

محمد كنعان رمان

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة ديالى

كلية التربية الاساسية

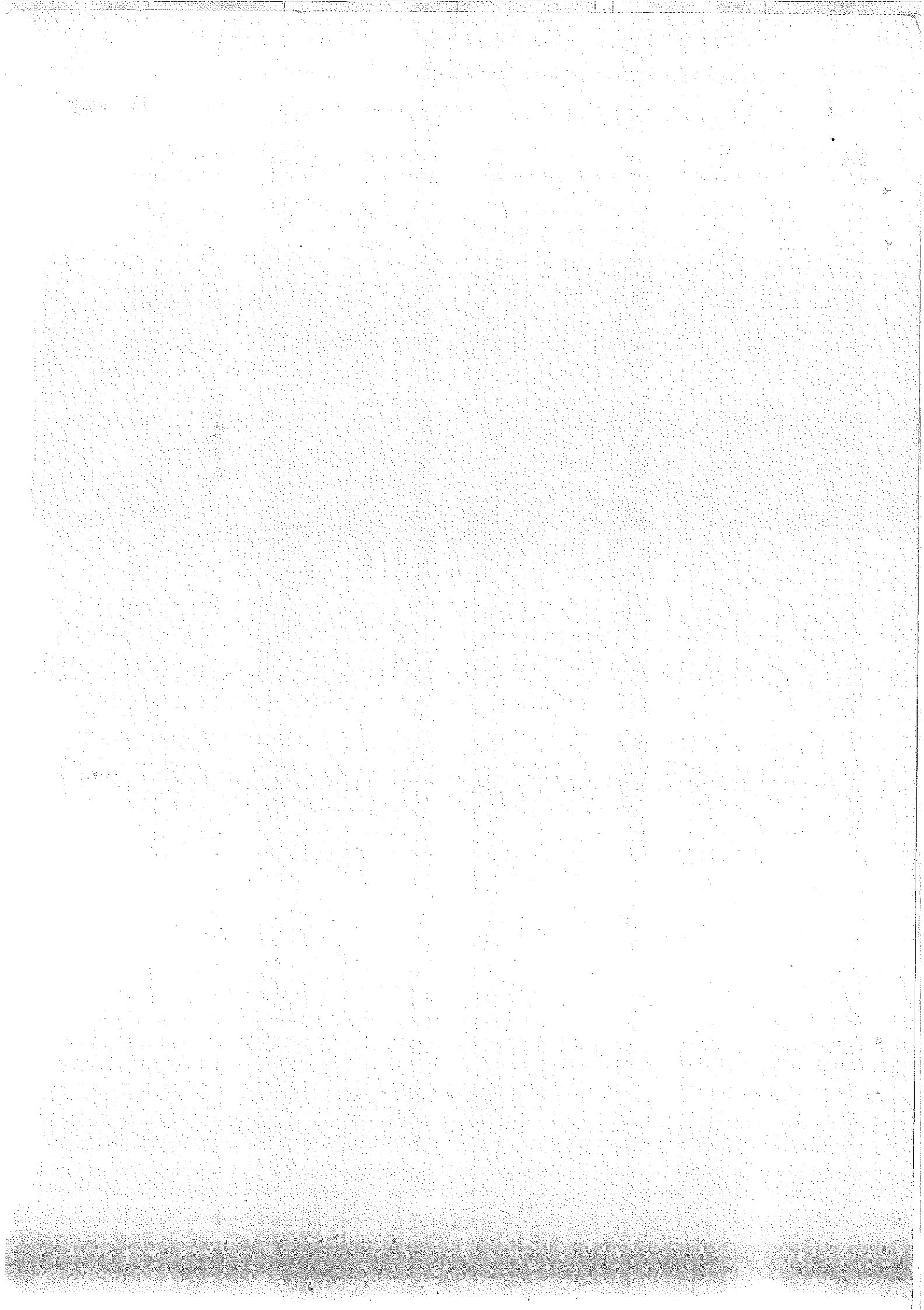
قسم اللغة الانكليزية

Grammar

First stage

First course

2016-2015



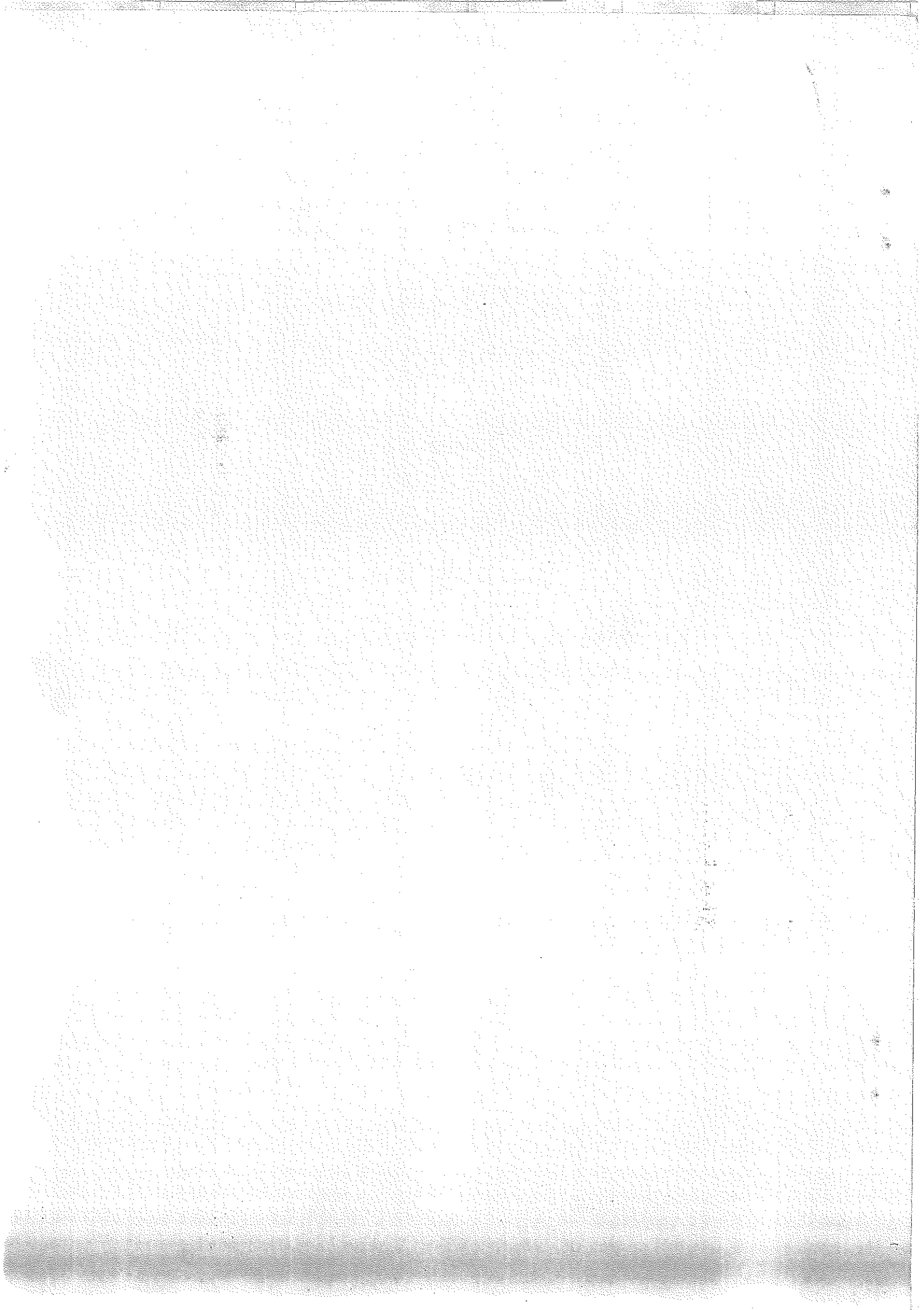
Fourth edition

A Practical English Grammar

A. J. Thomson

A. V. Martinet

Oxford University Press



2 Nouns

10 Kinds and function

A There are four kinds of noun in English:

Common nouns: *dog, man, table*

Proper nouns: *France, Madrid, Mrs Smith, Tom*

Abstract nouns: *beauty, charity, courage, fear, joy*

Collective nouns: *crowd, flock, group, swarm, team*

what are the main functions of the noun

B A noun can function as:

The subject of a verb: *Tom arrived.*

The complement of the verbs be, become, seem: *Tom is an actor.*

The object of a verb: *I saw Tom.*

The object of a preposition: *I spoke to Tom.*

A noun can also be in the possessive case: *Tom's books.*

11 Gender

A Masculine: men, boys and male animals (pronoun **he/they**).

Feminine: women, girls and female animals (pronoun **she/they**).

Neuter: inanimate things, animals whose sex we don't know and sometimes babies whose sex we don't know (pronoun **it/they**).

Exceptions: ships and sometimes cars and other vehicles when regarded with affection or respect are considered feminine. Countries when referred to by name are also normally considered feminine.

The ship struck an iceberg, which tore a huge hole in her side.

Scotland lost many of her bravest men in two great rebellions.

B Masculine/feminine nouns denoting people

1 Different forms:

(a) <i>boy, girl</i>	<i>gentleman, lady</i>	<i>son, daughter</i>
<i>bachelor, spinster</i>	<i>husband, wife</i>	<i>uncle, aunt</i>
<i>bridegroom, bride</i>	<i>man, woman</i>	<i>widower, widow</i>
<i>father, mother</i>	<i>nephew, niece</i>	

Main exceptions:

<i>baby</i>	<i>infant</i>	<i>relative</i>
<i>child</i>	<i>parent</i>	<i>spouse</i>
<i>cousin</i>	<i>relation</i>	<i>teenager</i>

(b) <i>duke, duchess</i>	<i>king, queen</i>	<i>prince, princess</i>
<i>earl, countess</i>	<i>lord, lady</i>	

2. The majority of nouns indicating occupation have the same form:

artist *cook* *driver* *guide*
assistant *dancer* *doctor* *etc.*

Main exceptions:

actor, actress *host, hostess*
conductor, conductress *manager, manageress*
heir, heiress *steward, stewardess*
hero, heroine *waiter, waitress*

Also *salesman, saleswoman* etc., but sometimes *-person* is used instead of *-man, -woman*: *salesperson, spokesperson*.

- C Domestic animals and many of the larger wild animals have different forms:

bull, cow *duck, drake* *ram, ewe* *stallion, mare*
cock, hen *gander, goose* *stag, doe* *tiger, tigress*
dog, bitch *lion, lioness*

Others have the same form.

12 Plurals

- A The plural of a noun is usually made by adding *s* to the singular:

day, days *dog, dogs* *house, houses*

s is pronounced /s/ after a *p, k* or *f* sound. Otherwise it is pronounced /z/.

When *s* is placed after *ce, ge, se* or *ze* an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

Other plural forms

- B Nouns ending in *o* or *ch, sh, ss* or *x* form their plural by adding *es*:

tomato, tomatoes *brush, brushes* *box, boxes*
church, churches *kiss, kisses*

But words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in *o* add *s* only:

dynamo, dynamos *kimono, kimonos* *piano, pianos*
kilo, kilos *photo, photos* *soprano, sopranos*

When *es* is placed after *ch, sh, ss* or *x* an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

- C Nouns ending in *y* following a consonant form their plural by dropping the *y* and adding *ies*:

baby, babies *country, countries* *fly, flies* *lady, ladies*

Nouns ending in *y* following a vowel form their plural by adding *s*:

boy, boys *day, days* *donkey, donkeys* *guy, guys*

- D Twelve nouns ending in *f* or *fe* drop the *f* or *fe* and add *ves*. These nouns are *calf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf*:

loaf, loaves *wife, wives* *wolf, wolves* *etc.*

2 Nouns

The nouns *hoof*, *scarf* and *wharf* take either *s* or *ves* in the plural:
hoofs or *hooves* *scarfs* or *scarves* *wharfs* or *wharves*

Other words ending in *f* or *fe* add *s* in the ordinary way:

cliff, cliffs *handkerchief, handkerchiefs* *safe, safes*

E A few nouns form their plural by a vowel change:

foot, feet *louse, lice* *mouse, mice* *woman, women*
goose, geese *man, men* *tooth, teeth*

The plurals of *child* and *ox* are *children*, *oxen*.

F Names of certain creatures do not change in the plural.

fish is normally unchanged. *fishes* exists but is uncommon.

Some types of fish do not normally change in the plural:

carp *pike* *salmon* *trout*
cod *plaice* *squid* *turbot*
mackerel

but if used in a plural sense they would take a plural verb.

Others add *s*:

crabs *herrings* *sardines*
eels *lobsters* *sharks*

deer and *sheep* do not change: *one sheep*, *two sheep*.

Sportsmen who shoot *duck*, *partridge*, *pheasant* etc. use the same form for singular and plural. But other people normally add *s* for the plural: *ducks*, *partridges*, *pheasants*.

The word *game*, used by sportsmen to mean an animal/animals hunted, is always in the singular, and takes a singular verb.

G A few other words don't change:

aircraft, craft (boat/boats) *quid* (slang for £1)
counsel (barristers working in court)

Some measurements and numbers do not change (see chapter 36).

For uncountable nouns, see 13.

H Collective nouns, *crew*, *family*, *team* etc., can take a singular or plural verb; singular if we consider the word to mean a single group or unit:

Our team is the best

or plural if we take it to mean a number of individuals:

Our team are wearing their new jerseys.

When a possessive adjective is necessary, a plural verb with **their** is more usual than a singular verb with **its**, though sometimes both are possible:

The jury is considering its verdict.

The jury are considering their verdict.

I Certain words are always plural and take a plural verb:

clothes *police*

garments consisting of two parts:

breeches *pants* *pyjamas* *trousers* etc.

and tools and instruments consisting of two parts:

binoculars *pliers* *scissors* *spectacles*
glasses *scales* *shears* etc.

Also certain other words including:

<i>arms</i> (weapons)	<i>particulars</i>
<i>damages</i> (compensation)	<i>premises/quarters</i>
<i>earnings</i>	<i>riches</i>
<i>goods/wares</i>	<i>savings</i>
<i>greens</i> (vegetables)	<i>spirits</i> (alcohol)
<i>grounds</i>	<i>stairs</i>
<i>outskirts</i>	<i>surroundings</i>
<i>pains</i> (trouble/effort)	<i>valuables</i>

- J A number of words ending in *ics*, *acoustics*, *athletics*, *ethics*, *hysterics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, *politics* etc., which are plural in form, normally take a plural verb:

His mathematics are weak.

But names of sciences can sometimes be considered singular:

Mathematics is an exact science.

- K Words plural in form but singular in meaning include *news*:

The news is good

certain diseases:

mumps rickets shingles

and certain games:

billiards darts draughts

bowls dominoes

- L Some words which retain their original Greek or Latin forms make their plurals according to the rules of Greek and Latin:

crisis, crises /'kraɪsɪs/, /'kraɪsi:z/ *phenomenon, phenomena*

erratum, errata *radius, radii*

memorandum, memoranda *terminus, termini*

oasis, oases /əʊ'eɪsɪs/, /əʊ'eɪsi:z/

But some follow the English rules:

dogma, dogmas gymnasium, gymnasiums

formula, formulas (though *formulae* is used by scientists)

Sometimes there are two plural forms with different meanings:

appendix, appendixes or *appendices* (medical terms)

appendix, appendices (addition/s to a book)

index, indexes (in books), *indices* (in mathematics)

Musicians usually prefer Italian plural forms for Italian musical terms:

libretto, libretti tempo, tempi

But *s* is also possible: *librettos, tempos*.

- M Compound nouns

- 1 Normally the last word is made plural:

boy-friends break-ins travel agents

But where *man* and *woman* is prefixed both parts are made plural:

men drivers women drivers

2 Nouns * item

2 The first word is made plural with compounds formed of verb + er nouns + adverbs:

hangers-on *lookers-on* *runners-up*

and with compounds composed of noun + preposition + noun:

ladies-in-waiting *sisters-in-law* *wards of court*

3 Initials can be made plural:

MPs (Members of Parliament)

VIPs (very important persons)

OAPs (old age pensioners)

UFOs (unidentified flying objects)

13 Uncountable nouns (also known as non-count nouns or mass nouns)

A 1 Names of substances considered generally:

<i>bread</i>	<i>cream</i>	<i>gold</i>	<i>paper</i>	<i>tea</i>
<i>beer</i>	<i>dust</i>	<i>ice</i>	<i>sand</i>	<i>water</i>
<i>cloth</i>	<i>gin</i>	<i>jam</i>	<i>soap</i>	<i>wine</i>
<i>coffee</i>	<i>glass</i>	<i>oil</i>	<i>stone</i>	<i>wood</i>

2 Abstract nouns: ~~that we can see it or touch it~~

<i>advice</i>	<i>experience</i>	<i>horror</i>	<i>pity</i>
<i>beauty</i>	<i>fear</i>	<i>information</i>	<i>relief</i>
<i>courage</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>knowledge</i>	<i>suspicion</i>
<i>death</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>mercy</i>	<i>work</i>

3 Also considered uncountable in English:

<i>baggage</i>	<i>damage</i>	<i>luggage</i>	<i>shopping</i>
<i>camping</i>	<i>furniture</i>	<i>parking</i>	<i>weather</i>

These, with *hair*, *information*, *knowledge*, *news*, *rubbish*, are sometimes countable in other languages.

B Uncountable nouns are always singular and are not used with a/an:

I don't want (any) advice or help. I want (some) information.

He has had no experience in this sort of work.

These nouns are often preceded by *some*, *any*, *no*, *a little* etc. or by nouns such as *bit*, *piece*, *slice* etc. + *of*:

<i>a bit of news</i>	<i>a grain of sand</i>	<i>a pot of jam</i>
<i>a cake of soap</i>	<i>a pane of glass</i>	<i>a sheet of paper</i>
<i>a drop of oil</i>	<i>a piece of advice</i>	

C Many of the nouns in the above groups can be used in a particular sense and are then countable. They can take a/an in the singular and can be used in the plural. Some examples are given below.

hair (all the hair on one's head) is considered uncountable, but if we consider each hair separately we say *one hair*, *two hairs* etc.:

Her hair is black. Whenever she finds a grey hair she pulls it out.

We drink *beer*, *coffee*, *gin*, but we can ask for *a (cup of) coffee*, *a gin*, *two gins* etc. We drink *wine*, but enjoy *a good wine*. We drink it from *a glass* or from *glasses*. We can walk in *a wood/woods*.

experience meaning 'something which happened to someone' is countable:

He had an exciting experience/some exciting experiences
 (= adventure/s) last week.

work meaning 'occupation/employment/a job/jobs' is uncountable:

He is looking for work/for a job.

works (plural only) can mean 'factory' or 'moving parts of a machine'.

works (usually plural) can be used of literary or musical compositions:

Shakespeare's complete works

مساعد
 D

Some abstract nouns can be used in a particular sense with a/an:

a help:

My children are a great help to me. A good map would be a help.

a relief:

It was a relief to sit down.

a knowledge + of:

He had a good knowledge of mathematics.

a dislike/dread/hatred/horror/love + of is also possible:

a love of music a hatred of violence

a mercy/pity/shame/wonder can be used with that-clauses introduced by it:

It's a pity you weren't here. It's a shame he wasn't paid.

it + be + a pity/shame + infinitive is also possible:

It would be a pity to cut down these trees.

ع
 E

a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspicious

These can be used with that-clauses introduced by there:

There is a fear/There are fears that he has been murdered.

We can also have a suspicion that . . .

Something can arouse a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspicious.

14 The form of the possessive/genitive case

A 's is used with singular nouns and plural nouns not ending in s:

<i>a man's job</i>	<i>the people's choice</i>
<i>men's work</i>	<i>the crew's quarters</i>
<i>a woman's intuition</i>	<i>the horse's mouth</i>
<i>the butcher's (shop)</i>	<i>the bull's horns</i>
<i>a child's voice</i>	<i>women's clothes</i>
<i>the children's room</i>	<i>Russia's exports</i>

B A simple apostrophe (') is used with plural nouns ending in s:

<i>a girls' school</i>	<i>the students' hostel</i>
<i>the eagles' nest</i>	<i>the Smiths' car</i>

C Classical names ending in s usually add only the apostrophe:
Pythagoras' Theorem Archimedes' Law Sophocles' plays

D Other names ending in s can take 's or the apostrophe alone:

Mr Jones's (or Mr Jones' house) Yeats's (or Yeats') poems

2 Nouns

E With compounds, the last word takes the 's:

my brother-in-law's guitar

Names consisting of several words are treated similarly:

Henry the Eighth's wives the Prince of Wales's helicopter

's can also be used after initials:

the PM's secretary the MP's briefcase the VIP's escort

Note that when the possessive case is used, the article before the person or thing 'possessed' disappears:

the daughter of the politician = the politician's daughter

the intervention of America = America's intervention

the plays of Shakespeare = Shakespeare's plays

15 Use of the possessive/genitive case and of + noun

A The possessive case is chiefly used of people, countries or animals as shown above. It can also be used:

1 Of ships and boats: *the ship's bell, the yacht's mast*

2 Of planes, trains, cars and other vehicles, though here the of construction is safer:

a glider's wings or the wings of a glider

the train's heating system or the heating system of the train

3 In time expressions:

a week's holiday

today's paper

tomorrow's weather

in two years' time

ten minutes' break

two hours' delay

a ten-minute break, a two-hour delay are also possible:

We have ten minutes' break/a ten-minute break.

4 In expressions of money + worth:

£1's worth of stamps

ten dollars' worth of ice-cream

5 With for + noun + sake: *for heaven's sake, for goodness' sake*

6 In a few expressions such as:

a stone's throw

journey's end

the water's edge

7 We can say either *a winter's day* or *a winter day* and *a summer's day* or *a summer day*, but we cannot make spring or autumn possessive, except when they are personified: *Autumn's return*.

8 Sometimes certain nouns can be used in the possessive case without the second noun. *a/the baker's/butcher's/chemist's/florist's* etc. can mean 'a/the baker's/butcher's etc. shop'.

Similarly, *a/the house agent's/travel agent's* etc. (office) and *the dentist's/doctor's/vet's* (surgery):

You can buy it at the chemist's. He's going to the dentist's.

Names of the owners of some businesses can be used similarly:

Sotheby's, Claridge's

Some very well-known shops etc. call themselves by the possessive form and some drop the apostrophe: *Foyles, Harrods*.

Names of people can sometimes be used similarly to mean
'... 's house':

We had lunch at Bill's. We met at Ann's.

B of + noun is used for possession:

1 When the possessor noun is followed by a phrase or clause:

The boys ran about, obeying the directions of a man with a whistle.

I took the advice of a couple I met on the train and hired a car.

2 With inanimate 'possessors', except those listed in A above:

the walls of the town the roof of the church the keys of the car

However, it is often possible to replace noun X + of + noun Y by
noun Y + noun X in that order:

the town walls the church roof the car keys

The first noun becomes a sort of adjective and is not made plural:

the roofs of the churches = the church roofs (see 16)

Unfortunately noun + of + noun combinations cannot always be
replaced in this way and the student is advised to use of when in doubt.

16 Compound nouns

A Examples of these:

1 Noun + noun:

'London 'Transport

'Fleet Street

'Tower 'Bridge

'hall 'door

'traffic warden

'petrol tank

'hitch-hiker

'sky-jacker

'river bank

'kitchen table

'winter 'clothes

2 Noun + gerund:

'fruit picking

'lorry driving

'coal-mining

'weight-lifting

'bird-watching

'surf-riding

3 Gerund + noun:

'waiting list

'diving-board

'driving licence

'landing card

'dining-room

'swimming pool

B Some ways in which these combinations can be used:

1 When the second noun belongs to or is part of the first:

'shop 'window

'picture frame

'college 'library

'church bell

'garden 'gate

'gear lever

But words denoting quantity: *lump, part, piece, slice* etc. cannot be used
in this way:

a piece of cake a slice of bread

2 The first noun can indicate the place of the second:

'city 'street

'corner 'shop

'country 'lane

'street market

3 The first noun can indicate the time of the second:

'summer 'holiday

'Sunday 'paper

'November 'fogs

'spring 'flowers

'dawn 'chorus

2 Nouns

نوعين
X

- 4 The first noun can state the material of which the second is made:

'steel 'door 'rope 'ladder 'gold 'medal
'stone 'wall 'silk 'shirt

wool and *wood* are not used here as they have adjective forms: *woollen* and *wooden*. *gold* has an adjective form *golden*, but this is used only figuratively:

a golden handshake a golden opportunity golden hair

The first noun can also state the power/fuel used to operate the second:

'gas 'fire 'petrol engine 'oil 'stove

- 5 The first word can indicate the purpose of the second:

'coffee cup 'escape hatch 'chess board
'reading lamp 'skating rink 'tin opener
'golf club 'notice board 'football ground

- 6 Work areas, such as *factory*, *farm*, *mine* etc., can be preceded by the name of the article produced:

'fish-farm 'gold-mine 'oil-rig

or the type of work done:

'inspection pit 'assembly plant 'decompression chamber

- 7 These combinations are often used of occupations, sports, hobbies and the people who practise them:

'sheep farming 'sheep farmer 'pop singer
'wind surfing 'water skier 'disc jockey

and for competitions:

'football match 'tennis tournament 'beauty contest 'car rally

- 8 The first noun can show what the second is about or concerned with.

A work of fiction may be a 'detective/murder/mystery/ghost/horror/spy story. We buy 'bus/train/plane tickets. We pay 'fuel/laundry/milk/telephone bills, 'entry fees, 'income tax, 'car insurance, 'water rates, 'parking fines.

Similarly with committees, departments, talks, conferences etc.:

'housing committee, 'education department, 'peace talks

- 9 These categories all overlap to some extent. They are not meant to be mutually exclusive, but aim to give the student some general idea of the uses of these combinations and help with the stress.

C As will be seen from the stress-marks above:

- 1 The first word is stressed in noun + gerund and gerund + noun combinations, when there is an idea of purpose as in B5 above, and in combinations of type B7 and B8 above.

- 2 Both words are usually stressed in combinations of types A1, B1-3 above, but inevitably there are exceptions.

- 3 In place-name combinations both words usually have equal stress:

'King's 'Road 'Waterloo 'Bridge 'Leicester 'Square

But there is one important exception. In combinations where the last word is *Street*, the word *Street* is unstressed:

'Bond Street 'Oxford Street

3 Adjectives

17 Kinds of adjectives

A The main kinds are:

- (a) Demonstrative: *this, that, these, those* (see 9)
- (b) Distributive: *each, every* (46); *either, neither* (49).
- (c) Quantitative: *some, any, no* (50); *little/few* (5); *many, much* (25); *one, twenty* (349)
- (d) Interrogative: *which, what, whose* (54)
- (e) Possessive: *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their* (62)
- (f) Of quality: *clever, dry, fat, golden, good, heavy, square* (19)

B Participles used as adjectives

Both present participles (**ing**) and past participles (**ed**) can be used as adjectives. Care must be taken not to confuse them. Present participle adjectives, *amusing, boring, tiring* etc., are active and mean 'having this effect'. Past participle adjectives, *amused, horrified, tired* etc., are passive and mean 'affected in this way'.

The play was boring. (The audience was bored.)

The work was tiring. (The workers were soon tired.)

The scene was horrifying. (The spectators were horrified.)

an infuriating woman (She made us furious.)

an infuriated woman (Something had made her furious.)

C Agreement

Adjectives in English have the same form for singular and plural, masculine and feminine nouns:

a good boy, good boys a good girl, good girls

The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives **this** and **that**, which change to **these** and **those** before plural nouns:

this cat, these cats that man, those men

D Many adjectives/participles can be followed by prepositions: *good at, tired of* (see 96).

18 Position of adjectives: attributive and predicative use

A Adjectives in groups (a) - (e) above come before their nouns:

this book which boy my dog

Adjectives in this position are called attributive adjectives.

B Adjectives of quality, however, can come either before their nouns:

a rich man a happy girl

3 Adjectives

or after a verb such as (a) *be, become, seem*:

Tom became rich. Ann seems happy.

or (b) *appear, feel, get/grow (= become), keep, look (= appear), make, smell, sound, taste, turn*:

Tom felt cold. He got/grew impatient.

He made her happy. The idea sounds interesting.

Adjectives in this position are called predicative adjectives. Verbs used in this way are called link verbs or copulas.

C Note on link verbs (see also 169)

A problem with verbs in B(b) above is that when they are not used as link verbs they can be modified by adverbs in the usual way. This confuses the student, who often tries to use adverbs instead of adjectives after link verbs. Some examples with adjectives and adverbs may help to show the different uses:

He looked calm (adjective) = *He had a calm expression.*

He looked calmly (adverb) *at the angry crowd.* (*looked* here is a deliberate action.)

She turned pale (adjective) = *She became pale.*

He turned angrily (adverb) *to the man behind him.* (*turned* here is a deliberate action.)

The soup tasted horrible (adjective). (It had a horrible taste.)

He tasted the soup suspiciously (adverb). (*tasted* here is a deliberate action.)

D Some adjectives can be used only attributively or only predicatively, and some change their meaning when moved from one position to the other.

bad/good, big/small, heavy/light and **old**, used in such expressions as *bad sailor, good swimmer, big eater, small farmer, heavy drinker, light sleeper, old boy/friend/soldier* etc.; cannot be used predicatively without changing the meaning: *a small farmer* is a man who has a small farm, but *The farmer is small* means that he is a small man physically.

Used otherwise, the above adjectives can be in either position.

(For **little, old, young**, see also 19 B.)

chief, main, principal, sheer, utter come before their nouns.

frightened may be in either position, but **afraid** and **upset** must follow the verb and so must **adrift, afloat, alike** (see 21 G), **alive, alone, ashamed, asleep**.

The meaning of **early** and **late** may depend on their position:

an early/a late train means a train scheduled to run early or late in the day. *The train is early/late* means that it is before/after its proper time.

poor meaning 'without enough money' can precede the noun or follow the verb.

poor meaning 'unfortunate' must precede the noun.

poor meaning 'weak/inadequate' precedes nouns such as *student, worker* etc. but when used with inanimate nouns can be in either position:

He has poor sight. His sight is poor.

E Use of **and**

With attributive adjectives **and** is used chiefly when there are two or more adjectives of colour. It is then placed before the last of these:

a green and brown carpet a red, white and blue flag

With predicative adjectives **and** is placed between the last two:

The day was cold, wet and windy.

19 Order of adjectives of quality

A Several variations are possible but a fairly usual order is: adjectives of

(a) size (except **little**; but see C below)

(b) general description (excluding adjectives of personality, emotion etc.)

(c) age, and the adjective **little** (see B)

(d) shape

(e) colour

(f) material

(g) origin

(h) purpose (these are really gerunds used to form compound nouns: *walking stick, riding boots*).

a long sharp knife a small round bath

new hexagonal coins blue velvet curtains

an old plastic bucket an elegant French clock

Adjectives of personality/emotion come after adjectives of physical description, including **dark, fair, pale**, but before colours:

a small suspicious official a long patient queue

a pale anxious girl a kindly black doctor

an inquisitive brown dog

B **little, old** and **young** are often used, not to give information, but as part of an adjective-noun combination. They are then placed next to their nouns:

Your nephew is a nice little boy. That young man drives too fast.

little + old + noun is possible: *a little old lady*. But **little + young**

is not.

When used to give information, **old** and **young** occupy position (c) above:

a young coloured man an old Welsh harp

Adjectives of personality/emotion can precede or follow **young/old**:

a young ambitious man an ambitious young man

young in the first example carries a stronger stress than **young** in the second, so the first order is better if we wish to emphasize the age.

little can be used similarly in position (c):

a handy little calculator an expensive little hotel

a little sandy beach a little grey foal

But **small** is usually better than **little** if we want to emphasize the size.

(For **little** meaning 'a small amount', see 5.)

3 Adjectives

C fine, lovely, nice, and sometimes beautiful, + adjectives of size (except *little*), shape and temperature usually express approval of the size etc. If we say *a beautiful big room, a lovely warm house, nice/fine thick steaks* we imply that we like big rooms, warm houses and thick steaks.

fine, lovely and nice can be used similarly with a number of other adjectives:

fine strong coffee a lovely quiet beach a nice dry day

When used predicatively, such pairs are separated by *and*:

The coffee was fine and strong.

The day was nice and dry.

beautiful is not much used in this sense as a predicative adjective.

D *pretty* followed by another adjective with no comma between them is an adverb of degree meaning **very/quite**: *She's a pretty tall girl* means *She is quite/very tall*. But *a pretty, tall girl* or, more usually, *a tall, pretty girl* means a girl who is both tall and pretty.

20 Comparison

A There are three degrees of comparison:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
<i>dark</i>	<i>darker</i>	<i>darkest</i>
<i>tall</i>	<i>taller</i>	<i>tallest</i>
<i>useful</i>	<i>more useful</i>	<i>most useful</i>

B One-syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding **er** and **est** to the positive form:

bright brighter brightest

Adjectives ending in **e** add **r** and **st**:

brave braver bravest

C Adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative by putting **more** and **most** before the positive:

interested more interested most interested
frightening more frightening most frightening

D Adjectives of two syllables follow one or other of the above rules. Those ending in **ful** or **re** usually take **more** and **most**:

doubtful more doubtful most doubtful
obscure more obscure most obscure

Those ending in **er**, **y** or a consonant + **le** usually add **er**, **est** or **r**, **st**:

clever cleverer cleverest

pretty prettier prettiest (note that the **y** becomes **i**)

gentle gentler gentlest

E Irregular comparisons:

<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i> ✓	<i>farthest</i> (of distance only)
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i> (used more widely; see F; G)
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>many/much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>elder</i>	<i>eldest</i> (of people only)
	<i>older</i>	<i>oldest</i> (of people and things)

F farther/farthest and further/furthest

Both forms can be used of distances:

York is farther/further than Lincoln or Selby.

York is the farthest/furthest town or

York is the farthest/furthest of the three.

(In the last sentence *farthest/furthest* are pronouns. See 24 B.)

further can also be used, mainly with abstract nouns, to mean 'additional/extra':

Further supplies will soon be available.

Further discussion/debate would be pointless.

Similarly: *further enquiries/delays/demands/information/instructions* etc.

furthest can be used similarly, with abstract nouns:

This was the furthest point they reached in their discussion.

This was the furthest concession he would make.

(For adverb use, see 32.)

G far (used for distance) and near

In the comparative and superlative both can be used quite freely:

the farthest/furthest mountain the nearest river

But in the positive form they have a limited use.

far and **near** are used chiefly with *bank, end, side, wall* etc.:

the far bank (the bank on the other side)

the near bank (the bank on this side of the river)

near can also be used with *east*, and **far** with *north, south, east* and *west*.

With other nouns **far** is usually replaced by *distant/remote* and **near** by *nearby/neighbouring*: *a remote island, the neighbouring village.*

For **far** (adverb), see 32; for **near** (adverb or preposition), see 30 C.

H elder, eldest; older, oldest

elder, eldest imply seniority rather than age. They are chiefly used for comparisons within a family: *my elder brother, her eldest boy/girl*;

but **elder** is not used with **than**, so **older** is necessary here:

He is older than I am. (**elder** would not be possible.)

In colloquial English **eldest, oldest** and **youngest** are often used of only two boys/girls/children etc.:

His eldest boy's at school; the other is still at home.

This is particularly common when **eldest, oldest** are used as pronouns:

Tom is the eldest. (of the two) (See 24 B.)

21 Constructions with comparisons (see also 341)

- A With the positive form of the adjective, we use **as . . . as** in the affirmative and **not as/not so . . . as** in the negative:

A boy of sixteen is often as tall as his father.

He was as white as a sheet.

Manslaughter is not as/so bad as murder.

Your coffee is not as/so good as the coffee my mother makes.

- B With the comparative we use **than**:

The new tower blocks are much higher than the old buildings.

He makes fewer mistakes than you (do).

He is stronger than I expected =

I didn't expect him to be so strong.

It was more expensive than I thought =

I didn't think it would be so expensive.

When **than . . .** is omitted, it is very common in colloquial English to use a superlative instead of a comparative: *This is the best way* could be said when there are only two ways.

(See comparatives, superlatives used as pronouns, 24 B.)

- C Comparison of three or more people/things is expressed by the superlative with **the . . . in/of**:

This is the oldest theatre in London.

The youngest of the family was the most successful.

A relative clause is useful especially with a perfect tense:

It/This is the best beer (that) I have ever drunk.

It/This was the worst film (that) he had ever seen.

He is the kindest man (that) I have ever met.

It was the most worrying day (that) he had ever spent.

Note that **ever** is used here, not **never**. We can, however, express the same idea with **never** and a comparative:

I have never drunk better beer. I have never met a kinder man.

He had never spent a more worrying day.

Note that **most** + adjective, without **the**, means **very**:

You are most kind means *You are very kind.*

most meaning **very** is used mainly with adjectives of two or more syllables: *annoying, apologetic, disobedient, encouraging, exciting, helpful, important, misleading* etc.

- D Parallel increase is expressed by **the + comparative . . . the + comparative**:

HOUSE AGENT: *Do you want a big house?*

ANN: *Yes, the bigger the better.*

TOM: *But the smaller it is, the less it will cost us to heat.*

- E Gradual increase or decrease is expressed by two comparatives joined by **and**:

The weather is getting colder and colder.

He became less and less interested.

- F Comparison of actions with gerunds or infinitives:
Riding a horse is not as easy as riding a motor cycle.
It is nicer/more fun to go with someone than to go alone.
 (See 341.)
- G Comparisons with **like** (preposition) and **alike**:
Tom is very like Bill. Bill and Tom are very alike.
He keeps the central heating full on. It's like living in the tropics.
- H Comparisons with **like** and **as** (both adverb and adjective expressions are shown here)
 In theory **like** (preposition) is used only with noun, pronoun or gerund:
He swims like a fish. You look like a ghost.
Be like Peter/him: go jogging.
The windows were all barred. It was like being in prison.
 and **as** (conjunction) is used when there is a finite verb:
Do as Peter does: go jogging.
Why don't you cycle to work as we do?
 But in colloquial English **like** is often used here instead of **as**:
Cycle to work like we do.
- I **like** + noun and **as** + noun:
He worked like a slave. (very hard indeed)
He worked as a slave. (He was a slave.)
She used her umbrella as a weapon. (She struck him with it.)

22 **than/as** + pronoun + auxiliary

- A When the same verb is required before and after **than/as** we can use an auxiliary for the second verb. This auxiliary is not contracted.
I earn less than he does. (less than he earns)
 The same tense need not be used in both clauses:
He knows more than I did at his age.
- B When the second clause consists only of **than/as** + **I/we/you** + verb, and there is no change of tense, it is usually possible to omit the verb:
I'm not as old as you (are). He has more time than I/we (have).
 In formal English we keep **I/we**, as the pronoun is still considered to be the subject of the verb even though the verb has been omitted. In informal English, however, **me/us** is more usual:
He has more time than me. They are richer than us.
- C When **than/as** is followed by **he/she/it** + verb, we normally keep the verb: *You are stronger than he is.*
 But we can drop the verb and use **he/she/they** in very formal English or **him/her/them** in very colloquial English.
 These rules apply also to comparisons made with adverbs:
I swim better than he does/better than him.
They work harder than we do/harder than us.
You can't type as fast as I can/as fast as me.

04
3 Adjectives

23 the + adjective with a plural meaning

- A **blind, deaf, disabled, healthy/sick, living/dead, rich/poor, unemployed** and certain other adjectives describing the human character or condition can be preceded by **the** and used to represent a class of persons. These expressions have a plural meaning; they take a plural verb and the pronoun is **they**:

The poor get poorer; the rich get richer.

the can be used in the same way with national adjectives ending in **ch** or **sh**:

the Dutch the Spanish the Welsh

and can be used similarly with national adjectives ending in **se** or **ss**:

the Burmese the Chinese the Japanese the Swiss

though it is just possible for these to have a singular meaning.

- B Note that **the** + adjective here refers to a group of people considered in a general sense only. If we wish to refer to a particular group, we must add a noun:

These seats are for the disabled.

The disabled members of our party were let in free.

The French like to eat well.

The French tourists complained about the food.

Some colours can be used in the plural to represent people but these take **s** like nouns: *the blacks, the whites.*

- C **the** + adjective can occasionally have a singular meaning:

the accused (person) the unexpected (thing)

24 Adjectives + **one/ones** and adjectives used as pronouns

- A Most adjectives can be used with the pronouns **one/ones**, when **one/ones** represents a previously mentioned noun:

Don't buy the expensive apples; get the cheaper ones.

Hard beds are healthier than soft ones.

I lost my old camera; this is a new one.

Similarly with a number + adjective:

If you haven't got a big plate, two small ones will do.

- B Adjectives used as pronouns

first/second etc. can be used with or without **one/ones**; i.e. they can be used as adjectives or pronouns:

Which train did you catch? ~ I caught the first (one).

the + superlative can be used similarly:

Tom is the best (runner). The eldest was only ten.

and sometimes **the** + comparative:

Which (of these two) is the stronger?

But this use of the comparative is considered rather literary, and in informal English a superlative is often used here instead:

Which (of these two) is the strongest?

Adjectives of colour can sometimes be used as pronouns:

I like the blue (one) best.

Colours of horses, especially **bay**, **chestnut**, **grey** are often used as pronouns and take **s** in the plural:

Everyone expected the chestnut to win.

The coach was drawn by four greys.

25 many and much (adjectives and pronouns)

A many and much

many (adjective) is used before countable nouns.

much (adjective) is used before uncountable nouns:

He didn't make many mistakes. We haven't much coffee.

They have the same comparative and superlative forms **more** and **most**:

more mistakes/coffee most men/damage

many, **much**, **more**, **most** can be used as pronouns:

He gets a lot of letters but she doesn't get many.

You have a lot of free time but I haven't much.

more and **most** can be used quite freely, and so can **many** and **much**, with negative verbs (see above examples). But **many** and **much** with affirmative or interrogative verbs have a restricted use.

B many and much with affirmative verbs

many is possible when preceded (i.e. modified) by **a good/a great**.

Both are possible when modified by **so/as/too**.

I made a good many friends there.

He has had so many jobs that . . .

She read as much as she could.

They drink too much (gin).

When not modified, **many**, as object or part of the object, is usually replaced by **a lot/lots of** (+ noun) or by **a lot** or **lots** (pronouns).

much, as object or part of the object, is usually replaced by **a great/good deal of** (+ noun) or **a great/good deal** (pronouns):

I saw a lot/lots of seabirds, I expect you saw a lot too.

He spends a lot/lots of/a great deal of money on his house.

As subject or part of the subject, either **many** or **a lot (of)** etc. can be used, but **much** here is normally replaced by one of the other forms.

much, however, is possible in formal English:

Much will depend on what the minister says.

Compare negative and affirmative sentences:

He hasn't won many races.

You've won a lot/lots of races or You've won a lot or

You've won a great many (races).

He didn't eat much fruit.

She ate a lot/lots of fruit/a great deal of fruit or

She ate a lot/a great deal.

3 Adjectives

- C many and much with interrogative verbs
Both can be used with **how**: *How many times? How much?*
In questions where **how** is not used, **many** is possible, but **a lot (of)** etc. is better when an affirmative answer is expected:
Did you take a lot of photos? I expect you did.
much without **how** is possible but the other forms are a little more usual:
Did you have a lot of snow/much snow last year?
(For **much** as an adverb, see 33.)

26 Adjectives + infinitives

- A Some of the most useful of these adjectives are given below, grouped roughly according to meaning or type. Some adjectives with several meanings may appear in more than one group. (For adjectives + prepositions, see 96.)
Starred adjectives can also be used with **that**-clauses. Sometimes **that . . . should** is more usual. (See 236.)
In sections B-E, with the exception of B2, the constructions are introduced by **it**. (For introductory **it**, see 67.) If **it + be . . .** is preceded by **find/think/believe** etc. **that** it is sometimes possible to omit **that** and the verb **be**:
*He found that it was impossible to study at home =
He found it impossible to study at home.*
- B 1 **it + be + adjective (+ of + object) + infinitive** is used chiefly with adjectives concerning:
(a) character: **brave, careless, cowardly, cruel, generous, good/nice (= kind), mean, rude, selfish, wicked, wrong** (morally) etc., and **fair*/just*/right*** with negative or interrogative verbs, or
(b) sense: **clever, foolish, idiotic*, intelligent, sensible, silly, stupid.**
absurd*, ludicrous*, ridiculous* and unreasonable* are sometimes also possible.
*It was kind of you to help him. (You helped him. This was kind.)
It was stupid (of them) to leave their bicycles outside.*
of + object can be omitted after group (b) adjectives, and sometimes after group (a) adjectives, except **good** and **nice**. (Omission of **of + object** would change the meaning of **good** and **nice**. See E.)
- 2 **Pronoun + be + adjective + noun + infinitive** is also possible with the above adjectives and with a number of others, including:
astonishing*, curious*, extraordinary*, funny* (= strange*), odd*, queer*, surprising* etc. and **pointless, useful, useless**.
*It was a sensible precaution to take.
That was a wicked thing to say.*
Comments of this type can sometimes be expressed as exclamations:
What a funny way to park a car! What an odd time to choose!

The adjective is sometimes omitted in expressions of disapproval:

What a (silly) way to bring up a child!

What a time to choose!

Example with a **that**-clause:

It is strange/odd/surprising that he hasn't answered.

- C **it + be + adjective + infinitive** is possible with **advisable***, **inadvisable***, **better***, **best**, **desirable***, **essential***, **good** (= advisable), **important***, **necessary***, **unnecessary***, **vital*** and with **only + fair*/just*/right***:

Wouldn't it be better to wait? ~ No, it's essential to book in advance.

for + object can be added except after **good** (where it would change the meaning; see E below) and after **just**:

It won't be necessary for him to report to the police.

It is only fair for him to have a chance.

inessential and **unimportant** are not normally used, but **not essential** is possible.

- D **it + be + adjective (+ for + object) + infinitive** is possible with **convenient***, **dangerous**, **difficult**, **easy**, **hard***, **possible***, **impossible**, **safe**, **unsafe**. (For **possible that**, see 27 E.)

Would it be convenient (for you) to see Mr X now?

It was dangerous (for women) to go out alone after dark.

We found it almost impossible to buy petrol. (See A above.)

The above adjectives, with the exception of **possible**, can also be used in the **noun + be + adjective + infinitive** construction:

This cake is easy to make.

The instructions were hard to follow.

This car isn't safe to drive.

- E **it + be + adjective/participle + infinitive** is also possible with adjectives and participles which show the feelings or reactions of the person concerned:

<i>agreeable</i>	<i>dreadful*</i>	<i>lovely*</i>	<i>terrible*</i>
<i>awful*</i>	<i>good*/nice*</i>	<i>marvellous*</i>	<i>wonderful*</i>
<i>delightful*</i>	(= <i>pleasant</i>)	<i>splendid*</i>	etc.
<i>disagreeable</i>	<i>horrible*</i>	<i>strange*</i>	

and with the present participles of:

<i>alarm*</i>	<i>bewilder</i>	<i>discourage*</i>	<i>excite*</i>	<i>surprise*</i>
<i>amaze*</i>	<i>bore</i>	<i>disgust*</i>	<i>frighten</i>	<i>terrify</i>
<i>amuse*</i>	<i>depress*</i>	<i>embarrass</i>	<i>horrify*</i>	<i>upset</i>
<i>annoy*</i>	<i>disappoint*</i>	<i>encourage*</i>	<i>interest*</i>	etc.
<i>astonish*</i>				

fun (= an exciting experience) and **a relief** can be used similarly.

It's awful to be alone in such a place.

It's boring to do the same thing every day.

It was depressing to find the house empty.

It would be fun/exciting/interesting to canoe down the river.

It was a relief to take off our wet boots.

3 Adjectives

for + object is quite common after lovely, interesting, marvellous, nice, wonderful and possible after the other adjectives:

It's interesting (for children) to see a house being built.

It was marvellous (for the boys) to have a garden to play in.

Note that for + object placed after good restricts the meaning of good to healthy/beneficial: *It's good for you to take regular exercise.*

(good + infinitive can have this meaning but can also mean pleasant/kind/advisable. See B, C above.)

it + be + adjective + noun + infinitive is also possible with the above adjectives/participles:

It was an exciting ceremony to watch.

It was a horrible place to live (in).

- F Somewhat similar meanings can be expressed by subject + adjective + infinitive with angry*, delighted*, dismayed*, glad*, happy*, pleased*, relieved*, sad*, sorry* and the past participles of the verbs in E above: *I'm delighted to see you.*

The most useful infinitives here are to find/learn/hear/see, but glad/happy/sad/sorry are also often followed by to say/tell/inform and sometimes by other infinitives:

He was glad to leave school.

She was dismayed to find the door locked.

- G Subject + be + adjective/participle + infinitive with: able/unable; apt, inclined, liable, prone; prepared, not prepared (= ready/willing/unwilling), reluctant; prompt, quick, slow:

We are all apt to make mistakes when we try to hurry.

I am inclined to believe him. I am prepared/ready to help him.

He was most reluctant to lend us the money.

He was slow to realize that times had changed =

He realized only slowly that times had changed.

27 Adjectives + infinitive/that-clause/preposition constructions

- A due, due to, owing to, certain, sure, bound, confident

due, used of time, can take an infinitive:

The race is due to start in ten minutes.

But it can also be used alone:

The plane was due (in) at six. It is an hour overdue.

due to (preposition) means 'a result of':

The accident was due to carelessness.

owing to means 'because of':

Owing to his carelessness we had an accident.

due to should be preceded by subject + verb, but English people are careless about this and often begin a sentence with due to instead of with owing to.

certain and sure take infinitives to express the speaker's opinion.

bound is also possible here:

Tom is certain/sure/bound to win. (The speaker is confident of this.)

But subject + **certain/sure** + **that**-clause expresses the subject's opinion:

Tom is sure that he will win. (Tom is confident of victory.)

confident that could replace **certain/sure that** above, but **confident** cannot be followed by an infinitive.

sure, certain, confident can be followed by **of** + noun/pronoun or gerund:

Unless you're early you can't be sure of getting a seat.

bound can take an infinitive, as shown above, but not a **that**-clause.

bound + infinitive can also mean 'under an obligation':

According to the contract we are bound to supply the materials.

B **afraid (of), ashamed (of), sorry (for or about)**

afraid of, ashamed of, sorry for/about + noun/pronoun or gerund:

She is afraid of heights/of falling.

He was ashamed of himself (for behaving so badly)/ashamed of behaving so badly.

I'm sorry for breaking your window. (apology)

I'm sorry about your window. (apology/regret)

I'm sorry for Peter. (pity)

afraid, ashamed, sorry can be followed by an infinitive:

She was afraid to speak. (She didn't speak.)

I'd be ashamed to take his money. (I don't/won't take it.)

I'm sorry to say that we have no news.

or by a **that**-clause:

I'm ashamed that I've nothing better to offer you.

She's afraid (that) he won't believe her. (fear)

I'm afraid (that) we have no news. (regret)

I'm sorry (that) you can't come.

(For the difference in meaning between these three constructions, see 271. For **I'm afraid not/so**, see 347.)

C **anxious (about), anxious + infinitive, anxious that**

anxious (+ about + noun/pronoun) means **worried**:

I'm anxious (about Tom). His plane is overdue.

be anxious (+ for + noun/pronoun) + infinitive = 'to desire/to wish':

I'm very anxious (for him) to see the Carnival.

anxious + that . . . + should is possible in very formal English:

The committee is anxious that this matter should be kept secret.

D **fortunate and lucky** can take either a **that**-clause or an infinitive, but there is usually a difference of meaning.

It is fortunate/lucky that usually means 'It's a good thing that':

It's lucky that Tom has a car.

It's lucky that he passed his test. (Now he can drive himself to the station/take the children to the seaside etc.)

It's lucky for us that he has a car. (He can give us a lift etc.)

3 Adjectives

Subject + be + **fortunate/lucky** + infinitive, however, emphasizes the subject's good fortune:

He's lucky to have a car. (Many people haven't got one.)

He was lucky to pass his test. (He wasn't really up to the standard.)

is/are + **fortunate/lucky** + present infinitive is used mainly with static verbs. With **was/were** or the continuous or perfect infinitive there is a wider choice:

You were fortunate to escape unharmed.

You are lucky to be going by air.

He is lucky to have sold his house before they decided to build the new airport.

It is lucky/unlucky can, however, be followed by the infinitive of any verb:

It is unlucky to break a mirror. (It brings misfortune.)

fortunate and **unfortunate** are not used here but can be used in the other constructions. They are chiefly found in more formal English.

These adjectives can also be used alone or with a noun:

I wasn't lucky.

He's fortunate.

Thirteen's my lucky number.

He's a fortunate man.

E **possible, probable** and **likely** can take a **that**-clause introduced by **it**. **likely** can also be used with subject + infinitive

(a) *It's possible that he'll come today =*

(b) *Perhaps he'll come/He may come today.*

(a) *It's probable that he'll come today =*

(b) *He'll probably come today.*

In each case the (b) form is more usual than the (a) but the **that**-clause is convenient when we want to modify the adjectives:

It's just/quite possible that . . .

It's not very probable that . . .

With **likely** both forms are equally useful:

It's quite likely that he'll come today =

He's quite likely to come today.

is/are + subject + **likely** + infinitive is very useful as it supplies an interrogative form for **may** (= **be possible**):

Is he likely to ring today?

possible, probable, likely can be used without a **that**-clause when it is quite clear what this would be:

Do you think he'll sell his house? ~ It's quite possible/probable/likely (that he'll sell it).

F **aware** and **conscious** take a **that**-clause or **of** + noun/pronoun or gerund:

It'll be dangerous. ~ I'm aware that it'll be dangerous/I'm aware of that.

I was conscious of being watched =

I felt that someone was watching me.

conscious used by itself has a physical meaning:

I had only a local anaesthetic. I was conscious the whole time.

4 Adverbs

28 Kinds of adverbs

Manner: *bravely, fast, happily, hard, quickly, well* (see 35)

Place: *by, down, here, near, there, up* (36)

Time: *now, soon, still, then, today, yet* (37)

Frequency: *always, never, occasionally, often, twice* (38)

Sentence: *certainly, definitely, luckily, surely* (40)

Degree: *fairly, hardly, rather, quite, too, very* (41)

Interrogative: *when? where? why?* (60)

Relative: *when, where, why* (75 E)

Form and use

29 The formation of adverbs with *ly*

- A Many adverbs of manner and some adverbs of degree are formed by adding *ly* to the corresponding adjectives:

final, finally immediate, immediately slow, slowly

Spelling notes

(a) A final *y* changes to *i*: *happy, happily*.

(b) A final *e* is retained before *ly*: *extreme, extremely*.

Exceptions: *true, due, whole* become *truly, duly, wholly*.

(c) Adjectives ending in a consonant + *le* drop the *e* and add *y*:

gentle, gently simple, simply

Note that the adverb of **good** is **well**.

- B Adjectives ending in *ly*

daily, weekly, monthly etc., **kindly** and sometimes **leisurely** can be adjectives or adverbs, but most other adjectives ending in *ly*, e.g. **friendly, likely, lonely** etc., cannot be used as adverbs and have no adverb form. To supply this deficiency we use a similar adverb or adverb phrase:

likely (adjective) *probably* (adverb)

friendly (adjective) *in a friendly way* (adverb phrase)

- C Some adverbs have a narrower meaning than their corresponding adjectives or differ from them.

coldly, coolly, hotly, warmly are used mainly of feelings:

We received them coldly. (in an unfriendly way)

They denied the accusation hotly. (indignantly)

She welcomed us warmly. (in a friendly way)

4 Adverbs

But **warmly dressed** = wearing warm clothes.

coolly = calmly/courageously or calmly/impudently:

He behaved very coolly in this dangerous situation.

presently = soon: *He'll be here presently.*

(See also 30 B. For **barely**, **scarcely**, see 44. For **surely**, see 40 A.)

30 Adverbs and adjectives with the same form

A	<i>back</i>	<i>hard*</i>	<i>little</i>	<i>right*</i>
	<i>deep*</i>	<i>high*</i>	<i>long</i>	<i>short*</i>
	<i>direct*</i>	<i>ill</i>	<i>low</i>	<i>still</i>
	<i>early</i>	<i>just*</i>	<i>much/more/most*</i>	<i>straight</i>
	<i>enough</i>	<i>kindly</i>	<i>near*</i>	<i>well</i>
	<i>far</i>	<i>late*</i>	<i>pretty*</i>	<i>wrong*</i>
	<i>fast</i>	<i>left</i>		

*See B below.

Used as adverbs:

Come back soon.

You can dial Rome direct.

The train went fast.

They worked hard. (energetically)

an ill-made road

Turn right here.

She went straight home.

He led us wrong.

Used as adjectives:

the back door

the most direct route

a fast train

The work is hard

You look ill/well

the right answer

a straight line

This is the wrong way.

B Starred words above also have **ly** forms. Note the meanings.

deeply is used chiefly of feelings:

He was deeply offended.

directly can be used of time or connection:

He'll be here directly. (very soon)

The new regulations will affect us directly/indirectly.

(For **hardly**, see 44.)

highly is used only in an abstract sense:

He was a highly paid official. *They spoke very highly of him.*

justly corresponds to the adjective **just** (fair, right, lawful), but **just** can also be an adverb of degree. (See 41.)

lately = **recently**: *Have you seen him lately?*

mostly = **chiefly**

nearly = **almost**: *I'm nearly ready.*

prettily corresponds to the adjective **pretty** (attractive):

Her little girls are always prettily dressed.

But **pretty** can also be an adverb of degree meaning **very**:

The exam was pretty difficult.

rightly can be used with a past participle to mean **justly** or **correctly**:

He was rightly/justly punished.

I was rightly/correctly informed.

But in each case the second adverb would be more usual.
shortly = soon, briefly or curtly.

wrongly can be used with a past participle:

You were wrongly (incorrectly) informed.

But *He acted wrongly* could mean that his action was either incorrect or morally wrong.

C **long** and **near** (adverbs) have a restricted use.

1 **long**

longer, **longest** can be used without restriction:

It took longer than I expected.

But **long** is used mainly in the negative or interrogative:

How long will it take to get there? ~ It won't take long.

In the affirmative **too/so + long** or **long + enough** is possible.

Alternatively a **long time** can be used:

It would take too long.

It would take a long time.

In conversation (for) a **long time** is often replaced by (for) **ages**:

I waited for ages.

It took us ages to get there.

2 **near**

nearer, **nearest** can be used without restriction:

Don't come any nearer.

But **near** in the positive form is usually qualified by **very/quite/so/too** or **enough**:

They live quite near. Don't come too near.

You're near enough.

The preposition **near** with noun, pronoun or adverb is more generally useful:

Don't go near the edge.

The ship sank near here.

D **far** and **much** also have a restricted use. See 32 and 33.

31 Comparative and superlative adverb forms

A With adverbs of two or more syllables we form the comparative and superlative by putting **more** and **most** before the positive form:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
<i>quickly</i>	<i>more quickly</i>	<i>most quickly</i>
<i>fortunately</i>	<i>more fortunately</i>	<i>most fortunately</i>

Single-syllable adverbs, however, and **early**, add **er**, **est**:

hard harder hardest
early earlier earliest (note the y becomes i)

4 Adverbs

B Irregular comparisons:

<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i> (of distance only)
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i> (used more widely; see 32 A)

32 far, farther/farthest and further/furthest

A further, furthest

These, like **farther/farthest**, can be used as adverbs of place/distance:

It isn't safe to go any further/farther in this fog.

But they can also be used in an abstract sense:

Mr A said that these toy pistols should not be on sale.

Mr B went further and said that no toy pistols should be sold.

Mr C went furthest of all and said that no guns of any kind should be sold.

B far: restrictions on use

far in the comparative and superlative can be used quite freely:

He travelled further than we expected.

far in the positive form is used chiefly in the negative and interrogative:

How far can you see? ~ I can't see far.

In the affirmative a **long way** is more usual than **far**, and a **long way away** is more usual than **far away**:

They sailed a long way. He lives a long way away.

But **very far away** is possible, and so is **so/quite/too + far** and **far + enough**:

They walked so far that . . . They walked too far.

We've gone far enough.

far can be used with an abstract meaning:

The new law doesn't go far enough.

You've gone too far! (You've been too insulting/overbearing/insolent etc.)

far, adverb of degree, is used with comparatives or with **too + positive forms**:

She swims far better than I do. He drinks far too much.

33 much, more, most

A more and most can be used fairly freely:

You should ride more. I use this room most.

But **much**, in the positive form, has a restricted use.

B much meaning a lot can modify negative verbs:

He doesn't ride much nowadays.

In the interrogative **much** is chiefly used with **how**. In questions without **how**, **much** is possible but **a lot** is more usual:

How much has he ridden? Has he ridden a lot/much?

In the affirmative **as/so/too** + **much** is possible. Otherwise **a lot/a good deal/a great deal** is preferable:

He shouts so much that . . . I talk too much.

But *He rides a lot/a great deal.*

- C **very much** meaning **greatly** can be used more widely in the affirmative. We can use it with *blame, praise, thank* and with a number of verbs concerned with feelings: *admire, amuse, approve, dislike, distress, enjoy, impress, like, object, shock, surprise* etc.:

Thank you very much. They admired him very much.

She objects very much to the noise they make.

much (= **greatly**), with or without **very**, can be used with the participles *admired, amused, disliked, distressed, impressed, liked, shocked, struck, upset*:

He was (very) much admired.

She was (very) much impressed by their good manners.

- D **much** meaning **a lot** can modify comparative or superlative adjectives and adverbs:

much better much the best much more quickly

much too can be used with positive forms:

He spoke much too fast.

- E **most** placed before an adjective or adverb can mean **very**. It is mainly used here with adjectives/adverbs of two or more syllables:

He was most apologetic. She behaved most generously.

(See 21 C.)

34 Constructions with comparisons (see also 341)

When the same verb is required in both clauses we normally use an auxiliary for the second verb (see 22).

- A With the positive form we use **as . . . as** with an affirmative verb, and **as/so . . . as** with a negative verb:

He worked as slowly as he dared.

He doesn't snore as/so loudly as you do.

It didn't take as/so long as I expected.

- B With the comparative form we use **than**:

He eats more quickly than I do/than me.

He played better than he had ever played.

They arrived earlier than I expected.

the + comparative . . . **the** + comparative is also possible:

The earlier you start the sooner you'll be back.

4 Adverbs

- C With the superlative it is possible to use of + noun:
He went (the) furthest of the explorers.
But this construction is not very common and such a sentence would normally be expressed by a comparative, as shown above.
A superlative (without **the**) + **of all** is quite common, but **all** here often refers to other actions by the same subject:
He likes swimming best of all. (better than he likes anything else)
of **all** can then be omitted.
- D For comparisons with **like** and **as**, see 21 H, I.

Position

35 Adverbs of manner

- A Adverbs of manner usually come after the verb:
She danced beautifully
or after the object when there is one:
He gave her the money reluctantly. They speak English well.
Do not put an adverb between verb and object.
- B When we have verb + preposition + object, the adverb can be either before the preposition or after the object:
He looked at me suspiciously or *He looked suspiciously at me.*
But if the object contains a number of words we put the adverb before the preposition:
He looked suspiciously at everyone who got off the plane.
- C Similarly with verb + object sentences the length of the object affects the position of the adverb. If the object is short, we have verb + object + adverb, as shown in B above. But if the object is long we usually put the adverb before the verb:
She carefully picked up all the bits of broken glass.
He angrily denied that he had stolen the documents.
They secretly decided to leave the town.
- D Note that if an adverb is placed after a clause or a phrase, it is normally considered to modify the verb in that clause/phrase. If, therefore, we move *secretly* to the end of the last example above, we change the meaning:
They secretly decided . . . (The decision was secret.)
They decided to leave the town secretly. (The departure was to be secret.)
- E Adverbs concerned with character and intelligence, **foolishly**, **generously**, **kindly**, **stupidly** etc., when placed before a verb, indicate that the action was foolish/kind/generous etc.:
I foolishly forgot my passport. He generously paid for us all.
He kindly waited for me. Would you kindly wait?

Note that we could also express such ideas by:

It was foolish of me to forget.

It was kind of him to wait.

Would you be kind enough to wait? (See 252.)

The adverb can come after the verb or after verb + object, but the meaning then changes:

He spoke kindly = *His voice and words were kind*

is not the same as *It was kind of him to speak to us.*

He paid us generously = *He paid more than the usual rate*

is not the same as *It was generous of him to pay us.*

Note the difference between:

He answered the questions foolishly (His answers were foolish) and

He foolishly answered the questions. (Answering was foolish./It was foolish of him to answer at all.)

F **badly** and **well** can be used as adverbs of manner or degree. As adverbs of manner they come after an active verb, after the object or before the past participle in a passive verb:

He behaved badly. *He read well.*

He paid her badly. *She speaks French well.*

She was badly paid. *The trip was well organized.*

badly as an adverb of degree usually comes after the object or before the verb or past participle:

The door needs a coat of paint badly/The door badly needs a coat of paint.

He was badly injured in the last match.

well (degree) and **well** (manner) have the same position rules:

I'd like the steak well done.

He knows the town well.

Shake the bottle well.

The children were well wrapped up.

The meaning of **well** may depend on its position. Note the difference between:

You know well that I can't drive (There can be no doubt in your mind about this) and

You know that I can't drive well. (I'm not a good driver.)

well can be placed after **may/might** and **could** to emphasize the probability of an action:

He may well refuse = *It is quite likely that he will refuse.*

(For **may/might as well**, see 288.)

G **somehow, anyhow**

somehow (= in some way or other) can be placed in the front position or after a verb without object or after the object:

Somehow they managed. *They managed somehow.*

They raised the money somehow.

anyhow as an adverb of manner is not common. But it is often used to mean 'in any case/anyway'. (See 327.)

36 Adverbs of place

away, everywhere, here, nowhere, somewhere, there etc.

- A If there is no object, these adverbs are usually placed after the verb:

She went away. He lives abroad. Bill is upstairs.

But they come after verb + object or verb + preposition + object:

She sent him away. I looked for it everywhere.

(But see chapter 38 for verb + adverb combinations such as *pick up*, *put down* etc.)

Adverb phrases, formed of preposition + noun/pronoun/adverb, follow the above position rules:

*The parrot sat on a perch. He stood in the doorway.
He lives near me.*

But see also E below.

- B **somewhere, anywhere** follow the same basic rules as **some** and **any**:

I've seen that man somewhere.

Can you see my key anywhere? ~ No, I can't see it anywhere.

Are you going anywhere? (ordinary question) but

Are you going somewhere? (I assume that you are.)

nowhere, however, is not normally used in this position except in the expression **to get nowhere** (= to achieve nothing/to make no progress):

Threatening people will get you nowhere. (You'll gain no advantage by threatening people.)

But it can be used in short answers:

Where are you going? ~ Nowhere. (I'm not going anywhere.)

It can also, in formal English, be placed at the beginning of a sentence and is then followed by an inverted verb:

Nowhere will you find better roses than these. (See 45.)

- C **here, there** can be followed by **be/come/go** + noun subject:

Here's Tom. There's Ann. Here comes the train.

There goes our bus.

here and **there** used as above carry more stress than **here/there** placed after the verb. There is also usually a difference in meaning. *Tom is here* means he is in this room/building/town etc. But *Here's Tom* implies that he has just appeared or that we have just found him. *Tom comes here* means that it is his habit to come to this place, but *Here comes Tom* implies that he is just arriving/has just arrived. If the subject is a personal pronoun, it precedes the verb in the usual way:

There he is. Here I am. Here it comes.

But **someone** and **something** follow the verb:

There's someone who can help you.

Note that the same sentence, spoken without stress on *There*, would mean that a potential helper exists. (See 117.)

D Someone phoning a friend may introduce himself/herself by name + **here**:

ANN (on phone): *Is that you, Tom? Ann here* or *This is Ann.*
She must not say *Ann is here* or *Here is Ann.*

E The adverbs **away** (= off), **down**, **in**, **off**, **out**, **over**, **round**, **up** etc. can be followed by a verb of motion + a noun subject:

Away went the runners.

Down fell a dozen apples.

Out sprang the cuckoo.

Round and round flew the plane.

But if the subject is a pronoun it is placed before the verb:

Away they went. *Round and round it flew.*

There is more drama in this order than in subject + verb + adverb but no difference in meaning.

F In written English adverb phrases introduced by prepositions (*down*, *from*, *in*, *on*, *over*, *out of*, *round*, *up* etc.) can be followed by verbs indicating position (*crouch*, *hang*, *lie*, *sit*, *stand* etc.), by verbs of motion, by *be born*, *die*, *live* and sometimes other verbs:

From the rafters hung strings of onions.

In the doorway stood a man with a gun.

On a perch beside him sat a blue parrot.

Over the wall came a shower of stones.

The first three of these examples could also be expressed by a participle and the verb *be*:

Hanging from the rafters were strings of onions.

Standing in the doorway was a man with a gun.

Sitting on a perch beside him was a blue parrot.

But a participle could not be used with the last example unless the shower of stones lasted for some time.

37 Adverbs of time

A **afterwards**, **eventually**, **lately**, **now**, **recently**, **soon**, **then**, **today**, **tomorrow** etc. and adverb phrases of time: **at once**, **since then**, **till** (6.00 etc.)

These are usually placed at the very beginning or at the very end of the clause, i.e. in front position or end position. End position is usual with imperatives and phrases with **till**:

Eventually he came/He came eventually.

Then we went home/We went home then.

Write today. I'll wait till tomorrow.

(For **lately**, **recently**, see also 185.)

With compound tenses, **eventually**, **lately**, **now**, **recently**, **since** and **soon** can come after the auxiliary:

We'll soon be there.

4 Adverbs

- B **before, early, immediately** and **late** come at the end of the clause:
He came late. I'll go immediately.

But **before** and **immediately**, used as conjunctions, are placed at the beginning of the clause:

Immediately the rain stops we'll set out.

- C **since** and **ever since** are used with perfect tenses (see 187 D).
since can come after the auxiliary or in end position after a negative or interrogative verb; **ever since** (adverb) in end position.
Phrases and clauses with **since** and **ever since** are usually in end position, though front position is possible:

He's been in bed since his accident/since he broke his leg.

- D **yet** and **still** (adverbs of time)

yet is normally placed after verb or after verb + object:

He hasn't finished (his breakfast) yet.

But if the object consists of a large number of words, **yet** can be placed before or after the verb:

He hasn't yet applied/applied yet for the job we told him about.

still is placed after the verb **be** but before other verbs:

She is still in bed.

yet means 'up to the time of speaking'. It is chiefly used with the negative or interrogative.

still emphasizes that the action continues. It is chiefly used with the affirmative or interrogative, but can be used with the negative to emphasize the continuance of a negative action:

He still doesn't understand. (The negative action of 'not understanding' continues.)

He doesn't understand yet. (The positive action of 'understanding' hasn't yet started.)

When stressed, **still** and **yet** express surprise, irritation or impatience. Both words can also be conjunctions (see 327).

- E **just**, as an adverb of time, is used with compound tenses:

I'm just coming. (See also 183.)

(For **just** as an adverb of degree, see 41.)

38 Adverbs of frequency

(a) **always, continually, frequently, occasionally, often, once, twice, periodically, repeatedly, sometimes, usually** etc.

(b) **ever, hardly ever, never, rarely, scarcely ever, seldom**

- A Adverbs in both the above groups are normally placed:

- 1 After the simple tenses of **to be**:

He is always in time for meals.

- 2 Before the simple tenses of all other verbs:

They sometimes stay up all night.

- 3 With compound tenses, they are placed after the first auxiliary, or, with interrogative verbs, after auxiliary + subject:

He can never understand.

You have often been told not to do that.

Have you ever ridden a camel?

Exceptions

- (a) **used to** and **have to** prefer the adverb in front of them:

You hardly ever have to remind him; he always remembers.

- (b) Frequency adverbs are often placed before auxiliaries when these are used alone, in additions to remarks or in answers to questions:

Can you park your car near the shops? ~ Yes, I usually can.

I know I should take exercise, but I never do.

and when, in a compound verb, the auxiliary is stressed:

I never 'can remember. She hardly ever 'has met him.

Similarly when **do** is added for emphasis:

I always 'do arrive in time!

But emphasis can also be given by stressing the frequency adverb and leaving it in its usual position after the auxiliary:

You should 'always check your oil before starting.

- B Adverbs in group (a) above can also be put at the beginning or end of a sentence or clause.

Exceptions

always is rarely found at the beginning of a sentence/clause except with imperatives.

often, if put at the end, normally requires **very** or **quite**:

Often he walked. He walked quite often.

- C Adverbs in group (b) above, **hardly ever**, **never**, **rarely** etc. (but not **ever** alone), can also be put at the beginning of a sentence, but inversion of the following main verb then becomes necessary:

Hardly/Scarcely ever did they manage to meet unobserved.

(For **hardly**, **barely**, **scarcely**, see 44.)

hardly/scarcely ever, **never**, **rarely** and **seldom** are not used with negative verbs.

- D **never**, **ever**

never is chiefly used with an affirmative verb, **never** with a negative. It normally means 'at no time':

He never saw her again. I've never eaten snails.

They never eat meat. (habit)

I've never had a better flight.

(For **never** + comparative, see 21 C.)

never + affirmative can sometimes replace an ordinary negative:

I waited but he never turned up. (He didn't turn up.)

never + interrogative can be used to express the speaker's surprise at the non-performance of an action:

Has he never been to Japan? I'm surprised, because his wife is Japanese.

4 Adverbs

ever means 'at any time' and is chiefly used in the interrogative:

Has he ever marched in a demonstration? ~ No, he never has.

ever can be used with a negative verb and, especially with compound tenses, can often replace **never** + affirmative:

I haven't ever eaten snails.

This use of **ever** is less common with simple tenses.

ever + affirmative is possible in comparisons (see 21 C) and with suppositions and expressions of doubt:

I don't suppose he ever writes to his mother.

(For **hardly/scarcely** + **ever**, see A - C above. For **ever** after **how** etc., see 61, 85.)

39 Order of adverbs and adverb phrases of manner, place and time when they occur in the same sentence

Expressions of manner usually precede expressions of place:

He climbed awkwardly out of the window.

He'd study happily anywhere.

But **away**, **back**, **down**, **forward**, **home**, **in**, **off**, **on**, **out**, **round** and **up** usually precede adverbs of manner:

He walked away sadly. She looked back anxiously.

They went home quietly. They rode on confidently.

(See also 36 E.)

here and **there** do the same except with the adverbs **hard**, **well**, **badly**: *He stood there silently* but *They work harder here.*

Time expressions can follow expressions of manner and place:

They worked hard in the garden today.

He lived there happily for a year.

But they can also be in front position:

Every day he queued patiently at the bus stop.

40 Sentence adverbs

These modify the whole sentence/clause and normally express the speaker's/narrator's opinion.

A Adverbs expressing degrees of certainty

(a) **actually** (= **in fact/really**), **apparently**, **certainly**, **clearly**, **evidently**, **obviously**, **presumably**, **probably**, **undoubtedly**

(b) **definitely**

(c) **perhaps**, **possibly**, **surely**

Adverbs in group (a) above can be placed after **be**:

He is obviously intelligent.

before simple tenses of other verbs:

They certainly work hard. He actually lives next door.

after the first auxiliary in a compound verb:

They have presumably sold their house.

at the beginning or at the end of a sentence or clause:

Apparently he knew the town well.

He knew the town well apparently.

definitely can be used in the above positions but is less usual at the beginning of a sentence.

perhaps and **possibly** are chiefly used in front position, though the end position is possible.

surely is normally placed at the beginning or end, though it can also be next to the verb. It is used chiefly in questions:

Surely you could pay £1? You could pay £1, surely?

Note that though the adjectives **sure** and **certain** mean more or less the same, the adverbs differ in meaning.

certainly = **definitely**:

He was certainly there; there is no doubt about it.

But **surely** indicates that the speaker is not quite sure that the statement which follows is true. He thinks it is, but wants reassurance.

Surely he was there? (I feel almost sure that he was.)

B Other sentence adverbs

admittedly, **(un)fortunately**, **frankly**, **honestly***, **(un)luckily**, **naturally***, **officially*** etc. are usually in the front position though the end position is possible. They are normally separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Starred adverbs can also be adverbs of manner.

Honestly, Tom didn't get the money. (Sentence adverb. *honestly* here means 'truthfully'. The speaker is assuring us that Tom didn't get the money.)

Tom didn't get the money honestly (adverb of manner) = *Tom got the money dishonestly.*

41 Adverbs of degree

absolutely, **almost**, **barely**, **completely**, **enough**, **entirely**, **even**, **extremely**, **fairly**, **far**, **hardly**, **just**, **much**, **nearly**, **only**, **pretty**, **quite**, **rather**, **really**, **scarcely**, **so**, **too**, **very** etc.

(For (a) little, see 5 D; for fairly and rather, see 42; for hardly, scarcely, barely, see 44; for quite, see 43.)

A An adverb of degree modifies an adjective or another adverb. It is placed before the adjective or adverb:

You are absolutely right. I'm almost ready.

But **enough** follows its adjective or adverb:

The box isn't big enough.

He didn't work quickly enough. (See also 252 B.)

B far requires a comparative, or too + positive:

It is far better to say nothing. He drives far too fast.

much could replace **far** here. It can also be used with a superlative:

This solution is much the best.

4 Adverbs

- C The following adverbs of degree can also modify verbs: **almost, barely, enough, hardly, just, (a) little, much, nearly, quite, rather, really and scarcely.** All except **much, a little** and **enough** are then placed before the main verb:

He almost/nearly fell. I am just going.

Tom didn't like it much but I really enjoyed it.

(For **much**, see 33. For **(a) little**, see 5 D.)

- D **only** can also modify verbs. In theory it is placed next to the word to which it applies, preceding verbs, adjectives and adverbs and preceding or following nouns and pronouns:

(a) *He had only six apples.* (not more than six)

(b) *He only lent the car.* (He didn't give it.)

(c) *He lent the car to me only.* (not to anyone else)

(d) *I believe only half of what he said.*

But in spoken English people usually put it before the verb, obtaining the required meaning by stressing the word to which the **only** applies:

He only had 'six apples is the same as (a) above.

He only lent the car to 'me is the same as (c) above.

I only believe 'half etc. is the same as (d) above.

- E **just**, like **only**, should precede the word it modifies:

I'll buy just one. I had just enough money.

It can also be placed immediately before the verb:

I'll just buy one. I just had enough money.

But sometimes this change of order would change the meaning:

Just sign here means *This is all you have to do.*

Sign just here means *Sign in this particular spot.*

fairly, rather, quite, hardly etc.

42 fairly and rather

- A Both can mean 'moderately', but **fairly** is chiefly used with 'favourable' adjectives and adverbs (*bravely, good, nice, well* etc.); while **rather** is chiefly used in this sense before 'unfavourable' adjectives and adverbs (*bad, stupidly, ugly* etc.):

Tom is fairly clever, but Peter is rather stupid.

I walk fairly fast but Ann walks rather slowly.

Both can be used similarly with participles:

He was fairly relaxed; she was rather tense.

a fairly interesting film a rather boring book

The indefinite article, if required, precedes **fairly** but can come before or after **rather**:

a fairly light box a rather heavy box/rather a heavy box

With adjectives/adverbs such as *fast, slow, thin, thick, hot, cold* etc., which are not in themselves either 'favourable' or 'unfavourable', the speaker can express approval by using **fairly** and disapproval by using

rather: *This soup is fairly hot* implies that the speaker likes hot soup, while *This soup is rather hot* implies that it is a little too hot for him.

- B** **rather** can be used before *alike, like, similar, different* etc. and before comparatives. It then means 'a little' or 'slightly':

Siamese cats are rather like dogs in some ways.

The weather was rather worse than I had expected.

rather a is possible with certain nouns: *disappointment, disadvantage, nuisance, pity, shame* and sometimes *joke*:

It's rather a nuisance (= a little inconvenient) that we can't park here.

It's rather a shame (= a little unfair) that he has to work on Sundays.

fairly cannot be used in these ways.

- C** **rather** can be used before certain 'favourable' adjectives/adverbs such as *amusing, clever, good, pretty, well* but its meaning then changes; it becomes nearly equivalent to *very*, and the idea of disapproval vanishes: *She is rather clever* is nearly the same as *She is very clever*.

rather used in this way is obviously much more complimentary than **fairly**. For example the expression *It is a fairly good play* would, if anything, discourage others from going to see it. But *It is rather a good play* is definitely a recommendation. Occasionally **rather** used in this way conveys the idea of surprise:

I suppose the house was filthy. ~ No, as a matter of fact it was rather clean.

- D** **rather** can also be used before *enjoy, like* and sometimes before *dislike, object* and some similar verbs:

I rather like the smell of petrol. He rather enjoys queueing.

rather can be used in short answers to questions with the above verbs:

Do you like him? ~ Yes I do, rather.

rather + like/enjoy is often used to express a liking which is a surprise to others or to the speaker himself. But it can also be used to strengthen the verb: *I rather like Tom* implies more interest than *I like Tom*.

(For **would rather**, see 297, 298.)

43 quite

This is a confusing word because it has two meanings.

- A** It means 'completely' when it is used with a word or phrase which can express the idea of completeness (*all right, certain, determined, empty, finished, full, ready, right, sure, wrong* etc.) and when it is used with a very strong adjective/adverb such as *amazing, extraordinary, horrible, perfect*:

The bottle was quite empty. You're quite wrong.

It's quite extraordinary; I can't understand it at all.

4 Adverbs

- B When used with other adjectives/adverbs, **quite** has a slightly weakening effect, so that **quite good** is normally less complimentary than **good**. **quite** used in this way has approximately the same meaning as **fairly** but its strength can vary very much according to the way it is stressed:

quite ¹/*good* (weak *quite*, strong *good*) is very little less than 'good'.

¹/*quite* ¹/*good* (equal stress) means 'moderately good'.

¹/*quite* *good* (strong *quite*, weak *good*) is much less than 'good'.

The less **quite** is stressed the stronger the following adjective/adverb becomes. The more **quite** is stressed the weaker its adjective/adverb becomes.

Note the position of **a/an**: *quite a long walk, quite an old castle.*

quite can also modify *enjoy, like, agree* and *understand (the reason)*:

It was a difficult journey but we quite enjoyed it.

I can't tell you without Tom's consent. ~ I quite understand.

44 hardly, scarcely, barely

hardly, scarcely and **barely** are almost negative in meaning.

hardly is chiefly used with **any, ever, at all** or the verb **can**:

He has hardly any money. (very little money)

I hardly ever go out. (I very seldom go out.)

It hardly rained at all last summer.

Her case is so heavy that she can hardly lift it.

But it can also be used with other verbs:

I hardly know him. (I know him only very slightly.)

Be careful not to confuse the adverbs **hard** and **hardly**:

He looked hard at it. (He stared at it.)

He hardly looked at it. (He gave it only a brief glance.)

scarcely can mean 'almost not' and could replace **hardly** as used above: *scarcely any/scarcely ever* etc.

But **scarcely** is chiefly used to mean 'not quite':

There were scarcely twenty people there. (probably fewer)

(For **hardly/scarcely** with inversion, see 45 and 342 E.)

barely means 'not more than/only just':

There were barely twenty people there. (only just twenty)

I can barely see it. (I can only just see it.)

Inversion of the verb

45 Inversion of the verb after certain adverbs

Certain adverbs and adverb phrases, mostly with a restrictive or negative sense, can for emphasis be placed first in a sentence or clause and are then followed by the inverted (i.e. interrogative) form of the

verb. The most important of these are shown below. The numbers indicate paragraphs where an example will be found.

<i>hardly ever</i> (see 38 A, C)	<i>on no account</i>
<i>hardly . . . when</i> (342 E)	<i>only by</i>
<i>in no circumstances</i>	<i>only in this way</i>
<i>neither/nor</i> (112 D)	<i>only then/when</i>
<i>never</i>	<i>rarely</i>
<i>no sooner . . . than</i> (342 E)	<i>scarcely ever</i>
<i>not only</i>	<i>scarcely . . . when</i>
<i>not till</i>	<i>seldom</i>
<i>nowhere</i> (36 B)	<i>so</i> (112 A)

I haven't got a ticket. ~ Neither/Nor have I.
I had never before been asked to accept a bribe.
Never before had I been asked to accept a bribe.
They not only rob you, they smash everything too.
Not only do they rob you, they smash everything too.
He didn't realize that he had lost it till he got home.
Not till he got home did he realize that he had lost it.
This switch must not be touched on any account.
On no account must this switch be touched.
He was able to make himself heard only by shouting.
Only by shouting was he able to make himself heard.
This remedy rarely failed.
Rarely did this remedy fail.
He became so suspicious that . . .
So suspicious did he become that . . .

Note also that a second negative verb in a sentence can sometimes be expressed by **nor** with inversion:

He had no money and didn't know anyone he could borrow from.

He had no money, nor did he know anyone he could borrow from.

(**neither** would be less usual here.)

(For adverbs and adverb phrases followed by inversion of verb and noun subject, e.g. *Up went the rocket*; *By the door stood an armed guard*, see 36 C, E, F.)

7 Possessives, personal and reflexive pronouns: my, mine, I, myself etc.

62 Possessive adjectives and pronouns

Possessive adjectives	Possessive pronouns
<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>
<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
<i>his/her/its</i>	<i>his/hers</i>
<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>
<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>

Note that no apostrophes are used here. Students should guard against the common mistake of writing the possessive *its* with an apostrophe. *it's* (with an apostrophe) means *it is*.

The old form of the second person singular can be found in some bibles and pre-twentieth century poetry:

thy thine

one's is the possessive adjective of the pronoun *one*.

63 Agreement and use of possessive adjectives

A Possessive adjectives in English refer to the possessor and not to the thing possessed. Everything that a man or boy possesses is **his** thing; everything that a woman or girl possesses is **her** thing:

Tom's father is his father but

Mary's father is her father.

Everything that an animal or thing possesses is **its** thing:

A tree drops its leaves in autumn.

A happy dog wags its tail.

But if the sex of the animal is known, **his/her** would often be used.

If there is more than one possessor, **their** is used:

The girls are with their brother.

Trees drop their leaves in autumn.

Note that the possessive adjective remains the same whether the thing possessed is singular or plural:

my glove, my gloves his foot, his feet

7 Possessives, personal and reflexive pronouns

B Possessive adjectives are used with clothes and parts of the body:
She changed her shoes. He injured his back.
 (But see also 7 A6.)

C To add emphasis, **own** can be placed after **my, your, his** etc. and after **one's**:

my own room her own idea

own can be an adjective, as above, or a pronoun:

a room of one's own

Note the expression:

I'm on my own = I'm alone.

64 Possessive pronouns replacing possessive adjectives + nouns

A *This is our room or This (room) is ours.
 This is their car. That car is theirs too.
 You've got my pen.
 You're using mine. Where's yours?*

B The expression of **mine** etc. means 'one of my' etc.:

a friend of mine = one of my friends

a sister of hers = one of her sisters

65 Personal pronouns

A Form

	Subject	Object	
Singular:	first person	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>
	second person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
	third person	<i>he/she/it</i>	<i>him/her/it</i>
Plural:	first person	<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>
	second person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
	third person	<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>

The old form of the second person singular is:

thou (subject) *thee* (object)

B Use of subject and object forms

1 **you** and **it** present no difficulty as they have the same form for subject and object:

Did you see the snake? ~ Yes, I saw it and it saw me. ~ Did it frighten you?

2 First and third person forms (other than **it**)

(a) **I, he, she, we, they** can be subjects of a verb:

I see it. He knows you. They live here.

or complements of the verb **to be**: *It is I.*

66

A

B

67

A

E

C

Normally, however, we use the object forms here:

Who is it? ~ It's me.

Where's Tom? ~ That's him over there.

But if the pronoun is followed by a clause, we use the subject forms:

Blame Bill! It was he who chose this colour.

(b) **me, him, her, us, them** can be direct objects of a verb:

I saw her. Tom likes them.

or indirect objects:

Bill found me a job. Ann gave him a book. (See 66.)

or objects of a preposition:

with him for her without them to us

66 The position of pronoun objects

A An indirect object comes before a direct object:

I made Ann/her a cake. I sent Bill the photos.

However, if the direct object is a personal pronoun it is more usual to place it directly after the verb and use **to** or **for**:

I made it for her. I sent them to him. (See 88.)

The position rule does not apply to **one, some, any, none** etc.:

He bought one for Ann or He bought Ann one.

He gave something to Jack or He gave Jack something.

B Pronoun objects of phrasal verbs

With many phrasal verbs a noun object can be either in the middle or at the end:

Hand your papers in/Hand in your papers.

Hang your coat up/Hang up your coat.

Take your shoes off/Take off your shoes.

A pronoun object, however, must be placed in the middle:

hand them in hang it up take them off

(See chapter 38.)

67 Uses of it

A **it** is normally used of a thing or an animal whose sex we don't know, and sometimes of a baby or small child:

Where's my map? I left it on the table.

Look at that bird. It always comes to my window.

Her new baby is tiny. It only weighs 2 kilos.

B **it** can be used of people in sentences such as:

ANN (on phone): *Who is that/Who is it?*

BILL: *It's me.*

Is that Tom over there? ~ No, it's Peter.

C **it** is used in expressions of time, distance, weather, temperature, tide:

What time is it? ~ It is six.

What's the date? ~ It's the third of March.

7 Possessives, personal and reflexive pronouns

How far is it to York? ~ It is 400 kilometres.

How long does it take to get there? ~ It depends on how you go.

It is raining/snowing/freezing. It's frosty. It's a fine night.

It's full moon tonight. In winter it's/it is dark at six o'clock.

It is hot/cold/quiet/noisy in this room.

It's high tide/low tide.

Note also:

It's/It is three years since I saw him =

I haven't seen him for three years. (See 188.)

(For *it is* time + subject + past tense, see also 293.)

D Introductory *it*

- 1 *it* can introduce sentences of the following type ('cleft sentences'):

It was 'Peter who lent us the money. (not Paul)

It's 'today that he's going. (not tomorrow)

it is used even with a plural noun:

It's 'pilots that we need, not ground staff.

(See also 76.)

- 2 When an infinitive is subject of a sentence, we usually begin the sentence with *it* and put the infinitive later; i.e. we say:

It is easy to criticize instead of

To criticize is easy.

It is better to be early instead of

To be early is better.

It seems a pity to give up now instead of

To give up now seems a pity.

If *it + be* is preceded by **find/think (that)**, the **be** and the **that** can often be omitted:

He thought (that) it (would be) better to say nothing.

We found it impossible to get visas.

- 3 *it* can be used similarly when the subject of a sentence is a clause. It would be possible to say:

That he hasn't phoned is odd.

That prices will go up is certain.

But it would be much more usual to say:

It's odd that he hasn't phoned.

It's certain that prices will go up.

Other examples:

It never occurred to me that perhaps he was lying.

It struck me that everyone was unusually silent.

- E *it/this* can represent a previously mentioned phrase, clause or verb:
He smokes in bed, though I don't like it. (it = his smoking in bed)
He suggested flying, but I thought it would cost too much.
(it = flying)

- F *it* also acts as a subject for impersonal verbs:

it seems it appears it looks it happens

68 you, one and they as indefinite pronouns

A you and one

As subjects, either can be used:

Can you/one camp in the forest?

As objects, you is the normal pronoun:

They fine you for parking offences.

you is more common in ordinary conversation. It is a more 'friendly' pronoun and implies that the speaker can imagine himself in such a position.

one is more impersonal and less often used, though the possessive one's is quite common:

It's easy to lose one's/your way in Venice.

The correct possessive form must be used:

One has to show one's pass at the door.

You have to show your pass at the door.

If instead of one or you we use a singular noun, the possessive adjective will obviously be his or her:

One must do one's best.

A traveller has to guard his possessions.

B they

they is used as subject only. they can mean 'people':

they say = people say, it is said

They say it is going to be a cold winter.

they can also mean 'the authority concerned', i.e. the government/the local council/one's employers/the police etc.:

They want to make this a one-way street.

69 Use of they/them/their with neither/either, someone/everyone/no one etc.

These expressions are singular and take a singular verb. Their personal pronouns therefore should be he/she and the possessive adjectives should be his/her (he/his for males and mixed sexes; she/her for females). But many native speakers find this troublesome and often use they/their, even when only one sex is involved:

Neither of them remembered their instructions.

Would someone lend me their binoculars?

Everyone has read the notice, haven't they?

No one objected, did they? (See also 51 C.)

- A These are: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves. Note the difference between the second person singular yourself, and the second person plural yourselves. The indefinite reflexive/emphasizing pronoun is oneself.

7 Possessives, personal and reflexive pronouns

- B **myself, yourself** etc. are used as objects of a verb when the action of the verb returns to the doer, i.e. when subject and object are the same person:

I cut myself. He can't shave himself.
It is not always easy to amuse oneself on holiday.
Tom and Ann blamed themselves for the accident.
This refrigerator defrosts itself.

Note the change of meaning if we replace the reflexive pronoun by the reciprocal pronoun **each other**:

Tom and Ann blamed each other. (Tom blamed Ann and Ann blamed Tom. See 53 C.)

- C **myself, yourself** etc. are used similarly after a verb + preposition:

He spoke to himself. Did she pay for herself?
Look after yourself. Take care of yourselves.
I'm annoyed with myself. He sat by himself. (alone)
She addressed the envelope to herself.

But if the preposition indicates locality, we use the ordinary, not the reflexive, pronouns:

Did you take your dog with you?
They put the child between them.
Had he/Did he have any money on him?

71 **myself, himself, herself** etc. used as emphasizing pronouns

myself etc. can also be used to emphasize a noun or pronoun:

The King himself gave her the medal.

self is then stressed in speech.

When used in this way the pronoun is never essential and can be omitted without changing the sense. It usually emphasizes the subject of the sentence and is placed after it:

Ann herself opened the door. Tom himself went.

Alternatively it can be placed after the object if there is one:

Ann opened the door herself

or after an intransitive verb:

Tom went himself.

If the intransitive verb is followed by a preposition + noun, the emphasizing pronoun can be placed after this noun:

Tom went to London himself or Tom himself went to London.

When it emphasizes another noun it is placed immediately after it:

I saw Tom himself. I spoke to the President himself.
She liked the diamond itself but not the setting.

Note the difference between:

I did it myself (It was done by me and not by someone else) and
I did it by myself (I did it without help).

9 Prepositions

86 Introduction

Prepositions are words normally placed before nouns or pronouns (but see 87 about possible alternative positions). Prepositions can also be followed by verbs but, except after *but* and *except*, the verb must be in the gerund form:

He is talking of emigrating.

They succeeded in escaping.

The student has two main problems with prepositions. He has to know (a) whether in any construction a preposition is required or not, and (b) which preposition to use when one is required.

The first problem can be especially troublesome to a European student, who may find that a certain construction in his own language requires a preposition, whereas a similar one in English does not, and vice versa: e.g. in most European languages purpose is expressed by a preposition + infinitive; in English it is expressed by the infinitive only:

I came here to study.

The student should note also that many words used mainly as prepositions can also be used as conjunctions and adverbs. Where this is the case it will be pointed out in the following paragraphs.

87 Alternative position of prepositions

A Prepositions normally precede nouns or pronouns. In two constructions, however, it is possible in informal English to move the preposition to the end of the sentence:

1 In questions beginning with a preposition + *whom/which/what/whose/where*:

To whom were you talking? (formal)

Who were you talking to? (informal)

In which drawer does he keep it? (formal)

Which drawer does he keep it in? (informal)

It used to be thought ungrammatical to end a sentence with a preposition, but it is now accepted as a colloquial form.

2 Similarly in relative clauses, a preposition placed before *whom/which* can be moved to the end of the clause. The relative pronoun is then often omitted:

the people with whom I was travelling (formal)

the people I was travelling with (informal)

the company from which I hire my TV set (formal)

the company I hire my TV set from (informal)

- B But in phrasal verbs the preposition/adverb remains after its verb, so the formal type of construction is not possible. *the children I was looking after* could not be rewritten with **after + whom** and *Which bridge did they blow up?* could not be rewritten with **up + which**.

88 Omission of **to** and **for** before indirect objects

- A 1 A sentence such as *I gave the book to Tom* could also be expressed *I gave Tom the book*, i.e. the indirect object can be placed first and the preposition **to** omitted.

We can use this construction with the following verbs: *bring, give, hand, leave* (in a will), *lend, offer, pass* (= hand), *pay, play* (an instrument/piece of music), *promise, sell, send, show, sing, take, tell* (= narrate, inform):

I showed the map to Bill = I showed Bill the map.

They sent £5 to Mr Smith = They sent Mr Smith £5.

- 2 Similarly *I'll find a job for Ann* could be expressed *I'll find Ann a job* (putting the indirect object first and omitting **for**). This construction is possible after *book, build, buy, cook, (bake, boil, fry etc.), fetch, find, get, keep, knit, leave, make, order, reserve*:

I'll get a drink for you = I'll get you a drink.

I bought a book for James = I bought James a book.

- B Normally either construction can be used. But:

- 1 The construction without preposition is preferred when the direct object is a phrase or a clause:

Tell her the whole story.

Show me what you've got in your hand.

- 2 The construction with preposition is preferred:

- (a) When the indirect object is a phrase or a clause:

We kept seats for everyone on our list/for everyone who had paid.

I had to show my pass to the man at the door.

- (b) When the direct object is **it** or **them**. Sentences such as *They kept it for Mary, She made them for Bill, We sent it to George* cannot be expressed by a verb + noun + pronoun construction.

If the indirect object is also a pronoun (*I sent it to him*) it is sometimes possible to reverse the pronouns and omit **to** (*I sent him it*), but this cannot be done with **for** constructions and is better avoided.

This restriction does not apply to other pronoun objects:

He gave Bill some. He didn't give me any.

He bought Mary one. I'll show you something.

- C *promise, show, tell* can be used with indirect objects only, without **to**:

promise us show him tell him

read, write can be used similarly, but require **to**:

read to me write to them

play, sing can be used with *to* or *for*:
play to us play for us sing to us sing for us

89 Use and omission of *to* with verbs of communication

A Verbs of command, request, invitation and advice, e.g. *advise, ask, beg, command, encourage, implore, invite, order, recommend, remind, request, tell, urge, warn*, can be followed directly by the person addressed (without *to*) + infinitive:

They advised him to wait.

I urged her to try again. (See 244.)

The person addressed (without *to*) can be used after *advise, remind, tell, warn* with other constructions also:

He reminded them that there were no trains after midnight.

They warned him that the ice was thin/warned him about the ice.

But note that *recommend* (= *advise*) when used with other constructions needs *to* before the person addressed:

He recommended me to buy it but *He recommended it to me.*

He recommended me (for the post) would mean 'He said I was suitable'.

When *ask* is used with other constructions the person addressed is often optional. The preposition *to* is never used here:

He asked (me) a question.

He asked (me) if I wanted to apply.

She asked (her employer) for a day off.

B *call* (= shout), *complain, describe, explain, grumble, murmur, mutter, say, shout, speak, suggest, talk, whisper* need *to* before the person addressed, though it is not essential to mention this person:

Peter complained (to her) about the food.

She said nothing (to her parents).

He spoke English (to them).

shout at can be used when the subject is angry with the other person:

He shouted at me to get out of his way.

Compare with *He shouted to me* which means he raised his voice because I was at a distance.

90 Time and date: *at, on, by, before, in*

A *at, on*

at a time:

at dawn at six at midnight at 4.30

at an age:

at sixteen/at the age of sixteen

She got married at seventeen.

on a day/date:

on Monday on 4 June on Christmas Day

9 Prepositions

Exceptions

at night

at Christmas, at Easter (the period, not the day only)

on the morning/afternoon/evening/night of a certain date:

We arrived on the morning of the sixth.

It is also, of course, possible to say:

this/next Monday etc., *any Monday, one Monday*

B by, before

by a time/date/period = at that time or before/not later than that date.
It often implies 'before that time/date':

The train starts at 6.10, so you had better be at the station by 6.00.

by + a time expression is often used with a perfect tense, particularly the future perfect (see 216):

By the end of July I'll have read all those books.

before can be preposition, conjunction or adverb:

Before signing this . . . (preposition)

Before you sign this . . . (conjunction)

I've seen him somewhere before. (adverb)

(See 195 B, 342.)

C on time, in time, in good time

on time = at the time arranged, not before, not after:

The 8.15 train started on time. (It started at 8.15.)

in time/in time for + noun = not late; in good time (for) = with a comfortable margin:

Passengers should be in time for their train.

I arrived at the concert hall in good time (for the concert). (Perhaps the concert began at 7.30 and I arrived at 7.15.)

D on arrival, on arriving, on reaching, on getting to

on arrival/on arriving, he . . . = when he arrives/arrived, he . . .

on can also be used similarly with the gerund of certain other verbs (chiefly verbs of information):

On checking, she found that some of the party didn't know the way.

On hearing/Hearing that the plane had been diverted, they left the airport.

The *on* in the last sentence could be omitted. (See 277.)

E at the beginning/end, in the beginning/end, at first/at last

at the beginning (of)/at the end (of) = literally at the beginning/end:

At the beginning of a book there is often a table of contents.

At the end there may be an index.

in the beginning/at first = in the early stages. It implies that later on there was a change:

In the beginning/At first we used hand tools. Later we had machines.

in the end/at last = eventually/after some time:

At first he opposed the marriage, but in the end he gave his consent.

01

A

1

2

31 Time: from, since, for, during

A from, since and for

1 from is normally used with to or till/until:

Most people work from nine to five.

from can also be used of place:

Where do you come from?

2 since is used for time, never for place, and means 'from that time to the time referred to'. It is often used with a present perfect or past perfect tense (see 185-8, 194).

He has been here since Monday. (from Monday till now)

He wondered where Ann was. He had not seen her since their quarrel.

since can also be an adverb (see 37, 185-8):

He left school in 1983. I haven't seen him since.

since can also be a conjunction of time:

He has worked for us ever since he left school.

It is two years since I last saw Tom =

I last saw Tom two years ago/I haven't seen Tom for two years.

(For since with other types of clause, see 338.)

3 for is used of a period of time: for six years, for two months, for ever:

Bake it for two hours.

He travelled in the desert for six months.

for + a period of time can be used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense for an action which extends up to the time of speaking:

He has worked here for a year. (He began working here a year ago and still works here.)

for used in this way is replaceable by since with the point in time when the action began:

He has worked here since this time last year.

B during and for

during is used with known periods of time, i.e. periods known by name, such as Christmas, Easter or periods which have been already defined:

during the Middle Ages during 1941

during the summer (of that year)

during his childhood

during my holidays

The action can either last the whole period or occur at some time within the period:

It rained all Monday but stopped raining during the night. (at some point of time)

He was ill for a week, and during that week he ate nothing.

for (indicating purpose) may be used before known periods:

I went there/I hired a car/I rented a house for my holidays/for the summer.

9 Prepositions

for has various other uses:

He asked for £5. I paid £1 for it.

I bought one for Tom. (See 88.)

for can also be a conjunction and introduce a clause (see 330).

92 Time: **to**, **till/until**, **after**, **afterwards** (adverb)

A **to** and **till/until**

to can be used of time and place; **till/until** of time only.

We can use **from . . . to** or **from . . . till/until**:

They worked from five to ten/from five till ten. (at five to ten would mean 'at 9.55'.)

But if we have no **from** we use **till/until**, not **to**:

Let's start now and work till dark. (to would not be possible here.)

till/until is often used with a negative verb to emphasize lateness:

We didn't get home till 2 a.m.

He usually pays me on Friday but last week he didn't pay me till the following Monday.

till/until is very often used as a conjunction of time:

We'll stay here till it stops raining.

Go on till you come to the level crossing.

But note that if 'you come to' is omitted, the **till** must be replaced by **to**:

Go on to the level crossing.

B **after** and **afterwards** (adverb)

after (preposition) must be followed by a noun, pronoun or gerund:

Don't bathe immediately after a meal/after eating.

Don't have a meal and bathe immediately after it.

If we do not wish to use a noun/pronoun or gerund, we cannot use **after**, but must use **afterwards** (= **after that**) or **then**:

Don't have a meal and bathe immediately afterwards.

They bathed and afterwards played games/played games afterwards or

They bathed and then played games.

afterwards can be used at either end of the clause and can be modified by **soon**, **immediately**, **not long** etc.:

Soon afterwards we got a letter.

We got a letter not long afterwards.

after can also be used as a conjunction:

After he had tuned the piano it sounded quite different.

93 Travel and movement: **from**, **to**, **at**, **in**, **by**, **on**, **into**, **onto**, **off**, **out**, **out of**

A We travel **from** our starting place **to** our destination:

They flew/drove/cycled/walked from Paris to Rome.

When are you coming back to England?

We also send/post letters etc. to people and places. (But see note on **home** below.)

- B arrive at/in, get to, reach** (without preposition)
We **arrive in** a town or country, **at** or **in** a village, at any other destination:

They arrived in Spain/in Madrid.

I arrived at the hotel/at the airport/at the bridge/at the crossroads.

get to can be used with any destination, and so can **reach**:

He got to the station just in time for his train.

I want to get to Berlin before dark.

They reached the top of the mountain before sunrise.

get in (**in** = adverb) can mean 'arrive at a destination'. It is chiefly used of trains:

What time does the train get in? (reach the terminus/our station)

Note also **get there/back** (**there, back** are adverbs).

- C home**

We can use a verb of motion etc. + **home** without a preposition:

It took us an hour to get home.

They went home by bus.

But if **home** is immediately preceded by a word or phrase a preposition is necessary:

She returned to her parents' home.

We can **be/live/stay/work** etc. **at home**, **at** + . . . + **home** or **in** + . . . + **home**. But **in** cannot be followed directly by **home**:

You can do this sort of work at home or at/in your own home.

- D Transport: by, on, get in/into/on/onto/off/out of**

We can travel **by** car (but **in** the/my/Tom's car), **by** bus/train/plane/helicopter/hovercraft etc. and **by** sea/air. We can also travel **by** a certain route, or **by** a certain place (though **via** is more usual):

We went by the M4. We went via Reading.

We can walk or go **on** foot. We can cycle or go **on** a bicycle or **by** bicycle. We can ride or go **on** horseback.

We get **into** a public or private vehicle, or get **in** (adverb).

We get **on/onto** a public vehicle, or get **on** (adverb).

But we go **on board** a boat (= embark).

We get **on/onto** a horse/camel/bicycle.

We get **out of** a public or private vehicle, or get **out** (adverb).

We get **off** a public vehicle, a horse, bicycle, etc., or get **off** (adverb).

- E get in/into/out/out of** can also be used of buildings, institutions and countries instead of **go/come/return** etc. when there is some difficulty in entering or leaving. **in** and **out** here are used as adverbs.

*I've lost my keys! How are we going to get into the flat/
to get in? (adverb)*

The house is on fire! We had better get out! (adverb)

It's difficult to get into a university nowadays.

9 Prepositions

- F Giving directions: **at, into, to** etc. (prepositions), **along, on** (prepositions and adverbs) and **till** (conjunction):

Go along the Strand till you see the Savoy on your right.

The bus stop is just round the corner.

Turn right/left at the Post Office/at the second traffic lights.

Go on (adverb) past the post office.

Turn right/left into Fleet Street.

Take the first/second etc. turning on/to the right or on/to your right.

Go on (adverb) to the end of the road. (till could not be used here.)

You will find the bank on your left halfway down the street.

When you come out of the station you will find the bank opposite you/in front of you.

Get out (of the bus) at the tube station and walk on (adverb) till you come to a pub.

Get off (the bus) and walk back (adverb) till you come to some traffic lights.

Be careful not to confuse **to** and **till** (see 92 A).

94 at, in; in, into; on, onto

A at and in

(For arrive at/in, see 93 B.)

at

We can be **at** home, **at** work, **at** the office, **at** school, **at** university, **at** an address, **at** a certain point e.g. **at** the bridge, **at** the crossroads, **at** the bus-stop.

in

We can be **in** a country, a town, a village, a square, a street, a room, a forest, a wood, a field, a desert or any place which has boundaries or is enclosed.

But a small area such as a square, a street, a room, a field might be used with **at** when we mean 'at this point' rather than 'inside'.

We can be **in** or **at** a building. **in** means inside only; **at** could mean inside or in the grounds or just outside. If someone is 'at the station' he could be in the street outside, or in the ticket office/waiting room/restaurant or on the platform.

We can be **in** or **at** the sea, a river, lake, swimming pool etc.

in here means actually in the water:

The children are swimming in the river.

at the sea/river/lake etc. means 'near/beside the sea'. But **at sea** means 'on a ship'.

B in and into

in as shown above normally indicates position.

into indicates movement, entrance:

They climbed into the lorry. I poured the beer into a tankard.

Thieves broke into my house/My house was broken into.

With the verb **put**, however, either **in** or **into** can be used:

He put his hands in/into his pockets.

in can also be an adverb:

Come in = Enter. Get in (into the car).

C on and onto

on can be used for both position and movement:

He was sitting on his case. Snow fell on the hills.

His name is on the door. He went on board ship.

onto can be used (chiefly of people and animals) when there is movement involving a change of level:

People climbed onto their roofs. We lifted him onto the table.

The cat jumped onto the mantelpiece.

on can also be an adverb:

Go on. Come on.

95 above, over, under, below, beneath etc.

A above and over

above (preposition and adverb) and **over** (preposition) can both mean 'higher than' and sometimes either can be used:

The helicopter hovered above/over us.

Flags waved above/over our heads.

But **over** can also mean 'covering', 'on the other side of', 'across' and 'from one side to the other':

We put a rug over him.

He lives over the mountains.

There is a bridge over the river.

all over + noun/pronoun can mean 'in every part of':

He has friends all over the world.

above can have none of these meanings.

over can mean 'more than' or 'higher than'.

above can mean 'higher than' only.

Both can mean 'higher in rank'. But *He is over me* would normally mean 'He is my immediate superior', 'He supervises my work'. **above** would not necessarily have this meaning.

If we have a bridge over a river, *above the bridge* means 'upstream'.

over can be used with meals/food/drink:

They had a chat over a cup of tea. (while drinking tea)

In the combination **take** + a time expression + **over** + noun/pronoun, **over** can mean 'to do/finish' etc.:

He doesn't take long over lunch/to eat his lunch.

He took ages over the job. (He took ages to finish it.)

above can also be an adjective or adverb meaning 'earlier' (in a book, article etc.):

the above address (the previously mentioned address)

see B above (the previously mentioned section B)

9 Prepositions

B below and under

below (preposition and adverb) and **under** (preposition) can both mean 'lower than' and sometimes either can be used. But **under** can indicate contact:

She put the letter under her pillow.

The ice crackled under his feet.

With **below** there is usually a space between the two surfaces:

They live below us. (We live on the fourth floor and they live on the third.)

Similarly: *We live above them.* (See A above.)

below and **under** can mean 'junior in rank'. But *He is under me* implies that I am his immediate superior. **below** does not necessarily have this meaning.

(Both **over** and **under** can be used as adverbs, but with a change of meaning.)

C beneath can sometimes be used instead of under, but it is safer to keep it for abstract meanings:

He would think it beneath him to tell a lie. (unworthy of him)

She married beneath her. (into a lower social class)

D beside, between, behind, in front of, opposite

Imagine a theatre with rows of seats: A, B, C etc., Row A being nearest the stage.

	Stage		
Row A	Tom	Ann	Bill
Row B	Mary	Bob	Jane

This means that:

Tom is beside Ann; Mary is beside Bob etc.

Ann is between Tom and Bill; Bob is between Mary and Jane.

Mary is behind Tom; Tom is in front of Mary.

But if Tom and Mary are having a meal and Tom is sitting at one side of the table and Mary at the other, we do not use **in front of**, but say:

Tom is sitting opposite Mary or *Tom is facing Mary.*

But *He stood in front of me* could mean either 'He stood with his back to me' or 'He faced me'.

People living on one side of a street will talk of the houses on the other side as *the houses opposite (us)* rather than *the houses in front of us.*

With other things, however, these restrictions do not apply:

She put the plate on the table in front of him.

She sat with a book in front of her.

Where's the bank? ~ There it is, just in front of you!

There's a car-park in front of/at the back of the hotel.

E Don't confuse beside with besides.

beside = at the side of:

We camped beside a lake.

besides (preposition) = in addition to/as well as:

I do all the cooking and besides that I help Tom.

Besides doing the cooking I help Tom.

besides (adverb) means (a) 'in addition to that/as well as that':

I do the cooking and help Tom besides

and (b) 'in any case/anyway':

We can't afford oysters. Besides, Tom doesn't like them.

(See 327.)

F **between** and **among**

between normally relates a person/thing to two other people/things, but it can be used of more when we have a definite number in mind:

Luxembourg lies between Belgium, Germany and France.

among relates a person/thing to more than two others; normally we have no definite number in mind:

He was happy to be among friends again.

a village among the hills

G **with** could also be used instead of **among** in the last sentence above.

Also, of course, with a singular object:

He was with a friend.

Examples of other uses:

He cut it with a knife.

Don't touch it with bare hands.

The mountains were covered with snow.

I have no money with me/on me.

He fought/quarrelled with everyone.

In descriptions:

the girl with red hair

the boy with his hands in his pockets

the man with his back to the camera/with his feet on his desk

H **but** and **except** (prepositions)

These have the same meaning and are interchangeable.

but is more usual when the preposition + object is placed immediately after *nobody/none/nothing/nowhere* etc:

Nobody but Tom knew the way.

Nothing but the best is sold in our shops.

except is more usual when the preposition phrase comes later in the sentence:

Nobody knew the way except Tom

and after *all/everybody/everyone/everything/everywhere* etc.

but is more emphatic than **except** after *anybody/anything/anywhere* etc.:

You can park anywhere but/except here. (You can't park here.)

but and **except** take the bare infinitive (see 98).

(For **but for** in conditional sentences, see 226. For **but** as a conjunction, see 326.)

96 Prepositions used with adjectives and participles

Certain adjectives and past participles used as adjectives can be followed by a preposition + noun/gerund. (For verbs + prepositions, see 97.)

Usually particular adjectives and participles require particular prepositions. Some of these are given below; others can be found by consulting a good dictionary, which after any adjective will give the prepositions that can be used with it.

about, at, for, in, of, on, to, with used with certain adjectives and participles:

<i>absorbed in</i>	<i>involved in</i>
<i>according to</i>	<i>keen on</i>
<i>accustomed to</i> (see 163)	<i>liable for/to</i>
<i>afraid of</i> (27 B, 271)	<i>nervous of</i>
<i>anxious for/about</i> (27 C)	<i>owing to</i> (27 A)
<i>ashamed of</i>	<i>pleased with</i>
<i>aware of</i> (27 F)	<i>prepared for</i>
<i>bad at/for</i>	<i>proud of</i>
<i>capable of</i>	<i>ready for</i>
<i>confident of</i>	<i>responsible for/to</i>
<i>due to/for</i> (27 A)	<i>scared of</i>
<i>exposed to</i>	<i>sorry for/about</i> (27 B)
<i>fit for</i>	<i>successful in</i>
<i>fond of</i>	<i>suspicious of</i>
<i>frightened of/at</i>	<i>terrified of</i>
<i>good at/for</i>	<i>tired of</i>
<i>interested in</i>	<i>used to</i> (163)

He was absorbed in his book.

She is afraid/frightened/scared of the dark.

According to Tom it's 2.30. (Tom says it's 2.30.)

He is bad/good at chess. (a bad/good player)

Running is bad/good for you. (unhealthy/healthy)

They are very keen on golf.

Drivers exceeding the speed limit are liable to a fine.

The management is not responsible for articles left in customers' cars.

I'm sorry for your husband. (I pity him.)

I'm sorry for forgetting the tickets. (apology)

I'm sorry about the tickets. (apology or regret)

(For *good/kind* etc. + **of**, *It was kind of you to wait*, see 26 B.)

97 Verbs and prepositions

A large number of verb + preposition combinations are dealt with in chapter 38. But there are a great many other verbs which can be followed by prepositions and some of these are listed below. More can be found in any good dictionary.

<i>accuse sb of</i>	<i>insist on</i>
<i>apologize (to sb) for</i>	<i>live on. (food/money)</i>
<i>apply to sb/for sth</i>	<i>long for</i>
<i>ask for/about</i>	<i>object to</i>
<i>attend to</i>	<i>occur to</i>
<i>beg for</i>	<i>persist in</i>
<i>believe in</i>	<i>prefer sb/sth to sb/sth</i>
<i>beware of</i>	<i>prepare for</i>
<i>blame sb for</i>	<i>punish sb for</i>
<i>charge sb with (an offence)</i>	<i>quarrel with sb about</i>
<i>compare sth with</i>	<i>refer to</i>
<i>comply with</i>	<i>rely on</i>
<i>conform to</i>	<i>remind sb of</i>
<i>consist of</i>	<i>resort to</i>
<i>deal in</i>	<i>succeed in</i>
<i>depend on</i>	<i>suspect sb of</i>
<i>dream of</i>	<i>think of/about</i>
<i>fight with sb for</i>	<i>wait for</i>
<i>fine sb for</i>	<i>warn sb of/about</i>
<i>hope for</i>	<i>wish for</i>

Do you believe in ghosts?

They were charged with receiving stolen goods.

You haven't complied with the regulations.

For a week she lived on bananas and milk.

It never occurred to me to insure the house.

They persisted in defying the law.

When arguments failed he resorted to threats.

Notice also **feel like** + noun/pronoun = feel inclined to have something:

Do you feel like a drink/a meal/a rest?

feel like + gerund = feel inclined to do something:

I don't feel like walking there.

(For **like** used in comparisons, see 21 G-I.)

Passive verbs can of course be followed by **by** + agent; but they can also be followed by other prepositions:

The referee was booed by the crowd.

The referee was booed for his decision/for awarding a penalty.

98 Gerunds after prepositions

- A It has already been stated in 86 that verbs placed immediately after prepositions must be in the gerund form:

He left without paying his bill.

I apologize for not writing before.

She insisted on paying for herself.

Before signing the contract, read the small print.

(See also 259.)

- A few noun + preposition + gerund combinations may also be noted:

There's no point in taking your car if you can't park.

What's the point of taking your car if you can't park?

Is there any chance/likelihood of his changing his mind?

Have you any objection to changing your working hours?

I am in favour of giving everyone a day off.

- B The only exceptions to the gerund rule are **except** and **but** (preposition), which take the bare infinitive:

I could do nothing except agree.

He did nothing but complain.

However, if **but** is used as a conjunction, it can be followed directly by either full infinitive or gerund:

Being idle sometimes is agreeable, but being idle all the time might become monotonous.

To be idle sometimes is agreeable, but to be idle all the time etc.

99 Prepositions/adverbs

Many words can be used as either prepositions or adverbs:

He got off the bus at the corner. (preposition)

He got off at the corner. (adverb)

The most important of these are **above**, **about**, **across**, **along**, **before**, **behind**, **below**, **besides**, **by**, **down**, **in**, **near**, **off**, **on**, **over**, **past**, **round**, **since**, **through**, **under**, **up**:

They were here before six. (preposition)

He has done this sort of work before. (adverb)

Peter is behind us. (preposition)

He's a long way behind. (adverb)

She climbed over the wall. (preposition)

You'll have to climb over too. (adverb)

When the meeting was over the delegates went home. (adverb; here over = finished)

The shop is just round the corner. (preposition)

Come round (to my house) any evening. (adverb)

He ran up the stairs. (preposition)

He went up in the lift. (adverb)

Many of these words are used to form phrasal verbs (see chapter 38):

The plane took off. (left the ground)

He came round. (recovered consciousness)

10 Introduction to verbs

100 Classes of verbs

A There are two classes of verbs in English:

1 The auxiliary verbs (auxiliaries): *to be, to have, to do; can, could, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will, would; to need, to dare* and *used*.

2 All other verbs, which we may call ordinary verbs:
to work to sing to pray

B *be, have, do, need* and *dare* have infinitives and participles like ordinary verbs, but *can, could, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will* and *would* have neither infinitives nor participles and therefore have only a restricted number of forms. (For *used*, see 162 A.)

Before studying auxiliaries it may be helpful to consider ordinary verbs, most of whose tenses are formed with auxiliaries.

Ordinary verbs

101 Principal parts of the active verb

	Affirmative	Negative
Present infinitive	<i>to work</i>	<i>not to work</i>
Present continuous infinitive	<i>to be working</i>	<i>not to be working</i>
Perfect infinitive	<i>to have worked</i>	<i>not to have worked</i>
Perfect continuous infinitive	<i>to have been working</i>	<i>not to have been working</i>
Present participle and gerund	<i>working</i>	<i>not working</i>
Perfect participle and gerund	<i>having worked</i>	<i>not having worked</i>
Past participle	<i>worked</i>	

In regular verbs the simple past and the past participle are both formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the infinitive. Sometimes the final consonant of the infinitive has to be doubled, e.g. *slip, slipped* (see spelling rules, 355). For irregular verbs, see 364.

The present participle and gerund are always regular and are formed by adding **ing** to the infinitive. The rule concerning the doubling of the final consonant of the infinitive before adding **ing** applies here also (see spelling rules, 355).

102 Active tenses

A Form

Present	simple	<i>he works</i> (see 172)
	continuous	<i>he is working</i> (164)
	perfect	<i>he has worked</i> (182)
	perfect continuous	<i>he has been working</i> (190)
Past	simple	<i>he worked</i> (175)
	continuous	<i>he was working</i> (178)
	perfect	<i>he had worked</i> (194)
	perfect continuous	<i>he had been working</i> (197)
Future	simple	<i>he will work</i> (207)
	continuous	<i>he will be working</i> (211)
	perfect	<i>he will have worked</i> (216)
	perfect continuous	<i>he will have been working</i> (216)
Present	conditional	<i>he would work</i> (219)
	conditional continuous	<i>he would be working</i> (219)
Perfect	conditional	<i>he would have worked</i> (220)
	conditional continuous	<i>he would have been working</i>

B Affirmative contractions

The auxiliaries **be**, **have**, **will**, **would** are contracted as follows:

am 'm have 've will 'll
is 's has 's would 'd
are 're had 'd

Note that **'s** can be **is** or **has** and **'d** can be **had** or **would**:

He's going = He is going.
He's gone = He has gone.
He'd paid = He had paid.
He'd like a drink = He would like a drink.

These contractions are used after pronouns, **here**, **there**, some question words (see 104), and short nouns:

Here's your pen. The twins've arrived.
The car'd broken down.

Affirmative contractions are not used at the end of sentences:

You aren't in a hurry but I am.

(**I'm** would not be possible here.)

shall/should, **was** and **were** are not written in a contracted form but are often contracted in speech to /ʃl, ʃəd, wəz/ and /wə(r)/.

C Stress

Auxiliaries used to form tenses are normally unstressed. The stress falls on the main verb.

103 Negatives of tenses

- A The simple present tense: third person singular *does not/doesn't* + infinitive; other persons *do not/don't* + infinitive.
The simple past tense negative for all persons is *did not/didn't* + infinitive.

Contractions are usual in speech:

He does not/doesn't answer letters.

They do not/don't live here.

I did not/didn't phone her.

She did not/didn't wait for me.

The negative of all other tenses is formed by putting not after the auxiliary.

Contractions are usual in speech:

He has not/hasn't finished.

He would not/wouldn't come.

- B Negative contractions

The auxiliaries **be, have, will, would, shall, should, do** are contracted as follows:

am not 'm not

is not isn't or 's not

are not aren't or 're not

I'm not going and Tom isn't going/Tom's not going.

We aren't going/We're not going.

have not and **has not** contract to **haven't** and **hasn't**, but in perfect tenses **'ve not** and **'s not** are also possible:

We haven't seen him/We've not seen him.

He hasn't/He's not come yet.

will not contracts to **won't**, though **'ll not** is also possible. **shall not** contracts to **shan't**:

I won't go/I'll not go till I hear and I shan't hear till tomorrow.

Other verb forms are contracted in the usual way by adding **n't**.

Negative contractions can come at the end of a sentence:

I saw it but he didn't.

- C In English a negative sentence can have only one negative expression in it. Two negative expressions give the sentence an affirmative meaning:

Nobody did nothing means that everyone did something.

So *never, no* (adjective), *none, nobody, no one, nothing, hardly, hardly ever* etc. are used with an affirmative verb. We can say:

He didn't eat anything or

He ate nothing.

He doesn't ever complain or

He never complains.

We haven't seen anyone or

We have seen no one.

They didn't speak much or

They hardly spoke at all/They hardly ever spoke.

104 Interrogative for questions and requests

A Simple present tense interrogative: *does he/she/it* + infinitive;
do I/you/we/they + infinitive.

Simple past tense interrogative: *did* + subject + infinitive.

Does Peter enjoy parties? Did he enjoy Ann's party?

In all other tenses the interrogative is formed by putting the subject after the auxiliary:

Have you finished? Are you coming?

B Contractions of auxiliaries used in the interrogative

1 **am, is, are, have, had, will and would**

After *how, what, who, where, why*, these can be contracted as shown in 102 B:

How will/How'll he get there? What has/What's happened?

is and **will** can also be contracted after *when*:

When is/When's he coming?

will can also be contracted after *which*:

Which will/Which'll you have?

When the verb comes first as in A above, it is not contracted in writing except in negative interrogative forms. But in speech it is usually contracted.

2 **shall, should, do** and **did** are not written in contracted form, although **do you** is sometimes written **d'you**. In speech **shall, should** and **do you** are often contracted to /ʃl, ʃəd, dju:/.

C The interrogative form is used for questions, but it is not used:

1 When the question is about the identity of the subject:

Who told you? What happened?

2 In indirect speech:

He said, 'Where does she live?' = He asked where she lived.

3 If we place before the question a prefix such as *Do you know, Can you tell me, I want to know, I'd like to know, I wonder/was wondering, Have you any idea, Do you think*:

What time does it start? but *Have you any idea what time it starts?*

Where does Peter live? but *I wonder where Peter lives.*

Will I have to pay duty on this? but

Do you think I'll have /Do you know if I'll have to pay duty?

D Requests are usually expressed by the interrogative:

Can/Could you help me? Will/Would you pay at the desk?

Would you like to come this way?

Would you mind moving your car?

But here again, if before the request we put a phrase such as *I wonder/was wondering* or *Do you think*, the verb in the request changes from interrogative to affirmative:

Could you give me a hand with this? but

I wonder/was wondering/wondered if you could give me a hand or

Do you think you could give me a hand?

In indirect speech the problem does not arise, as indirect requests are

expressed by a verb such as *ask* with object + infinitive:

He asked me to give him a hand.

E The interrogative is used in question tags after a negative verb:

You didn't see him, did you? (See 110.)

F When, for emphasis, words/phrases such as *never, rarely, seldom, only when, only by, not only, not till* are placed first in a sentence the following main verb is put into the inverted (= interrogative) form:

Only when we landed did we see how badly the plane had been damaged. (See 45.)

105 Negative interrogative

A This is formed by putting **not** after the ordinary interrogative:

Did you not see her? Is he not coming?

But this form is almost always contracted:

Didn't you see her? Isn't he coming?

Note that **not** is now before the subject.

am I not? has an irregular contraction: *aren't I?*

B The negative interrogative is used when the speaker expects or hopes for an affirmative answer:

Haven't you finished yet? Don't you like my new dress?

CHILD: *Can't I stay up till the end of the programme?*

I could wait ten minutes. ~ Couldn't you wait a little longer?

C The negative interrogative is also used in question tags after an affirmative sentence:

You paid him, didn't you?

She would like to come, wouldn't she? (See 110.)

Auxiliary verbs

106 Auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries

Principal auxiliaries	Modal auxiliaries		Semi-modals
<i>to be</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>could</i>	<i>to need</i>
<i>to have</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>might</i>	<i>to dare</i>
<i>to do</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>had to</i>	<i>used</i>
	<i>ought</i>		
	<i>shall</i>	<i>should</i>	
	<i>will</i>	<i>would</i>	

Auxiliaries help to form a tense or an expression, hence the name.

They combine with present or past participles or with infinitives to form the tenses of ordinary verbs:

I am coming. He has finished. I didn't see them.

10 Introduction to verbs

They combine with infinitives to indicate permission, possibility, obligation, deduction etc. as will be shown in the following chapters:

He can speak French. You may go. We must hurry.

107 Auxiliaries: forms and patterns

A **be, have and do** (the principal auxiliaries)

Infinitive	Present tense	Past tense	Past participle
<i>to be</i>	<i>am, is, are</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>been</i>
<i>to have</i>	<i>have, has</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>had</i>
<i>to do</i>	<i>do, does</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>done</i>

- In the negative and interrogative, **be** and **do** follow the auxiliary pattern:
Negative, verb + **not**:
He isn't coming. It did not matter.
Interrogative, subject + verb:
Was he waiting? Does she see us?
 - have** normally follows the auxiliary pattern:
Has he (got) to go?
but sometimes uses **do/did** forms:
Does he have to go?
 - be** takes the full infinitive:
They are to wait for us at the station.
have takes the full infinitive except in two constructions (see 119 A, 120).
do takes the bare infinitive: *Did he write?*
 - be, have** and **do**, when used as auxiliaries, require a participle or infinitive, though in answers, comments etc. this is often understood but not mentioned:
Have you seen it? ~ Yes, I have (seen it).
 - be** (see 115), **have** and **do** can also be used as ordinary verbs with independent meanings; i.e. **have** can mean 'possess' (see 122), **do** can mean 'perform/occupy oneself' etc. (see 126).
be or **have** or **do** can then be the only verb in a sentence:
He is lazy. He has no job. He does nothing.
do is then conjugated with **do/did**:
What do you do in the evenings?
and **have** can be conjugated in either way:
Have you (got) time?/Do you have time?
- B can, could, may, might, must, ought, will, would, shall and should** (the modal auxiliaries)
- Modal verbs have no final **s** in the third person singular:
I must, he must I can, he can

They always form their negative and interrogative according to the auxiliary pattern:

will not ought not . . .
will he . . . ? ought he . . . ?

They have no proper past tenses; four past forms exist, **could**, **might**, **should**, **would**, but they have only a restricted use.

Modal verbs have no infinitives or participles and therefore cannot be used in the continuous tenses.

All modal verbs except **ought** are followed by the bare infinitive:

You should pay but *You ought to pay*.

A modal verb always requires an infinitive, though sometimes this is understood but not mentioned:

Can you understand? ~ Yes, I can (understand).

C **need**, **dare** and **used** (the semi-modals)

- 1 When used as auxiliaries, **need** and **dare** can conform to the modal pattern. They then take the bare infinitive:

He need not wait.

But they can also use the **do/did** forms, and then take the full infinitive with **to**:

He doesn't dare to interrupt.

They didn't need to wait. (See 149.)

need and **dare** can also be used as ordinary verbs, and are then inflected and have the usual participles:

He needs help. They dared me to jump.

- 2 **used**, sometimes referred to as **used to**, is used only in the past. For its negative and interrogative it usually follows the auxiliary pattern:

I used not/usedn't to go.

But though technically **used** has no infinitive, the forms **didn't use to** and **did he/she etc. use to?** are quite often heard.

Use of auxiliaries in short answers, agreements etc.

Auxiliaries are extremely important in conversation because in short answers, agreements, disagreements with remarks, additions to remarks etc. we use auxiliaries instead of repeating the original verb.

108 Auxiliaries in short answers

Questions requiring the answer **yes** or **no**, i.e. questions such as *Do you smoke?* or *Can you ride a bicycle?*, should be answered by **yes** or **no** and the auxiliary only. The original subject, if a noun, is replaced by a pronoun. Pronoun subjects may change as shown:

Do you smoke? ~ *Yes, I do* (not *Yes, I smoke*).

Is that Ann? ~ *Yes, it is/No, it isn't*.

Did the twins go? ~ *Yes, they did/No, they didn't*.

Will there be an exam? ~ *Yes, there will/No, there won't*.

If there is more than one auxiliary in the question, the first should be used in the answer:

Should he have gone? ~ *Yes, he should*.

Questions with **must** I/he etc. or **need** I/he etc. are answered *Yes, you/he etc. must* or *No, you/he etc. needn't*:

Must I/Need I take all these pills? ~ *Yes, you must/No, you needn't*. (See 147.)

An answer with **yes** or **no** without the auxiliary would be less polite.

109 Agreements and disagreements with remarks

- A Agreements with affirmative remarks are made with **yes/so/of course** + affirmative auxiliary. If there is an auxiliary in the first verb this is repeated. If there is no auxiliary **do, does** or **did** is used:

He works too hard. ~ *Yes, he does*.

There may be a strike. ~ *Yes, there may*.

Living in London will be expensive. ~ *(Yes,) of course it will*.

That's Ann! ~ *Oh, so it is*.

- B Disagreements with negative remarks are made with **yes/oh yes** + affirmative auxiliary. The auxiliary is stressed here.

I won't have to pay. ~ *Oh yes, you ¹will!*

My alarm didn't ring! ~ *Oh yes, it ¹did!*

There isn't any salt in this. ~ *Yes, there ¹is*.

Bread won't make me fat. ~ *Oh yes, it ¹will*.

- C Agreements with negative remarks are made with **no** + negative auxiliary:

It wouldn't take long to get there. ~ *No, it wouldn't*.

I haven't paid you yet. ~ *No, you haven't*.

The boys mustn't be late. ~ *No, they mustn't*.

The door can't have been locked. ~ *No, it can't*.

- D Disagreements with affirmative remarks are expressed by **no/oh no** + negative auxiliary:

Ann'll lend it to you. ~ *Oh no, she won't*.

Peter gets up too late. ~ *No, he doesn't*.

There is plenty of time. ~ *No, there isn't*.

Prices are coming down. ~ *Oh no, they aren't*.

but can be used when disagreeing with an assumption. The assumption may be expressed by a question:

Why did you travel first class? ~ *But I didn't!*

110 Question tags

These are short additions to sentences, asking for agreement or confirmation.

- A After negative statements we use the ordinary interrogative:

You didn't see him, did you?

Ann can't swim, can she?

That isn't Tom, is it?

After affirmative statements we use the negative interrogative:

Peter helped you, didn't he?

Mary was there, wasn't she?

Negative verbs in the tags are usually contracted.

Irregular: *I'm late, aren't I?*

Note that **let's** has the tag **shall**: *Let's go, shall we?*

The subject of the tag is always a pronoun.

- B Examples of question tags after negative statements:

Peter doesn't smoke, does he?

Ann isn't studying music, is she?

Bill didn't want to go, did he?

James wasn't driving the car, was he?

You haven't ridden a horse for a long time, have you?

The twins hadn't seen a hovercraft before, had they?

They couldn't understand him, could they?

There wasn't enough time, was there?

People shouldn't drop litter on pavements, should they?

Ann hasn't got colour TV, has she?

Note that statements containing words such as *neither, no* (adjective), *none, no one, nobody, nothing, scarcely, barely, hardly, hardly ever, seldom* are treated as negative statements and followed by an ordinary interrogative tag:

No salt is allowed, is it?

Nothing was said, was it?

Peter hardly ever goes to parties, does he?

When the subject of the sentence is *anyone, anybody, no one, nobody, none, neither* we use the pronoun **they** as subject of the tag:

I don't suppose anyone will volunteer, will they?

No one would object, would they?

Neither of them complained, did they?

- C Question tags after affirmative statements

With the simple present tense we use **don't/doesn't?** in the tag. With the simple past tense we use **didn't?**

Edward lives here, doesn't he?

You found your passport, didn't you?

After all other tenses we just put the auxiliary verb into the negative interrogative:

Mary's coming tomorrow, isn't she?

Peter's heard the news, hasn't he?

Remember that 's = is or has, and 'd = had or would:

Peter'd written before you phoned, hadn't he?

Mary'd come if you asked her, wouldn't she?

You'd better change your wet shoes, hadn't you?

The boys'd rather go by air, wouldn't they?

With *everybody, everyone, somebody, someone* we use the pronoun *they*:

Everyone warned you, didn't they?

Someone had recognized him, hadn't they?

Negative interrogative tags without contractions are possible but the word order is different:

You saw him, did you not?

This is a much less usual form.

D Intonation

When question tags are used the speaker doesn't normally need information but merely expects agreement. These tags are therefore usually said with a falling intonation, as in statements.

Sometimes, however, the speaker does want information. He is not quite sure that the statement is true, and wants to be reassured. In this case the question tag is said with a rising intonation and the important word in the first sentence is stressed, usually with a rise of pitch.

(See *Structure Drills 1, 11-13.*)

111 Comment tags

A These are formed with auxiliary verbs, just like question tags, but after an affirmative statement we use an ordinary interrogative tag; after a negative statement we use a negative interrogative tag.

A comment tag can be added to an affirmative statement. It then indicates that the speaker notes the fact.

You saw him, did you? = Oh, so you saw him.

You've found a job, have you? = Oh, so you've found a job.

Comment tags can also be spoken in answer to an affirmative or negative statement:

I'm living in London now. ~ Are you?

I didn't pay Paul. ~ Didn't you?

When used in this way the tag is roughly equivalent to *Really!* or *Indeed!*

B The chief use of these tags is to express the speaker's reaction to a statement. By the tone of his voice he can indicate that he is interested, not interested, surprised, pleased, delighted, angry, suspicious, disbelieving etc.

The speaker's feelings can be expressed more forcibly by adding an auxiliary:

I borrowed your car. ~ Oh, you did, did you?

I didn't think you'd need it. ~ Oh, you didn't, didn't you?

i.e. before an ordinary interrogative we use an affirmative auxiliary verb, before a negative interrogative we use a negative verb.

Again, the meaning depends on the tone of voice used. The speaker may be very angry, even truculent; but the form could also express admiration or amusement.

112 Additions to remarks

- A Affirmative additions to affirmative remarks can be made by subject + auxiliary + **too/also** or by **so** + auxiliary + subject, in that order. If there is an auxiliary in the first remark, it is repeated in the addition:

Bill would enjoy a game and Tom would too/so would Tom.

If there is no auxiliary, **do/does/did** is used in the addition; i.e. instead of saying *Bill likes golf and Tom likes golf (too)* we can say *Bill likes golf and Tom does too/so does Tom.*

The additions can, of course, be spoken by another person:

The boys cheated! ~ The girls did too!/So did the girls!

I'm having a tooth out tomorrow. ~ So'm I!

When both remarks are made by the same person, both subjects are usually stressed. When they are made by different people the second subject is stressed more strongly than the first.

- B Affirmative additions to negative remarks are made with **but** + subject + auxiliary:

Bill hasn't got a licence. ~ But Donald has.

She doesn't eat meat but her husband does.

The horse wasn't hurt but the rider was.

- C Negative additions to affirmative remarks are made with **but** + subject + negative auxiliary:

He likes pop music but I don't.

You can go but I can't.

Peter passed the test but Bill didn't.

- D Negative additions to negative remarks are made with **neither/nor** + auxiliary + subject:

Tom never goes to concerts, neither does his wife.

Ann hasn't any spare time. ~ Neither/Nor have I.

I didn't get much sleep last night. ~ Neither/Nor did I.

These additions can also be made with subject + negative auxiliary + **either**:

He didn't like the book; I didn't either.

They don't mind the noise; we don't either.

Alternatively, we can use the whole verb + object, if there is one, + **either**:

I didn't like it either. We don't mind it either.

11 be, have, do

be as an auxiliary verb

113 Form and use in the formation of tenses

A Form

Principal parts: *be, was, been*

Gerund/present participle: *being*

Present tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
<i>I am/I'm</i>	<i>I am not/I'm not</i>	<i>am I?</i>
<i>you are/you're</i>	<i>you are not/you're not</i>	<i>are you?</i>
<i>he is/he's</i>	<i>he is not/he's not</i>	<i>is he?</i>
<i>she is/she's</i>	<i>she is not/she's not</i>	<i>is she?</i>
<i>it is/it's</i>	<i>it is not/it's not</i>	<i>is it?</i>
<i>we are/we're</i>	<i>we are not/we're not</i>	<i>are we?</i>
<i>you are/you're</i>	<i>you are not/you're not</i>	<i>are you?</i>
<i>they are/they're</i>	<i>they are not/they're not</i>	<i>are they?</i>

Alternative negative contractions: *you aren't, he isn't* etc.

Negative interrogative: *am I not/aren't I? are you not/aren't you? is he not/isn't he?* etc.

Past tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
<i>I was</i>	<i>I was not/wasn't</i>	<i>was I?</i>
<i>you were</i>	<i>you were not/weren't</i>	<i>were you?</i>
<i>he/she/it was</i>	<i>he/she/it was not/wasn't</i>	<i>was he/she/it?</i>
<i>we were</i>	<i>we were not/weren't</i>	<i>were we?</i>
<i>you were</i>	<i>you were not/weren't</i>	<i>were you?</i>
<i>they were</i>	<i>they were not/weren't</i>	<i>were they?</i>

Negative interrogative: *was I not/wasn't I? were you not/weren't you? was he not/wasn't he?* etc.

The forms are the same when **be** is used as an ordinary verb. Other tenses follow the rules for ordinary verbs. But **be** is not normally used in the continuous form except in the passive and as shown in 115 B.

B Use to form tenses

be is used in continuous active forms: *He is working/will be working* etc., and in all passive forms: *He was followed/is being followed*.

Note that **be** can be used in the continuous forms in the passive:

Active: *They are carrying him.*

Passive: *He is being carried.*

(For **be** used in the continuous with adjectives, see 115 B.)

114 **be** + infinitive

A The **be** + infinitive construction, e.g. *I am to go*, is extremely important and can be used in the following ways:

1 To convey orders or instructions:

No one is to leave this building without the permission of the police.

(no one must leave)

He is to stay here till we return. (he must stay)

This is a rather impersonal way of giving instructions and is chiefly used with the third person. When used with **you** it often implies that the speaker is passing on instructions issued by someone else. The difference between (a) *Stay here, Tom* and (b) *You are to stay here, Tom* is that in (a) the speaker himself is ordering Tom to stay, while in (b) he may be merely conveying to Tom the wishes of another person.

This distinction disappears of course in indirect speech, and the **be** + infinitive construction is an extremely useful way of expressing indirect commands, particularly when the introductory verb is in the present tense:

He says, 'Wait till I come.' =

He says that we are to wait till he comes.

or when there is a clause in front of the imperative:

He said, 'If I fall asleep at the wheel wake me up.' =

He said that if he fell asleep at the wheel she was to wake him up.

It is also used in reporting requests for instructions:

'Where shall I put it, sir?' he asked =

He asked where he was to put it. (See also 318 B.)

2 To convey a plan:

She is to be married next month.

The expedition is to start in a week's time.

This construction is very much used in newspapers:

The Prime Minister is to make a statement tomorrow.

In headlines the verb **be** is often omitted to save space:

Prime Minister to make statement tomorrow.

Past forms:

He was to go. (present infinitive)

He was to have gone. (perfect infinitive)

11 be, have, do

The first of these doesn't tell us whether the plan was carried out or not. The second is used for an unfulfilled plan, i.e. one which was not carried out:

The Lord Mayor was to have laid the foundation stone but he was taken ill last night so the Lady Mayoress is doing it instead.

B **was/were** + infinitive can express an idea of destiny:

He received a blow on the head. It didn't worry him at the time but it was to be very troublesome later. (turned out to be/proved troublesome)

They said goodbye, little knowing that they were never to meet again. (were destined never to meet)

C **be about** + infinitive expresses the immediate future:

They are about to start. (They are just going to start/They are on the point of starting.)

just can be added to make the future even more immediate:

They are just about to leave.

Similarly in the past:

He was just about to dive when he saw the shark.

be on the point of + gerund has the same meaning as **be about** + infinitive, but is a shade more immediate.

be as an ordinary verb

Form: as for **be** used as an auxiliary (see 113 A).

115 be to denote existence, be + adjective

A **be** is the verb normally used to denote the existence of, or to give information about, a person or thing:

Tom is a carpenter.

The dog is in the garden.

Malta is an island.

The roads were rough and narrow.

Gold is a metal.

Peter was tall and fair.

B **be** is used to express physical or mental condition:

I am hot/cold. He was excited/calm.

They will be happy/unhappy.

With certain adjectives, e.g. *quiet/noisy, good/bad, wise/foolish*, it is possible to use the continuous form of **be**, e.g. *Tom is being foolish*, to imply that the subject is showing this quality at this time. Compare *Tom is being foolish*, which means Tom is talking or acting foolishly now, with *Tom is foolish*, which means that Tom always acts or talks foolishly. Similarly, *The children are being quiet* means they are playing quietly now, but *The children are quiet* might mean that they usually play quietly.

Other adjectives include:

<i>annoying</i>	<i>generous/mean</i>
<i>cautious/rash</i>	<i>helpful/unhelpful</i>
<i>clever/stupid</i>	<i>irritating</i>
<i>difficult</i>	<i>mysterious</i>
<i>economical/extravagant</i>	<i>optimistic/pessimistic</i>
<i>formal</i>	<i>polite</i>
<i>funny</i>	<i>selfish/unselfish</i>

With some of these, e.g. *stupid*, *difficult*, *funny*, *polite*, the continuous form may imply that the subject is deliberately acting in this way:

You are being stupid may mean *You are not trying to understand.*
He is being difficult usually means *He is raising unnecessary objections.*

He is being funny usually means *He is only joking. Don't believe him.*

She is just being polite probably means *She is only pretending to admire your car/clothes/house etc.*

C **be** is used for age:

How old are you? ~ *I'm ten/I am ten years old.* (not *I'm ten years*)
How old is the tower? ~ *It is 400 years old.* (*years old* must be used when giving the age of things.)

D Size and weight are expressed by **be**:

How tall are you?/What is your height? ~ *I am 1.65 metres.*
How high are we now? ~ *We're about 20,000 feet.*
What is your weight? or *What do you weigh/How much do you weigh?* ~ *I am 65 kilos* or *I weigh 65 kilos.*

E **be** is used for prices:

How much is this melon? or *What does this melon cost?* ~ *It's £1.*
The best seats are (= cost) £25.

116 there is/are, there was/were etc.

A When a noun representing an indefinite person or thing is the subject of the verb **be** we normally use a **there + be + noun** construction. We can say *A policeman is at the door* but *There is a policeman at the door* would be more usual.

Note that, though **there** appears to be the subject, the real subject is the noun that follows the verb, and if this noun is plural the verb must be plural too:

There are two policemen at the door.

In the above sentences both constructions (noun + **be** and **there + be + noun**) are possible. But when **be** is used to mean *exist/happen/take place* the **there** construction is necessary:

There is a mistake/There are mistakes in this translation.

These sentences could not be rewritten *A mistake is/Mistakes are* etc.

11 be, have, do

In the following examples (R) is placed after the example when the **there** construction is replaceable by noun/pronoun + verb:

There have been several break-ins this year.

There will be plenty of room for everyone.

There were hundreds of people on the beach. (R)

B **there** can be used similarly with *someone/anyone/no one/something* etc.:
There's someone on the phone for you. (R)

C **there + be + something/nothing/anything + adjective** is also possible:

Is there anything wrong (with your car)? (R) ~

No, there's nothing wrong with it. (R)

There's something odd/strange about this letter.

D A noun or *someone/something* etc. could be followed by a relative clause:
There's a film I want to see. There's something I must say.
or by an infinitive:

There's nothing to do. (nothing that we can do/must do; see 250)

E The **there** construction can be used with another auxiliary + **be**:
There must be no doubt about this. There may be a letter for me.
or with **seem + be, appear + be**:

There seems to be something wrong here.

F **there** used as above is always unstressed.
Be careful not to confuse **there** used in this way with **there**, stressed, used as an adverb:

There's a man I want to see. (He is standing by the door.)

Compare with:

There's a man I want to see. (This man exists.)

117 **it is** and **there is** compared

For uses of **it is**, see 67.

Some examples may help to prevent confusion between the two forms:

1 **it is + adjective; there is + noun**:

It is foggy or There is a fog.

It was very wet or There was a lot of rain.

It won't be very sunny or There won't be much sun.

2 **it is, there is** of distance and time:

It is a long way to York.

There is a long way still to go. (We have many miles still to go.)

It is time to go home. (We always start home at six and it is six, now.)

There is time for us to go home and come back here again before the film starts. (That amount of time exists.)

3 **it is**, used for identity, and **there is + noun/pronoun**:

There is someone at the door. I think it's the man to read the meters.

There's a key here. Is it the key of the safe?

- 4 **it is**, used in cleft sentences (see 67 D), and **there is**:
It is the grandmother who makes the decisions. (the grandmother,
 not any other member of the family)
 ... *and there's the grandmother, who lives in the granny-flat.*
 (the grandmother exists)

have as an auxiliary verb

118 Form and use in the formation of tenses

A Form

Principal parts: *have, had, had*

Gerund/present participle: *having*

Present tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
<i>I have/I've</i>	<i>I have not/haven't</i>	<i>have I?</i>
<i>you have/you've</i>	<i>you have not/haven't</i>	<i>have you?</i>
<i>he has/he's</i>	<i>he has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has he?</i>
<i>she has/she's</i>	<i>she has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has she?</i>
<i>it has/it's</i>	<i>it has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has it?</i>
<i>we have/we've</i>	<i>we have not/haven't</i>	<i>have we?</i>
<i>you have/you've</i>	<i>you have not/haven't</i>	<i>have you?</i>
<i>they have/they've</i>	<i>they have not/haven't</i>	<i>have they?</i>

Alternative negative contractions (chiefly used in perfect tenses): *I've not, you've not, he's not* etc.

Negative interrogative: *have I not/haven't I? have you not/haven't you? has he not/hasn't he?* etc.

Past tense:

Affirmative: *had/'d* for all persons

Negative: *had not/hadn't* for all persons

Interrogative: *had I?* etc.

Negative interrogative: *had I not/hadn't I?* etc.

Other tenses follow the rules for ordinary verbs.

B Use to form tenses

have is used with the past participle to form the following tenses:

Present perfect: *I have worked.*

Past perfect: *I had worked.*

Future perfect: *I will/shall have worked.*

Perfect conditional: *I would/should have worked.*

119 have + object + past participle

- A This construction can be used to express more neatly sentences of the type 'I employed someone to do something for me'; i.e. instead of saying *I employed someone to clean my car* we can say *I had my car cleaned*, and instead of *I got a man to sweep my chimneys* ('got' here = paid/persuaded etc.), we can say *I had my chimneys swept*.

Note that this order of words, i.e. **have** + object + past participle, must be observed as otherwise the meaning will be changed: *He had his hair cut* means he employed someone to do it, but *He had cut his hair* means that he cut it himself some time before the time of speaking (past perfect tense).

When **have** is used in this way the negative and interrogative of its present and past tenses are formed with **do**:

Do you have your windows cleaned every month? ~ I don't have them cleaned; I clean them myself.

He was talking about having central heating put in. Did he have it put in in the end?

It can also be used in continuous tenses:

I can't ask you to dinner this week as I am having my house painted at the moment.

While I was having my hair done the police towed away my car.

The house is too small and he is having a room built on.

get can be used in the same way as **have** above but is more colloquial. **get** is also used when we mention the person who performs the action:

She got him to dig away the snow. (She paid/persuaded him to dig etc.)

(**have** with a bare infinitive can be used in the same way, e.g. *She had him dig away the snow*, but the **get** construction is much more usual in British English.)

- B The **have** + object + past participle construction can also be used colloquially to replace a passive verb, usually one concerning some accident or misfortune:

His fruit was stolen before he had a chance to pick it

can be replaced by

He had his fruit stolen before he had a chance to pick it, and

Two of his teeth were knocked out in the fight can be replaced by

He had two of his teeth knocked out.

It will be seen that, whereas in A above the subject is the person who orders the thing to be done, here the subject is the person who suffers as a result of the action. The subject could be a thing:

The houses had their roofs ripped off by the gale.

get can also replace **have** here:

The cat got her tail singed through sitting too near the fire. (The cat's tail was singed etc.)

120 had better + bare infinitive

had here is an unreal past; the meaning is present or future:

I had/I'd better ring him at once/tomorrow. (This would be a good thing to do/the best thing to do.)

The negative is formed with **not** after **better**:

You had better not miss the last bus. (It would be unwise to miss it, or I advise/warn you not to miss it.)

had here is usually contracted after pronouns and in speech is sometimes so unstressed as to be almost inaudible.

had better is not normally used in the ordinary interrogative, but is sometimes used in the negative interrogative as an advice form:

Hadn't you better ask him first? =

Wouldn't it be a good thing to ask him first?

you had better is a very useful advice form:

You had better fly. (It would be best for you to fly, or I advise you to fly.)

In indirect speech had better with the first or third person remains unchanged; had better with the second person can remain unchanged or be reported by **advise** + object + infinitive:

He said, 'I'd better hurry' =

He said (that) he'd better hurry.

He said, 'Ann had better hurry' =

He said (that) Ann had better hurry.

He said, 'You'd better hurry' =

He said (that) I'd better hurry or

He advised me to hurry.

121 have + object + present participle

A This expression is often used with a period of future time:

I'll have you driving in three days. (As a result of my efforts, you will be driving in three days.)

It can also be used in the past or present:

He had them all dancing. (He taught/persuaded them all to dance.)

I have them all talking to each other. (I encourage/persuade them all to talk to each other.)

It can be used in the interrogative:

Will you really have her driving in three days?

but is not often used in the negative.

B *If you give all-night parties you'll have the neighbours complaining.*
(The neighbours will complain/will be complaining.)

If film-stars put their numbers in telephone books they'd have everyone ringing them up. (Everyone would ring/would be ringing them up.)

you'll have in the first example conveys the idea 'this will happen to you'. Similarly *they'd have* in the second example conveys the idea 'this would happen to them'.

11 be, have, do

If you don't put a fence round your garden you'll have people walking in and stealing your fruit. (People will walk in and steal/will be walking in and stealing it, i.e. this will happen to you.)

The construction can be used in the interrogative and negative:

When they move that bus stop, you won't have people sitting on your steps waiting for the bus any more.

This structure is chiefly used for actions which would be displeasing to the subject of **have**, as in the above example, but it can be used for an action which is not displeasing:

When he became famous, he had people stopping him in the street and asking for his autograph =

When he became famous, people stopped him in the street and asked for his autograph.

But **I won't have** + object + present participle normally means 'I won't/don't allow this':

I won't have him sitting down to dinner in his overalls. I make him change them. (I won't/don't allow him to sit down etc.)

This use is restricted to the first person.

(For **have** used for obligation, see chapter 14.)

have as an ordinary verb

122 have meaning 'possess' and 'suffer (from) pain/illness/disability'

A Examples:

He has a black beard. I have had this car for ten years.

Have you got a headache? ~ Yes, I have.

The twins have mumps.

He has a weak heart.

B Form

	Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
Present	<i>have (got) or have</i>	<i>haven't (got) or don't have</i>	<i>have I (got)? etc. or do you have? etc.</i>
Past	<i>had</i>	<i>hadn't (got) or didn't have</i>	<i>had you (got)? etc. or did you have? etc.</i>

Note that the negative and interrogative can be formed in two ways.

C **have** is conjugated with **do** for habitual actions:

Do you often have headaches? ~ No, I don't.

When there is not this idea of habit, the **have not (got)/have you (got)** forms are more usual in Britain, whereas other English-speaking countries (notably America) use the **do** forms here also.

An American might say:

Can you help me now? Do you have time?

where an Englishman would probably say:

Can you help me now? Have you got time?

do forms can therefore be used safely throughout, but students living in Britain should practise the other forms as well.

- D** **got** can be added to **have/have not/have you** etc. as shown above. It makes no difference to the sense so it is entirely optional, but it is quite a common addition. **got**, however, is not added in short answers or question tags:

Have you got an ice-axe? ~ Yes, I have.

She's got a nice voice, hasn't she?

have (affirmative) followed by **got** is usually contracted:

I've got my ticket. He's got a flat in Pimlico.

The stress falls on **got**. The 've or 's is often barely audible.

have (affirmative) without **got** is often not contracted. The **have** or **has** must then be audible.

123 **have** meaning 'take' (a meal), 'give' (a party) etc.

- A** **have** can also be used to mean:

'take' (a meal/food or drink, a bath/a lesson etc.)

'give' (a party), 'entertain' (guests)

'encounter' (difficulties/trouble)

'experience', 'enjoy', usually with an adjective, e.g. *good*.

We have lunch at one.

They are having a party tomorrow.

Did you have trouble with Customs?

I hope you'll have a good holiday.

- B** **have** when used as above obeys the rules for ordinary verbs:

It is never followed by **got**.

Its negative and interrogative are made with **do/did**.

It can be used in the continuous tenses.

We are having breakfast early tomorrow. (near future)

She is having twenty people to dinner next Monday. (near future)

I can't answer the telephone; I am having a bath. (present)

How many English lessons do you have a week? ~ I have six.

You have coffee at eleven, don't you? (habit)

Ann has breakfast in bed, but Mary doesn't. (habit)

Will you have some tea/coffee etc.? (This is an invitation. We can also omit *Will you* and say *Have some tea etc.*)

Did you have a good time at the theatre? (Did you enjoy yourself?)

Have a good time! (Enjoy yourself!)

I am having a wonderful holiday.

I didn't have a very good journey.

Do you have earthquakes in your country? ~ Yes, but we don't have them very often.

11 be, have, do

do

124 Form

Principal parts: *do, did, done*

Gerund/present participle: *doing*

Present tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
<i>I do</i>	<i>I do not/don't</i>	<i>do I?</i>
<i>you do</i>	<i>you do not/don't</i>	<i>do you?</i>
<i>he does</i>	<i>he does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does he?</i>
<i>she does</i>	<i>she does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does she?</i>
<i>it does</i>	<i>it does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does it?</i>
<i>we do</i>	<i>we do not/don't</i>	<i>do we?</i>
<i>you do</i>	<i>you do not/don't</i>	<i>do you?</i>
<i>they do</i>	<i>they do not/don't</i>	<i>do they?</i>

Negative interrogative: *do I not/don't I? do you not/don't you? does he not/doesn't he?* etc.

do as an ordinary verb has the affirmative shown above. But for negative and interrogative we add the infinitive **do** to the above forms: *What does/did she do?* (See 126.)

Past tense:

Affirmative: *did* for all persons

Negative: *did not/didn't* for all persons

Interrogative: *did he?* etc.

Negative interrogative: *did he not/didn't he?* etc.

do is followed by the bare infinitive:

I don't know. Did you see it? He doesn't like me.

125 **do** used as an auxiliary

A **do** is used to form the negative and interrogative of the present simple and past simple tenses of ordinary verbs (see 103-5):

He doesn't work. He didn't work.

Does he work? Did he work?

B It is possible to use **do/did** + infinitive in the affirmative also when we wish to add special emphasis. It is chiefly used when another speaker has expressed doubt about the action referred to:

You didn't see him. ~ I did see him. (The *did* is strongly stressed in speech. This is more emphatic than the normal *I saw him.*)

I know that you didn't expect me to go, but I did go.

C **do** is used to avoid repetition of a previous ordinary verb:

- 1 In short agreements and disagreements (see 109):
Tom talks too much. ~ Yes, he does/No, he doesn't.
He didn't go. ~ No, he didn't/Oh yes, he did.
- 2 In additions (see 112):
He likes concerts and so do we. (Note inversion.)
He lives here but I don't. He doesn't drive but I do.
- 3 In question tags (see also 110):
He lives here, doesn't he? He didn't see you, did he?
- D **do** is used in short answers to avoid repetition of the main verb:
Do you smoke? ~ Yes, I do (not Yes, I smoke)/No, I don't.
Did you see him? ~ Yes, I did/No, I didn't. (See 108.)
- E Similarly in comparisons (see 22): *He drives faster than I do.*
- F **do** + imperative makes a request or invitation more persuasive:
Do come with us. (more persuasive than Come with us.)
Do work a little harder. Do help me, please.
- G It can similarly be used as an approving or encouraging affirmative answer to someone asking for approval of, or permission to do, some action: *Shall I write to him? ~ Yes, do or Do alone.*

126 **do** used as an ordinary verb

do, like **have**, can be used as an ordinary verb. It then forms its negative and interrogative in the simple present and past with **do/did**:

<i>I do not do</i>	<i>do you do?</i>	<i>don't you do?</i>
<i>he does not do</i>	<i>does he do?</i>	<i>doesn't he do?</i>
<i>I did not do</i>	<i>did he do?</i>	<i>didn't he do? etc.</i>

It can be used in the continuous forms, or simple forms:

What are you doing (now)? ~ I'm doing my homework.

What's he doing tomorrow? (near future)

What does he do in the evenings? (habit)

Why did you do it? ~ I did it because I was angry.

How do you do? is said by both parties after an introduction:

HOSTESS: *Mr Day, may I introduce Mr Davis? Mr Davis, Mr Day.*

Both men say *How do you do?* Originally this was an enquiry about the other person's health. Now it is merely a formal greeting.

Some examples of other uses of **do**:

He doesn't do what he's told. (doesn't obey orders)

What do you do for a living? ~ I'm an artist.

How's the new boy doing? (getting on)

I haven't got a torch. Will a candle do? (= be suitable/adequate) ~

A candle won't do. I'm looking for a gas leak. (A candle would be unsuitable.)

Would £10 do? (= be adequate) ~ No, it wouldn't. I need £20.

to do with (in the infinitive only) can mean 'concern'. It is chiefly used in the construction **it is/was something/nothing to do with** + noun/pronoun/gerund: *It's nothing to do with you = It doesn't concern you.*

