i>	<i>whitest</i>
<i>blue</i>	<i>bluer</i>	<i>bluest</i>

* [See -ED FORM, -ER / -EST, and -ING FORM to find out how these endings are used in grammar.]

NOTE (i): If the word ends in -ee, -oe, -ye, or (sometimes) -ge, it drops the -e before -ed, -er, -est, but not before -ing.

E.g. verbs:	<i>agree</i>	<i>agreeing</i>	<i>agreed</i>
	<i>hoe</i>	<i>hoeing</i>	<i>hoed</i>
	<i>dye</i>	<i>dyeing</i>	<i>dyed</i>
	<i>singe</i>	<i>singeing</i>	<i>singed</i>
adjectives:	<i>free</i>	<i>freer /'fri:ə/</i>	<i>freest /'frɪəst/</i>
	<i>strange</i>	<i>stranger</i>	<i>strangest</i>

NOTE (ii): If the word ends in -ie, it drops the -e before -ed, -er, -est, and also before -ing, where the -i- changes to -y-: e.g. *die* ~ *dying* ~ *died*.

3 Add -e- before -s where the -s ending comes after a 'hissing' sound (sibilant) spelled -s, -ss, -sh, -ch, -tch, -x, -z, -zz.

E.g. verbs:	<i>they pass</i>	~ <i>it passes</i>	/pə:siz/ /pæ:siz/
	<i>they watch</i>	~ <i>she watches</i>	/wɒtʃɪz/
	<i>they wish</i>	~ <i>he wishes</i>	/wɪʃɪz/
	<i>they teach</i>	~ <i>he teaches</i>	/ti:tʃɪz/

nouns:	<i>box</i>	~ <i>boxes</i>	<i>church</i>	~ <i>churches</i>
	<i>bus</i>	~ <i>buses</i>	<i>quiz</i>	~ <i>quizzes</i>

Notice that this added -e- is never silent. It always represents the vowel of the ending -/ɪz/, spelled -es.

NOTE: Also, add an -e- before the -s after these words ending in -o:

verbs:	<i>I do /du:/</i>	~ <i>he does /dʌz/</i>	<i>I go</i> ~ <i>she goes /gəʊz/</i>
nouns:	<i>potato</i>	~ <i>three potatoes</i> , please.	
	<i>tomato</i>	~ <i>ripe tomatoes</i> , please.	
	<i>hero</i>	~ <i>a place fit for heroes</i> .	
	<i>cargo</i>	~ <i>cargoes of bananas</i> .	

But most nouns ending in -o do not add the -e-.

E.g. *radio* ~ *radios*; *zoo* ~ *zoos*; *video* ~ *videos*; *kilo* ~ *kilos*. Never end a noun with -oes if:

- (A) the -o follows another vowel (e.g. *radios*), or
(B) the noun is a shortened word such as *kilos* (= kilograms).

4 How to deal with y and i after a consonant

4a Change a final -y to -ie- before you add -s:

E.g. verbs:	<i>fly</i>	~ <i>The pilot flies regularly</i> .
	<i>cry</i>	~ <i>The baby rarely cries</i> .
	<i>envy</i>	~ <i>He envies her because she's rich</i> .

(Also: *try* ~ *tries*; *carry* ~ *carries*; *copy* ~ *copies*, etc.)

nouns: *a baby* ~ *two babies*; *a city* ~ *many cities*
this body ~ *these bodies*; *my family* ~ *families*

4b Change a final -y to -i- before you add -ed, -er, -est, -ly:

Examples:

VERB	+ -ed	+ -er (= noun)
<i>cry</i>	<i>cried</i>	<i>crier</i>
<i>copy</i>	<i>copied</i>	<i>copier</i>
<i>carry</i>	<i>carried</i>	<i>carrier</i>
<i>worry</i>	<i>worried</i>	<i>worrier</i>

ADJECTIVE	<i>+ -er</i>	<i>+ -est</i>	[<i>+ -ly</i>]
happy	<i>happier</i>	<i>happiest</i>	[<i>happily</i>]
funny	<i>funnier</i>	<i>funniest</i>	[<i>funnily</i>]

ADVERB	<i>+ -er</i>	<i>+ -est</i>
early	<i>earlier</i>	<i>earliest</i>

NOTE (i): Do not change *-y* to *-i-* or *-ie-* when *-y* follows another vowel: e.g. *-ay*, *-ey*, *-oy*, *-uy*.
 E.g. verbs: *play* ~ *plays* ~ *played* ~ *player*
 nouns: *boy* ~ *boys*; *key* ~ *keys*

NOTE (ii): But there are three verbs which are exceptions to Note (i): *lay*, *pay*, and *say*.
 These all have a past form spelled *-aid*.
 E.g. 'Did you *lay* this carpet on the floor?' 'Yes, I *laid* it there a few minutes ago.'
 'Did you *pay* the bill?' 'Yes, I *paid* it last month.'
 'Did the witness *say* anything?' 'Yes, she *said* /sed/ a great deal.'
 Also, *-ay* changes to *-ai-* in *daily*.

4c Change *-ie* to *-y-* before *-ing* in these verbs:

die ~ *dying*; *lie* ~ *lying*; *tie* ~ *tying*

statement

- If a SENTENCE OR MAIN CLAUSE offers you information, it is a statement. A statement can be positive or negative.
 - Positive statement. E.g. *The sun is shining*.
 - Negative statement. E.g. *I didn't play football yesterday*.
- The statement is the commonest kind of sentence or main clause, contrasting with QUESTIONS and IMPERATIVES.
- Most statements contain a SUBJECT followed by a VERB element:

E.g.	(. . .)	subject	verb (. . .)
		<i>The manager</i>	<i>has resigned</i> .
	<i>Now</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>live</i> in Kowloon.
		<i>Jill and Mary</i>	<i>played</i> tennis last night.

NOTE: But in some statements the verb element comes before the subject.

E.g. '*I enjoyed the game*.' 'So *did I*.'

subject verb verb subject

[See WORD ORDER for further examples.]

state verbs and action verbs

- State verbs describe states which continue over a period.
 E.g. ***be***, ***know***.
- Action verbs (also called 'event verbs') describe something which happens in a limited time, and has a definite beginning and end.
 E.g. ***come***, ***get***, ***learn***.

- State verbs cannot usually have a Progressive form* [see PROGRESSIVE 3].

E.g. *I am learning Arabic* is a good English sentence, but:
I am knowing Arabic is not.

Instead, the Present Simple of ***know*** describes a continuing state.

E.g. *I know Arabic*.

- Here is a list of state verbs which do not usually have a Progressive form:

<i>appear</i>	<i>expect</i>	<i>know</i>	<i>own</i>	<i>seem</i>
(= 'seem')	<i>feel</i> (= 'think')	<i>like</i>	<i>possess</i>	<i>smell</i>
<i>be</i>	<i>forget</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>prefer</i>	<i>suppose</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>forgive</i>	<i>matter</i>	<i>realise</i>	<i>think</i>
(not) care	<i>hate</i>	<i>mean</i>	<i>recognise</i>	<i>trust</i>
<i>concern</i>	<i>have</i> (= 'possess')	(not) mind	<i>refuse</i>	<i>understand</i>
consist (of)	<i>keep (on)</i>	<i>notice</i>	<i>remember</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>dislike</i>	(= 'continue')	<i>owe</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>wish</i>

But these verbs can be in the Progressive when they describe an action or process. Compare.

E.g. *I see what you mean*. (*see* = 'understand') (Not *I am seeing* . . .)

But: *I am seeing the manager tomorrow*. (= 'meeting')

* Note that these state verbs can be in the Progressive:
stand, *sit*, *lie*, *live*.

- The state verbs (in 1a) use the simple verb form, even when they describe something which lasts for a limited period.

	temporary state	temporary action
E.g.	<i>The teacher thinks</i>	<i>that my work is improving</i> .
	<i>Malcolm is tired</i> .	<i>That's why he's yawning</i> .

still /stɪl/ (adverb) [See ALREADY, STILL AND YET]

stress [See also INTONATION]

- 1 We pronounce some syllables with more force than others. These are stressed syllables. They sound louder than other syllables.

2 Stress in words

- 2a A stressed syllable is marked with **'** in front of it in many dictionaries and grammar books.

- 2b Every English word of two or more syllables has one stressed syllable.

E.g. '**happ**en (= hap+pen), **be'com**e (= be+come), **re'mem**ber (= re+mem+ber).

3 Stress in sentences

To mark the strongest stresses in sentences we use these marks in this book:

↘ falling ↗ rising ↘ fall-rise

E.g. '**Where have you 'been?**' 'I've 'been to the University.'

[For further details, see INTONATION 4.]

4 Weak forms

About 50 short grammatical words in English have weak forms.

(weak)	(weak)	(weak)
E.g. a /eɪ/ ~ /ə/	at /æt/ ~ /ət/	she /ʃi:/ ~ /ʃɪ/
and /ænd/ ~ /ən(d)/	can /kæn/ ~ /kən/	the /ðɪ:/ ~ /ðɪ, ðə/
are /a:/ ~ /ə/	does /dəz/ ~ /dəz/	you /ju:/ ~ /jʊ/

- 4a We normally use the weak form in sentences, when the word is not stressed. For example, in 3 above:

'Where have /əv/ you /jʊ/ 'been?'
'I've /v/ 'been to /tə/ the /ðə/ 'uni'versity.'

NOTE (i): We use the 'strong form' when we are talking about the word itself.

E.g. **The** /ðə:/ is the most common word in English.

or when we want to stress the word for special emphasis: for example, at the end of a sentence

E.g. He 'can/kæn/ work 'hard, but he 'rarely 'does/dəz/.

NOTE (ii): If a word has a weak form, the weak form is given at the beginning of its entry in this book.

5 Change of word stress

Look at the word **present** in this example:



present /prɛzənt/ (with stress on the 2nd syllable) is a verb.

present /prezənt/ (with stress on the 1st syllable) is a noun.

- 5a There are about 50 words like **present** in English. The most important are:

noun	verb	noun	verb
'conduct	con'duct	'present	pre'sent
'conflict	conflict	'progress	pro'gress
'decrease	de'crease	'protest	pro'test
'export	exp'ort	'record	re'cord
'import	im'port	'suspect	sus'pect
'increase	in'crease	'transfer	trans'fer
'insult	in'sult	'transport	trans'port
'permit	per'mit	'upset	up'set

- 5b Some other common two-syllable words with different stress for noun and verb are:

construct contest contrast convert convict
digest discount escort extract pervert produce
rebel refill refund reject resist survey
torment transplant

NOTE: Many words of two syllables which act as noun or verb do not change their stress.
E.g. '**comfort**' is both noun and verb; '**surprise**' is both noun and verb.

subject

- The **subject** is a grammatical term for the part of a clause or sentence which generally goes before the VERB PHRASE (in STATEMENTS).

1 Some examples

subject	verb phrase (. . .)
Jane	<i>worked there.</i>
My sister and her husband	<i>are coming to stay.</i>
We	<i>sang and danced all night.</i>

2 Some facts about the subject

- (A) The subject usually begins a statement.*
- (B) The subject is normally a NOUN PHRASE or PRONOUN.**
- (C) The verb agrees with the subject in choosing between singular and plural [see AGREEMENT].
- (D) The subject normally describes the 'doer' of an action.***

* But in questions the subject often comes after the FINITE VERB, and in imperatives there is usually no subject. [See YES-NO QUESTION, WH-QUESTION 9, IMPERATIVE.] In statements, an adverb may go first [see ADVERB 3].

** The subject may also sometimes be a clause.

E.g. **What we need** is a sharp knife.

*** The subject is not the 'doer' of an action if the verb is a state verb [see STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS].

E.g. **Pat resembles her mother.**

This bottle contains acid.

Also, the subject is not the 'doer' in passive sentences [see PASSIVE].

E.g. **The boys were punished by their mother.**

subject

'doer'

3 Subject pronouns

Subject pronouns [see PERSONAL PRONOUN] are pronouns which are used in the position of subject: I / YOU / HE / SHE / IT / WE / THEY / WHO.

Subject pronouns are sometimes called 'nominative' or 'subjective' pronouns. They contrast with OBJECT pronouns such as **me, her, us**.

4 The subject is usually the topic of the sentence – i.e. it refers to what is in the front of your mind, the first thing that you want to talk about.

- E.g. (i) **This violin** is difficult to play. (topic = **this violin**)
(ii) **I** find it difficult to play **this violin**. (topic = **I**)

But sometimes in <speech> the topic and subject are different.

- E.g. (iii) You know **this essay** I'm writing? Can you help me with it
this evening? { (topic = **essay**)
{ (subject = **you**) } }
(iv) **That man** – I can't stand him. { (topic = **that man**)
{ (subject = **I**) } }

In <writing> we do not separate topic and subject as in (iii) and (iv). We organize the sentence in a different way. Compare,

- E.g. Alan – I trust him completely. <speech>
and
Alan is a person that I trust completely. <speech or writing>

subject pronoun [See SUBJECT 3, PERSONAL PRONOUN]

subjective case is a grammatical term sometimes used for the SUBJECT pronoun form of personal pronouns.

subjunctive

- **Subjunctive** is a term used for the verb in some situations where we use the BASIC FORM (or plural form) instead of an -S FORM.
- The **subjunctive** belongs mainly to <formal> or <written> English. It is not common.
- There are three kinds of **subjunctive**.

1 Subjunctive in *that*-clauses

We use the subjunctive in *that*-clauses [see THAT 1] after some verbs and adjectives [see VERB PATTERNS 4, ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 2]. This subjunctive expresses an intention or proposal about the future.

- E.g. (i) **The Minister insisted that he leave** the country immediately.
(ii) **I propose that Ms Bond be elected** secretary.
(iii) **It is essential that the committee resign.**

You can use either the subjunctive or the S-FORM:

subjunctive: E.g. **he leave** Ms Bond **be elected**

-s form: E.g. **he leaves** Ms Bond **is elected**

This subjunctive is more common in <U.S.>, <G.B.> prefers **should + Verb** [see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 6b].

- E.g. (i) **The Minister insisted that he should leave** the country immediately.

2 Subjunctive in main clauses

We use this in a few <formal> idioms expressing a strong wish.

- E.g. **God save the Queen.** (= 'May God save . . .')
Heaven forbid that you should suffer.
Bless you! (= 'May God bless you.')

3 **Were** is a subjunctive which we can use instead of **was** in expressing UNREAL MEANING. [See WERE 2.]

- E.g. **I wish the meeting { were } was over.**

If I { **were** } still at school, I would work harder for my exams.

subordinate clause

- A **subordinate clause** is one which is part of another clause, i.e. is dependent on a main clause. [See CLAUSE.]
- A **subordinate clause** cannot stand alone as a sentence. [See SENTENCE.]

1 Main types of subordinate clause

1a NOUN CLAUSE:

E.g. **What this country needs** is a period of peace.

1b ADVERBIAL CLAUSE:

E.g. **If you follow my instructions**, nobody will be hurt.

1c RELATIVE CLAUSE:

E.g. **The man who owes me money** lives in Australia.

1d COMPARATIVE CLAUSE:

E.g. **Malcolm spends money faster than he earns it.**

2 [For more information about different kinds of subordinate clause, see:

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE; COMMENT CLAUSE; COMPARATIVE CLAUSE; FINITE CLAUSE; INFINITIVE CLAUSE; -ING CLAUSE; NONFINITE CLAUSE; NOUN CLAUSE; PAST PARTICIPLE CLAUSE; RELATIVE CLAUSE; TO-INFINITIVE; VERBLESS CLAUSE.]

such /sʌtʃ/ (determiner or pronoun)

- **Such** means { 'this or that kind (of)' } { 'of this or that kind' }
- **Such** is used in patterns similar to those of the adverb of degree **so** [see so 1].

1 Such as a determiner

1a **Such** is used to express strong feelings about something:

E.g. **I'm sorry you had such terrible weather!**
I'm glad we went to the dance. It was such fun!

Note the pattern: SUCH A / AN (+ ADJECTIVE) + COUNTABLE NOUN

E.g. **Don't be such an idiot!**
We haven't had such a good time for ages.

[See also EXCLAMATIONS 6c.]

1b Another pattern with **such** is:

SUCH (A / AN) (. . .) + NOUN + AS + { NOUN PHRASE
CLAUSE }

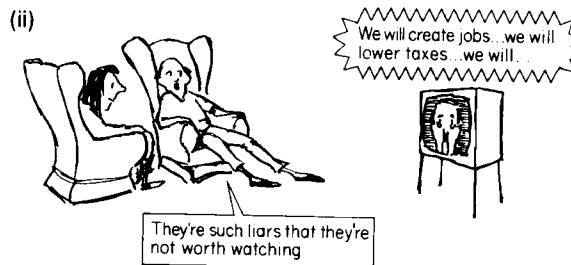
E.g. **I've never lived in such a large house as this before.**
These days, inflation isn't such a (big) problem as it used to be.

NOTE: **Such** usually follows a negative in this pattern.

1c **Such** comes before a clause of RESULT in the pattern:

SUCH (A / AN) + (. . .) + NOUN + (. . .) + THAT + CLAUSE

E.g. (i) **There were such a lot of people in the room that you could scarcely breathe!**



2 **Such as a pronoun** is < less common > than **such** as a determiner.

E.g. **'My boyfriend doesn't want to see me any more!' 'Oh dear! Such is life!'** (= 'Life is like that.')

3 **Such compared with so** [see so 1]

Notice the different patterns for **such** and **so** in exclamations [see 1a above]:

SUCH + (A) + (ADJECTIVE) + NOUN

E.g. **We've had** { **such a (wonderful) day!**
such (wonderful) weather! }

SO + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB / DETERMINER

E.g. **The weather was so wonderful!**
The time went so quickly!
We've had so much fun!

[See EXCLAMATIONS 6c.]

suffixes [See also PREFIXES]

- A **suffix** is a word's grammatical ending.
- If you recognize **suffixes**, it will help you with grammar and meaning.
- Many English words have no **suffixes**.

1 There are two types of suffix:

(I) 'derivational'.

The 'derivational' suffix tells you what type of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective). For example, **-or** (in **actor**) indicates a noun (= someone who does the verb's action).

(II) 'inflectional'.

The 'inflectional' suffix tells you something about the word's grammatical behaviour. For example **-s** indicates that a noun is plural.

'Derivational' suffixes go before 'inflectional' suffixes.

E.g. **actor + s.**

2 [For 'inflectional' suffixes, look up these endings in this book: -ED FORM; -ER/-EST; -ING FORM; -S FORM. For '-s', look up POSSESSIVE.]

3 It is best to look up 'derivational' suffixes in a dictionary. Here is a list of some of the most important ones:

3a Nouns (people):

-er, -or:	<i>writer, driver, actor</i>
-ee:	<i>employee, payee, trainee</i>
-ess [see SEX]:	<i>actress, waitress, princess</i>

3b Nouns (abstract):

-ness:	<i>goodness, greatness, happiness</i>
-ity:	<i>quality, sanity, electricity</i>
-al:	<i>arrival, approval, refusal</i>
-((a)t)ion:	<i>intention, invitation, persuasion</i>
-ment:	<i>judgement, advertisement, improvement</i>
-hood:	<i>boyhood, childhood, sisterhood</i>

3c Nouns or adjectives:

-ist:	<i>Buddhist, typist, pianist</i>
-ian:	<i>human, Indian, Victorian</i>
-ese:	[See COUNTRIES.] <i>Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese</i>

3d Adjectives [See also ADJECTIVE 5b]:

-al:	<i>personal, natural, postal</i>
-ous:	<i>humorous, famous, generous</i>
-ic:	<i>historic, poetic, electric</i>
-ful:	<i>beautiful, helpful, useful</i>
-less:	<i>childless, helpless, useless</i>

3e Verbs:

-ize, -ise*:	<i>modernize, emphasize, realise</i>
-ify:	<i>beautify, terrify, simplify</i>
-en:	<i>widen, soften, deaden</i>

* In general, the spelling **-ise** is <G.B.>. But note that a few verbs are spelled **-ize** only, in both <G.B.> and <U.S.>. E.g. **advertise, advise, surprise**.

3f Adverbs [See -LY.] *quickly, happily, naturally*

suggestions

To **suggest** what to do, you can use one of these patterns:

1 **Why don't {you} + Verb ...**

5 **Let's (not)+Verb ...**

2 **Shall {I} +Verb ...?**

6 **{You'd} We'd better (not)+Verb ...**

3 **{How} What about+Verb-ing ...?**

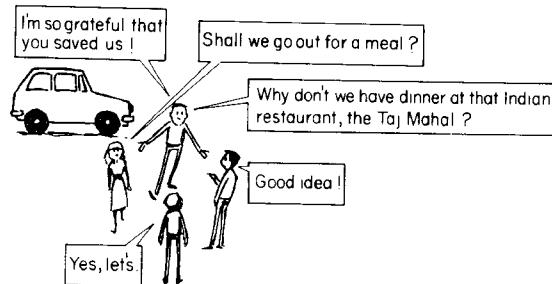
7 **I (don't) think we should + Verb ...**

4 **I suggest (that) ...**

E.g.



LATER



superlative [see -ER/-EST, MORE/(THE) MOST]

1 The use of the superlative

The superlative of a word is the form we use to compare three* or more things and to pick out one thing as more 'X' than all the others.

E.g. *Everest is the highest mountain in the world. It is also the most famous mountain in the world.*



*In Britain we have six coins. The 1p (/wʌn pi:/) coin is the smallest and it is also worth the least. ** The 50p coin is the largest, but the £1 coin is worth the most.*

* To compare two things, use the COMPARATIVE form.

E.g. *Which is the older of the two children?*

** [See LESS / (THE) LEAST to see how (the) least works.]

2 The form of the superlative

To form a superlative, we use the ending **-EST** or the adverb **most**. [See -ER/-EST 1 for details of when to use the ending **-EST** and when to use **most**]:

THE { ADJECTIVE / ADVERB + -EST } { (IN ...) }
 THE { MOST + ADJECTIVE / ADVERB } { (OF ...) }

E.g. *The smallest the most quickly*

NOTE: There are also irregular superlatives **best, worst, most, least, furthest**. [For irregular spellings and pronunciations, see -ER/-EST 2, 3c.]

3 Structures with the superlative

- 3a After a superlative we can use **in** or **of** + NOUN PHRASE to say what is being compared. Usually **of** is followed by a PLURAL noun, while **in** is followed by a SINGULAR noun.

E.g. *Ida is the **oldest of the three girls**.*
*Paul is the **tallest in the room**.*

NOTE: When a superlative adjective comes before a noun, the **in-** or **of-**phrase follows the noun.
 E.g. *In Moscow you can see the **largest bell in the world**.*

- 3b We can also use a possessive noun or a possessive determiner before the superlative [see POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN].

E.g. *The **world's largest ocean** is the Pacific.*
*His **greatest success** was in the World Cup.*

NOTE: The words **first, last, and next** behave like superlatives. [See ORDINALS, LAST, NEXT.]

suppose /sə'pəʊz/ (regular verb)

- **Suppose** means 'take it to be true', 'assume', 'imagine', 'think'.
 ► **Suppose** does not normally have a progressive form [see STATE VERBS and ACTION VERBS]

E.g. *I suppose he's late because of the heavy traffic.*

1 Pattern: . . . SUPPOSE (THAT) + CLAUSE [See VERB PATTERN 4]

E.g. *I suppose (that) it will rain this evening. Look at the clouds.*

I suppose (that) it's a good idea – but I'm doubtful.

Just suppose (that) there were no doctors, dentists or hospitals! Life would be unpleasant and short. [See UNREAL MEANING 2.]

Do you suppose (that) the children would like an ice-cream?

2 Idioms:

I suppose so (doubtful reply).

E.g. 'Are we meeting tomorrow as usual?' '**I suppose so.**'

I suppose (= 'I think') (COMMENT CLAUSE).

E.g. 'What time is the meeting?' 'At nine, **I suppose.**'

be supposed to /s'pəusta/ + Verb (VERB IDIOM).

E.g. **We're supposed to feed the animals twice a day.** (= 'This is what we should do')

Our airplane is supposed to take off at 10 a.m. (= 'This is what should happen.')

Sure /ʃʊər/ or /ʃɔ:r/ (adjective [also adverb]) [See CERTAIN AND SURE]

Sure (adjective) means 'certain'.

- E.g. 'Are you **sure** that our team will win?' 'No – I'm not **sure**, but I think it very likely.'
 'I'm very worried about my driving test. I feel **sure** I'll make mistakes.'
 'Don't say that. You're **sure** to do well.'

NOTE: **Sure** generally occurs in the same position as *certain* (adjective), but **sure** cannot replace *certain* in the pattern *It's certain (that) . . .*

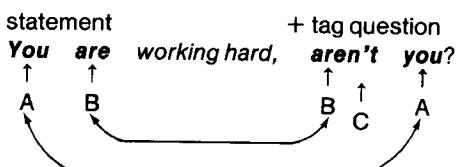
surely /'ʃʊərli/ or /'ʃɔ:rli/ (adverb)

Surely has a different meaning from CERTAINLY. We use **surely** especially when we cannot believe what another person has said or implied. Notice that INTONATION is important in expressing surprise.

- E.g. A: 'Have we met before?'
 B: 'Yes – **surely** you remember me? We went to school together.'
 (= B cannot believe that A does not recognize him.)

tag question

- A **tag question** is a little QUESTION we add to the end of a STATEMENT:

**1 Rules for forming tag questions**

(The letters A, B and C within these rules refer to the diagram above.)

- (I) The tag question contains two words: (A) a subject pronoun after (B) an AUXILIARY or a form of BE (compare INVERSION in YES-NO QUESTIONS).
- (II) Its subject matches the subject of the statement (A) [See 2 below].
- (III) Its auxiliary (or be) matches the auxiliary (or be) in the statement (B), except that:
 - (i) If the statement is positive, the tag is negative (C). If the statement is negative, the tag is positive.
 - (ii) If there is no auxiliary or be in the statement, we use do [see DO 2e]* as the auxiliary in the tag question.

E.g. Your sister **plays tennis** very well, **doesn't she?**

* The main verb HAVE <in G.B.> sometimes behaves as an auxiliary.

E.g. They **have** a large family, { **don't they?**
 { **haven't they?** <G.B.>

- 2 Look at these examples, and notice that the auxiliary or the main verb be is the same in the statement and the question (except where the auxiliary in the tag question is do.) Notice that if the subject of the statement is a pronoun, the subject of the question is the same pronoun: i.e. *They . . . , . . . they?* If the subject of the statement is a noun phrase, the subject of the question is a pronoun which agrees with that noun phrase: i.e. *The students . . . , . . . they?*

- E.g. **It's a beautiful garden, isn't it?**
They can't be serious, can they?
You haven't seen my cigarettes, have you?
The students will be arriving soon, won't they?
The unions accepted the offer, didn't they?
I couldn't borrow this table lamp, could I?
The application was refused, wasn't it?
Someone's got to do the job, haven't they?**
There's nothing ** wrong, is there?***
We ought to be more careful, oughtn't we?****

- * Notice that INDEFINITE PRONOUNS like **somebody** tend to agree with the PLURAL pronoun **they**.
- ** **Nothing** makes the statement negative, so the tag question has to be positive: . . . , **is there?**
- *** **There** counts as a pronoun [see THERE IS / THERE ARE], so we repeat it in the question: **There's . . . is there?**
- **** **Ought** to loses its **to** in tag questions.

- 3 INTONATION is important in tag questions. We can have four kinds of tag question:

- (I) A negative tag question with a rising tone. E.g. . . . , **isn't it?**
- (II) A negative tag question with a falling tone. E.g. . . . , **isn't it?**
- (III) A positive tag question with a rising tone. E.g. . . . , **is it?**
- (IV) A positive tag question with a falling tone. E.g. . . . , **is it?**

3a The meaning of tag questions:

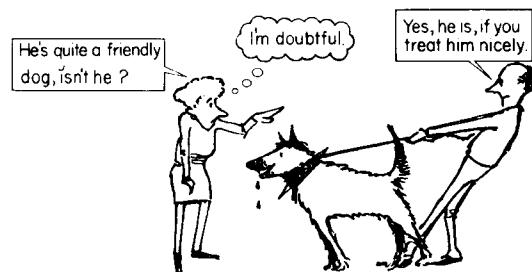
The tag question invites the hearer to respond to a STATEMENT. Negative tags expect a 'Yes' answer, positive tags expect a 'No' answer! For example:

- (I) 'We've met before, **haven't we?**' } 'Yes.'
- (II) 'We've met before, **haven't we?**' } 'No.'
- (III) 'We haven't met before, **have we?**' } 'Yes.'
- (IV) 'We haven't met before, **have we?**' } 'No.'



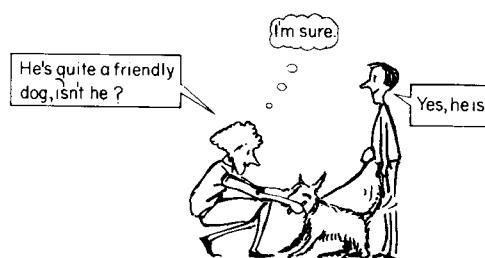
If the tag has a rising tone, it means '*I'm not sure, so please confirm that what I said is true*'.

E.g.



If the tag has a falling tone, it means '*I know that what I said is true, so please agree with me!*'

E.g.



NOTE (i): In talking about today's weather, you can use a falling tone, because you know about the weather.

E.g. 'It's a lovely day, isn't it?' 'Yes, it's absolutely wonderful.'

NOTE (ii): Some less important kinds of tag question:

(a) A positive tag sometimes follows a positive statement. It expresses surprise or interest (in <G.B.>).

E.g. 'I shall be staying in an excellent hotel.' 'Oh, so you've stayed there before, have you?'

'Jenny wouldn't do a thing like that.' 'Oh, you know her, do you?'
(b) After an IMPERATIVE, we can add a tag such as: **will you** or **won't you**.

E.g. Be careful, won't you? Don't be long, will you?
(c) After LET'S, we can add **shall we**.

E.g. Let's go for a walk, shall we?

take (irregular verb) [See BRING AND TAKE]

tense

1 **Tense** is the name we give to two different forms of the verb: PRESENT TENSE and PAST TENSE.

E.g. Present Tense: **works**, **work**
Past Tense: **worked**

2 **Tense** expresses:

- (a) the difference between present and PAST TIME, and
- (b) the difference between real and UNREAL MEANING.

3 Present and Past Tense can combine with Perfect and Progressive forms of the Verb. [See VERB PHRASE for further details.]

than /ðən/ (weak form /ðən/) (conjunction or preposition) [See COMPARATIVE CLAUSE]

- If you want to compare two things which are different in size or degree, use **-er** or **more . . . than**. [See DEGREE, -ER/-EST, MORE / (THE) MOST.]
- **Than** is used for comparisons with both adjectives and adverbs.

1 **Than as a subordinating conjunction**

Than introduces a COMPARATIVE CLAUSE:

(i) with an adjective.

E.g. **She is more intelligent than (she is) beautiful.**

(ii) with an adverb.

E.g. **She drives more quickly than she should.**

2 **Than as a preposition**

- E.g. (i) **We're not allowed to drive at more than 70 miles per hour.**
(ii) **Rosalind is older than me.***

* We can choose between **me** and **I** in (ii) [see PERSONAL PRONOUN 2d].

3 **Special idiomatic patterns with than**

I'd rather + Verb + . . . than . . . (VERBAL IDIOM)

E.g. **I'd rather play football than go swimming.**

rather than + Verb (conjunction)

E.g. **I'd prefer to play football, rather than go swimming.**

different than [see DIFFERENT 2]; **other than** [see OTHER 3].

thanking people

- 1 When thanking someone who has been kind to you, say:

E.g. 'Thanks.' <informal>

'Thank you.'

'Thank you very much.'

'That's really very kind of you. Thank you so much! I'm very grateful.'

The longer forms are (a) for more valuable things, and (b) to be more <polite>.

- 2 Replying to thanks:



- 3 In <formal> letters, i.e. to strangers, you can write:

E.g. I am { very } **grateful** to you for (kindly) sending me the book . . .

We (very much) **appreciate** your help . . .

Or you can thank someone for what you hope they will do!

E.g. I should be (most) **grateful** if you would reply as soon as possible to this request. <formal>

that /ðæt/ (weak form /ðət/*) (conjunction, relative pronoun, demonstrative pronoun or determiner)

- **That** is a very common word with various uses.
- We can often omit **that** (= conjunction, relative pronoun) at the front of a clause.
- **That** as a demonstrative pronoun [see 3, below] has the PLURAL form **those**.

- You will find a lot about **that** under other headings.

[E.g. See INDIRECT SPEECH; INDIRECT STATEMENT; RELATIVE CLAUSE; IT-PATTERNS; DEMONSTRATIVES; THIS AND THESE 2; THOSE.]

* The weak form is used only for **that** as a conjunction or relative pronoun [see 1, 2 below].

- 1 **That /ðæt/** is a conjunction which introduces **that**-clauses

- 1a The positions of **that**-clauses:

That-clauses are noun clauses; they can, for example, be subject (see example (i) below) or object (see example (ii) below) of a clause.

E.g. (i) **'That the murdered man had my address in his note book does not prove anything.'**

(ii) **'Yes, it does – it proves (that) you were a friend of his.'**

Most frequently of all, **that**-clauses follow a verb in reporting statements in INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT [see VERB PATTERNS 4 and 14].

E.g. (iii) **'They have told us (that) our flight will be delayed.'**

(iv) **'I believe (that) he's quite a good painter.'**

That-clauses can follow a preposition only if we add *the fact* in front of them.

E.g. (v) **I was encouraged { by } **by the fact** { by the fact } that so many people came to the meeting.**

But often we can simply omit *by the fact*. For example, we can omit *by the fact* after a PASSIVE.

E.g. (vi) **I was encouraged (that) so many people came to the meeting.**

That-clauses also go after certain adjectives [see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 2].

E.g. (vii) **We're afraid (that) the parcel must be lost.**

Also as a 'delayed subject' in IT-PATTERNS [see IT-PATTERNS 1].

E.g. (viii) **It's a pity (that) we played so badly.**

Also after some ABSTRACT NOUNS (like *fact*, *belief*, *news*) (as MODIFIER in a NOUN PHRASE).

E.g. (ix) **The news that he was resigning from his job shocked us.**

- 1b Omitting **that**:

We can omit **that** in all positions, except when the **that** goes at the beginning of the sentence (as in (i) above), or when the **that**-clause is after an abstract noun, (as in (ix) above).

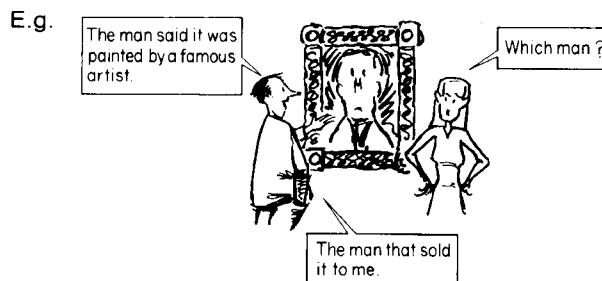
NOTE: When the **that**-clause contains *should* [see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 6b] or a subjunctive verb [see SUBJUNCTIVE 1], it expresses some kind of wish or intention.

E.g. **The committee has decided that our city hall (should) be rebuilt.** [See VERB PATTERN 4.]

- 2 ***That* /ðæt/ is a relative pronoun which introduces a defining relative clause (i.e. *that* = who or which).**

E.g. (i) *The painting (that) I bought is on the table.*
(ii) *The man that sold it to me said it was painted by a famous artist.*

- 2a A defining relative clause is a clause which gives information necessary to identify the person or thing being discussed [see RELATIVE CLAUSE]. So if we omit the relative clause in example (ii) above, we don't know which man is being discussed.



2b Omitting *that*:

We cannot omit *that* if it is the subject of the relative clause as in example (ii) above. Otherwise, we usually omit *that* [see RELATIVE CLAUSE].

E.g. *The painting I bought is on the table.*
The school Ann went to is in the centre of the city.

- 3 ***That* is a singular demonstrative pronoun or determiner (*those* is its plural form).**

- 3a [For the difference between *this* and *that*, see DEMONSTRATIVE 1, and THIS AND THESE 2.]

- 3b ***That* is a 'pointing' word. It indicates something which is not near to the speaker.**



- 3c ***That* refers to something which has been mentioned.**

E.g. 'I'm going to **Majorca** for two weeks.' 'Where's **that**?' (= 'Where's Majorca?')
'It says here that **tomatoes are fruit**.' '**That** can't be right. They're vegetables.'

- 3d ***That* refers to something which both the speaker and the hearer know about.**

E.g. 'You remember **that** box of chocolates I bought for my mother?'
'Yes.' 'Well – I can't find it.'

the /ði:/ (weak form /ðə/, /ðɪ/*) (determiner or conjunction)

- ***The*** is called 'the definite article'. It is the most common word in English.
- ***The*** contrasts with the 'indefinite article' **A** or **AN**, or with **ZERO ARTICLE**.
- You will find a lot about ***the*** under the heading ARTICLES.

* Use /ðə/ before consonant sounds: **the cat** /ðə 'kæt/.
Use /ðɪ/ before vowel sounds: **the eggs** /ðɪ 'egz/.
[See CONSONANTS AND VOWELS].

1 **The form of *the***

The always has the same form before singular and plural nouns, or before countable and uncountable nouns. Contrast ***the*** and **a**:

	countable: singular	plural	uncountable
Definite	<i>the town</i>	<i>the towns</i>	<i>the dust</i>
Indefinite	<i>a town</i>	<i>towns</i>	<i>dust</i>

2 **The position of *the***

The goes before a noun *, and also before any adjectives or other words which describe the noun.

<i>the + noun</i>	<i>the + adjective + noun</i>	<i>the + number + noun</i>
E.g. <i>the horses</i>	<i>the young horses</i>	<i>the five horses</i>

* ***The*** also sometimes goes before adjectives or pronouns without a noun [see ARTICLES].

E.g. ***the others, the old:***
These apples are unripe. Where are the others?
The young should help to care for the old.

- 2a ***All, both* and *half* go before *the* in the noun phrase:**

E.g. ***all the food half the cake***

3 The meaning and use of *the*

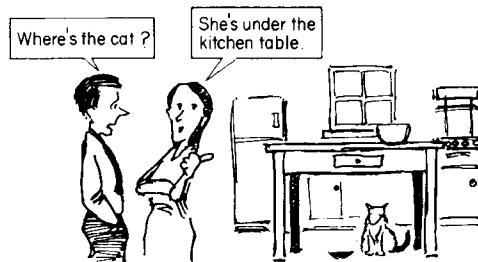
We place ***the*** before a noun phrase to show that it has definite meaning. This means that the speaker and the hearer share knowledge about exactly what the speaker is talking about.

singular: ***the X*** implies 'You know which *X* I mean'
 plural: ***the Xs*** implies 'You know which *Xs* I mean'

There are several reasons for using ***the***:

3a We use *the* when the situation tells us which *X* / *Xs*.

E.g. (i)



(There is only one cat and one kitchen table in the house, so you know which one!)

- (ii) *Have you visited the castle?* (in a particular town)
- (iii) *Don't the roses look lovely?* (in a particular garden)

3b We use *the* when general knowledge tells us which *X* / *Xs*.

E.g. ***The earth moves round the sun.***

(There is only one earth and one sun, so we know which one!) Here are other examples where we use ***the*** because there is only one *X* or group of *Xs*.

E.g. ***the North Pole the Pope the United Nations***
the sea the stars the sky
the middle class the future

NOTE: Similar to this:

<In the U.K. > ***the Queen*** = 'the Queen of the U.K.'
 <In the U.S.A. > ***the President*** = 'the President of the U.S.A.'

3c We use *the* when the words after the noun tell us which *X* / *Xs*.

E.g. ***The President of Peru is visiting Europe.***
The girls sitting over there are my sisters.
The bicycle John bought has been stolen.
I'm studying the history of Japan.

3d We use *the* when what has been said before tells us which *X* / *Xs*.

E.g. (i) *They have a son and two daughters. The son is working as an engineer, but the daughters are still at high school.*

(Here, after the son and daughters have been mentioned once, we can use ***the***.)

(ii) *It's a beautiful bicycle, but the brakes don't work.*

(Here, we haven't mentioned which *brakes*, but we have mentioned ***the bicycle*** they belong to, so you know which *brakes* they are.)

3e We use *the* before some words which imply that the *X* is unique:

SUPERLATIVE, ORDINALS, (THE) SAME, ONLY.

E.g. *They're all good players, but Jane is the best.*

When is the first bus to Birmingham tomorrow?

Jim is the same age as Mary: they're twins.

This is the only pair of glasses I have.

3f We use *the* in referring to media generally.

E.g. *We go to the theatre * every month.*

The freedom of the press is very important.

What's on the radio this evening?

* Note that ***the theatre*** does not have to mean 'a particular theatre'. When referring to television we sometimes omit the article.

E.g. *On (the) television.* [See ZERO ARTICLE.]

3g We also sometimes use *the* in talking about people / animals / things in general.

E.g. people: ***The Italians are very keen on football.*** [See COUNTRIES]

We reported the theft to the police.

The rich should pay higher taxes, but not ***the poor***.

animals: ***The elephant is the largest animal on land.***

inventions: ***Modern society has to learn to live with the computer.***

musical instruments: ***I'm learning to play the violin.***

NOTE (i): We do not use ***the*** when describing substances or masses in general.

E.g. ***Water contains oxygen.*** (*the water, the oxygen*)

NOTE (ii): We do not use ***the*** when describing abstractions in general.

E.g. ***Which do you like best, music or mathematics?*** (*the music, the mathematics*)

NOTE (iii): We do not use ***the*** when referring in general to a whole class of things or people (except with nationality words like ***the Italians, the Chinese***).

E.g. ***Children enjoy games.*** (*the children, the games*)

4 THE + COMPARATIVE (. . .) THE + COMPARATIVE (. . .)

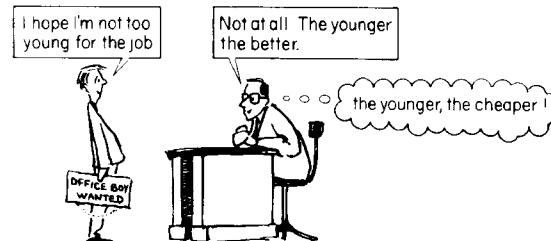
In this pattern, **the** is like a conjunction, rather than an article.

E.g. **The harder** you work, **the more** successful you will be. (= 'As you work harder, you will become more successful.')
The more she thought about it, **the less** she liked it.

Sometimes we omit all words except **the** + comparative.

E.g. (i) 'Can I bring my friends to the party?' 'Yes, **the more, the merrier.**' (This is a saying which means 'the more people there are, the better it is').

(ii)

5 [See NAMES and GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES for the use of **the** with names.]

their /ðeərl/, **theirs** /ðeəzrl/, **them** /ðem/ (weak form /ðəm/) and **themselves** /ðəm'selvz/ are forms of the 3rd person plural pronoun THEY.

► [For details of how to use each form, see PERSONAL PRONOUN, POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN and -SELF / -SELVES.]

1 **Their** = possessive determiner.

E.g. **Martin and Sally** are our neighbours: **their** house is next to ours.

2 **Theirs** = possessive pronoun.

E.g. **This** house is **theirs**. They own it.

3 **Them** = object pronoun.

E.g. Have you seen **my** boots? I can't find **them**.

4 **Themselves** = reflexive pronoun.

E.g. We're leaving **the children** at home. They will have to look after **themselves**.

then /ðen/ (adverb)

► **Then** has no weak form.

1 **Adverb of time**

Then means 'at that time' or 'after that'.

1a **Then** meaning 'at that time' usually refers to the past.

E.g. 'We met in 1971? I was still at school **then**.'

Then can also refer to the future.

E.g. We'll meet again on **Friday**, and **then** we'll decide what to do.

1b **Then** meaning 'after that' in a series of points or events, **first** . . . **then**, for example, in INSTRUCTIONS.

E.g. **First** (of all) you take the wheel off the bicycle. **Then** you remove the tyre. **Then** you find the hole.

Then meaning 'after that' can refer to the past or the future.

E.g. Past: We **went** to the zoo, and **then** we had lunch.

Future: We'll **go** to the zoo, and **then** we'll have lunch.

2 **Linking adverb**2a **Then** can mean 'in that case' (mainly <spoken English>).

E.g. 'They've just telephoned to say John's in hospital.'

{ 'Then we'd better go immediately.'

'We'd better go immediately, **then**.'

2b **Then** can follow and strengthen the meaning of an if-clause [see IF, DOUBLE CONJUNCTION].

E.g. If you were born in 1962, **then** you were 24 in 1986.

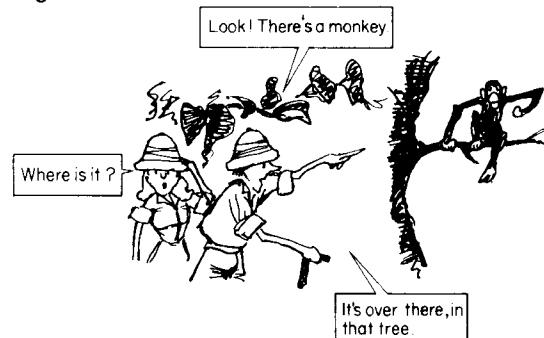
there /ðeərl/ (adverb) [See also THERE IS / THERE ARE]

► **There** is an adverb of place, meaning '(at) that place'.

► **There** is the opposite of HERE.

1 ***There*** can point to something in the situation you are in.

E.g.



2 ***There*** can refer to some place already mentioned.

E.g. *The 'Alpine Palace' is a very good hotel. We stayed ***there*** in 1980.*

3 ***There*** can come after some prepositions of place.

E.g. *in there, up there, down there, over there*

'What are you doing up there?' 'I'm trying to mend the roof.'



4 Some exclamations begin with ***there*** [see INVERSION 6].

E.g. ****There's*** an old friend of mine! ***There goes*** my train! ***There you are!****

there is, there are

► When you want to say that something exists, begin the sentence with ***there + be*** + noun phrase:

- In the ***there + be*** pattern, ***there*** is an 'empty' grammatical word (not an adverb of place).
- ***There*** is not stressed in the ***there + be*** pattern.

1 Examples

*There's * someone at the front door.
There aren't enough knives in the kitchen.
Are there any oranges?
There will now be a short break.
There may have been something wrong.
There was nothing to do.*

* ***There's*** is pronounced /ðeə'z/.

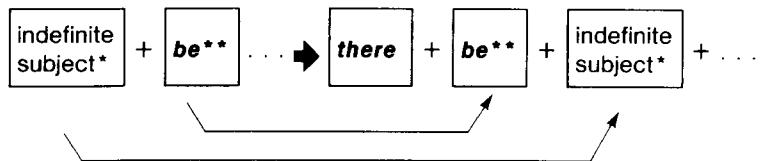
2 Why do we use ***there is, there are***?

English sentences do not usually begin with an indefinite noun phrase.

E.g. *A knife is on the table.*

This is 'good grammar' but we do not say it. Instead, we prefer to begin the sentence with ***there + be***, then place the indefinite SUBJECT after ***be***.

2a The rule for forming ***there + be*** sentences is:



E.g. *A knife 1 is 2 on the table 3 → There 0 is 2 a knife 1 on the table 3*

* An indefinite subject cannot normally be:

- (a) a personal pronoun
- (c) a phrase beginning *this, that, these, those*
- (b) a phrase beginning with *the*
- (d) a name

** ***Be*** means any verb phrase ending with ***be***. For example: *is, are, was, will be, may have been, seems to be* (see examples in 1 above).

3 ***There*** behaves like a subject in:

- (i) QUESTIONS.

E.g. *Is ***there*** anything else to eat?*

- (ii) TO-INFITIVE clauses.

E.g. *I don't want ***there*** to be any mistakes.*

- (iii) -ING CLAUSES.

E.g. ****There being no further business***, the meeting was concluded.*
<rather formal>

therefore /'ðeərfɔ:/ (linking adverb)

► **Therefore** means 'as a result', or 'that's why'. It introduces the sentence which explains the result of what was said in the previous sentence(s).

E.g. *When children reach the age of 11 or 12, they start growing fast.*
Therefore they need more protein.

[See LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS 3(iv), REASON AND CAUSE.]

these /ði:z/ (plural determiner or pronoun)

[See DEMONSTRATIVE, THIS AND THESE; compare THOSE]

they /ðei/, **them, their, theirs, themselves** is the 3rd person plural PERSONAL PRONOUN.

1 **They** can refer to people (male or female or both [see SEX]).

E.g. *Teachers don't earn very much, but **they** work hard.*

They can also refer to things.

E.g. 'How much are **these eggs**?' '**They're** one pound a dozen.'

2 **They** can also refer back to singular GROUP NOUNS like *team, family, audience, government* <especially G.B.> [see AGREEMENT 2d].

E.g. *The committee have admitted that **they** made a mistake.*

2a In <informal English> we also often use **they** to refer back to INDEFINITE PRONOUNS such as *everyone, someone, anyone, no one, none*.

E.g. *We told **everyone** to bring **their** passports with them.*

3 Also in <informal English> we use **they** to refer to 'people in general'.

E.g. {**They say**} {**People say**} *that sugar is bad for your health.*

3a **They, one** [see ONE 3], **we** [see WE 2] and **you** [see YOU 2] can all refer to people in general. But **they** is different because it refers to people apart from the speaker and the hearer, especially unknown people who influence our lives.

E.g. *I see **they're** putting up the train fares again.*

third person = 3rd person.

[See PERSON, PERSONAL PRONOUN, -S FORM, AGREEMENT]

this and these /ðɪs/, /ði:z/ (determiners and pronouns)

1 **This is singular, and these is plural.**

E.g. *this book* (one only)
these books (more than one)
this bread (uncountable) [see UNCOUNTABLE NOUN.]

2 **The use of this and these**

This and **these** describe things near the speaker. They contrast with **THAT** and **THOSE**, which describe things less near.

E.g.



2a **This, these, that and those** are called DEMONSTRATIVES: they are words which 'point' to things, people, etc. near to or far from the speaker.

3 **This and these as determiners**

This and **these** can be determiners (followed by a noun or by **one** [see ONE 2]).

E.g. *That car is faster than **this one**.* *



This rice isn't cooked yet.

*Try **one** of **these nice ripe apples**.*

* We use **this one** only for countables.

474 **this and these****4 This and these as pronouns**

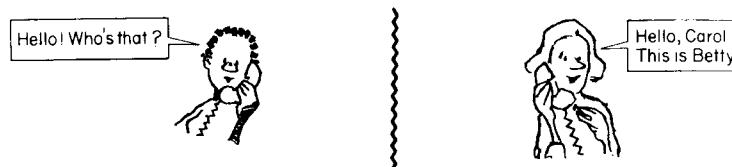
This and **these** can also be pronouns (i.e. they can stand alone as SUBJECT, OBJECT, etc).

E.g. Come and take a look at **this**. **

Whose clothes are **these**? **

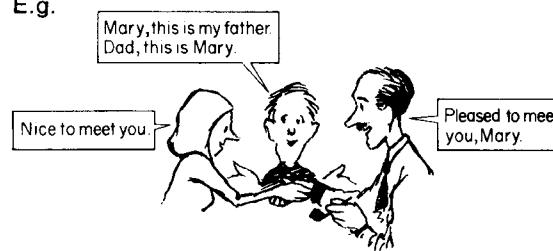
** **This** and **these** as pronouns are usually stressed. This is why the intonation falls on **this** and **these** here.

- 4a** As subject, **this** can refer to a person as well as a thing. For example, we use **this** when we answer the phone.



We also use **this** in introducing people [see GREETINGS].

E.g.

**5 This in time phrases**

[See TIME 5.]

E.g. I will be visiting the hospital **this Thursday**. (= the Thursday after today, i.e. the Thursday of this week)

NOTE: In contrast to **this**, **that** points to a particular time in the past.

E.g. **That year** the wheat crop was very poor.

6 This and these pointing to earlier or later words in the text

This and **these** can point to an earlier part of the same sentence.

E.g. There can be { (a) bad weather
 (b) severe storms } in the summer, but
fortunately { (a) **this** is
 (b) **these** are } rare.

those 475

6a This and these can also point to (a part of) an earlier sentence.

E.g. They offered him a coconut. He didn't know what to do with it, as **this** (coconut) was the first he had ever seen.

She took the part of Cleopatra in the play Antony and Cleopatra. **This** (part) was her greatest performance as a stage actress.

- 6b This and these** can also occasionally point to a later part of the sentence, or to a later sentence.

E.g. **This** is how you cook rice: Allow 1 cup of rice for 2 people and 2 cups of water. Bring to the boil, and cook for 15 minutes.

These languages can be studied by our students:

Arabic, Chinese, French, German, and Spanish. (these = 'the following')

- 7** In <informal> speech (especially in talking about what happened or in telling jokes), we use **this** or **these** in introducing a person for the first time.

E.g. I was walking home, when **this** stranger came up to me and asked to borrow some money. (**this** stranger = 'a stranger I am going to say more about')

those /ðəuz/ (determiner or pronoun)

- **Those** is the plural of the demonstrative **that** [see THAT 3, DEMONSTRATIVE].
- **Those** is the opposite of **these** [see THIS AND THESE 2].

- 1** **Those** points to things or people that are not near (in contrast to **these**):

- 1a** Determiner: **those** + plural noun.

E.g. Who are **those people** talking on the other side of the room?



- 1b Pronoun: ***those*** (without a noun).



E.g. '***These*** books are about office management.'
'What about ***those*** (over there)?'

NOTE (i): ***Those*** can mean 'not near' both in a physical sense and in an emotional sense. For example, ***those*** expresses a negative feeling.

E.g. I really hate ***those*** new supermarkets, don't you?

NOTE (ii): ***Those*** in <writing> can mean 'the people . . .'

E.g. James admires ***those*** who succeed. ('the people who succeed')

NOTE (iii): ***Those*** in <writing> can also be a replacement for an earlier phrase. It means 'the ones . . .'

E.g. Clothes which are made by hand last much longer than ***those*** (= 'the ones') made in a factory.

though /ðəʊ/ (conjunction or linking adverb)

- ***Though*** expresses contrast between two ideas. [See CONTRAST 3b, 3c.]

- 1 The conjunction ***though*** is a shorter form of ALTHOUGH.

E.g. ***Though*** } ***Although*** } the weather is bad, we are enjoying ourselves.

- 2 The linking adverb ***though*** is <informal>. It often goes in end position. It cannot be replaced by ***although***. [See LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.]

E.g. I quite like studying Law. It's hard work, ***though***.

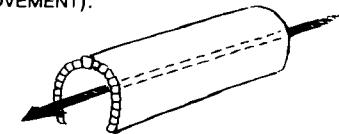
- 3 [Look up the conjunctions ***as though*** under AS and ***even though*** under EVEN. ***Even though*** is more emphatic than ***though***.]

(a) ***thousand*** /'θaʊzənd/ (number) = 1,000 [See NUMBERS 5, QUANTITY WORDS]

through /θru:/ (preposition or adverb)

- 1 ***Through*** is a preposition of MOTION (OR MOVEMENT):

E.g. The train sped ***through*** the tunnel.



Or PLACE:

E.g. I can't see ***through*** the window – it's so dirty.



NOTE: The adverb ***through*** is similar to the preposition, but does not have a following noun phrase.

E.g. The guards had locked the gate, so we couldn't get ***through***. ('through the gate')

- 2 ***Through*** also refers to length of time.

E.g. The fireman fought the flames all ***through*** the night.
(all ***through*** = 'throughout')

The strike continued ***through*** the summer.

- 3 Idioms

Through is used in some PHRASAL VERBS. Look these up in a dictionary: ***get through*** ***be through (with)*** ***come through*** ***see (something) through***.

till /tɪl/ (subordinating conjunction) is an <informal> and less common form of UNTIL.

time [See also (TELLING THE) TIME; LENGTH OF TIME; FREQUENCY; DATES; AGO]

- 1 How we deal with different ways of answering the question 'When?'

E.g. 'When are you going to learn to drive?'

Answers:

(A) '(Very) soon.' (ADVERB (phrase))

(B) 'In the spring.' (PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE)

(C) 'Next year.' (NOUN PHRASE)

(D) 'As soon as I reach the age of 17.' (ADVERBIAL CLAUSE)

2 The main structures for answering the question ‘When?’ are:

adverbs:	afterwards, before, immediately, never*, now*, once*, recently, sometime*, soon*, then*, today*, tomorrow, tonight, yesterday. [See also ALREADY, STILL, YET].
prepositional phrases beginning with:	after* and before, between*, by*, from* . . . to*, at*, in*, on*, through*(out), till, until*, up to [see UP AND DOWN].
noun phrases beginning with:	next*, last*, this*, that*, (every*, some) [See SOME AND ANY].
adverbial clauses beginning with:	after* and before, as*, once*, since*, till, until*, when*, whenever*, while*, now*(that), as* soon as, immediately (that).

* You can look up details and examples under the headings of separate words, i.e. the words marked * in the table above.

3 Positions of time adverbials

Most of the adverbials of time can be placed either in front or end position [see ADVERBIAL 4].

E.g. *We complained to the manager* { **yesterday.**
on the following day.
last week.
as soon as we could.

Yesterday,
On the following day,
Last week,
As soon as we could,} *we complained to the manager.*

3a In addition, adverbs of one syllable (i.e. **now, then, just, soon**) can easily be placed in middle position.

E.g. *The meal will soon be ready.*
We were then living in Bangladesh.

3b Time adverbials sometimes follow the noun within a NOUN PHRASE.

E.g. *The meeting next month will discuss international trade.*
The situation at present is one of uneasy peace.

3c Or we can sometimes use the time adverbial as a POSSESSIVE or an adjective in front of the noun.

E.g. *Next month's meeting . . . The present situation . . .*

4 Use of the prepositions *on* and *in* to describe time

[See ON and IN.]

4a We use **on** before days:

E.g. *on Tuesday, on 9th July*
They first met on Tuesday 9th July, 1985.

4b But we use **in** for other periods, including:

- (A) periods of the day: *in the morning, in the evening, in the night, in the day**
- (B) weeks: *in the third week of November*
- (C) months: *in January, in the month of May*
- (D) seasons: *in (the) spring, in (the) summer*
- (E) years: *in 1987, in the following year*
- (F) centuries: *in the 16th century*

* We say *in the night (time)*, but also *by night, at night*, and *during the night*. We say *in the day (time)*, and also *by day*, and *during the day*; we do not say *at day*.

NOTE: [On the use of **at** for clock-time and other points of time, see AT 2.]

4c Omitting *on* or *in*:

We omit **on** or **in** before these words [look them up separately for further details]: **last, this, next, that, every, some**

E.g. We say: *We meet every Sunday.*
Not: *We meet on every Sunday.*

NOTE: In <informal English, especially U.S.>, **on** and **in** can be omitted before the name of a day (singular or plural).

E.g. *I'll phone you (on) Tuesday.*
Let's meet (on) Friday evening.
Tina has to work (on) Saturdays and Sundays.

5 Use of *last, this, and next* to describe time

Here are some examples of **last, this, and next**.

E.g. *We arrived* } **last** { **Saturday.**
The baby was born } **last** { **week.**
 March.

I'm playing football } **this** { **evening.**
There'll be an election } **this** { **month.**
 winter.

Make sure you're ready } **next** { **Friday.**
Our team's going to win } **next** { **time we meet.**
 year.

NOTE: Remember to say **yesterday, today, and tomorrow** instead of **last day, this day, and next day**. Also, say **yesterday morning, tomorrow afternoon**, etc. instead of **last morning, next afternoon**. [See TODAY, TOMORROW AND YESTERDAY.]

6 Use of **that, every, and some** to describe time

That March, that year, etc refer to a period in the past.

E.g. When I was five, I went to live on a farm. **That year** the weather was very hot and dry.

Every Sunday, every year, etc.

Some evenings, some weekends, etc. } are phrases of FREQUENCY

E.g. **Every spring** the birds return to their nests.

Some weekends we go climbing in the mountains.

7 Time and the verb phrase

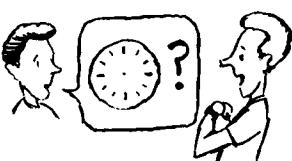
In addition to adverbs, we use the form of the verb phrase (tense) to indicate position in time. [See PAST TIME, PRESENT TIME, FUTURE.]

7a [See AFTER AND BEFORE, SINCE, and WHEN for details of how to use the verb forms in clauses beginning with these words.]

telling the time

1 Asking the time

E.g. Can you tell me the time, please?
What's the time, please?



2 Telling the time

2a The hours.

E.g. It's one o'clock.



It's ten o'clock.



2b The half hours.

E.g. It's half-past seven.



2c The quarters.

E.g. It's (a)* quarter-past four.



It's (a)* quarter to twelve.



* a is optional.

2d Minutes.

The hour is divided into 60 minutes.

E.g. It's four minutes past two.



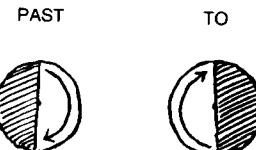
But if the number of minutes can be divided by five, you don't need to say 'minutes'.

E.g. It's five past two.



The five-minute divisions are easy.

E.g. It's twenty-five past ten.
It's ten to six.



NOTE: If your watch is not correct, say.

E.g. (i) My watch is (five minutes) fast.
(ii) My watch is (ten minutes) slow.



3 The easy way to say the time

hours → 9. 15 ← minutes

It's nine fifteen.

E.g. 10.25: say ten twenty-five (longer way: twenty-five past ten)

11.44: say eleven forty-four (longer way: sixteen minutes to twelve)

8.30: say eight thirty (longer way: half-past eight)

8.05: say eight five (longer way: five past eight)

3a In the easy way of saying the **time**, we can add **a.m.*** (/eɪ'əm/) (= Latin *ante meridiem*) for 'before noon (or midday)', and **p.m.*** (pi:'əm/) (= Latin *post meridiem*) for 'after noon (or midday)'.

E.g. 7.30 a.m. (= half-past seven in the morning)

8.00 p.m. ** (= eight o'clock in the evening)

* Only use **a.m.** and **p.m.** when it is useful to distinguish between them.

** We pronounce **8.00** simply as **eight**: **8.00 a.m.** = **eight a.m.**, **2.00 p.m.** = **two p.m.**

NOTE: Airports, railways, etc. use a 'twenty-four hour clock'. You add 12 to hours of p.m. time.

E.g. 10.15 a.m. = 1015 hours ('ten fifteen')

5.00 p.m. = 1700 hours ('seventeen hundred')

7.30 p.m. = 1930 hours ('nineteen thirty')

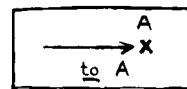
11.44 p.m. = 2344 hours ('twenty-three forty-four')

to /tu:/ (weak forms /tu:tə/) (preposition or infinitive marker) [see also TO-INFITIVE]

- **To** is a preposition of MOTION (OR MOVEMENT) and direction.
- **To** also has other meanings such as TIME [see 2 below] and 'receiver' [see 3 below].

1 **To** (= motion)

To indicates the place you reach as a result of moving.



E.g. **come to**, **go to**, **bring to**, **send to**, **walk to**. [See COME AND GO, BRING AND TAKE.]

E.g. 'Are you **coming to the party** this evening?' 'No, I have to **go to a meeting**.'

'How are you **getting to the airport** tomorrow?' 'I'm **taking a taxi to the town centre**, where I will catch a bus **to the airport**.'

NOTE (i): The **to**-phrase usually follows the verb (and / or OBJECT) as in the examples above, but it can also follow a noun (as MODIFIER).

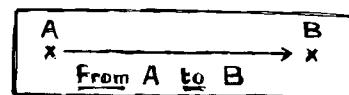
E.g. **Is this the way to the zoo?**

The train to Dundee will leave from Platform 4.

NOTE (ii): The following are common idioms (= **to** + noun) with zero article [see ZERO ARTICLE 4d]:

(go) to work **to church** **to school** **to bed**

1a FROM + NOUN PHRASE + TO + NOUN PHRASE:



E.g. **The first passenger train ran from Liverpool to Manchester.**
I used to cycle all the way from home to the office and back every day.

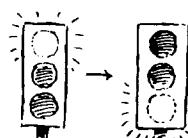
1b **From . . . to** can also be used for DISTANCE:

E.g. **How many miles is it from here to Istanbul?**

Or change of state:

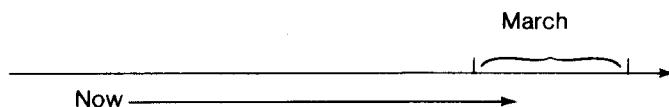
E.g. **The traffic lights changed from red to green.**

[See FROM.]



2 **To** (= time)

To indicates the end-point of a time period:



E.g. **It will take from now to next March to repair the bridge.**
The normal working week is from Monday to Friday.

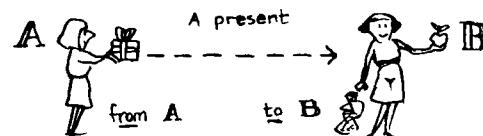
NOTE: **To** usually indicates time only in the pattern '**from A to B**'. Otherwise, we use **until** or **up to** [see UP AND DOWN 5].

E.g. **We are staying here { until up to } Saturday.**

* <U.S.> prefers **Monday through Friday**. **Through** indicates that Friday is part of the period you are measuring.

3 **To** (= 'receiver')

To is usually followed by a person.



E.g. **Betty gave a present to her best friend Freda.**

In the example above, **Freda** is the 'receiver', i.e. the person who receives something from another person.

3a Many verbs which can be followed by **to** (= 'receiver') can also be followed by an INDIRECT OBJECT.

E.g. { **Betty gave a present to her best friend.**
Betty gave her best friend a present.

Other verbs like **give** include **offer**, **hand**, **lend**, **owe** [see VERB PATTERN 11].

E.g. **He offered some rare Roman coins to the museum.**
Would you mind handing that gun to me? It's dangerous.

3b **To** also applies to the 'receiver' of a message.

E.g. **I've just written a letter to my parents.**
I've got something to say to you.
Marion announced to her guests that dinner was ready.

4 Idioms

To is used to form many PREPOSITIONAL VERBS and PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERBS. Look these up in a dictionary: **add (.) to** **listen to** **see to** **look forward to** **belong to** **object to** **take to** **get down to**

To also follows some adjectives [see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 1c].

E.g. **close to** **due to** **similar to** **used to***

* **Used to** (= 'accustomed') is different from the modal auxiliary **used to**, where **to** is the infinitive marker.

E.g. *I'm used to hard work.* or: *I'm used to working hard.*
('accustomed to . . .')

But: *I used to work hard.* ('Once I worked hard.') (**used to** = MODAL AUXILIARY)

to-infinitive

[See also INFINITIVE, INFINITIVE CLAUSE]

- The **to-infinitive** form of the verb consists of **to** (= infinitive marker) and the basic form of the verb. (**to** + Verb).
- The **to-infinitive** has many different roles in English sentences. [For the details of these, see INFINITIVE CLAUSE.]

1 **To**-infinitive clauses are NONFINITE CLAUSES. This means they do not stand alone as a sentence, but must be part of a MAIN CLAUSE.

E.g. *I want to make everyone happy.*

2 The infinitive phrase can be:

2a Simple: **to** + Verb.

E.g. *Mrs. Dale expects to resign next week.*

2b Perfect: **to have** + Verb-ed. [See PERFECT.]

E.g. *I'm sorry to have kept you waiting.*

I'd like to have stayed longer – but I had to leave early to catch a bus.

2c Progressive: **to be** + Verb-ing. [See PROGRESSIVE.]

E.g. *This time next month I hope to be climbing in the Andes.*
I'm pleased to be working again after my illness.

2d Passive: [See PASSIVE.]

E.g. *Mr Coe hopes to be elected president.*

Everyone likes to be admired by their friends.

2e Perfect Progressive: **to have been** + Verb-ing. [See VERB PATTERN 17.]

E.g. *The murderer is thought to have been hiding in the country.*

2f Perfect Passive: **to have been** + Verb-ed.

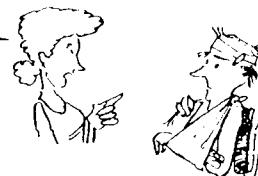
E.g. *The building appears to have been repainted. It looks much better now.*

3 When we make an infinitive negative we put **not** before the **to**.

E.g.

We are sorry not to have met your wife at the party.

I told you not to go skating!
You should be more careful in future.



4 When we link two infinitive clauses with **and** or **or**, we can omit the second **to**.

E.g. *I want you to sit down and listen to me.*

We can also omit the whole infinitive clause after **to**, if it repeats what has been said already.

E.g. *'Would you like to have dinner with us tonight?' 'I'd love to.'* (= 'I'd love to have dinner . . .')

'I'm going skating tomorrow.' *'I'd like to come too, but my mother told me not to.'* (= ' . . . not to go skating.')

Idioms

5a **In order to, so as to:** [see PURPOSE 1b].

5b There are many verb idioms containing the **to**-infinitive. [See (be) ABLE TO, BE (to), (be) GOING TO, HAVE GOT TO, HAVE TO; the modal auxiliaries OUGHT TO and USED TO; also VERB IDIOMS.]

NOTE (i): Some **to**-infinitive clauses begin with a wh-word [see VERB PATTERNS 6, 16].

E.g. *I don't know where to go.* *Please tell me what to say.*

NOTE (ii): the 'split infinitive' (social usage note). Some people believe that it is not 'correct' to put any words between **to** and the infinitive verb.

E.g. *Your job is to thoroughly understand the students' problems.* (= 'to understand thoroughly')

It was wrong to even think of leaving without paying. (= 'even to think')

< In writing > it is best to avoid doing this if possible. But do not worry about it if there is no other way of saying what you want to say.

today /tədeɪ/, tomorrow /tə'mɒrəʊ/, and

yesterday /'jɛstədeɪ/ [See TIME]

► These can all be both adverbs and nouns.

► **Today** = 'this day'* **tomorrow** = 'the day* after today'
yesterday = 'the day* before today'.

1 Examples

- 1a** **today** (adverb): *Have you been shopping today?*
(noun): *Today's my birthday.*
- 1b** **tomorrow** (adverb): *I'm going to speak to her tomorrow.*
(noun): *Tomorrow's the day I start my new job.*
- 1c** **yesterday** (adverb): *Yesterday I went to the park.*
(noun): *Yesterday was a busy day.*

* **Day** can mean either a period of 24 hours, or the period from the time you wake up until it gets dark.

tone [For falling, rising, and fall-rise tones, see INTONATION]**too** /tu:/ (adverb)

- **Too** is an adding adverb [see ADVERB 1] meaning 'also', 'in addition'.
- **Too** is also an adverb of degree [see DEGREE, also VERY and ENOUGH].

1 Too as an adding adverb

E.g. *My friend Mr. Yano is Japanese, and his wife is Japanese, too.*
(= 'Both Mr. Yano and his wife are Japanese.')

Usually **too** is placed at the end of the clause.

NOTE: **Too** usually has heavy stress. It cannot be used in front position.

1a Other examples:

- (i) *I like bananas and I like oranges, too.*
- (ii) *'I'm staying at the Holden Hotel.' 'That's funny, I'm staying there, too.'*

1b The negative of **too is **-n't + either** [see EITHER 2].**

E.g. compare (i) above with:

I don't like bananas, and I don't like oranges, either.

2 Too as a degree adverb

As a degree adverb, **too** is the opposite of ENOUGH:
too = more than is needed.
enough = as much as is needed.

E.g.

**2a Different patterns with **too**:**

TOO + ADJECTIVE (+ FOR + . . .).

E.g. *This suit is too big (for my husband). He needs a smaller size.*

TOO + ADJECTIVE (+ FOR + . . .) TO + Verb . . .

E.g. *My father is too old to play football, so he goes walking instead.*
The house was too small for us to live in, so we moved to a bigger one.
It's too hot to go out: let's stay at home.

TOO + QUANTITY WORD (+ NOUN) . . .

(QUANTITY WORD = **many**, **much**, **few**, or **little**. Look these words up under their separate entries.)

E.g. *The party was a failure: they invited too { few } many guests.*
(**too few** . . . = not enough)

There is too little water in the stream for us to go swimming.

(= not enough water)

I'm feeling ill: I ate too much at dinner.

TOO + ADVERB (+ FOR . . .) (TO + Verb)

E.g. *I got up too late to catch the train so I had to go by plane.*

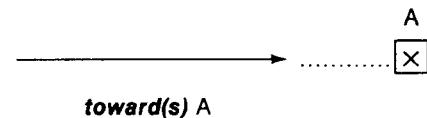
The chairman was enjoying the party too much for anything to upset him.

William was driving too fast (for safety).

topic [See PARAGRAPH, SUBJECT 4]

toward /tə'wɔ:d/ <especially U.S.>, **towards** /tə'wɔ:dz/ <especially G.B. > (prepositions)

- **Toward** or **towards** means 'in the direction of':



- 1 MOTION (OR MOVEMENT). E.g. *The train rushed toward(s) the tunnel.*



- 2 PLACE. E.g. *When Muslims pray, they face toward(s) Mecca.*
- 3 TIME. E.g. *This time of year, the weather gets cold toward(s) the evening.*

transitive verb [See VERB PATTERNS 1, 11–20, OBJECT]

- 1 **Transitive verbs** require an OBJECT to complete their meaning.

E.g. (i) *Everyone admired Bella's new watch.*
(ii) *I have cut the bread.*

We could not say:

(i) *Everyone admired.* Or: (ii) *I have cut.*

- 2 Transitive verbs can usually have a PASSIVE form.

E.g. *The police stopped the car.*
The car was stopped (by the police).

- 3 Transitive verbs include PHRASAL VERBS such as *run over*.

E.g. *The bus ran over the dog.*
The dog was run over (by the bus).

- 4 Contrast INTRANSITIVE VERBS, which have no object.

E.g. *The children laughed.*

transport, means of [See ZERO ARTICLE 4e]

- 1 **By** [see BY 2b.]

'By plane' (by air)
'By car' (by land)
'By train' (by rail)
'By boat' (by sea)
'By bicycle!'

- 2 **On** [see ON 2.]

'On foot.'
'E.g. 'How did you get home from the party?' 'On a bicycle.'
'On a motorbike.'
'On horseback.'

There were lots of passengers {on the bus.
on the plane.
on the ship.
on the train.

- 3 **In** [see IN 1.]

E.g. 'How many people were in the car?' 'Just the driver.'
(Not: **on the car**)

But: *There were only a few vacant seats* {in} the {bus.
{on} the {train.

twice /twais/ (adverb of frequency)

Twice = × 2. We never say 'two times'. We always say **twice**.

E.g. 'How many times has she been married?' '**Twice**. Once to a businessman and once to an actor.'

type (of) (noun)

Type is a noun of kind [see KIND (OF), SORT (OF), TYPE (OF)].

E.g. *Coal is a type of fuel.*
In this factory we are making a new type of washing machine. It's much better than the type we used to make.

uncountable noun (also called 'noncount noun')

- **Uncountable nouns** take a SINGULAR verb.
- [For more information, see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]
- UNIT NOUNS (e.g. *piece*, *lump*) are useful words to use with **uncountable nouns**.

1 What are uncountables?

Uncountables refers to masses which we cannot easily think of as consisting of separate items: i.e. liquids, powders. We can divide many of these masses into subgroups, which are also uncountable:



E.g. Are these socks made of **wool** or of **cotton**?
I prefer **lamb** to **chicken**.

2 Types of uncountable

To remember easily, think of substances, liquids, gases, and abstract ideas as uncountable. In the lists of words in 2a–2e, those uncountable nouns which have subgroups of uncountable nouns are marked in ***bold italic*** type.

2a Substances:

wood, **plastic**, **leather**, **cement**, **chalk**, **plaster**, **paint**, **sand**, **coal**, **rock**, **paper**

material: **cloth**, **cotton**, **silk**, **wool**, **nylon**

metal: **iron**, **gold**, **silver**, **brass**, **lead**

food: **flour**, **rice**, **bread**, **wheat**, **rye**, **sugar**, **salt**, **pepper**,

meat, **fish**, **fruit**, **butter**, **cheese**, **jam**,

fur, **skin**, **hair**, **ice**, **snow**, **rain**, **soil**, **grass**, **land**, **ground**

2b Liquids:

water, **milk**, **coffee**, **tea**, **oil**, **petrol** <G.B.>, **gasoline** <U.S.>, **juice**, **alcohol**

2c Gases:

air, **smoke**, **steam**, **oxygen**, **hydrogen**

2d Others (You might expect some of these to be plural, but they are not!):

furniture, **luggage**, **baggage**, **money**, **pay**, **noise**, **traffic**, **music**, **accommodation**

2e Abstract ideas:

information, **knowledge**, **advice**, **education**, **fiction**, **(outer) space**, **time**, **power**, **experience**, **history**

NOTE (i): **News** looks like a plural noun, but in fact it is singular uncountable.
E.g. There's not much **news** on the radio today.

Note also that **work**, **homework**, and **housework** are uncountable.

NOTE (ii): Many uncountable nouns can also be countable [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS].

E.g. **egg**, **glass**, **time**

NOTE (iii): Uncountable nouns can follow QUANTITY WORDS like **some** and **any**, **all** and **much**.
E.g. Some cloth is made of cotton and some is made of nylon.

under [See OVER AND UNDER]

unit noun [see OF 7]

- **Unit nouns** are words like **piece** which allow us to divide uncountables into countable units. [See COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS.]

- 1 We use different unit nouns for different uncountable nouns. But we use **piece** and **bit** more generally.

E.g. a piece of furniture	a bar of chocolate	a block of ice
an item of news	a lump of sugar	a lock of hair
a length of rope	a stick of chalk	a slice of bread
a { sheet } of glass	a { piece } of information	a bit of fun
{ pane }	{ bit }	

- 2 We also use unit nouns in the plural.

E.g. 'How many **lumps** of sugar do you like in your tea?' 'Two **lumps**, please.'

unless (subordinating conjunction)

- **Unless** introduces adverbial clauses of condition. [See CONDITIONAL CLAUSE.]
- **Unless** has a negative meaning: it often means the same as *if...not...* [see IF].

- 1 **Unless** can replace *if . . . not . . .* when it introduces an exception to whatever is stated in the main clause.

E.g. **Unless** you take more care, you'll have an accident.
 (= 'If you don't take more care.')

I want you to keep working unless I tell you to stop.
 (= 'if I don't tell you otherwise.')

Unless there's a strike, the trains will be running normally.
 (= 'If there's not a strike . . .')

Bill never does anything unless you tell him what to do.
 (= 'if you don't tell him.')

NOTE: A 'simplified' **unless**-clause begins with **unless** + PAST PARTICIPLE.
 E.g. **Unless told otherwise**, students should answer all questions on the examination paper.
 <rather formal>

- 2 **Unless** cannot replace *if . . . not . . .* in other types of sentence.

- 2a **Unless** cannot replace *if . . . not . . .* in *would (have)* conditions [see IF 1d] (i.e. if the condition has UNREAL MEANING).

E.g. King *would be our best player if he weren't so lazy. (unless)*
If she hadn't had an alarm clock, she would have missed the train.
 (*unless*)

- 2b **Unless** cannot replace *if . . . not . . .* where *If* = *whether* (in INDIRECT QUESTIONS).

E.g. She promised to let me know *if she wasn't coming. (unless)*

- 2c **Unless** cannot replace *if . . . not . . .* where the negative condition is in someone's mind.

E.g. I'll be really surprised *if they don't come to the meeting. (unless)*
What shall we do if they don't reply to our letter? (unless)

unreal meaning (also called 'hypothetical' or 'contrary to fact')

1 Use of 'unreal' Past Tense for present meaning

We sometimes use the PAST TENSE to describe something which is supposed to be happening at the present time.

E.g. It's time you children **were** in bed.
 (implies 'you are not in bed.')

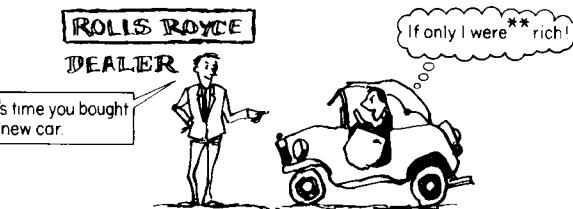
We call this the unreal use of the Past Tense, because it means that the event or state is not taking place: it is 'imaginary'.

2 Unreal meaning after particular words

2a Unreal present time:

Here are the words and phrases introducing the unreal use of the Past.

<i>if *</i>	<i>If I had enough money, I would retire early.</i>
<i>if only *</i>	<i>If only the world was * * a better place!</i>
{ <i>as * if</i>	<i>He spends money as if he were * * a millionaire.</i>
<i>as * though</i>	(He's not a millionaire')
{ <i>suppose * (that)</i>	<i>Just suppose (that) we were living on a desert</i>
<i>imagine (that)</i>	<i>island. ('Luckily, we are not')</i>
<i>wish * (that)</i>	<i>I wish (that) I knew who's taken the radio.</i>
<i>it's time</i>	<i>It's time (that) you changed this car for a new one.</i>



* [These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details. For *If*, see especially IF 1c.]

** *Were* can be used instead of *was* for unreal meaning. *Were* is <more formal> and some people consider it more 'correct' [See WERE 2].

2b Unreal past time:

To describe something in the past which didn't happen, and so is imaginary, use **had** + PAST PARTICIPLE.

E.g.



2c Unreal future:

To describe something which is not likely to happen in the future, use one of these forms:

(A) **would** * + Verb

(B) **were** * to + Verb

(C) **Past Simple*** (as for unreal present time)

E.g. If you { (A) **would lend**
 (B) **were to lend** } me your bicycle tomorrow, I would get
 home quite easily.

'Suppose I **were to** be offered the post of manager.' 'Whoever did that
 would be mad!'

* [These words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

3 Unreal meaning in main clauses

- 3a In all the above examples we have looked at unreal meaning in subordinate clauses. In main clauses, use **would** + Verb for unreal present or future time.

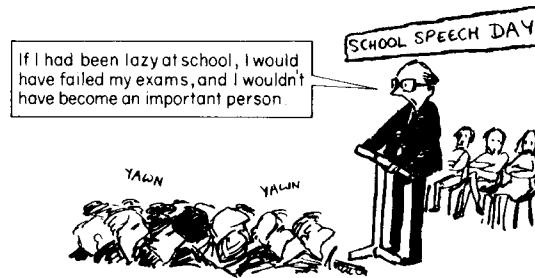
E.g. What **would** you do if I left?

'Suppose I **were to** resign.' 'That **would** be a mistake.'

(See also the use of **would** in examples 2b and 2c above.)

3b Use **would have** + past participle for unreal past time.

E.g.



4 Modal auxiliaries with unreal meaning

To express unreal modal meanings in both main clauses and subordinate clauses:

can becomes **could**, **may** becomes **might** [see COULD AND MIGHT]

will becomes **would**, **shall** becomes **should** [see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO]

E.g. If only we **could** meet regularly!

If we lived in the same town, we **could** meet regularly.

If you had listened to me, you **might** have succeeded.

5 Summary of verb phrases expressing unreal meaning

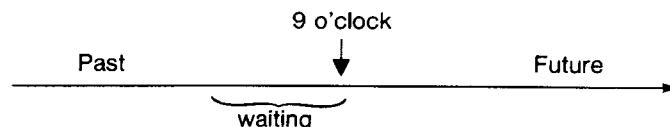
	in subordinate clauses	in main clauses
unreal present time	Past Tense (with modal meanings: could would might should)	would + Verb (with modal meanings: could would might should)
unreal future time	Past Tense, were to , would (with modal meanings: could would might should)	would + Verb (with modal meanings: could would might should)
unreal past time	had + past participle (with modal meanings: could / would / might / should + have + past participle)	would have + past participle (with modal meanings: could / would / might / should + have + past participle)

NOTE: Unreal modal meanings (i.e. WISHES, PERMISSION, POSSIBILITY) are important for being <polite> in functions such as REQUESTS, OFFERS, INVITATIONS. [See the modal auxiliaries COULD AND MIGHT, WOULD.]

until /ʌn'til/ (weak form /ən'til/) (preposition or conjunction)

- **Until** means 'up to a particular time.' [See TIME].

1 Until as a preposition of time



E.g. I waited until 9 o'clock, and then I left.

2 Until as a subordinating conjunction of time

- 2a **Until** referring to the present or future:
 Use these verb forms:

main clause: { Present Simple
 modal
 Progressive

until-clause: { Present Simple
 Present Perfect

E.g. (i) *Everything is quiet until the children get home from school.*
(‘after that, it’s noisy!’)

(ii) *We { must stay } here until the weather { improves.
are staying } has improved. }*

Sentence (ii) describes the future. Notice that *will* cannot be used in the *until*-clause [see FUTURE 3b].

2b Until referring to the past:

Use these verb forms:

main clause: Past Simple

until-clause: { Past Simple
Past Perfect }

E.g. *He was not allowed to work until he had been in the country six months.*

*The villagers stayed indoors until the soldiers { left.
had left. }*

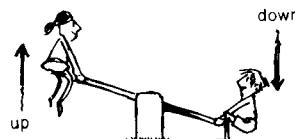
NOTE (i): *Until clauses* can be ‘simplified’ by omitting the subject and the verb BE.
E.g. *Leave the pie in the oven until thoroughly cooked.*

NOTE (ii): Usually, we do not say ‘from . . . until . . .’: we say ‘from . . . to’. [See to 2 for details.]

up and down /ʌp/, /daʊn/ (adverbs or prepositions)

1 Meanings of up and down

Up and *down* are words of opposite meaning, as the picture below shows. Their basic meanings are: *up* = ‘motion towards the sky’ and *down* = ‘motion towards the centre of the earth’



2 Adverbs of motion [See MOTION (OR MOVEMENT)]

E.g. (i) *Come up here! We live at the top of the house.*
(ii) *The road runs down into a valley.*
(iii) *What goes up . . . must come down.* (a saying)

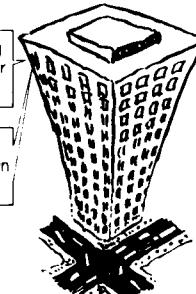


3 Adverbs of position [See PLACE]

E.g.

How do you like living
up on the thirtieth floor
of this building?

Fine! I like watching the
people and the traffic down
there in the streets



NOTE: In *get up*, *be up*, *stay up*, ‘up’ means ‘out of bed’.

E.g. ‘Is your brother up yet?’ ‘No, he stayed up late last night to watch TV, so he’ll be getting up late today.’

4 Prepositions

(i)



(ii)



E.g. (i) *Every day I have to walk up a hill to reach my house.*

(ii) *If you throw a coin down this well, it brings you good luck.*

(iii) *Climbing up the mountain is quite easy, but climbing down again is difficult.*

5 Idioms

Up to is a preposition meaning ‘as far as’ or ‘until’.

E.g. *We can have visitors up to ten o’clock, and then they must leave.*
Up to what time does this programme last?

5a Up and down are common in PHRASAL VERBS.

E.g. *keep up, stand up, sit down, wake up, lie down,
cut up, turn down, set up, play down, look up.*

Look these *up* in a dictionary!

us /ʌs/ (weak form /əs/) (1st person plural PERSONAL PRONOUN)

Us is the object pronoun form of *WE*.

E.g. *Everyone in the neighbourhood knows us.*

NOTE: *Us* is contracted to ‘s /s/ only in the special Imperative form *let’s*.

use /ju:s/ (noun) and **use** /ju:z/ (regular verb)

- 1 **Use** (noun) and **use** (verb) are spelled the same, but pronounced differently.

E.g. noun: *This book will be of great use* /ju:s/.
verb: *Can I use* /ju:z/ *your pencil?*

- 2 Note the special pattern of **no / any use** /ju:s/ <informal>:
No use = 'useless, pointless.'

E.g. *It is no use staying here all night.*
'I've just bought this grammar book. Is it any use?' 'No, it's not much use, but I like the pictures.'

used to /ju:stu:/ (weak form /ju:stu:tə/) (modal auxiliary)

- **Used to** + Verb refers to a state or habit in the past.
- **Used to** is always Past Tense. There is no Present form **use(s) to**.

- 1 **Used to** contrasts a past state of affairs with the present.

E.g. *I used to work in Perth. Now I work in Kuala Lumpur.* (**used to work** = 'worked in the past')
Do you remember John Snagge? He used to be a radio announcer on the B.B.C. (but he isn't any more)

- 1a **Used to** can describe a habit in the past.

E.g. *When we were children, we used to play in that wood, and you always used to hide from me.*

[Compare WOULD 3b.]

NOTE: **Used to** is not common with negatives or in questions. All these forms are possible, but they are rather awkward:

*Did(n't) he use } to { be a pop singer?
Used(n't) * he } run a factory?
We { used not } to be vegetarians: we gave up
{ usedn't } eating meat only two years ago.*

* **Usedn't** (or **usen't**) is pronounced /ju:snt/.

- 2 In the pattern BE + USED TO + { NOUN PHRASE
VERB-ING (. . .)}

used is an adjective (= 'accustomed') and **to** is a preposition.

E.g. *Now I'm in New York, I'm used to noise and pollution.
Malcolm is unmarried: he's used to looking after himself.*

usually /'ju:ʒəli/ (adverb of frequency)

Usually means 'most times', 'on most occasions'.

E.g. *I usually spend Christmas with my parents.*

[See FREQUENCY 1.]

verb

- To find out about verbs, look up the words in small capitals in the following summary.

- 1 **Verbs (as a WORD CLASS) are divided into AUXILIARY VERBS and MAIN VERBS**

- 1a Auxiliary verbs go before main verbs in VERB PHRASES. The main verb is followed by its VERB PATTERN (of OBJECT, COMPLEMENT, etc.).

auxiliary verb	main verb	verb pattern
E.g. / have	asked	them to leave.

- 1b Main verbs refer to states and actions [see STATE VERBS AND ACTION VERBS].

- 1c When we choose different verb forms we choose between:
PRESENT OR PAST TENSE, PERFECT or PROGRESSIVE aspect,
ACTIVE or PASSIVE voice.

- 1d Verbs express different types of meaning, including PRESENT, PAST and FUTURE TIME, UNREAL MEANING, POSSIBILITY, and OBLIGATION.

- 1e Verbs are either REGULAR or IRREGULAR. You can learn the regular verbs by rule, but you have to learn the irregular verbs separately, (see the A-Z list of IRREGULAR VERBS at the back of the book).

- 1f Verb forms are either FINITE (e.g. **has**) or NONFINITE VERBS (e.g. **having**). The nonfinite verbs are INFINITIVES (e.g. **to have**) and PARTICIPLES (e.g. **having, had**), which can be used to form NONFINITE VERB PHRASES and NONFINITE CLAUSES.

E.g. *It's fun having your own car.*

1g The most common verbs in English are the primary verbs BE, DO, and HAVE.

1h There are two types of auxiliary verb: primary auxiliary (i.e. **be**, **have** and **do**) and modal auxiliary (e.g. **will**, **can** and **would**).

2 Endings used for forming verbs from other words [see SUFFIXES 3e]:

- ise / -ize.** E.g. 'public' → 'publicize' (= 'make something public')
- ify.** E.g. 'simple' → 'simplify' (= 'make something simpler')
- en.** E.g. 'deaf' → 'deafen' (= 'make someone deaf')

2a Also, these prefixes are useful for changing the meaning of verbs [see PREFIXES]:

- un-**. E.g. **untie** ('do the opposite of tie'), **unpack**.
- out-**. E.g. **outlive** ('to live longer than'), **outstay**.
- over-**. E.g. **overeat** ('eat too much'), **overcharge**.
- under-**. E.g. **underfeed** ('feed too little'), **underestimate**.

2b Many verbs have no prefixes or suffixes, and have the same form as NOUNS.

E.g. **call**, **move**, **place**, **walk**.

But some verbs have a similar form to nouns but a slightly different pronunciation and spelling, i.e. the verb has a voiced consonant at the end [see CONSONANTS AND VOWELS]:

noun	verb
house /haʊs/	~ house /haʊz/
advice /əd'veɪs/	~ advise /əd'veɪz/
use /ju:s/	~ use /ju:z/
thief /θi:f/	~ thieve /θi:v/
belief /bɛlɪ:f/	~ believe /bɛ'lɪ:v/
mouth /maʊθ/	~ mouth /maʊð/

2c [Look up STRESS 5 for differences of stress between nouns and verbs.]

verb idioms

[See IDIOM]

1 Verbs in English are divided into AUXILIARY VERBS and MAIN VERBS.

But there are some verb expressions which behave a little like both. We call them verb idioms.

1a Think of verb idioms as auxiliaries which contain main verbs (for example, **be going to** contains the main verb **go**).

2 The following is a table of verb idioms

kind of meaning	common verb idioms	examples (each idiom is followed by the basic form* of the verb)
future*	be going* to be to be about to	<i>Next year, we're going to go to the theatre more often. The administration is to introduce a new law on bad driving. Margaret is about to get married: the wedding is next Saturday.</i>
obligation* or necessity (definite and strong in meaning)	have* to have got* to be bound to be { certain* } (to) sure*	<i>Someone will have to mend the tent before we go camping. We've got to work hard if the business is going to succeed. If you hurry too much, you are bound to make mistakes. Why don't you go shopping in the market? You're { certain } to find what you want there.</i>
obligation* or necessity (less definite and weaker)	had better* be supposed* to be likely to	<i>You'd better listen to me. Otherwise, things might go wrong. You're supposed to help me. Why don't you clean the floor? The plane is likely to be delayed.</i>
wish [see WISHES]	be willing* to would* rather	<i>I've run out of money. Luckily my bank manager is willing to lend me some more. Would you like to watch television, or would you rather read a book?</i>
permission*	be { allowed } permitted }	<i>Students are not { allowed } permitted to borrow more than six library books at one time.</i>
ability	be able* to	<i>If I practise, I'll be able to beat the boxing champion.</i>

* Look up these words for further information and examples. For **be supposed to**, look up SUPPOSE. For **be going to**, look up GOING, etc.

verb patterns [See also ADJECTIVE PATTERNS]

- The MAIN VERB of a CLAUSE can be followed by various elements which complete its meaning. These elements form **verb patterns**. [For similar patterns following adjectives, see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS.] For example, **want** and **wish** have similar meanings, but they fit different patterns:

... + noun phrase: *I {want
wish} a cup of tea.*

... + to + Verb . . . : *I {want
wish} to be alone.*

... + that-clause: *I {want
wish} that I was young.*

Below we illustrate the most important verb patterns, and list their most common verbs. (Here N = 'NOUN PHRASE OR PRONOUN' and V = VERB PHRASE.) We illustrate each pattern with the statement form [see STATEMENT].

E.g. **N + V + N**

I want a cup of tea.

You will need to change this if you want to ask a question or make the statement negative.

E.g. *Do you want a cup of tea?* [see YES-NO QUESTION]

What do you want? [see WH- QUESTION]

I don't want a cup of tea. [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES]

NOTE (i): You can always add extra ADVERBIALS to the pattern.

E.g. *I very much want a cup of tea tonight.*

NOTE (ii): Each verb pattern below begins N + V, where N is the subject and V is the verb phrase containing the main verb. For a summary of patterns, see the table below. [Also see IT-PATTERNS and THERE IS, THERE ARE.]

In the table opposite, we list the patterns in the following order:

- 0 patterns with no element after the Verb
- 1–10 patterns with one element after the Verb
- 11–20 patterns with two elements after the Verb

a summary of verb patterns: N = noun phrase or pronoun V = main verb phrase

pattern with no element after the Verb:

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 0 N+V | <i>The bus has arrived.</i> | <i>It doesn't matter.</i> |
|-------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|

patterns with one element after the Verb:

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| 1 N+V+N | <i>Everyone enjoyed the show.</i> |
| 2 N+V+N / adjective | <i>She is my friend.</i> |
| 3 N+V+adverbial | <i>The children are at the zoo.</i> |
| 4 N+V+that-clause | <i>I admit (that) I've been foolish.</i> |
| 5 N+V+wh-clause | <i>The police asked where we were going.</i> |
| 6 N+V+wh- to-clause | <i>Everyone should learn how to swim.</i> |
| 7 N+V+to+Verb . . . | <i>I'd love to visit Yugoslavia.</i> |
| 8 N+V+Verb . . . | <i>You had better come early tomorrow.</i> |
| 9 N+V+Verb-ing . . . | <i>I like watching football.</i> |
| 10 N+V+past participle | <i>The thief got arrested by the police.</i> |

patterns with two elements after the Verb:

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 11 N+V+N,+N ₂ | <i>They have given her a beautiful present.</i> |
| 12 N+V+N+N / adjective | <i>The queen kept her marriage secret / a secret.</i> |
| 13 N+V+N+adverbial | <i>I took the key out of my pocket.</i> |
| 14 N+V+N+that-clause | <i>John told me (that) his father was ill.</i> |
| 15 N+V+N+wh-clause | <i>I didn't tell anyone where I had hidden the key.</i> |
| 16 N+V+N+wh- to-clause | <i>The pilot taught me how to land safely.</i> |
| 17 N+V+N+to+Verb . . . | <i>I want you to feel at home.</i> |
| 18 N+V+N+Verb . . . | <i>She lets the boys play football on the lawn.</i> |
| 19 N+V+N+Verb-ing . . . | <i>They dislike the house being left empty.</i> |
| 20 N+V+N+past participle | <i>The boss wants these letters typed.</i> |

0 N + V

These verbs do not need anything to follow them, and are called intransitive verbs. [See TRANSITIVE VERB, INTRANSITIVE VERB.]

- E.g. *The bus has arrived.* *It doesn't matter.*
His son was working. *Someone is lying.*

Other examples:

*begin, * come, drink, * drive, * fall, go, happen, help, * lie,
occur, rise, wait, write**

* These verbs also belong to pattern 1 (transitive verbs).

E.g. *I have been writing (some letters).*

1 N + V + N

These verbs need a NOUN PHRASE to follow them, and are called transitive verbs. The N following is an object, and becomes subject in the PASSIVE.

- E.g. *Everyone enjoyed the show.* → *The show was enjoyed by everyone.*
Mary was cleaning the kitchen.
Her husband laid the table.

No one **knows** the answer.
You will **need** some more money.

Other examples:

*believe, bring, carry, cut, do, find, get, hear, hold,
keep, lay, like, love, make, raise, remember, say,
take, use, want*

NOTE: Don't confuse *raise* and *lay* (pattern 1) with *use* and *lie* (pattern 0). [see INTRANSITIVE VERB.]

2 N + V + N / adjective

These verbs are followed by either a NOUN PHRASE or an ADJECTIVE acting as complement. (The adjective may be expanded into an adjective phrase such as *very busy, too busy to help us*, etc.) The most common verb in this pattern is BE.

E.g. *She is my friend. She is busy.*

But other verbs can replace **be**.

E.g. *She became my friend. She became busy.*

[We discuss these verbs in the separate entry for LINKING VERBS.]

3 N + V + adverbial

This pattern, like pattern 2, is found with linking verbs, especially **be**.

E.g. *The children are at the zoo.
The kitchen is downstairs.*

Usually the ADVERBIAL is an adverb or prepositional phrase of place in this pattern. But adverbials of time / length of time can also be used.

E.g. *The party will be tomorrow.
The meeting lasted for several hours.*

[For further examples, see TIME, and LINKING VERB, pattern (c).]

4 N + V + that-clause

Many verbs are followed by a THAT-CLAUSE as object [see THAT 1]. We can omit *that* [see ZERO THAT-CLAUSE]:

verbs of 'speaking',

E.g. *I admit (that) I've been foolish.
No one denies (that) the jewels were stolen.
Everyone agreed (that) the show was a success.
They say (that) Sue is getting married.
Scientists have predicted (that) this forest will die.*

verbs of 'thinking',

E.g. *We believe (that) the government is losing.
Sam discovered (that) the house was on fire.
People used to think (that) the earth was flat.*

[For other verbs taking *that*-clause, see IT-PATTERNS, SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 6b, SUBJUNCTIVE 1 and UNREAL MEANING.]

5 N + V + wh- clause

These verbs take a WH- CLAUSE (or INDIRECT QUESTION).

E.g. *The police asked where we were going.
I wonder whether the air tickets are ready.
Do you know who is chairing the meeting?
I couldn't decide what present to buy for her.
No one realizes how hard we work.*

Examples of Pattern 5 verbs:

ask, (not) care, choose*, discuss*, find out*, forget*,
know*, (not) mind, point out, prove, see, wonder**

* These verbs can be used in pattern 6 too.

NOTE (i): *Find out, forget, know, point out* and *prove* also belong to pattern 4.

NOTE (iii): These verbs often take a wh- clause after *can't* or *couldn't*:
decide, explain, make out, remember, say, think.

6 N + V + wh- to-clause

A WH- TO- CLAUSE begins with a WH- WORD and contains a TO-INFINITE (TO + Verb).

E.g. *Everyone should learn how to swim.
Have you chosen what to wear at the party?
I don't know which of these watches to buy.
They are discussing where to go for their { holiday <G.B.> .
vacation <U.S.> .*

NOTE: The verbs marked '*' in 5 can be used in this pattern too.

7 N + V + to + Verb . . .

Verbs of many different kinds take this pattern. The verb is followed by a TO-INFINITE clause. [See -ING CLAUSE 6b, 6c for differences of meaning between this pattern and pattern 9].

E.g. *I'd love to visit Yugoslavia.
Most people want to own their own houses.
Did you remember to water the flowers?
Williams started to write novels in 1960.
Joan and I have promised to take the children to the zoo.
They have been trying to improve the roads.
The building seems to be empty.
(Please) don't bother to cook anything for me.
The children are helping to paint the walls.*

NOTE: [See separate entries for HAVE TO, HAVE GOT TO, and (BE) GOING TO. Also, see VERBIDIOMS.]

8 N + V + Verb . . . [see BASIC FORM]

Only a few verbs take this pattern:

- (a) The modal auxiliaries [see MODAL AUXILIARY]
- (b) The verb idioms **had better** and **would rather**
- (c) The main verb **help**, which can also take **to** + Verb (see pattern 7).

E.g. *You had better come early tomorrow.*

*This liquid will { help <esp. U.S.>
help to <esp. G.B.>} cure your cold.*

9 N + V + Verb-ing . . . [see -ING FORM *]

Like pattern 7, this pattern includes many different kinds of verbs. [See -ING CLAUSE 6b, 6c for differences of meaning between this pattern and pattern 7].

E.g. *I like watching football.*

Some people can't bear listening to jazz.

Anthony has started working at the factory.

(Please) stop annoying the cat.

The prisoner denied stealing anything.

(But) he admitted breaking into the house.

A mother can't help feeling proud of her child.

We must avoid making too much noise.

She goes running every morning.

* The -ing form here is often called a 'gerund'.

10 N + V + past participle (. . .)

The only verb in this pattern (apart from the auxiliary **be** in the PASSIVE) is GET.

E.g. *The thief got arrested by the police.*

Our team got beaten several times.

The meaning is similar to the passive.

E.g. *He got arrested. ↔ He was arrested.*

11 N + V + N₁ + N₂

(In this pattern, the N₁ is the INDIRECT OBJECT, and the N₂ is the direct object.)

E.g. *They have given her a beautiful present.*

Could you lend me some clothes?

John owes his sister \$10,000.

Let me make (you) a cup of tea.

I'll reserve (us both) some tickets for the theatre.

We wish all our friends a happy New Year.

She asked them a favour.

[For more details of this pattern, see INDIRECT OBJECT].

11a In pattern 11 we can also include verbs which take a preposition between N₁ and N₂, i.e. PREPOSITIONAL VERBS:

N + V + N₁ + preposition + N₂

E.g. *Everyone thanked Polly for the party.*

His enemies accused him of laziness.

Let me introduce you to my neighbours.

Other examples:

compare . . . with

congratulate . . . on

convict . . . of

deprive . . . of

prevent . . . from

protect . . . from

remind . . . of

rob . . . of

sentence . . . to

suspect . . . of

treat . . . of

warn . . . of

12 N + V + N + N / adjective

E.g. *The queen kept her marriage a secret / secret.*

The army left the building a ruin / empty.

Jim and I are getting the house straight.

The noise was driving them all mad.

The chairman has declared the meeting official.

Newspapers reported Miss Brown dead.

We all thought him an excellent boss.

Do you prefer your coffee black?

(In this Pattern, the N / adjective is called an OBJECT COMPLEMENT.)

Other examples:

call, elect, hold, make, send, turn

NOTE (i): Some verbs, like **declare**, **report** and **think**, can take a *that*-clause [see THAT 1], (see pattern 4).

E.g. *We all thought that he was an excellent boss.*

These verbs can also take an object + to + infinitive (see pattern 17).

E.g. *We all thought him to be an excellent boss.*

In general, pattern 12 and pattern 17 are <more formal> and <less common> than pattern 4.

But they are quite common in the PASSIVE.

E.g. *He was thought (to be) an excellent boss.*

NOTE (ii): There is also a PREPOSITIONAL VERB pattern with **as** [see AS]:

N + V + N + as N / adjective

E.g. *He treated her as his servant.*

The news broadcast described the situation as very dangerous.

13 N + V + N + adverbial

Most of the adverbials in this pattern are adverbials of MOTION (or movement) or PLACE.

E.g. *(First) I took the key out of my pocket.*

(Then) I put it into the lock.

They are sending their son home.

(Always) keep your eyes on the road.

Other verbs are:

*bring, get, lead, place, show, stand, drive, lay, leave,
see, sit*

NOTE: The verb **treat** takes an adverbial of MANNER in this pattern.

E.g. *Her parents treated her { well.
badly. }*

14 N + V + N + that-clause

E.g. *John told me (that) his father was ill.
They informed her (that) her bag had been found.
I bet (you) (that) our team will win.
We assure you (that) we are doing our best.
No one could convince Linda (that) she was wrong.*

These verbs are mainly 'speaking' verbs introducing INDIRECT STATEMENTS.

Other examples:

advise, persuade, promise, remind, satisfy, teach

15 N + V + N + wh- clause

E.g. *Jim asked us { how long we had been waiting.
when the meeting would end.
whether the train had gone. }*

Apart from **ask**, this pattern can be used with verbs in pattern 14, especially in QUESTIONS and after NEGATIVES.

E.g. *I didn't tell anyone where I had hidden the key.
Have you reminded the audience what you are going to sing?*

16 N + V + N + wh- to-clause

The **wh-** clause in this case is a TO-INFINITIVE clause (compare patterns 6 and 15):

E.g. *The pilot taught me how to land safely.
Could you tell us which museums to visit?
(Please) remind them (of) what to wear.*

Other verbs include:

advise, ask, instruct, show, warn

17 N + V + N + to + Verb . . .

In pattern 17, the object is followed by a TO-INFINITIVE clause. Many different kinds of verbs take this pattern.

E.g. *I want you to feel at home.
They don't like us to arrive late.
They reported the car to be missing.
We believed it to have been stolen.
He expected the guests to arrive late.
She asked the doctor to give her advice.
He advised her to take a long rest.*

They are forcing him to change his mind.

You must get them to clean their rooms.

She won't allow the class to borrow her books.

This compels them to buy new copies.

I am helping Mimi to finish her homework.

18 N + V + N + Verb . . .

In pattern 18, the BASIC FORM of the verb follows the object.

E.g. *She lets the boys play football on the lawn.
She should make them behave themselves.
Did you see anyone leave the building?
No, but I heard someone bang the door.
The judge had the witness repeat this statement.
Let me help you tidy these papers.
I've known him eat a pound of snails.*

Other verbs in this pattern:

feel, notice, watch, observe

NOTE: **Have, let** and **watch** here have no passive. The other verbs of pattern 18 form their passive with a TO-INFINITIVE.

E.g. *The thief was { seen
observed } to escape by the back door.*

19 N + V + N + Verb-ing . . . [see -ING CLAUSE].

E.g. *They dislike the house being left empty.
Martine can't bear anyone interfering with her work.
Do you mind him / his * borrowing your bicycle?
I can hear someone knocking on the windows.
We watched the crowd gathering in the street.
We found the children playing tennis on the beach.
The driver stopped his bus crashing into the wall.*

Other examples:

feel, hate, like, love, notice, see, smell

[See PERCEPTION VERBS.]

* On the use of *his* instead of *him*, see -ING CLAUSE 1.

20 N + V + N + past participle (. . .)

E.g. *Can you { get
have } this watch repaired, please?*

The boss wants these letters typed before tomorrow.

I'd like my room cleaned now, please.

They saw the home team beaten.

verb phrase

- The 'Verb' part of an English sentence is called a **verb phrase** [see CLAUSE 1].
- The **verb phrase** can contain one verb, e.g. **Guy came yesterday**. (simple), or more than one verb, e.g. **Guy is coming today**. (complex).
- English has a small number of AUXILIARY VERBS which help the MAIN VERB to make up **verb phrases**. They are: *be*, *have*, *do*, and the modal auxiliaries: *will*, *would*, *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *must*, *ought to*, *used to* (note that *be*, *have*, and *do* also act as main verbs). [All these words have separate entries in this book. Look them up for further details.]

1 The auxiliary verbs combine with other verbs in four patterns

A modal* pattern: MODAL + VERB	<i>The shop(s) { will may could } open.</i>
B perfect* pattern: HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE	<i>The { shop has shops have } opened.</i>
C progressive* pattern: BE + VERB-ING	<i>The { shop was shops were } opening.</i>
D passive* pattern: BE + PAST PARTICIPLE	<i>The { shop was shops were } opened.</i>

* Look these up under their separate entries for further details. For modals look up MODAL AUXILIARY.

The patterns can combine with each other, but they must keep the order: 'A before B before C before D'. (See Table I below for examples.)

2 In Table I is the complete set of verb phrases for one main verb (*play*).

NOTE: We use only Present Tense forms, and we use **should** to represent modal auxiliaries.

Table I

<i>The child plays (the piano).</i>	simple
<i>The child should play (the piano).</i> <i>The child has played (the piano).</i> <i>The child is playing (the piano).</i> <i>The piano is played (by the child).</i>	modal perfect progressive passive
<i>The child should have played (the piano).</i> <i>The child should be playing (the piano).</i> <i>The piano should be played.</i> <i>The child has been playing (the piano).</i> <i>The piano has been played.</i> <i>The piano is being played.</i>	modal perfect modal progressive modal passive perfect progressive perfect passive progressive passive
<i>The child should have been playing (the piano).</i> <i>The piano should have been played.</i> <i>The piano should be being played*.</i> <i>The piano has been being played*.</i>	modal perfect progressive modal perfect passive modal progressive passive perfect progressive passive
<i>The piano should have been being played*.</i>	modal perfect progressive passive

* These patterns are <very rare>.

3 There are three useful terms for words in the verb phrase

You can learn them from Table I:

- (i) 'Main verb' (i.e. **plays** etc.) is the last word in each verb phrase (i.e. the last word in **bold type**).
- (ii) 'Finite verb' is the first word in each verb phrase (i.e. the first word in **bold type**). It normally changes for Present / Past Tense.
- (iii) 'Operator' (i.e. **must** etc.) is the first (i.e. 'finite') auxiliary in Table I: it is useful for forming QUESTIONS, NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES, SHORTENED SENTENCES, etc. [see OPERATOR]

4 Table II shows the different verb phrase structures and how they are used for expressing PRESENT TIME, PAST TIME, and FUTURE (with WILL). [For further details of structure and meaning in the verb phrase, see PRESENT TENSE and PAST TENSE, PERFECT and PROGRESSIVE aspects, and PASSIVE voice.]

This table does not show short forms or negative forms such as '**'s**', '**'re**'. [For these forms, see CONTRACTIONS OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES.]

Table II

(not Progressive)		
	active voice	passive voice
Present	basic form: <i>play</i>	<i>am *</i> <i>is *</i> <i>are *</i> } <i>played</i>
	-s form: <i>plays</i>	
Past	<i>played</i>	<i>was</i> <i>were</i> } <i>played</i>
Future	<i>will play</i>	<i>will be played</i>
Perfect	<i>has</i> <i>have</i> } <i>played</i>	<i>has</i> <i>have</i> } <i>been played</i>
	<i>had played</i>	<i>had been played</i>
	<i>will have played</i>	<i>will have been played**</i>

Progressive		
	active voice	passive voice
Present	<i>am *</i> <i>is *</i> <i>are *</i> } <i>playing</i>	<i>am *</i> <i>is *</i> <i>are *</i> } <i>being played</i>
Past	<i>was</i> <i>were</i> } <i>playing</i>	<i>was</i> <i>were</i> } <i>being played</i>
Future	<i>will be playing</i>	<i>will be being played</i>
Perfect	<i>has</i> <i>have</i> } <i>been playing</i>	<i>has</i> <i>have</i> } <i>been being played**</i>
	<i>had been playing</i>	<i>had been being played**</i>
	<i>will have been playing</i>	<i>will have been being played**</i>

* [On the use of *am*, *is* and *are*, see BE.]

** These patterns are <rare>.

5 Finite and nonfinite verb phrases

Most **verb phrases** are finite **verb phrases**. This means they begin with a finite verb. All the **verb phrases** in tables I and II above are finite **verb phrases**.

Nonfinite **verb phrase** begin with a nonfinite verb, these can be of three kinds:

INFINITIVE (usually with **to**)

E.g. **to want**

-ing participle (or -ING FORM)

E.g. **wanting**

PAST PARTICIPLE (usually an -ED FORM)

E.g. **wanted**

Nonfinite **verb phrases** are usually used only in subordinate clauses [see NONFINITE CLAUSE].

6 In table III we show the structures of infinitive and -ing participle **verb phrases**. Table III is simpler than table I because nonfinite **verb phrases** have no modal pattern. Also, -ing participle phrases have no progressive pattern, and past participle phrases have no complex patterns at all. [For examples of nonfinite clauses and their use, see INFINITIVE CLAUSE, -ING CLAUSE, PAST PARTICIPLE CLAUSE.]

Table III

infinitive phrases	participle phrases	form of verb phrase
<i>to play</i>	<i>playing</i>	simple
<i>to have played</i>	<i>having played</i>	perfect
<i>to be playing</i>	<i>playing*</i>	progressive
<i>to be played</i>	<i>played**</i>	passive
<i>to have been playing</i>	<i>having been playing</i>	perfect progressive
<i>to have been played</i>	<i>having been played</i>	perfect passive
<i>to be being played</i>	<i>being played</i>	progressive passive

* The -ing participle can have a progressive meaning (referring to a temporary action in progress).

E.g. **We saw her swimming** across the lake. (This contrasts with: **We saw her swim** across the lake.)

[See VERB PATTERNS 18, 19.]

** The past participle has a passive meaning.

verbless clause

1 A verbless clause is a CLAUSE with no verb.

Why do we call it a clause?

- (a) Because it has the meaning of a clause, and
- (b) Because it can have elements like SUBJECT, COMPLEMENT, OBJECT, and ADVERBIAL, like other clauses.

2 Some examples of verbless main clauses

(Use these in <informal speech>).

- E.g. *How about a walk?* } suggestions*
- What about a cup of tea?* }
- Why all the noise?* a question*
- Everybody out!* } commands [compare IMPERATIVES.]
- Off with your coat!*
- ('She left him.) 'A good thing, too.'* a reply
- Sorry about the mistake.* an apology*
- 'Another piece of toast? ('Yes, thanks.'* an offer*
- What lovely weather!* an exclamation*

* These words have separate entries. Look them up for more details.

3 Some examples of verbless subordinate clauses

(Use these mainly in <formal writing>).

- E.g. *If in doubt, contact your local safety officer.*
- Whenever possible, the public should be informed about dangerous conditions on the roads.*
- Once inside the building, the police lost no time in arresting the thieves.*
- With their best player in hospital, Benfica will find it difficult to win the game.*
- Maureen was talking happily, with a sandwich in one hand and a glass of milk in the other.*
- They have two children: one a girl of 15 and the other a boy of 10.*
- Tired and hungry after their long journey, the climbers decided to take a rest.*

very /'verɪ/ (adverb of degree or adjective)

1 Very (adverb) means 'to a high degree', and it comes before the word it applies to.

- E.g. **very + ADJECTIVE:** *The coat's very expensive.*
- very + ADVERB:** *I saw her very recently.*
- very + QUANTITY WORD:** *He earns very little.*

2 Don't confuse very with too (= 'more than is needed') or ENOUGH (= 'as much as is needed'). You can see the difference in these examples.

- E.g. **very:** *These trousers are very big.*
- too:** *These trousers are too big: they don't fit me.*
- enough:** *These trousers are big enough: they fit me well.*

NOTE: As an adjective, **very** comes after **the** (or some other definite determiner) and normally comes before a noun; it means 'exactly' or adds emphasis.

- E.g. *Mary and I are twins: we were born on the very same day.* (= 'precisely the same')
- We climbed to the very top of the mountain.* (= 'the highest point')

viz. (linking adverb) [Compare E.G., I.E.]

We use **viz.** in <formal writing>. It means 'namely', and often links phrases in APPOSITION.

- E.g. *We are making a study of the largest land animal in the world, viz. the African bush elephant.*

NOTE: **Viz.** is from the Latin **videlicet**. We rarely pronounce **viz.**, but if we do, we call it /viz/, or **namely** /'neimli/.

vocative [See NAMES OF PEOPLE]

Vocatives are the words we use to name or to refer to people when talking to them.

- E.g. *Mrs. Lake, Suzy, Madam*

Very often we do not use a vocative at all when talking to someone in English. This is usually not <impolite>.

voice [See ACTIVE and PASSIVE]

Voice is a grammatical term. Verbs have an active voice and a passive voice.

- E.g. Active voice: *The dog bit the visitor.*
Passive voice: *The visitor was bitten by the dog.*

vowels

The basic vowel letters of the alphabet are **a, e, i, o** and **u**. But there are many more vowel sounds in English. [See CONSONANTS AND VOWELS.]

-ward, -wards

/-wərd/, /-wədz/ [See also TOWARD / TOWARDS]

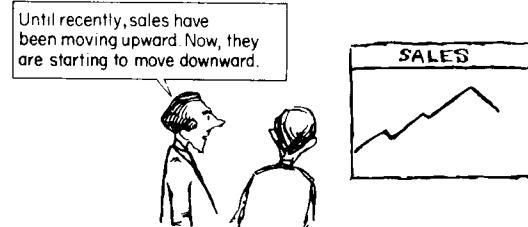
- 1 -**Ward(s)** is a SUFFIX added to other words to form an ADVERB, meaning 'in the direction of . . .':

E.g. **upward(s), forward(s)*, homeward(s), downward(s), backward(s), eastward(s)**

NOTE: **-ward** is more common in <U.S.>, and **-wards** is usually more common in <G.B.>

* **Forward** is the usual form. **Forwards** is <rare> even in <G.B.>

- 2 E.g.



NOTE: Words ending **-ward** (but not **-wards**) can be used as ADJECTIVES.
E.g. We've finished our visit to Africa. We start our **homeward** journey tomorrow morning.

warnings

- 1



These warnings are for something sudden.

* <G.B.> only.

- 2 If or unless + Present Simple is often used to give a warning about the future.

E.g. **If you're so rude, you'll soon have no friends.**
You'll find yourself in prison unless you learn to drive more carefully.

- 3 Other examples:



was /wəz/ (weak form /wəz/) singular Past Tense form of the verb
be [See BE, WERE.]

E.g. My teacher **was** ill, but she's better now.

watch /wɒtʃ/ (regular verb or noun) [For the difference between LOOK (AT), SEE, and WATCH, see LOOK 3]

we /wi:/ (weak form /wi/), **us, our, ours, ourselves**, (1st person plural personal pronoun) [See PERSONAL PRONOUN]

- **We** refers to the speaker or writer and other people.

- 1 **The meaning of we**

We may or may not include the hearer: 'you'.
We does not include 'you' in,

E.g. **We'll lend you our { apartment <U.S.> flat <G.B.> } in Rome.**

We does include 'you' in,

E.g. 'When shall **we** meet again?' 'Let's meet on Friday, shall **we**?'

- 2 **Special uses of we**

- 2a **We** is used for general remarks about the human race. [To compare the general uses of **they** and **you**, see THEY 3 and YOU 2].

E.g. **We live in a period of great change.**
Science tells us that the earth is getting cooler.

2b **We** is often used in books, in referring to writer and reader together.

E.g. *In this chapter, we will briefly look at the history of art since Picasso.*

weak forms [See STRESS 4]

well /wel/ (adverb or adjective)

1 Well as an adverb of manner

Well is the (irregular) adverb of the adjective **good**.

E.g. *She is a good tennis-player = She plays tennis well.*

1a Well, like **good**, has COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms **better** and **best**. The opposite of **well** is **badly**.

E.g. *My father speaks Chinese well because he has lived in China. But I speak it very badly. He knows China much better than I do.*

2 Well as a linking adverb

Well is a very useful word for beginning something new that you have to say.

E.g. *Well, what shall we do today?*

2a Well (adverb) is used to begin an answer when you need time to think.

E.g. *'What's your opinion?' 'Well, I don't really know.'*

2b Well is often our first word when we can't give the answer the other person wants or expects.

E.g. *'I think Scotland is beautiful!' 'Well, yes, but * the weather can be terrible!'*

* [See BUT 1c]

3 Well as an adjective

Well (adjective) means 'in good health', and generally follows the verb **be** or **feel**. The opposite of **well** is **ill**. Both words answer the question 'How?'

E.g. *'How are you (feeling) today? I heard you were ill.' 'I'm getting better, thank you. In fact, I'm feeling quite well again.'*

Notice that **better** is the comparative: '*I am better*' means '*I am well again*'. (There is no superlative of the adjective **well**.)

NOTE: **Well** and **ill** (adjectives) do not normally come before a noun: we do not say **well people** or **an ill child**. (Instead, we can say **healthy people** or **a sick child**.)

4 Idioms

As well forms a single adverb, meaning 'also', 'in addition', 'too'.

As well as forms a single preposition or conjunction meaning 'in addition to', 'and also'. Notice the difference between:

(i) **well** = adverb

E.g. *She speaks Spanish as well as (she speaks) Turkish. ('She speaks Spanish and Turkish equally well.'*)

(ii) **as well as** = preposition

E.g. *She speaks Spanish, as well as Turkish. ('She speaks Spanish, and also Turkish.'*)

were /wə:/ (weak form /wə/) is the plural Past Tense form of **be**

► **we / you / they were**. [See BE.]

E.g. *We were beaten by Spain last night. Their players were much better than ours.*

1 Was / were in the Past Tense

When the SUBJECT of the verb is 1st or 3rd person singular, we generally use **was**, not **were**.

E.g. *I was watching the game. It was played in Madrid.*

2 Were in the unreal use of the Past Tense

But if the Past Tense has UNREAL MEANING (i.e. in **would** conditionals [see IF 1c]), we can use **were**, instead of **was** with all subjects, including 3rd person singular subjects. For unreal meaning, **were** is more <formal> and 'correct' than **was**.

E.g. *I wouldn't lend that man the money, even if he were my own brother.*

If I were living here in London, we could meet more often.

NOTE (i): [See UNREAL MEANING on the use of **were to**.]

NOTE (ii): In the idiom *if I were you* we use **were** rather than **was**, even in <informal speech>. [See ADVISING / ADVICE.]

wh-clause

- A **wh-clause** is a SUBORDINATE CLAUSE which begins with a WH- WORD.*
- The basic word order of a **wh-clause** is simple: it is just like a main clause (statement) except that the **wh-word** or **wh-element** goes in front [see MAIN CLAUSE].

* Except that in <formal writing>, a preposition can go before the wh-word.
E.g. *No one told him of what crime he was accused.*

- 1 Notice the way the word order changes in these **wh-clauses** [see WORD ORDER, CLAUSE 1a]. We shall call the following examples: *The Diary of a Forgetful Person.*



S = SUBJECT, V = VERB PHRASE, O = OBJECT, C = COMPLEMENT,
A = ADVERBIAL

I S	got up	early,		but I don't remember	what time	I S	got up.	V
--------	--------	--------	--	----------------------	-----------	--------	---------	---

I S	ate	a good breakfast,		but I don't remember	what	I S	ate.	V
--------	-----	-------------------	--	----------------------	------	--------	------	---

I S	met	someone	at the bus stop,	but I don't remember	who / whom*	I S	met.	V
--------	-----	---------	------------------	----------------------	-------------	--------	------	---

Something S	happened	at the office,		but I don't remember	what		happened.	V
----------------	----------	----------------	--	----------------------	------	--	-----------	---

I S	went	to the theatre,		but I don't remember	which theatre	I S	went	to.	V
--------	------	-----------------	--	----------------------	---------------	--------	------	-----	---

The play S	was	very long,		but I don't remember	how long	I S	was.	V
---------------	-----	------------	--	----------------------	----------	--------	------	---

NOTE: The elements (i.e. S, V, O, C or A) in **bold** go in front in the **wh-clause**.

* **Whom** is more <formal> and 'correct'. [See who / whom / whose].

** Notice that there is no change of normal word order if the **wh-word** is (in) the subject.

*** Notice that we usually leave the preposition at the end. But in <formal style> we can use: 'to **which theatre** I went'.

2 Different kinds of wh-clause

- 2a Indirect questions are NOUN CLAUSES. For example, they can be SUBJECT or OBJECT of a sentence.

E.g. *What he does with his money doesn't interest me.*
I wonder what he does with his money.

Indirect questions are 'questions in the mind', as well as questions spoken aloud. All the examples in the right-hand boxes in 1 above are indirect questions. [See the separate entry for INDIRECT QUESTIONS.]

- 2b Relative clauses generally follow nouns. **Wh-** clauses which are relative clauses begin with **who / (whom / whose)** or **which** as relative pronouns, or **when** or **where** as relative adverbs.

E.g. *People who work in offices should take plenty of exercise.*
The dining room, which we have recently repainted, is the nicest room in the house.

[Look up RELATIVE CLAUSE for more details].

2c 'Referring clauses'.

E.g. *Whoever* } wrote this novel is a genius.
The person who }

What } we need is a new typewriter.
The thing that }

You can buy { **what food** } you like.
the food that }

I'm going back to { **where** } I was born.
the place where }

We call these 'referring clauses' because they refer to people, or things or places. They replace a whole NOUN PHRASE. In meaning, they are similar to RELATIVE CLAUSES.

NOTE: A referring clause cannot begin with a preposition.

- 2d Indirect exclamations begin with . . . **what a** or . . . **how** [see EXCLAMATIONS 5, 6].

E.g. *Do you remember what a wonderful time we had?*
(Compare: **What** a wonderful time we had!)

It's surprising how young she looks.
(Compare: **How** young she looks!)

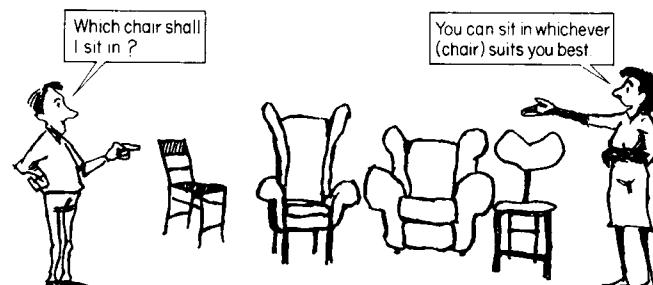
- 3 [See also WH-EVER WORDS for clauses beginning with WHATEVER, WHOEVER, etc.]

wh-ever words [See WH- WORDS, WH- CLAUSE]

- Wh-ever words are wh- words with the ending **-ever** added.
- They are: pronouns / determiners: **whatever whichever whoever**
adverbs: **however whenever wherever**
- Wh-ever words generally go at the beginning of SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.
- The word order of wh-ever clauses is the same as the word order of wh-clauses. [See WH- CLAUSE 1.]

1 How wh-ever words behave in sentences

- 1a Wh-ever words begin 'referring clauses' [see WH- CLAUSE 2c.]
The meaning is: 'any X that . . .' or 'the X that . . .'
- E.g. 'What shall we do?' 'We can do **whatever** you like.' (= 'anything that you like.')
'Who are you inviting to the party?' 'I'll invite **whoever** you suggest.' (= 'anyone that you suggest.')
'When does the restaurant close?' 'The restaurant closes **whenever** the last customer leaves.' (= 'the time when the last customer leaves.')



- 1b Wh-ever words begin 'any condition' clauses:
These are adverbial (conditional) clauses which mean that the main clause applies to any condition mentioned in the wh-ever clause.
- E.g. **Whatever else you do**, don't argue with Brian about politics! ('It doesn't matter what else you do . . .')
Come in and sit down, whoever you are! ('It doesn't matter who you are . . .')
However hard I try, I'll never beat Sue at tennis. ('It doesn't matter how hard I try . . .')

NOTE: We sometimes omit the verb **be** in 'any condition' clauses.
E.g. **Whatever your problems (are)**, we can give you advice.

2 Adding ever for emphasis

We can add **ever** after a wh- word [see WH- WORD 2 NOTE], for emphasis, in DIRECT OR INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

E.g. **Who ever can that be at the door?**

This is not a wh-ever word, but two words wh- + ever. But quite often people spell them as one word.

E.g. { **What ever** } (Whatever*) are you doing in my house?

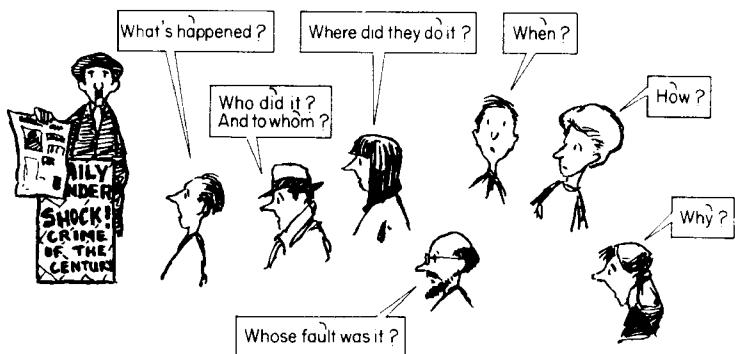
* **Whatever** is not 'correct', but it is <quite common>.

3 Wh-ever words have other uses. For example, however is a LINKING ADVERB.

[Look up each wh-ever word under its separate entry for further details and examples.]

wh-question

- WH- WORDS introduce WH- QUESTIONS.
- Wh- words can be used alone or in a sentence.
- They expect information in the REPLY (or answer): not just yes or no, but something you didn't know before.



- **Wh- questions** are usually spoken with a falling intonation [see INTONATION 1, 3b].
- Here are examples of questions with different **wh-** words which have separate entries in this book:

- 1 Who?** (pronoun) i.e. you want to know about a person or some people.
E.g. '**Who's** that?' 'It's my father.'

NOTE: **Whom** is the OBJECT PRONOUN form of **who**, but it is <formal> and <rather rare>. [See WHO / WHOM / WHOSE].
E.g. '**To whom** did you give the ticket?' 'To Zoe.' <formal>

- 2 Whose?** (possessive determiner or pronoun) i.e. you want to know who something belongs to.

E.g. '**Whose** is this bucket?' 'It's mine.'
'**Whose** baby is this?' { 'It belongs to Mary.'
 'It's my sister's.'

- 3 What?** (pronoun) i.e. you want to know about something (not a person).

E.g. '**What** are you reading?' 'A book on sport.'

- 3a What?** (determiner) i.e. you want to know more about somebody or something.

E.g. '**What** magazine are you reading?' 'The T.V. Times.'

- 4 Which?** (pronoun) – use this instead of **who** (for people) or instead of **what** (for things) when there is a limited set of possibilities to choose from.

E.g. '**Which** of Shakespeare's plays have you seen?' 'Hamlet and Othello.'

- 4a Which?** (determiner) – use this instead of **what** when there is a limited set of possibilities to choose from.

E.g. '**Which** coat do you like best? The green, the red, or the blue?' 'I like the blue one best.'

- 4b** [For more details about when to use **which** instead of **what** or **who**, look up WHICH 1.]

NOTE: There is sometimes little difference between **which** and **who**, or **which** and **what**.
E.g. '**Which / who** is your favourite actress?
Which / what magazines do you read?

- 5 When?** (adverb) i.e. you want to know the time at which something happens.

E.g. '**When** did you go to Russia?' 'Two years ago.'

- 6 Where?** (adverb) i.e. you want to know what place.

E.g. '**Where** are you staying?' 'At the camp site.'

NOTE: We also use **where** in asking about motion to or from a place [see MOTION (OR MOVEMENT)].

E.g. '**Where** have you been (to)?' 'I've been to the races.'
'**Where** do they come from?' 'From Poland.'

- 7 How?** (adverb) i.e. you want to know the way or manner in which something happens or is done [see MANNER].

E.g. '**How** did the accident happen?' 'The driver of the truck didn't notice the traffic lights.'

NOTE: In asking about the instrument, we can say **what (. . .) with?**, as well as **how . . . ?**, [see INSTRUMENT].

E.g. '**What** shall I write **with**?' 'You can use **this pen**.'

- 7a How long?** i.e. you want to ask about length of time.

E.g. '**How long** are you staying here at the hotel?' 'Until next Sunday.'

- 7b How often?** i.e. you want to ask about frequency.

E.g. '**How often** do they clean the windows?' 'Every month.'

- 7c How?** (adverb) + adjective i.e. you want to ask about degree or extent.

E.g. '**How old** is your daughter?' 'She's nearly 18.'

NOTE: **How?** + adverb also asks about degree.

E.g. '**How well** does she speak German?' 'Very well – just like a native, in fact.'

- 7d How?** (adverb) + **many** or **much** asks about amount or quantity.

E.g. '**How many** people are coming to the party?' 'About 20.'
'**How much** do I owe you?' 'Exactly £50.'

- 8 Why?** (adverb) i.e. you want to know a REASON OR CAUSE. Answer: 'Because . . . '

E.g. '**Why** did the plants die?' 'Because they didn't get enough water.'

NOTE: **Why?** can also ask about PURPOSE (i.e. the REASON for an ACTION.) In this use we can replace **why?** by **what . . . for?**

E.g. '**What** are you singing **for**?' 'I'm feeling happy.'

Notice that all these QUESTIONS expect ANSWERS with information, it is not enough to say just 'Yes' or 'No'!

9 How to form wh-questions

(i) Put the **wh**-word at the front of the sentence, together with any words in the same phrase.

E.g. **Why** . . .? **Who** . . .? **Which** hat . . .? **What** size . . .?
How fast . . .?

(ii) If the **wh**-word is (part of) the SUBJECT, you don't have to make any change to the usual WORD ORDER of a statement.

subject
Who
Which hat

E.g. **Who** *lives here?* → *Rita lives here.*
Which hat *is yours?* → *This hat is mine.*

(iii) But if the **wh**-word is not (part of) the subject, you place the AUXILIARY VERB or *be* in front of the subject. This is inversion [see INVERSION 2, 3].

E.g. **How fast can they run?** → *They can run fast.*
Where is Ada? → *Ada is at home.*

(iv) If you cannot do (iii) because there is no auxiliary verb, use the 'empty' auxiliary *do* [see DO 2].

E.g. **How fast did they run?** → *They ran fast.*
Where does Ada live? → *Ada lives in Paris.*
How do you like it? → *I like it very much.*

9a Compare **wh**-words as subjects and as non-subjects:

	subject	verb	object	adverbial
statement:	Diana	drinks	tea	regularly
question:	Who	drinks	tea	regularly?

	object	auxiliary	subject	verb	(adverbial)
question:	What	does	Diana	drink	(usually)?

	adverbial	auxiliary	subject	verb	object
question:	How often	does	Diana	drink	tea?

Now compare: subject + verb . . .

E.g. **How many accidents** happen because of bad roads?
How much money was stolen? (PASSIVE)

with: object + auxiliary + subject + verb

E.g. **How many accidents** have you had?
How much money do you have?

NOTE (i): Now compare direct **wh**-questions with INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

E.g. 'What do you want?' → Tell me what you want.

'Who are you looking for?' → She wants to know who you are looking for.
The indirect question has no inversion of subject and AUXILIARY or *be*.

NOTE (ii): When the **wh**-word is part of a prepositional phrase, we have a choice in <formal> English between putting the preposition at the end of the question, or moving the whole prepositional phrase to the front [see PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE].

E.g. 'I'm staying at a hotel in Brighton.'

'Oh. { **Which hotel** are you staying at? } <formal>
At which hotel are you staying?'

10 Special kinds of wh-question

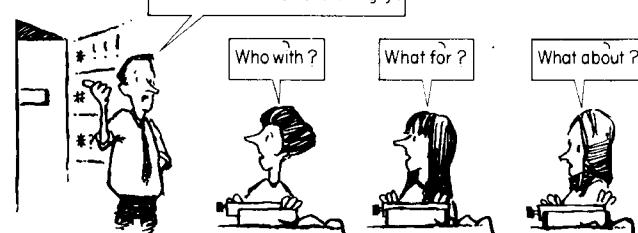
10a Short wh-questions:

If you need to, you can ask a very short question containing the **wh**-word.

E.g. 'It's time you were in bed, Tom.' 'Why?'
'I'd like to have a talk with you.' 'O.K. When?'
'We mustn't stay any longer.' 'Why not?'

10b Some short questions end in a preposition:

E.g. It sounds as if the boss is angry!



NOTE (i): Questions with more than one **wh**-word.

E.g. 'Who does what?' 'I'll do the shopping, and you can cook the dinner.'

NOTE (ii): Questions which ask about things / people in subordinate clauses.

E.g. 'Who did they want her to marry □?'
'(They wanted her to marry) an army officer.'
'How much money do you think he earns □?'
The box □ shows where the **wh**-word 'belongs' in the subordinate clause.

NOTE (iii): Questions which ask the other person to repeat words that you didn't hear (or the words that you didn't believe!).

E.g. 'His grandmother is 95 years old.' 'How old is she?'
'It cost \$100.' 'How much did it cost?'



These are called 'echo questions'. They are spoken with a rising intonation, and with the main stress on the **wh-** word. Echo questions are sometimes <impolite>, so it may be best to begin with an apology [see APOLOGIES].

E.g. *I'm sorry, how old is she?*

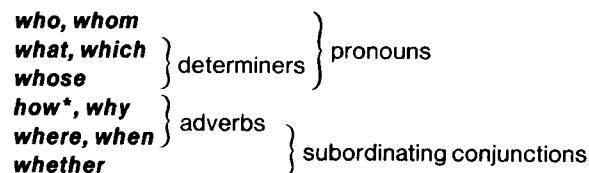
Sometimes an echo question has the same word order as a statement, and the **wh-** word is in a later position in the sentence.

E.g. *She is how old? It cost how much?*

NOTE (iv): [On **should** in **wh-** questions, see SHOULD AND OUGHT TO 7.]

wh- words

- 1 **wh-** words is the name we give to the following 10 words which you can look up in separate entries [WHO / WHOM / WHOSE are in one entry]:



* We call **how** a **wh-** word even though it is not spelled with **wh-**.

NOTE: There are also **wh-** words which end in **-ever**, like **whatever**. [See WH-EVER WORDS.]

2 The use of **wh-** words

- 2a All the **wh-** words except **whether** can introduce WH- QUESTIONS.

E.g. **What's the time?**

- 2b All the **wh-** words (including **whether**) can introduce INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

E.g. **He asked me what the time was.**

'Can you tell me **what the time is**, please?'

[For details of **wh-** words introducing subordinate clauses, see WH- CLAUSE.]

NOTE: To express strong feeling about a question, e.g. **surprise**, you can add **ever** or **on earth** to the **wh-** word. [See WH-EVER WORDS]

E.g.

How on earth did you win so many prizes?



what /wɒt/ (pronoun or determiner)

- **What** is a WH- WORD used to refer to 'things'.
- **What** is used to form **wh-** questions [see WH-QUESTIONS 3], WH- CLAUSES, and exclamations [see EXCLAMATIONS 5, 6].
- **What** does not change its form.
- [On the difference between **what** and **which**, see WHICH 1.]

1 **What** refers to things

What asks about something:

E.g. '**What** are you looking for?' 'I'm looking for **a pen**.'

Who asks about someone:

E.g. '**Who** are you looking for?' 'I'm looking for **the manager**.'

NOTE: You can ask **what** about a person's job.

E.g. '**What** was her first husband?' 'He was **a lawyer**.'

But its meaning is different from:

'**Who** was her first husband?' 'He was **John Forbes, the son of a famous writer**.'

What asks about a person's job. **Who** asks about the person as a person.

2 **What** introducing **wh-** questions

2a **What** as a pronoun can be SUBJECT, OBJECT, or COMPLEMENT.

Subject: E.g. **What happened?**

Object: E.g. **What are you doing?**

Complement: E.g. **What is your name?**

Other examples:

'**What** would you like to drink?' '**An orange juice**, please.'

'**What** is her job?' 'She's **a nurse**.'

NOTE (i): [See WH-QUESTION 10 about short questions such as '**What for?**']

NOTE (ii): The simple question '**What?**' is a <rather impolite> request for repetition.

2b **What** as a determiner goes before a noun: **what** + noun.

- E.g. '**What time** is it?' 'It's **ten past five**.'
- '**What colour** is her hair?' 'It's **black**.'
- '**What job** does he do?' 'He's **an electrician**.'
- '**What year** were you born (in)?' 'In **1956**.'

NOTE: When it is a DETERMINER, **what** can ask about people as well as things. It often means 'what kind of'.

- E.g. **What (kind of) painters** do you admire most?
- What (kind of) people** visit this restaurant?

3 **What** introducing wh-clauses (= subordinate clauses)

3a **What** as a pronoun.

- E.g. { We asked her **what** she wanted.
I don't know **what** you mean. } INDIRECT QUESTIONS

(Talking about a holiday):

- '**What** I enjoyed most was swimming.'
'Did you? Well, the food was **what** I
enjoyed most.' } 'referring clauses'
[see WH- CLAUSE 2c]

3b **What** as a determiner: **what** + noun

- E.g. Can you tell me **what size** * this dress is?
I don't care **what difficulties** we face. } indirect questions
They stole **what (little) money** we had. } 'referring
What (few) supporters he had soon left him. } clauses'

(**What money** and **what supporters** here imply that the amount or quantity is small.)

* **What size** + noun is useful when you are talking about clothes.

- E.g. '**What size** { shoes } do you take?' 'Size 10.'

4 **What (a / an) introducing exclamations** [see EXCLAMATIONS 5, 6]

4a **What + a / an + (. . .)** singular countable noun [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS].

- E.g. **What a lovely dress!** **What a beautiful day!**
What a time we had! (= 'we had a very good time')

4b **What + (. . .)** plural or uncountable noun.

- E.g. **What strange neighbours** you have!
What luck! (= good luck or bad luck).

whatever /'wɔ:təvər/ (pronoun or determiner)

- **Whatever** is the WH-EVER WORD that belongs with **what**. It means 'any(thing) that . . .'

- E.g. I'll eat **whatever** (food) you have to offer.

Whatever also emphasises a negative word or an any- word (= 'at all').

- E.g. The crash had **nothing whatever** to do with me.
We haven't mentioned the matter to **anyone whatever**.
-

when /wen/ (adverb or conjunction)

- **When** is a WH-WORD introducing questions about TIME.

- **When** is also a subordinating CONJUNCTION: it introduces ADVERBIAL CLAUSES of TIME.

1 **When** (adverb) in questions means '(at) what time?'

- E.g. '**When** did you leave?' 'On the third of July.'

In indirect questions:

- E.g. 'Do you know **when** they're coming?' 'Yes. Tomorrow.'

In other wh- clauses:

- E.g. Summer is the season **when** the farmers are busiest.

[See RELATIVE CLAUSE 8.]

Next Monday is **when** we return to school.

[See 'referring clause', WH- CLAUSE 2c.]

2 **When** (conjunction) means 'at the time at which'

- E.g. We were all very pleased **when** she passed her exam.

2a In the **when**- clause, use a Present Simple verb to refer to the future [see FUTURE 3b].

- E.g. Phone me **when** you get back.
When the T.V. star arrives, there will be a big crowd.

2b Use a Present Perfect verb in the **when**- clause

- (i) to describe something past from the point of view of the future.

- E.g. I will feel much happier **when** I have finished.

- (ii) to describe something past when the main clause contains a Present Simple verb for describing habit.

- E.g. They cut the corn **when** it has ripened.

2c In statements of habit, **when** = IF OR WHENEVER.

E.g. *People don't like making speeches when (=if) they've never spoken in public before.*

When (=whenever) water boils, it changes into steam.

2d With a Progressive form, **when** = WHILE OR AS.

E.g. *We saw a strange animal when (=while) we were driving through the forest.*

3 Idiom

Since when (conjunction):

She moved to Egypt in 1943, since when she has rarely left that country.

whenever /'we'nevər/ (adverb or conjunction)

► **Whenever** is the WH-EVER WORD which belongs with **when**.

1 Whenever (adverb of time) means 'at any time that'.

E.g. *Whenever you arrive, you'll be welcome.*

('At whatever time you arrive . . .')

'When would you like to meet?' '**Whenever** you like.'

2 Whenever (conjunction of time) means 'every time that'.

E.g. *Whenever there's a rail strike, the passengers have to travel by road.*

I visit my sister whenever I go to London.

where /weər/ (adverb or conjunction)

► **Where** is a WH-WORD introducing questions about PLACE.

► **Where** is also a subordinating CONJUNCTION: it introduces ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF PLACE OR MOTION (OR MOVEMENT)

1 Where (adverb)

Where in wh-questions means '(in) what place?'

E.g. '**Where**'s my raincoat? I can't find it.'

'**Where** are you going (to)?'

'**Where** do you come from?'

In wh-clauses:

E.g. 'I don't know **where** she lives.' (INDIRECT QUESTION)

This is the place where I first met my wife.

(**where** = 'at which') (RELATIVE CLAUSE)

You have to go back to where you started.

(**where** = 'the place at which') ('referring clause')

NOTE: There are short questions **Where to?** and **Where from?** [see WH QUESTION 10b].

E.g. 'The plane has just arrived.' 'Where from?' 'From Nairobi.'

Taxidriver: 'Where to?'

Passenger: 'To Victoria Station, please.'

2 Where (conjunction)

Where in the following examples means ' { in } to the place (in) which . . . '

E.g. *Young people have to go where they can find jobs.*

Where I come from, the summer is very dry and hot.

whereas /weə'ræz/ (conjunction) [see CONTRAST 2a]

wherever /weə'revər/ (adverb or conjunction)

► **Wherever** is the WH-EVER WORD which belongs with **where**.

1 Adverb (= 'it doesn't matter where')

E.g. *Come here, Janet, wherever you are.*

2 Conjunction (= 'in / to every place')

E.g. *His dog follows after him wherever he goes.*

I try to save money wherever and whenever I can.

whether /'wedər/ (subordinating conjunction)

► **Whether** always begins a subordinate clause.

► Also, **whether** always introduces a choice between alternatives.

1 Whether introduces indirect YES-NO questions

[See INDIRECT QUESTION 1: NOTE (i).]

E.g. 'Are you hungry?' (Yes or No?) → *She asked me whether I was hungry.*

'Have you seen my sister?' (Yes or No?) → *He asked whether I had seen his sister.*

1a The question may not be asked; it may just be a question in the mind.

E.g. 'Shall we go for a picnic tomorrow?'

'That depends on whether it's * a fine day.'

*I wonder { whether } if ** the journey will last a long time.*

* We generally use the Present Tense to refer to the future after **whether**.

** It can usually replace **whether** in front of an indirect question [see INDIRECT QUESTION 1].

2 Whether X or Y

This idiom introduces two matching alternatives, 'X' or 'Y':

2a Alternative indirect questions:

E.g. *They have a baby, but I can't remember whether it's a boy or a girl.* (X = 'It's a boy'; Y = 'It's a girl')

I don't know whether she agrees or disagrees with us.
(X = 'She agrees with us'; Y = 'She disagrees with us')

2b Alternative conditions:

The examples above are indirect questions. **Whether... or** is also used in CONDITIONAL CLAUSES expressing alternative conditions.

E.g. *Whether you're young or old, you can still enjoy sport.*

(X = 'If you're young'; Y = 'Even if you're old')

The races will take place whether it's raining or it's sunny.

3 Whether or not

A simple way to form a clause with two alternatives is to add **or not**. You can add **or not** to all the examples of **whether** in 1 and 1a above. It makes them rather more insistent.

E.g. *She asked me whether I was hungry or not.*

That depends on whether it's a fine day or not.

You have to pay taxes whether you want to or not.

3a Another way of saying the same thing is to add **or not** just after **whether**.

E.g. *She asked me whether or not I was hungry.*

That depends on whether or not it's a fine day.

which /wɪtʃ/ (pronoun or determiner)

- **Which** is a WH- WORD
- **Which** is used to form wh- questions [see WH-QUESTION 4] or WH- CLAUSES.
- **Which** is also a relative pronoun referring to something (i.e., not a person) [see RELATIVE CLAUSE].

1 When to use which instead of what or who

Which as a question pronoun can refer to both people and things. It is different from **who** and **what** because it asks for a choice from a definite, limited set of possibilities.

E.g. { **What**: *What are you buying?* (I can't see what it is)
 Which: *Which are you buying?* (I can see five dresses.)

I don't know which one you are buying.)

{ **Who**: *Who do want to speak to?* (It could be anyone)
 Which: *I have two daughters. Which do you want to speak to?*

2 Which introducing wh- questions

2a **Which** as a question pronoun can be SUBJECT or OBJECT.

It is often followed by an **of**-phrase:

which + of + plural noun phrase or pronoun

E.g. *Which of these chocolates would you like?*

Which asks you to make a choice from a limited set of possibilities. The **of**-phrase describes this set. But you can omit the **of**-phrase if the set of possibilities is clear from the situation:



2b **Which** as a question determiner:

Which (determiner) goes before a noun: **which + noun**

Again the choice is from a definite, limited set.

E.g. 'Which party do you support? The Democrats or the Republicans?'
'Which children have won prizes?' 'Mary, Raymond, and Wendy.'



* **What** can also be used here. It means 'what kind of . . . ?'
E.g. **What bus** are you waiting for?

Many people say **what** meaning **which** in <informal> English.

3 Which introducing wh-clauses

3a **Which** as a pronoun or determiner introducing indirect questions:

E.g. There are so many beautiful clothes. I don't know **which (of them)** to buy.
I asked Judy **which programme** she wanted to watch. She answered that she didn't mind **which**.

3b **Which** (= 'whichever') as a pronoun or determiner in 'referring clauses' [see WHICHEVER].

3c **Which** (= 'that') as a relative pronoun has a different meaning from **which** in other uses. [See RELATIVE CLAUSE for further details.]

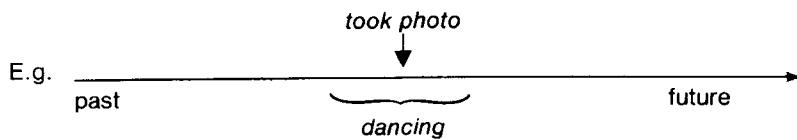
whichever /'wi:tʃevər/ (pronoun or determiner) [See WHICH 3b and WH-EVER WORDS]

E.g. I have several umbrellas. You can borrow {**which** **whichever**} (one) you like.

while /wail/ (subordinating conjunction or noun)

- **While** introduces an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME.
- **While** means 'during the time when X' (X is an action or state lasting for a period of time.) The period of time may be long or short.
- **While** is often followed by the Progressive form of the Verb.

1 The **while**-clause can go before or after the main clause



While they were dancing, someone took a photograph.

We arrived **while Pete was (talking) on the phone**.

While you're* cutting the grass, I'll make a cup of tea.

* [For the use of the Present Tense for future time, look up FUTURE 3b.]

1a Both clauses can have the Progressive form of the verb:

E.g. **While he was making a speech**, the TV camera crew were filming.



NOTE (i): Short Clauses with **while** omit the subject and the verb be:

while + Verb-ing . . .

E.g. Marion wrote her first novel **while** (she was) working for a newspaper.

While + complement or adverbial.

E.g. **While** (he was) a student, Sam had to borrow money.

While (she was) in the hospital she was visited every day by her family.

NOTE (ii): As a noun, **while** means 'a (short) time'.

E.g. I'm going out for a **while**.

'Well, don't be too long. Dinner will be ready in a **while**.' (= 'soon')

2 **While** (subordinating conjunction) does not always refer to time. It is also used to link two ideas which contrast with each other [see CONTRAST 2].

E.g. **'While** I like mussels, I hate oysters.'

whilst /'wailst/ (conjunction) is a <rarer> form of **while**

who / whom / whose /hu:/, /hu:m/, /hu:z/ (pronouns)

- **Who** is a *wh*-word, used to refer to people.
- **Who** is used to form WH-QUESTIONS and WH-CLAUSES.
- **Who** is also a relative pronoun [see RELATIVE CLAUSE].
- **Whom** is the OBJECT PRONOUN form of **who**. It is rather <rare>.
- **Whose** is the possessive form of **who**. [See POSSESSIVE DETERMINER AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUN.]

1 The uses of **who** in questions

(A) SUBJECT.

E.g. '**Who** lives in that house?' '**A farmer, Mr Gray.**'

(B) OBJECT.

E.g. '**Who** do you teach?' <informal> * '**I teach medical students.**'

(C) COMPLEMENT.

E.g. '**Who** are her parents?' '**They are Mr and Mrs Walker.**'

(D) With a PREPOSITION at the end.

E.g. '**Who** were you speaking **to**?' <informal> * '**To a friend of my sister's.**'

* **Whom** is <rare> compared with **who**. It is <formal> and it is considered more correct than **who**. But in <speech> we rarely hear **whom**.

1a **Whom** can be used in these positions:

(B) Object.

E.g. '**Whom** do you teach?' <formal>

(E) After a preposition (compare (D) above).

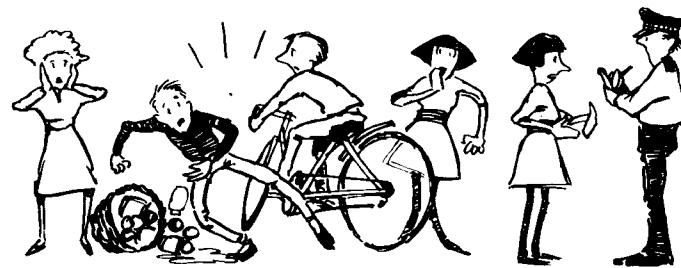
E.g. '**To whom** were you speaking?' <formal>

2 Comparing **who**, **whom** and **whose**

	subject pronoun	object pronoun	possessive	
			determiner	pronoun
<informal>		who		
<formal>	who	whom		whose

2a To illustrate **who**, **whom**, and **whose** here is:

A Report on a Bicycle Accident	
Who was riding the bicycle?	Tom Hall.
Who(m) did he hit?	Barry Mann.
Whose shopping basket was upset?	Mrs Mann's.
Whose was the bicycle?	Paula Hall's.
{ To whom was the accident reported? Who was the accident reported to?	To Police Constable Woods.



3 **Who**, **whom**, and **whose** in wh-clauses

In wh-clauses, **who**, **whom** and **whose** behave as they do in direct wh-questions (see 1–2 above).

3a **Who**, **whom**, and **whose** in INDIRECT QUESTIONS:

E.g. *The policewoman asked **who** was riding the bicycle.*

*I don't remember **who(m)** we met at the party.*

*I recognize the bicycle, but I don't know **whose** it is.*

*She didn't say **whose house** she was visiting.*

*Can you tell us { **to whom** you wish to speak? <formal>
who you want to speak **to**? <informal>*

3b **Who**, **whom**, and **whose** in relative clauses:

Who, **whom** and **whose** (determiner) are used in both defining and nondefining relative clauses [see RELATIVE CLAUSE 4].

E.g. *Everyone **who** lives here has to share in the housework.
Our daughter Cora, **who(m)** you met last year, is getting married on 5th October.*

These papers belong to Bernard,

{ **with whom** I am sharing a room. <formal>
who I'm sharing a room **with**. <informal>

NOTE (i): With singular GROUP NOUNS like *committee*, *family*, and *club*, we can use either of these patterns:

Group Noun + **who** + Plural Verb

Group Noun + **which** + Singular Verb

E.g. *The castle belongs to the Clifford family, { who have } lived here ever since the fourteenth Century.*

whoever /hu:'evar/ (pronoun) is the WH-EVER WORD which belongs with **who**.

E.g. *Jason is very hardworking. Whoever offers him a job will never regret it.*

whole /həʊl/ (adjective or noun)

► **Whole** is a QUANTITY WORD meaning 'all, not part' of something. [Compare ALL.]

1 Adjective

E.g. *He owns the **whole** building, and not just part of it.*
*They spend the **whole** day learning English.*

2 Noun

E.g. *The **whole** of the country is covered with snow. (= all the country)*

3 It is best to use **whole**, not **all**, before a singular countable noun [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS]:



a **whole** melon



part of the melon



a piece of melon

4 Idiom

On the whole (adverb) = 'generally, in general'

E.g. *I don't like John's views **on the whole**, but I agree with what he says on education.*

whom /hu:m/ (pronoun) [See WHO / WHOM / WHOSE]

Whom is the OBJECT PRONOUN form of **who**.

It is quite rare in < speech >, but is still used in < writing > .

whose /hu:z/ (possessive determiner and pronoun) [see WHO / WHOM / WHOSE]

1 **Whose** is a wh-word. It is the possessive form of **who**. **Whose** is used in direct and indirect WH-QUESTIONS.

E.g. **Whose book is this?** (determiner)

*I've found a book. I wonder **whose** it is.* (pronoun)

2 **Whose** (determiner) introduces RELATIVE CLAUSES.

E.g. *I know **Mrs Short**, whose daughter lives near you.*

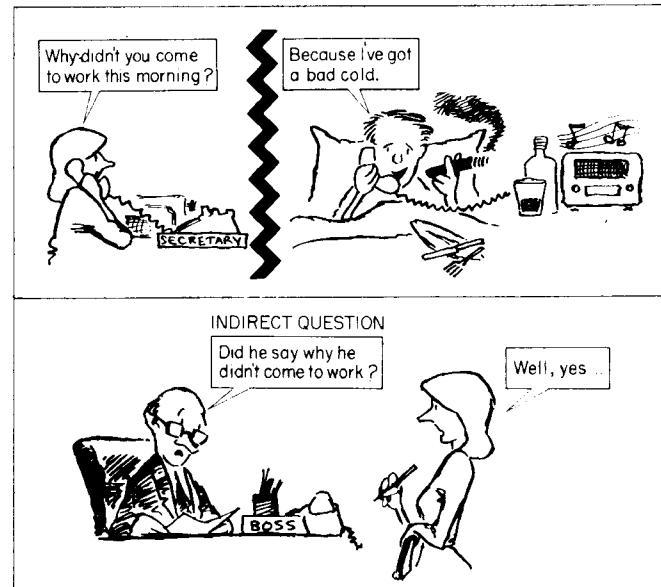
This means the same as:

*I know **Mrs Short**. Her daughter lives near you.*

why /wai/ (wh-adverb)

- **Why** always asks a question.
- **Why** always means 'For what reason?'
- You can answer the question **why?** with '**because**' (giving a reason).
- **Why** goes at the beginning of a main clause [see WH-QUESTION 8], or a subordinate clause [see INDIRECT QUESTION].
- **Why** can also be a one-word question standing alone.

1 E.g.





2 Special questions with **why**

- 2a** **Why don't you / we** begins a SUGGESTION or piece of advice [see ADVISING / ADVICE].

E.g. **Why don't you sell your car by advertising it in the paper?**
'Why don't we have a drink?' 'Good idea!'

- 2b** **Why + Verb . . .** and **why + not + Verb** are special question patterns without a SUBJECT, for giving advice or making a suggestion.

E.g. **Why cause difficulties for yourself?**
'I don't know what to say to them.' '**Why not tell the truth?**'

NOTE: You can sometimes use **why** in NOUN CLAUSES and RELATIVE CLAUSES.
E.g. **That's not why I did it: the reason (why)* I did it was to help our friends.**

* Some people consider that **the reason why** is bad English. You can omit **why** here if you like.

will /wil/ (contraction: 'll//, /ə/, negative form **won't** /wənt/ (*modal auxiliary*)

- **Will** is followed by the BASIC FORM of the verb: **will + Verb**. (E.g. **will go**).
- **Will + Verb** is the most common way of indicating future time in English.
- [You will find more about **will** if you look up FUTURE 1, 5a.]
- The Past Tense form of **will** is **WOULD**.

1 Forms

1a simple form:

<i>I</i>	will	<i>be . . .</i>
<i>You</i>		<i>have . . .</i>
<i>We</i>		<i>go soon.</i>
<i>They</i>		<i>take . . .</i>
<i>He / She / It</i>		<i>see . . .</i>
<i>noun phrase</i>		<i>etc.</i>

negative:

<i>I</i>	won't	<i>be . . .</i>
<i>You</i>		<i>have . . .</i>
<i>We</i>		<i>go yet.</i>
<i>They</i>		<i>take . . .</i>
<i>He / She</i>		<i>see . . .</i>
<i>etc.</i>		<i>etc.</i>

question:

<i>you</i>	Will	<i>be . . .</i>
<i>we</i>		<i>have . . .</i>
<i>they</i>		<i>go soon</i>
<i>noun phrase</i>		<i>take . . .</i>
<i>etc.</i>		<i>see . . .</i>

negative question:

<i>you</i>	Won't*	<i>be . . .</i>
<i>we</i>		<i>have . . .</i>
<i>etc.</i>		<i>go soon</i>
<i>take . . .</i>		<i>see . . .</i>
<i>etc.</i>		<i>etc.</i>

<i>you</i>	Will	<i>not**</i>
<i>we</i>		<i>etc.</i>
<i>etc.</i>		<i>?</i>
<i>you</i>		<i>not**</i>
<i>we</i>		<i>etc.</i>

* **Won't** is the usual form in <speech>.

** **Will . . . not** is <formal and rare>.

1b **Will** with other forms in the verb phrase:

Perfect:

[see FUTURE 1]

Progressive:

[see FUTURE 5a]

Passive:

Perfect Passive:

etc. [see VERB PHRASE]

E.g. **The exams will have finished by Friday.**

Next week I'll be giving a lecture on business and the law.

The rules will be changed.

That car will have been sold by now.

2 Uses of **will**: prediction

2a **Will** = future (prediction): [see FUTURE 1].

E.g. **Susan will be here in half an hour.**

Will is used especially in a main clause with conditional clauses [see IF 1].

E.g. **If you sit by the fire, you will feel warmer.**

2b **Will** = 'present prediction' (i.e. your observation tells you that something is likely to be happening now):

E.g. **'It's eleven o'clock. Norma will be in bed by now.'** (She normally goes to bed at ten.)





'Ah, that'll be my husband. He said he would phone at this time.'

2c **Will** = 'present habit' (predictable behaviour):

E.g. *A lion will never attack an elephant.*



NOTE: **Will** sometimes means the same as **can**.

E.g. *This theatre will hold a thousand people.*

('will hold' = 'can hold')

This window won't open. (= 'I can't open it')

That's a nice car. How fast will it go?

2d **Will** = 'making a decision now about the future' [see FUTURE 2c]:

E.g. 'Which shirt do you want?'

'I'll take the blue one, please.'

3 **Uses of will: wishing**

Will often has a meaning of wishing (with future meaning).

3a **Will** = 'intention' + future:

E.g. *I'll write to you as soon as I can.* [See PROMISES.]

We won't stay longer than two hours.

John says he'll phone us after lunch.

3b **Will** = 'be willing' (with future meaning).

E.g. *'Will you help me to answer these letters?'*

'Yes, I'll do it, if you like.' [See REQUEST.]

The negative does not always refer to the future.

E.g. *Stephen is very annoying. He won't do anything I say.* (*won't* = 'is unwilling', i.e. 'refuses').

3c **Will** = 'insist on' + Verb-ing' (mainly <G.B.>):

Will is stressed in this use. We cannot use the contraction '*'ll*'.



(be) willing to /bi 'wiliŋ tu/tə/ (verb idiom)

- 1** The idiom **be + willing + to + Verb** is useful for expressing a wish to help somebody [see WISHES].

E.g. *'Are you willing to arrange a meeting for next week?'*

'Yes, I'm willing to do anything you like.'

- 2** Sometimes **willing** follows another LINKING VERB, apart from **be**, such as **seem, look, sound**.

E.g. *'What did he say?' 'Well, he seems willing to help us.'*

NOTE: The negative adjective is **unwilling**. The adverb is **willingly**.

wishes and how to express them

- To **wish** = to want { what is not happening, or
what did not happen

1 **Wishing about the past**

You cannot change the past, so you can only wish (with regret) about things which did not happen [see UNREAL MEANING]:

noun phrase or pronoun	+	wish	+	that-clause [see THAT 1] containing had + past participle
---------------------------	---	------	---	--

E.g. *I wish I had gone to that party last night. I stayed at home – I was so bored!*

Do you ever **wish you'd remained** single instead of marrying?

NOTE (i) To express a wish in the past about something which happened further in the past use: **wished + ... Past Perfect.**



E.g. When she looked at the photograph, she often wished she hadn't lost her beautiful black hair and her good looks.

NOTE (ii): We can also use **IF ONLY** to express a present wish about the past.

2 Wishing about the present or future

You can use the Past Tense to express a wish about something which is not true of the present.

E.g. I wish I were a millionaire. [See WERE 2.]
Mike wishes he had a job: at the moment he's unemployed.

NOTE: To express a wish in the past about something which was not true at that time use: **wished + ... Past Simple.**

E.g. Aunt Martha wished that she didn't have so many friends and relatives. At Christmas time, there were so many cards and presents to buy!

2a When the verb after **wish** is an action verb, the wish refers to the future, and we use **would(n't)** or **could** instead of the Past Simple. [See STATE VERBS and ACTION VERBS.]

Compare:

I wish the weather was warmer. (state)

but:

I wish the weather would get warmer. (action)

Other examples:

E.g. I wish we could meet more often.

The princess wishes that the press photographers would leave her alone.

NOTE: A wish in the past of this kind also contains **would(n't)** or **could**.

E.g. She often wished Mark would give more thought to his appearance, but she didn't say anything.

3 Wishing about the future

3a We use other verbs, as well as **wish**. And the wish may come true!

E.g. We wish you a happy New Year. [See VERB PATTERNS 11.]
The manager wants to talk to the work force. [See VERB PATTERNS 7.]
He wants everyone to work harder. [See VERB PATTERNS 17.]
I hope { to see you soon. [See VERB PATTERNS 7.]
I hope { you will be very happy. [See VERB PATTERNS 4.]

3b The verb **wish** itself goes before a TO-INFITIVE, but only in <formal> English.

E.g. Miss Garbo wishes to be alone.

3c To express a rather <tentative> and <polite> **wish** about the future, use **would like to*** (or **should like to**).

E.g. Would you like to use the telephone?

We'd like the meeting to take place as soon as possible.

* **Would prefer to** or **would love to** can also be used.

with /wið/ and without /wið'auð/ (prepositions)

- **With** is a common preposition: it comes before a noun phrase or a pronoun.
- **Without** is usually the opposite of **with** (= 'not with') – see meanings 1, 2, 3, 4 below.

1 **With** = 'together with' or 'in company with' someone.

E.g. 'Sheila was at the race.' 'Who was she with?' 'She was with her friends.'
'We're going out for a meal. Are you coming with us?'

1a **Without** here is the negative of **with**.

E.g. 'The President attended the meeting without his wife.'

2 **With** = 'by means of' comes before an INSTRUMENT.

E.g. 'How did you open the door?' 'I did it with this key.'
'He hit the thief.' 'What with?' 'He hit him with a stick.'

2a **Without** is the negative of **with** = instrument.

E.g. In the old days, we had to cook without gas or electricity.

3 **With** = 'having': ... noun + with + noun phrase.

E.g. a girl with a diamond ring that house with the new roof
the man with grey hair a woman with a large family

3a **Without** (= 'not having') is the negative of **with**.

E.g. a house without a garden a life without any * fun or excitement

* After **without**, we can use **any** or **any-words**. [See SOME- AND ANY-WORDS.]

- 3b **With** and **without** (= '(not) having') can begin a NON-FINITE CLAUSE or VERBLESS CLAUSE similar to patterns which can follow **have** [see HAVE]:

with } + noun phrase + { to + Verb . . .
without } Verb-ing . . .
 preposition + noun phrase
 etc.

E.g. **With** a large family **to feed**, they had to work very hard.
 (= 'Having a large family . . .')

a factory **with** all its labour force { working
 on strike }
 (= 'a factory which has . . .')

a young man { with plenty of money
 without a penny } in his pocket.

NOTE: More generally **with** and **without** can link a PHRASE or -ING CLAUSE loosely to the main clause.

E.g. **With** such a large family, Meg has no time to visit her friends. ('having such a large family, . . .')

The police searched the building **without** finding anything suspicious. ('and did not find anything suspicious.')

Please leave the room **without** making a noise – other students are still doing their exams.

4 **With** + abstract noun = MANNER.

Here the **with**-phrase is an adverbial, and is <rather formal>.

E.g. '**How** did she sing?'

'She sang **with great skill**.' (= 'very skilfully')

The soldiers moved the bomb carefully, quietly, and **without haste**.
 (= 'not hastily')

5 **With** and **without** are not always opposites.

5a Here, **with** is the opposite of **against**.

E.g. If you are not **with** us, (= 'on our side') you must be **against** us.
 (= 'on the other side')

5b In the idioms **fight with** and **argue with**, **with** means the same as **against**.

E.g. Don't **argue with me**: you make me angry.

Other idioms: **bother with**, **do without** [see PREPOSITIONAL VERB], **angry with** [see ADJECTIVE PATTERNS 1b].

within /wi'ðin/ (preposition)

- **Within** means 'inside the limits' of something.
- **Within** mainly refers to (i) LENGTH OF TIME and (ii) DISTANCE OR PLACE.

1 **Within** (length of time)

Here **within** has the same meaning as **in** [see IN] (= 'before the end of').

E.g. **Within** an hour, the fire service had put out the fire, and the injured had been taken to hospital.

2 **Within** (distance or place)

E.g. I live **within** two miles of the city centre.

without [See WITH AND WITHOUT]

woman /'wumən/ (noun) has the irregular plural **women** /'wɪmɪn/

E.g. That **woman** works in the office.

Those **women** work in the factory. [See SEX.]

wonder /'wʌndər/ (regular verb or noun)

1 **Wonder** (verb) introduces an INDIRECT QUESTION:

SUBJECT + **wonder** + { if
 whether . . .
 what
 etc.

E.g. I **wonder if** Peter phoned while I was out? 'Yes, he did. He **wondered whether** you could see him tonight.'

2 **I** + **wonder** + **if** introduces a <polite> REQUEST.

E.g. I **wonder if** you'd * mind mending this tape.

I { wondered ** if you were free tonight.
 was wondering ** }

* The contraction 'd stands for **would**. The verb in the **if**-clause uses the unreal Past Tense.

** The Past or Progressive with **wonder** helps to make the request less direct and <more polite>.

won't /wənt/ = **will not** [See WILL, CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 3]

word classes (sometimes called 'parts of speech')

- The different kinds of word, such as noun, verb, and preposition, are called **word classes**.

- 1 Look up the following word classes in this book:

NOUN VERB ADJECTIVE ADVERB DETERMINER PRONOUN
 PREPOSITION CONJUNCTION NUMBER INTERJECTION

- 2 Each class can be divided into smaller classes. For example, verbs can be divided in AUXILIARY VERBS and MAIN VERBS.

word order

- When we talk of **word order** we usually mean the order of the elements in a SENTENCE or CLAUSE: SUBJECT, VERB, OBJECT, etc.
- English word order is rather fixed, because the order tells us which element is the subject or object.

1 Normal order

In English, the normal order in STATEMENTS is this (the brackets mean you can omit these elements):

subject	verb	(object)	(complement)	(adverbial*)
E.g. <i>She</i>	<i>has left</i>	<i>the letters</i>	<i>unopened</i>	<i>on the table.</i>

* But you can add adverbials in front, middle, or end positions [see ADVERB 3, ADVERBIAL 4].

[See VERB PATTERNS 0–20 for many other examples of normal word order.]

- 1a We generally use special word order in sentences or clauses which are not statements. [See: YES-NO QUESTION 1, WH- CLAUSE 1, WH- QUESTION 9, EXCLAMATIONS 6b, and RELATIVE CLAUSE 2.]
- One kind of special word order is inversion: i.e. we place the (first word of the) verb phrase in front of the subject. Most questions are formed by inversion.

E.g.	<i>Has</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>the letters</i>	<i>unopened</i>	<i>on the table?</i>
------	------------	------------	-------------	--------------------	-----------------	----------------------

[For further details, look up INVERSION.]

2 Emphasis

In general, the most important part of a sentence or clause is the end. So to give elements emphasis, we put them at the end. One way of doing this is to use PASSIVE word order:

Active:

- (i) *The computer can easily solve most of our problems.*

Passive (places emphasis on 'the computer'):

- (ii) *Most of our problems can be easily solved by the computer.*

Emphatic word order:

- (iii) *Most of our problems the computer can solve easily.*

In (iii) the first element is the object, so this element is 'fronted' (i.e. placed at the front, not in its normal position) to get the right emphasis. We call this 'emphatic word order'. It is not <common> in English.

2a Negative emphasis

[For inversion after negative words and phrases, see NEGATIVE WORDS and SENTENCES 6a.]

- 3 [For special word order with **so**, look up SO 4.]

worse, (the) worst /wɜːs/, /wɜːst/ (adjectives and adverbs)

These are the comparative and superlative forms of BAD / BADLY.

- E.g. 'Alec is **the worst** * speller in the class. I don't know anyone who spells **worse** ** than he does.'
 'Well, Patricia is **worse** * than he is. She can't even spell her own name!'

* = adjective; ** = adverb.

would /wud/ (weak form /wəd/) (contraction: 'd /d/, negative form **wouldn't** /'wudnt/) (modal auxiliary)

- **Would** is a very common modal auxiliary. It is followed by the BASIC FORM of the verb.
- **Would** is often shortened to 'd [see CONTRACTION OF VERBS AND NEGATIVES 2].
- **Would** indicates UNREAL MEANING in main clauses (e.g. following conditional clauses). This has no connection with **will**. (See 1 below.)
- **Would** is also the Past Tense form of **will**. This means that it has the same meanings as **will**, except that **would** indicates UNREAL MEANING (2 below) or PAST TIME (3 below).

1 Would with unreal meaning**1a Would + basic form of verb:**

This indicates something we do not think is true (in the present) or probable (in the future). This is common with if-clauses [See IF 1c].

E.g. If I were rich / {**would**} {**'d**} {live in a large house.* travel around the world.**}
subordinate clause

* = untrue at present.

** = improbable in the future.

If Irene were younger, she {would**} {**'d**} be able to take part in the competition.**

**1b Would have + past participle:**

This indicates something unreal in the past – i.e. something that did not happen and could not have happened ('imaginary past').

E.g. If you {**had**} {**'d***} lived in the 19th century,
subordinate clause

{you **wouldn't have** driven a car, (i)
you {**would**} {**'d***} **have** travelled by horse and carriage. (ii)}

(i) = 'Now you do drive a car'

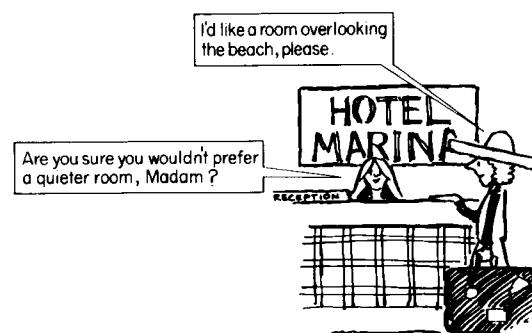
(ii) = 'Now you don't travel by horse and carriage'

If Max **had studied medicine, he {**would**} {**'d***} **have** become a doctor by now.**

* Note that '**d**' is the contraction for both **would** and **had**.

NOTE: The unreal use of **would** can make a REQUEST OR OFFER more tentative, and so more <polite>.

E.g. **Would you mind helping me?** <very polite> request
(Compare: **Do you mind helping me?** <polite> request)

**2 Would as the unreal form of will**

As the Past Tense of **will**, **would** has unreal meanings of intention, etc. [See WILL]:

2a Intention.

E.g. **I would stay and help you if I could.** ('but I can't')
(Compare: **I will stay and help you if I can.**) ('I may be able to')

2b Willingness (especially in REQUESTS).

E.g. **Would you please unlock this door?** <polite>
(Compare: **Will you please unlock this door?** <less polite>)

2c Refusal (with the negative).

E.g. **Jack wouldn't help you, even if you begged him.**
(Compare: **Jack won't help you, even if you beg him.**)

3 Would as the past time form of will

As the Past Tense of **will**, **would** has the same meanings as **will** except that they apply to past time.

3a Future in the past [see PAST TIME 4 (III)]:

This is used mainly in reporting the past words or thoughts of someone in a story. [See INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT 1c].

E.g. **He warned us that the journey would be dangerous.**

(Direct speech: 'The journey **will be** dangerous.')

At that time I thought I'd never see my parents again.

(Direct thought: 'I'll never **see** my parents again.')

The crowd was excited. Everyone was wondering who would win.

Who would be this year's tennis champion?

3b Past habit [compare WILL 2c]:

In telling stories, we use **would** to describe a habit (or predictable behaviour) in the past.

E.g. *Before they got married, Simon **would wait** for Benita every evening after work. Then they **would walk** home across the park, and Benita **would feed** the ducks on the lake.*

(*Used to* [See USED TO 1a] could replace **would** here.)

3c Past intention or willingness.

Again, these uses are mainly found in INDIRECT SPEECH AND THOUGHT:

(i) intention [see WILL 3a].

E.g. *I promised that I **would repay** the money they had lent me.*
(‘intended to repay’)

(ii) willingness [see WILL 3b].

E.g. *I asked if they **would mend** the watch as soon as possible.* (‘were willing to mend’)

3d Past insistence or refusal [see WILL 3c].

E.g. *I tried to explain the problem to Charles, but he ‘**would keep** interrupting me.* (‘insisted on interrupting’)

This **would** is always stressed, and cannot be contracted to ‘d’. The negative meaning is one of refusal.

E.g. *I tried to explain the problem to Marcia, but she **wouldn’t listen**.*
(‘refused to listen’)

*When I asked them to help, they **wouldn’t lift a finger**.* (‘refused to lift a finger’ to help)

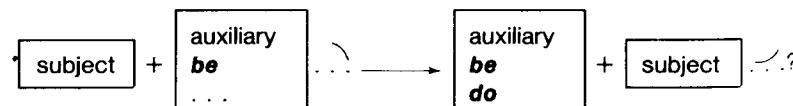
yes /jes/ is a word for giving a positive answer to questions, etc. [See YES-NO QUESTION, and compare NO 1]

E.g. ‘*Did you enjoy the meal?*
‘*Yes, it was delicious*’.

yes-no question

- The two most common kinds of question are **yes-no questions** and WH-QUESTIONS.
- **Yes-no questions** ask for an answer **yes** (positive) or **no** (negative).

1 How to form normal yes-no questions



E.g. *You are **cold**, → Are you **cold**? (Yes or No)*
*He speaks **English**. → Does he speak **English**? (Yes or No)*

- Start with the sentence in statement WORD ORDER.
- Put the first verb of the verb phrase (if it is an AUXILIARY or a main verb *be*) in front of the subject [see INVERSION 3].
- If the statement has no auxiliary or form of *be*, add the correct form of *do* [see DO 2] (the ‘empty’ auxiliary) before the subject.
- Change the falling tone at the end of the statement into a rising tone at the end of the question [see INTONATION].

1a Forming yes-no questions with an auxiliary or *be*:

(a) statement	(b) yes-no question
E.g. <i>Joan is eating her lunch. The ship has arrived. The children were sent home. We should have complained. He’ll be waiting for us. They’re from Austria.</i>	<i>Is Joan eating her lunch? Has the ship arrived? Were the children sent home? Should we have complained? Will he be waiting for us? Are they from Austria?</i>

* <U.S.> : *Did the ship arrive?* (See 1b below.)

NOTE: In <spoken English>, rising intonation is enough to turn a statement into a question (see 4 below).

1b Forming yes-no questions with *do*:

statement	(c) yes-no question with <i>do</i>
E.g. <i>Rabbits eat grass. Mary enjoys swimming. The train arrived late.</i>	<i>Do rabbits eat grass? Does Mary enjoy swimming? Did the train arrive late?</i>

NOTE: The ‘empty’ auxiliary *do* has no meaning in itself. It takes the form matching the main verb of the statement:

Verb
Verb -s
Verb -ed

Do + Verb
Does + Verb
Did + Verb

- **Negative yes-no questions** [see NEGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES]
To form negative yes-no questions, simply place the negative auxiliary (or negative *be* form) in front of the subject:

negative contraction + subject + ...

E.g. *Can’t you wait a moment?*

Use a negative question when you thought the answer would be ‘Yes’, but now realise it will be ‘No’:

- E.g. *Don't you like ice-cream?* ('I thought you did.')
Didn't you want me to help you? ('I thought you did.')
Haven't you two met before? ('I thought you had.')
Aren't you going to church tonight? ('I thought you were.')

NOTE: A negative question with a falling tone is an exclamation [see EXCLAMATION 7].
E.g. 'Wasn't it a wonderful game?' 'Yes, wasn't it!'

'This is my daughter Mary.'

'Hasn't she grown?' (= 'She's grown such a lot!')

3 How to choose between **some**, **someone**, etc. and **any**, **anyone**, etc.

- 3a** Normal yes-no questions do not contain words like **some**. Instead, they contain words like **any**, **anyone**, and **anything**. [See SOME and ANY, SOME-WORDS and ANY-WORDS.]

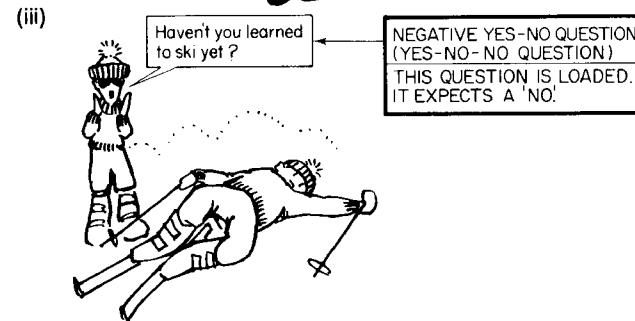
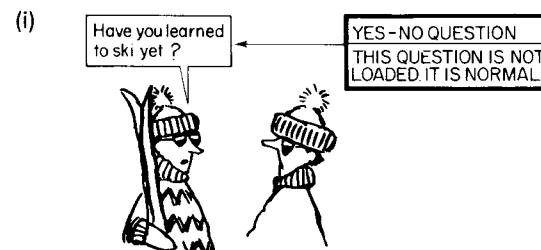
statement	yes-no question
E.g. <i>Someone phoned this evening.</i> <i>I need some money.</i> <i>They have somewhere to live.</i> <i>We've learned to ski already.</i>	<i>Did anyone phone this evening?</i> <i>Do you need any money?</i> <i>Do they have anywhere to live?</i> <i>(Have you learned to ski yet?)</i> <i><G.B.></i> <i>Did you learn to ski yet?</i> <i><U.S.></i>

- 3b** But some yes-no questions contain **some**-words.

- E.g. *Did someone phone this evening?* ('I was expecting a call.')
Do you need some money? ('It looks as if you have none.')
Have you learned to ski already? ('It looks as if you can ski.')

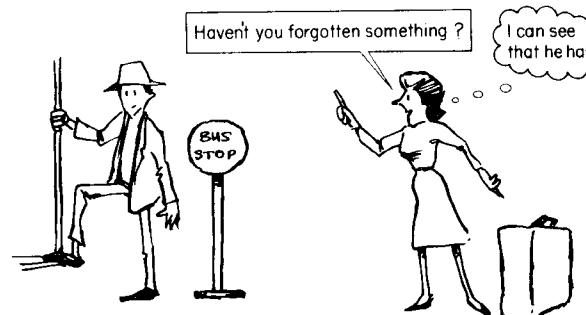
We can call these questions 'yes-no-yes questions', because they expect the answer 'Yes'.

3c Loaded questions:



- (iv) A negative question with **some**-words (instead of **any**-words) is a strongly loaded question expecting 'Yes'.

- E.g. *Haven't I met you somewhere before?* ('I recognize your face.')



4 Questions that look like statements

These questions are just like statements, except that they have a rising tone.

- E.g. *You want to go home already?* *You haven't had tea yet?*

This is another kind of loaded question. These questions often express surprise. The speaker asks the hearer to confirm that the statement is true. [Compare TAG QUESTIONS.]

yesterday [See TODAY, TOMORROW, and YESTERDAY]**yet** /jet/ (adverb or conjunction)

- In middle or end position, **yet** is an adverb of TIME.
- In front position, **yet** is a linking adverb or conjunction.

- 1 **Yet** is an adverb of time meaning 'up to now' especially used after negatives and in questions:



[See ALREADY, STILL, AND YET for further details.]

- 2 **Yet** is also a linking adverb [see LINKING ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS], which comes at the beginning of a clause or sentence, and has a similar meaning to **but** [see CONTRAST 1b(III)].

E.g. *The climbers were very tired and hungry, (and) yet they refused to give up their attempt to climb the mountain.*

(**Yet** has a slightly stronger effect than **but**.) You can place **and** in front of **yet** when **yet** comes at the beginning of a clause.

- 2a Like **but**, **yet** can also sometimes go in the middle of a phrase, for example, in linking two adjectives.

E.g. *Being a miner is an unpleasant, yet important job.
This chair is old, yet very comfortable.*

Here **yet** behaves like a conjunction.

you /ju:/ (weak form: /ju/) **your, yours, yourself**

- **You** is the 2nd person personal pronoun [see PERSONAL PRONOUN].
- **You** refers to the hearer or hearers.

- 1 Use the same form **you** for { (a) singular and plural
(b) subject and object pronouns:

	subject pronoun	object pronoun	possessive		reflexive pronoun
			determiner	pronoun	
singular		you		your	yourselves
plural					yourself

(The situation will make clear whether **you** refers to one, or more than one person.)

E.g. *You look well.
Can I help you?
This letter is for you.*

*How are your children?
This cup must be yours.
Please help { yourself.
yourselves.*

- 2 **The general use of you = 'one' <informal>**

We can use **you** to mean 'people in general, including the hearer and the speaker'.

E.g. *Marilyn is a truthful girl. You can always believe what she says.
All this exercise makes you hungry, doesn't it?
These days, you have to be careful with your money.*

We can replace **you** by **one** [see ONE 3], but **you** is more <informal> and more common. [Compare the general uses of THEY 3a and WE 2a.]

NOTE: Sometimes we add words (especially nouns) after **you**. For example, a schoolteacher may say.

E.g. *'I want { you children } to help me.'
'I want { you two boys } to help me.'*

zero

Zero = '0'.

We use the term **zero** in grammar where some element in a pattern is omitted. [See ZERO ARTICLE, ZERO PLURAL, ZERO RELATIVE PRONOUN, ZERO THAT-CLAUSE.]

E.g. 'zero past tense':

For most verbs, we add the ending **-ed** to show Past Tense.
But with some verbs, like **cut** and **set**, no ending is added.

E.g. *need → need-ed
but: cut → cut*
We can say that **cut** has a **zero** Past Tense form.

zero article [See ARTICLES, A / AN, THE]

- Most nouns have an article (**a / an** or **the**), or another DETERMINER in front of them.
- When there is no determiner in front of a noun or noun phrase, we say that it has a **zero article**.

1 Main uses of the zero article

English has no article like **a / an** to place before plural or uncountable nouns for indefinite meaning.* We use the zero article instead:

1a Zero article before plural nouns:

a / an + singular noun	zero + plural noun
E.g. <i>We're expecting a visitor.</i>	<i>We're expecting visitors.</i>

* However, see 2 below on the use of **some** as 'article'.

1b Zero article before uncountable nouns:

a / an + countable noun	zero + uncountable noun
E.g. <i>He picked up a stone.</i>	<i>The wall's made of stone.</i>

1c Zero article before names:

a / an + common noun	zero + name
E.g. <i>He gave her a rose.</i>	<i>My sister's name is Rose.</i>

[See NAMES 2, GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES 2–4 for exceptions to this.]

NOTE: With names we include titles like **doctor** in front of names (**Doctor Mills**), and family nouns like **Mum, Dad, Uncle**.

E.g. *Dad* is looking after the children today.

2 Choosing between zero article and **some** /səm/

Before plural and uncountable nouns, we can either use the zero article or unstressed **some**, pronounced /səm/ [see SOME AND ANY 2].

E.g. <i>We're expecting</i>	<i>visitors.</i>	(i) zero
	<i>some visitors.</i>	(ii) /səm/
Would you like	<i>black coffee?</i>	(i) zero
	<i>some black coffee?</i>	(ii) /səm/

There is a small difference between (i) and (ii) above:

(i) 'zero article' means that the noun represents a general type of 'thing, person, material, abstraction'.

E.g. *black coffee* = 'black, not white coffee'.

(ii) **some** /səm/ means 'a quantity of', where the exact quantity is not known or is not important.

2a Sometimes, only zero article is possible, especially after **be**:

E.g. <i>His father and grandfather were</i>	<i>{ fisherman. some fisherman.</i>
---	---

(This tells us what 'type' of people they were.)

2b In other examples, only **some** /səm/ is usual:

E.g. <i>Could you lend me</i>	<i>{ sugar? some sugar?</i>
-------------------------------	---------------------------------

(This refers to a 'quantity' of sugar.)

NOTE: In negative sentences or questions, **any** usually replaces **some** [see SOME AND ANY 1a].

E.g. *Have you bought any sugar?*

3 The zero article to refer to people and things in general

3a Zero article + plural noun:

E.g. *I like dogs better than cats.* *Children enjoy games.*

3b Zero article + uncountable noun:

We use uncountable nouns for 'substances, liquids, gases, materials'.

E.g. *Water contains oxygen.* *Steel is much stronger than copper.*

And for abstractions:

E.g. *Which do you like best, history or music?*
All nations should work for peace.

4 Special uses of the zero article with singular countable nouns [see COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS]

4a Zero can replace **the** before a noun describing a person's 'role' or 'function', when that person is the only one.

E.g. *Margaret is (the) captain of the tennis team.*
As (the) Secretary of the club, I welcome new members.
John F. Kennedy was elected (the) President of the U.S.A. in 1961.
Elizabeth II became (the) Queen of England in 1952.

NOTE: We cannot use the zero article after **be** where more than one person has the same role or function, for example, in naming someone's job.

E.g. <i>'What's your job?' 'I'm</i>	<i>{ doctor. a doctor.'</i>
-------------------------------------	---------------------------------

(There is more than one person who is **a doctor**, so we have to use **a** here.)

4b The zero article before nouns of time and season:

<i>at night</i>	<i>at noon</i>	<i>Morning came.</i>
<i>by day / night</i>	<i>before }</i>	<i>Night fell.</i>
<i>before } (sunrise</i>	<i>midday }</i>	<i>It's spring.*</i>
<i>after } sunset</i>	<i>midnight }</i>	

But other phrases have *the*:

in the morning *during the night* *the next day*

* It is often possible to use *the* before nouns of season.

E.g. *In (the) summer* the weather is very hot in this country.

4c The zero article for meals:

E.g. *What did you have for* { *breakfast?*
 lunch?

I've invited the Johnsons { *to* } { *dinner.*
 for } { *supper.*

But also.

E.g. *We had a very good dinner.*
(The) breakfast was late this morning.

4d The zero article for some prepositional phrases of place:

<i>He is in</i>	{ <i>bed.</i>	{ <i>church.</i>
<i>She went to</i>	{ <i>class.</i>	{ <i>college.</i>
	{ <i>hospital.</i>	{ <i>school.</i>
	<G.B.> *	{ <i>university.</i>
	{ <i>prison.</i>	<G.B.> * <i>sea.</i>
		{ <i>work.</i>

* <U.S.>: *at / to the hospital / university.*

These are idioms referring generally to places where we go for a special reason. We use *a* or *the* when we have a particular *hospital*, *prison*, etc. in mind.

E.g. *She's working in a hospital in Montreal.*
I'm attending classes at the University of Texas.

4e The zero article for *by*-phrases describing means of transport and means of communication:

E.g. *I came home by* { *car.*
 {i} *bus.*
 {i} *train.*

[See TRANSPORT.]

4f The zero article in prepositional phrase idioms:

E.g. *at speed* *in front (of)* *in line (with)* *in turn*
 on foot *on top (of)* *off colour* *out of step*

(Look these up in a dictionary.)

E.g. *I'm feeling a bit off colour.* (= 'not very well')

4g The zero article in noun + preposition + noun idioms:

E.g. *day by day* *arm in arm* *hand in hand* *eye to eye*
 face to face *side by side*

(Look these up in a dictionary.)

E.g. *James and his son never see eye to eye.* (= 'never have the same views or opinions.')

zero plural

Some nouns have a zero plural, i.e. their plural form is exactly the same as the singular.

E.g. *a sheep ~ several sheep* *one fish ~ two fish*

[For more examples, look up IRREGULAR PLURAL 4.]

zero relative pronoun [See RELATIVE CLAUSE 2b]

Often we omit the relative pronoun *that* at the beginning of a relative clause.

E.g. *The people (that) we've invited to dinner are your neighbours.*

In '*The people we've invited to dinner*', the clause '*we've invited to dinner*' is a 'zero relative clause'. It has a zero relative pronoun.

zero *that*-clause

Normally a subordinate clause begins with a SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION or some other introductory word.

E.g. *It's strange that no one has complained.*

A zero *that*-clause is a *that*-clause (i.e. a NOUN CLAUSE) from which the conjunction *that* has been omitted.

E.g. *It is strange □ no one has complained.*

[For further details, see THAT 1.]

a–z list of irregular verbs

NOTES: ^{1 2 3} and ⁴ are explained at the end of the list. The most common verbs are written in **bold**. The less common verbs are printed in ordinary letters (not bold). On the phonetic symbols, see CONSONANTS AND VOWELS.

Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form
arise	arose	arisen [see <i>rise</i>]
awake	awoke ¹	awoke ¹ [see <i>wake</i>]
be⁴ /bi:/	was, were /wɒz/, /wəz:/	been /bi:n/
bear /beər/	bore /bɔ:r/	borne /bɔ:n/
beat /bi:t/	beat	beaten /bi:tən/
become⁴ -/kʌm/	became -/keɪm/	become
begin -/gɪn/	began -/gæn/	begun -/gʌn/
bend /bend/	bent /bent/	bent
bet /bet/	bet ¹	bet
bid /bɪd/	bade, bid /beɪd/, /bæd/, /bɪd/	bid(den) /bɪd(ə)n/
bind /baɪnd/	bound /baʊnd/	bound
bite /baɪt/	bit /bit/	bitten /'bitn/
bleed /bli:d/	bled /bled/	bled
blow /bləʊ/	blew /blu:/	blown /bləʊn/
break /breɪk/	broke /brəʊk/	broken /'brəʊkən/
breed /bri:d/	bred /bred/	bred
bring⁴ /brɪŋ/	brought /brɔ:t/	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast [see <i>cast</i>]
build /bɪld/	built /bɪlt/	built
burn /bɜ:n/	burnt ² /bɜ:nt/	burnt ²
burst /bɜ:st/	burst	burst
buy /baɪ/	bought /bɔ:t/	bought
cast /kɑ:st kæ:st/	cast	cast
catch /kætʃ/	caught /kɔ:t/	caught
choose /tʃu:z/	chose /tʃəuz/	chosen /tʃəuzən/
cling /klɪŋ/	clung /klʌŋ/	clung
come⁴ /kʌm/	came /keɪm/	come
cost /kɒst/	cost	cost
creep /kri:p/	crept /krept/	crept
cut /kʌt/	cut	cut

Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form
deal /di:l/	dealt /delt/	dealt
dig /dɪg/	dug /dʌg/	dug
do⁴ /du:/	did /dɪd/	done /dʌn/
draw /drɔ:/	drew /dru:/	drawn /drɔ:n/
dream /dri:m/	dreamed, dreamt /'dremt/ ²	dreamed, dreamt ²
drink /drɪŋk/	drank /dræŋk/	drunk /drʌŋk/
drive /draɪv/	drove /drəʊv/	driven /'drɪvən/
dwell /dwel/	dwelt ² /dwelt/	dwelt ²
eat /i:t/	ate /et eɪt/	eaten /i:tən/
fall /fɔ:l/	fell /fel/	fallen /fɔ:lən/
feed /fi:d/	fed /fed/	fed
feel⁴ /fi:l/	felt /felt/	felt
fight /faɪt/	fought /fɔ:t/	fought
find /faɪnd/	found /faʊnd/	found
flee /fli:/	fled /fled/	fled
fling /flɪŋ/	flung /flaŋ/	flung
fly /flai/	flew /flu:/	flown /fləʊn/
forbid	forbad(e)	forbidden [see <i>bid</i>]
forecast	forecast	forecast [see <i>cast</i>]
		foreseen [see <i>see</i>]
foresee	foresaw	foretold [see <i>tell</i>]
foretell	foretold	forgotten -/gɔtn/
forget -/get/	forgot -/gɔt/	forgiven [see <i>give</i>]
forgive	forgave	frozen /'frəuzən/
freeze /fri:z/	froze /frəuz/	got < G.B., gotten < U.S. >
get ⁴ /get/	got /gɔt/	given /'givən/
give /gɪv/	gave /geɪv/	gone, been /gən/, /bi:n/
go⁴ /gəu/	went /wənt/	
grind /graɪnd/	ground /graʊnd/	ground
grow /grəu/	grew /gru:/	grown /grəʊn/
hang /hæŋ/	hung ¹ /hʌŋ/	hung ¹
have /hæv/	had /hæd/	had
hear⁴ /hiər/	heard /hə:rd/	heard
hide /haɪd/	hid /hɪd/	hidden /'hɪdn/
hit /hit/	hit	hit
hold /həuld/	held /həld/	held
hurt /hɜ:t/	hurt	hurt

Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form	Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form
keep /ki:p/	kept /kept/	kept	ride /raɪd/	rode /rəʊd/	ridden /'ridn/
kneel /ni:l/	knelt² /nelt/	knelt²	ring /rɪŋ/	rang /ræŋ/	rung /rʌŋ/
knit /nɪt/	knit¹	knit¹	rise /raɪz/	rose /rəʊz/	risen /'rɪzən/
know /nəʊ/	knew /nju:/	known /nəʊn/	run /rʌn/	ran /ræn/	run
lay /leɪ/	laid³ /leɪd/	laid³	saw /sɔ:/	sawed /sɔ:d/	sawn¹ /sɔ:n/
lead /li:d/	led /led/	led	say /seɪ/	said /sed/	said
lean /li:n/	leant² /lent/	leant²	see /si:/	saw /sɔ:/	seen /si:n/
leap /li:p/	leapt² /lept/	leapt²	seek /sɪ:k/	sought /sɔ:t/	sought
learn /lɜ:n/	learnt² /lɜ:nt/	learnt²	sell /sel/	sold /səʊld/	sold
leave /li:v/	left /lef/	left	send /send/	sent /sent/	sent
lend /lend/	lent /lent/	lent	set /set/	set	set
let⁴ /let/	let	let	sew /səʊ/	sewed /səʊd/	sewn¹ /səʊn/
lie /laɪ/	lay /leɪ/	lain /leɪn/*	shake /seɪk/	shook /fuk/	shaken /'ʃeɪkən/
light /laɪt/	lit¹ /lit/	lit¹	shed /fed/	shed	shed
lose /lu:z/	lost /lɒst/	lost	shine /fain/	shone¹ /ʃən ʃəʊn/	shone¹
make⁴ /meɪk/	made /meɪd/	made	shoe /fu:/	shod¹ /fʊd/	shod¹
mean /mi:n/	meant /ment/	meant	shoot /fʊ:t/	shot /fɒt/	shot
meet /mi:t/	met /met/	met	show /fəʊ/	showed /fəʊd/	shown¹ /fəʊn/
mislead /mɪ'slɪ:d/	misled /mɪ'sled/	misled [see lead]	shrink /frɪŋk/	shrank /fræŋk/	shrunk /frʌŋk/
mistake	mistook	mistaken [see take]	shut /fʌt/	shut	shut
misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood [see understand, stand]	sing /sɪŋ/	sang /sæŋ/	sung /sʌŋ/
mow /məʊ/	mowed /məʊd/	mown¹ /məʊn/	sink /sɪŋk/	sank /sæŋk/	sunk /sʌŋk/
overcome	overcame	overcome [see came]	sit /sɪt/	sat	sat
overdo	overdid	overdone [see do]	sleep /sli:p/	slept /slept/	slept
override	overrode	overridden [see ride]	slide /slaɪd/	slid /shɪd/	slid
overrun	overran	overrun [see run]	sling /slɪŋ/	slung /slʌŋ/	slung
oversee	oversaw	overseen [see see]	slink /slɪŋk/	slunk /slʌŋk/	slunk
overtake	overtook	overtaken [see take]	slit /slt/	slit	slit
overthrow	overthrew	overthrown [see throw]	smell /smel/	smelt² /smelt/	smelt²
partake	partook	partaken [see take]	sow /səʊ/	sowed /səʊd/	sown¹ /səʊn/
pay /peɪ/	paid³ /peɪd/	paid³	speak /spi:k/	spoke /spəʊk/	spoken /'spəʊkən/
prove /pru:v/	proved /pru:vd/	proven¹ /'pru:vən/	speed /spi:d/	sped¹ /sped/	sped¹
put /put/	put	put	spell /spel/	spelt² /spelt/	spelt²
quit /kwɪt/	quit¹	quit¹	spend /spend/	spent /spent/	spent
read /ri:d/	read /red/	read /red/	spill /spɪl/	spilt² /spilt/	spilt²
rid /rɪd/	rid¹	rid¹	spin /spɪn/	span, spun /spæn/, /spən/	span, spun
<i>*lie meaning not telling the truth is regular</i>					
			spit /spɪt/	spat, spit /spæt/, /spɪt/	spat, spit
			split /split/	split	split

Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form
spoil /spoɪl/	spoilt ² /spoɪlt/	spoilt ²
spread /spred/	spread	spread
spring /sprɪŋ/	sprang /spræŋ/	sprung /sprʌŋ/
stand /stænd/	stood	stood
steal /sti:l/	stole /stəʊl/	stolen /'stəʊlən/
stick /stɪk/	stuck /stʌk/	stuck
sting /stɪŋ/	stung /stʌŋ/	stung
stink /stɪŋk/	stank /stæŋk/	stunk /stʌŋk/
stride /straɪd/	strode /strəʊd/	stridden /'strɪdn/, strode
strike /straɪk/	struck /strʌk/	struck
string /strɪŋ/	strung /strʌŋ/	strung
strive /straɪv/	stroved /strəʊv/	striven ¹ /'strɪvən/
swear /swər/	swore /swɔ:r/	sworn /swɔ:r:n/
sweep /swi:p/	swept /swept/	swept
swell /swel/	swelled /sweld/	swollen ¹ /'swələn/
swim /swɪm/	swam /swæm/	swum /swʌm/
swing /swɪŋ/	swung /swʌŋ/	swung
take ⁴ /teɪk/	took /tuk/	taken /'teɪkən/
teach /ti:tʃ/	taught /tɔ:t/	taught
tear /teər/	tore /tɔ:r/	torn /tɔ:r:n/
tell /tel/	told /təuld/	told
think /θɪŋk/	thought /θɔ:t/	thought
throw /θrəʊ/	threw /θru:/	thrown /θrəʊn/
thrust /θrʌst/	thrust	thrust
tread /tred/	trod /trəd/	trod
undergo	underwent	undergone [see go]
understand	understood	understood [see <i>stand</i>]
undertake	undertook	undertaken [see <i>take</i>]
undo	undid	undone [see <i>do</i>]
uphold	upheld	upheld [see <i>hold</i>]
upset	upset	upset [see <i>set</i>]
wake /weɪk/	woke ¹ /wəʊk/	woken ¹ /'wəʊkən/
wear /weər/	wore /wɔ:r/	worn /wɔ:r:n/
weave /wi:v/	wove /wəʊv/	woven /'wəʊvən/
wed /wed/	wed ¹	wed ¹
weep /wi:p/	wept /wept/	wept
win /wɪn/	won /wʌn/	won
wind /waɪnd/	wound /waʊnd/	wound

Basic Form	Past Tense Form	Past Participle Form
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn [see <i>draw</i>]
withhold	withheld	withheld [see <i>hold</i>]
withstand	withstood	withstood [see <i>stand</i>]
wring /rɪŋ/	wrung /rʌŋ/	wrung
write /raɪt/	wrote /rəut/	written /'ritn/

Key:¹ means that regular forms are also used.² means that both regular forms and irregular forms exist. The regular spellings are particularly common in U.S., e.g. *leaped*.³ *lay* and *pay* are regular verbs in pronunciation, but the spellings *laid* and *paid* are irregular. (Compare *stayed*.)⁴ these verbs have special entries in the book. Look them up for further information.

Complete list of entries in this book

Note: The items in brackets are cross-references only

a or an	apologies	comparative	end position
a-words	apposition	comparative clause	enough
a bit, a bit of	are	comparison	-er, -est
(be) able to	(aren't)	complement	even
about and around	(around)	(complex sentence)	ever
above and below	articles	(compound sentence)	every
abstract noun	as	compound word	everything, everyone, everybody, everywhere
(accepting and refusing)	(asleep, awake, aware)	(concord)	except, except for
accusative	aspect	concrete noun	except that
across	at	conditional clause	exclamations
(action verbs)	auxiliary verb	congratulations	(excuse me)
(active)	away	conjunction	(extent)
actually	bad, badly	consonants and vowels	far
adjective	basic form	(continuous)	(fast)
adjective patterns	be	contraction of verbs and negatives	feel
adverb	because, because of	contrast	(feminine)
adverbial	become	coordination	(a) few
adverbial clause	(being, been)	(correlative (conjunction))	finite
advising, advice	(before)	could and might	first person
(afraid)	(behind)	(count noun)	for
after and before	(below)	countable and uncountable nouns	formal and informal English
ago	befide	countries	forward, forwards
agreeing and disagreeing	besides	('d)	fractions
agreement	(best, better)	dare	frequency
(alike, alive)	between and among	dates	from
all	beyond	decimal numbers	in front (of) and behind
almost and nearly	((a) bit, (a) little, (a) lot)	(defining and nondefining relative clauses)	front position
(alone)	borrow and lend	(definite article)	functions
along	both	degree	further
already, still and yet	bring and take	demonstrative	future
also	but	(dependent clause)	gender
although	by	determiner	(generic (or general) use of articles)
always	(the calendar)	different	(genitive)
am	can	(direct object)	geographical names
(among, amongst)	(cardinal numbers)	direct speech	gerund
(amount)	case	directions	get
an	(cause)	(disagreeing)	go
and	certain and sure	distance	(be) going to
animals	certainly	do	good
another	clause	do and make	good wishes
(answers)	(collective noun)	double conjunction	goodbye, saying
(any)	come and go	(down)	greetings
(anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere)	comma	due to	group noun
anyway	(command)	(duration)	had better, 'd better
apart from	comment clause	during	half
	common noun	each	hardly
		-ed form	have
		e.g.	have got
		either	have got to
		else	

have to	irregular verb	must	(ones, oneself)
he and she	is	(my)	only
headword	it, its, itself	(myself)	(onto)
(hear)	it-patterns	names	operator
her	just	names of people	opposite
here	kind (of), sort (of), and type (of)	(nationality words)	or
hers	kindly	near	(giving orders)
herself	last	(nearly)	ordinals
him	late, later, latest	need	other
himself	(least)	negative words and sentences	otherwise
his	length of time	neither	ought to
historic present	less, (the) least	never	our, ours
home	let and make	next	(ourselves)
how	let's	no	out
however	letters, letter-writing	no one, nobody	out of
((a) hundred)	letters of the alphabet	nominative	over and under
hypothetical meaning	like	(nominal clause)	(owing to)
/	linking adverbs and conjunctions	(noncount noun)	paragraphs
idiom	linking verb	(nondefining relative clause)	pardon, sorry and excuse me
i.e.	little, a little	none	participle
if	('ll)	nonfinite clause	participle clause
if only	long, longer, longest	nonfinite verb, nonfinite verb phrase	(parts and wholes)
imperative	look	(nonrestrictive relative clause)	passive
in	a lot (of), lots (of)	not	past
indeed	-ly	nothing	(past continuous)
(indefinite article)	main clause	noun	past participle
indefinite pronoun	main verb	noun clause	past perfect
(independent clause)	make	noun of kind	past progressive
indirect command	man	noun phrase	past simple
indirect object	manner	now	past tense
indirect question	many	nowadays	past time
indirect speech and thought	masculine	nowhere	people
indirect statements	(mass noun)	(-n't (= not))	perception verb
infinitive	matter	number	perfect
infinitive clause	may	a number of	perfect continuous
(informal English)	me	numbers	permission
-ing, -ing form	(means)	object	person
-ing clause	measuring	object complement	personal pronoun
instead of, instead	middle position	object pronoun	phrasal-prepositional verb
instructions	(might)	objective case	phrasal verb
instrument	((a) million)	obligation	phrase
(intensification of meaning)	mind	(o'clock)	place
interjection	mine	of	please
(interrogative)	modal auxiliary	(of-pronoun)	pluperfect
into	modifier and headword	off	plural
intonation	money (and how to talk about it)	offers, offering	polite and not polite
intransitive verb	mood	often	positive
(introductions)	more, (the) most	on	possessive
inversion	(most)	once	possessive determiner and
invitations	motion (or movement)	one	possessive pronoun
irregular plural	much		possibility

prefixes	(sentence relative clause)	(third person)	were
preposition	<i>several</i>	<i>this and these</i>	wh-clause
prepositional adverb	sex	<i>those</i>	wh-question
prepositional phrase	<i>shall</i>	<i>though</i>	wh-words
prepositional verb	<i>she</i>	((a) thousand)	wh-ever words
present participle	shortened sentences and clauses	<i>through</i>	what
present perfect	<i>should and ought to</i>	(till)	whatever
present progressive	(simple sentence)	time	when
present simple	<i>since</i>	(telling the) time	whenever
present tense	singular	(titles)	where
present time	so	<i>to</i>	(whereas)
progressive	some and any	to-infinitive	wherever
promises	some- words and any- words	<i>today, tomorrow, and yesterday</i>	whether
pronoun	(somebody, someone, something,	(tone)	which
pronunciation of endings	sometimes, somewhat,	too	whichever
(proper noun)	somewhere)	(topic)	while
<i>provided (that), providing (that)</i>	sometimes and sometime	<i>toward, towards</i>	(whilst)
punctuation	soon, sooner, soonest	transitive verb	<i>who, whom, whose</i>
purpose	(sorry)	transport, means of	whoever
quantity words	(sort (of))	(twice)	whole
(a) quarter	spelling	(type (of))	whom
question	statement	uncountable noun	whose
(question word)	state verbs and action verbs	(under)	why
<i>quite and rather</i>	(still)	unit noun	will, won't
<i>rarely and seldom</i>	stress	unless	(be) willing to
<i>rather</i>	subject	unreal meaning	wishes
('re (= are))	(subject pronoun)	until	with and without
<i>really</i>	subjective case	<i>up and down</i>	within
reason and cause	subjunctive	<i>us</i>	(without)
<i>recently</i>	subordinate clause	<i>use</i>	woman
(reflexive pronoun)	such	used to	wonder
(regret)	suffixes	usually	(won't)
regular verb	suggestions	verb	word classes
relative clause	superlative	verb idioms	word order
(reported speech)	<i>suppose</i>	verb patterns	worse, (the) worst
requests	<i>sure</i>	verb phrase	would, wouldn't
(restrictive relative clause)	<i>surely</i>	verbless clause	(yes)
result	tag question	very	yes-no question
<i>round</i>	(take)	viz.	(yesterday)
's	(tense)	vocative	yet
-s'	than	voice	<i>you</i>
-s form	thanking people	vowels	zero
(the) same	<i>that</i>	-ward, -wards	zero article
scarcely	<i>the</i>	warnings	zero plural
(second person)	<i>their, theirs, them, themselves</i>	was	zero relative pronoun
see	<i>then</i>	(watch)	zero that-clause
seem	<i>there</i>	we	
seldom	<i>there is, there are</i>	(weak forms)	
-self, -selves	<i>therefore</i>	well	A–Z list of irregular verbs
sentence	(these)		
(sentence adverb)	<i>they</i>		