3rd edition

English

An Essential Grammar

Gerald Nelson

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Third edition

Gerald Nelson

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Contents

Abbreviations

A	Adjunct
AC	Adverbial Complement
Adj	Adjective
AdjP	Adjective phrase
Adv	Adverb
AdvP	Adverb phrase
Aux	Auxiliary verb
CJ	Conjoin
CL	Clause
Conj	Conjunction
COORD	Coordinator
CZR	Complementizer
Det	Determiner
Disp	Disparate forms
DO	Direct Object
DP	Determiner phrase
DVE	Determinative
INF	Infinitive *to*
IO	Indirect Object
NODO	Notional Direct Object
NOSU	Notional Subject
NP	Noun phrase
OC	Object Complement
OP	Operator
PC	Prepositional Complement
Post	Postmodifier
PP	Prepositional phrase
Pre	Premodifier
Pred	Predicator
Prep	Preposition
PRODO	Provisional Direct Object

PROSU	Provisional Subject
S	Subject
SC	Subject Complement
SUBD	Subordinator
V	Verb
VP	Verb phrase

Introduction

What is grammar?

Grammar is the study of the structure of sentences and their parts. The following sentence has a well-formed, 'grammatical' structure:

1 The old man has been ill.

Native speakers of English can produce and understand a sentence like this without ever thinking about its structure. Conversely, no native speaker of English would ever produce a sentence like this:

2 *[1] ill the been man has old.

This sentence is ill-formed and 'ungrammatical', but can you say why? The study of grammar provides us with the terminology we need to talk about sentence structure in an informed way. It enables us to analyse and describe our own use of language, as well as that of other people. A knowledge of grammar enables us produce well-formed, grammatical sentences that clearly and unambiguously convey our meaning.

Grammar 'rules' and grammatical structures

Many people think of grammar in terms of the traditional 'rules', such as 'Never split an infinitive' or 'Never end a sentence with a preposition'. Specifically, these are prescriptive rules, and they were designed primarily to provide guidelines for writers of formal prose. In that sense, they are useful enough, though they tell us very little about how English is really used in everyday life. In fact, native speakers regularly split infinitives (*to boldly*

[1] An asterisk is used throughout this book to indicate ungrammatical or incorrect examples, which are used to illustrate a point.

go) and sentences often end with a preposition (*Dr Brown is the man I'll vote for.*).

Prescriptive grammar reached its peak in the nineteenth century. In the twenty-first century, grammarians try to adopt a more descriptive approach. In the descriptive approach, the emphasis is very much on structures rather than rules. We attempt to describe concisely and precisely the kinds of structures that native speakers produce when they speak or write. For instance, when we say *The old man has been ill*, we produce several specific structures:

1 The Subject, *The old man*, comes before the verb (see 1.4).
2 The Subject Complement, *ill*, comes after the verb (see 1.6.2).
3 The Subject is formed by combining a determiner, *the*, with a Premodifier, *old*, and a Head noun, *man*, in that order (see 3.6).

The emphasis in this book is on grammatical structures, not on rules. In Chapter 3, in particular, we show that most phrases have very similar and predictable structures, which are repeated over and over again as we construct a sentence. In Chapter 4, we show that clauses are, in fact, 'mini sentences': they have the same structure as whole sentences, though they may not have all the elements of a full sentence.

In most school-level grammar classes, students are only taught about individual word classes, such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives. That is better than nothing, but it fails to show how words combine with each other to form phrases, and how those phrases combine to form clauses and sentences. In some second-language classrooms, grammar has been removed altogether from the curriculum, in favour of a 'communicative' approach. In that approach, students do not study grammar at all. Instead, they are expected to communicate orally in English through parrot-like repetition in the classroom. The method has had some success, if we measure success as 'the ability to be understood'. However, using a language effectively involves much more than simply being understood. Language can also be a means of persuading and moving a reader or hearer, and of expressing ourselves at the deepest level. It can produce everything from a shopping list to a sonnet by Shakespeare. A well-trained parrot can be 'understood', but it is unlikely to say anything interesting. Teaching a language without teaching the grammar is rather like asking someone to build a replica of your house without ever showing them the plans.

An understanding of grammatical structure will certainly help you to produce clear writing, since you will understand the structures that are possible in the language, as well as those that are not. Understanding grammatical structure is also essential to the appreciation of the writing of others. The appreciation of writing style is partly subjective, of course, but for readers

who wish to see examples of 'good' contemporary writing, I recommend the works of the short story writers William Trevor and Alice Munro, and of the novelists John Le Carré and Thomas Pynchon. The works of those writers show an understanding (conscious or otherwise) of what makes a 'good' sentence, as opposed to a purely 'communicative' one.

Standard English

Standard English is the variety of English which carries the greatest social prestige in a speech community. In Britain, there is a standard British English, in the United States, there is a standard American English, in Australia, a standard Australian English, and so on. In each country, the national standard is that variety which is used in public institutions, including government, education, the judiciary, and the media. It is used on national television and radio, and in newspapers, books, and magazines. The standard variety is the only variety which has a standardised spelling. As a result, the national standard has the widest currency as a means of communication, in contrast with regional varieties, which have a more limited currency.

The following sentence is an example of standard English:

I *was* ill last week.

The following sentence is non-standard:

I *were* ill last week.

The non-standard past tense construction *I were* is commonly used in several regional varieties, especially in spoken English in parts of England. Regional varieties are associated with particular regions. The standard variety is not geographically bound in the same way.

Using standard English involves making choices of grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. It has nothing to do with accent. The sentence *I was ill last week* is standard English whether it is spoken with a Birmingham accent, a Glasgow accent, a Cockney accent, a Newcastle accent, or any other of the many accents in Britain today. Similarly, standard American English (sometimes called 'General American') is used throughout the United States, from San Francisco to New York, from New Orleans to the Great Lakes. In both countries, the standard variety co-exists with a very large number of regional

varieties. In fact, most educated people use both their own regional variety and the standard variety, and they can switch effortlessly between the two. They usually speak both varieties with the same accent.

No variety of English – including standard English – is inherently better or worse than any other. However, the standard variety is the one that has the greatest value in social terms as a means of communication, especially for public and professional communication. The notion of standard English is especially important to learners of the language. Because of its high social value, learners are justifiably anxious to ensure that the English they learn is standard English.

English as a world language

Conservative estimates put the total number of English speakers throughout the world at around 800 million. English is the mother tongue of an estimated 370 million people in the countries listed here:

Approximate number of mother-tongue English speakers, in millions	
United States	260
Great Britain	60
Canada	20
Australia	18
New Zealand	4
Ireland	4
South Africa	2

In addition to these countries, English is an official language, or has special status, in over sixty countries worldwide, including Cameroon, Ghana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Singapore. This means that English is used in these countries in many public functions, including government, the judiciary, the press, and broadcasting. Even in countries where it has no official status, such as China and Japan, English has a central place in the school curriculum, because its importance in international communication and trade is unquestioned.

The spread of English around the world was one of the most significant linguistic developments of the twentieth century. That century also witnessed another important development: the decline of British English and the rise of American English as the dominant variety.

British English and American English

Linguistic influence follows closely on political and economic influence. For several centuries, British English (BrE) was the dominant variety throughout the world, because Britain was the centre of a vast empire that straddled the globe. In the twentieth century, political power shifted dramatically away from Britain, and since the end of the Second World War, the United States has been both politically and economically the most powerful country in the world. It is not surprising then that American English (AmE) has become the dominant variety, although the traditional influence of British English remains strong. In recent years, the worldwide influence of American English has been greatly strengthened by Internet technology, the mass media, and the entertainment industry. American news channels such as CNN and NBC are transmitted around the world by satellite, and American movies and television shows are seen on almost every continent.

The differences between American English and British English are for the most part fairly superficial. Perhaps the most familiar differences are in vocabulary:

British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
autumn	fall
film	movie
flat	apartment
holiday	vacation
lift	elevator
nappy	diaper
number plate	license plate
petrol	gas
post code	zip code
rubbish	trash
shop	store
tap	faucet
taxi	cab
trainers	sneakers

Some of the American English words on this list – particularly *apartment*, *cab*, and *movie* – are slowly being assimilated into British English. No doubt this trend will continue. International communication and travel tend to smooth the differences between national varieties, in favour of the dominant variety.

In the spoken language, there are very noticeable differences in stress between American English and British English. For instance, American speakers generally stress the final syllable in *adult*, while British speakers stress the first syllable: *adult*. Other stress differences include the following (the stressed syllables are underlined):

British English	American English
address	address
ballet	ballet
cigarette	cigarette
debris	debris
garage	garage
laboratory	laboratory
magazine	magazine

Finally, spelling differences include:

British English	American English
cheque	check
humour	humor
pyjamas	pajamas
plough	plow
theatre	theater
tyre	tire

For more on spelling differences, see 5.13.

The grammatical differences between American English and British English are far less obvious. They tend to be localised in very specific areas of the grammar. Some differences may be observed in the use of prepositions (2.8). For example, Americans say *ten after twelve*, while Britons say *ten past twelve*; Americans say *in back of the house*, while Britons say *behind the house*. In the choice of verb forms, too, we can see some systematic differences. American English tends to prefer the regular form of a verb when a choice is available, for example, *burned* in favour of *burnt*, *learned* in favour of *learnt* (2.4.8).

Despite their differences, American English and British English, as well as all the other national varieties – Australian, Canadian, New Zealand, Indian, and so on – share a very extensive common core of vocabulary, spelling, and grammar. It is this common core that makes them mutually intelligible. In this book, we are concerned with the core grammatical features of English, and especially with the core features of the two major varieties, American English and British English.

How this book is organised

In Chapter 1, we provide an overview of sentences in terms of their basic 'building blocks' – Subject, verb, Object, etc. In Chapter 2, we look at the smallest units in a sentence – words – and how they are categorised into word classes. Chapter 3 looks at how words combine to form larger units called phrases. It begins with those phrases that are structurally the simplest (adverb phrases, adjective phrases, and prepositional phrases) and goes on to discuss the more complex ones, noun phrases and verb phrases. Chapter 4 looks at the structure of clauses and discusses a range of sentence types. Finally, in Chapter 5, we return to the word level, to look at the internal structure of words. Chapter 5 concludes by looking at English spelling. It offers general guidelines for spelling, and discusses some common spelling problems – words like *affect* and *effect*, which are easily and regularly confused with each other in writing.

A note on sources

The grammatical analysis presented in this book, and especially in the tree diagrams, is based in large part on the grammatically annotated corpus of British English, ICE-GB, which is available from the Survey of English Usage, University College London (www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/ice-gb/). The annotation scheme for that corpus was developed by Jan Aarts and his team at the University of Nijmegen, in collaboration with Sidney Greenbaum at University College London. That scheme, in turn, was based in large part on *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Longman, 1985), by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. In preparing this book, I have also adopted some of the analyses given in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Cambridge University Press, 2002), by Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum, and in the *Oxford Modern English Grammar* (Oxford University Press, 2012), by Bas Aarts.

Gerald Nelson
Hong Kong, July 2018

Chapter 1

Introducing sentence structure

1.1 The constituents of a sentence

Consider the following sentence:

My father retired when he was sixty.

The sentence consists of seven words in a specific order. However, it is not simply a sequence of seven individual words. Instead, certain words 'go together' to form meaningful units, as follows:

[My father] [retired] [when he was sixty].

One of these units (*retired*) consists of just one word, while the others are multi-word combinations. Regardless of their length, however, these are the basic 'building blocks' of the sentence, and they are known in grammar as the **constituents** of the sentence. A constituent is a word or a string of words that behaves grammatically and semantically as a unit.

So our sentence consists of seven words but only three constituents. Each constituent has its own grammatical function: *my father*, for example, functions as the **Subject** (1.4) and *when he was sixty* functions as an **Adjunct** (1.8). Every constituent has a complete meaning in itself, and for that reason, every constituent (except the verb) can be replaced by a single word:

[My father] [retired] [when he was sixty]. → *[He] [retired] [then]*.

Similarly:

[After the robbery], [the thieves] [drove] [to a safe house]. → *[Then], [they] [drove] [there]*.

[The postman] [left] [the package] [on my doorstep]. → *[He] [left] [it] [there]*.

[Paul] [married] [his girlfriend] [last August]. → *[He] [married] [her] [then]*.

When you begin analysing the structure of a sentence, it is useful to apply this **One-word Substitution Test**, because it provides a useful initial overview of the sentence constituents.

1.2 The Grammatical Hierarchy

In grammar, there are only three types of constituents: words, phrases, and clauses. We will discuss words in Chapter 2, phrases in Chapter 3, and clauses in Chapter 4.

The Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1) provides a very useful summary of how these three types of constituents go together to form a sentence.

Words are at the bottom of the Hierarchy, and for many people, this is the most familiar area of grammar. Most people learn about word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc) early in their school careers, but do not continue their studies to look at how those words combine to form phrases and clauses. This is unfortunate, since the step from word level to phrase level is actually a very short one. For example, *dog* is a noun, but *the dog*, *the little dog*, and *the little dog that I love* are **noun phrases** (3.6). Similarly, *happy* is an adjective, while *very happy* and *very happy to see you* are **adjective phrases** (3.4).

The word-based approach to grammar – looking at word classes only – leads to a very common misconception: the structure of a sentence is not

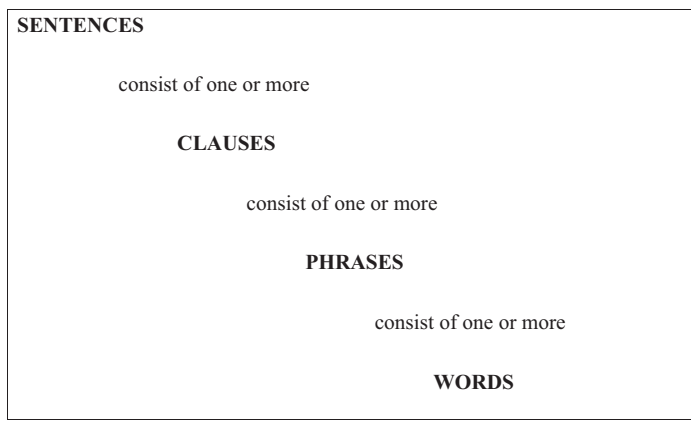


Figure 1.1

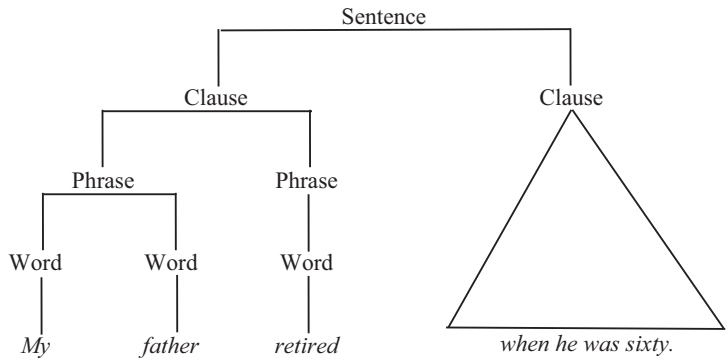


Figure 1.2

simply a sequence of 'one word after another'. Instead, sentence structure involves the **embedding** of constituents inside other constituents. We can illustrate this by looking at our original sentence, *My father retired when he was sixty*. We have seen that it consists of three major constituents, but the **tree diagram** in Figure 1.2 gives a more detailed picture

Notice how the structure conforms exactly to the Grammatical Hierarchy, with WORDS at the bottom, SENTENCE at the top, and CLAUSES and PHRASES in between. The triangle indicates that there is even more structure inside the constituent *when he was sixty*, but we will discuss that later, when we look at clauses, in Chapter 4. For now, it is important to see that every word in the sentence is a constituent, but not every sequence of words is a constituent.

Even an apparently simple sentence can have many layers of embedded constituents. Consider, for example, the following sentence:

Amy works in the centre of London.

The One-word Substitution Test gives us an initial overview of the constituents of the sentence:

[She] [works] [there].

So the sentence has three major constituents, as follows:

noun phrase (3.6)	Amy
verb phrase (3.7)	works
prepositional phrase (3.5)	in the centre of London

The prepositional phrase *in the centre of London* has three further constituents embedded within it:

prepositional phrase: in the centre of London
noun phrase: the centre of London
prepositional phrase: of London
noun phrase: London

'Doing grammar' involves working out which words go together to form constituents, and how those constituents combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences.

1.3 Form and function in grammatical description

In this grammar, the approach to grammatical description is the Form-Function approach. '**Form**' refers to the 'shape' or 'appearance' of a sentence constituent. For example, in the following sentence

The old man is walking his dog.

we say that *the old man* has the form of a noun phrase (3.6), because its main word, *man*, is a noun. The whole constituent could be replaced by the single word *he*.

We can also describe *the old man* in terms of its **function**, that is, the grammatical role that it plays in the sentence. In this case, we say that *the old man* has the function of Subject (1.4). So in the Form-Function Approach, we say that *the old man* has the form of a noun phrase and the function of Subject in the sentence. Following the same approach, we can say that *his dog* also has the form of a noun phrase, but it has a different function: it plays the role of **Direct Object** (1.6.3) in the sentence.

To understand the Form-Function Approach, it is useful to think in terms of actors and roles. In the sentence above, the 'actor' is the noun phrase *the old man*, playing the role of Subject. In a different sentence, the same actor could play a different role. For example, in *We visited the old man*, the constituent *the old man* plays the role (function) of Direct Object. In this case, *the old man* would be replaced by the single word *him* (2.3.1).

In order to highlight the distinction between form and function, I have adopted the convention in this grammar of spelling form terms with a lower-case initial (e.g. noun, noun phrase, adjective, adjective phrase), and

function terms with an upper-case initial (e.g. Subject, Direct Object). In tree diagrams, the function label appears first, followed by the form label, and the two are separated by a colon:

Function: Form

So *the old man*, in our example sentence, would be labelled 'Subject:noun phrase', and *his dog* would be labelled 'Direct Object:noun phrase'. In actual tree diagrams, however, we use abbreviations, simply for reasons of space, as shown in Figure 1.3.

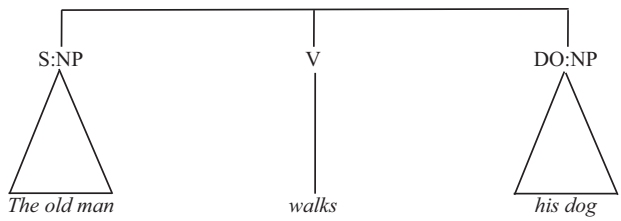


Figure 1.3

Again, the triangles indicate that these constituents have more structure inside them. We will look at those structures in Chapter 3. A full list of the abbreviations used in tree diagrams can be found on p. x.

1.4 Subject and verb

The simplest type of sentence consists of a verb only:

Stop.	Look.
Wait.	Listen.

These are called **imperative sentences** (1.8.4) and they are used to give orders or instructions. More commonly, however, a sentence will have a Subject and a verb:

Subject	**verb**
Amy	laughed.
Everyone	applauded.
My father	retired.

The verb is often expanded to form a **verb phrase** (3.7):

Subject	**verb phrase**
Amy	is a nurse.
Paul	plays football.
The police	interviewed the suspect.
We	gave James a birthday present.

The form of the verb phrase depends on the type of verb it contains, and we will look at verb types in 1.6. But first, we will look at the Subject.

1.5 Identifying the Subject

In a simple sentence, the Subject comes before the verb: *Amy* (S) *laughed* (V). However, it is not necessarily the first constituent in the sentence:

When she finally understood the joke, Amy (S) laughed (S).

Here, the Subject is preceded by the Adjunct (1.8) *when she finally understood the joke*.

In traditional school-level grammars, the Subject is often described as the 'doer of the action'. That notional definition (based on the meaning) really only applies to the simplest sentences, and is completely inaccurate in relation to **passive sentences** (1.7):

Paul was bitten by a snake.

Here, the Subject is *Paul*, but Paul is not the 'doer of the action'. On the contrary, Paul was on the receiving end of the action of biting, which was performed by the snake. More correctly, the 'doer of the action' is called the **agent**, which in this example is *a snake*. The agent and the Subject may coincide in some sentences, but not in all, so we need some more reliable ways to identify the Subject. These are discussed in the following two sections.

1.5.1 The Inversion Test

When we turn a statement into a question, the Subject inverts ('changes places') with the verb:

Statement: *James is* at school.
Question: *Is James* at school?

Here, the verb *is* inverts with *James*, so *James* is the Subject of the sentence. If there are two verbs present, the Subject inverts with the first verb (the **Operator**, 3.7.1):

Statement: *The children are* playing outside.
Question: *Are the children* playing outside?

1.5.2 *The Tag Question Test*

A **tag question** (1.9) is a question which is added to the end of a statement:

Paul is getting big, *isn't he*?

The last word in the tag question refers back to the Subject of the statement, and in that way helps us to identify the Subject of the sentence as a whole. In this example, *he* refers back to *Paul*, so *Paul* is the Subject of the sentence.

Similarly:

The children seem busy, don't *they*?

Here, *they* refers back to *the children*, so *the children* is the Subject of the sentence.

The **Tag Question Test** can also be used to identify the Subject of more complicated sentences:

There was a storm last night, wasn't *there*?

Here, the Tag Question Test identifies the Subject of the sentence as the word *there*. This called a ***there*-sentence**, and we will look at these in more detail in section 4.8.

In the next example, the Tag Question Test identifies the Subject as the word *it*:

It is important to take exercise, isn't *it*?

This is an example of an extraposed sentence, which we look at in more detail in section 4.7.

Finally:

It was on Monday that we met Amy, wasn't *it*?

Here, the Tag Question Test once again identifies the Subject as the word *it*. This type of sentence is called a **cleft sentence**. See section 4.9 for further discussion of this.

We can confirm these findings by applying the Inversion Test, turning each statement into a question:

Statement	**Question**
There was a storm last night.	→ *Was there* a storm last night?
It is important to take exercise.	→ *Is it* important to take exercise?
It was on Monday that we met Amy.	→ *Was it* on Monday that we met Amy?

1.5.3 *Subject-verb agreement*

The Subject of a sentence agrees in **number** (singular or plural) with the verb that follows it. Compare:

Singular Subject: *The dog barks* all night.
Plural Subject: *The dogs bark* all night.

Here, the form of the verb (*barks* or *bark*) is determined by whether the Subject is singular (*the dog*) or plural (*the dogs*). This is known as **Subject-verb agreement**.

However, Subject-verb agreement only applies when the sentence is in the present tense. In the past tense, the verb remains the same, regardless of the Subject:

Singular Subject: *The dog barked* all night.
Plural Subject: *The dogs barked* all night.

Furthermore, agreement applies only when the Subject is third-person (2.3.1):

Singular Subject: *He/she/the boy likes* pizza.
Plural Subject: *They like* pizza.

With all other Subjects, the same verb form is used whether the Subject is *I* (the first-person singular) or *we* (the first-person plural):

Singular Subject: *I sleep* all night.
Plural Subject: *We sleep* all night.

Finally, Subject-verb agreement does not apply if the first verb is a modal verb (2.5.1), such as *will* or *can*, since these verbs do not change their form.

Singular Subject: *He will* be here soon.
Plural Subject: *They will* be here soon.

Singular Subject: *Amy can* play the piano.
Plural Subject: *The twins can* play the piano.

Subject-verb agreement, therefore, is limited as a way of identifying the Subject. The Inversion Test and the Tag Question Test are generally more useful, since they can be applied to any type of statement.

1.6 Verb types and sentence patterns

The structure of a sentence is determined to a very large extent by the type of verb it contains. There are three main types of verb: **intransitive** (1.6.1), **linking** (1.6.2), and **transitive** (1.6.3). Transitive verbs are further subdivided into **monotransitive** verbs (1.6.3), **ditransitive** verbs (1.6.4), and **complex transitive** verbs (1.6.5).

1.6.1 Intransitive verbs

An **intransitive verb** needs only a Subject to form a complete sentence:

Subject	**verb**
The prisoners	escaped.
The baby	cried.
The temperature	dropped.
The sky	darkened.
The ship	disappeared.

Each of these sentences contains just a Subject (S) and a verb (V), so their structure is:

Sentence pattern 1: Intransitive verb	
S	V
Amy	*laughed.*

1.6.2 *Linking verbs and Subject Complements*

Unlike other verbs (such as *destroy*, *sing*, *laugh*, *eat*, *break*), the verb *be* does not denote any kind of 'action'. Instead, it links the Subject to another constituent following the verb:

Amy *is* my sister.

Here, we would not say that Amy performs any 'action' in 'being my sister'. The verb simply links the two constituents *Amy* and *my sister*, and for that reason, we call it a **linking verb**. The constituent after a linking verb is called the **Subject Complement** (SC) and it is required to form a complete sentence. Compare:

Amy is my sister.
*Amy is ~~my sister~~.

Be is by far the most common linking verb, though there are several others:

Subject	**verb**	**Subject Complement**
David	*seems*	unhappy.
The house	*appeared*	empty.
She	*looks*	uncomfortable.
That music	*sounds*	awful.
The animals	*became*	restless.
The children	*grew*	tired.
The crowd	*went*	wild.

Linking verbs all have the same general meaning of 'be', 'seem', or 'become'.

The structure of a sentence with a linking verb is:

Sentence pattern 2: Linking verb		
S	V	SC
Amy	*is*	*my sister.*

1.6.3 *Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects*

Like linking verbs (1.4.2), **monotransitive verbs** also require another constituent to form a complete sentence. Consider, for example, the verb *destroy*:

*The soldiers *destroyed*.
The soldiers *destroyed the village*.

The constituent after the verb (*the village*) is called the Direct Object, and it completes the meaning of the verb. *Destroy*, therefore, is a monotransitive verb. Further examples of monotransitive verbs include:

Subject	**verb**	**Direct Object**
Paul	*bought*	a large Coke.
The generator	*produces*	electricity.
Everyone	*enjoyed*	the party.
Christopher Wren	*designed*	St Paul's Cathedral.
Someone	*stole*	my iPhone.

These sentences display the structure:

Sentence pattern 3: Monotransitive verb		
S	V	DO
The soldiers	*destroyed*	*the village.*

Many verbs have both intransitive (1.6.1) and monotransitive uses, sometimes with quite different meanings. Compare the following pairs:

Intransitive: The children *grew*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: The children *grew* flowers. (S+V+DO)

Intransitive: The old man *shook*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: The old man *shook* his head. (S+V+DO)

Intransitive: Simon has *changed*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: Simon has *changed* his clothes. (S+V+DO)

1.6.4 Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects

We saw in 1.6.3 that monotransitive verbs require a Direct Object to form a complete sentence. **Ditransitive** verbs require two Objects, an **Indirect Object** (IO) and a Direct Object (DO):

The judges gave *David* (IO) *the prize* (DO).

The two Objects here are *David*, the Indirect Object, and *the prize*, the Direct Object. The Indirect Object always comes before the Direct Object. Here are some more examples of sentences with two Objects:

Subject	**verb**	**Indirect Object**	**Direct Object**
He	*sent*	me	an email.
She	*told*	her husband	the news.
They	*made*	her	a birthday cake.
The postman	*brought*	James	a package.

The first constituent after the verb is described as 'indirect' because it is only indirectly affected by the verb. In the last example, we can see that a package (not James) was brought by the postman, so *a package* is the Direct Object, and *James* is the Indirect Object. The sentence can be rephrased as:

The postman brought *a package* (DO) to *James*.

This is called the **prepositional paraphrase** of the ditransitive structure. All ditransitive structures can be paraphrased in the same way:

She sent *me* (IO) *an email* (DO).	→	She sent *an email* (DO) to *me*.
She told *her husband* (IO) *the news* (DO).	→	She told *the news* (DO) to *her husband*.
They made *her* (IO) *a birthday cake* (DO).	→	They made *a birthday cake* (DO) for *her*.

Notice that the prepositional paraphrase does not contain an Indirect Object. The sentence ends with a prepositional phrase (3.5) consisting of a preposition (*to*, *for*) followed by the constituent that was the Indirect Object in the ditransitive version. In the prepositional paraphrase, that constituent now functions as the Complement of the preposition (3.5).

Sentences with a ditransitive verb exhibit the following structure:

Sentence pattern 4: Ditransitive verb			
S	V	IO	DO
The judges	*gave*	*David*	*the prize.*

1.6.5 *Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements*

Complex transitive verbs require a Direct Object (1.6.3) and an **Object Complement** (OC):

The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC).

In semantic terms, the complex transitive construction describes an action applied to the Direct Object that produces a specific result. The result is expressed by the Object Complement. Here are some more examples:

Subject	**verb**	**Direct Object**	**Object Complement**
His comments	*made*	me	very angry.
The food	*made*	him	ill.
They	*elected*	Amy	Treasurer.
They	*named*	the baby	Barack.
He	*put*	the milk	in the fridge.

The relationship between the DO and the OC is similar to that between a Subject (1.4) and a Subject Complement (1.6.2), so a complex transitive construction can often be rephrased as:

The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The water* (S) is *blue* (SC).
They named *the baby* (DO) *Barack* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The baby* (S) is *Barack* (SC).
He put *the milk* (DO) *in the fridge* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The milk* (S) is *in the fridge* (SC).

The Object Complement comes after the Direct Object, so the pattern in these sentences is:

Sentence pattern 5: Complex transitive verb			
S	V	DO	OC
The dye	*turned*	*the water*	*blue.*

At first glance, some complex transitive sentences (Pattern 5) may look very similar to ditransitive sentences (Pattern 4). Compare:

[1] **Pattern 5: Complex transitive verb**

S	V	DO	OC
The Headmaster	*made*	*Jones*	*a prefect.*

[2] **Pattern 4: Ditransitive verb**

S	V	IO	DO
The Headmaster	*made*	*Jones*	*a coffee.*

The grammatical difference between these two can be seen when we rephrase them. Sentence [2] can be rephrased as:

[2a] *The Headmaster made a coffee for Jones.*

This is the prepositional paraphrase of a ditransitive that we discussed in 1.6.4. In contrast, sentence [1] cannot be rephrased in the same way:

[1a] **The Headmaster made a prefect for Jones.*

The constituent *a prefect* in [1] expresses an attribute of the Direct Object *Jones*, so *a prefect* is an Object Complement. Notice that we can rephrase [1] as follows:

The Headmaster made *Jones* (DO) a prefect (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *Jones* (S) is *a prefect* (SC).

Similarly, compare:

Pattern 5 Complex transitive: Amy called *Tom* (DO) *a fool* (OC). ('Tom is a fool.')
Pattern 4 Ditransitive: Amy called *Tom* (IO) *a taxi* (DO). ('Amy called a taxi for Tom.')

1.6.6 *Adverbial Complements*

In 1.6.1, we saw that intransitive verbs require no other constituent to complete their meaning. However, some intransitive verbs co-occur with a constituent that expresses location, direction, or time, and which is obligatory in the sentence structure. This constituent is called the **Adverbial Complement** (AC).

This road *goes* (V) *to Sevenoaks* (AC).

Notice that without the AC, this sentence would be incomplete: **This road goes*.

Here are some more examples of sentences with Adverbial Complements:

Subject	**verb**	**Adverbial Complement**
The kids	went	home.
His wife	comes	from Poland.
His property	extends	over two counties.
The farm	lies	about a mile east of town.
Her influence	stretches	beyond the government.
The meeting	lasted	two hours.

In each of these examples, the verb is intransitive, and yet the constituent that follows it is required to complete the meaning. The pattern in these sentences is

Sentence Pattern 6: Intransitive verb + AC		
S	V	AC
The road	*goes*	*to Sevenoaks.*

1.6.7 *Summary: the six sentence patterns*

In the previous sections, we looked at the following sentence constituents:

Subject	S	(1.4)
Verb	V	(1.4)
Subject Complement	SC	(1.6.2)
Direct Object	DO	(1.6.3)
Indirect Object	IO	(1.6.4)
Object Complement	OC	(1.6.5)
Adverbial Complement	AC	(1.6.6)

These constituents combine to form the six basic sentence patterns shown in Table 1.1.

Notice in Table 1.1 that the Subject (S) and the verb (V) are present in all six sentence structures. This means that all sentences contain at least a Subject and a verb. There is one exception to this: imperative sentences like *Look!* and *Move over!* have a verb, but no Subject (4.4.3).

Table 1.1 Sentence patterns and verb types

Sentence pattern	Verb type	Examples
1. S+V	Intransitive	Amy (S) laughed (V). The audience (S) applauded (V). The temperature (S) dropped (V).
2. S+V+SC	Linking	My tea (S) is (V) cold (SC). My friend (S) is (V) ill (SC). David (S) seems (V) unhappy (SC).
3. S+V+DO	Monotransitive	The soldiers (S) destroyed (V) the village (DO). The police (S) arrested (V) the suspects (DO). The storm (S) caused (V) a lot of damage (DO).
4. S+V+IO+DO	Ditransitive	We (S) gave (V) David (IO) the prize (DO). I (S) sent (V) her (IO) an email (DO). I (S) asked (V) him (IO) a question (DO).
5. S+V+DO+OC	Complex transitive	The dye (S) turned (V) the water (DO) blue (OC). His comments (S) made (V) me (DO) angry (OC). They (S) elected (V) Amy (DO) President (OC).
6. S+V+AC	Intransitive	This road (S) goes (V) to Sevenoaks (AC). The farm (S) lies (V) about a mile east of the town (AC). The meeting (S) lasted (V) two hours (AC).

Key: **AC** = Adverbial Complement; **DO** = Direct Object; **IO** = Indirect Object; **OC** = Object Complement; **S** = Subject; **SC** = Subject Complement; **V** = verb

1.7 Active sentences and passive sentences

Consider the following two sentences:

[1] Amy is a lawyer. S+V+SC **(Pattern 2: Linking verb)**
[2] Amy hired a lawyer. S+V+DO **(Pattern 3: Monotransitive verb)**

An important difference between the two sentences is that only sentence [2] can be re-written as:

[2a] A lawyer was hired by Amy.

This is called the **passive** version of sentence [2], which is called the **active** version.

In contrast, sentence [1] has no passive version, because it does not have a Direct Object. Only sentences with a Direct Object can be passivized. In a passive sentence, the Direct Object (DO) of the original active version becomes the Subject (S) of the passive version. Here are some more examples:

Active: *Shakespeare* (S) wrote *King Lear* (DO).
Passive: *King Lear* (S) was written by Shakespeare.

Active: *The burglar* (S) broke *a pane of glass* (DO).
Passive: *A pane of glass* (S) was broken by the burglar.

Active: *The curator* (S) shows *the manuscript* (DO) to visitors.
Passive: *The manuscript* (S) is shown to visitors by the curator.

Active: *The police* (S) interviewed *the witnesses* (DO).
Passive: *The witnesses* (S) were interviewed by the police.

The Subject of the active version moves to the end of the passive version, where it forms the *by*-**phrase** (*by Shakespeare*, *by the burglar*, etc). The *by*-phrase can often be omitted, leaving an **agentless passive**:

Active: The burglar broke a pane of glass.
Passive: A pane of glass was broken by the burglar.
Agentless Passive: A pane of glass was broken.

The *by*-phrase is usually omitted if the information it would convey is unknown or irrelevant:

The museum was opened in 2001.
The concert was held at Wembley Stadium.
He was considered handsome at one time.

Sentences with a Direct Object can be passivized, including Pattern 4 sentences (1.6.4) which have two Objects, and therefore two passive versions:

Active: The judges gave *David* (IO) *the prize* (DO).
Passive version 1: *David* (S) was given the prize by the judges.
Passive version 2: *The prize* (S) was given to David by the judges.

Pattern 5 sentences, with a complex transitive verb, can also be passivized:

Active: The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC).
Passive: *The water* (S) was turned *blue* (OC) by the dye.

However, a small number of verbs cannot be passivized, even though they are transitive in the active version. These include *have*, *afford*, *lack*, *resemble*, and *suit*:

Active: James has a new car.
Passive: *A new car is had by James.

Active: Amy can't afford a mortgage.
Passive: *A mortgage can't be afforded by Amy.

Active: Simon lacks confidence.
Passive: *Confidence is lacked by Simon.

Active: Paul resembles Anthony.
Passive: *Anthony is resembled by Paul.

Active: That colour suits you.
Passive: *You are suited by that colour.

The distinction between an active sentence and a passive sentence is called **voice**.

1.8 Adjuncts

The six sentence patterns (Table 1.1) can all be extended by the use of Adjuncts. Adjuncts (A) contribute optional, additional information to a

sentence. For example, the S+V sentence *The sky darkened* can be extended by the addition of Adjuncts, to become:

The sky darkened *suddenly*. (S+V+A)
The sky darkened *before the hailstorm*. (S+V+A)
The sky darkened *at about 9 o'clock*. (S+V+A)

In the following examples, we show how each of the six sentence patterns may be extended by adding an Adjunct:

Pattern 1: S+V+A
Amy laughed *when I told her the story* (A).

Pattern 2: S+V+SC+A
My tea is cold *as usual* (A).

Pattern 3: S+V+DO+A
The soldiers destroyed the village *using heavy artillery* (A).

Pattern 4: S+V+IO+DO+A
The judges gave David the prize *in the end* (A).

Pattern 5: S+V+DO+OC+A
The dye turned the water blue *in just a few seconds* (A).

Pattern 6: S+V+AC+A
The meeting lasted two hours, *unfortunately* (A).

With some restrictions, Adjuncts are mobile within a sentence, that is, they can occupy different positions. They can occur at the end of the sentence, as in the examples above, or at the beginning:

When I told her the story, Amy laughed.
As usual, my tea is cold.
Using heavy artillery, the soldiers destroyed the village.
In the end, the judges gave David the prize.
In just a few seconds, the dye turned the water blue.
Unfortunately, the meeting lasted two hours.

Adjuncts can also occur within a sentence, and when they do, they are placed between constituents, not within constituents. Compare:

[The meeting (S)], *unfortunately* (A), lasted (V) two hours (AC).
*[The *unfortunately* (A) meeting (S)], lasted (V) two hours (AC).

Finally, Adjuncts can co-occur. That is, more than one Adjunct can occur in the same sentence:

Before the hailstorm (A) the sky darkened *suddenly* (A).
Unfortunately (A), my tea is cold *as usual* (A).
On Sunday (A), *after the game* (A), we met Simon *outside the stadium* (A).

Adjuncts contribute optional information to a sentence, so if we leave them out, the sentence is still grammatically complete:

~~Before the hailstorm~~, the sky darkened ~~suddenly~~.
~~Unfortunately~~, my tea is cold ~~as usual~~.
~~On Sunday, after the game~~, we met Simon ~~outside the stadium~~.

These sentences remain complete without the Adjuncts, but they are obviously much less informative than the full versions. Although Adjuncts are grammatically omissible, they contribute a very wide range of meanings to a sentence. We look at some of those meanings in the next section.

1.8.1 *The meanings of Adjuncts*

Adjuncts (1.8) contribute a wide range of additional information to a sentence. The principal information types are set out below.

1 **Time** (*when* something happens):

The play opened *yesterday*.
Our guests arrived *at seven o'clock*.
We visit Greece *every year*.

2 **Place** (*where* something happens):

Amy attended university *in New York*.
We met Simon *outside the stadium*.
I saw David *at the swimming pool*.

3 **Manner** (*how* something happens):

She sings *beautifully*.
The children listened *intently*.
Gradually, the room filled with smoke.

See also: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1) and the meanings of Adjunct clauses (4.2.2.1)

1.9 Peripheral constituents in sentence structure

In this section, we look at some more constituents that can be added to a sentence. Like Adjuncts (1.8), they are optional, and their omission still leaves a well-formed sentence. Many of them are, however, very frequently used, especially in conversation.

A tag question is added to the end of a sentence to seek the hearer's agreement with a statement:

It's warm today, *isn't it?*
The policy hasn't really worked, *has it?*
Bernard worked in Whitehall, *didn't he?*

If the sentence is negative, then the corresponding tag question is positive, and vice-versa:

It's not too late, *is it?*
It's too late, *isn't it?*

In some instances, a positive tag question is used with a positive sentence:

You wrote this yourself, *did you?*
This is your car, *is it?*

In these examples, the tag question may imply that the speaker suspects the sentence to be untrue. Compare:

You wrote this yourself, *didn't you?*

See also: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

A **comment clause** is a brief clause (4.1) inserted into a sentence, expressing the speaker's attitude towards what is being said:

We could, *I suppose*, share one between us.
The building was used, *I imagine*, for storing grain.
She was acting on impulse, *I guess*.
I can't help you, *I'm afraid*.

Other comment clauses include *I assume*, *I reckon*, *I think*, *I must say*, *I'm sorry to say*, *I must admit*.

A **parenthetical** is a complete sentence which is inserted 'parenthetically' into another sentence. In writing, parentheticals are marked off from the main sentence by enclosing them in brackets or dashes:

The range of colours (*most suppliers have* 72) can include metallics, and both warm and cool greys.
By Bugatti standards it was not technically advanced – *smaller Bugattis used similar technical layouts* – merely bigger and grander, in all respects.

In speech, parentheticals are often introduced by *and*:

Lionel Messi is *and I think most people agree with me* one of the world's greatest footballers.
There is a sense in which *and Hogarth realized this* satire is also a form of entertainment.

A **sentential relative clause** is introduced by the relative pronoun *which* (2.3.6). It is used to add a comment about what has just been said:

James took an earlier train, *which was lucky for him*.
Mary finally passed her exams, *which was a relief to everyone*.
John doesn't want to meet Laura, *which I can understand*.

A **vocative** is used to identify the person or persons to whom a sentence is addressed:

James, your dinner is ready.
Come inside, *children*.
Doctor, I need a new prescription.
The car was parked behind the building, *your Honour*.
I'm sorry I'm late, *everyone*.
Ladies and gentlemen, thank you for that warm welcome.

1.10 Fragments and non-sentences

All the sentences we have looked at so far have been grammatically complete. Grammatically complete sentences typically contain at least a verb. However, a great deal of communication, especially in speech, consists of incomplete sentences or **fragments**. In conversation, for instance, speakers often omit the Subject, especially when the understood Subject is *I*:

Must set my alarm clock tonight.
Can't seem to concentrate today.

Fragments are also commonly used in response to questions:

Speaker A: What did you buy for Sandra?
Speaker B: *A gold necklace.*

Speaker B's utterance is a fragment, which we interpret in the same way as the complete sentence *I bought a gold necklace for Sandra*, where it functions as Direct Object.

Newspaper headlines are often highly compressed, so that complete sentences are reduced to fragments:

LABOUR PARTY IN EXPENSES SCANDAL

This fragment has no verb, but we interpret it as the complete sentence *The Labour Party is involved in an expenses scandal*.

We refer to these as fragments because we can interpret them in the same way as grammatically complete sentences. Only some of the sentence elements are missing.

Non-sentences have no sentence structure at all, and they generally occur without any surrounding context. They are frequently used in public signs and notices:

No Parking
Motorway Ahead
Paddington, 2 miles
10% Off
Closing Down Sale

Non-sentences in conversational English include *bye*, *goodbye*, *hello*, *hi*, *no*, *ok*, *right*, *sure*, *thanks*, *yes*.

In online communication, via emails and social media, the following fragments and non-sentences are regularly used:

BRB	(be right back)
FYI	(for your information)
LOL	(laughing out loud)
OMG	(oh my God)
pls	(please)
tnx	(thanks)

See also: Sentence types (**4.4**)

Exercises for Chapter 1

Exercise 1.1: Identifying the Subject (1.5)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject:

1 My eldest son graduated in June.
2 The students visited Paris with their teachers.
3 Some flights are very cheap.
4 The concert was very disappointing.
5 At Christmas, most of the children perform in the Nativity Play.
6 It's snowing.
7 It was in June that we met.
8 Smoking cigarettes is dangerous.

Exercise 1.2: The Inversion Test (1.5.1)

Rewrite each of the sentences below as questions, and underline the Subject in the question:

1 Paul is older than Amy.
2 Lunch is ready.
3 It is cold outside.
4 Someone is watching the house.
5 Alan has a new car.
6 Reading books is his favourite pastime.
7 It was through hard work that he succeeded.
8 My old suitcase was still under the bed.

Exercise 1.3: Linking verbs and Subject Complements (1.6.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject Complement:

1 Amy is a good student.
2 He looks a bit tired.
3 Paul is getting very big.
4 She wants to become a doctor.
5 It tastes bitter.
6 I'm going crazy.

Exercise 1.4: Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects (1.6.3)

In each of the sentences below, underline the Direct Object.

1 The government has promised an end to age discrimination in the workplace.
2 Most people welcomed the government's change of policy.
3 However, some people expressed doubts about the proposed legislation.
4 They are demanding a more comprehensive review of employment law.
5 A Select Committee will discuss the issue next month.
6 The Committee is still accepting submissions.
7 Some people question the need for such extensive consultation.
8 The Opposition will raise the question during the next parliamentary session.

Exercise 1.5: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Underline the Indirect Object in each of the sentences below.

1 Send me your email address, please.
2 He owes the bank a lot of money.
3 We've promised Paul a laptop for his birthday.
4 Can you show us the way to King's Cross?
5 He is teaching the children French.
6 I've emailed you my details.
7 She gave the bridegroom a kiss.
8 They made both candidates the same offer.

Exercise 1.6: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Use each of the verbs below to make a sentence containing a Direct Object and an Indirect Object.

give *pay* *ask* *find* *charge* *cook* *show* *read* *tell* *offer* *cost*

Exercise 1.7: Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements (1.6.5)

Underline the Object Complement in each of the sentences below.

1 Seafood can sometimes make people ill.
2 I usually find science fiction movies very boring.

3 Make yourself comfortable.
4 He proclaimed himself President of the new republic.
5 The jury found the defendant guilty.
6 We left the children at the playschool.
7 He was appointed Chief Justice in 2017.
8 They called Michael Jackson the 'King of Pop'.

Exercise 1.8: The six sentence patterns (1.6.7) and Adjuncts (1.8)

In the spaces provided, indicate the grammatical function of each underlined constituent in the following sentences. Use the following abbreviations:

A = Adjunct AC = Adverbial Complement DO = Direct Object
IO = Indirect Object
S = Subject SC = Subject Complement OC = Object Complement

1 In tropical rainforests ( ), bird life ( ) is usually ( ) very exotic and colourful ( ).
2 The appearance of birds ( ) is seasonal ( ).
3 Sometimes ( ), the arrival of flowers and fruits ( ) will attract birds ( ).
4 The dense canopy of leaves ( ) makes the rainforest ( ) very dark ( ).
5 At ground level ( ), you ( ) can occasionally ( ) see kingfishers ( ).
6 The constant gloom and enormous tree trunks ( ) give the rainforest ( ) the appearance of a cathedral ( ).
7 The forest stretches three hundred miles eastwards ( ).

Exercise 1.9: Active sentences and passive sentences (1.7)

Write the passive version of each of the following sentences:

1 NASA launched a new satellite.
2 Everyone enjoyed the movie.
3 Someone took my iPhone.
4 The manager selects the team.
5 United scored two goals in the first twenty minutes.
6 The suspect terrorised the neighbourhood for weeks.

Exercise 1.10: Adjuncts (1.8)

Underline all the Adjuncts in the following passage.

RMS Titanic left Southampton on 10 April 1912. After crossing the English Channel, she stopped at Cherbourg, France. The next day, she stopped again at Queenstown, Ireland, to allow more passengers to go on board. When she finally sailed to New York, she had 2,240 passengers. Just before midnight on 14 April, the *Titanic* struck an iceberg in the north Atlantic. The massive ship sank two hours and forty minutes later. As a result, 1,517 people lost their lives. Unfortunately, the owners of the *Titanic* thought their ship was unsinkable. While they were fitting out the great ship, they did not provide enough lifeboats. Following the sinking, new regulations were introduced, in an effort to ensure that such a catastrophe could never happen again.

Chapter 2

Words and word classes

2.1 Open and closed word classes

Words may be divided into the following major word classes:

Word class	**Examples**
Nouns	*brother*, *child*, *China*, *science*, *James*, *tree*
Pronouns	*I*, *me*, *my*, *you*, *he*, *his*, *her*, *we*, *our*
Determiners	*a/an*, *any*, *every*, *more*, *no*, *the*
Main verbs	*break*, *consider*, *destroy*, *eat*, *sing*, *talk*
Auxiliary verbs	*can*, *could*, *do*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*
Prepositions	*after*, *at*, *for*, *in*, *of*, *over*, *with*, *without*
Adjectives	*angry*, *cold*, *foolish*, *happy*, *important*, *young*
Adverbs	*carefully*, *gradually*, *happily*, *now*, *sometimes*
Conjunctions	*although*, *and*, *because*, *but*, *if*, *or*, *while*

Some word classes are **open**, that is, they admit new words as members as the need arises. The class of nouns is potentially infinite, since it is continually being expanded as new discoveries are made, new products are developed, and new ideas are explored. In recent years, for example, developments in Internet technology have given rise to many new nouns, including:

bitmap	e-commerce	spam
blog	firewall	voicemail
broadband	gigabyte	
browser	homepage	
cache	hypertext	
chatroom	newsgroup	

These developments have also given rise to some new verbs:

bookmark	google	surf
double-click	reboot	tweet
download	right-click	upload

The class of numerals is entirely open, since we can always add 1 to a number to make a new number. The adjective and adverb classes also admit new members from time to time, though far less prolifically than the class of nouns.

In contrast with this, prepositions, for instance, belong to a **closed** word class. We never invent new prepositions (words like *after*, *at*, *before*, *in*, *with*) simply because we never need them.

2.2 Nouns and determiners

Nouns denote both concrete objects and abstract entities:

Concrete	**Abstract**
book	anger
chair	difficulty
dog	eagerness
grass	history
lake	information
house	progress
tree	terror

Many nouns can be identified by their characteristic endings:

-ence	absence, difference, evidence, experience
-ment	embarrassment, experiment, government, treatment
-tion	education, information, situation, vegetation
-ism	defeatism, optimism, symbolism, terrorism
-ist	artist, biologist, perfectionist, realist

For more examples of noun endings, see 5.3.

2.2.1 *Singular nouns and plural nouns*

Most nouns have two forms, a **singular** form and a **plural** form. Regular nouns form the plural by adding *-s* to the singular:

Singular	**Plural**
boy	boys
table	tables

However, some very frequent nouns have irregular plurals:

Singular	**Plural**
man	men
woman	women
child	children
foot	feet
goose	geese
mouse	mice
tooth	teeth
sheep	sheep

For more on the spelling of plural nouns, see 5.11.

2.2.2 *Common nouns and proper nouns*

Proper nouns are the names of individual people and places, including geographical features such as roads, rivers, mountains, and oceans:

Patrick	Hong Kong
Donald Trump	Euston Road
China	Atlantic Ocean
Paris	River Thames
New Delhi	Mount Everest

The names of institutions, newspapers, buildings, ships, and languages are also proper nouns:

The Wall Street Journal	London Underground
The Royal Albert Hall	Titanic
Harvard University	Mayflower
Millennium Dome	British Museum
Latin	Greek

Finally, proper nouns include the days of the week, the months of the year, and other periods of the calendar:

Monday	Christmas
Tuesday	Passover
January	Ramadan
February	Thanksgiving

Proper nouns are written with an initial capital (upper-case) letter. All other nouns are common nouns. Since proper nouns usually refer to unique individuals, places, or events in the calendar, they do not normally have a plural form. However, they may take a plural ending when number is specifically being referred to:

There are two *Patricks* in my class.
We first met two *Christmases* ago.

2.2.3 *Countable nouns and uncountable nouns*

Singular nouns denote just one instance, while plural nouns denote more than one instance:

Singular	**Plural**
one *boy*	two *boys*, three *boys* . . .
one *day*	two *days*, three *days* . . .
one *computer*	two *computers*, three *computers* . . .

These nouns are called countable nouns. In contrast, some nouns cannot be counted in this way:

*one *advice*, two *advices*, three *advices* . . .
*one *furniture*, two *furnitures*, three *furnitures* . . .
*one *software*, two *softwares*, three *softwares* . . .

These nouns are called uncountable nouns. Uncountable nouns refer to things which are considered as indivisible wholes, and therefore cannot be counted.

Uncountable nouns have two important grammatical features:

1 They have a singular form (*advice*, *furniture*, *software*), but no plural form (**advices*, **furnitures*, **softwares*).
2 They do not take *a* or *an* before them (**an advice*, **a furniture*, **a software*).

Other uncountable nouns include *fun*, *health*, *honesty*, *information*, *luck*, *luggage*, *mud*, *music*, *traffic*.

Some nouns may be uncountable or countable, depending on how their meaning is perceived in a particular context. For example:

Do you take *sugar*?

Here, *sugar* is uncountable, since (a) it has no plural form (**Do you take sugars?*) and (b) it will not take *a* (**Do you take a sugar?*). On the other hand, *sugar* is countable in the following:

I take two *sugars* (= 'two spoonfuls of sugar')

See also: Determiners (**2.2.6**)

2.2.4 *Genitive nouns*

The genitive (sometimes called genitive case) is formed by adding *'s* (apostrophe *s*) to the singular form of a noun:

John's car
the *baby's* toys
the *government's* decision
my *wife's* sister

If the noun already has an *-s* ending because it is plural, we add the apostrophe alone to form the genitive:

the *farmers* → the *Farmers'* Union
two *doctors* → two *doctors'* reports

With irregular plural nouns (see 2.2.1), the genitive is formed by adding apostrophe *s*:

the *children* → the *children's* clothes
the *men* → the *men's* toiletries
the *women* → the *women's* group
the *people* → the *people's* decision

Nouns ending in *-s*, in which the *-s* does not denote a plural, generally take an apostrophe alone:

Prince *Charles* → Prince *Charles'* sons
Martin *Nichols* → Martin *Nichols'* house

However, apostrophe *s* is also sometimes added:

Prince *Charles's* sons

The genitive form of a noun can express a very wide range of meanings. We exemplify the major meanings below:

1	**Possession**	the *baby's* toys ('the toys belonging to the baby')
2	**Relationship**	my *wife's* sister ('the sister of my wife')
3	**General attribute**	*China's* economy ('the economy of China')
4	**Subjective genitive**	the *judge's* decision ('the judge made the decision')
5	**Objective genitive**	the *prisoner's* release ('the authorities released the prisoner')

2.2.5 *Dependent genitives and independent genitives*

Genitives are either dependent or independent. A dependent genitive is followed by a noun:

the *baby's* toys
a *student's* essay
Caroline's friend

An independent genitive is not followed by a noun:

a friend of *Caroline's*
a colleague of *Frank's*
an old army pal of *Jim's*

An independent genitive is often used in referring to relationships between people, as in these examples. Notice that this construction has a very specific meaning. The independent genitive *a friend of Caroline's* does not mean the same as the dependent genitive *Caroline's friend*:

Independent: We met a friend of *Caroline's* in Spain.
Dependent: We met *Caroline's* friend in Spain.

The independent genitive means 'one of Caroline's friends', who may or may not be known to the hearer. In contrast, the dependent genitive means 'one specific friend', who is assumed to be known to the hearer.

Independent genitives are also used in references to places and businesses:

She stayed at *Rebecca's*. = Rebecca's house
I ran into Jim in *Sainsbury's*. = Sainsbury's supermarket
I left my wallet in the *barber's*. = the barber's shop

See also: Possessive pronouns (2.3.2)

2.2.6 *Determiners*

Determiners come before a noun and indicate (1) the kind of reference the noun has, (2) whether the noun is singular or plural, and (3) possession.

The most common determiners are *a/an* and *the*. *A/an* indicates an indefinite reference, while *the* indicates a definite reference:

> We saw *a* play in London. (indefinite reference, an unspecified play)
> *The* play was Endgame, by Beckett. (definite reference, a specified play)

A/an is called the **indefinite article**, and *the* is called the **definite article**. The choice of article also determines whether the noun is singular or plural. The indefinite article *a/an* is restricted to singular nouns, while the definite article *the* can be used with both singular and plural nouns:

	Singular	**Plural**
a	book	*books
the	book	books

Many other determiners occur in the same position, before a noun. The choice of determiner often depends on whether the noun is singular or plural. Like *a/an*, some determiners can only be used with singular nouns:

any book
every book
one book
that book
this book

Other determiners can only be used with plural nouns:

a few books
both books
many books
several books
those books
these books
two books

All can be used with plural countable nouns and singular uncountable nouns (2.2.3):

all books
all information

A few is used with plural countable nouns:

a few books
a few days

Few and *fewer* are used with plural countable nouns:

We've had *few* showers lately.
We've had *fewer* showers lately.

Little and *less* are used with singular uncountable nouns:

We've had *little* rain lately.
We've had *less* rain lately.

More and *some* can be used with both singular uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns:

I need *more* money.
I need *more* coins.

I need *some* money.
I need *some* coins.

Much is restricted to singular uncountable nouns:

I don't have *much* money.

Many is restricted to plural countable nouns:

I don't have *many* coins.

The possessive pronouns *my*, *your*, *his*, etc (2.3.2) also act as determiners before both countable and uncountable nouns:

my books
your furniture

his daughter
her health

Determiners can co-occur (with some restrictions):

all the books
all those books
both his books
all our many books

See also: Determiners and Determinatives (3.6.2)

2.3 Pronouns

Pronouns are a subclass of nouns, and many of them can be used as substitutes for a noun or noun phrase (3.6) that has previously been mentioned:

[1] *John* was late for the meeting. *He* missed his train.
[2] *The old lady* is unwell. I'm taking *her* to the doctor.
[3] *Someone on our street* won the lottery. No, it wasn't *me*.
[4] *Tom* phoned and I chatted with *him*.

In [1], the pronoun *he* functions as the Subject (1.4), and in [2], the pronoun *her* functions as the Direct Object (1.6.3). In [3], the pronoun *me* functions as Subject Complement (1.6.2). In [4], the pronoun *him* comes after a preposition, where it functions as Prepositional Complement (2.8). Pronouns that can perform these functions are called **independent pronouns**.

In contrast, other pronouns cannot perform these functions, and must occur before a noun:

I am painting *my* house.
Can I borrow *your* phone?

These pronouns are called **dependent pronouns**. They act as determiners (2.2.6) for the noun that follows them.

In the following sections, we will distinguish between independent and dependent pronouns, and also point out those that can be used in both ways.

See also: Referring expressions (4.11)

2.3.1 *Personal pronouns*

The personal pronouns have two distinct forms, the subjective form and the objective form (Table 2.1)

Table 2.1 The personal pronouns

Number	Person	Subjective form	Objective form
Singular	1st-person	*I*	*me*
	2nd-person	*you*	*you*
	3rd-person	*he/she/it*	*him/her/it*
Plural	1st-person	*we*	*us*
	2nd-person	*you*	*you*
	3rd-person	*they*	*them*

All the personal pronouns are independent (2.3). The subjective form is used when the pronoun functions as the Subject of a sentence, and the objective form is used for all other functions:

I (S) phoned *her* (DO).
She (S) phoned *me* (DO).
They (S) thanked *us* (DO).
We (S) thanked *them* (DO).

The objective forms are also used after prepositions (2.8):

They sent it to *me*.
I gave it to *him*.
She looked at *us*.
We took it from *them*.

2.3.2 *Possessive pronouns*

The possessive pronouns are the possessive forms of the personal pronouns (2.3.1). They are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 The possessive pronouns

Number	Person	Dependent form	Independent form
Singular	1st-person	*my*	*mine*
	2nd-person	*your*	*yours*
	3rd-person	*his/her/its*	*his/hers/–*
Plural	1st-person	*our*	*ours*
	2nd-person	*your*	*yours*
	3rd-person	*their*	*theirs*

The dependent forms must occur before a noun, where they act as determiners (2.2.6):

This is *my* car.
Is that *your* coat?
I've read *his* book.
The children want *their* lunch.

The independent forms are not dependent on any noun, and can occur alone as the Subject (1.4), Object (1.6.3), or Subject Complement (1.6.2) in a sentence:

Mine (S) is the blue car.
That money is *yours* (SC).
We cook *ours* (DO) in the oven.

Note that there is no independent form of the third-person singular *its*:

*The dog wagged its tail and the cat wagged its.

The independent forms also occur in independent genitives (2.2.5):

I met a friend of *mine*.
Amy is phoning a colleague of *hers*.
A neighbour of *ours* won the lottery.

2.3.3 *Reflexive pronouns*

The reflexive pronouns end in *-self* (singular) or *-selves* (plural) (Table 2.3). They correspond to the personal pronouns.

Table 2.3 The reflexive pronouns

Singular	1st-person	*myself*
	2nd-person	*yourself*
	3rd-person	*himself/herself/itself*
Plural	1st-person	*ourselves*
	2nd-person	*yourselves*
	3rd-person	*themselves*

Reflexive pronouns have two major uses:

1 To refer back to the Subject:

A little girl (S) hurt *herself* in the playground.
The players (S) have only *themselves* to blame.

2 For emphasis:

The President *himself* wrote back to me.
The acting was good, but the play *itself* was tedious.

The reflexive pronouns are all independent pronouns (2.3).

2.3.4 *Demonstrative pronouns*

The demonstrative pronouns are:

Singular	**Plural**
this	these
that	those

They can be used independently as the Subject or Object in a sentence, where they refer to something in the surrounding context:

This (S) is a beautiful place.
Did you enjoy *that* (DO)?
That (S) was fun.
I don't like *these* (DO).

They can also be used dependently, before a noun (*this* book, *these* books, etc) where they act as determiners (2.2.6).

2.3.5 *Quantifying pronouns and numerals*

The class of quantifying pronouns is a very large one, and includes those shown Table 2.4:

Table 2.4 Quantifying pronouns

a couple of*	either	more
a few	enough	most
a lot**	few	much
a lot of*	least	neither
a single*	less	other
all	little	others**
another	lots**	plenty of*
both	lots of*	several
each	many	some

In Table 2.4, pronouns marked with a single asterisk (*) are dependent (2.3) and can only be used before a noun:

a couple of days
a lot of money
lots of money
a single day
plenty of time

Those marked with a double asterisk (**) are independent, and can only be used as Subject or Object of a sentence:

A lot (S) has been written about Donald Trump's hair.
Don't buy any more meat – we have *lots* (DO) in the freezer.
That's what I think, but *others* (S) may disagree.

Note that *a lot* can also be an adverb (2.7) meaning *often*: 'He goes abroad *a lot* on business'.

In Table 2.4, pronouns that are unmarked can be used both dependently and independently:

Dependent	**Independent**
All students must take the course.	*All* is well.
A few students were absent.	Most people agreed, but *a few* disagreed.

Few people give him credit.	Many are called, but *few* are chosen.
Many people are out of work.	*Many* are called, but few are chosen.
There is not *enough* time.	You have said *enough*.
Paul earns the *least* money.	The *least* you can do is wait.
I need *more* time.	We must do *more* to combat racism.
Other people are different	They left one after the *other*.
Some people save money.	*Some* prefer to spend money.

Among the quantifying pronouns, we also include the following four sets of pronouns:

any	every	no	some
anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anyone	everyone	none	someone
anything	everything	no one	something
		nothing	

Most of these can only be used independently:

I don't need *anything* (DO).
Everybody (S) came to the party.
The floodwater ruined *everything* (DO).
No one (S) likes to be deceived.
Nothing (S) has changed.
I expected a reply but *none* (S) came.
Did you meet *somebody* (DO)?

Every and *no* can only be used dependently, before a noun:

Every student must take the course.
No passengers were injured in the collision.

Each can be used both dependently and independently:

Each child wore a fancy costume.
Each of the contestants was given a prize.

Similarly, *any* can be used both dependently (Do you need *any* money?) and independently (I don't know *any* of those people.).

See also: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

The Two *Mores*

It is important to distinguish between pronoun *more* and adverb *more*. Pronoun *more* means 'a greater quantity', as in *I need more money*, and acts as a determiner (2.2.6) before a noun. Adverb *more* is a degree adverb (2.7.3) and means 'to a higher degree'. It is used before an adjective (This is *more* exciting.) or another adverb (*More* recently, I visited Paris.). When *more* occurs before an adjective+noun combination, its function (and meaning) can be ambiguous, as in *We need more skilled workers*. This could mean *We need more workers who are skilled* (pronoun *more*), or *We need workers who are more skilled* (adverb *more*).

Quantifying a noun is most directly achieved through the use of **numerals**, which are divided into two subclasses:

Cardinal numerals: one, two, three . . ., a hundred . . ., a thousand . . .
Ordinal numerals: first, second, third . . ., next . . ., last

As determiners (2.2.6), cardinal numerals express the precise quantity of the noun that follows them:

He has *one* son and *two* daughters.

They can also be used independently, without a following noun:

One of his children is a boy.

The ordinal numerals express a position in an ordered sequence:

Amy was awarded *first* prize.
On our *last* day in London, we visited Harrods.

They can also be used independently:

Prince William is *second* in line to the throne.
The *last* to arrive was the bride herself.

2.3.6 *Relative pronouns*

The relative pronouns are:

who, whom, whose, which, that

Relative pronouns introduce a relative clause (4.2.3). The relative clauses are bracketed in the examples below:

That's the boy [*who* won the prize].
That's the man [*whom* we met yesterday].
The problem [*which* we're facing] is very serious.
The thing [*that* worries me most] is the overdraft.

Who and *whom* are used to refer to humans, while *that* and *which* are used in all other contexts:

the boy *who* won the prize
the man *whom* we met yesterday
the prize *that*/*which* he won

Who is the subjective form, and is used when the pronoun functions as Subject (S) of the relative clause:

That's the boy [*who* (S) won the prize].
Compare: *The boy* (S) won the prize.

Whom is the objective form, and is used when the pronoun functions as Direct Object (DO) of the relative clause:

That's the man [*whom* (DO) we met yesterday]
Compare: We met *the man* (DO) yesterday.

Whom is generally considered to be quite formal nowadays, and is often omitted in casual conversation: *That's the man we met yesterday*. *Whom* is also used after a preposition (2.8), again in fairly formal contexts, especially in writing:

the person on *whom* we rely
the people with *whom* I work
the person to *whom* it is addressed

In less formal contexts, *whom* is often omitted altogether, and the preposition is moved to the end:

the person we rely on
the people I work with
the person it is addressed to

The Four *That*s

It is important to distinguish between the relative pronoun *that* and the **Complementizer** *that* (4.2.5). Relative pronoun *that* introduces a relative clause, and it can usually be replaced by *which*:

The book *that* I am reading is fascinating. → The book *which* I am reading is fascinating.

In contrast, the Complementizer *that* introduces a *that*-clause and cannot be replaced by *which*:

Everyone knows that smoking is dangerous. → *Everyone knows *which* smoking is dangerous.

There are also two other *that*s: the demonstrative pronoun *that* (2.3.4) acts as a determiner in noun phrases (I enjoyed *that* book; 3.6.2), or as the Head of a noun phrase (*That* is a great book; 3.6.1). Finally, the degree adverb *that* (2.7.2) functions as Premodifier of an adjective (It was not *that* expensive) or of another adverb (I don't see him *that* often).

See also: Relative clauses (4.2.3)

2.3.7 *Nominal relative pronouns*

The nominal relative pronouns are:

what, whatever, whichever, whoever

They are used to introduce a **nominal relative clause** (4.2.4). The nominal relative clauses are bracketed in the following examples:

[*What* you need] is a long holiday.
Give him [*whatever* he wants].

Buy [*whichever* you prefer].
I want to see [*whoever* is in charge].

Whatever and *whichever* can also be used dependently, as determiners before a noun:

You can have the car in *whatever* colour you prefer.
Vote for *whichever* party has the best policies.

See also: Nominal relative clauses (4.2.4)

2.3.8 *Interrogative pronouns*

The interrogative pronouns are:

what, which, who, whom, whose

They are used to introduce a question:

What do you want?
Which dessert do you prefer?
Which is best, an iPhone or a Samsung?
Who told you that?
Whom did you meet? (formal)
Whose laptop is that?

When the pronoun *whose* is used dependently, before a noun, it corresponds to one of the dependent possessive forms *my*, *your*, *her*, etc (2.3.2):

Whose laptop is that? *That is my laptop.*

When it is used independently, it corresponds to one of the independent possessive forms *mine*, *your*, *hers*, etc:

Whose is that laptop? *That laptop is mine.*

2.3.9 *Pronoun* one

The pronoun *one* needs to be distinguished from the numeral *one* (2.3.5). Pronoun *one* has two distinct uses:

1 **Substitute *one*** is used to substitute for a noun that has previously been mentioned:

The black coat is nice but I prefer the green *one*. (*one* = *coat*)
This problem is a very complex *one*. (*one* = *problem*)
The house is not a modern *one*, but it is comfortable. (*one* = *house*)

Substitute *one* has the plural form *ones*:

The new songs are good, but I prefer the old ones. (ones = songs)

2 **Generic *one*** carries a generic meaning corresponding approximately to 'people in general':

One cannot expect miracles.
One puts on weight as *one* gets older.

Generic *one* has the possessive form *one's*:

When one has a cold, *one's* capillaries close to minimise heat loss.

The corresponding reflexive pronoun (2.3.3) is *oneself*:

One could easily find *oneself* out of a job.

Generic *one* is considered by many speakers to be unnecessarily formal, and it can often be replaced by *you*:

You could easily find *yourself* out of a job.

2.3.10 *Pronoun* it

The pronoun *it* has two major uses:

1 As a personal pronoun (2.3.1), *it* can replace a third-person singular noun with non-human reference:

The car skidded on ice. → *It* skidded on ice.

The possessive form (2.3.2) of personal pronoun *it* is *its*:

The dog wagged *its* tail.

2 *It* is also used in expressions relating to the weather and time:

It is cold today.
It rained last night.
It is four o'clock.
Is *it* time for tea?

This is called 'dummy *it*' or 'empty *it*', because it does not refer to anything in particular. It is also used, with even more vague reference, in many other expressions, including:

Hold *it*! (= Stop!)
Take *it* easy.
Can you make *it* to my party?

See also: Extraposition and postponement (4.7) and Cleft sentences (4.9)

2.4 Main verbs

Main verbs include:

believe	run	love
read	think	know
break	sleep	select
see	go	meet
destroy	think	work

Main verbs do not necessarily denote an 'action', as the verbs *believe*, *think*, and *know* illustrate. It is simpler to think of a verb as any word that can co-occur with the Subject *I*, as in *I believe . . .*, *I run . . .*, *I read . . .*, etc.

We distinguish main verbs from auxiliary verbs (2.5) such as *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*. Main verbs can occur as the only verb in a sentence:

Caroline *eats* pizza.

In contrast, an auxiliary verb such as *will* cannot occur as the only verb:

*Caroline *will* pizza.

Instead, an auxiliary verb always occurs with a main verb:

Caroline *will eat* pizza.

2.4.1 *The five verb forms*

Verbs have five forms:

1	**The base form**	Amy decided to *walk* to school.
2	**The *-s* form**	Amy *walks* to school.
3	**The past form**	Amy *walked* to school.
4	**The *-ed/-en* form**	Amy has *walked* to school.
5	**The *-ing* form**	Amy is *walking* to school.

The endings *-s*, *-ed/-en*, and *-ing* are called **inflections** (5.8). The inflections are added to the base form of the verb.

In regular verbs, two of the forms are identical: the past form (*walked*) and the *-ed/-en* form (*walked*). However, we must distinguish between these two forms because they are not always identical. For example, the irregular verb *write* has the following five forms:

1	**The base form**	Amy loves to *write* poetry.
2	**The *-s* form**	Amy *writes* poetry.
3	**The past form**	Amy *wrote* a poem.
4	**The *-ed/-en* form**	Amy has *written* a poem.
5	**The *-ing* form**	Amy is *writing* a poem.

See the Appendix for a list of irregular verbs, together with their five forms.

In the following sections, we look at each of the five verb forms in turn.

2.4.2 *The base form*

The base form of a verb is the form that is listed in dictionaries, e.g. *eat*, *walk*, *talk*, *run*. The base form of a verb is used:

1 After the infinitive marker *to*:

We decided to *walk*.
Amy loves to *write* poetry.

The combination of *to* and the base form of a verb is called the **infinitive**.

2 In the present tense, with all Subjects except *he*, *she*, or *it* (the third-person singular pronouns, 2.3.1):

I *walk* we *walk*
you *walk* they *walk*

Compare:

he/she/it *walks* = the *-s* form (2.4.3)

3 In imperative sentences (4.4.3):

Walk quickly.
Don't *move*.
Leave your coat here.

4 In the subjunctive (3.7.8):

I demand that she *resign* immediately.

2.4.3 *The -s form*

The *-s* form of a verb is produced by adding *-s* to the base form. It is used only in the present tense, when the Subject of the verb is third-person singular (2.3.1):

She *walks* to school.
Amy *writes* poetry.

Compare:

I *walk* to school. = the base form (2.4.2)

2.4.4 *The past form*

The past form of a verb is produced by adding *-ed* to the base form. It is used for the past tense, with all Subjects:

I *cooked* dinner last night.
You *cooked* dinner last night.
David *cooked* dinner last night.
We *cooked* dinner last night.
The children *cooked* dinner last night.

Irregular verbs form the past in a variety of ways:

They *caught* the train at 8am.
She *took* a bus to the city centre.
They *left* at 12.

See the Appendix for a list of irregular verbs, together with their five forms.

2.4.5 *The* -ed/-en *form*

The term '*-ed/-en*' is used to describe the *-ed* ending of regular verbs (was *destroyed*, has *betrayed*), the *-en* ending of irregular verbs (was *written*, has *stolen*), as well as the endings that we find on even more irregular verbs (was *caught*, has *cut*, was *kept*, was *done*, has *found*). The *-ed/-en* form is used:

1 After the passive auxiliary *be* (2.5.3):

The movie was *directed* by the Coen brothers.
The Queen was *shown* to her seat.
Our suitcases were *taken* from the hotel.
Two new songs were *commissioned* for the final version.

2 After the perfective auxiliary *have* (2.5.5):

The Coen brothers have *directed* many movies.
The Mayor has *shown* the Queen to her seat.
Someone had *taken* our suitcases.
The producer has *commissioned* two new songs.

3 In subordinate clauses (4.2):

Published in 2017, the book became a best-seller.
Stolen last year, the painting was recovered by police in Amsterdam.

2.4.6 *The* -ing *form*

The *-ing* form of a verb is produced by adding *-ing* to the base form. This applies whether the verb is regular or irregular. The *-ing* form is used:

1 After the progressive auxiliary *be* (2.5.4):

She is *walking* to school.
Alan was *sleeping* when I arrived.

2 In subordinate clauses (4.2):

Paul slammed the door, *bringing* the ceiling down.

2.4.7 *Irregular verbs*

Many of the most common verbs in English are irregular. This means that their past form and their *-ed/-en* form are not produced in the usual way (that is, by adding *-ed/-en* to the base form). For instance, the verbs *bring*, *choose*, and *think* are irregular:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing
choose	chooses	chose	chosen	choosing
think	thinks	thought	thought	thinking

The irregular verbs display a great diversity of spelling in the past form and in the *-ed/-en* form (see Appendix). However, we can distinguish the following major groups:

1 The base form ends in *d*, and the past form and the *-ed/-en* form end in *t*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bend	bends	bent	bent	bending
build	builds	built	built	building
send	sends	sent	sent	sending
spend	spends	spent	spent	spending

2 The base form has *i*, the past form has *a*, and the *-ed/-en* form has *u*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
begin	begins	began	begun	beginning
drink	drinks	drank	drunk	drinking
sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
swim	swims	swam	swum	swimming

3 The base form has *ee* or *ea*, and the past form and the *-ed/-en* form have *e*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bleed	bleeds	bled	bled	bleeding
feed	feeds	fed	fed	feeding

keep	keeps	kept	kept	keeping
leave	leaves	left	left	leaving

4 The base form is identical to the past form and the *-ed/-en* form:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
cut	cuts	cut	cut	cutting
hit	hits	hit	hit	hitting
put	puts	put	put	putting
quit	quits	quit	quit	quitting

5 The past form and the *-ed/-en* form are identical, and end in *-ought* or *-aught*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing
buy	buys	bought	bought	buying
catch	catches	caught	caught	catching
teach	teaches	taught	taught	teaching

2.4.8 *Regular and irregular variants*

Some irregular verbs have regular variants, which may be used for both the past form and the *-ed/-en* form. In the following examples, both the regular *dreamed* and the irregular *dreamt* are used as the past form:

Regular: She *dreamed* she was on a hill overlooking the sea.
Irregular: I can't remember what I *dreamt* last night.

Similarly, the two variants *learned* and *learnt* are used as the *-ed/-en* form in these examples:

Regular: The government should have *learned* from the economic downturn.
Irregular: Some governments have *learnt* valuable lessons from the recession.

The following verbs also have regular and irregular variants:

burn:	*burned/burnt*	dive:	*dived/dove*
knit:	*knitted/knit*	lean:	*leaned/leant*

leap:	*leaped/leapt*	prove:	*proved/proven*
smell:	*smelled/smelt*	spell:	*spelled/spelt*
spill:	*spilled/spilt*	spoil:	*spoiled/spoilt*

In general, American English tends to prefer the regular variants (e.g. *I dreamed last night* rather than *I dreamt last night*).

2.4.9 *The verb* be

The verb *be* is very irregular, and exhibits a total of eight different forms. These forms are shown in Table 2.5:

Table 2.5 The forms of the verb *be*

Base form	Present tense forms	Past tense forms	*-ed/-en* form	*-ing* form
be	I *am*	I *was*	*been*	*being*
	you *are*	you *were*		
	he/she/it *is*	he/she/it *was*		
	we *are*	we *were*		
	you *are*	you *were*		
	they *are*	they *were*		

Many of these forms are contracted in informal use:

I *am*	→	I'*m*
he/she/it *is*	→	he/she/it's
you/we/they *are*	→	you/we/they'*re*

Some of the forms also have contracted negative counterparts:

he/she/it *is not*	→	he/she/it *isn't*
he/she/it *was not*	→	he/she/it *wasn't*
we/you/they *are not*	→	we/you/they *aren't*
we/you/they *were not*	→	we/you/they *weren't*

In British English, the form *aren't* is used as a contraction of *am not* in tag questions (1.9):

I am right about that, *aren't* I?

2.4.10 *Multi-word verbs*

Multi-word verbs are combinations of a verb and one or more other words. The combinations function like a single verb. We distinguish three types:

1 **Phrasal verbs** are combinations of a verb and an adverb (2.7):

The music *faded away* as we left the station.
The engine *cut out* just before landing.
Weigh up all the factors before making a decision.
Jeremy has been *trying out* the car in the Alps.

2 **Prepositional verbs** are combinations of a verb and a preposition (2.8):

I'll *look into* the matter immediately.
Amy doesn't *approve of* smoking.
The barrister *called for* a unanimous verdict.
Paul is *looking after* his sister.

3 **Phrasal-prepositional verbs** are combinations of a verb, an adverb, and a preposition:

I won't *put up with* this noise any longer.
I *went along with* their ideas for the sake of peace.
Members of the Huntu tribe *shy away from* violence.
Don't *give in to* his demands.

In some cases, a (slightly) more formal single verb can replace a multi-word verb:

Jeremy has been *trying out* the car.	→	Jeremy has been *testing* the car.
I'll *look into* the matter.	→	I'll *investigate* the matter.
I won't *put up with* this noise.	→	I won't *tolerate* this noise.

2.4.11 *Light verbs*

Many of the most frequent main verbs in English are called 'light verbs', because they are semantically 'light'. That is, they have a very vague meaning in themselves, and only acquire full meaning from the surrounding context. Among the most common light verbs are *do*, *get*, *give*, and *have*. For example:

She *is doing* her hair.
I'm *doing* a crossword.

She is *doing* French at college.
She *did* very well.

We must *get* the midday news.
Remember to *get* a newspaper.
I *got* the feeling he was lying.

She *gave* him a kiss.
She *gave* a shout.
She *gave* a sigh.
It *gives* me a headache.

I'm *having* a rest.
We are *having* lunch.
I'm *having* a terrible time.

Have a look at this.

I *have* an appointment for 3pm.
They are *having* an argument.

As with multi-word verbs (2.4.10), some light verb constructions can be replaced by a corresponding single verb:

I am *doing* a crossword.	→	I am *solving* a crossword.
She is *doing* French at college.	→	She is *studying* French at college.
She *gave* a sigh.	→	She *sighed*.
I am *having* a rest.	→	I am *resting*.

2.5 Auxiliary verbs

In section 2.4 we introduced the distinction between a main verb such as *believe*, *eat*, *love*, and an auxiliary verb such as *can*, *may*, *might*, *will*. We said that a main verb can occur alone in a sentence:

Caroline *eats* pizza.

while an auxiliary verb such as *will* cannot occur alone:

*Caroline *will* pizza.

Auxiliary verbs are of two types:

Modal verbs: *can/could*, *may/might*, *will/would*, *shall/should*, *must*
Primary verbs: *be*, *have*, *do*

The auxiliary verb (Aux) always comes before the main verb (V):

Paul *can* (Aux) play (V) the guitar.
Amy *will* (Aux) graduate (V) in June.
The ambulance *is* (Aux) coming (V).
Tom *has* (Aux) lost (V) his keys.
I *did* (Aux) tell (V) you.

Auxiliary verbs can co-occur, up to a maximum of four, though that number is rarely reached:

Amy *should* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *graduated* (V) by then.
Paul *has* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *working* (V) hard lately.
The train *might* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *delayed* (V).
The victim *may* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *being* (Aux) *bullied* (V).

See also: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (**3.7.2**)

2.5.1 *Modal auxiliary verbs*

The **modal auxiliary** verbs (or 'modals') are:

Present tense	**Past tense**
can	could
may	might
shall	should
will	would
must	

Here are some examples of the modals in use:

We *can* visit the park if the weather is fine.
She *could* sense that something was wrong.
Susan *may* be late tomorrow morning.
I *might* see you again before I leave.
You *must* try a little harder.
I *shall* speak to him on his return.
David *should* join the army.
The play *will* open on 17 March.
I *would* love a game of tennis.

They have the following negative contracted forms:

cannot/can't	couldn't
mayn't (very rare)	mightn't
shan't (BrE, rare)	should
won't	wouldn't
mustn't	

Traditional grammars made a sharp distinction between *shall* and *will*. They recommended that *shall* should be used to express future time with *I* as Subject ('I *shall* arrive at six'), and that *will* should be used with all other Subjects ('He *will* arrive at six'). The reverse was recommended when expressing intention: 'I *will* work hard', but 'He *shall* work hard'. In fact, these distinctions no longer apply in daily use, if they ever did apply. The word *shall* has more or less disappeared from American English, and there is evidence that it is also in decline in British English, except perhaps in the most formal contexts. *Will* is the preferred form in both varieties.

2.5.2 *The meanings of modal auxiliaries*

The modal auxiliary verbs express a very wide range of meanings, which we divide into the following three types:

1 Deontic meaning

Deontic meaning is concerned with permission, obligation/duty, and prediction:

Permission:

You *may* go in now.
You *can* go out when you've finished your homework.
Years ago, people *could* cross the border without a visa.

Obligation/duty:

You *must* be in bed by ten.
Safety *should* be our top priority.
The government *shall* protect the rights of citizens.

Permission and obligation/duty are also expressed by some of the semi-auxiliary verbs (2.5.7):

You *have to* be in bed by ten.
Safety *ought to* be our top priority.
You *need to* plug it in first.

Prediction:

I *will* see you later.
I *shall* write as soon as I can.
We *won't* stay very long.

2 Epistemic meaning

Epistemic meaning is concerned with the speaker's belief in the likelihood that something is true, based on contextual knowledge:

He left home three hours ago. He *should* be here by now.
There's a light on in Amy's room. She *must* be working late.
I found a cat in the drainpipe. That *could* be your problem.
Paul has been studying hard. He *must* be very tired.
He said he didn't steal the money, but he *would* say that, *wouldn't* he?
You want 50%? You *cannot* be serious! / You *must* be joking!

Epistemic meanings are also expressed by some of the modal adverbs (2.7.1):

There's a light on in Amy's room. *Possibly* she's working late.
I found a cat in the drainpipe. *Maybe* that's your problem.
Paul has been studying hard. *Undoubtedly* he's very tired.

3 Dynamic meaning

Dynamic meaning is concerned with an ability to do or to be something:

I *can* speak French.
Snow *can* cause serious problems for motorists.
My grandfather *could* dance the Charleston.
Children *can* be very cruel sometimes.
We *can't* take off without a pilot.

2.5.3 *The passive auxiliary* be

The passive auxiliary *be* is used to form a passive sentence (1.7):

Passive: The play *was* written by Tom Stoppard.

Compare:

Active: Tom Stoppard wrote the play.

The passive auxiliary is followed by the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (2.4.5).

The verb *get* is sometimes used as a passive auxiliary:

> It started to rain as I left the house, and I *got* soaked.
> At the end of the film, the villain *gets* shot by the police.

2.5.4 *The progressive auxiliary* be

As the name suggests, the progressive auxiliary *be* is used to denote activity in progress:

> Paul *is* studying French at college.
> Paul *was* studying French when I met him.

The progressive auxiliary is followed by the *-ing* form of a verb (2.4.6).

See also: Aspect (3.7.6)

2.5.5 *The perfective auxiliary* have

The perfective auxiliary is *have*:

> Peter *has* injured his foot.
> Caroline *has* finished her dissertation.
> We *had* discussed the matter at an earlier meeting.
> I *had* met Mr Callaghan before.

The perfective auxiliary is followed by the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (2.4.5).

See also: Aspect (3.7.6)

2.5.6 *Auxiliary* do

The auxiliary verb *do* has three main uses:

1 In forming questions:

> *Do* you like Robert?
> *Did* you enjoy the match?
> *Does* your father use a computer?

2 In forming negative statements, with *not*:

I *do* not want it.
She *did* not graduate.
Simon *does* not eat meat.

3 In negative imperatives, with *not*:

Do not touch that.
Do not move.

In informal use, *do not* is often contracted to *don't*:

Don't touch that.
Don't move.

See also: The Operator (3.7.1)

2.5.7 *Semi-auxiliary verbs*

Semi-auxiliary verbs (or 'semi-auxiliaries') are multi-word auxiliary verbs, including:

be about to	happen to	seem to
be going to	have to	tend to
be supposed to	mean to	used to
be bound to	need to	ought to

Like the other auxiliaries, semi-auxiliaries occur before a main verb:

The meeting *is about to* start.
David *is going to* retire at the end of August.
MPs *are supposed to* declare their financial interests.
Paul's car broke down so he *had to* walk.
Ottoman art *tends to* be very stylized.
The statue *is meant to* symbolise harmony.

2.6 Adjectives

Adjectives express a quality or attribute of a noun:

a *happy* child	a *surly* person	*toxic* waste
an *old* man	*defective* brakes	a *greedy* child
a *red* flag	a *dangerous* road	a *large* hotel

In certain uses, however, the attribute is not directly related to the noun itself, and the adjective must be interpreted in a different way. Compare the following pairs:

an *old* car ('a car that is old')
an *old* school friend ('a former school friend')

a *small* man ('a man who is small')
a *small* businessman ('a man with a small business')

a *heavy* suitcase ('a suitcase that is heavy')
a *heavy* drinker ('someone who drinks heavily')

a *beautiful* girl ('a girl who is beautiful')
a *beautiful* singer ('someone who sings beautifully')

In some cases, too, the adjective describes only part of the noun:

a *red* pen ('a pen with red ink')
a *sharp* knife ('a knife with a sharp blade')
a *hot* bath ('a bath with hot water')

Typical adjective endings include:

-al	biological, classical, clinical, environmental, theatrical
-ble	accessible, comfortable, possible, responsible, terrible
-ive	constructive, deceptive, defective, furtive, interactive
-ous	continuous, delicious, enormous, rigorous, serious
-y	funny, greedy, happy, rainy, tasty, weary

Most adjectives can occur before a noun, as its Premodifier (3.6.3), or after a linking verb, as the Subject Complement (1.6.2):

a *violent* storm	The storm was *violent*.
a *delicious* meal	The meal is *delicious*.

In a small number of expressions, an adjective appears immediately after the noun, where it functions as a Postmodifier (3.6.4) of the noun:

the people *responsible*
the roadway *proper*
the money *available*
the people *concerned*

Adjectives can also modify a small number of pronouns (2.3). They always follow the pronoun:

something *terrible*
someone *new*
anything *better*
anyone *interesting*
nothing *special*
those *responsible*

2.6.1 *Gradable adjectives*

Most adjectives can take a modifying word, such as *fairly*, *very*, or *extremely*, before them:

fairly *cold* very *cold* extremely *cold*

The modifying word locates the adjective on a relative scale of intensity. In this example, the scale is from *fairly cold* to *extremely cold*. This characteristic of adjectives is called **gradability**. The modifying words (*fairly*, *very*, *extremely*) are called degree adverbs (see 2.7.2).

2.6.2 *Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives*

The adjective *cold* has two other forms, *colder* (the comparative form) and *coldest* (the superlative form). The form *cold* is called the base form. Many adjectives have these three forms. Here are some more examples:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
new	newer	newest
old	older	oldest
dark	darker	darkest
big	bigger	biggest

The comparative form is produced by adding an *-er* ending to the base form. The superlative form is produced by adding an *-est* ending, again to the base:

Base *cold* + *-er* = comparative *colder*
Base *cold* + *-est* = superlative *coldest*

Some adjectives form the comparative and superlative using *more* and *most* respectively:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
recent	more recent	most recent
important	more important	most important

In general, adjectives with one syllable in the base form take the *-er* and *-est* endings, while longer words use *more* and *most*:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
warm	warmer	warmest
hopeful	more hopeful	most hopeful
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
complicated	more complicated	most complicated

The adjectives *good* and *bad* have irregular comparative and superlative forms:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst

2.6.3 *Participial adjectives*

Participial adjectives have the *-ed/-en* or *-ing* endings that we normally associate with verbs (2.4.1):

a *complicated* process	an *amazing* achievement
a *crazed* expression	a *stolen* car
a *disabled* person	a *confusing* account
an *embarrassed* smile	a *fascinating* photograph
an *experienced* driver	a *rewarding* experience
a *talented* singer	a *disappointing* result

Most participial adjectives have a corresponding verb (*to complicate*, *to amaze*, etc), but some do not. For example, there is no verb **to talent*, corresponding to *a talented singer*.

Like other adjectives, participial adjectives may be gradable:

a very *complicated* process
an extremely *disappointing* result

See also: Adjective phrases (3.4)

2.6.4 *Nominal adjectives*

A number of adjectives behave like nouns, in the sense that they take the word *the* before them, and can function as the Subject or Object of a sentence:

The *homeless* need our help.
The *rich* are different.
The *elderly* need special care.
Medical staff attended the *wounded*.
The law should protect the *innocent* and punish the *guilty*.

On the other hand, nominal adjectives can take degree adverbs (2.7.2) before them, just like other adjectives:

The very *young* need constant care.
The obscenely *rich* should pay more taxes.
The critically *injured* were rushed to hospital.

This class also includes some nationalities: *the French*, *the Chinese*, *the British*. These nominal adjectives (referring to groups of people) are grammatically plural, but there are many others which are singular:

The *best* is yet to come.
The *unexpected* sometimes happens.
The *opposite* is true.
The *unthinkable* has occurred.

Nominal adjectives appear in many fixed expressions, after a preposition (2.8):

He fixed the heater for *free*.
I'll tell you in *private*.
They have nothing in *common*.
It went from the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*.

He's left his job for *good*.
Your account is in the *red*.
The convict is still on the *loose*.

2.7 Adverbs

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective (2.6):

Adjective	**Adverb**
certain	certainly
extreme	extremely
exact	exactly
lucky	luckily
mad	madly
quick	quickly
slow	slowly

Apart from these '*-ly* adverbs', the class as a whole is fairly 'formless', in the sense that most adverbs do not have any distinctive endings by which to recognise them. The following list of adverbs will illustrate this point:

afterwards	maybe	silently
again	more	soon
away	much	still
back	never	suddenly
extremely	now	then
fast	quietly	there
hard	quite	today
here	recently	unfortunately
less	seldom	very

At first glance, these adverbs do not appear to have much in common, but in fact, they may be subdivided into just two major types: circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1) and degree adverbs (2.7.2). We look at each type in the following two sections.

2.7.1 *Circumstantial adverbs*

Circumstantial adverbs convey information about the circumstances of an event or action. They function as Adjuncts (1.8) in sentence structure, and in that role they express the following range of meanings:

1 **Time** adverbs indicate when something happened, as well as frequency of occurrence:

We visited the museum *today*.
Afterwards we went for coffee.
Bernard phoned *again*.
I'm hoping to retire *soon*.
We *seldom* go into central London.

Other time adverbs include *always*, *immediately*, *lately*, *never*, *now*, *often*, *presently*, *previously*, *rarely*, *sometimes*, *then*, *tomorrow*, and *yesterday*.

Note the time adverbs *early* and *late*:

I get up *early*/*late*.

These words can also be used as adjectives (2.6):

I'm having an *early*/*late* lunch.

2 **Place** adverbs indicate a place or a direction:

Stand *here*.
She just turned and walked *away*.
The car shot *forward* when I released the clutch.
Don't look *back*.

Other place adverbs include *backwards*, *down*, *downwards*, *in*, *inside*, *out*, *outside*, *up*, and *upwards*.

3 **Manner** adverbs indicate how something happens:

The child was playing *happily* in the garden.
Amy works *hard* all day.
The thief crept *silently* along the roof.
The passengers waited *calmly* for the lifeboats.
Amy stroked the cat *gently*.

Other manner adverbs include *carefully*, *clearly*, *dangerously*, *heavily*, *heroically*, *patiently*, *quietly*, *quickly*, *rapidly*, *scientifically*, *slowly*, *softly*, and *spontaneously*.

Adverbs with the *-ly* ending often express manner, as in these examples. Note, however, that many adjectives (1.6) also end in *-ly*: *beastly*, *chilly*, *deadly*, *ghastly*, *homely*, *kindly*, *likely*, *stately*, *timely*.

4 **Stance** adverbs express the speaker's attitude towards what is happening:

Obviously, she doesn't care.
Fortunately, the door was not locked.
It's not his best movie, *frankly*.
Clearly, no one understood what Brexit would involve.

Among stance adverbs, the **modal adverbs** express the speaker's degree of certainty about what is being said:

Perhaps he is not coming.
Maybe he has missed the train.
We should *probably* wait a bit longer.
He is *definitely* not coming.

Other stance adverbs include *curiously*, *funnily (enough)*, *honestly*, *hopefully*, *ironically*, *luckily*, *oddly (enough)*, *predictably*, *regrettably*, *sadly*, *surprisingly*, *unfortunately*, *wisely*.

See also: The meanings of Adjuncts (1.8.1) and Modal auxiliary verbs (2.5.1)

2.7.2 *Degree adverbs*

Degree adverbs function as Premodifiers (3.2) of an adjective or another adverb. In that role, they are used to express the degree to which the adjective or adverb applies. The most common degree adverb is *very*:

very cold *very* suddenly
very good *very* soon

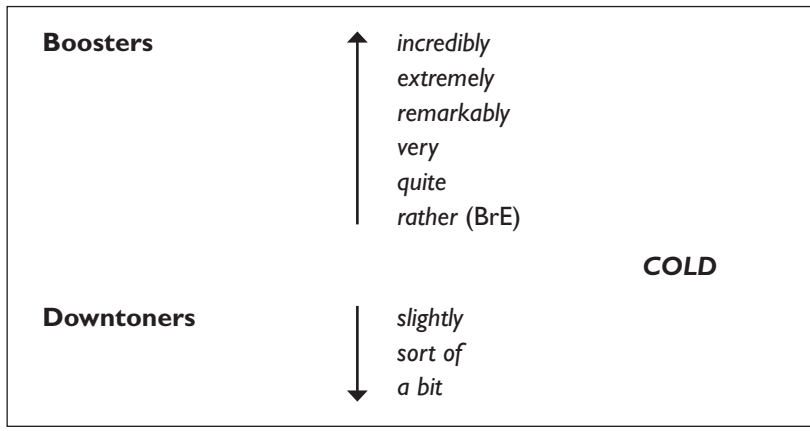
Other degree adverbs include *almost*, *completely*, *entirely*, *extremely*, *fairly*, *highly*, *quite*, *slightly*, *totally*, *utterly*.

Degree adverbs may be subdivided into **boosters**, which express a higher degree, and **downtoners**, which express a lower degree. The most general booster is *more*, and the most general downtoner is *less*. The adverb *as* is used to denote an equal degree:

Booster: Trump is *more* popular than Obama.
Equal degree: Trump is *as* popular as Obama.
Downtoner: Trump is *less* popular than Obama.

Other degree adverbs can be used to denote various positions on a sliding scale of intensity, as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Boosters and downtoners



With the comparative form of the adjective (*colder*), we use the degree adverb *much* (*much* colder). This applies also to comparative adverbs (*much* sooner) (2.7.3).

In informal use, and especially in speech, the words *pretty* and *that* are often used as degree adverbs:

The weather is *pretty* bad.
You'll have to move *pretty* quickly.
It's not *that* unusual.
Is it really *that* important?

See also: Adverb phrases (3.3) and Adjective phrases (3.4)

2.7.3 *Comparative adverbs and superlative adverbs*

Some adverbs exhibit three forms: the base form, the comparative form (ending in *-er*), and the superlative form (ending in *-est*):

Base form	**Comparative form**	**Superlative form**
John works *hard*.	Mary works *harder*.	Paul work *hardest*.
John arrived *early*.	Amy arrived *earlier*.	Paul arrived *earliest*.
John drives *fast*.	Amy drives *faster*.	Paul drives *fastest*.

The adverbs *badly* and *well* are irregular in these forms:

Base form	**Comparative form**	**Superlative form**
John played *badly*.	Amy played *worse*.	Paul played *worst*.
John did *well*.	Amy did *better*.	Paul did *best*.

The base form can take a wide range of degree adverbs (*very* hard, *extremely* hard, *fairly hard*, *too* hard), but these are not used with the comparative form (**very* harder). Instead, the comparative form usually takes *much* (*much* harder), or in informal use, one of the following multi-word degree adverbs:

	a bit	
You will have to work	*a lot*	harder.
	a good deal	

The superlative form *hardest* does not take a degree adverb because it already denotes the highest possible point on the scale.

2.8 Prepositions

The class of prepositions includes the following words:

about	below	in	to
across	between	into	toward(s)
after	by	of	under
against	down	off	until
at	during	on	up
before	for	over	with
behind	from	through	without

In themselves, prepositions are fairly meaningless, which is why they must be followed by another constituent to express a complete meaning:

after dark	*for* the children
across the road	*from* London
after the war	*under* suspicion
around the world	*with* mayonnaise
before my lunch	*without* fear

In these examples, the prepositions are followed by a noun phrase (3.6), and the combination of the two is called a prepositional phrase (3.5).

The major meanings of these phrases can be summarised as follows (the prepositional phrases are bracketed):

1 **Space** (location/direction/relative position):

We are travelling [*to* London].
He comes [*from* Australia].
We met Paul [*at* the station].
Amy found money [*under* the floorboards].
Put the mouse [*on* a mousepad].
The car skidded [*across* the motorway].
She leaned [*against* the door].
A river runs [*through* the valley].

2 **Time/duration:**

We're leaving [*at* 2pm].
He was born [*in* 1991].
I'll visit the library [*for* a few hours].
[*On* Wednesday] we have an exam.
He can't come [*before* the weekend].

3 **Cause/purpose:**

He does it [*for* his children].
He died [*of* pneumonia].
They are suffering [*from* fatigue].
She succeeded [*through* hard work].

4 **Accompaniment:**

The President arrived [*with* his entourage].
She won't go anywhere [*without* her mobile phone].

5 **Concession:**

He never reads anything [*except* Stephen King novels].
[*Despite* the rain], we had a good time.

The Two *To*s

It is important to distinguish between the preposition *to* and the infinitive *to*. Preposition *to* comes before a noun: 'We are traveling *to* London'. We know that this is a preposition because it

can be replaced by many other prepositions, e.g. *from* London, *around* London, *across* London, *through* London. In contrast, infinitive *to* comes before the base form (2.4.2) of a verb: 'I like *to* read'. We know that this is not a preposition because it cannot be replaced by any preposition: *I like *from* read, *I like *around* read. In fact, infinitive *to* cannot be replaced by anything. It is in a word class of its own, and it is always followed by the base form of a verb.

Prepositions can also be followed by a clause (4.1) in which the verb has the *-ing* form. The combination of the two forms a prepositional phrase (3.5). In the following examples, the prepositional phrases are bracketed:

[*After* eating breakfast], we go to school.
Download the app [*by* clicking on the icon].
You can order online [*without* leaving your home].

Multi-word prepositions are two- and three-word combinations which act as a unit:

according to	in accordance with
ahead of	in front of
apart from	in relation to
because of	in spite of
by means of	in terms of
due to	on behalf of

Like one-word prepositions, multi-word prepositions are also followed by either a noun phrase (3.6) or a clause (4.1):

[*Because of* the weather], the show has been cancelled.

I am writing to you [*on behalf of* the company].
Chelsea finished [*ahead of* Liverpool] in the Premier League.

My cat does very little, [*apart from* sleeping all day].
[*In terms of* building your career], a higher degree is always useful.

See also: Prepositional Phrases (**3.5**)

2.9 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used to link constituents together. There are two types:

1 **Coordinating conjunctions** are used to link constituents in a sentence. The main coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *but*, and *or*:

The weather was [cold] *and* [wet].
[Paul plays football] *and* [Amy plays tennis].
The children are [tired] *but* [happy].
[I read that book] *but* [I didn't enjoy it].
Would you prefer [coffee] *or* [tea]?
I'll stay for [two] *or* [three] days.

On coordination, see 4.3.

2 **Subordinating conjunctions** introduce clauses (4.1) that function as Adjuncts (1.8). The clauses are bracketed in the following examples.

Paul has to leave [*because* he has a dental appointment].
[*While* I was waiting], the rain stopped.
Just phone me [*if* you need any help].

Other subordinating conjunctions include:

although	once
considering	though
unless	whereas
when(ever)	whilst (BrE)

Multi-word subordinating conjunctions include the following:

as long as	given that	so long as
as soon as	in case	so that
as though	in order that	such that
even though	provided (that)	
except that	seeing that	

On subordinate clauses, see 4.2.

Exercises for Chapter 2

Exercise 2.1: Nouns and determiners (2.2)

Convert the following words into nouns by adding noun endings and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different nouns.

capitalise	develop	intervene	refer
argue	disappoint	occur	require
compensate	humiliate	offend	specialise
criticise	improvise	perceive	state

Exercise 2.2: Singular nouns and plural nouns (2.2.1)

Supply the plural form of each of the singular nouns listed below:

analysis	hypothesis
basis	medium
bureau	phenomenon
crisis	sister-in-law
criterion	stimulus
formula	wolf

Exercise 2.3: Determiners (2.2.6)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences:

1 You didn't understand my last question.
2 She worked in the law courts for seven years.
3 There were five other applicants for his job.
5 Most people enjoyed all those Harry Potter books.
6 Every person deserves our respect.
7 Some young people have never seen a typewriter.
8 Children should read more books and watch less television.

Exercise 2.4: Pronouns (2.3)

Complete the following sentences by supplying the correct form of the pronoun, as indicated after each sentence.

1 The banks gave _____ every opportunity to repay the loan. **Personal, 3rd-person plural.**
2 _____ borrowed more money than necessary. **Personal, 3rd-person singular, masculine.**
3 He only told _____ about it after he got into financial trouble. **Personal, 1st-person plural.**
4 Since the financial meltdown, _____ economy has been struggling. **Possessive, 1st-person plural.**
5 The central bank played _____ part in the recovery. **Possessive, 3rd-person singular, non-personal.**
6 The economy of Iceland was badly hit, but _____ is a special case. **Possessive, 3rd-person plural.**

Exercise 2.5: Pronouns (2.3)

Indicate whether the underlined pronouns are personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, or relative.

1 It was the worst holiday we ever had.
2 First, our luggage went missing.
3 That was not a good start.
4 Then our taxi driver took us to the wrong hotel.
5 Then Tom discovered he had lost his passport.
6 So we found ourselves with no luggage, no hotel, and no passport.
7 Eventually, we phoned the travel agent, who was very helpful.

Exercise 2.6: The five verb forms (2.4.1)

Indicate the form of the underlined verb in each of the following sentences:

1 Everyone understands ( ) the need to reduce ( ) carbon emissions.
2 If you care ( ) about the environment, take ( ) action now.
3 One way we all waste ( ) resources is by leaving ( ) lights switched on at home when we're not even there.

4 Governments have only recently realised ( ) that carbon emissions threaten ( ) our future.
5 In the 1990s, environmental groups tried ( ) to raise ( ) our awareness of the problem.
6 They have given ( ) us a lot to think ( ) about.

Exercise 2.7: Irregular verbs (2.4.7)

Supply the correct form of the irregular verb in the following sentences:

1 I have _____ a wonderful book on astronomy. (find)
2 He may have _____ his partner. (tell)
3 The suspect was _____ to Paddington police station. (bring)
4 Large areas of the coastline were _____ away by the tsunami. (sweep)
5 I have been _____ to secrecy. (swear)
6 He _____ in cash for a brand-new Porsche. (pay)
7 It was _____ to be a surprise. (mean)
8 The castle had _____ empty for years. (lie)
9 The money was _____ into the lining of his jacket. (sew)
10 The animals were _____ to safety. (lead)

Exercise 2.8: Auxiliary verbs (2.5)

Indicate whether the underlined verbs are modal, passive, progressive, or perfective auxiliaries.

1 The Internet has revolutionised the way we do business.
2 Now we can order books, theatre tickets, and even clothes online.
3 Very soon, every home will have broadband Internet access.
4 The Internet is also changing the way we learn.
5 Online teaching materials can now be accessed from anywhere in the world.
6 In the future, all students may be taught online.
7 However, some teachers believe this would be disastrous for students.
8 They say the Internet should be used sparingly, and that real teachers can never be replaced by computers.
9 For people in remote areas, however, the Internet is really improving their access to education.
10 Distance learning has finally become a reality.

Exercise 2.9: Adjectives (2.6)

Convert the following words into adjectives by adding adjective endings, and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different adjectives.

cure	glory	music	reason
disruption	legend	nausea	religion
drizzle	love	periphery	tedium
geology	mass	question	wool

Exercise 2.10: Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives (2.6.2)

Supply the comparative and superlative forms of each of the following adjectives:

brilliant	handsome
clever	lucky
elegant	warm
fast	wonderful

Exercise 2.11: Adverbs (2.7)

Convert the following words into adverbs by adding *-ly*, and making any other necessary spelling changes.

absolute	capable	clear
demonstrable	dull	environmental
happy	lazy	legal
lucky	memorable	personal
terrible		

Exercise 2.12: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1)

In each of the following sentences, indicate the kind of meaning which is expressed by the underlined adverbs. Use the following abbreviations:

M = Manner P = Place S = Stance T = Time

1 The choir sang beautifully ( ).
2 We'll meet outside ( ) after the concert.
3 Amy tries really hard ( ) to be popular.
4 Strangely ( ), no one answered the phone.
5 He felt that he had been unfairly ( ) treated.
6 Paul doesn't feel well today ( ).
7 Hopefully ( ) no one was injured.
8 You can't park there ( ).

Exercise 2.13: Words and word classes (Chapter 2)

In the space provided, indicate the word class of the underlined words in the following passage. Use the following abbreviations:

Adj = adjective
Adv = adverb
Det = determiner
Aux = auxiliary verb
C = conjunction
Inf = infinitive *to*
N = noun
P = preposition
Pn = pronoun
V = main verb

Howard Carter is famous ( ) throughout the world as the ( ) man who ( ) discovered the tomb ( ) of the Egyptian king, Tutankamen ( ). His ( ) story is ( ) a very ( ) romantic one ( ), and it has ( ) inspired many ( ) Hollywood movies ( ). Carter was ( ) born in ( ) 1874 in England ( ). His father was ( ) an ( ) artist who ( ) specialised in drawing ( ) animal portraits for ( ) local ( ) landowners. He ( ) taught his son the basics ( ) of drawing and painting, and ( ) Howard became ( ) a fairly ( ) accomplished ( ) draughtsman. However, his main interest was ( ) in archaeology, and in ancient ( ) Egypt in particular. When ( ) he was just seventeen ( ) years old, Howard sailed to ( ) Alexandria in Egypt, hoping ( ) to ( ) find work as a ( ) draughtsman with ( ) the Egyptian Exploration Fund. His first ( ) job was at ( ) Bani Hassan, where he worked under ( ) the famous archaeologist ( ), Flinders Petrie. His role on that ( ) excavation was to ( ) copy ( ) the drawings which ( ) were ( ) found on ( ) the walls of ( ) the tombs. According to ( ) some ( ) sources, Howard worked hard ( ) all day, and then ( ) slept in ( ) the tombs at ( ) night.

Chapter 3

Phrases

3.1 What is a phrase?

In general use, the term 'phrase' usually refers to more than one word, as in 'once upon a time' or 'curiosity killed the cat'. In grammar, however, the term 'phrase' also includes single words. This is shown in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1, p. 2). The Hierarchy tells us:

Phrases

consist of **one or more**

Words

This means that even one word, in grammar, is considered to be a phrase. The reason for this is quite straightforward. It is because one word, like *books*, can be expanded to form larger constituents:

books
expensive books
expensive books about gardening

When we discussed word classes in the previous chapter, we referred to *books* as a noun, but at the phrase level it is a noun phrase. Similarly, *expensive books* and *expensive books about gardening* are noun phrases. Notice that they can all occupy the same position in a sentence, and they can all be replaced by the pronoun *them*:

Amy bought books.
expensive books.
expensive books about gardening.
them.

When we looked at pronouns in section 2.3, we said that they can replace nouns, but more correctly, they replace noun phrases.

There are five major phrase types, as shown in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1 The five phrase types

Phrase type	Examples
1. Noun phrase (NP)	books, expensive books, expensive books about gardening Main word: *books*
2. Adjective phrase (AdjP)	proud, very proud, very proud of her son Main word: *proud*
3. Adverb phrase (AdvP)	recently, very recently, very recently indeed Main word: *recently*
4. Prepositional phrase (PP)	on time, exactly on time Main word: *on*
5. Verb phrase (VP)	was stolen, has been stolen Main word: *stolen*

3.2 The basic structure of phrases

The first four phrase types shown in Table 3.1 all have the same potential three-part structure:

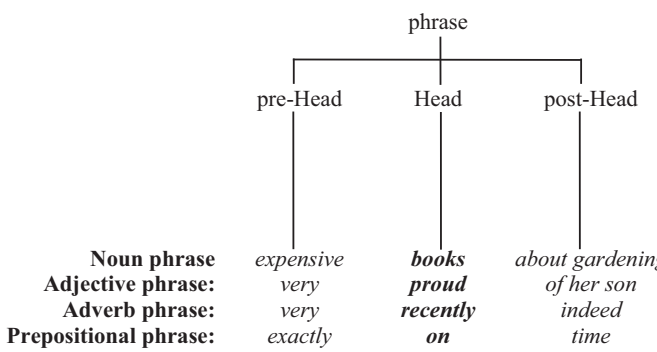


Figure 3.1

The fifth phrase type, the verb phrase (VP), is quite different from the other four in terms of structure. We will look at verb phrases in 3.7.

The structures shown in Figure 3.1 are 'potential' because phrases do not always have all three parts. However, they will at least have the 'main' word (in bold), which is called the **Head** of the phrase. The Head determines the phrase type: if the Head is a noun, the phrase is a noun phrase; if the Head is an adjective, the phrase is an adjective phrase; and so on. This means that wherever these words appear, they function as the Head of their own phrases. So every noun is the Head of a NP, every adjective is the Head of an AdjP, and so on. This will be important when we come to draw tree diagrams, in section 3.3 below.

The pre-Head constituent is called the **Premodifier**, and the post-Head constituent is called the **Postmodifier**. Prepositional phrases are slightly different: they do not take Postmodifiers, but Complements instead, for reasons that we will discuss in 3.5.

Notice that the terms Head, Premodifier, and Postmodifier are written with an initial upper-case letter. This is because they are grammatical functions, not forms (1.3). In *expensive books about gardening*, the function of Head is performed by the noun *books*; in *very proud of her son*, the function of Premodifier is performed by the adverb *very*.

The Head of a phrase is the only constituent that cannot be omitted. If we omit the Head, the phrase is incomplete. For example:

Amy bought	expensive books about gardening.	**complete**
	~~expensive~~ books about gardening.	**complete**
	*expensive ~~books~~ about gardening.	**incomplete**
	expensive books ~~about gardening~~.	**complete**

Therefore, the Head of the phrase *expensive books about gardening* is *books*. And since *books* is a noun, the whole constituent is a noun phrase.

Similarly, in an adjective phrase:

Amy	is very proud of her son.	**complete**
	~~very~~ proud of her son.	**complete**
	*very ~~proud~~ of her son.	**incomplete**
	very proud ~~of her son~~.	**complete**

Therefore, the Head of the phrase *very proud of her son* is *proud*. Since *proud* is an adjective, the whole phrase is an adjective phrase.

Prepositional phrases are slightly different, in that only the Premodifier (the word before the preposition) can be omitted:

Our train arrived	exactly on time.	**complete**
	~~exactly~~ on time.	**complete**
	* exactly ~~on~~ time.	**incomplete**
	* exactly on ~~time~~.	**incomplete**

In a prepositional phrase, both the Head and what follows it are obligatory constituents (3.5).

In the following sections, we will look at each of the phrase types in turn, beginning with those that are structurally simplest: adverb phrases (3.3), adjective phrases (3.4), and prepositional phrases (3.5). Then we discuss noun phrases (3.6) and verb phrases (3.7), which can show considerable structural complexity.

3.3 Adverb phrases

Adverb phrases (AdvP) are the simplest type of phrase, so it is appropriate to start with them. They usually consist of just a Head (Figure 3.2), which is always an adverb (2.7):

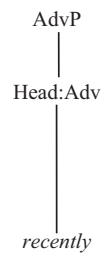


Figure 3.2

The Head can then be premodified by another adverb phrase (Figure 3.3):

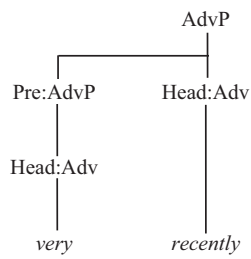


Figure 3.3

The Head can also take a Postmodifier, which again is usually another adverb phrase (Figure 3.4):

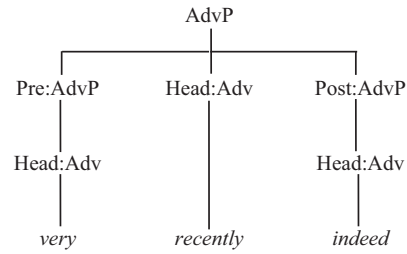


Figure 3.4

Notice in Figures 3.2–3.4 that each adverb phrase has its own Head.

Here are some more examples of adverb phrases. The adverb phrases are bracketed, and the Head of the whole phrase is underlined:

The rain fell [steadily].
The rain fell [quite steadily].
Amy works [hard].
Amy works [too hard].
[Very carefully] remove the lid.
Winter will be here [soon].
Winter will be here [soon enough].
[More recently], he worked in New York.

With comparative adverbs (2.7.3), the Premodifier *more* can have its own Premodifier *much*:

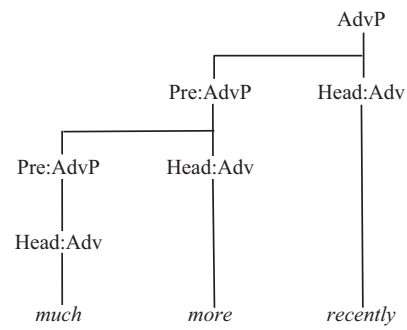


Figure 3.5

Figure 3.5 shows an example of embedding, which we discussed in section 1.2. Notice that the phrases here are not *much*, *more*, and *recently*. Instead, they are *much*, *much more*, and *much more recently*.

In 'measuring' or 'quantifying' expressions, the function of Premodifer is performed by a noun phrase (3.6):

[ten years earlier]
[a short time later]
[two minutes afterwards]

The words *enough* and *indeed* can function as Postmodifiers in an adverb phrase:

You didn't study [hard enough].
He walks [very fast indeed].

Postmodifiers in adverb phrases are common in comparative constructions (4.2.6):

Amy arrived [earlier than I did].
He worked here [more recently than I realised].
It could happen [sooner than you think].

The Postmodifiers in these examples are prepositional phrases (3.5).

3.3.1 *The functions of adverb phrases*

Adverbs themselves always function as the Head of an adverb phrase. Then the adverb phrase has the following major functions:

1 Adjunct (1.7):

Park the car [there].
[Usually] we take a bus.
He finished the job [remarkably quickly].
Summer will be here [very soon].

2 Premodifier of an adjective (2.6):

[very] old
[extremely] rich
[rather] warm
[pretty] good

[much more] interesting
[far less] appealing

3 Premodifer of an adverb (2.7):

[quite] gradually
[so] beautifully
[totally] unexpectedly
[too] casually
[very] luckily

4 Premodifier of a preposition (2.8):

[immediately] after the game
[exactly] on time
[slightly] above the average

3.4 Adjective phrases

The Head of an adjective phrase (AdjP) is always an adjective (Figure 3.6):

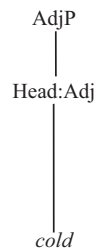


Figure 3.6

The phrase may also contain an adverb phrase as Premodifier:

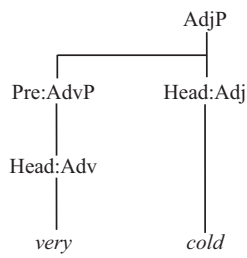


Figure 3.7

The Premodifier in an adjective phrase is most commonly a degree adverb (2.7.1):

[fairly new]
[very useful]
[extremely cold]

Adjective phrases also take adverb phrases as Postmodifiers:

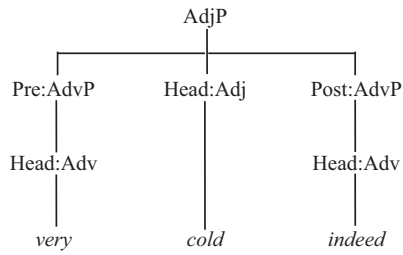


Figure 3.8

Here are some more examples of adjective phrases. The Adjective phrases are bracketed, and the Head of the whole phrase is underlined:

Amy is [good].
Amy is [good at English].
Amy is [exceptionally good at English]
He was found [guilty].
He was found [guilty of murder].
Paul is [crazy].
Paul is [totally crazy].
Paul is [totally crazy about football].
Jane is [anxious].
Jane is [very anxious].
Jane is [very anxious about the exam].

With some adjectives, a Postmodifier is usually required:

Amy is [fond of children].
The patient is [unable to walk].
He was fully [aware of the consequences].
He seems [very reluctant to spend money].
War is [unlikely to break out].

In expressions of measurement and age, a noun phrase (3.6) may function as a Premodifier in an adjective phrase:

[three months old]
[a metre long]
[10 millimeters wide]

3.4.1 *Comparative constructions*

Simple comparatives (2.6.2) are formed with an *-er* ending on the Head adjective:

Paul is getting [taller].
It's [colder] today.

If a standard of comparison is involved, it is expressed by the Postmodifier:

Paul is [taller than Amy].
Today is [colder than yesterday].

The Postmodifers in these examples (*than Amy*, *than yesterday*) are prepositional phrases (3.5).

The Head can also take a Premodifier:

Paul is [much taller than Amy].
Paul is [two inches taller than Amy]
Today is [slightly colder than yesterday].
Today is [two degrees colder than yesterday].

Adjectives that do not take the *-er* ending use *more*, *less*, and *as* to form comparative phrases:

Amy is [more industrious than Paul].
Paul is [less industrious than Amy].
Amy is [as industrious as Paul].

The Premodifiers *more*, *less*, and *as* can have their own Premodifiers:

Amy is [much more industrious than Paul].
Paul is [slightly less industrious than Amy].
Amy is [just as industrious as Paul].

The Premodifiers *much*, *slightly*, and *just* premodify the adverb, not the adjective. They form an AdvP with *more*, *less*, and *as*, as shown in Figure 3.9.

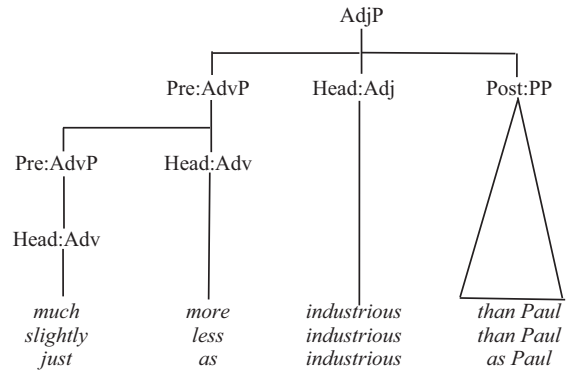


Figure 3.9

If the Head adjective has a Premodifier *too* or *so*, it takes a clause (4.1) as Postmodifier:

Grandad is [too old to dance].	***to*-clause** (4.2.1)
Grandad is [so old that he cannot dance].	***that*-clause** (4.2.5)

3.4.2 *The functions of adjective phrases*

All adjectives function as the Head of an adjective phrase. Then the adjective phrase can perform the following grammatical functions:

1 Subject Complement (1.5):

Our aunt is [quite ill].
You were [very lucky].
My old teacher seemed [really happy to see me].

2 Premodifier of a noun (3.6.3):

Emily was wearing a [very old] dress.
I've used a [slightly different] recipe this time.
She's a [rather boring] person.

Note that if the adjective phrase contains a Postmodifier, it cannot function as the Premodifier of a noun:

The child is [afraid of snakes]. → *An [afraid of snakes] child

3 Postmodifier of a pronoun beginning with *any-*, *no-*, *some-* (2.3.5):

Did he say anything [interesting]?
Something [very strange] has happened.
There is nothing [particularly unusual] in that.

4 Object Complement (1.6.5):

We painted the walls [red].
The new wallpaper makes the room [much brighter].
The Gulf Stream keeps our climate [fairly mild].
The experience made her [reluctant to trust people].

3.5 Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases (PP) are different from the other phrase types in one important respect. The Head of a PP cannot occur alone. It must be followed by another constituent, which is called the **Prepositional Complement** (PC). The basic structure of a PP is shown in Figure 3.10:

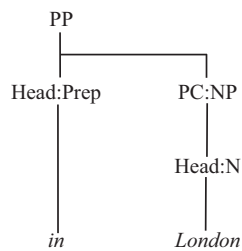


Figure 3.10

The Prepositional Complement is most commonly a noun phrase (3.6), as in the following examples. The PPs are bracketed and the Head is underlined in each case:

Paul is crazy [about football].
My dad works [at the post office].
She lives [across the street].
Hamlet was written [by Shakespeare].
We can talk [during the break].
They are travelling [from Paris] tonight.
We need a loaf [of bread].
The ball went [over the crossbar].
Come [with me].
He left [without his coat].

Some prepositions can also take an *-ing* clause (4.2.1) as Prepositional Complement:

[after breakfast] PC = noun phrase
[after eating breakfast] PC = clause

Here are some more examples of *-ing* clauses functioning as PC:

You can reach it [by standing on a chair].
Shop online [without leaving your home].
It's a program [for cleaning your hard disk].
I need to find a way [of making money].

In expressions of location or time, the PC may be an adverb phrase:

It would be better to start [from here].
Park your car [over there].
I have not seen him [since then].

Premodifiers of PP Heads are relatively rare, but some examples are shown in Figure 3.11.

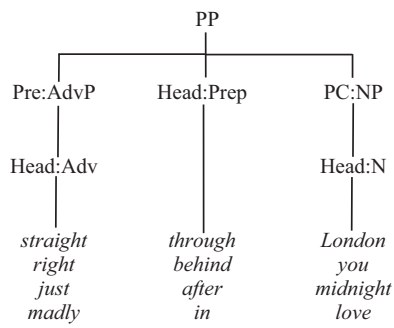


Figure 3.11

In measuring or quantifying expressions, a noun phrase (3.6) can function as Premodifier in a PP:

The clock stopped [a minute before midnight].
I met her [two years after the war].
The soldiers are [a long way from home].
The shipwreck is [fifty metres below the surface].

At first glance, these PPs may look like noun phrases, but notice that they cannot be replaced by pronouns. Instead, they must be replaced by the adverbs *then* or *there*:

The clock stopped [a minute before midnight].	→ The clock stopped *then*.
I met her [two years after the war].	→ I met her *then*.
The soldiers are [a long way from home].	→ The soldiers are *there*.
The shipwreck is [fifty metres below the surface].	→ The shipwreck is *there*.

Notice, too, that the Premodifier can be omitted, but not the rest of the phrase:

The clock stopped [~~a minute~~ before midnight].	**complete**
*The clock stopped [a minute ~~before midnight~~].	**incomplete**

3.5.1 *The functions of prepositional phrases*

Prepositions function as the Head of a prepositional phrase, and then the prepositional phrase performs the following grammatical functions:

1 Adjunct in sentence or clause structure (1.8):

We met [in London].
[After the war], my Dad left the army.
He was standing [on the table].
We had noodles [for lunch].
[By eating less fat], you can lose weight.

2 Postmodifer in a noun phrase (3.6):

the train [to London]
the man [with the glasses]
the children [in Form 1]
the future [of society]
a book [about Hong Kong]

3 Postmodifer in an adjective phrase (3.4):

afraid [of dogs]
aware [of the problem]
responsible [for the children]
guilty [of fraud]

3.6 Noun phrases

The structure of a noun phrase (NP) is basically the same as that of AdvP, AdjP, and PP, with a Head and optional Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier
	books	
	books	about gardening
expensive	books	about gardening

However, noun phrases differ from other phrase types in two important ways:

1 NPs are often introduced by determiners (2.2.6) such as *all*, *many*, *the*, *those*:

all books
many books about gardening
the books
those expensive books about gardening

Determiners do not occur in any other phrase type. We will look at determiners in more detail in section 3.6.2.

2 NPs can have several Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

Pre	Pre	Head	Post	Post
big	red	apples		
		sonnets	by Shakespeare	about love

We will look at NP Premodifiers in section 3.6.3, and at NP Postmodifers in 3.6.4.

First, however, we look at the noun phrase Head.

3.6.1 *Noun phrase Heads*

The Head of a noun phrase can be a common noun (2.2.2), a proper noun (2.2.2), an independent pronoun (2.3), a numeral (2.3.5), or a nominal adjective (2.6.4), as shown in Figure 3.12:

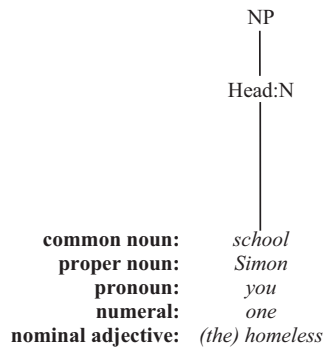


Figure 3.12

Common nouns freely take Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

[young people from China]
[a new movie about Vietnam]

Proper nouns usually occur without any modifiers, though Premodifiers are possible:

[clever Simon]
[little Amy]

Proper nouns often occur in apposition (3.6.6), that is, with another NP that refers to the same person or place:

[Simon, the President of the Student Union]
[Rome, the capital of Italy]

All independent pronouns (2.3) can function as the Head of a NP, and the phrase usually consists of a Head only:

[I] spoke to Amy.
Give it to [me].
[They] may need help.
[That] was a great movie.
How much are [those]?

Pronouns do not normally take Premodifiers or Postmodifiers, but a small number can do so:

[lucky you]
[we who fought in the war]
[those who voted for Brexit]
How much are [those at the back]?

When numerals function as the Head of a noun phrase, they usually have a Postmodifier in the form of a prepositional phrase (3.5):

[One of the students] is ill.
[Two of the chairs] are broken.

Nominal adjectives (2.6.4) as NP Heads co-occur with the determiner *the*:

We must do more for [the homeless].
Your account is in [the red].

3.6.1.1 Identifying the Head

Consider the following noun phrase:

a student from China

This phrase contains two nouns, *student* and *China*, so which one is the Head? There are a few tests that we can apply to identify the Head of a noun phrase.

In terms of meaning, the Head tells us what 'kind of thing' the phrase refers to:

a student from China = 'a kind of student', not * 'a kind of China'

Therefore, the Head is *student*, and *from China* is the Postmodifier.

Similarly:

[a child with asthma] = 'a kind of child'
[a play by Shakespeare] = 'a kind of play'
[a exhibition of drawings] = 'a kind of exhibition'

The test shows that the first noun is the Head in each NP.

However, this test, based on the meaning, is the least reliable test for identifying the Head. It only works with the simplest types of NP. In the following examples, it produces some very odd results:

[a pair of shoes] = ?[1] 'a kind of pair'
[a piece of string] = ? 'a kind of piece'

As we will see, *pair* and *piece* are, in fact, the Heads of these phrases, but we need two grammatical tests in order to prove it.

1 The Number Test:

The Head of a noun phrase is the word that changes when the whole phrase becomes plural:

Singular		**Plural**
[a slice of melon]	→	[two slices of melon]
[the boy in the car]	→	[the boys in the car]
[a tin of paint]	→	[two tins of paint]
[a child with asthma]	→	[children with asthma]
[a student from China]	→	[two students from China]

Similarly:

[a pair of shoes] → [two pairs of shoes]
[a piece of string] → [two pieces of string]

In each case, only the first noun changes to make the whole phrase plural, so this first noun is the Head of the phrase.

2 The Agreement Test:

The Head is the noun that agrees with the verb when the whole NP is the Subject of a sentence:

[The boy in the car] *is* my son. **singular Subject/singular verb**
[The boys in the car] *are* my sons. **plural Subject/plural verb**

Any other noun in the phrase has no effect on the verb:

[A book of poetry] *was* published. **singular Subject/singular verb**
[A book of poems] *was* published. **singular Subject/singular verb**

[1] A question mark placed before an example indicates that it is in some way anomalous, either in terms of meaning or in terms of structure.

Similarly: [A pair of shoes] *was* stolen.
[Ten pairs of shoes] *were* stolen.
[One of the children] *is* missing.
[Two of the children] *are* missing.

Both the Number Test and the Agreement Test show that the first noun is the Head. Specifically, the first noun is the Head when the noun phrase has the following structure:

Noun 1	+	Preposition	+	Noun 2
slice		of		melon
children		with		asthma
pair		of		shoes

We will refer to these as **Type 1 NPs**. Their structure is illustrated in Figure 3.13:

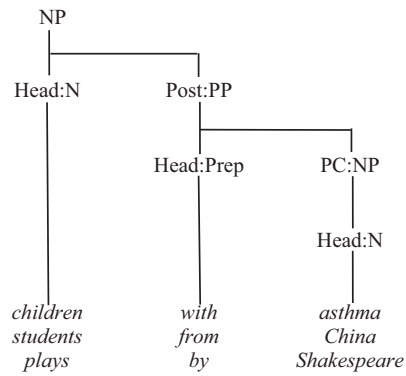


Figure 3.13

Type 2 NPs have the following structure:

Noun 2	+	Noun 1
song		contest
school		uniform
army		tank
music		video

In these examples, we have two nouns with no preposition between them, and as before, the question arises: which noun is the Head of the whole phrase? To identify the Head, we can use the same two tests as before:

1 The Number Test:

Give the plural form of the whole phrase, and see which noun changes its form:

Singular		**Plural**
[song contest]	→	[song contests]

Here, the second noun (*contest*) changes from singular to plural, while the first noun (*song*) remains unchanged. Therefore, *contest* is the Head of the noun phrase *song contest*.

Similarly:

Singular		**Plural**
[school uniform]	→	[school uniforms]
[army tank]	→	[army tanks]
[music video]	→	[music videos]

In each case, only the second noun changes from singular to plural, so the second noun is the Head.

2 **The Agreement Test:**

Put the phrase into a sentence as the Subject, and see which noun agrees with the verb:

[A song contest] *was* held in Tokyo.	**singular Subject/singular verb**
[Song contests] *were* held in Tokyo.	**plural Subject/plural verb**

The verb agrees in number with *contest*, not with *song*, so *contest* is the Head.

Similarly:

[A school uniform] *is* expensive.
[School uniforms] *are* expensive.

[An army tank] *was* destroyed.
[Two army tanks] *were* destroyed.

[A new music video] *has* been released.
[New music videos] *have* been released.

Even if the first noun is plural, it has no effect on the verb:

[The results table] *is* now available.

Both of the tests show that in Type 2 NPs, the second noun is the Head. The structure of Type 2 NPs is illustrated in Figure 3.14:

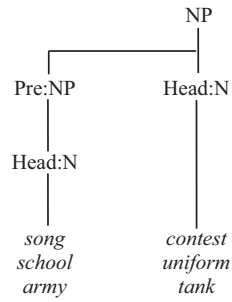


Figure 3.14

Type 2 NPs can sometimes be re-written as Type 1 NPs, by inverting the order of the nouns and inserting a preposition:

Type 2		**Type 1**
a school uniform	→	a uniform for school
a Dickens novel	→	a novel by Dickens
a music video	→	a video with music
a hotel lobby	→	a lobby of a hotel
mountain slope	→	the slope of a mountain
a results table	→	a table of results

Notice that the Head (underlined here) remains the same after the rewrite.

3.6.2 *Determiners and Determinatives*

We introduced determiners in section 2.2.6 as words, such as *a/an*, *the*, *many*, *my*, and *all*, that come before a noun. In fact, a determiner is usually the first constituent in a noun phrase:

a book *that* book
all the books *both* books

all her books	*both those* books
both her books	*some* books
all Amy's many	books *any* book

Genitive nouns such as *Amy's* (2.2.4) are also classified as determiners on the basis that they can be replaced by a possessive pronoun, in this case, *her*, which occupies the same position in the phrase.

The maximum number of determiners before a single noun is three, though the maximum is not often reached. We classify determiners into three subtypes based on their positions relative to each other, as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Determiners

Predeterminers	Central determiners	Postdeterminers
The quantifying pronouns (2.3.5) *all*, *both* **Multipliers** *twice*, *double*, *thrice* . . . **Fractions** *half*, *one-third* . . .	**Articles** (2.2.6) *a/an* and *the* **Possessive pronouns** (2.3.2) *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *their* **Genitive nouns** (2.2.4) *Amy's* **Demonstrative pronouns** (2.3.4) *this*, *that*, *these*, *those* **Interrogative pronouns** (2.3.8) *what*, *which* **Nominal relative pronouns** (2.3.7) *whatever*, *whichever*	**Numerals** (2.3.5) *one*, *two*, *three* . . . *first*, *second*, *third* . . ., *next*, *last* **Other quantifying pronouns** (2.3.5) *a few*, *another*, *any*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *few*, *fewest*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *much*, *neither*, *no*, *other*, *several*, *some*

Central and predeterminers do not co-occur, that is, we can have at most one each before a single noun:

*the my car
*all both people

Postdeterminers can co-occur, with some restrictions based on the meaning:

every few days
several other people

The interrogative determiners *what* and *which* introduce questions:

[*What* time] is it?
[*Which* other countries] are you referring to?

Either and *neither* are used with singular count nouns:

[*Either* team] could win the game. (= *each* team)
[*Neither* team] could win the game. (= *no* team)

All determiners (Det) function as the Head of a determiner phrase (DP), which in turn functions as a **Determinative** (**DVE**) in the noun phrase. This is illustrated in Figures 3.15 and 3.16.

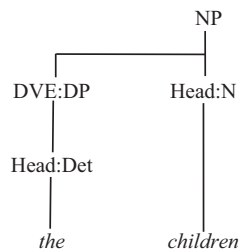


Figure 3.15

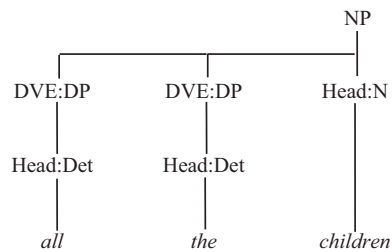


Figure 3.16

Most determiner phrases consist of one word only, but some can have Premodifiers of their own, in the form of adverb phrases (3.3):

[very many] books
[almost all] students

[nearly ten] percent
[much more] money
[very little] effort

The structure of these is shown in Figure 3.17:

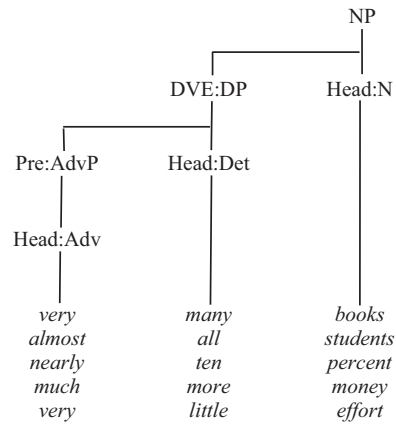


Figure 3.17

Two-word DPs are very commonly found when one of the determiners is a genitive noun (2.2.4):

[*my brother's*] car

Here, the determiner *my* clearly goes with the genitive noun *brother's*, and not with *car* (it's not *my car*). Notice that the whole DP can be replaced by one word, *his*:

[*my brother's*] car → [*his*] car

Similarly:

The document discusses [*a government's*] duties towards its people.

Here, the indefinite article *a* goes with *government's*, not with *duties* (**a duties*), so it forms a determiner phrase *a government's*. Again, the DP can be replaced by one word, *its*:

[*a government's*] duties → [*its*] duties

In these instances, the Head of the DP takes a determiner of its own. The structure is shown in Figure 3.18:

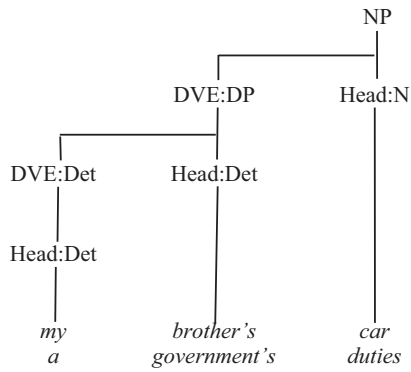


Figure 3.18

Determiner phrases are relatively 'minor' phrases in the sense that they cannot occur independently as other phrases do. Instead, they can only occur as constituents of noun phrases.

Determinatives come before any Premodifiers that are present (Figure 3.19).

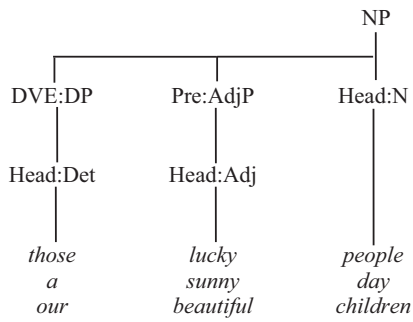


Figure 3.19

There is an exception to this: if the adjective has the Premodifier *too* or *so*, the Determinative and the Premodifier switch places:

It was [*too big*] [*a*] problem to solve. (Not: *It was a too big problem . . .)
It was [*so big*] [*a*] problem that no one could solve it. (Not: *It was a so big problem . . .)

The structure is shown in Figure 3.20.

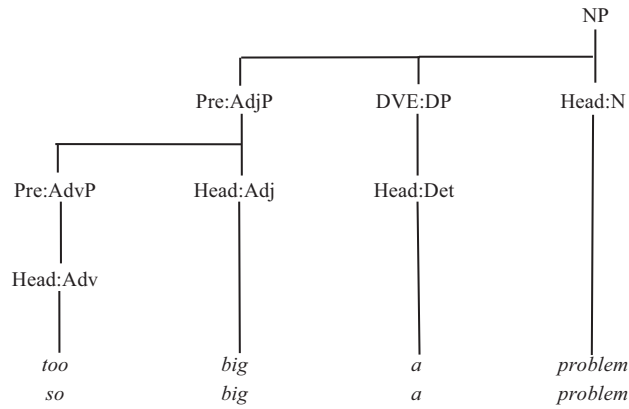


Figure 3.20

See also Comparative constructions (3.4.1).

3.6.3 *Noun phrase Premodifiers*

The most common Premodifiers in a noun phrase are:

1 Adjective phrases (3.4):

[black taxi]
[crazy people]
[very old buildings]
[quite good weather]

The structure is shown in Figure 3.21:

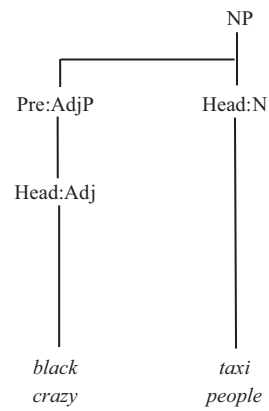


Figure 3.21

There can be several Premodifiers in one NP (Figure 3.22).

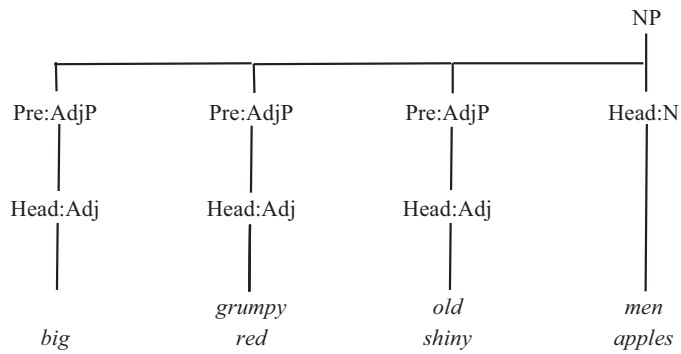


Figure 3.22

Each Premodifier *separately* modifies the Head: these are *big apples*, *red apples*, and *shiny apples*.

2 Noun phrases

When a noun phrase functions as Premodifier in another noun phrase, it creates a Type 2 NP, which we looked at in 3.6.1. Figure 3.14 (p. 97) shows the structure, but we repeat it here, in Figure 3.23, with some more examples.

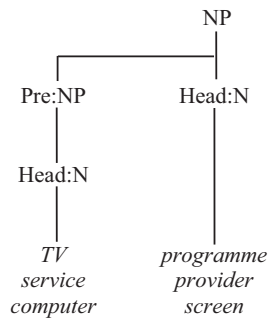


Figure 3.23

A noun phrase functioning as Premodifier can have its own Premodifier, as shown in Figure 3.24.

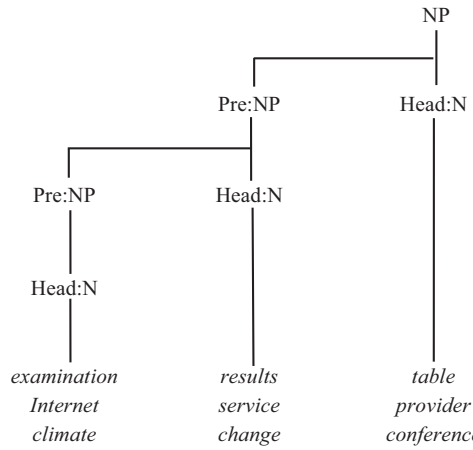


Figure 3.24

We can work out the structure of these by converting them to Type 1 NPs (3.6.1):

Type 2		**Type 1**
examination results table	→	a table of [examination results]
Internet service provider	→	a provider of [Internet service]
climate change conference	→	a conference about [climate change]

The Head is underlined here, and it does not change when we convert the phrase to Type 1.

A noun phrase can co-occur with an adjective phrase as a Premodifier, but the adjective phrase always comes first (Figure 3.25).

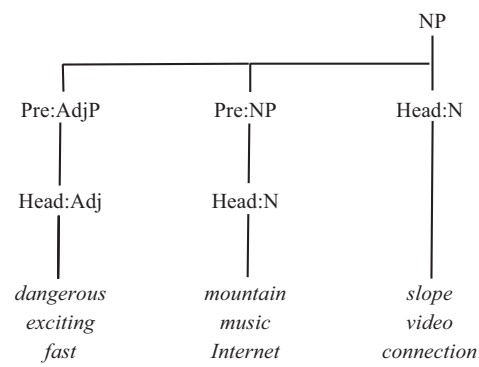


Figure 3.25

A note on adjectives and nouns in 'school' grammars

It is still common in some school-level grammar textbooks to describe, for example, the word *mountain* in *a mountain slope* as an adjective, on the basis that it 'describes the slope'. This is neither accurate nor helpful to students. Although *mountain* in the NP *a mountain slope* functions as the Premodifier of *slope*, in all other respects it does not behave like an adjective. Compare:

1. *a mountain slope* 2. *a dangerous slope*

In 2, *dangerous* is an adjective, not because it 'describes the slope', but because it behaves like an adjective in that position. That is, it can take a Premodifier such as *very* or *extremely* before it:

a very/extremely dangerous slope

We cannot do this with *mountain* in the same position:

**a very/extremely mountain slope*

Also, *a dangerous slope* can be re-written as:

a slope that is dangerous

Again, we cannot do this with *a mountain slope*:

**a slope that is mountain*

We can, however, rewrite it as a Type 1 NP: *the slope of a mountain*.

3.6.4 *Noun phrase Postmodifiers*

The function of Postmodifier of an NP Head can be performed by several different forms, as shown below. In each case, the Head of the noun phrase is underlined, and the Postmodifer is in italics:

1 Prepositional phrases (3.5):

a piece *of cheese*
a box *of chocolates*

a biography *of Mozart*
the house *on the hill*
the road *to Damascus*
a shirt *with long sleeves*
a spokesman *for the council*
the war *between rival gangs*
the Museum *in Kensington*

The structure of these is shown in Figure 3.26.

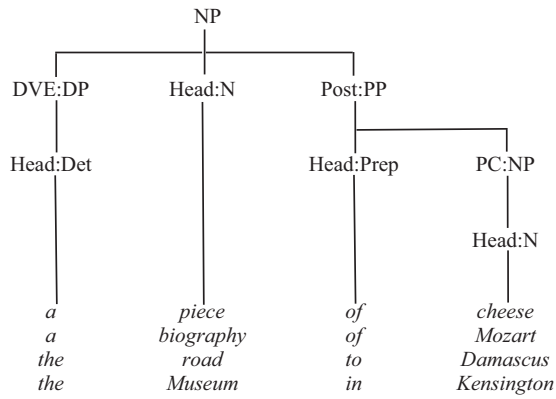


Figure 3.26

2 Clauses (4.1)

Several clause types can function as Postmodifiers in noun phrases. In the following examples, NP Heads are underlined, and the postmodifying clauses are in italics:

Relative clauses (4.2.3):

the man *who lives beside us*
the food *that he cooked*
the book *which he wrote*

***-ing* clauses** (4.2.1):

anyone *carrying a knife*
the man *waving his arms*

***-ed/-en* clauses** (4.2.1):

vegetables *grown in organic soil*
the decision *made by President Trump*

to-clauses (4.2.1):

the first man *to walk on the moon*
the best thing *to do*

3 Adjective phrases (3.4)

something *cold*
someone *so stupid*
anything *smaller*
the time *available*
the people *concerned*

4 Adverb phrases (3.3)

Adverb phrases as NP Postmodifiers generally denote place or direction.

the way *forward*
the flight *back*
the paragraph *above*
the apartment *below*

3.6.4.1 Sequential and embedded Postmodifiers

Noun phrase Heads can have more than one Postmodifier, unlike any other phrase type. Here are some examples. The Postmodifiers are bracketed and the NP Heads are underlined.

sonnets [by Shakespeare] [about love]
the arrival [of Trump] [in Washington]
a play [by Beckett] [at the Barbican Theatre]
a holiday [for two] [in Rome]
the photo [you took] [of Napoleon's tomb]

The general structure of these is shown in Figure 3.27

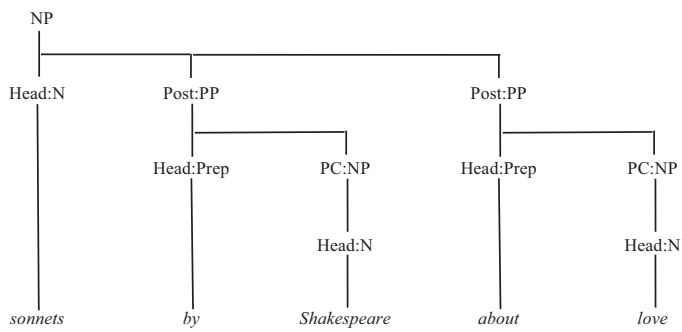


Figure 3.27

These are sequential Postmodifiers, because they occur in sequence and separately modify the Head: the NP refers to 'sonnets by Shakespeare' and 'sonnets about love'. The order of sequential Postmodifiers can sometimes be reversed:

sonnets [by Shakespeare] →	sonnets [about love]
[about love]	[by Shakespeare]

However, there are restrictions on the reversibility of sequential Postmodifiers. See Postmodifiers and Complements (3.6.4.2).

We need to distinguish sequential Postmodifiers from embedded Postmodifiers, as shown in Figure 3.28.

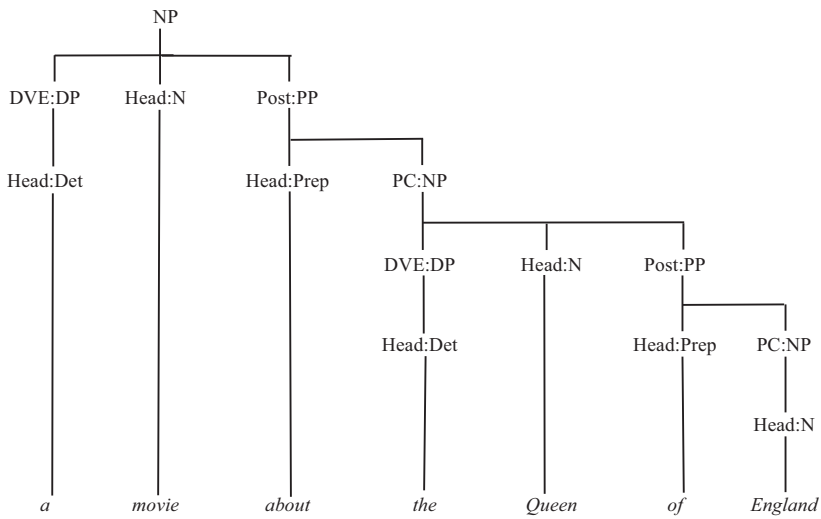


Figure 3.28

In this example, the Head of the whole phrase, *movie*, has just one Postmodifier, *about the Queen of England*. Within that Postmodifier, the noun *Queen* has its own Postmodifier, *of England*.

Here are some more examples of embedded Postmodifiers:

the contest [for leadership [of the party]]
protests [against the ban [on immigration]]
a video [of the bombing [of Syria]]
a documentary [about the events [of 9/11]]

In each of these examples, everything enclosed in large brackets is the Postmodifier of the Head (underlined). Within those Postmodifiers, another noun has its own Postmodifier (enclosed in smaller brackets).

Unlike sequential Postmodifiers, the order of embedded Postmodifiers cannot be reversed:

a movie [about the Queen] [of England] → *a movie [of England] [about the Queen]

3.6.4.2 Postmodifiers and Complements

Complements are a type of noun phrase Postmodifier (3.6.4), but they have a much closer link with the noun than ordinary Postmodifiers. Compare the following:

[**1**] **Postmodifier:**

The news *that he gave us today* was welcomed by everyone.

[**2**] **Complement:**

The news *that he intends to resign* was welcomed by everyone.

In [1], the Postmodifier *that he gave us today* does not define the content of the news. It does not tell us exactly what the news was. In contrast with this, the Complement in [2], *that he intends to resign*, plays a defining role. It tells us precisely what the content of the news was.

The distinction between a Postmodifier and a Complement is not simply one of meaning. There is also a grammatical difference. In the Postmodifier, we can usually replace *that* with *which*:

[**1a**] **Postmodifier:**

The news *which he gave us today* was welcomed by everyone.

We cannot replace *that* with *which* in the Complement:

[**2a**] **Complement:**

*The news *which he intends to resign* was welcomed by everyone.

The word *that* in the Complement is called Complementizer *that*, while the word *that* in the Postmodifier is the relative pronoun *that* (2.3.6). See also: *That*-clauses (4.2.5).

Here are some more examples of noun phrases with Complements:

the fact *that no one came*
the idea *that countries should co-operate*
the realisation *that the scheme had failed*
the theory *that light is a wave motion*

In each of these examples, the Complement is necessary to define the Head. Compare, for example:

Complement: the theory *that light is a wave motion*
Postmodifier: the theory *that* (or *which*) *we studied in class*

If the two co-occur in the same NP, the Complement comes closest to the Head, and is followed by the Postmodifier:

the theory [*that light is a wave motion*] [*that we studied in class*]

Finally, in this section, independent genitive constructions (2.2.5) also involve the use of Complements, not Postmodifiers:

an uncle *of mine*
a friend *of Caroline's*
a neighbour *of ours*

In these, the *of*-phrase is a Complement, and therefore comes before any Postmodifier that may be present:

an uncle [*of mine*] [who works in London]
Compare: *an uncle [who works in London] [*of mine*]

3.6.5 *The functions of noun phrases*

Noun phrases are grammatically very versatile. They can perform a wide range of functions in sentence structure as well as in phrase structure. In sentence structure, noun phrases have the following functions:

1 **Subject (1.4):**

A large tile fell from the roof.
Four people entered the room.
The man who lives beside us is unwell.

2 **Subject Complement** (**1.6.2**)**:**

Paul is *my nephew*.
She is *a teacher of English*.
That is *the wrong way to wire a plug*.

3 **Direct Object** (**1.6.3**)**:**

The plane left *the runway*.
I bought *a jar of coffee*.
Our teacher writes *detective stories*.

4 **Indirect Object** (**1.6.4**)**:**

She told *the chairman* the bad news.
I offered *the girl beside me* a drink.
It gives *people with disabilities* more independence.

5 **Object Complement** (**1.6.5**)**:**

She called him *a loser*.
They appointed him *President of the Board of Trade*.
The trade unions made Britain *the country it is today*.

6 **Adjunct** (1.8):

Last week, our freezer broke down.
She's going to Harvard *next year*.
One day you'll regret quitting college.

In phrase structure, noun phrases have the following major functions:

7 **Prepositional Complement** (**3.5**)**:**

over *the moon*
behind *our house*
at *the cinema*

8 **Premodifier in another noun phrase** (**3.6.3**)

a *school* uniform
the *computer* screen
a *traffic* accident

9 In quantifying or measuring expressions, noun phrases function as Premodifiers in an adverb phrase (3.3), adjective phrase (3.4), or prepositional phrase (3.5):

two minutes earlier (adverb phrase)
six years old (adjective phrase)
ten metres below the surface (prepositional phrase)

3.6.6 *Apposition*

Apposition is a relationship between two noun phrases which have identical reference:

the US President, Donald Trump

The two noun phrases, *the US President* and *Donald Trump*, refer to the same person and are said to be in apposition to each other. Further examples of apposition include:

the Chinese capital, Beijing
John's favourite food, pasta
the head of Microsoft, Bill Gates
our good friends, the Browns

Apposition is often used as a device for clarifying the meaning of the first noun phrase:

ISIS (Islamic State of Iraq and Syria)
the larynx (voice box)
230 litres (50 gallons)

In this type of 'clarifying' apposition, the word *or* is sometimes introduced between the two noun phrases:

phototaxis, *or* light-directed motion
vexillology, *or* the study of flags

3.7 Verb phrases

Verb phrases (VPs) are very different from all other phrase types in terms of their structure. They do not have Heads, Premodifiers, or Postmodifiers. Figure 3.29 shows the basic structure of a VP.

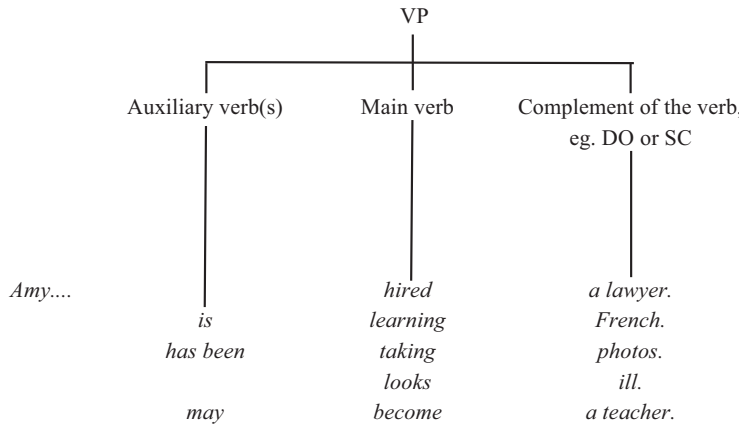


Figure 3.29

In terms of forms and functions, the VP *has been taking photos* appears as shown in Figure 3.30.

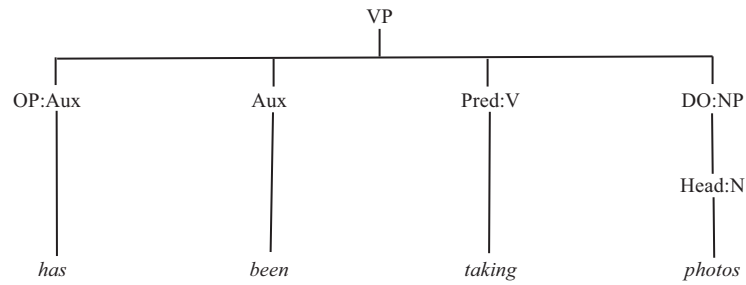


Figure 3.30

The main verb (2.4) functions as the **Predicator** (**Pred**) in the VP. It is unnecessary to give a function label to the VP itself, since VPs only ever have one function in grammar. They are, as it were, the 'engine room' of the whole sentence. The first (or only) auxiliary verb (2.5) functions as the Operator (OP). The Operator has several important grammatical roles in the VP, which we will look at in section 3.7.1. All other auxiliary verbs are simply labelled **Aux** (**auxiliary**).

Notice that the Direct Object (1.6.3) is a constituent of the VP in Figure 3.30. This is because the Direct Object is required to complete the meaning of the main verb.[2] For the same reason, Subject Complements (1.6.2), Indirect Objects (1.6.4), and Object Complements (1.6.5) are also constituents of the VP.

[2] Compare this with the simplified version that we showed in Figure 1.3, p. 5.

3.7.1 The Operator

The Operator is the first or only auxiliary verb in a VP:

Amy [*is* learning French].
She [*was* reading].
He [*will* come] later.
She [*has* been taking photos].

If there is no auxiliary verb, then there is no Operator:

Amy [hired a lawyer].
Amy [speaks French].
Amy [reads novels].

These VPs have a main verb only, and no auxiliary verbs, so no Operator is present.

When an Operator is present, it carries the tense marking (past or present) (3.7.5) of the VP as a whole:

James [*is* leaving].	**present tense**
Simon [*has* arrived].	**present tense**
Amy [*was* sleeping].	**past tense**
Paul [*was* being bullied].	**past tense**

If no auxiliary is present, the tense marking is carried by the main verb:

Amy [*sleeps*] all day.	**present tense**
Paul [*walked*] to school.	**past tense**

When an Operator is present, all other verbs (including the main verb) have the base form, the *-ing* form, or the *-ed/-en* form (2.4.1)

	Operator	Auxiliary verb	Main verb
Paul	*was*	*being*	*bullied.*
	= past tense form	= *-ing* form	= *-ed/-en* form

When a modal verb (2.5.1) is present, it always comes first in the VP, and it always functions as the Operator:

	Operator	Auxiliary verb	Auxiliary verb	Main verb
You	*can't*	*have*	*been*	*listening*.
	= present tense form	= base form	= *-ed/-en form*	= *-ing* form

On the ordering of auxiliary verbs, see 3.7.2.
See also: Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3), Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses (4.2.1)

In addition to carrying the tense, the Operator has four other functions to perform in a verb phrase. These are summarised by the acronym **NICE**, which stands for:

Negation
Inversion
Code
Emphasis

We will now look at each of these functions in turn.

Negation: When we make a sentence negative, we put the word *not* after the Operator:

I *will* (OP) stay → I *will* (OP) not stay
Amy *is* (OP) coming. → Amy *is* (OP) not coming.
You *should* (OP) have told him. → You *should* (OP) not have told him.
He *was* (OP) being bullied. → He *was* (OP) not being bullied.

If only a main verb is present, we introduce the auxiliary *do* as Operator to form a negative sentence:

Amy took a selfie. → Amy *did* (OP) not take a selfie.
Paul snores. → Paul *does* (OP) not snore.

Inversion: When we turn a statement into a question, we invert the Subject (S) and the Operator:

The manager (S) *should* (OP) resign. → *Should* (OP) the manager (S) resign?
The team (S) *is* (OP) playing very badly. → *Is* (OP) the team (S) playing very badly?
The doctor (S) *has* (OP) examined Paul. → *Has* (OP) the doctor (S) examined Paul?
She (S) *was* (OP) being bullied at school. → *Was* (OP) she (S) being bullied at school?

If a main verb only is present, we introduce the auxiliary *do* as the Operator, and then we invert the Subject (S) with *do*:

She (S) admires Lisa Simpson. → *Does* (OP) she (S) admire Lisa Simpson?
Paul (S) married Emily. → *Did* (OP) Paul (S) marry Emily?

In 1.5.1 we discussed the Inversion Test as a way of identifying the Subject of a sentence, and we said that the Subject inverts with the verb to form a question. We can see now that, strictly speaking, the *Operator* inverts with the Subject.

Code: The term 'code' refers to the fact that the Operator can occur alone if the main verb is understood from the previous context:

Will (OP) you stay? Yes I *will* (OP).
Is (OP) it raining? Yes it *is* (OP).

Amy *is* (OP) studying, and Paul *is* (OP) too.
The team *has* (OP) left, and the manager *has* (OP) too.

When a main verb only is present, once again we introduce the auxiliary verb *do* as the Operator:

I made a mistake. – Yes you *did* (OP).
Simon left early, and I *did* (OP) too.

Emphasis: the Operator is given emphatic stress in speech:

Amy IS (OP) working hard.
I AM (OP) trying.
She DID (OP) tell you.
I HAVE (OP) been studying.

When a main verb only is present, we introduce auxiliary *do* as the Operator to take the emphatic stress. The stress is not placed on the main verb:

You made a mistake. – Yes I certainly DID (OP) make a mistake.
Will you come to my party? – Yes I WILL (OP) come.

The use of auxiliary *do* as an Operator with main verbs is called ***do*-support**. However, when the main verb *be* occurs alone, we do not need *do*-support to form questions, negatives, etc. For example:

	He *is* very ambitious.
Negation:	He *is* not very ambitious.
Inversion:	*Is* he very ambitious?
Code:	*Is* he very ambitious? – Yes, he *is*.
Emphasis:	I don't think he *is* very ambitious. – Yes, he *IS* very ambitious.

In these examples, main verb *be* acts as if it were the Operator itself, displaying the NICE properties.

With main verb *have*, we usually have a choice. We can either use *do*-support or not, as in the following examples:

	He *has* a new job.
Negation:	He *does* not have a new job. **OR** He *has* not (got) a new job.
Inversion	*Does* he have a new job? **OR** *Has* he a new job?
Code:	*Has* he a new job? – Yes he *does*. **OR** Yes he *has*.
Emphasis:	I don't think he has a new job. – Yes he *DOES* have a new job. **OR** Yes, he *HAS* a new job.

In general, American English (AmE) tends to favour the use of *do*-support with main verb *have*, while British English (BrE) typically favours the version without *do*:

AmE: How much money does Bill Gates have?
BrE: How much money has Bill Gates?

3.7.2 *The ordering of auxiliary verbs*

When two or more auxiliary verbs occur in a verb phrase, they follow the order shown in Table 3.1. However, it is very unusual to find all four

auxiliary types in the same verb phrase. More usually, a total of two or three auxiliaries will co-occur, as in the following example:

	<----------Auxiliary Verbs---------->				Main Verb (2.4)
	Modal (2.5.1)	Perfective (2.5.5) *(have)*	Progressive (2.5.4) *(be)*	Passive (2.5.3) *(be)*	
He	*may*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*bullied.*

The main verb is always the last verb in the sequence, and the maximum number of auxiliary verbs is four, although that number is rarely reached. The ordering of auxiliary verb is as follows:

Modal – Passive:

He *may be* bullied at school.
The seat *can be* lowered.

Progressive – Passive:

He *is being* bullied.
This lecture *is being* recorded.

Perfective – Progressive:

He *has been* bullying other boys at school.
She *has been* collecting books for years.

Perfective – Passive:

He *has been* bullied in the past.
The deficit *has been* reduced.

Modal – Perfective – Passive:

He *may have been* bullied as a child.
The concert *should have been* cancelled.

Modal – Perfective – Progressive – Passive

He *may have been being* bullied at the time.

The form of each verb (2.4.1), including the main verb, is strictly determined by the type of auxiliary that comes immediately before it:

	Modal	Perfective	Progressive	Passive	Main verb
He	*may*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*bullied*.
		= base form	= *-ed/-en* form	= *-ing* form	= *-ed/-en* form

In terms of their forms, the ordering of verbs is as follows:

Modal followed by **base form:**	may *bully*, may *be* bullying.
Perfective *have* followed by ***-ed/-en* form:**	has *bullied*, has *been* bullying
Progressive *be* followed by ***-ing* form:**	is *bullying*, is *being* bullied
Passive *be* followed by ***-ed/-en* form:**	was *bullied*, was being *bullied*

The form of the first (or only) verb is a determined by the tense (past or present) of the verb phrase as a whole (see 3.7.1).

3.7.3 *Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases*

Verbs that have tense marking (past or present form) are called **finite** verbs. Verbs with any of the other three forms (base, *-ed/-en*, *-ing*) are called **non-finite** verbs. If the first or only verb has tense marking, the VP as a whole is finite:

Everyone [*likes* Amy].
Your flight [*has* departed].
The old man [*is* feeding his dog].
I [*was* washing the dishes] when you phoned.

Since modals (2.5.1) always come first in a VP, they carry the tense of the VP as a whole, past or present. They do not have any non-finite forms.

If the first or only verb does not have tense, the VP as a whole is non-finite:

The plumber released the steam by [*opening* a valve].	***-ing* form**
[*Building* your own house] can be very expensive.	***-ing* form**
[To *tell* you the truth], I don't care.	***base* form**
[*Having* been bitten] in the past, Sam was cautious with dogs.	***-ing* form**
[*Released* in 1968], 'Hey Jude' reached No. 1 in the charts.	***-ed/-en* form**

Notice that in a non-finite verb phrase, all the verbs are non-finite: *having been bitten*. The distinction between finite and non-finite verb phrases is important in the classification of subordinate clauses (4.2.1).

See also: Interrogative sentences (4.4.2)

3.7.4 *Movement*

At the beginning of section 3.7, we said that verb phrases are very different from all other phrase types. Perhaps the greatest difference can be seen in the process of **movement**, which refers to the fact that constituents of verb phrases often move outside the phrase itself. For example, when we form a question from a statement (3.7.1), the Subject and the Operator change places:

Statement: John (S) has (OP) arrived.
Question: Has (OP) John (S) arrived?

In terms of structure, this means that the verb phrase is now interrupted by the Subject, to become

Has (OP) . . . arrived (V)?

This is known as **movement**, and we can visualise it as shown in Figure 3.31.

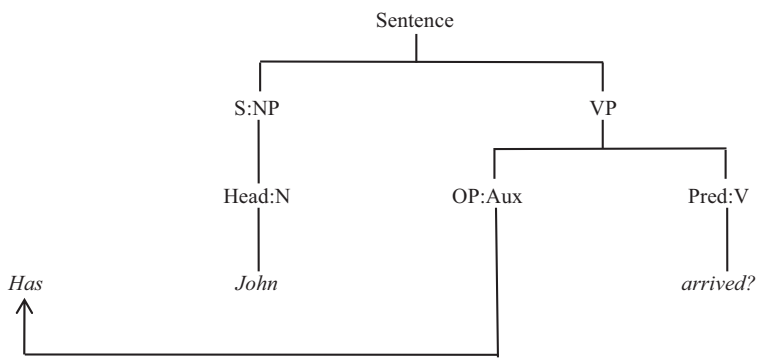


Figure 3.31

In Figure 3.31, the arrow shows that to form the question, the Operator has moved from its normal position inside the verb phrase to a new position before the Subject. Its function remains the same, however, and only its position has changed. If we draw a tree diagram for the corresponding statement

(Figure 3.32), we can see that the question and the statement actually have exactly the same structure, even though their word orders are different.

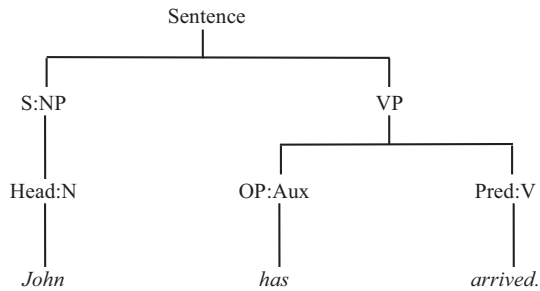


Figure 3.32

For more examples of movement, see Relative clauses (4.2.3), Nominal relative clauses (4.2.4), Interrogative sentences (4.4.2) and **Exclamative sentences (4.4.4).**

3.7.5 *Tense*

Tense refers to the way in which a language expresses the concept of time. In English, there are just two tenses, the present tense and the past tense. In regular verbs, the **present tense** is expressed by the *-s* form of the verb, when the Subject is third-person singular:

3rd-person singular:	he *walks*
	she *walks*
	it/David/the man *walks*

For all other Subjects, the base form of the verb is used:

1st-person singular:	I *walk*
2nd-person singular:	you *walk*
1st-person plural:	we *walk*
2nd-person plural:	you *walk*
3rd-person plural:	they *walk*

The base form is also used in non-finite verb phrases (3.7.2), where it does not carry tense, for example:

I like to *walk* to school.
Don't *walk* so fast!

How do we know, then, that *walk*, in *I walk*, expresses the present tense? The answer is simply that it can be switched to the past tense:

I *walked* to school yesterday.

We cannot make this switch with the non-finite forms:

*I like to *walked* for exercise.
*Don't *walked* so fast!

On the verb forms, see 2.4.1.

The **past tense** is indicated by an *-ed* ending, regardless of the Subject:

1st-person singular:	I *walked*
2nd-person singular:	you *walked*
3rd-person singular:	he/she/it/David/the man *walked*
1st-person plural:	we *walked*
2nd-person plural:	you *walked*
3rd-person plural:	they *walked*

In these examples, only a main verb is present, so this verb carries the tense marker. When an auxiliary verb is present, the tense is indicated by the first (or only) auxiliary verb, and not by the main verb:

Present tense:	The chairman *is* speaking.
Past tense:	The chairman *was* speaking.
Present tense:	The ambassador *has* done his duty.
Past tense:	The ambassador *had* done his duty.
Present tense:	A new script *is* being written.
Past tense:	A new script *was* being written.

See also: Finite and non-finite verb phrases (**3.7.3**)

3.7.6 *Expressing future time*

As we saw in section 3.7.5, English has two tenses, the present tense and the past tense. The *-s* ending indicates present tense and the *-ed* ending indicates past tense. However, there is no ending to indicate the future, so

it would be incorrect to speak of a 'future tense' in English. In fact, future time is very often expressed by using the present tense form of a verb:

Peter *arrives* next Friday.
Your flight *leaves* in ten minutes.
David *graduates* in September.

There are several other ways to express future time in English:

1 Modal auxiliary *will* (2.5.1):

Peter *will* arrive next Friday.
Your flight *will* leave in ten minutes.
David *will* graduate in September.

The contracted form *'ll* is often used informally:

I'*ll* see you later.

2 Semi-auxiliary *be going to* (present tense) (2.5.7):

Peter *is going to* arrive next Friday.
Your flight *is going to* leave in ten minutes.
David *is going to* graduate in September.

3 Progressive auxiliary *be* (present tense) + *-ing* verb (2.5.4):

Peter *is arriving* next Friday.
Your flight *is leaving* in ten minutes.
David *is graduating* in September.

3.7.7 *Aspect*

Tense (3.7.4) refers to the absolute location of an event in time – either past or present. **Aspect** refers to how an event is to be viewed with respect to time. We illustrate the contrast using the following examples:

[1] David *broke* his leg when he was 12.
[2] David *has broken* his leg.

In [1], the verb *broke* tells us that David broke his leg in the past (specifically, when he was 12). This is a past tense verb.

The auxiliary *has* in [2] is the perfective auxiliary (2.5.5), and it expresses perfective aspect in the verb phrase *has broken*. The verb *has* has present tense form, so we can describe the whole verb phrase *has broken* as present tense, perfective aspect.

In [2] the event took place in the past, but it is implied that it took place very recently. It is further implied that it is relevant at the time of speaking (the present) – *David has broken his leg, so call an ambulance (now)!*

The past tense version of [2] is

[2a] David had broken his leg.

Here, the event occurred in the past, but it is implied that it was still relevant at some later time: *David had broken his leg, so he could not play in the Cup Final that year*.

The idea of 'relevance' is important when we wish to distinguish between tense and aspect. Tense alone is exemplified in [1]. The event described is wholly in the past, and no current relevance is implied. Both tense and aspect are exemplified in [2] and [2a]. In each case, the event described has 'relevance', either in the present, as in [2], or at some time between the event and the present, as in [2a].

The other aspectual auxiliary is the progressive auxiliary *be* (2.5.4):

[3] David *is* working in Beijing.
[4] David *was* working in Beijing when I met him.

Sentence [3] expresses the idea that the action is still in progress: David is working in Beijing at the time of speaking. For this reason, we say that the sentence exemplifies progressive aspect. Like perfective aspect, progressive aspect also carries an implication of 'relevance'. Here, it is current relevance, at the time of speaking (the present): *David is working in Beijing, so it may be difficult to contact him (now)*. The verb phrase *is working* exemplifies present tense, progressive aspect.

Sentence [4] also expresses the idea of action in progress, but at a particular time in the past ('when I met him'). The verb phrase *was working* exemplifies past tense, progressive aspect.

3.7.8 Mood

Mood refers to distinctions in the form of a verb phrase that express the speaker's attitude towards what is said. There are three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

1 Indicative mood is the most common mood in declarative (4.4.1), interrogative (4.4.2), and exclamative (4.4.4) sentences:

Paul *enrolled* in a music class.
Does Amy *like* her new school?
What a big house you *have*!

2 The imperative (4.4.3) is used in issuing orders or instructions:

Move over.
Stop that at once.
Bake in a pre-heated over for 30 minutes.

3 Subjunctive mood is used when we refer to a non-factual or hypothetical situation:

If I *were* you, I would accept the offer.
If Hilary Clinton *were* President of the USA, what would she do?

This is called the ***were*-subjunctive** because of the form of the verb.

The **mandative subjunctive** is used after a small number of verbs, including *ask*, *decide*, *insist*, *recommend*, and *suggest*, when these verbs are followed by *that*:

The committee insisted that she *resign* immediately.
The lawyer asked that he *be* given more time to prepare his case.

The mandative subjunctive is also used after the following adjectives: *crucial*, *essential*, *important*, *necessary*, *vital*:

It is *important* that every room *be* properly ventilated.
It is *vital* that prisoners *be* supervised at all times.

The use of the subjunctive is much more common in American English than in British English. In British English, the indicative mood is often preferred:

If I *was* you, I would accept the offer.
It is vital that prisoners *are* supervised at all times.

The subjunctive is also used in many formulaic expressions:

as it *were*
be that as it may
far *be* it from me

if need *be*
God *be* praised
so *be* it
come what may
long *live* the Republic
wish you *were* here

Exercises for Chapter 3

Exercise 3.1: Adverb phrases (3.3)

Underline the adverb phrases in the following sentences:

1 Global warming has recently become a major concern for governments.
2 Previously, many people felt that governments did not take the issue seriously.
3 Now, it seems that the voice of the people is finally being heard.
4 Scientists are fully convinced that climate change is a reality.
5 Some governments are quite uncertain about what to do.
6 Many people feel strongly that international cooperation is the only solution.

Exercise 3.2: The functions of adverb phrases (3.3.1)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adverb phrases. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; PreJ = Premodifier of an adjective; PreV = Premodifier of an adverb; PreP = Premodifer of a preposition.

1 Incredibly ( ), he crashed straight ( ) into a parked car.
2 Many really ( ) talented students never ( ) go to college.
3 Obviously ( ), the applications are examined very carefully ( ).
4 I am fairly ( ) sure she treated him very ( ) unfairly ( ).
5 Grandad is often ( ) quite ( ) confused.
6 A Toyota would be much ( ) less ( ) expensive.

Exercise 3.3: Adjective phrases (3.4)

Underline the adjective phrases in the following sentences:

1 In much earlier times Antwerp was one of the largest cities in western Europe.
2 The vibrant atmosphere of the sprawling city was very exciting for residents and visitors alike.
3 Antwerp became an increasingly important financial centre as time went on.
4 Prices for works of art were incredibly high, and even fairly mediocre artists could make a reasonably good living.

5 The Church was a very significant contributor to the vast wealth of the city.
6 The Bishop of Antwerp commissioned expensive paintings and statues, and the artists were usually very happy to accept the commissions.
7 The Church had always been acutely aware of the need to patronise artists.
8 In turn, the artists produced some of the most magnificent masterpieces that Europe has ever seen.

Exercise 3.4: The functions of adjective phrases (3.4.2)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adjective phrases. Use the following abbreviations: Pre = Premodifier; SC = Subject Complement; Post = Postmodifier; OC = Object Complement.

1 The kids seem <u>delighted with their gifts</u> ( ).
2 It was a <u>totally unexpected</u> ( ) discovery.
3 The President's <u>recent</u> ( ) statement about immigration was <u>outrageous</u> ( ).
4 <u>Heavily-armed</u> ( ) police officers shot the gunman <u>dead</u> ( ).
5 Nothing <u>very interesting</u> ( ) ever happens here.
6 I found the book <u>boring</u> ( ), but the movie is <u>amazing</u> ( ).

Exercise 3.5: Prepositional phrases (3.5)

Underline the prepositional phrases in the following passage:

> Marco Polo was born in Venice in 1254. At that time, Venice was one of Europe's wealthiest cities. At 17, Marco travelled with his father and uncle from Italy to China. That journey eventually opened trade routes between the east and the west. In his book, *The Travels of Marco Polo*, he described the immense size of Chinese cities and the many splendours to be seen at the Emperor's court. His book contains stories about many wonders: bandits in desert hideaways, snakes with legs, and an Emperor who kept a tamed lion at his feet. No one is quite sure how many of these stories are true. Did he really see everything he described, did he hear the stories from other travellers, or did he just make it all up? Some scholars think he never travelled to China at any time. For them, the fact that he never once mentioned tea, the national drink of the Chinese, is proof that his book is a collection of fables. Just before his death, Marco was asked how much of his book was really true. He replied that he had described only half of what he had actually seen.

Exercise 3.6: Noun phrase Heads (3.6.1)

Underline the Head in each of the noun phrases below:

1 a tube of toothpaste
2 strange beings from outer space
3 my Facebook page
4 a black London taxi
5 a bottle of wine
6 a small group of children
7 a walk in the park
8 none of the students

Exercise 3.7: Noun phrases (3.6)

Bracket the noun phrases in each of the following sentences. If a noun phrase has another noun phrase within it, use double bracketing. For example:

[the old man with [the grey beard]]

1 Strong easterly winds are expected later.
2 The cost of insurance has doubled in the last year.
3 The kids really enjoyed their visit to Disneyland.
4 His first movie was about the siege of Krishnapur.
5 The weapon was found at the bottom of the lake.
6 Harry Potter books are his favourites.
7 The concert was cancelled due to poor ticket sales.
8 The director of the company has resigned.

Exercise 3.8: Determiners and Determinatives (3.6.2)

Underline the Determinatives in the following sentences.

1 Robert's second attempt at the title was much more successful.
2 Very many people expected him to win the first race easily.
3 A few people felt that he needed much more time to prepare.
4 One journalist even suggested that he should take a break from all competitions.
5 After the second race, he was congratulated by his wife and two children.

6 His many loyal fans chanted his name from the grandstand.
7 The fans will remember that victory for many years.
8 It was an emotional climax to a career that began almost twenty years earlier.

Exercise 3.9: The functions of noun phrases (3.6.5)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined noun phrases in the passage below. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; DO = Direct Object; Pre = Premodifier; PC = Prepositional Complement; OC = Object Complement; S = Subject; SC = Subject Complement.

> A German company ( ) is developing a revolutionary new motorbike that drives itself ( ). It is the first step towards a fully autonomous machine ( ). It can steer, control its speed ( ) and keep itself upright without any human intervention ( ). A spokesman for the company ( ) said the bike will get you through city ( ) traffic more safely than ever. The on-board computer ( ) is much faster than a human brain ( ), and because it never gets tired or distracted, it can react in milliseconds ( ) to avoid any obstacles on the road ( ). Sensors on the bike ( ) can detect speed and movement ( ), so the computer ( ) knows if it is swaying too far, and makes corrections ( ). The prototype ( ) is still being tested, not with human riders ( ), but with plastic dummies ( ).

Exercise 3.10: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (3.7.2)

In each of the following sentences, describe the sequence of the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:

The seat can be adjusted. = Modal + Passive

1 All the tickets have been sold.
2 The prizemoney will be given to charity.
3 The power should be switched off first.
4 You must be joking.
5 The earthquake victims are being rehoused.
6 Have you been talking to Paul?
7 The parents may have been arguing.
8 Could anything else have been done?

Exercise 3.11: Finite and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3)

Indicate whether the underlined verb phrases are finite or non-finite.

1 Germany have been eliminated from the World Cup.
2 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time.
3 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time.
4 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round.
5 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round.
6 Beaten by France, their World Cup campaign is over.
7 Paul wants to become a footballer.
8 Paul wants to become a footballer.

Exercise 3.12: Tense (3.7.5) and aspect (3.7.7)

In each of the following sentences, describe the tense and aspect (if any) which is expressed by the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:
The children are leaving. = Present tense, Progressive aspect

1 Amy was watching TV when we arrived.
2 Paul is working very hard.
3 The government had supported the banks for years.
4 I have never met your brother.
5 I am looking for a better job.
6 We were staying with friends at the time.
7 The train had already left.
8 All the money has disappeared.

Chapter 4

Clauses and sentences

We have now reached the two top levels in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1, p. 2), clauses and sentences. In this chapter, we will define both of these terms, and then discuss them in turn. We begin with clauses, under the general heading of 'Subordination' (4.2). In 4.3, we look at Coordination, which is how constituents can be linked together in a sentence. Finally, in 4.4, we look at a variety of sentence types.

4.1 What is a clause?

A clause is a 'sentence-like' structure, in that we can analyse it in the same way as a full sentence (with Subject, verb, Object, Adjunct, etc), although it may not contain all the constituents of a complete sentence (see Chapter 1). However, it must at least contain a verb.

Consider the following sentence:

Amy likes reading novels.

Here, *reading novels* is the Direct Object (1.6.3) of the verb *likes*. It completes the meaning of the verb, in the same way that *novels* completes its meaning in *Amy likes novels*.

Direct Object clause: Amy lies *reading novels* (DO).
Direct Object noun phrase: Amy likes *novels* (DO).

It is called a clause because we can analyse it in the same way as we analyse a whole sentence:

reading (V) novels (DO)

The Subject of this clause is not directly stated, though we understand it to be *Amy*. Figure 4.1 illustrates the structure of *Amy likes reading novels*.

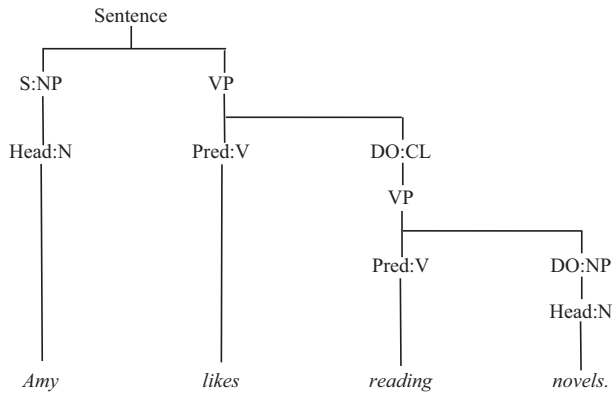


Figure 4.1

The same analysis would apply if the sentence was *Amy likes reading* (Figure 4.2).

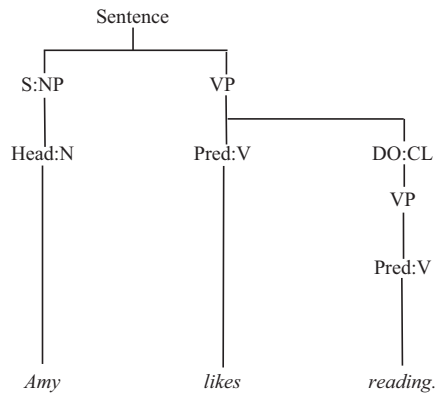


Figure 4.2

In Figure 4.2, *reading* is called a clause, and not simply a VP. Recall the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1). The relevant part of the Hierarchy tells us:

clauses

consist of **one or more**

phrases

Specifically, the phrase in question here is a verb phrase (3.7). Wherever we have a verb phrase, we have a clause. This means that the simplest possible clause is

Amy likes [CL reading (V)].

The clause *reading* contains only a verb phrase, but it can be expanded to include other constituents:

Amy likes [CL reading (V) novels (DO)].
Amy likes [CL reading (V) novels (DO) in her spare time (A)].

Specifically, these are called subordinate clauses, because they are smaller than the sentence as a whole.

It follows from our definition of a clause that a sentence is also a clause. The simplest possible sentence contains only a verb phrase:

[Move (V)].

Like a clause, this can be expanded using other constituents:

[Move (V) that chair (DO)]
[Move (V) that chair (DO) if you need more room (A)].

Recall, too, the topmost level in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1):

Sentences

consist of **one or more**

clauses

Consider the following sentence:

The children laughed.

This is a clause because it contains a verb phrase *laughed*. And since every sentence contains a verb phrase, every sentence is a clause.

The term 'sentence' is very familiar to most people, so I will continue to use it in the discussion that follows. Bear in mind, however, that the term really only applies to writing, where we recognise a sentence as a unit beginning with an upper-case letter and ending with a period (full stop), a question mark, or an exclamation mark. In speech, there are no upper- or lower-case letters and no punctuation, so from the point of view of grammar, a sentence is, in fact, a clause.

Here are some more examples of subordinate clauses functioning as the Direct Object of a sentence. The Direct Object clauses are bracketed.

She said [she (S) missed (V) the bus (DO)].
I think [it (S) is (V) a great book (SC)].

Notice that these subordinate clauses would make complete sentences on their own:

She missed the bus.
It is a great book.

This is not always the case, however. As we saw, some subordinate clauses may lack an overt Subject:

Amy likes [reading (V) novels (DO)].
Paul wants [to buy (V) an apartment (DO)]
The children love [playing (V)].

Clauses can also function as the Subject of a sentence:

[Reading] is fun.
[Reading novels] is fun.
[Reading novels in the bath] is fun.

We will look at more functions of clauses in 4.2.7 and 4.2.8.

4.2 Subordination

The term 'subordination' refers to the use of subordinate clauses as constituents in sentences or in phrases. As we will see in sections 4.2.7 and 4.2.8, subordinate clauses perform a very wide range of functions both at the sentence level and at the phrase level. First, however, we will look at various subtypes of subordinate clauses.

4.2.1 *Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses*

In 3.7.3, we introduced the distinction between finite and non-finite verbs and verb phrases. We said that verbs exhibiting tense (past or present) are finite verbs, while those without tense are non-finite. We recall that the non-finite verb forms are (1) the base form (often with *to*), (2) the *-ed/-en* form, and (3) the *-ing* form.

In most sentences with a subordinate clause, the usual pattern is finite sentence + finite or non-finite subordinate clause, as in the following examples.

[**Finite** He left work [**Non-finite** feeling terrible]].
[**Finite** He left work [**Finite** because he felt ill]].

Subordinate clauses can be finite or non-finite, but sentences are generally finite. We do find some non-finite sentences, but these are really fragments (1.10) that can only be understood from previous context:

Why did you buy that?	[**Non-finite** To cheer you up].
What have you done?	[**Non-finite** Dropped my keys].
What are you doing?	[**Non-finite** Checking my email].

The three non-finite forms give their names to three subordinate clause types:

to-clauses

The road was widened *to improve the traffic flow*.
To receive all the channels, you may need an antenna.
A satellite must reach an altitude of 100 miles *to get clear of the atmosphere*.

-ed/-en clauses

Deprived of oxygen, plants will quickly die.
The warriors faced each other, *dressed in black armour*.
Designed for drafting, mechanical pencils are also useful for sketching.

-*ing* clauses

Michelangelo painted *lying on his back*.
The teacher stood in the doorway, *saying nothing*.
Emily rang the doorbell, *her heart pounding*.

4.2.2 *Adjunct clauses*

Adjunct clauses are subordinate clauses that function as Adjuncts in sentence structure (1.8). They can be finite or non-finite. Finite subordinate clauses are introduced by a subordinating conjunction (2.9):

Although he is only 18, he has a very mature attitude.
Sandra left early *because she has an interview tomorrow*.
If you don't hurry, you'll miss your flight.
When he was young, Van Gogh loved to paint trees.
I'll watch a movie *while you're out*.

The general structure of Adjunct clauses with a subordinating conjunction is shown in Figure 4.3. The subordinating conjunction carries the function label SUBD (Subordinator) and the form label Conj (conjunction).

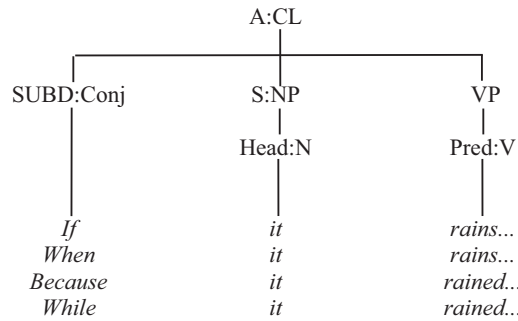


Figure 4.3

The following are examples of non-finite clauses functioning as Adjuncts:

To protect your skin, you should wear a sunblock.
Abandoned in 1942, the village is now in ruins.
Amy stood in the doorway, *looking anxious*.

Figure 4.4 shows the structure of the *to*-clause, *to protect your skin*. The word *to* carries the function label INF (infinitive) and the form label *to*.

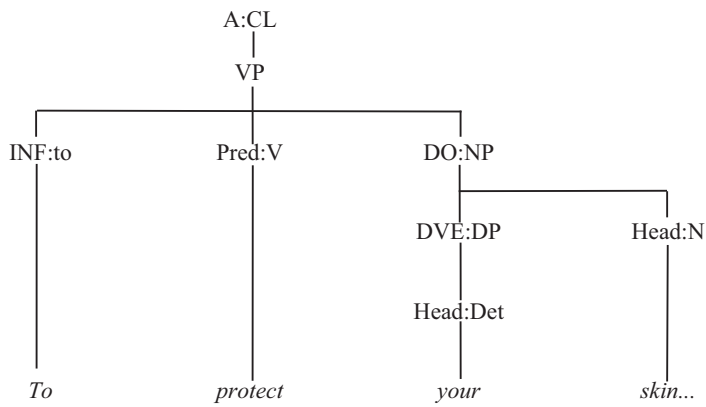


Figure 4.4

4.2.2.1 The meanings of Adjunct clauses

In section 1.8.1, we discussed the meanings of phrases when they function as Adjuncts. We identified three major types of Adjunct meaning: time, place, and manner. However, when clauses function as Adjuncts, they

can express a much wider range of meanings. The main types of meaning expressed by Adjunct clauses are shown here:

Time:

When you leave, please close the door.
I'll read the newspaper *while I'm waiting*.
Once you've got the deposit, you can apply for a mortgage.

Condition:

I'll be home early *if I can catch the early train*.
Provided he works hard, he'll do very well at school.
Don't call me *unless it's an emergency*.

Concession:

He paid for the meal, *although he can't really afford it*.
Even though he worked hard, he failed the final exam.
While I don't agree with her, I can see why she's angry.

Reason:

Paul was an hour late *because he missed his train*.
Seeing that he's been ill, he's unlikely to attend the meeting.

Result:

The kitchen was flooded, *so we had to go to a restaurant*.
I've forgotten my password, *so I can't read my email*.
Hamilton lost the case, *so he had to pay all the costs*.

Purpose:

Leave a window open *to let the steam out*.
To meet growing demand, Smartone introduced a new broadband service.
You should write down the number *so you won't forget it*.

4.2.3 *Relative clauses*

A relative clause is introduced by one of the relative pronouns, *that*, *who*, *which*, or *whose* (see 2.3.6):

The book [that I am reading] is fascinating.
The man [who lives beside us] is unwell.
This is a company [which does not exclude people].

Relative clauses function as Postmodifiers in noun phrases (3.6.4). The relative pronoun refers to the Head of the noun phrase:

the book [*that* (DO) I am reading] = I am reading *the book* (DO).

In structural terms, this is an example of movement, which we discussed in section 3.7.4, and it is illustrated in Figure 4.5.

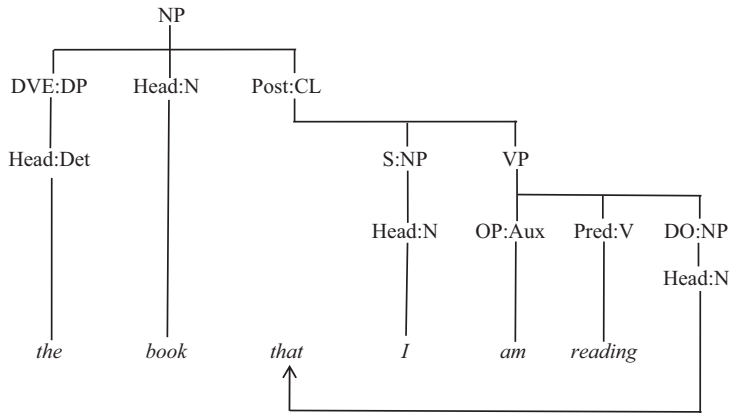


Figure 4.5

However, no movement is involved when the relative pronoun functions as the Subject of the relative clause:

the man [*who* (S) lives beside us] = He (S) lives beside us.

In some circumstances, the relative pronoun may be omitted, leaving a **zero relative clause**:

The book [*I am reading*] is fascinating.

In another variant, the relative pronoun is again omitted, and the verb has an *-ed/-en* form or an *-ing* form (2.4.1). This is a **reduced relative clause**:

Houses *built in the 1940s* are usually draughty.
(Compare: Houses *which were built in the 1940s* . . .)

The train *arriving at Platform One* is the Cambridge train.
(Compare: The train *which is arriving at Platform One* . . .)

See also: *That*-clauses (4.2.5)

4.2.4 *Nominal relative clauses*

A nominal relative clause is introduced by *what*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *where*, or *how*:

What you need is a long holiday.
Take *whatever you want*.
Whoever scores first is the winner.
This is *where the rebellion started*.
Laura showed me *how to set the timer*.

As its name suggests, there is a close correspondence between a nominal relative clause and a noun phrase (3.6):

What you need is a long holiday. → *The thing that you need* is a long holiday.
Take *whatever you want*. → Take *the thing(s) that you want*.
Whoever scores first is the winner. → *The team that scores first* is the winner.
This is *where the rebellion started*. → This is *the place where the rebellion started*.
Laura showed me *how to set the timer*. → Laura showed me *the way to set the timer*.

The structure of a nominal relative clause also involves movement (3.7.4), which is illustrated in Figure 4.6

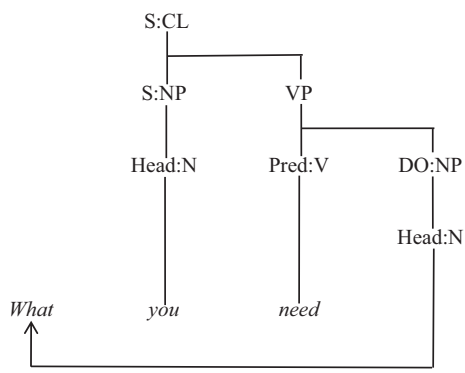


Figure 4.6

The Direct Object *what* moves from its normal position after the verb to become the first constituent in the nominal relative clause. Compare:

What (DO) *you* (S) need is a long holiday.
You (S) need *a long holiday* (DO).

As with relative clauses (4.2.3), no movement is involved when the nominal relative pronoun functions as Subject:

Whoever (S) scores first is the winner. = *Chelsea* (S) scores first.

4.2.5 That-*clauses*

A *that*-clause is introduced by Complementizer (CZR) *that*:

The new ruling means *that pensioners will suffer*.
Everyone knows *that smoking is dangerous*.
Paul has decided *that he wants to live in Canada*.

The structure of a *that*-clause is shown in Figure 4.7.

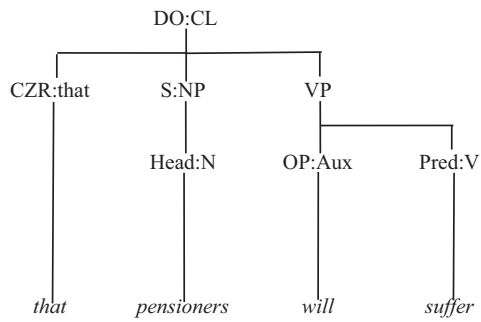


Figure 4.7

When a *that*-clause functions as Direct Object, the Complementizer is often omitted in informal style:

The new ruling means *pensioners will suffer*.

This is called a **zero subordinate clause**.

The Complementizer cannot be omitted when the *that*-clause functions as Subject:

*~~*That~~ *the government is weak* (S) is obvious.

That-clauses functioning as Subject are usually moved to the end of the sentence:

That the government is weak is obvious. → It is obvious *that the government is weak*.

See also: Extraposition and postponement (4.7), Relative pronouns (2.3.6), and Relative clauses (4.2.3)

4.2.6 *Comparative clauses*

Comparative clauses function as Complements of the prepositions *than* or *as* (3.5). The prepositional phrases express comparison in a gradable adjective (2.6.1) or adverb (2.7.3). In the following examples, the prepositional phrases are bracketed, and the comparative clauses are in italics:

Mary is older [than *I am*].
It travels faster [than *you'd expect*].
Everything is more expensive [than *it used to be*].

With preposition *as*, comparative clauses express equivalence:

Mary is as old [as *I am*].
This is as good [as *it gets*].
You can be as personal [as *you like*].

The general structure is shown on Figure 4.8.

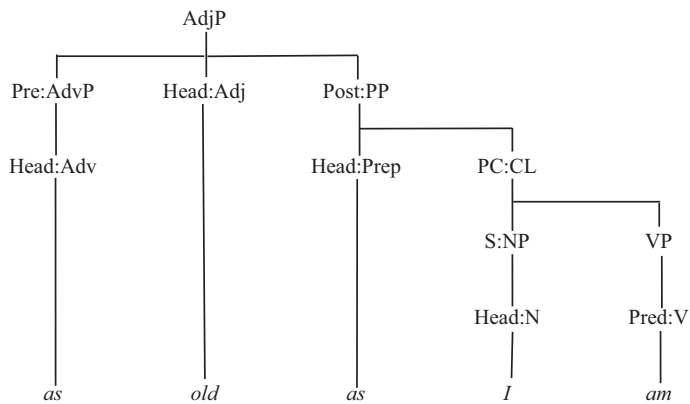


Figure 4.8

If the adjective is premodified by *too*, it is postmodified by a *to*-clause (4.2.1):

He is too young *to vote*.

If it is premodified by *so*, it is postmodified by a *that*-clause (4.2.5):

It was so cold *that the water froze*.

4.2.7 *The functions of clauses in sentences*

As constituents in sentence structure, subordinate clauses most commonly function as Adjuncts (see 4.2.2). They may also have the following functions:

1 **Subject** (see 1.4):

What you need is a long holiday.	nominal relative clause
Leaving home can be very traumatic.	*-ing* clause
To give up now would be such a pity.	*to*-clause
That he should fail to turn up is really annoying.	*that*-clause

Clauses are grammatically singular, so when they function as Subject, they take a singular verb.

Compare:

Clause as Subject:	*Flying kites* (S) is fun.
Noun phrase as Subject:	*Flying saucers* (S) are mysterious.

The different structures of these two sentences are shown in Figures 4.9 and 4.10.

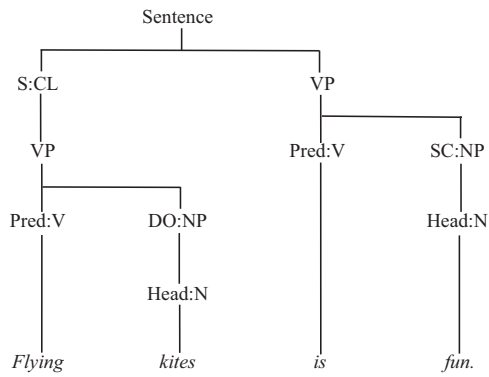


Figure 4.9

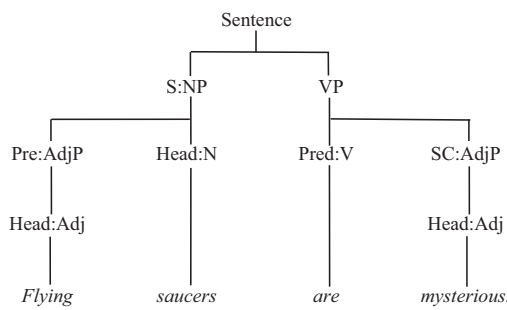


Figure 4.10

In the clause *flying kites*, *flying* is a verb; in the noun phrase *flying saucers*, *flying* is a participial adjective (2.6.3).

In a tag question (1.9), singular pronoun *it* is used when the Subject is a clause:

Flying kites is fun, isn't *it*?
Compare: *Flying saucers* are mysterious, aren't *they*?

Clauses with the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (*Dressed in armour* . . .) cannot function as Subject.

See also: Extraposition and postponement (**4.7**)

2 **Direct Object** (1.6.3)

Paul knows *that Amy prefers tennis*.	*that*-clause
Jim offered *to drive us to the airport*.	*to*-clause
Amy enjoys *visiting art galleries*.	*-ing* clause
We still don't know *what will happen*.	nominal relative clause

3 **Subject Complement** (1.6.2):

A detective's first job is *to collect the evidence*.	*to*-clause
The main problem is *finding enough money*.	*-ing* clause
The real reason is *that I can't stand him*.	*that*-clause
That's *what I'm trying to tell you*.	nominal relative clause

4.2.8 *The functions of clauses in phrases*

When a subordinate clause occurs as a constituent in a phrase, it most commonly functions as a Postmodifier. Subordinate clauses may occur as Postmodifiers in the following phrase types. The phrases are bracketed and the subordinate clauses are in italics.

1 Postmodifier in a noun phrase (3.6.4)

[The man *who lives beside us*] is unwell.	relative clause
[The man *to ask about plumbing*] is Mr Davis.	*to*-clause

That-clauses function as Complements in noun phrases (3.6.4.2):

[The fact *that no one came*] is really disappointing.
[The news *that everyone on board was killed*] has just reached us.

2 Postmodifier in an adjective phrase (3.4):

I wasn't [aware *that I had to register*]. *that*-clause
Chelsea were [reluctant *to admit defeat*]. *to*-clause

3 Complement in a prepositional phrase (3.5):

She has a reputation [for *being difficult.*] *-ing* clause
He's still coming to terms [with *what happened.*] nominal relative clause

4.3 Coordination

Coordination involves using one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, and *or* (2.9) to link constituents. In the following examples, the coordinated constituents are bracketed:

[1] [Anthony] and [Caroline] have arrived.
[2] She bought [a new dress] and [a handbag].
[3] The house was [old] but [very beautiful].
[4] The Centre cares for people who are [mentally] or [physically] disabled.

Coordination can also be used to link clauses:

[David drinks wine] and [I drink beer].
[The deception was uncovered] and [the minister resigned].
[The hotel was lovely] but [the weather was awful].
[We can cook at home] or [we can go to a restaurant].

Constituents that are coordinated function as **Conjoins** (**CJ**) in the coordinated structure, and the coordinating conjunction functions as a Coordinator (COORD). The general structure is shown in Figure 4.11.

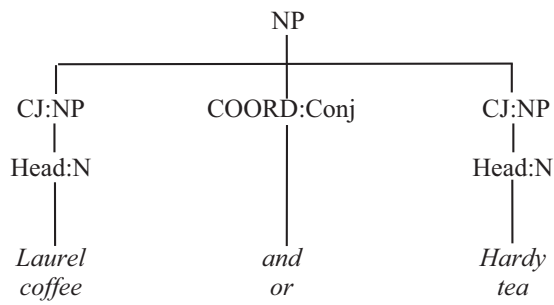


Figure 4.11

Conjoins must have the same grammatical function. For example, in sentence structure:

[Paul] and [Amy] have arrived.	**coordination of Subjects**
The house was [old] but [very beautiful].	**coordination of Subject Complements**

The next set of examples illustrate coordination in phrase structure:

spacious [rooms] and [corridors]	**coordination of NP Heads**
[neat] and [tidy] rooms	**coordination of Premodifiers**
people [ahead of us] and [behind us]	**coordination of Postmodifiers**
[four] or [five] people	**coordination of Determinatives**
in [London] and [Edinburgh]	**coordination of Prepositional Complements**

As well as having the same function, Conjoins usually have the same form. In the two examples above, we see coordination of noun phrases (*Paul* and *Amy*) and coordination of adjective phrases (*old* and *very beautiful*). However, unlike forms also are sometimes coordinated:

The house was [old] but [in good condition].	**AdjP + PP**
Is it [on TV] or [a movie]?	**PP + NP**
We talked about [writers] and [how they get their ideas].	**NP + clause**
The committee deals with [grievance] and [disciplinary] issues.	**NP + AdjP**

This is known as disparate (or 'unlike') coordination, and in tree diagrams, we label the form as 'Disp', to denote disparate forms, as shown in Figure 4.12.

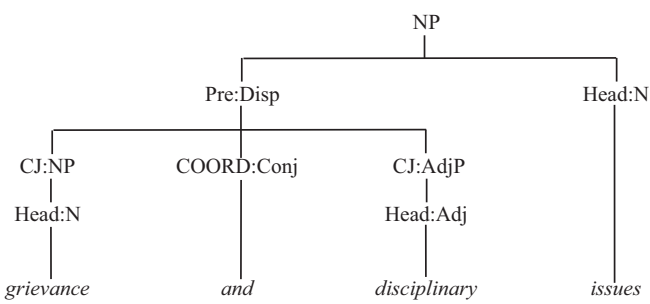


Figure 4.12

4.3.1 *Coordination types*

Coordination normally uses one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, or *or* to create a link between Conjoins:

[Quickly] *and* [resolutely], he strode into the bank.
The course was [short] *but* [intensive].
I don't like [laziness] *or* [dishonesty].

This type of coordination, with a coordinating conjunction actually present, is called **syndetic coordination**.

Coordination can also occur without a coordinating conjunction, as in:

[Quickly], [resolutely], he strode into the bank.

Coordination without the use of a coordinating conjunction is called **asyndetic coordination**.

When three or more Conjoins are coordinated, the coordinating conjunction is usually placed between the final two Conjoins only:

We need [bread], [cheese], [eggs], [flour], *and* [milk].

This is syndetic coordination, since a coordinating conjunction, *and*, is present. It would be unusual to find a coordinating conjunction between each pair of Conjoins:

We need [bread] *and* [cheese] *and* [eggs] *and* [flour] *and* [milk].

This is called **polysyndetic coordination**. It is usually only used for effect, for instance, to express repetition or continuation:

He just [talks] *and* [talks] *and* [talks].
I've said it [again] *and* [again] *and* [again].
This play will [run] *and* [run] *and* [run].

The Coordinators *and* and *or* can be used to link any number of Conjoins in coordination. However, *but* is slightly different. It can link a maximum of two Conjoins, usually clauses:

[Manchester United won the match] *but* [they lost on aggregate].

4.3.2 *The meanings of Coordinators*

AND

In its simplest form, *and* expresses **inclusive meaning**, that is, all the Conjoins are considered to be equally valid, true, or realizable:

We serve [tea], [coffee], *and* [milkshakes].
He studies [English], [French], *and* [History].

In most cases, the second (and subsequent) Conjoin simply adds to the first:

He has [a nice house] *and* [a big car].

However, *and* also has other meanings, often supported by other words like *so* or *yet*:

1	**Result**:	Tom [was bored] *and* (so) [left his job]. He [made lots of money] *and* (so) [retired early].
2	**Temporal sequence**:	The parrot [died] *and* [was buried]. I [peeled the apple] *and* [ate it].

With temporal sequence, the order of the Conjoins cannot be reversed:

		? The parrot [was buried] *and* [died].
3	**Concession**:	He [has two degrees] *and* yet [can't find a job]. He [had little education] *and* yet [was very successful].
4	**Positive condition**:	[Stop smoking now] *and* [you'll feel better]. [Lend me some money] *and* [I'll pay you back with interest].

In these examples, the first Conjoin is an imperative (4.4.3) and the second expresses a positive condition: 'If you do X, a positive result will follow'. Compare this with the negative result expressed by *or*, below.

OR

The conjunction *or* expresses **exclusive meaning**: only one Conjoin is valid, true, or realizable:

You can have [tea] *or* [coffee].
Do you want [small], [medium], *or* [large]?

With imperatives, *or* expresses a negative condition:

[Lend me some money] *or* [I'll slap you].
[Work hard] *or* [you'll fail the test].

The result is negative, unlike the positive result expressed by *and*:

[Lend me some money] *or* [I'll slap you]. **negative result**
[Lend me some money] *and* [I'll kiss you]. **positive result**

With negative condition, the meaning is 'If you don't do X, a negative result will follow'.

BUT

Unlike *and* and *or*, the conjunction *but* can only coordinate two Conjoins. It usually expresses contrast or concession:

Contrast: [Tom was there] *but* [Amy wasn't].
Concession: He is [old] *but* [very fit].

Note the use of *but* as a preposition, with no coordinating function:

No one *but* a fool would say that. (= *except*).
He is nothing *but* trouble.
I have nothing *but* admiration for him.

4.3.3 *Correlative Coordinators*

The correlative Coordinators are:

either . . . or
neither . . . nor
both . . . and
not only . . . but also

Either . . . or expresses exclusive meaning, in that only one option applies:

You can choose *either* soup or a salad.

In most instances, *either* is grammatically optional, and is used only for emphasis:

You can choose ~~*either*~~ soup or a salad.

Neither . . . nor expresses inclusive meaning, in that both options are ruled out:

We have *neither* soup nor salad.

Unlike *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor* cannot be used to coordinate whole clauses:

**Neither* the flats were too small *nor* the rents were too high.
Either the flats were too small or the rents were too high.

It can only be used to coordinate smaller constituents, such as phrases:

He *neither* reads books *nor* watches TV.	**coordinated VPs**
He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant.	**coordinated AdjPs**

Also unlike *either*, *neither* cannot be omitted:

*He is ~~*neither*~~ ambitious nor arrogant.

Neither, therefore, is similar to the word *not*, and functions as the **Negator** (see 4.5) of the sentence:

He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant = He is *not* ambitious *or* arrogant.

Despite appearances, *neither . . . nor* is not the negative of *either . . . or*. It is the negative of *both . . . and*:

He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant.	**both options are excluded**.
He is *both* ambitious *and* arrogant.	**both options are included**.

Like *neither . . . nor*, *both . . . and* cannot coordinate whole clauses:

**Both* he is ambitious *and* he is arrogant.

It can only coordinate smaller constituents:

He is *both* [my friend] *and* [my advisor].	**coordination of NPs**
He has money *both* [in stocks] *and* [in shares].	**coordination of PPs**

Like *either*, *both* is usually used only for emphasis and can be omitted:

He is ~~*both*~~ my friend and my advisor.

Not only . . . but also expresses inclusive meaning. Both options apply:

He *not only* [sings] *but also* [plays piano].

In this construction, *also* is omissible:

He *not only* [sings] *but ~~also~~* [plays piano].

It is also mobile. It can move to the end of the sentence, where it could be replaced by the adverb *too*:

He *not only* [sings] *but* [plays piano] *also/too*.

This shows that *but also* is not a constituent in this sentence. *But* is the Coordinator, and *also* functions as an Adjunct.

On the other hand, *not only* is a constituent. The two words stay together even when we rephrase the sentence:

Not only does he sing, *but* he *also* plays piano.

4.3.4 *Quasi-coordination*

The quasi-coordinators include:

as well as as much as in addition to rather than

These do not produce 'genuine' coordination. Compare the following two sentences:

[1]	[The student] *as well as* [the teacher] has to be considered.	**quasi-coordination**
[2]	[The student] *and* [the teacher] have to be considered.	**coordination**

Notice that the verb in [1] is singular (*has*), while the verb in [2] is plural (*have*). This is because in [1], the Subject is *the student*, which agrees with the singular verb *has*. In [2], the Subject is *the student and the teacher*, which is plural and takes the plural verb *have*.

The constituent *as well as the teacher* is omissible:

The student ~~as well as the teacher~~ has to be considered.

but the string *and the teacher* is not omissible:

*The student ~~and the teacher~~ have to be considered.

The constituent *as well as the teacher* is also mobile in the sentence:

The student has to be considered, as well as the teacher.

We can see, therefore, that *as well as the teacher* functions as an Adjunct (1.8) in [1]. In terms of form, it is a prepositional phrase (3.5), headed by the multi-word preposition (2.8) *as well as*. The same analysis applies to the following examples:

The interest, *in addition to* the capital, has to be repaid.
Clinton, *rather than* Trump, got my vote.
Downton Abbey is a documentary *as much as* a drama series.

The quasi-coordinators have a specific discourse function: they focus on the first NP, which is given emphatic stress in speech. In contrast, Conjoins always have equal stress.

4.4 Sentence types

There are four major sentence types: declarative (4.4.1), interrogative (4.4.2), imperative (4.4.3), and exclamative (4.4.4).

4.4.1 *Declarative sentences*

A declarative sentence is typically used to convey information or to make a statement:

This is Gladstone Park.
David is listening to music.
Simon bought a new house.

In a declarative sentence, the Subject usually comes first and is followed by the verb. While most declarative sentences make a statement (or 'declare' something), they can also have the force of a question, if they are spoken with rising intonation or written with a final question mark:

You're leaving?
No one told you it was cancelled?

4.4.2 *Interrogative sentences*

An interrogative sentence is used in asking a question and in seeking information or confirmation. There are three major types: (1) *yes/no* interrogatives, (2) alternative interrogatives, and (3) *wh*-interrogatives.

1 *Yes/no* interrogatives

Yes/no interrogatives expect only the answer *Yes* or *No*:

Has John arrived?
Did you phone me?
Are you ready?

Forming a *yes/no* interrogative involves Subject-Operator Inversion (3.7.1) and movement, which we introduced briefly in section 3.7.4. The Subject and the Operator change places, so that the verb phrase (3.7) is interrupted by the Subject:

Has (OP) John (S) arrived (V)?

We noted in 3.7.4 that the question (the interrogative) and the answer to the question (the declarative) have the same basic structure. The only difference is in the word order. The same applies to all the examples that follow.

If no Operator is present, we use *do*-support (3.7.1), bringing in the auxiliary verb *do* to function as the Operator. This is shown in Figure 4.13.

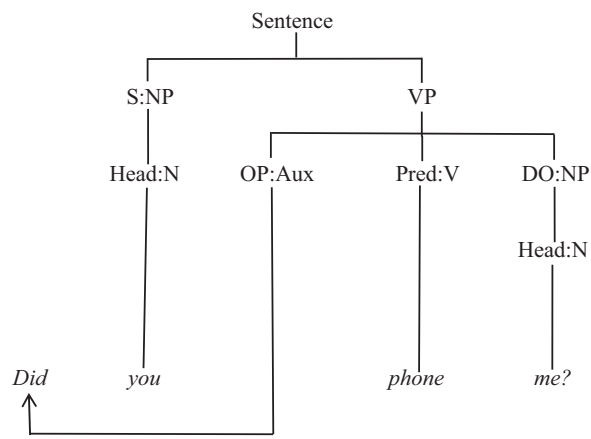


Figure 4.13

When the main verb is *be*, it moves outside the VP when it inverts with the Subject, as shown in Figure 4.14.

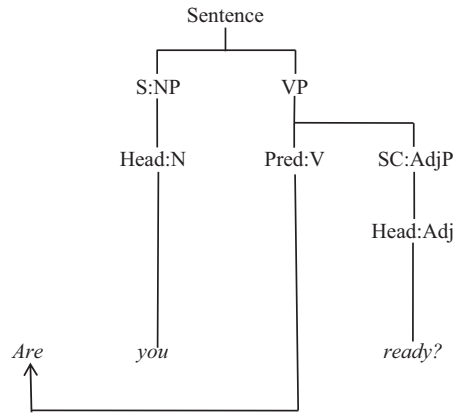


Figure 4.14

The expected answer to a *yes/no* question depends very much on whether the question is positive or negative (4.5):

Positive: *Are you ready?* – the speaker expects either a *yes* or *no* answer.
Negative: *Are you not ready?* – the speaker expects a *no* answer.

In **neutral *yes/no* interrogatives**, the speaker has no preference or expectation of a *yes* or *no* answer:

Would you like a drink?
Did you talk with Tom?

In **conducive *yes/no* interrogatives**, the speaker has an expectation of either a *yes* answer or a *no* answer:

Did you meet someone? (= 'I think you met someone', so expected answer is *yes*)
Did you not meet anyone? (= 'I think you did not meet anyone', so expected answer is *no*).

Neutral *yes/no* interrogatives use the *any-* set of pronouns, while conducive *yes/no* interrogatives use the *some-* set (see 2.3.5):

Neutral: Did *anyone* see you? (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Did *someone* see you? (expected answer = *yes*)

Neutral: Do you need *any* help (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Do you need *some* help? (expected answer = *yes*)

Neutral: Do you need *anything*? (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Do you need *something*? (expected answer = *yes*)

Negative *yes/no* interrogatives are always conducive, and often express an element of surprise or disbelief:

Do you not believe me?
Can you not hear me?
Did I not tell you?
Aren't you ready yet?

2 Alternative interrogatives

Alternative interrogatives offer two or more alternative answers:

Do you want tea or coffee?
Is that a Picasso, a Mondrian, or a Dali?
Do you prefer A, B, C, or D?

Alternative interrogatives have the same grammatical form as *yes/no* interrogatives, that is, with Subject-Operator inversion (3.7.4):

Do (OP) you (S) want tea or coffee?

They are spoken with a rising intonation, until the last item, when the intonation falls.

3 *Wh*-interrogatives

Wh-interrogatives are introduced by a word beginning with *wh*, and they expect an open-ended response:

What are you reading?
Where does Amy work?
Who won the World Cup in 2014?

The word *how* may also introduce an interrogative which expects an open-ended response:

How was your holiday?
How can I get to Charing Cross?

Like the other interrogative types, *wh*-interrogatives involve Subject-Operator inversion. Some of them involve movement (3.7.4) of one or more constituents from a position inside the verb phrase to the beginning of the sentence, as shown in Figures 4.15 and 4.16.

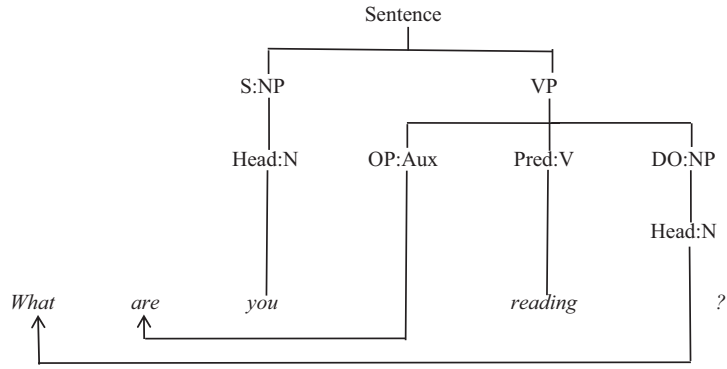


Figure 4.15

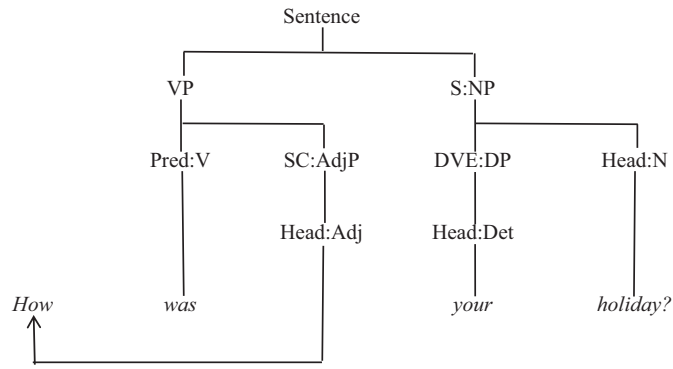


Figure 4.16

Compare:

What (DO) are (OP) you (S) reading (V)?
I (S) am (OP) reading (V) Hamlet (DO).

How (SC) was (V) your holiday (S)?
Our holiday (S) was (V) great (SC).

No movement is involved when the *wh*-word functions as the Subject:

Who (S) won (V) the World Cup in 2014?
Germany (S) won (V) the World Cup in 2014.

What (S) happened (V)?
Nothing (S) happened (V).

In these examples, the Subject is in its normal position before the verb.

4.4.3 *Imperative sentences*

Imperative sentences are used in giving orders or instructions:

Stop.
Stand up.
Bake in a pre-heated oven for 30 minutes.

Imperative sentences do not usually have a Subject, though the understood Subject is the addressee. For that reason, we can sometimes have *you* as Subject, for emphasis (or sarcasm or irritation):

You fix it, if you're so clever.

When the understood Subject is more than the addressee, we use the *let* **imperative**:

Let's go.
Let's see if the printer works.
Let's tidy up.
Let us not forget the refugees.

Here, the discourse function is weaker than an order or instruction. It is more like a 'suggestion' involving both the addressee and the speaker.

4.4.4 *Exclamative sentences*

Exclamative sentences are introduced by *what* or *how*:

What a mess you made!
How true that is!

Like interrogatives, exclamatives involve movement (3.7.4) of constituents from their normal positions in a declarative (4.4.1) sentence.

What a mess (DO) you (S) made (V)!
Compare: You (S) made (V) a mess (DO).

The word *what* here functions as Determinative in the noun phrase *what a mess (*compare: *You made (such) a mess*.).

In *How true that is!*, *how* is the Premodifier of *true* (compare: *That is very true*.).

4.5 Positive sentences and negative sentences

Sentences are either positive or negative:

Positive: Amy is a student.
Negative: Amy is not a student.

The distinction between a positive sentence and a negative sentence is called **polarity**.

The word *not* performs the function of Negator in most negative sentence. Apart from the presence of *not*, there are two other grammatical differences between positive sentences and negative sentences.

1 As we saw in 1.9, positive sentences take a negative tag question, and negative sentences take a positive tag question:

Positive	Negative
Amy is a student,	isn't she?
Negative	Positive
Amy is not a student,	is she?

2 Positive sentences coordinate with *so*:

Amy is a student and *so* is Paul.

Negative sentences coordinate with *neither*:

Amy is not a student and *neither* is Paul.

These two grammatical differences give us two tests we can use to determine the polarity of a sentence: (1) the **Tag Question Polarity Test** and

(2) the **Coordination Polarity Test**. We need tests because the word *not* may not always be present, to indicate a negative sentence. Consider the following sentence:

Tom spoke to no one at the party.

To determine whether this sentence is positive or negative, we apply the two tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to no one at the party, *did he?*

The tag question is positive, so the sentence is negative.

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to no one at the party and *neither* did Paul.

The sentence coordinates using *neither*, so it is negative.

Here is another example:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party.

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party, *didn't he?*

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party and *so* did Paul.

The two tests confirm that the sentence is positive.

The *some-* set of pronouns (2.3.5) occur in positive sentences, while the *any-*, *every-*, and *no-* sets occur in negative sentences:

Positive	**Negative**
I found *some* money.	I didn't find *any* money. / I found *no* money.
He stole *something*.	He did not steal *anything*. / He stole *nothing*.
I saw *someone*.	I did not see *anyone*. / I saw *no* one.

In relation to the polarity of a sentence, it is worth noting the differences between the following pairs of determiners (3.6.2):

a few	a little
few	little

A few and *few* are both used with countable nouns (2.2.3), but they differ in terms of polarity. For example:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew.
b Tom met *few* people that he knew.

We can work out the polarity of these sentences using the polarity tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew, *didn't he?* **positive**
b Tom met *few* people that he knew, *did he?* **negative**

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew and *so* did Amy. **positive**
b Tom met *few* people that he knew and *neither* did Amy. **negative**

Both tests show that *a few* occurs in positive sentences, while *few* occurs in negative sentences.

A little and *little* are both used with uncountable nouns (2.2.3).

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement.
b Tom is showing *little* improvement.

As before, we can work out their polarity using the two tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement, *isn't he?* **positive**
b Tom is showing *little* improvement, *is he?* **negative**

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement and *so* is Amy. **positive**
b Tom is showing *little* improvement and *neither* is Amy. **negative**

The polarity tests show that *a little* is used in positive sentences, while *little* is used in negative sentences.

4.6 Inverted sentences

When we looked at the Subject of a sentence in section 1.5, we saw that it usually comes before the verb in declarative sentences:

James (S) *is* (V) at school.

However, in many declarative sentences, that order is inverted. For example:

Here *comes* (V) *James* (S).

We know that *James* is the Subject of this sentence because it agrees in number with the verb (1.5.3):

Here *comes* (V) *James* (S). **singular Subject, singular verb**

Compare:

Here *come* (V) *the children* (S). **plural Subject, plural verb**

In an inverted sentence, the Subject comes after the verb. Inverted sentences are very commonly used, especially in informal style and in narration. For example:

Here *is* (V) *your prescription* (S).
At the top *is* (V) *a safety valve* (S).
Behind the house *is* (V) *an old stable* (S).
In the centre of town *stands* (V) *the War Memorial* (S).
In first place *is* (V) *Lewis Hamilton* (S).
Best of all *was* (V) *the performance by Coldplay* (S).

When two sentences are joined together by *and so* or *and neither*, the second sentence is inverted:

Paul is a teacher and so *is* (V) *Amy* (S).
Paul is not a teacher and neither *is* (V) *Amy* (S).

See also: Coordination, 4.3

4.7 Extraposition and postponement

When a *to*-clause (4.2.1) functions as the Subject of a sentence, it is normal to move it to the end:

To exercise is important. → It is important to exercise.

The result is an extraposed sentence. The Subject position is occupied by **anticipatory *it***, which 'anticipates' the extraposed *to*-clause. Anticipatory *it* functions as the **Provisional Subject** (**PRSU**), and the *to*-clause functions as the **Notional Subject** (**NOSU**). The structure of an extraposed sentence is shown in Figure 4.17.

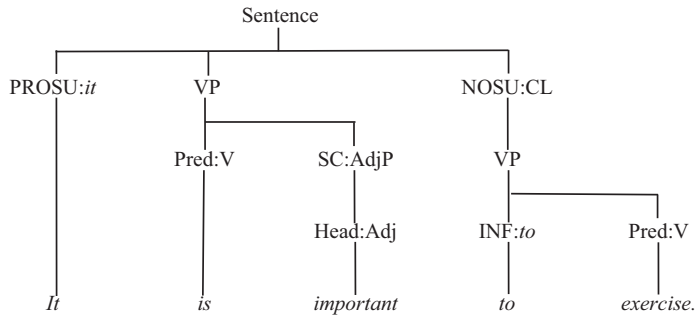


Figure 4.17

Here are some more examples of extraposed sentences:

It is very difficult to learn Chinese.
It is essential to read the instructions carefully.
It is important to bring your passport.

Anticipatory *it* is semantically empty, so unlike pronoun *it*, it cannot be replaced by a noun phrase:

The book is difficult to read. → *It* is difficult to read. (pronoun *it* = *the book*)

This has the same structure as *The book is difficult to carry / to understand / to find*, where the *to*-clauses function as Postmodifier of *difficult*.

Compare:

The light is very dim, so *it* is difficult to read. – **extraposed**, with anticipatory *it*.
The book is in Chinese, so *it* is difficult to read. – **not extraposed**, with pronoun *it* = *the book*.

Extraposition is also used when the Subject is a *that*-clause:

It (PROSU) is a pity *that you can't come* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) is infuriating *that it took you so long* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) is amazing *that no one noticed* (NOSU).

Extraposition is obligatory when the main verb is *seem*, *appear*, *transpire*, *emerge*, or *turn out*:

It (PROSU) seems *that he's left already* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) appears *that my email was ignored* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) transpired *that two students had been cheating* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) emerged *that he had misread the label* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) turned out *that he was guilty* (NOSU).

Extraposition is normal if the Direct Object in a complex transitive sentence (1.6.5) is a clause:

He made it *clear* (OC) *that we were not welcome* (DO).

Anticipatory *it* is again used here, this time as the **Provisional Direct Object** (**PRODO**), while the **Notional Direct Object** (**NODO**) is moved to the end of the sentence. So the structure of this is:

S	V	PRODO	OC	NODO
He	made	it	clear	that we were unwelcome.

Extraposition of Direct Object clauses occurs with a small number of verbs. Here are some examples:

S	V	PRODO	OC	NODO
He	finds	it	hard	to concentrate.
She	felt	it	necessary	to sell her house.
He	considers	it	degrading	to have to beg.
He	made	it	plain	that he would not cooperate.

To-clauses and *that*-clauses functioning as Direct Object may be extraposed, but we do not usually extrapose *-ing* clauses:

He finds *learning Chinese* difficult. → ? He finds *it* difficult *learning Chinese*.

To extrapose an *-ing* clause, we change it to a *to*-clause:

He finds *it* (PRODO) difficult *to learn Chinese* (NODO).

However, in most cases with *-ing* clauses, extraposition is not needed:

He finds *learning Chinese* (DO) *difficult* (OC).
He considers *studying grammar* (DO) *rewarding* (OC).

Postponement has the same effect as extraposition: it moves a constituent to the end of a sentence. However, it does not involve the use of anticipatory *it*.

Postponement is generally used for stylistic reasons. Compare the following ditransitive (1.6.4) sentences:

1 She told *him* (IO) *lies* (DO).
2 She told *the policeman who stopped her at the roadblock on the edge of town* (IO) *lies* (DO).

Sentence 1 is a perfectly good sentence, but sentence 2 is stylistically very awkward, because of the imbalance in length between the Indirect Object and the Direct Object. It is stylistically better to move the very long constituent to the end of the sentence, as follows:

2a She told *lies* (DO) to *the policeman who stopped her at the roadblock on the edge of town* (PC).

Here, the long Indirect Object has been postponed to the end of the sentence, where it follows the preposition *to*. Sentence 2a is, in fact, an example of the prepositional paraphrase of a ditransitive sentence that we discussed in section 1.6.4.

Postponement can also be used to move other very long constituents to the end of the sentence. Compare the following:

1 The new drug makes *a full recovery* (DO) *possible* (OC).
2 The new drug makes *a full recovery from the effects of inhaling dangerous chemical compounds released by decomposing organic matter* (DO) *possible* (OC).

Both of these sentences are complex transitive (1.6.5), but in sentence 2, the very long Direct Object makes it stylistically awkward and difficult to read. The solution is to postpone the DO to the end:

2a The new drug makes *possible* (OC) *a full recovery from the effects of inhaling dangerous chemical compounds released by decomposing organic matter* (DO).

4.8 *There*-sentences

There-sentences are introduced by **existential *there***:

There is a man at the door.
There is a fly in my soup.
There is no need to worry.
There are many things to consider.
There is no one here.

Existential *there* is so called because it is used, in a broad sense, to posit the existence (or non-existence) of something: *There is a God / There is no God*.

Existential *there* should be carefully distinguished from the adverb *there* (2.7.1), which refers to a location:

We met him *there*.
Leave it *there*.

Adverb *there* can be replaced by many other adverbs:

We met him *here* / *outside* / *frequently* / *occasionally* . . .
Leave it *here* / *outside* / *alone* . . .

The following sentence contains both *there*s:

There (existential) was no one *there* (adverb).

Existential *there* cannot be replaced by any other word, and it is unstressed in speech. In contrast, adverb *there* often receives emphatic stress:

Put it *THERE*, where I can see it.

We said in section 1.5 that the Subject of *There is a man at the door* is the word *there*, and we showed this by applying the Inversion Test and the Tag Question Test:

Inversion Test: Is *there* a man at the door? (*there* inverts with the verb)
Tag Question Test: There is a man at the door, isn't *there*? (the tag question ends in *there*).

However, consider the following:

There are two men at the door.

Notice that the verb changes from *is* to *are*, when *a man* changes to *two men*. We know from Subject-verb agreement (1.5.3) that the Subject agrees in number with the verb, so this example suggests that the Subject of *There is a man at the door* is *a man*, and not the word *there*, as previously stated.

In fact, the function of Subject in *there*-sentences is shared by existential *there* and the noun phrase that follows the verb. Existential *there* inverts with the verb to form a question, while the noun phrase agrees with the verb in number. Therefore we say that *there* functions as the Provisional Subject (PROSU) and the noun phrase after the verb functions as the Notional Subject (NOSU).

The structure of a *there*-sentence is:

PROSU	V	NOSU	A
There	is	a man	at the door.
There	are	two men	at the door.
There	is	milk	in the fridge.
There	is	no need to worry.	
There	are	many things to consider.	
There	is	no one here.	

When an Adjunct (A) is present, it generally refers to location: *at the door*, *in the fridge*.

4.9 Cleft sentences

The term 'cleft' means 'divided', and in grammar it is used to describe a sentence that has been divided into two clauses. The clauses are bracketed in the following examples:

[Amy studied History at Harvard].	**one non-cleft sentence, one clause**
[It was Amy] [who studied History at Harvard].	**one cleft sentence, two clauses**

Several cleft versions of a sentence are possible:

It was *Amy* who studied History at Harvard.
It was *History* that Amy studied at Harvard.
It was *at Harvard* that Amy studied History.

The constituent after the verb (in italics) is called the Focus. The Focus receives emphatic stress in speech, and the choice of Focus depends on what we wish to emphasise and what contrasts we wish to make:

It was *Amy* who studied History at Harvard, *not Paul*.
It was *History* that Amy studied at Harvard, *not English*.
It was *at Harvard* that Amy studied History, *not at Yale*.

The *it* that introduces a cleft sentence is called cleft *it*, and it functions as the Subject. The verb in a cleft sentence is always *be*, and it is followed by a clause, which functions as the Focus Complement. The structure of a cleft sentence is:

S	V	Focus	Focus Complement
It	was	Amy	who studied History at Harvard.
It	is	the final score	that counts.
It	was	after the war	that they met.
It	wasn't	until later	that he realised his mistake.

4.10 Sentence connectors

Throughout this book, we have taken the sentence as the largest grammatical unit. However, in all forms of continuous communication, both spoken and written, sentences do not operate independently of each other. Instead, effective communication depends to a very large extent on placing sentences in the correct sequence, and on creating meaningful links between them. In this section, we look at some grammatical devices which enable us to create links between sentences in discourse.

There are two main types of sentence connectors: logical connectors (4.10.1) and structural connectors (4.10.2).

4.10.1 Logical connectors

Logical connectors express a logical relationship between sentences. They express two main types of relationship:

1 Contrast/concession.
Contrast/concession connectors are used to express a contrast between the information expressed by two sentences:

The closing date is 15 December. *However*, you are advised to submit your application as soon as possible.

Building a wall between the United States and Mexico is totally impractical. *Nevertheless*, President Trump is still tweeting about it.

Anybody who says that there is great glory in war is off his head. *On the other hand*, I have to say that war does bring out in people extraordinary nobility.

Other contrast/concession connectors include *alternatively*, *anyway*, *besides*, *in contrast*, *instead*, *nonetheless*, *still*, *yet*.

2 Result.
Result connectors are used to indicate that the second sentence expresses the result or consequence of what has gone before:

Approval has already been given for a golf course at Smithstown, only three miles away. *Therefore*, an extra facility in the area was considered to be unnecessary.

I have not yet issued you with an invoice for the period prior to Christmas. *Consequently*, I am enclosing an invoice for the total amount of time used so far.

Thousands of commuters have been evacuated from platforms as the police launch a full-scale search. *As a result*, all underground stations with connections to British Rail are also shut.

Other result connectors include *accordingly*, *hence*, *in consequence*, *so*, *then*, *thus*.

4.10.2 *Structural connectors*

Structural connectors are devices for ordering sentences and paragraphs, and for organizing the points we wish to make. Structural connectors are used for the following purposes:

1 Listing.
Listing connectors are used to list points in a specific order:

First, he cannot stand against the leader unless he is fairly sure of a victory. *Second*, if the Tories lose the next election he will be written out of the succession.

Firstly you have your brakes. *Secondly* you've got the throttle here on the handlebars.

To begin with, turn down the colour control. *Then* manipulate the contrast and brightness controls. *Next*, adjust the opacity of the image.

Other listing connectors include *in the first place*, *in the second place*, *for one thing*, *for another thing*, *finally*, *lastly*.

2 Adding.
Adding connectors are used to add new information to what has previously been said:

All fatal accidents must be reported immediately to police. *In addition*, the local coroner must be notified.
The Data Protection Act seeks to protect not just data but owners of data. *Furthermore*, it provides guidelines for all users of data.
His remark really shocked me. *Also*, I was baffled by his logic.

Other adding connectors include *additionally*, *moreover*, *what is more*, *on top of that* (informal), *as well as that*.

3 Summing up.
Summing up connectors are used to introduce a section which 'sums up' or concludes what has gone before:

In conclusion, the fear of an overwhelming influx of immigrants is one of the least defensible arguments.
Overall, the policy has been a success.
All in all, he felt he'd had enough.

Other 'summing up' connectors include *altogether*, *in sum*, *in summary*, *to conclude*, *to summarize*.

4 Exemplifying.
Exemplifying connectors introduce examples or instances in support of what has previously been said:

Several new features have been added. *For example*, the display now offers a split-screen view.
Ultraviolet radiation is known to have effects on the immune system. *For instance*, cold sores often occur at the beginning of a summer holiday.

Other exemplifying connectors include *e.g.* (= *for example*), *i.e.* (= *that is*), *namely*.

All connectors function as Adjuncts (1.8) in sentence structure. Like other Adjuncts, they are grammatically optional, and they are mobile within the sentence. However, since their primary role is to create a link between two sentences, it is usually best to place them at the beginning of the second sentence. Compare:

1 The closing date is 15 December. *However*, you are advised to submit your application as soon as possible.

2 The closing date is 15 December. You are advised to submit your application as soon as possible, *however*.

Both pairs of sentences are grammatically correct, but the first pair is more effective than the second. In that pair, the placement of *however* at the start of the second sentence sharpens the logical contrast between the two sentences.

4.11 Referring expressions

Continuous discourse always contains a great deal of cross-referring from one sentence to another. In fact, the coherence of a text – whether written or spoken – depends on making unambiguous cross-references between the various sentences. For example:

Simon came home early. *He* was not feeling well.

Here, the personal pronoun *he* (2.3.1) refers back to the proper noun *Simon* (2.2.1). We say that *Simon* is the **antecedent** of *he*. The pronoun *he* agrees with its antecedent in number (singular), person (third) and gender (masculine). This is called antecedent agreement. The following examples illustrate the use of pronouns to refer back to an antecedent. In each example, the antecedent and its corresponding pronoun are shown in italics.

You should prepare *a study timetable*. You can modify *it* later if you need to.
I like *Johnny Depp*. I saw *him* in Pirates of the Caribbean.
London Underground has announced *the suspension of trains on the Circle Line*. *This* is due to track maintenance work.
When we feel emotion, *certain involuntary changes* occur within us. *These* include changes in salivation, breathing, and heart-rate.

A pronoun can also refer back to the whole of a previous sentence:

Check-in time was ten o'clock. *That* meant we had to get up at six.

The adverbs (2.7) *there* and *then* can also refer back to an antecedent:

We've always loved *Majorca*. We go *there* every year.
We lived in Melbourne *in 2008*. We had no children *then*.

Referring back in this way is called anaphoric reference, or simply **anaphora**. For the purposes of clear communication, it is important to ensure that

there is agreement between a pronoun and its antecedent. In the following, there is no agreement:

> *A good speaker system* can be all you need to transform your PC from a piece of furniture into an entertainment centre. *They* can give games a lift as much as any posh graphics card.

Since the antecedent *a good speaker system* is singular, we would expect the singular pronoun *it* in the second sentence: *It can give games a lift . . .*

Perhaps more importantly for clear communication, the antecedent should be unambiguous:

> Laura used to babysit a little girl who kept throwing *her* shoes in the fire.

Here, the antecedent of *her* is ambiguous, since it is unclear exactly whose shoes were thrown in the fire. In grammatical terms, is *Laura* or *a little girl* the antecedent of *her*?

In the next example, the antecedent of the pronoun *his* is unclear:

> Tom sat down beside Paul and ate *his* sandwiches.

Again, this is ambiguous: whose sandwiches did Tom eat, his own or Paul's?

Referring back is the most common type of cross-referring in a text. However, we can also refer forward:

> When *she* got home, *Amy* went to bed.
> *It*'s here at last. *The iPhone X* is finally available in the shops.

Referring forward is called cataphoric reference, or **cataphora**. In general, cataphora is more difficult to use than anaphora, because it is often potentially ambiguous. For example:

> *Her* mother was ill but *Amy* said nothing.

Here, we assume that *her* refers forward to *Amy*, so that *her mother* means *Amy's mother*. However, this is not necessarily the case: without further context, *her mother* could also refer to someone else's mother.

Exercises for Chapter 4

Exercise 4.1: Subordination (4.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the subordinate clauses.

1 An earthquake has struck the mountainous region of Qinghai, China, killing over 600 people.
2 Local authorities estimate that around 9,000 people have been injured.
3 Rescue attempts are difficult because the area is very remote.
4 The disaster struck on Wednesday, when the quake shook the entire region.
5 Several schools have collapsed in the township of Jiegu, killing many young people.
6 To reach some victims, rescuers must tunnel through several metres of debris.
7 The central government in Beijing has praised the rescuers, who are working throughout the night.
8 While aftershocks continue, more and more bodies are being found.

Exercise 4.2: Subordination (4.2)

Indicate whether the underlined clauses are Adjunct clauses, relative clauses, or nominal relative clauses.

1 The man standing next to the President is his Chief of Staff.
2 He is the man who is responsible for all White House staff.
3 What every President needs most is someone to organize his timetable.
4 President Obama knew all his staff by their first names, as though he had hired them himself.
5 If the President leaves the White House, he is usually accompanied by the press.
6 President Obama caused panic among security when he slipped out to his daughter's football game.
7 It takes most Presidents some time to learn how to handle all their responsibilities.

Exercise 4.3: That-*clauses (4.2.5)*

In the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined *that* is relative pronoun *that*, Complementizer *that*, demonstrative pronoun *that*, or adverb *that*:

1 The policeman said that we should install a burglar alarm.
2 At that time, we didn't even lock the door when we went out.

3 It is not that unusual to see homes with alarms and security cameras too.
4 The alarm that we installed is working well.
5 A neighbour told us that he was burgled twice.
6 Burglars seem to know the areas that they operate in.
7 That helps the police to identify them.

Exercise 4.4: The functions of clauses in sentences (4.2.7)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined clauses in the following sentences.

1 That is how most people first get involved with drugs.
2 Nobody wants to become a drug addict.
3 Many young people don't realise that drugs can kill you.
4 For some people, saying 'no' is not as easy as it sounds.
5 To avoid conflict at home, some parents just ignore the problem.
6 To criticize all parents on these grounds seems a bit harsh.
7 Teenagers simply don't like being criticized.
8 Uncritical advice is what they need.

Exercise 4.5: The functions of clauses in phrases (4.2.8)

Indicate the function of each of the following the underlined clauses.

1 The patient is unable to move his legs.
2 My brother has invented a new way of developing photographs.
3 Some children are afraid to go to sleep at night.
4 Following several unsuccessful attempts to restore peace, a ceasefire was finally signed.
5 A man who tried to steal a police car has been detained for questioning.
6 The UN considered a suggestion that German soldiers should be part of the peace-keeping troop.
7 All investors are anxious to get their money back.

Exercise 4.6: Coordination (4.3)

Underline the Conjoins in each of the following sentences:

1 The forensics team examined the evidence carefully and methodically.
2 You will have to wait two or three weeks for a visa.
3 He works during the day and goes to classes at night.
4 You have to consider your own interests and other people's interests.

5 Voting ends at 9pm but the result won't be known for 48 hours.
6 The dog ran out the door and across the road.
7 My grandfather is weak but in good spirits.

Exercise 4.7: Sentence types (4.4)

Indicate whether the sentences below are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamative.

1 I will see you on Wednesday.
2 Please let me know if you need anything.
3 How much is a cheeseburger?
4 If it is raining, we will take the car.
5 How young she looks in that dress.
6 Do you need anything else?
7 What a great player he is.

Exercise 4.8: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

Make the positive sentences below negative and make the negative sentences positive.

1 My parents are on holiday.
2 We do not accept Euros.
3 Is the cash machine not working?
4 Amy used her credit card.
5 Don't wait for me.
6 Does she eat meat?
7 Paul never lies.

Exercise 4.9: Extraposition and postponement (4.7)

Rewrite each of the following sentences so that they have an extraposed Subject and begin with anticipatory *it*:

1 To worry about the future is perfectly normal.
2 That the children should have adequate food and clothing is very important.
3 Whether or not they qualify for subsidised housing is unclear at this stage.
4 That climate change is a reality is now undisputed.
5 To use an electric blender is so much more convenient.
6 Seeing a flying saucer is very unusual.
7 That the government was in crisis became more obvious every day.

Exercise 4.10: Cleft sentences (4.9)

In each of the following cleft sentences, underline the Focus and indicate its form. For example:

It was Amy who took the phone call.	It was <u>Amy</u> (NP) who took the phone call.

1 It was my Dad who told me the result.
2 It was after watching the video replay that the referee awarded a penalty.
3 It was the goalkeeper who committed the foul.
4 Was it before or after the game that the violence broke out?
5 Is it usually the home fans that cause trouble?
6 It was through bribery and corruption that they won the league.

Chapter 5

Word formation and spelling

5.1 The structure of words

Many words in English have a recognisable internal structure. For example, the word *unsuccessful* can be broken down into the following three parts:

un + success + ful

The first part, *un-*, is called the **prefix**. The second part – *success* – is a complete word in itself, and is called the **base**. The last part, *-ful*, is called the **suffix**.

Prefix	**Base**	**Suffix**
un	success	ful

Prefixes and suffixes are added to existing words to create new words.

5.2 Prefixes

Prefixes are added to the beginning of a word to create a new word. They contribute specific types of meaning. For instance, when we add the prefix *pre-* to the word *1945*, we create a new word *pre-1945*, meaning *before* 1945. The following are the main prefixes used in English, together with the kinds of meaning they contribute.

anti-	
against, opposed to	*anti-depressant*, *anti-nuclear*, *anti-war*, *anti-Western*
de-	
to reverse something	*decriminalise*, *de-activate*, *de-commission*, *deform*
dis-	
reverse of	*disagreement*, *disapprove*, *dislike*, *disqualify*
remove something	*disambiguate*, *disarm*, *disenfranchise*, *dislodge*

extra-	
beyond	*extraterrestrial*, *extra-curricular*, *extra-mural*, *extra-sensory*
il-, im-, in-, ir-	
not	*illegal*, *illegible*, *illegitimate*, *impatient*, *impossible*, *impolite*, *inappropriate*, *inconceivable*, *intolerant*, *irregular*, *irrelevant*, *irresponsible*
inter-	
between	*international*, *inter-racial*, *intergalactic*, *interwoven*
mis-	
to do something badly or incorrectly	*miscalculate*, *misconstrue*, *miskick*, *misunderstand*
non-	
not	*non-European*, *non-resident*, *non-stick*, *non-white*
post-	
after	*post-1945*, *postgraduate*, *post-colonial*, *post-war*
pre-	
before	*pre-1914*, *pre-war*, *predetermined*, *pre-set*
pro-	
in favour of	*pro-life*, *pro-democracy*, *pro-Europe*
re-	
to do something again	*re-apply*, *re-design*, *re-introduce*, *repaint*
un-	
reverse of remove something	*unclear*, *undemocratic*, *unnecessary*, *unusual* *undress*, *unleash*, *unmask*, *unscrew*

5.3 Suffixes

Suffixes are added to the end of a word to create a new word. Certain suffixes are associated with certain word classes. For instance, the suffix *-able* appears at the end of many adjectives, including *reasonable*, *remarkable*, *believable*. The suffix *-ist* is used to create many nouns, including *capitalist*, *physicist*, *specialist*. The following are the most common suffixes associated with the major word classes.

1 **Noun suffixes**:

-age	*blockage*, *drainage*, *postage*, *spillage*
-al	*betrayal*, *dismissal*, *recital*, *removal*
-ant	*claimant*, *contestant*, *inhabitant*, *informant*
-dom	*freedom*, *kingdom*, *martyrdom*, *officialdom*
-ee	*absentee*, *employee*, *refugee*, *trainee*

-er/-or	*actor*, *blender*, *defender*, *eraser*, *teacher*
-ism	*ageism*, *favouritism*, *racism*, *terrorism*
-ist	*artist*, *cyclist*, *motorist*, *perfectionist*
-ity	*opportunity*, *publicity*, *responsibility*, *severity*
-ment	*embarrassment*, *environment*, *equipment*, *government*
-ness	*coolness*, *dryness*, *smoothness*, *willingness*
-ship	*citizenship*, *dictatorship*, *hardship*, *relationship*
-tion	*demonstration*, *ignition*, *migration*, *recreation*

2 **Adjective suffixes**:

-able	*achievable*, *profitable*, *reasonable*, *remarkable*
-al	*accidental*, *industrial*, *musical*, *physical*, *whimsical*
-ful	*grateful*, *hopeful*, *successful*, *tuneful*, *useful*
-ish	*amateurish*, *childish*, *feverish*, *foolish*, *ghoulish*
-less	*careless*, *homeless*, *hopeless*, *painless*, *restless*
-like	*apelike*, *childlike*, *godlike*, *starlike*
-y	*cloudy*, *creepy*, *funny*, *rainy*, *sleepy*

3 **Verb suffixes**:

-ate	*adjudicate*, *congratulate*, *hyphenate*, *populate*
-en	*broaden*, *deafen*, *ripen*, *sadden*, *tighten*, *widen*
-ify	*amplify*, *beautify*, *clarify*, *classify*, *identify*, *purify*
-ise/-ize	*economize*, *modernize*, *popularize*, *realise*, *terrorize*

4 **Adverb suffixes**:

-ly	*brilliantly*, *carefully*, *slowly*, *smoothly*, *terribly*
-wards	*afterwards*, *backwards*, *onwards*, *upwards*
-wise	*anticlockwise*, *clockwise*, *health-wise*, *relationship-wise*

5.4 Compounding and blending

Compounding involves combining two bases (5.1) to create a new word. For instance, the bases *head* and *ache* combine to form *headache*. Further examples of compounding include:

chair + person = *chairperson*
green + house = *greenhouse*

help	+	line	=	*helpline*
key	+	board	=	*keyboard*
life	+	style	=	*lifestyle*
match	+	box	=	*matchbox*
news	+	paper	=	*newspaper*
post	+	card	=	*postcard*

Many participial adjectives (2.6.3) are formed by compounding a noun with the *-ed/-en* or *-ing* form of a verb (2.4.5–6), as set out below.

Noun		***-ed/-en -ing* Verb**		**Adjective**
drug	+	induced	=	*drug-induced*
poverty	+	stricken	=	*poverty-stricken*
battery	+	operated	=	*battery-operated*
stress	+	related	=	*stress-related*
rat	+	infested	=	*rat-infested*
award	+	winning	=	*award-winning*
eye	+	catching	=	*eye-catching*
fun	+	loving	=	*fun-loving*
penny	+	pinching	=	*penny-pinching*
time	+	consuming	=	*time-consuming*

See also: Participial adjectives (2.6.3)

Blending is similar to compounding, except that only parts of existing words are combined to create a new word. For example, the word *cam-corder* is formed by combining *cam* (from *camera*) with *corder* (from *recorder*). Other examples of blending include:

bionic	=	*bio*logical	+	electr*onic*
biopic	=	*bio*graphical	+	*pic*ture
Brexit	=	*B*ritain's	+	*exit* from the European Union
cyborg	=	*cy*bernetic	+	*org*anism
docudrama	=	*docu*mentary	+	*drama*
docusoap	=	*docu*mentary	+	*soap* opera
ecoterrorism	=	*eco*logy	+	*terrorism*
edutainment	=	*edu*cation	+	enter*tainment*
e-zine	=	electronic	+	maga*zine*
heliport	=	*heli*copter	+	air*port*
infotainment	=	*in*formation	+	enter*tainment*
motel	=	*mo*tor	+	ho*tel*

netiquette	=	Inter*net*	+	eti*quette*
netizen	=	Inter*net*	+	citi*zen*
paratroopers	=	*para*chute	+	*troopers*
pulsar	=	*pul*sating	+	st*ar*
sci-fi	=	*sci*ence	+	*fi*ction
simulcast	=	*simul*taneous	+	broad*cast*
smog	=	*sm*oke	+	*fog*

5.5 Acronyms, abbreviations, and clipping

Acronyms are formed by combining the initial letters or syllables of two or more words. The combination is pronounced as a single word:

AIDS	*a*cquired *i*mmune *d*eficiency *s*yndrome
BIOS	*B*asic *I*nput *O*utput *S*ystem
FAQ	*f*requently *a*sked *qu*estions
laser	*l*ight *a*mplification by stimulated emission of *r*adiation
OS	*O*perating *S*ystem
Oxfam	*Ox*ford Committee for *Fam*ine Relief
radar	*ra*dio *d*etecting *a*nd *r*anging
RAM	*r*andom *a*ccess *m*emory
ROM	*r*ead-*o*nly *m*emory
SAD	*s*easonal *a*ffective *d*isorder
SALT	*S*trategic *A*rms *L*imitation *T*reaty
SatNav	*sat*ellite *nav*igation system
scuba	self-contained *u*nderwater *b*reathing *a*pparatus
UNPROFOR	*U*nited *N*ations *Pro*tection *For*ce
WYSIWYG	*W*hat *Y*ou *S*ee *I*s *W*hat *Y*ou *G*et

Abbreviations are also formed from the initial letters of words, but unlike acronyms, they are spoken by spelling out each letter:

ATM	automated teller machine
BST	British Standard Time
cpu	central processing unit
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
GPS	global positioning system
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HTML	hypertext markup language
http	hypertext transfer protocol

ISD	international subscriber dialling
IT	information technology
o.g.	own goal
OTT	over the top
PC	personal computer (*also* political correctness)
PRP	performance-related pay (*also* profit-related pay)
RSI	repetitive strain injury
UFO	unidentified flying object
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
URL	Universal Resource Locator
WWF	World Wildlife Fund
WWW	World Wide Web

The following abbreviations are now widely used in email messages and in social media:

AFK	away from keyboard
BTW	by the way
FWIW	for what it's worth
FYI	for your information
IMHO	in my humble opinion
IMO	in my opinion
LOL	laughing out loud

Clipping is a type of abbreviation in which one or more syllables are omitted or 'clipped' from a word. Most commonly, the beginning of the word is retained:

ad (also *advert*)	advertisement
decaff (also *decaf*)	decaffeinated coffee
demo	demonstration
exam	examination
fax	facsimile
gym	gymnastics (also gymnasium)
lab	laboratory
memo	memorandum
movie	moving picture
photo	photograph
pic	picture
pop	popular music

Clipping is a very common method of creating familiar personal names, including *Fred* (from *Frederick*), *Tim* (from *Timothy*) and *Seb* (from *Sebastian*).

5.6 Back formations

Back formations are words (usually verbs) formed by removing from a noun what is thought to be a suffix, and adding a verb ending. In the following, the right-hand column shows the word from which the back formation is derived.

emote	emotion
enthuse	enthusiasm
liaise	liaison
prioritise	priority
sculpt	sculptor
televise	television

The verb *legitimize* is formed by back formation from the adjective *legitimate*.

5.7 Combining forms

Combining forms are segments that do not exist as words in their own right, but carry a specific meaning when they are combined with other segments. They are added to the beginning or end of another segment or word to create a new word. The following combining forms have been especially productive in recent years:

bio-	*biodiversity*, *bioethics*, *biohazard*, *biosphere*
cyber-	*cybernaut*, *cybernetics*, *cyberspace*
e-	*email*, e-*business*, e-*commerce*, e-*text*
Euro-	*Eurocrat*, *Eurosceptic*, *Eurostar*, *Eurotunnel*
hyper-	*hyperlink*, *hypermarket*, *hypermedia*, *hypertext*
mega-	*megabucks*, *megabyte*, *megastar*, *megastore*
techno-	*technobabble*, *technocrat*, *technojunkie*, *techno-pop*
tele-	*telecottage*, *telematics*, *teleworking*, *telemarketing*
-ware	*freeware*, *hardware*, *malware*, *shareware*, *software*

5.8 Inflections

Inflections are a special type of suffix (5.3). They are added to the end of a word to indicate a grammatical property. For instance, the *-s* inflection is added to a noun to indicate plural number (*tree/trees*).

Inflections differ from other suffixes in one important respect. The suffix *-ment*, for example, added to the verb *embarrass* creates a completely different word, the noun *embarrassment*. Adding an inflection, however, does not create a new word, but a different grammatical form of the same word. For example, the words *tree* and *trees* are two forms of the same lexical word *tree*. In a dictionary, they would both appear under *tree*. They differ only in number: *tree* is singular and *trees* is plural.

In comparison with other languages, English has relatively few inflections. They are always suffixes, that is, they are always added to the end of a word. The inflections are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Inflections

	Inflection		Examples
Nouns	Plural number	*-s*	trees
	Genitive	*-'s* *-'*	John's car the boys' school
Main Verbs	-s form (3rd-person singular)	*-s*	walk*s*
	past form	*-ed*	walk*ed*
	-ed/-en form	*-ed*	walk*ed*
	-ing form	*-ing*	walk*ing*
Adjectives and adverbs	Comparative Superlative	*-er* *-est*	older, sooner oldest, soonest

5.9 Adding inflections: general spelling rules

There are four general spelling rules for adding inflections. These are set out below:

1 **Spelling rule 1**. Double the final consonant before adding *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-ed***	***+-ing***
rub	rubbed	rubbing
stop	stopped	stopping
gag	gagged	gagging
jam	jammed	jamming
plan	planned	planning
occur	occurred	occurring
regret	regretted	regretting

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
red	redder	reddest
big	bigger	biggest
grim	grimmer	grimmest
wet	wetter	wettest

- In British English, verbs ending in *-el* double the *l*:

travel	travelled	travelling
marvel	marvelled	marvelling

- However, in American English, final *l* is not doubled:

travel	traveled	traveling
marvel	marveled	marveling

- Final *l* is not doubled when it follows *a* or *o*:

conceal	concealed	concealing
reveal	revealed	revealing
cool	cooled	cooling

- Final *g* is not doubled when it follows *n*:

strong	stronger	strongest
young	younger	youngest

2 **Spelling rule 2.** Change final *y* to *i* before adding *-s*, *-ed*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-s***	***+-ed***
cry	cries	cried
occupy	occupies	occupied
try	tries	tried
worry	worries	worried

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
easy	easier	easiest
funny	funnier	funniest
heavy	heavier	heaviest
weary	wearier	weariest

Adverb	***+-er***	***+-est***
early	earlier	earliest

- If the final *y* follows a vowel, then it is retained:

convey	conveys	conveyed
delay	delays	delayed
play	plays	played
enjoy	enjoys	enjoyed

- The verbs *lay*, *pay*, and *say* do not take an *-ed* ending:

lay	lays	laid
pay	pays	paid
say	says	said

3 **Spelling rule 3**. Drop silent *e* before adding *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-ed***	***+-ing***
care	cared	caring
change	changed	changing
hope	hoped	hoping
love	loved	loving

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
blue	bluer	bluest
close	closer	closest
large	larger	largest
whitest	whiter	whitest

- If the base ends in *ie*, change *ie* to *y* before adding *-ing*:

die	dying
lie	lying
tie	tying

- The e is retained in *dyeing* and *canoeing*.

4 **Spelling rule 4.** Add *e* before *-s* if the base ends in one of the following: *s*, *sh*, *ch*, *tch*, *x* or *z*:

Verb	***+s***
pass	passes
push	pushes
teach	teaches
catch	catches
relax	relaxes
buzz	buzzes

Noun	***+s***
mass	masses
box	boxes
church	churches
match	matches
wish	wishes
quiz	quizzes

On irregular noun plurals, see 5.11.

5.10 Adding *-ly* and *-ally*

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective:

Adjective	**Adverb**
quiet	quietly
recent	recently
soft	softly

If the adjective already ends in *y*, change *y* to *i*:

Adjective	**Adverb**
steady	steadily
weary	wearily

However, if the adjective ends in *-ic*, add *-ally* (not *-ly*) to form the adverb:

Adjective	**Adverb**
basic	basically
dramatic	dramatically
enthusiastic	enthusiastically
emphatic	emphatically
genetic	genetically
linguistic	linguistically
realistic	realistically
scientific	scientifically
specific	specifically

The adverb *publicly* (from the adjective *public*) is an exception to this rule.

5.11 Plural nouns

Regular nouns form the plural by adding *-s* to the singular form:

Singular	**+**	**s**	**=**	**Plural**
table	+	s	=	tables
truck	+	s	=	trucks
elephant	+	s	=	elephants

Some plurals are formed by changing the singular ending in an irregular way:

-y → -ies	ability → *abilities*
	memory → *memories*
	party → *parties*
-s → -es	cross → *crosses*
	loss → *losses*
	mass → *masses*

-f or -fe → -ves	thief → *thieves*
	shelf → *shelves*
	life → *lives* (but note: *lowlife* → *lowlifes*)
-on → -a	criterion → *criteria*
	phenomenon → *phenomena*
-um → -a	bacterium → *bacteria*
	millennium → *millennia*
-us → -i	focus → *foci*
	nucleus → *nuclei*
-a → -ae	amoeba → *amoebae*
	formula → *formulae*
-is → -es	analysis → *analyses*
	crisis → *crises*
-ex or -ix → -ices	index → *indices*
	matrix → *matrices*

Nouns ending in *-o* generally take the *-os* ending in the plural form (*photos*, *radios*, *videos*), but in some older words, the plural is formed by changing *-o* to *-oes*:

-o → -oes	echo → *echoes*
	hero → *heroes*
	tomato → *tomatoes*

5.12 Variants with *s* or *z*

Many words can be spelled with either *-s-* or *-z-*:

-s- variant	**-z- variant**
criticise	criticize
finalise	finalize
organise	organize
organisation	organization
polarise	polarize
realise	realize
realisation	realization

Both variants are acceptable, though in general, American English prefers the *-z-* variant, while British English prefers the *-s-* variant.

No choice is available in the following words, which are always spelled with *-s-*:

advise	exercise
arise	guise
chastise	revise
comprise	rise
despise	supervise
disguise	surprise
enterprise	wise

5.13 British and American spelling variants

Spelling differences between British English and American English are not as widespread as is often thought. The vast majority of words have the same spelling in both varieties. However, the following systematic spelling differences may be observed:

	British English	American English
-our / -or	*behaviour*	*behavior*
	colour	*color*
	favourite	*favorite*
	humour	*humor*
	labour	*labor*
	neighbour	*neighbor*
-re / -er	*centre*	*center*
	fibre	*fiber*
	theatre	*theater*
	litre	*liter*
	metre	*meter*
-ogue / -og	*analogue*	*analog*
	catalogue	*catalog*
	dialogue	*dialog*
ae, oe / e	*anaemia*	*anemia*
	anaesthesia	*anesthesia*
	diarrhoea	*diarrhea*
	foetus	*fetus*
	haemorrhage	*hemorrhage*
-ence / -ense	*defence*	*defense*
	offence	*offense*
	pretence	*pretense*

miscellaneous	*aluminium*	*aluminum*
	cheque	*check*
	jewellery	*jewelry*
	kerb	*curb*
	manoeuvre	*maneuver*
	mould	*mold*
	plough	*plow*
	tyre	*tire*
	sulphur	*sulfur*

5.14 Problem spellings

Even the most experienced writers have difficulties with the spelling of some words. This is especially true in the case of pairs, like *it's* and *its*, which sound alike but have different spellings and meanings. In this section, we disambiguate the most troublesome of these pairs.

accept/except:

Accept is a verb: *You should* **accept** *his offer. Except* is a preposition (see 2.8): *I like all types of music* **except** *jazz*.

advice/advise:

Advice is a noun: *Ask your teacher for* ***advice***. *Advise* is a verb: *His doctor* ***advised*** *him to stop smoking*.

affect/effect:

Affect is a verb: *Pollution in the atmosphere* ***affects*** *our climate*.
Effect is a noun: *What* ***effect*** *does pollution have? Effect* is sometimes used as a verb, meaning *to bring about (change)*: *The National Health Service has* ***effected*** *huge social change in Britain*.

choose/chose:

Both are forms of the same verb, *choose*, meaning 'to select'. *Choose* is the base form (see 2.4.2): *It is difficult to* ***choose***. *Chose* is the past form (see 2.4.4): *We* ***chose*** *a site overlooking the valley*. The *-ed/-en* form (see 2.4.5) of this verb is *chosen*: *Harry Kane was* **chosen** *as the new captain of England*.

council/counsel/councillor/counsellor:

Council is a noun, meaning 'board or managing committee': *The local* ***council*** *has introduced parking restrictions*. A member of a council

is a *councillor*. *Counsel* is a verb, meaning 'to guide or advise', usually in relation to behaviour: *They hired a social worker to* ***counsel*** *the children*. The corresponding nouns are *counsellor*, meaning 'someone who gives advice', and *counsel*, meaning 'advice or guidance': *The teacher gave us good* **counsel**.

discreet/discrete:

Both are adjectives. *Discreet* means 'tactful': *I've made some* ***discreet*** *enquiries*. The corresponding noun is *discretion*. *Discrete* means 'separate, distinct': *The country is divided into two* ***discrete*** political *regions*. The corresponding noun is *discreteness*.

its/it's:

Its is a possessive pronoun (see 2.3.2): *The horse shook* ***its*** *head*.
It's is a contraction of *it is*: ***It's*** *a lovely day* or *it has*: ***It's*** *been ages since we met*.

licence/license:

In British English, *licence* is a noun, as in *driving licence*, and *license* is a verb, meaning *to give permission*: *The restaurant is* ***licensed*** *to sell spirits*. *Licence* does not exist in American English; *license* is used as the noun and as the verb.

loose/lose:

Loose is an adjective, meaning 'not tight': *The seatbelt is too* **loose**. The corresponding verb is *loosen*: *You can* **loosen** *your seatbelts now*. *Lose* is a verb, meaning 'to mislay': *Be careful not to* **lose** *your passport*, or 'not win': *If United* **lose** *this game their season is over*.

personal/personnel:

Personal is an adjective: *You shouldn't ask* ***personal*** *questions*.
Personnel is a noun, meaning *staff*: *All* ***personnel*** *should report to reception*.

practice/practise:

Practice is a noun, meaning (a) 'training for sport, music, etc': *I've got football* ***practice*** *at six o'clock*, (b) 'the exercise of a profession', e.g. *medical* ***practice***, *legal* ***practice***. In British English, *practise* is a verb: *Amy* ***practised*** *her speech in front of a mirror*. The word *practise* does not exist in American English; *practice* is used as the noun and as the verb.

principal/principle:

Principal is most commonly used as an adjective, meaning 'most important': *The government's* ***principal*** *concern should be unemployment.* As a noun, *principal* refers to the most important, or highest-ranked, person in an organization, e.g. ***Principal*** *of a school. Principle* is a noun, meaning *rule of conduct*: *a person of* ***principle***, *moral* ***principles***.

quiet/quite:

Quiet is an adjective meaning *silent*: ***a quiet*** *child*, *keep* ***quiet***. *Quite* is degree adverb (see 2.7.3) and is used before an adjective or an adverb: *It's* ***quite*** *cold outside*, *I spoke to James* ***quite*** *recently*.

stationary/stationery:

Stationary is an adjective meaning 'not moving': *a* ***stationary*** *vehicle. Stationery* is a noun, referring to pens, paper, sticky notes, etc.

than/then:

Than is used in comparative constructions (see 3.4.1): *Paul is older* ***than*** *Amy*, *The professor is younger* ***than*** *I expected. Then* is an adverb of time (see 2.7.1): *We toured the Museum and* ***then*** *we went home.* As a sentence connector (see 4.9), *then* means *in that case*: *Do you like horror films?* ***Then*** *you'll love Poltergeist.*

their/there/they're:

Their is a possessive pronoun (see 2.3.2): *The children love* **their** *toys*. *There* is an adverb (see 2.7) denoting place: *Stand over* **there**. *They're* is a contraction of *they are*: *Our guests are early:* **they're** *here already*.

to/too:

To is a preposition, which comes before a noun: *I'm off* **to** *London*. *To* also comes before the base form (see 2.4.2) of a verb: *I like* **to** *read*, where it is called infinitival *to*. The word *too* is an adverb (see 2.7) which is used before an adjective: *It is* **too** *cold here*, or independently with the meaning of *also*: *I love you* **too**.

your/you're:

Your is a possessive pronoun (2.3.2): ***Your*** *car has been stolen. You're* is a contraction of *you are*: ***You're*** *a good friend*.

Exercises for Chapter 5

Exercise 5.1: The structure of words (5.1–5.3)

Analyse the following words in terms of their internal structure, that is, in terms of prefixes, base, and suffixes. For example:

unfaithful = un + faith + ful

anti-terrorist	mistreatment	retighten
creativity	naturalism	underdevelopment
deforestation	nonspecialist	ungrateful
disrespectful	profitability	unlawfully
leadership	relentlessly	unremarkable

Exercise 5.2: Adding inflections – general spelling rules (5.9)

Form words by joining the parts:

big + est	forget + ing	silly + est
brag + ed	holy + er	simple + est
deal + ing	long + er	slam + ed
defy + ed	move + ing	study + s
enrich + s	rely + ed	untie + ing
fizz + s	revel + ed	watch + s

Exercise 5.3: Adding -ly and -ally (5.10)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly* or *-ally*:

artistic	guilty	public
automatic	ironic	sadistic
clumsy	lazy	technical
cool	local	temporary
diplomatic	logical	typical
dreadful	lucky	uneasy
energetic	necessary	vital
frantic	nostalgic	voluntary
fundamental	ordinary	
greedy	organic	

Exercise 5.4: Plural nouns (5.11)

Give the plural form of the following nouns:

appendix	gallery	photo
arena	journey	potato
basis	leech	stitch
bush	lorry	studio
cello	mattress	tax
flamingo	medium	taxi
fungus	phobia	wife

Exercise 5.5: Problem spellings (5.14)

Fill in the blanks by selecting the correct word from the choices given:

1 The bank refused to _____ the cheque. (*accept/except*)
2 My hotel room was very _____. (*quiet/quite*)
3 We can do nothing to _____ the situation. (*altar/alter*)
4 People should _____ what they preach. (*practice/practise*)
5 He eats everything _____ seafood. (*accept/except*)
6 I left my laptop _____ on the table. (*their/there/they're*)
7 _____ starting to snow. (*its/it's*)
8 It was _____ warm yesterday. (*quiet/quite*)
9 The government could easily _____ the next election. (*loose/lose*)
10 I've got a job interview with the _____ Officer. (*personal/personnel*)
11 The menu is so big I don't know what to _____. (*choose/chose*)
12 Paul told me _____ working from home now. (*your/you're*)
13 The plane lost power in one of _____ engines. (*its/it's*)
14 Amy _____ the dress herself. (*choose/chose*)
15 Our _____ objection is that the ruling is unconstitutional. (*principal/principle*)
16 Parents must face _____ responsibilities. (*their/there/they're*)
17 My son makes more money _____ I do. (*than/then*)
18 We're going to see a marriage guidance _____. (*counsellor/councillor*)
19 Doctors have been studying the _____ of smoking on pregnant women. (*affect/effect*)
20 Your pharmacist will be able to give you _____. (*advise/advice*)

Answers to exercises

Chapter 1

Exercise 1.1: Identifying the Subject (1.5)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject:

1 My eldest son graduated in June.
2 The students visited Paris with their teachers.
3 Some flights are very cheap.
4 The concert was very disappointing.
5 At Christmas, most of the children perform in the Nativity Play.
6 It's snowing.
7 It was in June that we met.
8 Smoking cigarettes is dangerous.

Exercise 1.2: The Inversion Test (1.5.1)

Rewrite each of the sentences below as questions, and underline the Subject in the question:

1 Is Paul older than Amy?
2 Is lunch ready?
3 Is it cold outside?
4 Is someone watching the house?
5 Has Alan a new car? *or* Does Alan have a new car?
6 Is reading books his favourite pastime?
7 Was it through hard work that he succeeded?
8 Was my old suitcase still under the bed?

Exercise 1.3: Linking verbs and Subject Complements (1.6.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject Complement:

1 Amy is a good student.
2 He looks a bit tired.
3 Paul is getting very big.
4 She wants to become a doctor.
5 It tastes bitter.
6 I'm going crazy.

Exercise 1.4: Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects (1.6.3)

In each of the sentences below, underline the Direct Object.

1 The government has promised an end to age discrimination in the workplace.
2 Most people welcomed the government's change of policy.
3 However, some people expressed doubts about the proposed legislation.
4 They are demanding a more comprehensive review of employment law.
5 A Select Committee will discuss the issue next month.
6 The Committee is still accepting submissions.
7 Some people question the need for such extensive consultation.
8 The Opposition will raise the question during the next parliamentary session.

Exercise 1.5: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Underline the Indirect Object in each of the sentences below.

1 Send me your email address, please.
2 He owes the bank a lot of money.
3 We've promised Paul a laptop for his birthday.
4 Can you show us the way to King's Cross?
5 He is teaching the children French.
6 I've emailed you my details.
7 She gave the bridegroom a kiss.
8 They made both candidates the same offer.

Exercise 1.6: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Use each of the verbs below to make a sentence containing a Direct Object and an Indirect Object:

give *pay* *ask* *find* *charge* *cook* *show* *read* *tell* *offer* *cost*

She gave *Paul* (IO) *his pocket money* (DO).
They paid *him* (IO) *his salary* (DO)
Can I ask *you* (IO) *a question* (DO)?
They found *him* (IO) *a job at the factory* (DO).
The bank charges *customers* (IO) *an annual fee* (DO).
She cooked *us* (IO) *a lovely meal* (DO).
Show *me* (IO) *your medal* (DO).
She always reads *the children* (IO) *a bedtime story* (DO).
Have you told *Paul* (IO) *the news* (DO)?
They have offered *me* (IO) *the job* (DO).
It cost *me* (IO) *a fortune* (DO).

Exercise 1.7: Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements (1.6.5)

Underline the Object Complement in each of the sentences below.

1 Seafood can sometimes make people ill.
2 I usually find science fiction movies very boring.
3 Make yourself comfortable.
4 He proclaimed himself President of the new republic.
5 The jury found the defendant guilty.
6 We left the children at the playschool.
7 He was appointed Chief Justice in 2017.
8 They called Michael Jackson the 'King of Pop'.

Exercise 1.8: The six sentence patterns (1.6.7) and Adjuncts (1.8)

In the spaces provided, indicate the grammatical function of each underlined constituent in the following sentences. Use the following abbreviations:

A = Adjunct AC = Adverbial Complement DO = Direct Object IO = Indirect Object
S = Subject SC = Subject Complement OC = Object Complement

1 In tropical rainforests (A), bird life (S) is usually (A) very exotic and colourful (SC).
2 The appearance of birds (S) is seasonal (SC).
3 Sometimes (A), the arrival of flowers and fruits (S) will attract birds (DO).
4 The dense canopy of leaves (S) makes the rainforest (DO) very dark (OC).
5 At ground level (A), you (S) can occasionally (A) see kingfishers (DO).
6 The constant gloom and enormous tree trunks (S) give the rainforest (IO) the appearance of a cathedral (DO).
7 The forest stretches three hundred miles eastwards (AC).

Exercise 1.9: Active sentences and passive sentences (1.7)

Write the passive version of each of the following sentences:

1 A new satellite was launched by NASA.
2 The movie was enjoyed by everyone.
3 My iPhone was taken by someone.
4 The team is selected by the manager.
5 Two goals were scored by United in the first twenty minutes.
6 The neighbourhood was terrorised by the suspect for weeks.

Exercise 1.10: Adjuncts (1.8)

Underline all the Adjuncts in the following passage:

> *RMS Titanic* left Southampton on 10 April 1912. After crossing the English Channel, she stopped at Cherbourg, France. The next day, she stopped again at Queenstown, Ireland, to allow more passengers to go on board. When she finally sailed to New York, she had 2,240 passengers. Just before midnight on 14 April, the *Titanic* struck an iceberg in the north Atlantic. The massive ship sank two hours and forty minutes later. As a result, 1,517 people lost their lives. Unfortunately, the owners of the *Titanic* thought their ship was unsinkable. While they were fitting out the great ship, they did not provide enough lifeboats. Following the sinking, new regulations were introduced, in an effort to ensure that such a catastrophe could never happen again.

Chapter 2

Exercise 2.1: Nouns and determiners (2.2)

Convert the following words into nouns by adding noun endings and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different nouns.

capitalist/ capitalism argument compensation criticism	development/ developer disappointment humiliation/ humility improvisation	intervention occurrence offence/offender perception	reference/ referral requirement specialist/ specialisation statement

Exercise 2.2: Singular nouns and plural nouns (2.2.1)

Supply the plural form of each of the singular nouns listed below:

analyses	hypotheses
bases	media
bureaux	phenomena
crises	sisters-in-law
criteria	stimuli
formulae	wolves

Exercise 2.3: Determiners (2.2.6)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences:

1 You didn't understand my last question.
2 She worked in the law courts for seven years.
3 There were five other applicants for his job.
5 Most people enjoyed all those Harry Potter books.
6 Every person deserves our respect.
7 Some young people have never seen a typewriter.
8 Children should read more books and watch less television.

Exercise 2.4: Pronouns (2.3)

Complete the following sentences by supplying the correct form of the pronoun, as indicated after each sentence.

1 The banks gave them every opportunity to repay the loan. **Personal, 3rd-person plural**.
2 He borrowed more money than necessary. **Personal, 3rd-person singular, masculine.**
3 He only told us about it after he got into financial trouble. **Personal, 1st-person plural**.
4 Since the financial meltdown, our economy has been struggling. **Possessive, 1st-person plural.**
5 The central bank played its part in the recovery. **Possessive, 3rd-person singular, non-personal.**
6 The economy of Iceland was badly hit, but theirs was a special case. **Possessive, 3rd-person plural.**

Exercise 2.5: Pronouns (2.3)

Indicate whether the underlined pronouns are personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, or relative.

1 It (**personal**) was the worst holiday we (**personal**) ever had.
2 First, our (**possessive**) luggage went missing.
3 That (**demonstrative**) was not a good start.
4 Then our (**possessive**) taxi driver took us (**personal**) to the wrong hotel.
5 Then Tom discovered he (**personal**) had lost his (**possessive**) passport.
6 So we found ourselves (**reflexive**) with no luggage, no hotel, and no passport.
7 Eventually, we (**personal**) phoned the travel agent, who (**relative**) was very helpful.

Exercise 2.6: The five verb forms (2.4.1)

Indicate the form of the underlined verb in each of the following sentences:

1 Everyone understands (***-s* form**) the need to reduce (**base form**) carbon emissions.

2 If you care (**base form**) about the environment, take (**base form**) action now.
3 One way we all waste (**base form**) resources is by leaving (***-ing* form**) lights switched on at home when we're not even there.
4 Governments have only recently realised (***-ed/-en* form**) that carbon emissions threaten (**base form**) our future.
5 In the 1990s, environmental groups tried (**past form**) to raise (**base form**) our awareness of the problem.
6 They have given (***-ed/-en* form**) us a lot to think (**base form**) about.

Exercise 2.7: Irregular verbs (2.4.7)

Supply the correct form of the irregular verb in the following sentences:

1 I have found a wonderful book on astronomy.
2 He may have told his partner.
3 The suspect was brought to Paddington police station.
4 Large areas of the coastline were swept away by the tsunami.
5 I have been sworn to secrecy.
6 He paid in cash for a brand-new Porsche.
7 It was meant to be a surprise.
8 The castle had lain empty for years.
9 The money was sewn into the lining of his jacket.
10 The animals were led to safety.

Exercise 2.8: Auxiliary verbs (2.5)

Indicate whether the underlined verbs are modal, passive, progressive, or perfective auxiliaries.

1 The Internet has (**perfective**) revolutionised the way we do business.
2 Now we can (**modal**) order books, theatre tickets, and even clothes online.
3 Very soon, every home will (**modal**) have broadband Internet access.
4 The Internet is (**progressive**) also changing the way we learn.
5 Online teaching materials can (**modal**) now be (**passive**) accessed from anywhere in the world.
6 In the future, all students may (**modal**) be (**passive**) taught online.
7 However, some teachers believe this would (**modal**) be disastrous for students.

8 They say the Internet should (**modal**) be (**passive**) used sparingly, and that real teachers can (**modal**) never be (**passive**) replaced by computers.
9 For people in remote areas, however, the Internet is (**progressive**) really improving their access to education.
10 Distance learning has (**perfective**) finally become a reality.

Exercise 2.9: Adjectives (2.6)

Convert the following words into adjectives by adding adjective endings, and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different adjectives.

curable	glorious	musical	reasonable
disruptive	legendary	nauseous	religious
drizzly	lovable/lovely	peripheral	tedious
geological	massive	questionable	woolly/woollen

Exercise 2.10: Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives (2.6.2)

Supply the comparative and superlative forms of each of the following adjectives:

more brilliant, most brilliant
cleverer, cleverest
more elegant, most elegant
faster, fastest
more handsome, most handsome
luckier, luckiest
warmer, warmest
more wonderful, most wonderful

Exercise 2.11: Adverbs (2.7)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly*, and making any other necessary spelling changes.

absolutely
capably
clearly

demonstrably
dully
environmentally
happily
lazily
legally
luckily
memorably
personally
terribly

Exercise 2.12: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1)

In each of the following sentences, indicate the kind of meaning which is expressed by the underlined adverbs. Use the following abbreviations:

M = Manner P = Place S = Stance T = Time

1 The choir sang beautifully (M).
2 We'll meet outside (P) after the concert.
3 Amy tries really hard (M) to be popular.
4 Strangely (S), no one answered the phone.
5 He felt that he had been unfairly (M) treated.
6 Paul doesn't feel well today (T).
7 Hopefully (S) no one was injured.
8 You can't park there (P).

Exercise 2.13: Words and word classes (Chapter 2)

In the space provided, indicate the word class of the underlined words in the following passage. Use the following abbreviations:

Adj = adjective
Adv = adverb
Det = determiner
Aux – auxiliary verb
C = conjunction
Inf = infinitive *to*
N = noun
P = preposition
Pn = pronoun

V = main verb

Howard Carter is famous (**Adj**) throughout the world as the (**Det**) man who (**Pn**) discovered the tomb (**N**) of the Egyptian king, Tut-ankamen (**N**). His (**Det**) story is (**V**) a very (**Adv**) romantic one (**Pn**), and it has (**Aux**) inspired many (**Det**) Hollywood movies (**N**). Carter was (**Aux**) born in (**P**) 1874 in England (**N**). His father was (**V**) an (**Det**) artist who (**Pn**) specialised in drawing (**V**) animal portraits for (**P**) local (**Adj**) landowners. He (**Pn**) taught his son the basics (**N**) of drawing and painting, and (**C**) Howard became (**V**) a fairly (**Adv**) accomplished (**Adj**) draughtsman. However, his main interest was (**V**) in archaeology, and in ancient (**Adj**) Egypt in particular. When (**C**) he was just seventeen (D**et**) years old, Howard sailed to (**P**) Alexandria in Egypt, hoping (**V**) to (**Inf**) find work as a (**Det**) draughtsman with (**P**) the Egyptian Exploration Fund. His first (**Det**) job was at (**P**) Bani Hassan, where he worked under (**P**) the famous archaeologist (**N**), Flinders Petrie. His role on that (**Det**) excavation was to (**Inf**) copy (**V**) the drawings which (**Pn**) were (**Aux**) found on (**P**) the walls of (**P**) the tombs. According to (**P**) some (**Det**) sources, Howard worked hard (A**dv**) all day, and then (**Adv**) slept in (**P**) the tombs at (**P**) night.

Chapter 3

Exercise 3.1: Adverb phrases (3.3)

Underline the adverb phrases in the following sentences:

1 Global warming has recently become a major concern for governments.
2 Previously, many people felt that governments did not take the issue seriously.
3 Now, it seems that the voice of the people is finally being heard.
4 Scientists are fully convinced that climate change is a reality.
5 Some governments are quite uncertain about what to do.
6 Many people feel strongly that international co-operation is the only solution.

Exercise 3.2: The functions of adverb phrases (3.3.1)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adverb phrases. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; PreJ = Premodifier of an adjective; PreV = Premodifier of an adverb; PreP = Premodifer of a preposition.

1 Incredibly (A), he crashed straight (PreP) into a parked car.
2 Many really (PreJ) talented students never (A) go to college.
3 Obviously (A), the applications are examined very carefully (A).
4 I am fairly (PreJ) sure she treated him very (PreV) unfairly (A).
5 Grandad is often (A) quite (PreJ) confused.
6 A Toyota would be much (PreV) less (PreJ) expensive.

Exercise 3.3: Adjective phrases (3.4)

Underline the adjective phrases in the following sentences:

1 In much earlier times, Antwerp had been one of the largest cities in western Europe.
2 The vibrant atmosphere of the sprawling city was very exciting for residents and visitors alike.
3 Antwerp became an increasingly important financial centre as time went on.
4 Prices for works of art were incredibly high, and even fairly mediocre artists could make a reasonably good living.

5 The Church was a very significant contributor to the vast wealth of the city.
6 The Bishop of Antwerp commissioned expensive paintings and statues, and the artists were usually very happy to accept the commissions.
7 The Church had always been acutely aware of the need to patronise artists.
8 In turn, the artists produced some of the most magnificent masterpieces that Europe has ever seen.

Exercise 3.4: The functions of adjective phrases (3.4.2)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adjective phrases. Use the following abbreviations: Pre = Premodifier; SC = Subject Complement; Post = Postmodifier; OC = Object Complement.

1 The kids seem delighted with their gifts (**SC**).
2 It was a totally unexpected (**Pre**) discovery.
3 The President's recent (**Pre**) statement about immigration was outrageous (**SC**).
4 Heavily-armed (**Pre**) police officers shot the gunman dead (**OC**).
5 Nothing very interesting (**Post**) ever happens here.
6 I found the book boring (**OC**), but the movie is amazing (**SC**).

Exercise 3.5: Prepositional phrases (3.5)

Underline the prepositional phrases in the following passage:

> Marco Polo was born in Venice in 1254. At that time, Venice was one of Europe's wealthiest cities. At 17, Marco travelled with his father and uncle from Italy to China. That journey eventually opened trade routes between the east and the west. In his book, *The Travels of Marco Polo*, he described the immense size of Chinese cities and the many splendours to be seen at the Emperor's court. His book contains stories about many wonders: bandits in desert hideaways, snakes with legs, and an Emperor who kept a tamed lion at his feet. No one is quite sure how many of these stories are true. Did he really see everything he described, did he hear the stories from other travellers, or did he just make it all up? Some scholars think he never travelled to China at any time. For them, the fact that he never once mentioned tea, the national drink of the Chinese, is proof that his book is a collection of fables. Just before his death, Marco was asked how much of his book was really true. He replied that he had described only half of what he had actually seen.

Exercise 3.6: Noun phrase Heads (3.6.1)

Underline the Head in each of the noun phrases below:

1 a tube of toothpaste
2 strange beings from outer space
3 my Facebook page
4 a black London taxi
5 a bottle of wine
6 a small group of children
7 a walk in the park
8 none of the students

Exercise 3.7: Noun phrases (3.6)

Bracket the noun phrases in each of the following sentences. If a noun phrase has another noun phrase within it, use double bracketing.

1 [Strong easterly winds] are expected later.
2 [The cost of [insurance]] has doubled in [the last year].
3 [The kids] really enjoyed [their visit to [Disneyland]].
4 [His first movie] was about [the siege of [Krishnapur]].
5 [The weapon] was found at [the bottom of [the lake]].
6 [Harry Potter [books]] are [his favourites].
7 [The concert] was cancelled due to [poor [ticket] sales].
8 [The director of [the company]] has resigned.

Exercise 3.8: Determiners and Determinatives (3.6.2)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences.

1 Robert's second attempt at the title was much more successful.
2 Very many people expected him to win the first race easily.
3 A few people felt that he needed much more time to prepare.
4 One journalist even suggested that he should take a break from all competitions.
5 After the second race, he was congratulated by his wife and two children.
6 His many loyal fans chanted his name from the grandstand.
7 The fans will remember that victory for many years.
8 It was an emotional climax to a career that began almost twenty years earlier.

Exercise 3.9: The functions of noun phrases (3.6.5)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined noun phrases in the passage below. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; DO = Direct Object; Pre = Premodifier PC = Prepositional Complement; S = Subject; SC = Subject Complement.

> A German company (**S**) is developing a revolutionary new motorbike that drives itself (**DO**). It is the first step towards a fully autonomous machine (SC). It can steer, control its speed (**DO**) and keep itself upright without any human intervention (**PC**). A spokesman for the company (**PC**) said the bike will get you through city (**Pre**) traffic more safely than ever. The on-board computer (**S**) is much faster than a human brain (**PC**), and because it never gets tired or distracted, it can react in milliseconds (**PC**) to avoid any obstacles on the road (**DO**). Sensors on the bike (**S**) can detect speed and movement (**DO**), so the computer (**S**) knows if it is swaying too far, and makes corrections (**DO**). The prototype (**S**) is still being tested, not with human riders (**PC**), but with plastic dummies (**PC**).

Exercise 3.10: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (3.7.2)

In each of the following sentences, describe the sequence of the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:

	The seat can be adjusted	= Modal + Passive
1	All the tickets have been sold	= Perfective + Passive
2	The prizemoney will be given to charity.	= Modal + Passive
3	The power should be switched off first.	= Modal + Passive
4	You must be joking.	= Modal + Progressive
5	The earthquake victims are being rehoused.	= Progressive + Passive
6	Have you been talking to Paul?	= Perfective + Progressive
7	The parents may have been arguing.	= Modal + Perfective + Progressive
8	Could anything else have been done?	= Modal + Perfective + Passive

Exercise 3.11: Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3)

Indicate whether the underlined verb phrases are finite or non-finite.

1 Germany have been eliminated from the World Cup. **Finite**
2 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time. **Finite**

3 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time. **Non-finite**
4 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round. **Finite**
5 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round. **Non-finite**
6 Beaten by France, their World Cup campaign is over. **Non-finite**
7 Paul wants to become a footballer. **Finite**
8 Paul wants to become a footballer. **Non-finite**

Exercise 3.12: Tense (3.7.5) and aspect (3.7.7)

In each of the following sentences, describe the tense and aspect which is expressed by the underlined auxiliary verb. For example:

	The children are leaving	=	Present tense, progressive aspect
1	Amy was watching TV when we arrived.	=	Past tense, progressive aspect
2	Paul is working very hard.	=	Present tense, progressive aspect.
3	The government had supported the banks for years.	=	Past tense, perfective aspect
4	I have never met your brother.	=	Present tense, perfective aspect
5	I am looking for a better job.	=	Present tense, progressive aspect
6	We were staying with friends at the time.	=	Past tense, progressive aspect
7	The train had already left.	=	Past tense, perfective aspect
8	All the money has disappeared.	=	Present tense, perfective aspect

Chapter 4

Exercise 4.1: Subordination (4.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the subordinate clauses.

1 An earthquake has struck the mountainous region of Qinghai, China, killing over 600 people.
2 Local authorities estimate that around 9,000 people have been injured.
3 Rescue attempts are difficult because the area is very remote.
4 The disaster struck on Wednesday, when the quake shook the entire region.
5 Several schools have collapsed in the township of Jiegu, killing many young people.
6 To reach some victims, rescuers must tunnel through several metres of debris.
7 The central government in Beijing has praised the rescuers, who are working throughout the night.
8 While aftershocks continue, more and more bodies are being found.

Exercise 4.2: Subordination (4.2)

Indicate whether the underlined clauses are Adjunct clauses, relative clauses, or nominal relative clauses.

1 The man standing next to the President is his Chief of Staff. **Relative**
2 He is the man who is responsible for all White House staff. **Relative**
3 What every President needs most is someone to organize his timetable. **Nominal relative**
4 President Obama knew all his staff by their first names, as though he had hired them himself. **Adjunct**
5 If the President leaves the White House, he is usually accompanied by the press. **Adjunct**
6 President Obama caused panic among security when he slipped out to his daughter's football game. **Adjunct**
7 It takes most Presidents some time to learn how to handle all their responsibilities. **Nominal relative**

Exercise 4.3: That-*clauses (4.2.5)*

In the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined *that* is relative pronoun *that*, Complementizer *that*, demonstrative pronoun *that*, or adverb *that*:

1 The policeman said that we should install a burglar alarm. **Complementizer**
2 At that time, we didn't even lock the door when we went out. **Demonstrative pronoun**
3 It is not that unusual to see homes with alarms and security cameras too. **Adverb**
4 The alarm that we installed is working well. **Relative pronoun**
5 A neighbour told us that he was burgled twice. **Complementizer**
6 Burglars seem to know the areas that they operate in. **Relative pronoun**
7 That helps the police to identify them. **Demonstrative pronoun**

Exercise 4.4: The functions of clauses in sentences (4.2.7)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined clauses in the following sentences.

1 That is how most people first get involved with drugs. **Subject Complement**
2 Nobody wants to become a drug addict. **Direct Object**
3 Many young people don't realise that drugs can kill you. **Direct Object**
4 For some people, saying 'no' is not as easy as it sounds. **Subject**
5 To avoid conflict at home, some parents just ignore the problem. **Adjunct**
6 To criticize all parents on these grounds seems a bit harsh. **Subject**
7 Teenagers simply don't like being criticized. **Direct Object**
8 Uncritical advice is what they need. **Subject Complement**

Exercise 4.5: The functions of clauses in phrases (4.2.8)

Indicate the function of each of the following the underlined clauses.

1 The patient is unable to move his legs. **Postmodifier of *unable***
2 My brother has invented a new way of developing photographs. **Complement of *of***
3 Some children are afraid to go to sleep at night. **Postmodifier of *afraid***
4 Following several unsuccessful attempts to restore peace, a ceasefire was finally signed. **Postmodifier of *attempts***
5 A man who tried to steal a police car has been detained for questioning. **Postmodifier of *man***

6 The UN considered a suggestion that German soldiers should be part of the peace-keeping troop. **Complement of *suggestion***
7 All investors are anxious to get their money back. **Postmodifier of *anxious***

Exercise 4.6: Coordination (4.3)

Underline the Conjoins in each of the following sentences:

1 The forensics team examined the evidence carefully and methodically.
2 You will have to wait two or three weeks for a visa.
3 He works during the day and goes to classes at night.
4 You have to consider your own interests and other people's interests.
5 Voting ends at 9pm but the result won't be known for 48 hours.
6 The dog ran out the door and across the road.
7 My grandfather is weak but in good spirits.

Exercise 4.7: Sentence types (4.4)

Indicate whether the sentences below are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamative.

1 I will see you on Wednesday. **Declarative**
2 Please let me know if you need anything. **Imperative**
3 How much is a cheeseburger? **Interrogative**
4 If it is raining, we will take the car. **Declarative**
5 How young she looks in that dress. **Exclamative**
6 Do you need anything else? **Interrogative**
7 What a great player he is. **Exclamative**

Exercise 4.8: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

Make the positive sentences below negative and make the negative sentences positive.

1 My parents are on holiday. **My parents are not on holiday.**
2 We do not accept Euros. **We accept Euros**.
3 Is the cash machine not working? **Is the cash machine working?**
4 Amy used her credit card. **Amy did not use her credit card**.
5 Don't wait for me. **Wait for me.**
6 Does she eat meat? **Does she not eat meat?**
7 Paul never lies. **Paul lies.**

Exercise 4.9: Extraposition and postponement (4.7)

Rewrite each of the following sentences so that they have an extraposed Subject and begin with anticipatory *it*:

1 **It is perfectly normal to worry about the future.**
2 **It is very important that the children should have adequate food and clothing**.
3 **It is unclear at this stage whether or not they qualify for subsidised housing**.
4 **It is now undisputed that climate change is a reality**.
5 **It is so much more convenient to use an electric blender**.
6 **It is very unusual to see a flying saucer.**
7 **It became more obvious every day that the government was in crisis.**

Exercise 4.10: Cleft sentences (4.9)

In each of the following cleft sentences, underline the Focus and indicate its form. For example:

It was Amy who took the phone call. It was Amy (NP) who took the phone call.

1 It was my Dad (NP) who told me the result.
2 It was after watching the video replay (PP) that the referee awarded a penalty.
3 It was the goalkeeper (NP) who committed the foul.
4 Was it before or after the game (PP) that the violence broke out?
5 Is it usually the home fans (NP) that cause trouble?
6 It was through bribery and corruption (PP) that they won the league.

Chapter 5

Exercise 5.1: The structure of words (5.1–5.3)

Analyse the following words in terms of their internal structure, that is, in terms of prefixes, base, and suffixes. For example:

unfaithful = un + faith + ful
anti+terror+ist
creat+iv+ity
de+forest+ation
dis+respect+ful
lead+er+ship
mis+treat+ment
natur+al+ism
non+special+ist
profit+abil+ity
relent+less+ly
re+tight+en
under+develop+ment
un+grate+ful
un+law+ful+ly
un+remark+able

Exercise 5.2: Adding inflections – general spelling rules (5.9)

Form words by joining the parts:

biggest
bragged
dealing
defied
enriches
fizzes
forgetting
holier
longer
moving
relied

revelled
silliest
simplest
slammed
studies
untying
watches

Exercise 5.3: Adding -ly and -ally (5.10)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly* or *-ally*:

artistically
automatically
clumsily
coolly
diplomatically
dreadfully
energetically
frantically
fundamentally
greedily
guiltily
ironically
lazily
locally
logically
luckily
necessarily
nostalgically
ordinarily
organically
publicly
sadistically
technically
temporarily
typically
uneasily
vitally
voluntarily

Exercise 5.4: Plural nouns (5.11)

Give the plural form of the following nouns:

appendices
arenas
bases
bushes
cellos
flamingoes
fungi
galleries
journeys
leeches
lorries
mattresses
media
phobias
photos
potatoes
stitches
studios
taxes
taxis
wives

Exercise 5.5: Problem spellings (5.14)

Fill in the blanks by selecting the correct word from the choices given:

1 The bank refused to **accept** the cheque.
2 My hotel room was very **quiet**.
3 We can do nothing to **alter** the situation.
4 People should **practice** what they preach.
5 He eats everything **except** seafood.
6 I left my laptop **there** on the table.
7 **It's** starting to snow.
8 It was **quite** warm yesterday.
9 The government could easily **lose** the next election.
10 I've got a job interview with the **Personnel** Officer.

11 The menu is so big I don't know what to **choose**.
12 Paul told me **you're** working from home now.
13 The plane lost power in one of **its** engines.
14 Amy **chose** the dress herself.
15 Our **principal** objection is that the ruling is unconstitutional.
16 Parents must face **their** responsibilities.
17 My son makes more money **than** I do.
18 We're going to see a marriage guidance **counsellor.**
19 Doctors have been studying the **effect** of smoking on pregnant women.
20 Your pharmacist will be able to give you **advice**.

Appendix
English irregular verbs

Irregular verbs (2.4.7) are verbs in which the past form and the *-ed* form are not spelled in the regular way. The 'regular way' adds *-ed* to the base form of the verb (e.g. base form = *walk*, past form = *walked*, *-ed* form = (has) *walked*). Some of the verbs listed here have regular and irregular variants (2.4.8). On the five verb forms, see 2.4.1. For the verb *be*, see 2.4.9.

Base form	-s form	Past form	*-ed* form	*-ing* form
awake	awakes	awoke	awoken	awaking
bear	bears	bore	borne	bearing
beat	beats	beat	beaten	beating
become	becomes	became	become	becoming
begin	begins	began	begun	beginning
bend	bends	bent	bent	bending
bet	bets	bet	bet	betting
bid	bids	bid	bid	bidding
bind	binds	bound	bound	binding
bite	bites	bit	bitten	biting
bleed	bleeds	bled	bled	bleeding
blow	blows	blew	blown	blowing
break	breaks	broke	broken	breaking
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing

breed	breeds	bred	bred	breeding
build	builds	built	built	building
burn	burns	burned	burnt	burning
burst	bursts	burst	burst	bursting
buy	buys	bought	bought	buying
cast	casts	cast	cast	casting
catch	catches	caught	caught	catching
choose	chooses	chose	chosen	choosing
cling	clings	clung	clung	clinging
come	comes	came	come	coming
creep	creeps	crept	crept	creeping
cut	cuts	cut	cut	cutting
deal	deals	dealt	dealt	dealing
dig	digs	dug	dug	digging
dive	dives	dived	dived	diving
do	does	did	done	doing
draw	draws	drew	drawn	drawing
dream	dreams	dreamed	dreamt	dreaming
drink	drinks	drank	drunk	drinking
drive	drives	drove	driven	driving
eat	eats	ate	eaten	eating
fall	falls	fell	fallen	falling
feed	feeds	fed	fed	feeding
feel	feels	felt	felt	feeling
fight	fights	fought	fought	fighting
find	finds	found	found	finding
flee	flees	fled	fled	fleeing

fling	flings	flung	flung	flinging
fly	flies	flew	flown	flying
forget	forgets	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
freeze	freezes	froze	frozen	freezing
get	gets	got	got	getting
give	gives	gave	given	giving
go	goes	went	gone	going
grind	grinds	ground	ground	grinding
grow	grows	grew	grown	growing
have	has	had	had	having
hear	hears	heard	heard	hearing
hide	hides	hid	hidden	hiding
hit	hits	hit	hit	hitting
hold	holds	held	held	holding
hurt	hurts	hurt	hurt	hurting
keep	keeps	kept	kept	keeping
kneel	kneels	knelt	knelt	kneeling
knit	knits	knitted	knit	knitting
know	knows	knew	known	knowing
lay	lays	laid	laid	laying
lead	leads	led	led	leading
lean	leans	leaned	leant	leaning
leap	leaps	leaped	leapt	leaping
learn	learns	learned	learnt	learning
leave	leaves	left	left	leaving
lend	lends	lent	lent	lending
let	lets	let	let	letting

lie[1]	lies	lay	lain	lying
light	lights	lit	lit	lighting
lose	loses	lost	lost	losing
make	makes	made	made	making
mean	means	meant	meant	meaning
meet	meets	met	met	meeting
pay	pays	paid	paid	paying
prove	proves	proved	proven	proving
put	puts	put	put	putting
quit	quits	quit	quit	quitting
read	reads	read	read	reading
ride	rides	rode	ridden	riding
ring	rings	rang	rung	ringing
rise	rises	rose	risen	rising
run	runs	ran	run	running
say	says	said	said	saying
see	sees	saw	seen	seeing
seek	seeks	sought	sought	seeking
sell	sells	sold	sold	selling
send	sends	sent	sent	sending
set	sets	set	set	setting
sew	sews	sewed	sewn	sewing
shake	shakes	shook	shaken	shaking
shine	shines	shone	shone	shining
shoot	shoots	shot	shot	shooting
show	shows	showed	shown	showing
shrink	shrinks	shrank	shrunk	shrinking

shut	shuts	shut	shut	shutting
sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
sink	sinks	sank	sunk	sinking
sit	sits	sat	sat	sitting
sleep	sleeps	slept	slept	sleeping
slide	slides	slid	slid	sliding
smell	smells	smelled	smelt	smelling
speak	speaks	spoke	spoken	speaking
speed	speeds	sped	sped	speeding
spell	spells	spelled	spelt	spelling
spend	spends	spent	spent	spending
spill	spills	spilled	spilt	spilling
spin	spins	spun	spun	spinning
spit	spits	spat	spat	spitting
split	splits	split	split	splitting
spoil	spoils	spoiled	spoilt	spoiling
spread	spreads	spread	spread	spreading
spring	springs	sprang	sprung	springing
stand	stands	stood	stood	standing
steal	steals	stole	stolen	stealing
stick	sticks	stuck	stuck	sticking
sting	stings	stung	stung	stinging
strike	strikes	struck	struck	striking
string	strings	strung	strung	stringing
strive	strives	strove	striven	striving
swear	swears	swore	sworn	swearing
sweep	sweeps	swept	swept	sweeping

swell	swells	swelled	swollen	swelling
swim	swims	swam	swum	swimming
swing	swings	swung	swung	swinging
take	takes	took	taken	taking
teach	teaches	taught	taught	teaching
tear	tears	tore	torn	tearing
tell	tells	told	told	telling
think	thinks	thought	thought	thinking
throw	throws	threw	thrown	throwing
wake	wakes	woke	woken	waking
wear	wears	wore	worn	wearing
weave	weaves	wove	woven	weaving
weep	weeps	wept	wept	weeping
win	wins	won	won	winning
wind	winds	wound	wound	winding
wring	wrings	wrung	wrung	wringing
write	writes	wrote	written	writing

[1] The verb *lie*, meaning *to tell an untruth*, is a regular verb.

Glossary of terms

Acronym A word formed from the initial letters of other words, e.g. *NATO* (*N*orth *A*tlantic *T*reaty *O*rganisation).

Active See **Voice**.

Adjective Adjectives express a quality or attribute of a noun: *a* ***happy*** *child*; *a* ***violent*** *storm*; *an* ***old*** *car*. Adjectives can also appear after the noun: *the child is* ***happy***.

Adjective phrase A phrase in which the main word is an adjective. The adjective may occur on its own in the phrase (*happy*, *old*, *rich*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*very* ***happy***, *quite* ***old***, *extremely* ***rich***). Some adjective phrases may also have Postmodifiers after the adjective (***tired*** *of waiting*, ***happy*** *to meet you*).

Adjunct A grammatically optional constituent in sentence structure. Adjuncts convey optional, additional information, including when something happened (*Our guests arrived* ***on Sunday***.), where something happened (*We met Paul* ***outside the cinema***.) and why something happened (*Amy cried* ***because she lost her doll***.).

Adjunct clause A subordinate clause which functions as an Adjunct in sentence structure: *Amy cried* ***because she lost her doll***; ***Although he is poor***, *he gives what he can to charity*.

Adverb Adverbs are used to modify an adjective (***extremely*** *big*) or another adverb (***very*** *recently*). They also function as Adjuncts in sentence structure (*Suddenly*, the lights went out).

Adverb phrase A phrase in which the main word is an adverb. The adverb may occur on its own (*beautifully*, *recently*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*very* ***beautifully***, *quite* ***recently***).

Adverbial Complement A constituent which occurs with an intransitive verb and typically expresses location, direction, or time: *The road goes* **to Sevenoaks**; *The play lasted* **two hours**.

Agent The agent of a sentence is the constituent that performs the action of the verb. In simple sentences, the agent generally coincides with the Subject (*Amy broke the vase*), but in others – especially passive

sentences – it does not, e.g. *The village was destroyed by the soldiers*. Here, the Agent is *the soldiers*, but the Subject is *the village*. See also: **Voice**.

Agentless passive A passive sentence from which the agent *by*-phrase has been omitted. For example, in *The village was destroyed by rebels*, the agent, *rebels*, is included in the *by*-phrase *by rebels*. In contrast, the sentence *The village was destroyed* is an agentless passive. See also: **Voice.**

Agreement test A test to identify the Head of a noun phrase. The Head agrees in number (singular or plural) with the verb when the noun phrase is the Subject of a sentence: [*The* ***boy*** *in the car*] ***is*** *my son*. Compare: [*The* **boys** *in the car*] **are** *my sons*.

Alternative interrogative A question which offers two or more alternative responses: *Do you want tea or coffee?*; *Is that William or Harry?* See also: ***Yes-no*** **interrogative**.

Anaphora The use of a word or words to refer back to something previously mentioned. The personal pronouns are often used anaphorically, as in *James likes football. **He** never misses a game*. Here, *he* refers anaphorically to *James*. See also: **Cataphora**.

Antecedent A word or words to which a following word refers back. In *James likes football. He never misses a game*, *James* is the antecedent of *he*. See also: **Anaphora**, **Cataphora**, **Referring expressions**.

Anticipatory *it* Anticipatory *it* functions as the Provisional Subject in an extraposed sentence. It 'anticipates' the Notional Subject which has been extraposed: ***It*** *is obvious that he doesn't love her*. (Compare: *That he doesn't love her is obvious*.) See also: **Extraposition**.

Apposition A relationship between two constituents (usually noun phrases), in which both constituents refer to the same person or thing: *The President, Mr Brown*.

Article The articles are *the* (the definite article) and *a/an* (the indefinite article).

Aspect Aspect expresses how an event is viewed with respect to time. There are two aspects in English, the progressive aspect (*William is leaving/was leaving*) and the perfective aspect (*William has left/had left*).

Asyndetic coordination Coordination without the use of *and*: *We need **bread, cheese, eggs, milk, flour***. See also: **Syndetic coordination**, **Polysyndetic coordination**.

Auxiliary verb A 'helping' verb which typically comes before the main verb in a sentence *(I **can** drive*; *James **has** written to the Council*.). Auxiliary verbs are divided into the following types: modal, passive, progressive, perfective, *do* auxiliary, semi-auxiliary.

Back formation A verb formed by removing a noun ending and adding a verb ending, e.g. *televise*, from *television*.

Base form The form of a verb which follows *to*, and to which the inflections are added: *to walk*, *walk+s*, *walk+ed*, *walk+ing*. The term is also used to refer to the uninflected form of an adjective or adverb to which the *-er* and *-est* endings are added. See also: **Comparative form**, **Superlative form**.

Booster A booster is a degree adverb that expresses a higher degree in an adjective or in another adverb, e.g. ***extremely*** *cold*, ***more*** *important*, ***very*** *recently*. See also: **Downtoner**.

By*-phrase** A phrase beginning with *by* at the end of a passive sentence that expresses the agent, e.g. *King Lear was written* ***by Shakespeare. See also: **Voice**.

Case A distinction chiefly in pronouns which relates to their grammatical functions. Personal pronouns and the pronoun *who* have two cases: Subjective case (e.g. *I*, *we*, *who*) and objective case (*me*, *us*, *whom*). Nouns exhibit two cases, the common case (*dog*, *dogs*) and the genitive case (*dog's*, *dogs'*).

Cataphora The use of a word or words to refer forward to a later word: *When you see* ***him***, *will you ask* ***Simon*** *to phone me?* See also: **Anaphora**.

Circumstantial adverb Circumstantial adverbs convey information about the circumstances of an event or action. They indicate how something happens (*The lights went out* ***suddenly***.), where something happens (*We'll meet* ***here*** *after the game*.), and when something happens (*I'll see you* ***tomorrow***.). See also: **Stance adverb, Degree adverb**.

Clause A sentence-like construction which operates at a level lower than a sentence: *We visited Disneyland* ***when we were in Hong Kong***. Here, the clause ***when we were in Hong Kong*** is 'sentence-like' in the sense that it has its own Subject (*we*) and its own verb (*were*). However, some clauses may have only an 'implied' Subject: ***Working through the night***, *rescuers finally reached the miners*. Here, the 'implied' Subject of the clause *working through the night* is *rescuers*, the Subject of the sentence as a whole.

Cleft sentence A sentence with the pattern *It* + *be* + Focus + Focus Complement, e.g. *It was William who noticed the error*. (Compare: *William noticed the error*.) Cleft sentences are used to emphasize the Focus, here, *William*.

Clipping A type of abbreviation in which one or more syllables are omitted from a word, e.g. *demo*, from *demonstration*.

Closed word class A closed word class is one which does not admit new members. For example, the class of prepositions (*at*, *in*, *of*, etc) does

not admit new members and therefore is a closed class. See also: **Open word class**.

Comment clause A peripheral clause in sentence structure, used to offer a comment on what is being said: *I can't afford it*, ***I'm afraid***.

Comparative clause Comparative clauses follow the preposition *than* or *as*, and express comparison: *The play was better* ***than I expected***; *David is as old* ***as I am***.

Comparative form A term used to refer to the *-er* form of adjectives (*happier*) and adverbs (*sooner*). See also: **Superlative form**.

Complement A constituent which completes the meaning of a word, e.g. a noun (*the fact* ***that the earth is round***), or a preposition (under ***the table***). The term is also applied Objects, which complete the meaning of a transitive verb (*The soldiers destroyed* ***the village***.).

Complementizer The function of the word *that* when it introduces the Complement of a verb (*He said that he was ready*.) or of a noun (*The fact that no one was listening*).

Complex transitive verb A verb which requires a Direct Object and an Object Complement, e.g. *The dye* ***turned*** *the water blue*. Here, *the water* is the Direct Object, and *blue* is the Object Complement.

Conducive *yes/no* interrogative In a conducive *yes/no* interrogative, the speaker has an expectation of either a *yes* answer or a *no* answer. For example, in *Did you meet someone?*, the expected answer is *yes*. In *Did you not meet anyone?*, the expected answer is *no*. See also: **Neutral *yes/no* interrogative**.

Conjoin The function of constituents which are linked by a coordinating conjunction: ***Paul*** *and* ***Amy***; ***tea*** *or* ***coffee***; ***tired*** *but* ***happy***.

Conjunction The coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *or*) link constituents of equal status (*I play guitar* ***and*** *David sings*.). The subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *if*, *because*) introduce a subordinate clause: (*Have some pasta* ***if*** *you want it*.).

Constituent A constituent is a word or a string of words that acts as a unit both grammatically and semantically. For example, in *The President has arrived*, *The President* is a constituent, but *President has* is not a constituent. Constituents can be replaced by one word: ***He*** *has arrived*. No single word can replace *President has*.

Coordination The linking of two or more constituents using one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, and *or*: *We bought meat* ***and*** *vegetables*; *David graduated last year* ***but*** *he still can't find a job*; *You don't need money* ***or*** *good looks*.

Coordination Polarity Test A test to determine whether a sentence is positive or negative. Positive sentences take *so* in coordination (*Amy is a*

student and so is Paul.), while negative sentences take *neither* (*Amy is not a student and neither is Paul.*). See also: **Polarity**.

Countable noun Countable nouns denote things that can be counted: *one chair*, *two chairs*, *three chairs*, etc. Therefore, they have both a singular form (*chair*) and a plural form (*chairs*). See also: **Uncountable noun**.

Declarative sentence A sentence which is chiefly used for making a statement: *The sky was blue*; *William became an engineer*; *The government has a huge majority*. See also: **Interrogative sentence**.

Definite article The definite article is the word *the*.

Degree adverb A type of adverb used to express degree in an adjective or in another adverb. The most common degree adverb is *very*: ***very*** *cold*; ***very*** *recently*. Others include *extremely*, *fairly*, *highly*, *quite*.

Demonstrative pronoun The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

Deontic meaning Deontic meaning is expressed by some of the modal auxiliary verbs. It is concerned with permission, obligation/duty, and prediction, e.g. *You* ***may*** *come in*; *You* ***must*** *go to bed early*; *I* ***will*** *see you later*. See also: **Dynamic meaning**, **Epistemic meaning**.

Dependent pronoun A dependent pronoun is a pronoun that can only occur as a constituent of a noun phrase, e.g. ***my*** *book*, ***our*** *books*, ***every*** *book*. Dependent pronouns function as Determinatives in noun phrase structure. See also: **Independent pronoun**.

Determinative The function of a determiner in a noun phrase, e.g. in *the book*, the word ***the*** has the function of Determinative. See also: **Determiner**.

Determiner Determiners are constituents in the structure of a noun phrase. They introduce the noun phrase and typically refer to quantity or position in an ordered sequence: ***a*** *newspaper*, ***some*** *people*, ***many*** *problems*, ***three*** *ships*, ***all our*** *friends*, ***the first*** *day*.

Direct Object The constituent required by a transitive verb to complete its meaning: *David announced* ***his retirement***; *The company made* ***a huge profit***. Direct Objects are most commonly noun phrases, but they can also be clauses: *David announced* ***that he will retire***.

Ditransitive verb A verb that requires two Objects, an Indirect Object followed by a Direct Object, e.g. *We gave James the money*. Here, *James* is the Indirect Object and *the money* is the Direct Object.

Do* auxiliary** The *do* auxiliary is used (a) to form questions (Do*** *you like French films?*), (b) to form negatives, with *not* (*I* ***do*** *not enjoy violent films*), (c) to form negative directives, with *not* (***Do*** *not sit there!*) (d) for emphasis (*I* ***do*** *enjoy a good book!*).

Do*-support** The use of *do* as Operator when no auxiliary verb is present, to form questions, e.g. ***Do *you like football?* and negative sentences, e.g. *I* ***do*** *not like football*. See also: **Operator**.

Downtoner A downtoner is a degree adverb that expresses a lower degree in an adjective or in another adverb, e.g. ***slightly*** *cold*, ***less*** *important*, **fairly** *recently*. See also: **Booster**.

Dynamic meaning Dynamic meaning is expressed by the modal auxiliary verbs *can* and *could*, and is concerned with an ability to do or be something, e.g. *I* ***can*** *play the guitar*; *I* ***could*** *speak French as a child*. See also: **Deontic meaning, Epistemic meaning**.

Embedding The way in which constituents are embedded or nested inside each other. For example, in the adjective phrase *much more important*, the adverb phrase *much more* is embedded in *much more important*, and the adverb phrase *much* is embedded in the adverb phrase *much more*.

Epistemic meaning Epistemic meaning is expressed by some modal auxiliary verbs. It expresses the speaker's belief in the likelihood that something is true, based on contextual knowledge: *You have been working all day, so you* ***must*** *be tired*. See also: **Deontic meaning**, **Dynamic meaning**.

Exclamative sentence A sentence that expresses an exclamation: *What a pity!*; *How tall he's grown!*

Exclusive meaning The meaning expressed by the Coordinator *or*: *You can have tea, coffee,* ***or*** *a soft drink*. Here, all the items except one are excluded. See also: **Inclusive meaning**.

Existential there The word *there* when it introduces a *there*-sentence, e.g. ***There*** *is a man at the door*. See also: *There*-**sentence**.

Extraposition Extraposition involves moving a Subject or Object clause from its normal position to the end of a sentence, e.g. *It is surprising* **that no one claimed the reward**. (Compare: ***That no one claimed the reward*** *is surprising*.) *He made it obvious* ***that he did not trust her***. (Compare: *He made* ***that he did not trust her*** *obvious*.) See also: **Anticipatory** *it*.

Finite If the first (or only) verb in a verb phrase exhibits tense (past or present), then the verb phrase is finite. The following sentences all contain a finite verb phrase: *David left early*; *David leaves at eight every morning*; *David is leaving now*; *David had left*. The term is also applied to clauses in which the verb phrase is finite. See also: **Non-finite**.

Form In grammatical descriptions, the term *form* refers to the structure, appearance, or 'shape' of a constituent. For instance, we say that the

adjective *old* has three forms, *old*, *older*, *oldest*. Similarly, we say that in *Amy is leaving*, the verb *leaving* has the *-ing* form. See also: **Function**.

Fragment An incomplete sentence, often used in response to a question: *Where did you leave the keys?* ***On the table***. Fragments are normally interpreted as if they were complete sentences: *I left the keys on the table*. See also: **Non-sentence**.

Function The grammatical role that a constituent performs in a sentence, clause, or phrase. For instance, in *The old man is ill*, the constituent *the old man* (a noun phrase) performs the function of Subject. In turn, the adjective *old* performs the function of Premodifier in the noun phrase *the old man*. See also: **Form**.

Gender A term used to refer to grammatical distinctions based on differences in sex: *he/she*, *his/her*.

Gradability A feature of adjectives and adverbs which can be modified by a degree adverb: *fairly* ***cold***; *very* ***cold***; *extremely* ***cold***, and have comparative and superlative forms: *old*, *older*, *oldest*.

Head The Head of a phrase is the main word in the phrase. For example, in the noun phrase *the old man*, the Head is the noun *man*. In the adjective phrase *very keen on grammar*, the Head is *keen*.

If*-clause** A clause that is introduced by *if*, and expresses a condition: ***If we get home early, *we can watch the new movie*.

Imperative sentence A type of sentence used in giving orders: *Move over*, *Come in*, *Don't leave your coat there*.

Inclusive meaning The meaning expressed by the Coordinator *and*, e.g. *We serve tea, coffee,* ***and*** *soft drinks*. Here, all the items are included. See also: **Exclusive meaning**.

Indefinite article The indefinite article is *a/an*.

Independent pronoun Independent pronouns are pronouns that can function independently as the Subject or Object of a sentence, e.g. ***I*** *phoned* ***you*** *yesterday*; ***She*** *emailed* ***us*** *yesterday*. They can also come after a preposition, e.g. *after* ***you***, *before* ***them***, *with* ***us***. See also: **Dependent pronoun**.

Indirect Object Ditransitive verbs require two constituents to complete their meaning: *We gave James a gift*. Here, *James* is the Indirect Object, and *a gift* is the Direct Object. The Indirect Object typically refers to the person who receives something or benefits from the action expressed by the verb.

Infinitive The base form of a verb when it is introduced by *to*: *She loves* ***to sing***; *They decided* ***to cooperate***.

Inflection An ending which indicates a grammatical category. For instance, the *-s* inflection when added to a noun indicates plural number.

Interrogative sentence A type of sentence used in asking questions: *Is James here? Did you have a good time? What is this? How is the patient?*

Intransitive verb A verb which requires no other constituent to complete its meaning: *David **yawned***; *It is still **snowing***. See also: **Transitive verb**.

Inversion Test A test to identify the Subject of a sentence. When we turn a statement into a question, the Subject inverts with the Operator: ***Amy is** leaving → **Is Amy** leaving?*

Irregular verb A verb whose past form does not end in *-ed*, e.g. *came*, *chose*, *fell*. Compare the past tense ending of regular verbs: *walked*, *talked*, *looked*. With irregular verbs, the *-ed/-en* form is also irregular, e.g. *has come*, *was chosen*, *has fallen*. Compare with the *-ed/-en* forms of regular verbs: *has walked*, *has talked*, *has looked*.

***Let* imperative** The *let* imperative uses the verb *let* together with another verb to make an imperative sentence, e.g. ***Let** 's go*; ***Let**'s have a break*.

Light verb Light verbs are semantically 'light', in the sense that they mean little if anything on their own. Their meaning is derived from the noun phrase that follows them, e.g. *We're **having** a party*, *She's **having** surgery*, *We're **having** a rest*. The most common light verbs are *have*, *do*, *get*, and *give*.

Linking verb The most common linking verb is *be*: *My uncle* **is** *a professional footballer*. Linking verbs link the Subject (*my uncle*) with the Subject Complement (*a professional footballer*). Other linking verbs include *seem* (*He **seems** angry*.) and *appear* (*She **appears** distracted*.).

Main clause A clause which can stand independently as a complete sentence. In ***Emily worked in Greece** when she was young*, the main clause is *Emily worked in Greece*. The second clause, *when she was young*, can be omitted, and is a subordinate clause.

Main verb In the verb phrase *was raining*, *raining* is the main verb, while *was* is the auxiliary verb.

Mandative subjunctive A type of subjunctive sentence that uses the base form of a verb, e.g. *It is important that every patient **be** cared for*. See also: **Subjunctive**.

Modal adverb The modal adverbs express the degree of certainty that the speaker feels towards what is being said, e.g. ***Perhaps** he has missed the train*; ***Possibly** he will catch the next train*; *He is **definitely** very late*.

Modal auxiliary The modal auxiliary verbs are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*.

Monotransitive verb A verb which requires only a Direct Object to complete its meaning, e.g. *The soldiers destroyed the village*. Here, the monotransitive verb *destroyed* takes the Direct Object *the village*.

Mood A grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker to what is said. English has three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

Morphology The study of the structure of words.

Movement Movement refers to the movement of constituents from inside a verb phrase to a position outside the verb phrase. Movement occurs in the formation of some questions: *Has Paul left already?* (Compare: *Paul has left already*.), in exclamative sentences: *How young she looks!* (Compare: *She looks very young*), and in relative clauses: *the book* [*that I read*] (Compare: *I read the book*.)

Multi-word verb A combination consisting of a verb and one or two other words, acting as a unit. Multi-word verbs include prepositional verbs (*look at*, *rely on*), phrasal verbs (*give in*, *take over*), and phrasal-prepositional verbs (*look forward to*, *put up with*).

Negator The function of the word (usually *not*), which makes a sentence negative, e.g. *Amy is* ***not*** *a student*. Other words can also function as the Negator, e.g. *He* ***never*** *visits his parents*; *He* ***hardly ever*** *visits his parents*.

Neutral *yes/no* interrogative In a neutral *yes/no* interrogative, the speaker has no preference or expectation of a *yes* answer or a *no* answer, e.g. *Would you like a drink?* See also: **Conducive *yes/no* interrogative**.

NICE properties The NICE properties describe the four major roles of the Operator in a verb phrase. 'NICE' is an acronym for **N**egation, **I**nversion, **C**ode, and **E**mphasis. See also: **Operator**.

Nominal adjective An adjective that is preceded by the word *the* and can function as the Subject or Object of a sentence (*The* **rich** *are different*, *We should help the* ***homeless***, *The* ***best*** *is yet to come*.).

Nominal relative clause A subordinate clause introduced by *what*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *where*: ***What you need*** *is a long holiday*; *I can't understand* ***what he is saying***; *I'll speak to* ***whoever is responsible***.

Non-finite If the first (or only) verb in a verb phrase has the base form (*Simon is reluctant* ***to make an effort***.), the *-ing* form (***Working hard*** *brings its own reward*.), or the *-ed/-en* form (***Published in 1998***, *it soon became a best-seller*.), then the verb phrase is non-finite. The term is also used to describe a clause containing a non-finite verb phrase. See also: **Finite**.

Non-sentence An independent unit which has no sentence structure. Non-sentences are commonly used in public signs and notices: *Exit*, *No Entry*, *10% Off*. See also: **Fragment**.

Notional Direct Object The function of a *to*-clause or a *that*-clause in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *I find it hard* ***to concentrate***; *He made it obvious* ***that he wasn't satisfied***. See also: **Extraposition**, **Notional Subject**.

Notional Subject The function of a *to*-clause or a *that*-clause in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *It is important* ***to save money***; *It's a pity* ***that you cannot come***. See also: **Extraposition**, **Provisional Subject**.

Noun Common nouns are the names of objects (*book*, *computer*), people (*boy*, *father*), states (*loneliness*, *happiness*), abstract concepts (*history*, *honesty*), etc. Proper nouns refer to individual people (*Nelson Mandela*, *Winston Churchill*), places (*London*, *Hong Kong*), and geographical features (*Ben Nevis*, *River Thames*).

Noun phrase A phrase in which the main word is a noun. The noun may occur on its own (*children*, *water*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*young children*, *cold water*). A noun phrase may also contain a Postmodifier after the noun (***children*** *with learning disabilities*, ***water*** *from the stream*). A noun phrase may be introduced by a determiner (***the*** *children*, ***some*** *water*).

Number The contrast between singular and plural, e.g. *dog*/*dogs*, *woman*/*women*, *this*/*these*.

Number Test A test to identify the Head of a noun phrase. The Head is the word that changes when the whole phrase is made plural. Singular: *a* ***tin*** *of paint*; plural: *two* ***tins*** *of paint*.

Numeral There are two sets of numerals, the cardinal numerals *one*, *two*, *three*, etc, and the ordinal numerals *first*, *second*, *third*, etc.

Object See **Direct Object**, **Indirect Object**.

Object Complement A constituent which follows the Direct Object in a complex transitive sentence. For instance, in *The dye turned the water blue*, *blue* is the Object Complement.

Objective case The objective case of a personal pronoun is used when the pronoun is a Direct Object (*Simon met* ***me***.) or an Indirect Object (*Simon bought* ***me*** *a ticket*.). It is also used after a preposition (*Simon bought a ticket for* ***me***.). See also: **Subjective case**.

One-word Substitution Test A test to identify the constituents of a sentence. Each constituent except the verb can be substituted by one word: [*At midnight*] [*the bell*] *rang* [*in*] [*the old churchyard*]. → [*Then*] [*it*] *rang* [*there*].

Open word class An open word class is one which admits new members as the need arises. The major open classes are nouns and main verbs. See also: **Closed word class**.

Operator The Operator is the first or only auxiliary verb in a verb phrase, e.g. *He* **is** *studying*; *He* **has** *been studying*; *He* ***may*** *have been studying*. See also: **NICE properties**.

Parenthetical A complete sentence inserted in another sentence: *The merger –* ***this is confidential*** *– will go ahead as planned*.

Participial adjective An adjective with an *-ed/-en* ending (*a* ***dedicated*** *worker*, *a* ***fallen*** *tree*) or an *-ing* ending (*a* ***surprising*** *result*).

Passive See **Voice**.

Perfective auxiliary The perfective auxiliary is *have*. It occurs before the *-ed/-en* form of a main verb: *Simon* ***has*** *arrived*; *We* ***had*** *hoped you could come*.

Person A grammatical category that indicates a relationship with the speaker: **first person** refers to the speaker (*I*, *me*), **second person** refers to the addressee (*you*), and **third person** refers to all others (*they*, *them*).

Personal pronoun The personal pronouns are *I/me*, *you*, *he/him*, *she/her/it*, *we/us*, *they/them*. See also: **Subjective case**, **Objective case**.

Phrasal verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Phrasal-prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Polarity Polarity refers to the distinction between a positive sentence (*Amy is a student.*) and a negative sentence (*Amy is not a student.*).

Polysyndetic coordination Coordination in which *and* or *or* is used between each pair of coordinated items: *The lecture went on* ***and*** *on* ***and*** *on*; *You can have pasta* ***or*** *meatloaf* ***or*** *salad*. See also: **Asyndetic coordination**, **Syndetic coordination**.

Possessive pronoun The possessive pronouns are *my/mine*, *your/yours*, *his*, *her/hers, its*, *our/ours*, *their/theirs*.

Postmodifier A phrase or clause which comes after a word and modifies or specifies its meaning: *the man* ***behind me***; *the man* ***who lives beside us***; *afraid* ***of dogs***; *afraid* ***to cross the street***.

Postponement Postponement involves moving long and complex constituents to the end of a sentence, usually for stylistic reasons, e.g. *They gave* [*the student who wrote the best essay on the rise and fall of the Roman empire*] [*a prize*]. Here, the long Indirect Object would be better placed at the end, after preposition *to*: *They gave* [*a prize*] *to* [*the student who wrote the best essay on the rise and fall of the Roman empire*].

Predicator The grammatical function of the main verb in a verb phrase, e.g. *John is* ***leaving***.

Prefix A sequence of letters, such as *un- (unlawful)*, *anti- (anti-abortion)*, *post- (post-war)* added to the beginning of a word to form a new word. See also: **Suffix**.

Premodifier A phrase which comes before a word and modifies or specifies its meaning: *an **extremely old** building*; ***very** recently*.

Preposition Common prepositions include *after*, *at*, *before*, *beside*, *for*, *in*, *of*, *under*, *with*. Prepositions are used to introduce a noun phrase: ***after** the ballet*; ***at** the supermarket*; ***before** breakfast*, or a clause: ***after** eating breakfast*; ***by** working hard*.

Prepositional Complement The constituent which is introduced by a preposition: *after **the ballet***; *under **our roof***, *in **New York***, *at **ten o'clock***, *before **leaving for work***, *after **getting to work***.

Prepositional paraphrase A sentence such as *We gave John a gift* can be paraphrased as *We gave a gift to John*. This is the prepositional paraphrase of the original version. The Indirect Object *John* is moved to the end, where it becomes a constituent of the prepositional phrase *to John*. See also: **Ditransitive verb**.

Prepositional phrase A phrase which is introduced by a preposition. The preposition is followed by a Prepositional Complement, which may be a noun phrase: *after the ballet*; *under our roof*; or a clause: *before leaving for work*, *after getting to work*.

Prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Progressive auxiliary The progressive auxiliary *be* occurs before a main verb with *-ing* form: ***I am** organising a trip to Paris*; *Paul **is** collecting money for charity*; *The children **were** shouting*.

Pronoun Pronouns are divided into the following major classes: **demonstrative**, **personal**, **possessive**, **quantifying**, **reflexive**, **relative**. See also: **Dependent pronoun**, **Independent pronoun**.

Provisional Direct Object The function of anticipatory *it* as Direct Object in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *He made **it** obvious that he wasn't satisfied*. See also: **Anticipatory *it***, **Extraposition**.

Provisional Subject The function of anticipatory *it* as Subject in an extraposed sentence, e.g. ***It** is important to save money*. The term is also used to describe the function of *there* in *there*-sentences, e.g. ***There** is a man at the door*. See also: **Anticipatory *it***, **Extraposition**, ***There*-sentence**.

Reduced relative clause A relative clause in which the relative pronoun is omitted, and the verb has *-ed/-en* form or *-ing* form: *Films **produced on a small budget** are rarely successful* (compare: *Films **which are produced on a small budget***); *The man **standing beside you** is my uncle* (compare: *The man **who is standing beside you***).

Referring expressions Expressions that are used to refer to other words in a text. They are most commonly pronouns, e.g. *Simon left work early. He was feeling unwell*. Here, the pronoun *he* refers back to *Simon*. See also: **Antecedent**.

Reflexive pronoun The reflexive pronouns are *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

Relative clause A relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun such as *who*, *which*, or *that*: *The man* ***who lives beside us*** *is unwell*; *It's a new company* ***which specializes in digital marketing***; *The project* ***that I'm working on*** *is really interesting*.

Relative pronoun The relative pronouns are *who*(*m*), *whose*, *which*, and *that*. They are used to introduce a relative clause: *The man* ***who lives beside us*** *is unwell*.

Reporting clause A clause such as *he said*, or *said Mary*, which identifies the speaker of direct speech: '*I'm leaving now*', ***he said***.

Semantics The study of the relationship between linguistic forms and meaning.

Semi-auxiliary verb A multi-word auxiliary verb. Examples include *have to* (*I* ***have to*** *catch a bus*.), *be going to* (*He's* ***going to*** *fall*.) and *be about to* (*The show* ***is about to*** *start*.).

Sentential relative clause A relative clause which expresses a comment on what has previously been said: *Amy can't come this evening*, ***which is a pity***.

Stance adverb Stance adverbs express the speaker's attitude towards what is happening. For example: ***Unfortunately***, *Brazil lost the game on penalties*; ***Sadly***, *the dog was never found*; ***Hopefully***, *we can save enough money to get a mortgage*.

Subject The constituent that typically comes before the verb in a declarative sentence: ***James*** (S) *is* (V) *still at school*. In an interrogative sentence, the Subject and the verb change places with each other: *Is* (V) ***James*** (S) *still at school?*

Subject Complement The constituent that completes the meaning of a linking verb (usually *be*): *Paul is* ***my nephew***; *Our house is* **too small**; *The weather was* ***beautiful***.

Subjective case The subjective case of a personal pronoun is used when the pronoun functions as Subject: ***I*** *met Simon*, in contrast with the objective case: *Simon met* ***me***. See also: **Objective case**.

Subject-verb agreement A term used to denote the fact that a verb form agrees in number (singular or plural) with its Subject (compare: *The dog* ***barks***./*The dogs* ***bark***.). Subject-verb agreement applies only to present tense verbs.

Subjunctive A term used to denote sentences which express a hypothetical or non-factual situation: *If I* ***were*** *you*, *I would invest the money*; *The Report recommended that the police officers* ***be*** *suspended immediately*.

Subordinate clause A dependent clause within a larger structure, e.g. ***When the rain came*** *we went indoors*; *John said* ***that Mary is leaving***.

Subordinating conjunction A word which introduces a subordinate clause. Common subordinating conjunctions include *although*, *because*, *if*, *though*, *when*, *while*. Multi-word subordinating conjunctions include *as long as*, *as though*, *provided that*, *seeing that*.

Subordination A relationship between two clauses in which one clause is grammatically dependent on the other. Subordination is often overtly indicated by the use of a subordinating conjunction: *William studied architecture* ***while he was in Germany***.

Substitute *one* Substitute *one* is a pronoun which is used to substitute for a noun that has already been mentioned, e.g. *The red car is nice but I prefer the black* ***one***.

Suffix An ending added to a word to create another word. Noun suffixes include *-ness* (*coolness*, *kindness*), and *-ism* (*capitalism*, *optimism*). Adjective suffixes include *-able* (*profitable*, *reasonable*) and *-al* (*accidental*, *musical*).

Superlative form A term used to refer to the *-est* form of adjectives (*happiest*) and adverbs (*soonest*). See also: **Comparative form**.

Syndetic coordination Coordination using *and*, *but*, or *or*: *Paul* ***and*** *Amy*; *tired* ***but*** *happy*; *tea* ***or*** *coffee*. See also: **Asyndetic coordination**, **Polysyndetic coordination**.

Syntax 'Syntax' is a slightly more formal term for 'grammar' as discussed in this book, that is, the study of the structure of sentences and their parts.

Tag question A question which is appended to a statement: *You went to Harvard*, ***didn't you?***; *You're not leaving*, ***are you?***

Tag Question Polarity Test A test to determine whether a sentence is positive or negative. Positive sentence take a negative tag question (*You are a student, aren't you?*), while negative sentences take a positive tag question (*You are not a student, are you?*).

Tag Question Test A test to identify the Subject of a sentence. When we add a tag question to a sentence, the last word in the tag question refers back to the Subject of the sentence: ***Amy*** *is nice, isn't* **she***?*

Tense There are two tenses in English: the past tense and the present tense. Tense is denoted by the form of the first or only verb in a verb phrase: *David* ***walks*** *to school* (present tense); *David* ***is*** *walking to school* (present tense); *David* ***walked*** *to school* (past tense); *David* ***was*** *walking to school* (past tense).

That*-clause** A subordinate clause introduced by the Complementizer *that*: *Everyone knows* ***that smoking is dangerous.

***There*-sentence** A sentence introduced by *there* and followed, usually, by the verb *be*: ***There** is a fly in my soup*; ***There is** something wrong with the printer*. Also called an existential sentence.

To*-clause** A subordinate clause introduced by the infinitive marker *to*, e.g. *It is important **to exercise; *The best person **to ask** is a lawyer*; *The patient is unable **to walk***.

Transitive verb A verb which requires at least one Object to complete its meaning: *Paul **makes** model airplanes*; *David **bought** himself a boat*. See also: **Intransitive verb**.

Tree diagram A visual representation of the structure of a sentence, clause, or phrase.

Type 1 NP A Type 1 NP has the structure Noun 1 + Preposition + Noun 2, e.g. *people from China*, *bars of soap*. In Type 1 NPs, the first noun is the Head. See also: **Type 2 NP**.

Type 2 NP A Type 2 NP has the structure Noun 1 + Noun 2, e.g. *school uniform*, *computer program*. In Type 2 NPs, the second noun is the Head. See also: **Type 1 NP**.

Uncountable noun A noun which denotes things which are considered as indivisible wholes (*furniture*, *mud*, *software*) and therefore cannot be counted (**two furnitures*, **three muds*, **four softwares*, etc). Uncountable nouns have a singular form (*software*), but no plural form (**softwares*). See also: **Countable noun**.

Verb Verbs are divided into two types: (a) main verbs, such as *break*, *buy*, *eat*, *sing*, *write*, and (b) auxiliary verbs, such as *can*, *could*, *may*, *must*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*.

Verb phrase A phrase in which the main word is a verb. The verb may occur on its own (*walked*, *sings*), or it may be preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs (*has walked*, *can walk*, *has been singing*).

Vocative A noun phrase or clause used to identify the person or persons being addressed: *Come in, **Dr Johnson***; *Come out, **whoever you are***.

Voice A term used to describe the contrast between an active sentence (*The police arrested the suspect*) and a passive sentence (*The suspect was arrested by the police*).

***Were*-subjunctive** A type of subjunctive sentence in which the verb is *were*: *I wish you **were** here*. See also: **Subjunctive**.

***Wh*-interrogative** A question introduced by *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, or *how*: ***Who** was at the door?*; ***What** would you like to drink?*; ***Where** are my keys?*; ***When** is your flight?*; ***How** do you switch it on?*

***Yes-no* interrogative** A question which normally expects an answer which is either *yes* or *no*: *Did you enjoy the film?* See also: **Alternative interrogative**.

Zero relative clause A relative clause from which the relative pronoun has been omitted: *This is the book* ***William recommended***. Compare: *This is the book* ***that/which William recommended***.

Zero subordinate clause A subordinate clause from which the Complementizer *that* has been omitted: *He must think* ***I'm a fool***. Compare: *He must think* ***that I'm a fool***.

Further reading

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