

the companion grammar to the
**Oxford Advanced Learner's
Dictionary of Current English**

Guide to Patterns and Usage in English

Second Edition

No one who wishes to benefit fully from the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* should be without this new revised edition of A S Hornby's *Guide to Patterns and Usage*. Here the Dictionary's grammatical and stylistic aspects are explained and demonstrated by means of clear teaching patterns and a wealth of example sentences. Hornby's *Guide* and Dictionary are together key handbooks to the speaking, reading and writing of modern English.

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A S Hornby

**GUIDE
TO PATTERNS
AND USAGE
IN ENGLISH**

Second Edition

A S HORNBY

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Preface to the Second Edition

My object in writing this book was to provide help and guidance for advanced students of English as a foreign or second language. The traditional grammar book provides information on accidence and syntax. It sets out and describes the various parts of speech. It is often concerned with the historical development of the language. Such older grammars provide much information *about* the language but do not help the student to *use* the language. Analysis and parsing may be good intellectual exercises but are not otherwise of much value.

Analysis is helpful at a later stage but the learner is—or should be—more concerned with sentence-building. For this he needs to become acquainted with the patterns of English sentences. He needs to know how words collocate, to know where certain classes of words, and which of these words, have their normal places in sentences. He needs to know (for example, for adverbs and adverb phrases) what alternative positions there are.

A knowledge of how to put words together in the right order is as important as a knowledge of their meanings. The most important patterns are those of the verbs. Unless the learner becomes familiar with these he will be unable to use his vocabulary. He may suppose that because he has heard and seen *I intend/hope/want/propose to come*, he may say and write **I suggest to come*; that because he has heard and seen *Please tell me the meaning of this sentence*, he may say and write **Please explain me this sentence*. Because *He began talking about the weather* means about the same as *He began to talk about the weather*, he may suppose, wrongly, that *He stopped talking about the crops* means the same as *He stopped to talk about the crops*. Because *I like to travel* is accepted, he may think, wrongly again, that **He dislikes to travel* is as acceptable as *He dislikes travelling*.

It is important, too, that the learner, when he uses a noun or adjective, should be familiar with the patterns in which it is used. When he uses such adjectives as *kind* and *thoughtful*, he should be familiar with their use after introductory *it* or exclamatory *how*.

It was kind/thoughtful of you to meet me at the station.
How kind/thoughtful (it was) of you to meet me at the station!

Note: The use of the asterisk * indicates that the phrase or sentence following is an example of unacceptable usage.

For the adjective *anxious* he needs to be familiar with its use with prepositions (e.g. *anxious for* news, *anxious about* someone's health), and, when *anxious* means 'eager', its use with an infinitive (e.g. *anxious to start*).

There is an Index of Subjects and an Index of Words. The Index of Words includes only a selection of those which are dealt with in this book. It cannot take the place of the dictionary. The learner will do well, while he is learning, to enter on record cards or in a loose-leaf notebook any examples of patterns of common words likely to be useful to him. For the verb *succeed* he might note such examples as *They succeeded in climbing Mt Everest* (VP3A). For the noun *intention* he might note the example *He has no intention of going* (NP2). With this he might place the examples *It was not his intention to go*. If he has also an example of the verb *intend*, as in *He doesn't intend to go* (VP7A), he has full references when he needs to use *intention* and *intend*. A good dictionary provides information on patterns, but the making of one's own collection is an excellent way of fixing usages in the memory.

The learner who wishes to speak and write English is rightly concerned with grammatical correctness. He should also be concerned with being idiomatic, with using the kind of English that will not strike the listener or reader as being artificial, or formal when an informal style is appropriate. Part Five of this book approaches this problem from a new angle. Instead of dealing with such auxiliary and modal verbs as *be*, *have*, *can/could*, *will/would*, *shall/should*, *may/might*, *must*, *ought* one by one and describing their functions, the situation is taken as the starting-point. The concept of obligation can be expressed by the use of such words as *necessity/necessary*, *compell/compulsion/compulsory*, *oblige/obligation/obligatory*. (See the examples, 5.51-80.) Except in formal style a native speaker of English is unlikely to use these words. He will prefer constructions with *have to/have got to*, *must*, *ought to*, or *should*. These words are often more difficult for the foreign learner of English than the more formal words. Some of them are irregular or defective verbs. The beginner is tempted to use the more formal verbs because their patterns are easier than the patterns for words used in informal or colloquial style. By grouping together the various ways in which such concepts as obligation and necessity, permission, possibility, achievement, hopes and wishes are expressed, with numerous examples, the learner is enabled to become familiar with the ways used most frequently to express these concepts.

The approach to the problems of time and tense (Part Two) has been made from the same angle. The tenses are set out, and then, instead of an account of how each tense is used, *time*, not *tense*, has been taken as the starting-point. Here is an aspect of time, here is a situation. Which tense or tenses may be used here? Or what tense equivalents (e.g. *going to* for future time) are available and perhaps preferable?

It is a sound principle not to present the learner with specimens of incorrect English and then require him to point out and correct the errors. Such a procedure in the form of exercises is harmful. In this

book there are occasional specimens of incorrect usage, but these are errors which are known, from the experience of language teachers, to be frequent. Such specimens, when they occur in this book, are preceded by an asterisk, as in **Please explain me this sentence*, above. The asterisk is occasionally used to indicate not a grammatically incorrect sentence but a sentence which is not quite idiomatic, one for which there is a preferable alternative. Thus, the sentence **A map is on this wall* is not wrong. But the sentence *There's a map on this wall* is preferable. If the learner is warned in this way, he will be less likely to compose the sentence **Four windows are in this room*, which is unacceptable.

In parts of the book, where word order may vary with stress, and where strong and weak forms of certain words occur, phonetic and tonetic symbols have been used. These are given and explained on pages xii-xv.

A S Hornby
1975

Acknowledgements

My chief debt is to the grammarians who look at English from the outside and are better able than the native speaker of English to see those aspects of grammar which are important to those who learn and study English as a foreign language. The works I found most useful have been:

- E Krusinga, *A Handbook of Present Day English* (out of print).
H Poutsma, *A Grammar of Late Modern English* (Part i: *The Sentence*) (out of print).
O Jespersen, *Essentials of English Grammar* (Allen and Unwin, 1933); *A Modern English Grammar* (7 volumes, Allen and Unwin); *Analytic Syntax* (Holt-Blond, 1968).
G Scheurweghs, *Present Day English Syntax* (Longman, 1972).
R W Zandvoort, *A Handbook of English Grammar* (Longman, 1972).

I am indebted to the works of several other grammarians:

- H Sweet, *New English Grammar* (Part i) (Oxford University Press, 1903).
H E Palmer and F G Blandford, *A Grammar of Spoken English* (revised and rewritten by Roger Kingdon) (Heller, 1969).
C T Onions, *Modern English Syntax* (edited by B D H Miller) (Routledge, 1971).
R Quirk, S Greenbaum, G Leech and J Svartvik, *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (Longman, 1972).
W S Allen, *Living English Structure* (Longman, 1974).

Mr Leslie Aczel, of Budapest, made suggestions to me on the verb patterns as set out in the first edition. The revised patterns of this second edition, and their new arrangement, owe much to his comments on them, and I am grateful to him for the interest he took in their regrading.

I have continued to find much useful information in the pages of *English Studies* (Amsterdam) and the British Council's periodical *English Language Teaching*.

My work on Sentence Patterns began when I was associated with H E Palmer in the work of the Institute for Research in English Teaching at the Department of Education in Tokyo during the 1930s. We were not always in agreement and my own verb patterns differ in some respect from those set out in his *Grammar of English Words*. Although we did not always see eye to eye, my work owes much to his initiative and enthusiasm.

Abbreviations

AF	anomalous finite
AP	adjective pattern
DO	direct object
EPA	end-position adverb
FPA	front-position adverb
IO	indirect object
MPA	mid-position adverb
NP	noun pattern
S	subject
VP	verb pattern
<i>vi</i>	intransitive verb
<i>vt</i>	transitive verb
*	what follows is unacceptable usage

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Introduction: the Spoken Language

Until about the middle of this century grammarians concerned themselves chiefly with language as it appeared in print, and comparatively little with the spoken language. They concerned themselves more with the literary form of the language than with colloquial usages. Many grammar books still illustrate syntax almost exclusively with quotations from printed sources. H E Palmer's *A Grammar of Spoken English* (1st edition, 1924) was a notable exception. In this pioneer work all examples were in phonetic transcription.

It is now accepted that the spoken forms of a language must rank equally with the formal and literary forms. This means that the sounds of the language, and its stress patterns, rhythm and intonation must receive attention. In this book, as in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, the examples are rarely taken from printed material. The great majority are typical of spoken English, though examples typical of formal English are often given for contrast.

There are numerous authoritative books on these subjects and a short list is given on page xv. There are several forms of phonetic and tonetic transcriptions in use today. The symbols used in the occasional transcriptions in this book are explained below.

Sounds: Key to the Phonetic Symbols

As this *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* is designed for use with the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, third edition, the symbols used by A C Gimson for the revised eleventh impression of that edition are also used in this book.

Vowels and Diphthongs

1 /i:/ as in <i>see</i> /si:/	11 /ɜ:/ as in <i>fur</i> /fɜ:(r)/
2 /ɪ/ as in <i>sit</i> /sɪt/	12 /ɔ/ as in <i>ago</i> /ə'gɔʊ/
3 /e/ as in <i>ten</i> /ten/	13 /eɪ/ as in <i>page</i> /peɪdʒ/
4 /æ/ as in <i>hat</i> /hæt/	14 /əʊ/ as in <i>home</i> /həʊm/
5 /ɑ:/ as in <i>arm</i> /ɑ:m/	15 /aɪ/ as in <i>five</i> /faɪv/
6 /ɒ/ as in <i>got</i> /gɒt/	16 /aʊ/ as in <i>now</i> /naʊ/
7 /ɔ:/ as in <i>saw</i> /sɔ:/	17 /ɔɪ/ as in <i>join</i> /dʒɔɪn/
8 /ʊ/ as in <i>put</i> /pʊt/	18 /ɪə/ as in <i>near</i> /nɪə(r)/
9 /u:/ as in <i>too</i> /tu:/	19 /eə/ as in <i>hair</i> /heə(r)/
10 /ʌ/ as in <i>cup</i> /kʌp/	20 /ʊə/ as in <i>pure</i> /pjʊə(r)/

Consonants

1 /p/ as in <i>pen</i> /pen/	13 /s/ as in <i>saw</i> /sɔ:/
2 /b/ as in <i>bed</i> /bed/	14 /z/ as in <i>zoo</i> /zu:/
3 /t/ as in <i>tea</i> /ti:/	15 /ʃ/ as in <i>she</i> /ʃi:/
4 /d/ as in <i>did</i> /dɪd/	16 /ʒ/ as in <i>vision</i> /'vɪʒn/
5 /k/ as in <i>cat</i> /kæt/	17 /h/ as in <i>how</i> /haʊ/
6 /g/ as in <i>get</i> /get/	18 /m/ as in <i>man</i> /mæn/
7 /tʃ/ as in <i>chin</i> /tʃɪn/	19 /n/ as in <i>now</i> /naʊ/
8 /dʒ/ as in <i>June</i> /dʒu:n/	20 /ŋ/ as in <i>sing</i> /sɪŋ/
9 /f/ as in <i>fall</i> /fɔ:l/	21 /l/ as in <i>leg</i> /leg/
10 /v/ as in <i>voice</i> /vɔɪs/	22 /r/ as in <i>red</i> /red/
11 /θ/ as in <i>thin</i> /θɪn/	23 /j/ as in <i>yes</i> /jes/
12 /ð/ as in <i>then</i> /ðen/	24 /w/ as in <i>wet</i> /wet/

/ . . (r) /: this means that the /r/ is pronounced only when the next word begins with a vowel sound and follows without pause, as in *far away*, /fɑ:r ə'weɪ/.

Stress and Pitch

Stress is the force given to a word or syllable in speech. Pitch is the relative height or depth of the level of the voice. Pitch may be sustained (at a high or low level) or it may rise or fall. Stress and pitch are closely associated.

In the word *examine* the stress is on the second syllable. The first and third syllables are unstressed. In the word *examination* there is a strong (or principal) stress on the fourth syllable, and a weak (or subordinate) stress on the second syllable. The other syllables are unstressed. On the syllable with principal stress there is typically a change in pitch, either a rise or a fall.

In this book short vertical strokes have been used to indicate word stress, /' / for principal stress and /, / for subordinate stress. Thus the word *examine* is transcribed as /ɪg'zæmɪn/ and *examination* as /ɪg,zæmɪ'neɪʃn/.

In recent years a system has been developed for connected speech which indicates pitch as well as sentence stress. In this system the short vertical stroke /' / instead of indicating stress alone, indicates a high level tone. Stress accompanied by a high falling pitch is indicated by a short slant line /'/. Besides this sign for a tone falling from a high to a low pitch, further information about the basic intonation patterns of sentences can be given by use of the signs /, / for a pitch falling from medium to low, /, / for one rising from low to medium and /' / for one rising from medium to high. Two such pitch movements may occur in immediate succession on a single (even monosyllabic) word in English, notably high-to-low fall and low-to-medium rise /', / . When a syllable coming later than another one is also marked as a high-level tone, the latter is slightly lower than the former. If a sentence begins at the normal fairly low level pitch used for unstressed words at the beginning of an utterance

they are not marked. Other unmarked words and syllables follow the pitch indicated by the previous marked one. When more than one independent intonation phrase occurs within a sentence, the end of a complete intonation unit is indicated by a vertical bar $||$. Unmarked words or syllables at the beginning of the new phrase are to be interpreted as they would be at the beginning of a new sentence. (Those more familiar with a numerical notation for intonation marking may note that eg the Trager-Smith system equivalents to the five tone marks used in this book are (i) $/'$ = /3-1/ (ii) $/'$ = /3-3/ (iii) $/'$ = 2-3/ (iv) $/'$ = /2-1/ (v) $/'$ = /1-2/. Thus $/'$ = /3-1-2/.)

Examples of Connected Speech

Jane can speak 'French.

This is typical of ordinary statements. There is a fairly low level pitch on *Jane* etc and a high-falling tone on *French*. *Can* is unstressed with pronunciation /kən/.

'Can Jane speak 'French?

A high or low rising tone, as on *French*, is typical of questions asking for a 'Yes' or 'No' answer. The high-level tone on *can* indicates a stress on this word, with the pronunciation /kæn/.

$/'kæn dʒeɪn spi:k 'frentʃ/$

Can 'Jane speak French?

This is similar, but with a high-level tone on *Jane*, so that *Jane* is given prominence and *can* has the weak form /kən/.

$/kən 'dʒeɪn spi:k ,frentʃ/$

There are also combinations of more than one pitch movement in a single tone, eg falling-rising as $/'$, rising-falling as $/'$, etc. These may extend over one or more syllables. They are used to give special significance, often to imply something which is to be understood. For information on their uses, the books in the Reading List should be referred to. A few simple examples follow.

I 'can't help you 'now.

The falling-rising tone on *now* implies that the speaker may be able to help later.

I 'can't help you ,now.

The fall and the rise occur on separate words, giving fairly equal attention to both important words whereas in the previous sentence a much greater share of the attention was concentrated on *now*.

This dictionary 'costs ,more.

This carries an implication such as '... but it's much better value'. In the sort of context in which this sentence would occur, the word *more*, although carrying a rising pitch, may be regarded as merely

sharing a single falling-rising tone with the word *costs* which has almost all the attention. It can be shown with both marks before the only important word, *costs*, to represent exactly the same pronunciation. Thus:

This dictionary 'costs ,more.

This is a less self-evident notation but conveys that in such a context the speaker attaches no more importance to the word *more* than he would to the second syllable of the word *dearer* if he had expressed exactly the same idea with the wording:

This dictionary's 'dearer.

Reading List

Pronunciation and Intonation

A C Gimson

An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English (Edward Arnold, 1962)

M A K Halliday

A Course in Spoken English: Intonation (Oxford University Press, 1970)

R Kingdon

The Groundwork of English Stress (Longman, 1958)

R Kingdon

The Groundwork of English Intonation (Longman, 1958)

J D O'Connor

Better English Pronunciation (Cambridge University Press, 1967)

J D O'Connor and

Intonation of Colloquial English (Longman, 1961)

G F Arnold

A Grammar of Spoken English, third edition, revised and re-written by Roger Kingdon (Heffer, 1969)

H E Palmer and
F G Blandford

J Windsor Lewis

A Guide to English Pronunciation (Universitetsforlaget, Oslo, 1969)

J Windsor Lewis

People Speaking: Phonetic Readings in Current English (Oxford University Press, 1977)

Pronouncing Dictionaries

D Jones

English Pronouncing Dictionary, fourteenth edition, revised by A C Gimson (Dent, 1977)

J Windsor Lewis

A Concise Pronouncing Dictionary of British and American English (Oxford University Press, 1972)

Verbs and Verb Patterns

Definitions

- 1.1 There is no useful or adequate definition of the term **VERB**. It is useful, however, to distinguish between finite and non-finite forms of verbs. The non-finites are the infinitive (present and perfect, with or without *to*), the present and past participles, and the gerund (or verbal noun). The finites are those forms other than the non-finites. Thus, the non-finites of *be* are: *(to) be, (to) have been, being* and *been*, and the finites are *am, is, are, was, were*. The non-finites of *see* are: *(to) see, (to) have seen, seeing* and *seen*, and the finites are *see, sees* and *saw*.

When an infinitive is used with *to* (as in *I want to go, I ought to have gone*) it is called the *to*-infinitive. When used without *to* (as in *I must go, I should have gone*) it is called the bare infinitive.

The present participle and the gerund are identical in form. In *The boys are swimming*, there is the present participle. In *The boys like swimming*, there is the gerund.

- 1.2 The term **AUXILIARY** is used for a number of verbs which have a variety of functions. The finites of *do* are used as operating verbs for the formation of the interrogative and negative. The finites of *be* are used to form the progressive (or continuous) tenses and the passive voice.

The finites *will/would, shall/should, can/could, may/might, must, ought, need, dare* and *used* (with *to*), are called auxiliaries, often distinguished by being called *modal* auxiliaries.

Auxiliary Verbs

Non-finite forms			Finite forms	
Infinitive	Present Participle	Past Participle	Present Tense	Past Tense
<i>be</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>been</i>	<i>am, is, are</i>	<i>was, were</i>
<i>have</i>	<i>having</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>have, has</i>	<i>had</i>
<i>do</i>	<i>doing</i>	<i>done</i>	<i>do, does</i>	<i>did</i>
			<i>shall</i>	<i>should</i>
			<i>will</i>	<i>would</i>
			<i>can</i>	<i>could</i>
			<i>may</i>	<i>might</i>
			<i>must</i>	
			<i>ought</i>	
			<i>need</i>	
			<i>dare</i>	
				<i>used</i>

- 1.3 The term ANOMALOUS FINITE (abbreviated AF) is used of the 24 finites of these auxiliary verbs.
- 1.4 The term DEFECTIVE VERB is used of those verbs of which some parts are missing. Thus *must* has no infinitive and no participles. *Will, shall, can, may* and *ought* are defective verbs.
- 1.5 The term IRREGULAR VERB is used of those verbs which do not have the suffix *-ed* for the past tense/participle, e.g. *go/went/gone; begin/began/begun; take/took/taken; mean/meant/meant; put/put/put*.
- 1.6 The term ANOMALOUS is useful as a label for the 24 finites in the table above as a class. The most obvious feature of these finites is that they can be joined to the contracted form of *not*, e.g. *isn't, weren't, haven't, don't, didn't, can't, shouldn't, oughtn't*. The term ANOMALOUS is restricted to those finites which combine with *not* in this way. Thus, *have* is anomalous in *I haven't finished* and *I haven't time to do it now*. But *have* is not anomalous in *I have breakfast at half past seven*. (Here *have* is an ordinary, or non-anomalous, finite, and the negative is *I don't have breakfast at half past seven*, not **I haven't breakfast at half past seven*. See 1.21 below.)
The 24 AF are not always auxiliary. The finites of *be* are linking verbs, not auxiliary, in:

Miss Green is a teacher.
The men are busy.

The finites of *have* are not auxiliary in:

Have you any money?
Jane has two brothers.
They had a good holiday.

Functions of the Anomalous Finites

- 1.7 These finites have many functions. They can be placed in two classes.
First, they are important as structural words, used to operate the negative and interrogative. They are used to avoid repetition, e.g. in short answers and in disjunctive (or 'tag') questions. The positions of certain classes of adverbs are decided by the occurrence or non-occurrence of anomalous finites in sentences.
Secondly, some of them are used to form moods for which English has no inflected forms. When used in this way they may be termed MODAL VERBS or MODAL AUXILIARIES (*modal* being the adjective corresponding to *mode* or *mood*).
The uses of the modal auxiliaries are dealt with in Part Five of this book, and can be found by using the Index.

The Formation of the Negative

- 1.8 A finite verb is made negative by the use of *not*. In modern English only the 24 AF are made negative by simply adding *not* after the finite.

He is busy → *He is not/He's not/He isn't busy.*
I can come. → *I cannot/can't come.*
You ought to do that → *You ought not/oughtn't to do that.*

Non-AF require the helping verb *do*.

He wants it. → (He does want it.) → *He doesn't want it.*
He wanted it. → (He did want it.) → *He didn't want it.*
They went there. → (They did go there.) → *They didn't go there.*

In spoken English and informal written English (e.g. social correspondence), the contracted negative forms are used: *isn't, aren't, didn't, can't, wouldn't*.

The use of *not* with non-AF was usual in older English (e.g. Shakespeare, the Authorized Version of the Bible): *Tempt not a desperate man.* (In modern English *Don't tempt a desperate man.*)

The Formation of the Interrogative

- 1.9 The interrogative is formed by inversion of the subject and the finite, which must be one of the 24 AF.

They are ready. → *Are they ready?*
He can swim. → *Can he swim?*

The auxiliary *do* is used if the finite is non-anomalous:

They went away. → (They did go away.) → *Did they go away?*
He likes it. → (He does like it.) → *Does he like it?*

There are other forms of questions (e.g. with *What, Who*, etc. or using intonation). See Part 5.

Went you . . . ? How came you to . . . ? and other instances of a subject preceded by a non-AF are archaic or literary survivals.

The Interrogative-Negative

- 1.10 This is formed by placing *not* after the subject in formal written style, or by the use of the contracted negative forms in spoken English and often in informal written style.

Does he want it? → *Does he not want it?* (or) *Doesn't he want it?*
Did they go? → *Did they not go?* (or) *Didn't they go?*

Other Examples
of Inversion

- 1.11 Inversion of the subject and the finite verb (always one of the 24 AF) occurs after a front-shifted negative (including such semi-negatives as *hardly, scarcely, little, seldom, rarely*).

Little did they know that . . . (= They little knew that . . .)

In no other way can the matter be explained. (= The matter can be explained in no other way.)

Hardly had we started (= We had hardly started) *when it began to rain.*

Seldom/Rarely have I (= I have seldom/rarely) *heard such beautiful singing.*

Never shall I (= I shall never) *forget your kindness.*

Only then did I see (= I saw only then) *the danger we were in.*

Avoidance of
Repetition

- 1.12 The 24 AF are used in short answers to questions. There is a fall in pitch on the 'Yes' or 'No' and on the finite verb.

Did you find it? 'Yes, I 'did. (or) 'No, I 'didn't.

Can you do it alone? 'Yes, I 'can. (or) 'No, I 'can't.

Has she been warned? 'Yes, she 'has. (or) 'No, she 'hasn't.

'Who wants to come with me? 'All of us do. (or) 'None of us do.

'Who broke the window? 'Tom did. (or) 'I 'didn't.

These finites are also used to avoid repetition of a verb in a subsequent statement, e.g. in a co-ordinate clause.

He didn't often grumble, and when he 'did, no one paid much attention.

He isn't often punished, and when he 'is, it seems to have no effect.

Questions

- 1.13 The 24 AF are used in 'tag' questions, added to statements. The subject in the tag question is a pronoun or introductory *there*. If there is a rise in pitch on the finite in the question, the speaker expects or invites the listener to agree. If there is a fall in pitch on the finite in the question, the speaker is confident of his statement.

Tomorrow's 'Sunday, ,isn't it? (or) 'isn't it?

He left 'yesterday, ,didn't he? (or) 'didn't he?

You want 'five, ,don't you? (or) 'don't you?

You can't speak ,Danish, ,can you? (or) 'can you?

They won't be here ,long, ,will they? (or) 'will they?

There's a 'cat in the garden, ,isn't there? (or) 'isn't there?

Responses

- 1.14 Tag questions are often used as responses to indicate an attitude to a statement, e.g. polite interest, disbelief, indifference, contradiction or disagreement (depending on the use of a rise or fall in pitch).

A: *I'm going to 'Moscow next month.* B: *Oh, ,are you?* (indicating surprise or interest)

A: *You must pay me the money at 'once.* B: *Oh, I 'must, ,must I?* (indicating perhaps defiance or indignation)

A: *I'm not going to do anything more.* B: *Aren't you?* (or) 'Oh, you 'are, ,aren't you?

A: *I'm afraid we're going to be late.* B: 'Oh no we ,aren't, there's plenty of time.

A: *There's no need to hurry.* B: 'Oh yes there ,is.

These finites are used to indicate agreement. The pattern is *So + subject + AF*. There is a fall in pitch on the AF.

A: *I hear you went to Leeds last week.* B: *So I 'did.* (= Yes, that's right.)

A: *There are two tigers in the garden.* B: *So there 'are!* (= Yes, you're right.)

They are used to correct or contradict a statement (or a suggestion in question form, usually with *why*). The answer often begins *Oh no* or *But*.

A: *I'm told that Harry has been divorced six times.* B: *Oh no he 'hasn't. Only 'twice.*

A: *I hear you failed in your exams.* B: *Oh no I 'didn't!*

A: *Why didn't you help the old man off the bus?* B: *But I 'did!*

A: *Why do you beat your wife so often?* B: *But I 'don't! I've 'never beaten her!*

The 24 AF are used in the pattern *so + AF + subject*, as shown in the examples below.

I can do it and so can 'you.

Tom speaks French and so does his 'sister. (= His sister speaks French, too.)

Jane will be there and so shall 'I.

The same pattern is used in responses from a second speaker:

A: *I must leave now.* B: *So must 'I.*

A: *I enjoyed that concert.* B: *So did 'all of us* (or) *So did we 'all.*

In this pattern the finite is unstressed. There is a fall in pitch on the subject. In *So can you*, the finite *can* is /kən/. In *So shall I*, the finite *shall* is reduced to /ʃl/, and *So shall I* is /'səʊ ʃl 'aɪ/. The two words *so shall* have the same pronunciation as the adjective *social*. The AF are also used in the pattern *nor/neither + AF + subject*, with an unstressed finite and a fall in pitch on the subject.

I can't do it and neither can 'you.

Harry didn't go to church; nor did his 'sister.

A: *I don't like this kind of music.* B: *Nor do 'I, and nor does my 'sister.*

The Emphatic Affirmative

- 1.15 To place emphasis on the affirmative element in a statement, or in a rejoinder to a statement, stress or a change in pitch is used on the finite verb, which must be one of the 24 AF. If such stress or change in pitch is used on a non-anomalous finite, prominence is given to the meaning of the verb, not to the affirmative element. If, for example, stress or a change in pitch occurs on *wrote*, in *I ^ˈwrote to him*, this gives prominence to the meaning of *write*: I communicated with him in writing, not by speaking to him, not by sending him a verbal message, etc. Here are examples of the emphatic affirmative:

If I ^ˈdo find the book, I'll send it to you.
He doesn't often visit me, but when he ^ˈdoes, he stays for hours.
You ^ˈare working hard!
 A: *Who broke the window?* B: *I didn't.* A: *Well, who ^ˈdid break it?* (instead of *Who broke it?* as in the first question)

To emphasize the negative element in a statement, stress or a change in pitch is used on the negative word (usually *not*).

I did ^ˈnot take your pen (instead of the more usual *I ^ˈdidn't take your pen*).

Adverb Position

- 1.16 Adverb position is dealt with in Part Four. Mid-position adverbs precede non-AF and follow AF (unless these are stressed).

With non-AF:

We generally/usually go to school by bus.
The sun always rises in the east.
They soon found what they wanted.

With AF:

You should always try ^ˈto be punctual.
I can seldom find enough time for reading.
We shall soon be there.

With a stressed AF, cf:

We've never refused to help.
We never ^ˈhave refused to help.

For further notes and examples, see 4.4, 4.11-12 and Tables 91-2.

Notes on the Anomalous Finites

am, is, are, was, were

- 1.17 The finites of *be* are anomalous whether they are used as link verbs or auxiliaries.

He's busy. He isn't busy. Is he busy?
He's working. He isn't working. Is he working?

Be is used in imperatives.

Be quiet/patient!

Do be is used in imperatives to give emphasis or to persuade.

Do be quiet/patient, please!

Don't be is used for the negative imperative.

Don't be so curious/foolish!

The verb *be* is not used in the progressive tenses when it indicates a state that is static or unchanging, as in *John is an engineer*. When it is used to indicate what may change or vary, the progressive tenses may be used, as in *John is being very patient*. Here John's patience may give out. He may become impatient. In such cases, *be* may be non-anomalous in *why*-questions:

Why don't you be more reasonable?
Why don't you be a man (= manly) and face your troubles bravely?

For other uses of *be*, see *be* in the Index.

have, has, had

- 1.18 The finites *have, has, had* are always anomalous when used as auxiliaries in the formation of the perfect tenses:

He has left. He hasn't left. Has he left?
They had left. They hadn't left. Hadn't they left?

When these finites are not auxiliaries, they are sometimes anomalous and sometimes non-anomalous. There are differences between British and American usage. There are differences in British usage depending on the meaning of the verb.

- 1.19 *Have* is used to indicate possession or ownership. When used in this sense, the finites of *have* are anomalous. In informal style, British English, *have got* is a preferred alternative.

How many books have you (got)?
I haven't (got) enough money for the journey.

In ordinary American usage, these finites are not anomalous.

How many pencils do you have?
Tom doesn't have a pencil.
Does your brother have a bicycle?

- 1.20 *Have* is used to indicate characteristics and relationships. A sentence with a finite of *have* may often be recomposed with a finite of *be*.

This room has five windows.
There are five windows in this room.

This jacket has three pockets.
There are three pockets in this jacket.

*Mary has blue eyes.
Mary's eyes are blue.*

*What long hair that fellow has!
Isn't that fellow's hair long!*

*How many children have they?
How many children are there in the family?*

In British usage, the finites, when used in this way, are anomalous. In colloquial style, the perfect tenses with *got* are often used.

*How many pockets has your jacket got?
Hasn't he got long hair!
Have you got many friends here?*

In American usage, the finites are non-anomalous.

*How many pockets does your jacket have?
Do you have many friends here?*

- 1.21 When *have* is used with such meanings as *take*, *receive* and *experience*, the finites are non-anomalous in both British and American usage.

*Do you have (= drink) coffee or tea for breakfast?
Cf Have we (got) (= Is there) any coffee in the house?
At what time do you have (= take) breakfast?
Did you have (= experience) any difficulty in finding the house?
Does your teacher often have (= use) visual aids for English lessons?
Cf Have you (got) (= Are there) many visual aids in your classroom?
How often do you have (= receive) letters from your brother in Canada?
Cf Have you (got) your brother's last letter with you now?
How often does your cat have (= give birth to) kittens?
Cf Has your cat (got) any kittens now?
How often do you have (= receive) English lessons?
Cf Have you (= Is there, in the time-table) an English lesson this morning?*

- 1.22 A distinction is made in British English between the use of *have* for reference to what is habitual, general or usual and for reference to a particular occasion. This distinction is not typical of American usage. When the reference is to what is general or usual, the finites of *have* are not anomalous. When the reference is to a particular occasion, the finites of *have* are, in British usage, anomalous, or the present perfect tense of *get* may be used. The use of the past perfect *had got* is less usual.

*Do you have much time for tennis? (i.e. as a rule, generally)
Cf Have you (got) time for a game of tennis this afternoon?
Does that poor boy have enough to eat? (i.e. regularly, habitually)
Cf Has he (got) enough to eat? (i.e. now)*

Do they have much snow in Quebec in winter? (i.e. as a rule, generally)

*Cf Have they (= Is there) much snow in Quebec this winter?
Do you often have colds?
Cf You haven't (got) a cold now, I hope.*

- 1.23 *Have* is used to indicate obligation, and this is dealt with in Part Five. See 5.54-6. Some, but not all, British speakers make the distinction between the use of *have* for what is general or habitual, and for a particular occasion (as noted in 1.22).

At what time do you have to (= must you) be in the office every morning?

Cf I have to be (or I've got to be) in the office half an hour earlier than usual tomorrow.

We don't have to work on Saturday mornings.

Cf The firm is busy this week so we've got to work tomorrow morning.

- 1.24 The causative use of *have* is dealt with in the sections on verb patterns. See VP24C, Table 78. In this use the finites are not anomalous.

*How often do you have your hair cut?
You don't have your hair cut every week, do you?
When did you last have your hair cut?*

- 1.25 There are numerous verbs which may be replaced by *have* and a noun (either identical with the verb or related to it), e.g. *rest*, *drink*, *walk*, *dine*. In these verbal phrases, the finites of *have* are non-anomalous.

*Did you have a pleasant walk?
Why don't you lie down and have a rest?
Did you have a good sleep?*

Those who wish to speak colloquial English will do well to become familiar with the uses of *have* set out above. The distinctions between the anomalous and non-anomalous uses of *have* set out in 5.54-5 (for obligation) will be met with in spoken and written English, but it will be sufficient for the learner to use the finites of *have*, in these cases, as non-anomalous.

do, does, did

- 1.26 The finites of *do* are anomalous only when they are auxiliaries (or operators) in the formation of the negative and interrogative, and in the emphatic affirmative. When *do* is a full verb, the finites are non-anomalous.

*Tom did most of the work. Harry didn't do much of the work. Did Dick do any of the work?
Martha does all the housework. Does Helen do anything except arrange the flowers?*

The Modal Auxiliaries

1.27 The modal auxiliaries are *shall/should, will/would, can/could, may/might, must, ought, need, dare* and *used (to)*. These are finites of defective verbs. *Shall/should, will/would, can/could, may/might* and *must* are always anomalous. *Ought*, always with *to*, is anomalous in good usage, but non-anomalous in sub-standard English.

*You oughtn't to stay up so late.
Ought you to drink so heavily?*

Sub-standard:

* *You didn't ought to do that.*

For uses of these finites, see Part Five and the Index.

need

1.28 *Need* is used as a modal auxiliary, anomalous, without *to*. It has no past tense form but is used with perfect infinitives. The form for the third person singular is also *need*. It occurs chiefly in the negative and interrogative, occasionally in the affirmative.

Need is also a full (or lexical) verb which is regular in every way. It has the *s*-inflection for the third person singular present tense (*he needs*) and the finites are non-anomalous. It is used in VP6 (i.e. with a noun or gerund as direct object) and in VP7 (i.e. with a *to*-infinitive). It means 'require' or 'be in need of'. Examples of *need*, regular (or lexical) verb:

VP6A: *Tom needs a new coat. He doesn't need new shoes. Does he need any new shirts?*

The work needed time and patience.

That blind man needs help/needs somebody to help him across the street.

VP6E: *My shoes needed mending (= needed to be mended).*

VP7: *Do you need to work so late?*

He doesn't need to work so late, does he?

Need, regular verb and *need*, modal auxiliary may be used to indicate necessity or obligation, and there is little or no difference in meaning in the pairs below:

Do you need to work so late?

Need you work so late?

He doesn't need to work so late, does he?

He needn't work so late, need he?

Anomalous *need* may refer to future time (using an adverb of time).

You needn't come to the office on Saturday.

The regular verb *need*, indicating obligation or necessity, may be replaced by *must* or *have to*.

Do you need to/Do you have to/Must you work so hard?

You'll need/You'll have to start early if you want to get back before dark.

He'll need/He'll have to hurry if he wants to catch the 2.15 train.

The negative *needn't* (indicating absence of obligation or necessity) corresponds to the affirmative *must* or *have to*.

He needn't start yet, need he?

He must start at once, mustn't he?

Need you go yet?—Yes, I must.

Anomalous *need* may be used in the affirmative when there is a negative implication in the sentence.

He need have no hesitation about asking for my help.

No one need go hungry in our Welfare State.

All you need do is give me a ring and I'll come at once.

He need have no fear of losing his job.

In the third example the implication is 'You need do *nothing* except ...', 'You need only ...'

Anomalous *need* has no past tense form, but may be used with a perfect infinitive.

We needn't have hurried.

Compare this with *didn't need to*, the regular verb:

We needn't have hurried. (We have hurried but now see that this hurry was unnecessary.)

We didn't need to hurry. (There was no necessity for hurry, whether we did so or not.)

They needn't have gone. (Although they did go or have gone, it was unnecessary.)

They didn't need to go. (Whether they did or did not go, it was unnecessary.)

dare

1.29 Like *need*, *dare* is used both as a regular (or lexical) verb and as a modal auxiliary, anomalous. The third person singular present tense in the anomalous use is *dare*, not *dares*.

Anomalous *dare* is used with a bare infinitive (i.e. without *to*). It is used chiefly in the interrogative and negative, and is frequent after *how*.

How dare you speak to me so rudely?

How dare he say such rude things about me?

She daren't leave the baby in the house alone—she's frightened of the danger of fire.

Dare he admit it?

As noted above, *dare* is anomalous after *how*, but is often non-anomalous in negative sentences.

I don't dare/He doesn't dare to speak about what happened.

As in the case of *need* (see 1.28), *dare* may be used in the affirmative when there is a negative implication.

No one dare question/disobey the orders of this savage dictator.

Would anyone dare predict when this dictatorship will end?

Anomalous *daren't* is used for present, past and future time:

Harry met Mr Green yesterday but daren't tell him that he had wrecked the car we had borrowed from him.

Will you tell Mr Green that we've wrecked his car? I daren't tell him.

The regular verb *dare* is used in VP7A with a *to*-infinitive, and, less often, with a bare infinitive.

Does anyone dare (to) call me a liar?

Do they dare (to) suggest that we have been dishonest?

When used meaning 'face boldly', it is VP6A.

He was ready to dare any danger.

used to

1.30 This is pronounced /'ju:stu:/ or /'ju:stə/ and the negative *use(d)n't* *to* is pronounced /'ju:sntu:/ or /'ju:sntə/. It is to be distinguished from the past tense of the verb *use* /ju:z/ which has the same spelling, *used*, but is pronounced /ju:zd/. It must also be distinguished from *used* (pronounced /ju:st/) meaning 'accustomed', as in *He's not used to hard work.*

Used *to* always refers to past time and takes an infinitive. It was anomalous in older usage and is still anomalous in formal style. It is non-anomalous in modern colloquial style, especially in tag-questions and responses.

You used to live in Leeds, use(d)n't you/didn't you?

There used to be a cinema here, didn't there?

It used to be thought/People used to think that flying was dangerous.

'Brown used to live in Hull.'—'Oh, did he?'

Did he used/Used he to play football at school?

Never may be used in place of *not*.

You never used to grumble all the time.

More notes on *used to* can be found in 2.56.

Verb Patterns

The 25 verb patterns set out in the first edition (1954) have been revised and renumbered. The renumbered patterns of this second edition are identical with those used in the third edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Oxford University Press, 1974).

Summary of
Verb Patterns

1.31 Patterns 1–5 are of verbs used intransitively. Patterns 6–25 are of verbs used transitively.

Abbreviations used: S = subject; *vi* = intransitive verb; *vt* = transitive verb; D O = direct object; I O = indirect object.

[VP1]	S + BE + subject complement/adjunct
[VP2A]	S + <i>vi</i>
[VP2B]	S + <i>vi</i> + (<i>for</i>) + adverbial adjunct
[VP2C]	S + <i>vi</i> + adverbial adjunct
[VP2D]	S + <i>vi</i> + adjective/noun/pronoun
[VP2E]	S + <i>vi</i> + present participle
[VP3A]	S + <i>vi</i> + preposition + noun/pronoun
[VP3B]	S + <i>vi</i> + (preposition (+ <i>it</i>)) + clause
[VP4A]	S + <i>vi</i> + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP4B]	S + <i>vi</i> + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP4C]	S + <i>vi</i> + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP4D]	S + SEEM/APPEAR + (<i>to be</i>) + adjective/noun
[VP4E]	S + SEEM/APPEAR/HAPPEN/CHANCE + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP4F]	S + BE + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP5]	S + anomalous finite + infinitive
[VP6A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun
[VP6B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun
[VP6C]	S + <i>vt</i> + gerund
[VP6D]	S + <i>vt</i> + gerund
[VP6E]	S + NEED/WANT/BEAR + gerund (passive meaning)
[VP7A]	S + <i>vt</i> + (<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP7B]	S + HAVE/OUGHT + (<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP8]	S + <i>vt</i> + interrogative pronoun/adverb + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP9]	S + <i>vt</i> + <i>that</i> -clause
[VP10]	S + <i>vt</i> + dependent clause/question
[VP11]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + <i>that</i> -clause
[VP12A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (I O) + noun/pronoun (D O)
[VP12B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (I O) + noun/pronoun (D O)
[VP12C]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + noun/pronoun
[VP13A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + <i>to</i> + noun/pronoun
[VP13B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + <i>for</i> + noun/pronoun
[VP14]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + preposition + noun/pronoun
[VP15A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + adverbial phrase
[VP15B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + adverbial particle
	S + <i>vt</i> + adverbial particle + noun/pronoun (D O)
[VP16A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP16B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + <i>as/like/as if</i> + noun/clause
[VP17A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + (<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP17B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + (<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP18A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + infinitive
[VP18B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + infinitive
[VP18C]	S + HAVE + noun/pronoun + infinitive
[VP19A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + present participle
[VP19B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + present participle
[VP19C]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun/possessive + <i>-ing</i> form of the verb
[VP20]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + interrogative + <i>to</i> -infinitive
[VP21]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun + dependent clause/question
[VP22]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + adjective
[VP23A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + noun (object complement)
[VP23B]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (I O) + noun (subject complement)
[VP24A]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + past participle
[VP24B]	S + HAVE + noun/pronoun (D O) + past participle
[VP24C]	S + HAVE/GET + noun/pronoun (D O) + past participle
[VP25]	S + <i>vt</i> + noun/pronoun (D O) + (<i>to be</i>) + adjective/noun

Verb Patterns 1 to 5

These are patterns for intransitive verbs (*vi*), i.e. verbs that do not take an object.

Verb Pattern 1

- [VP1] 1.32 This pattern illustrates the verb *be*. The nominal part of the predicate may be a noun, a pronoun, a possessive, an adjective, an adverb or adverbial phrase, a prepositional group, an infinitive or infinitive phrase, or a clause. There are variations of the pattern with introductory *there* and *it*. This table gives examples in which the nominal part of the predicate (or the subject complement) is a noun or pronoun (including the gerund), and, in questions, interrogative pronouns.

Table 1

subject + BE	noun/pronoun
1 <i>This is</i>	<i>a book.</i>
2 <i>His father is</i>	<i>a lawyer.</i>
3 <i>The total was</i>	<i>seventy-three.</i>
4 <i>Seeing is</i>	<i>believing.</i>
5 <i>The boys were</i>	<i>about the same height.</i>
6 <i>Parts of my house are</i>	<i>15th century.</i>
7 <i>It's</i>	<i>me.</i>
8 <i>That's</i>	<i>mine.</i>
9 <i>Whether he will agree is</i>	<i>another question.</i>
10 <i>Those shoes are not</i>	<i>my size.</i>
interrogative	BE + subject
11 <i>Who</i>	<i>is that?</i>
12 <i>What colour</i>	<i>is her hair?</i>
13 <i>What age</i>	<i>is she?</i>
14 <i>What</i>	<i>are cabbages today?</i>

Note

In 14 *What* means 'What price?', 'How much?'

- 1.33 This gives examples in which the nominal part of the predicate (or the subject complement) is an adjective. The adjective may be participial. 7 to 11 are examples of adjectives which are used only predicatively.

Table 2

subject + BE	adjective (phrase)
1 <i>It was</i>	<i>dark.</i>
2 <i>We're</i>	<i>ready.</i>
3 <i>The children were</i>	<i>exhausted.</i>
4 <i>The statue will be</i>	<i>life-size.</i>
5 <i>Mary's</i>	<i>charming.</i>
6 <i>That he will refuse is</i>	<i>most unlikely.</i>
7 <i>Don't be</i>	<i>afraid</i>
8 <i>The children are</i>	<i>asleep.</i>
9 <i>Is he still</i>	<i>alive?</i>
10 <i>I was not</i>	<i>aware of that.</i>
11 <i>The ship is still</i>	<i>afloat.</i>

Note

Some adjectives in the predicate may be used with a *to*-infinitive, as in *Mary is easy/anxious to please*. For ways in which this pattern may in some cases be recomposed with *it*, see APIA and APIB (3.71-2).

- 1.34 In this Table there are prepositional groups which are equivalent to adjectives or possessive pronouns.

Table 3

subject + BE	prepositional group
1 <i>She's</i>	<i>in good health (= well).</i>
2 <i>Your memory's</i>	<i>at fault (= faulty).</i>
3 <i>We were all</i>	<i>out of breath (= breathless).</i>
4 <i>At last he was</i>	<i>at liberty (= free).</i>
5 <i>This poem's</i>	<i>beyond me (= too difficult).</i>
6 <i>We are not yet</i>	<i>out of danger (= safe).</i>
7 <i>The question is</i>	<i>of no importance (= unimportant).</i>
8 <i>Everything's</i>	<i>in good order.</i>
9 <i>The machine's</i>	<i>out of order.</i>
10 <i>This letter's</i>	<i>for you.</i>

Note

Equivalents are given in parentheses in some cases. In 8 and 9 we may substitute *working well* and *not working*. In 10 we may substitute *intended for you* (not the same as *yours*).

1.35 In this table there is an adverbial adjunct.

Table 4

	subject + BE	adverbial adjunct
1	Your friend's	here.
2	The book you're looking for is	here.
3	The others are	there.
4	It's	there.
5	The train's	in.
6	The concert was	over.
7	The whole scheme is	off.
8	My house is	near the station.
9	Everything between them was	at an end.
10	A plan of the town is	on page 23.
11	Was anyone	up?

Note

Here and *there* usually have end position. They may have front position in exclamatory style and *there* has the strong form /ðeə(r)/.

- 1 *Here's your friend!* /'hi:z jɔ: ,frend/
- 2 *Here's the book you're looking for!* /'hi:z ðə bʊk jɔ: ,lʊkɪŋ fɔ:/
- 3 *There are the others!* /'ðeə ə ðɪ ,ʌðəz/
- 4 *There it is!* /'ðeə ɪt ,ɪz/

10 and 11 may be rewritten:

There's a /ðəzə/ *plan of the town on page 23.*
Was there anyone up?

These are examples of the pattern in Table 5, below, and must be distinguished from the use of *there* (strong form) used in exclamatory style. *There*, as illustrated in Table 5, has the weak form /ðə(r)/.

1.36 This table illustrates the verb *be* with introductory *there* (weak form /ðə(r)/), without a complement. Compare VP2A, in which there is no complement (e.g. *Fishes swim*). Instead of **No wind was* we have *There was no wind*.

Table 5

	there + BE	subject
1	There was	a large crowd.
2	There won't be	enough time.

3	There's	no doubt about it.
4	There's	still time for us to see the film.
5	There's been	too much idle gossip.
6	There's	no accounting for tastes.
7	There's	a man waiting to see you.
8	There was	every reason for him to be satisfied.
9	There are still	many things worth fighting for.
10	There can be	very little doubt about his guilt.
11	There can't have been	much traffic so late at night.
12	There have been	many such incidents.
13	There must be	a mistake somewhere.
14	There's	only one man qualified for the job.

Note

6 illustrates the use of *no* and a gerund to indicate impossibility: *It's impossible to account for tastes.*

1.37 This table illustrates the use of *be* with introductory *there* (weak form /ðə(r)/) and an adverbial adjunct.

Table 6

	there + BE	subject	adverbial adjunct
1	There are	three windows	in this room.
2	There was	a thunderstorm	in the night.
3	There are	several hotels	in this town.
4	Are there	many apples	on your trees this year?
5	There's	a plan of the town	on page 23.
6	There are	some problems	here.

Note

Sentences in this pattern may be recomposed as in Table 4, but the pattern illustrated above is more usual, especially in speech. A periodical may have a map to illustrate an article, and the note: *A map is on page 23*. In speech it is more usual to say: *There's a map on page 23*.

1.38 When the subject is an infinitive, or an infinitive phrase (which may be active or passive), a construction with introductory *it* is preferred. Instead of *To try was useless* we have *It was useless to try*. In these examples the nominal part of the predicate (the subject complement) is an adjective or a noun.

Table 7

	<i>it + BE</i>	adjective/noun	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>It's</i>	<i>so nice</i>	<i>to sit here with you.</i>
2	<i>It would have been</i>	<i>much wiser</i>	<i>to reduce speed.</i>
3	<i>It's</i>	<i>a pity</i>	<i>to waste them.</i>
4	<i>It would be</i>	<i>a mistake</i>	<i>to ignore their advice.</i>
5	<i>It's</i>	<i>such a relief</i>	<i>to hear you laughing again.</i>
6	<i>It was</i>	<i>a pleasant surprise</i>	<i>to be told that I'd been promoted.</i>
7	<i>It's</i>	<i>no exaggeration</i>	<i>to say that no actor has surpassed him in the part of Othello.</i>

Note

The word order may vary for stylistic reasons, for example to improve the balance of the sentence:

Anything less likely to win their approval it is impossible to conceive.

Here the object of *conceive* has front position for prominence.

- 39 This table gives examples of sentences in Table 7 converted into exclamatory style with *how* and *what*. *It is (was, etc)* may be omitted.

Table 8

	<i>how/what</i>	adjective/noun	(<i>it + BE</i>)	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>How</i>	<i>nice</i>	(<i>it is</i>)	<i>to sit here with you!</i>
2	<i>How</i>	<i>much wiser</i>	(<i>it would have been</i>)	<i>to reduce speed!</i>
3	<i>What</i>	<i>a pity</i>	(<i>it is</i>)	<i>to waste them!</i>
4	<i>What</i>	<i>a mistake</i>	(<i>it would be</i>)	<i>to ignore their advice!</i>
5	<i>What</i>	<i>a pleasant surprise</i>	(<i>it was</i>)	<i>to be told that I'd been promoted.</i>

- 1.40 Introductory *it* is used when the subject is a gerund or a gerundial phrase.

Table 9

	<i>it + BE</i>	adjective/noun	gerund (phrase)
1	<i>It's</i>	<i>so nice</i>	<i>sitting here with you.</i>
2	<i>It's</i>	<i>no good</i>	<i>hoping for help from the authorities.</i>
3	<i>It won't be</i>	<i>much good</i>	<i>complaining to them.</i>
4	<i>It wouldn't be</i>	<i>any good</i>	<i>my talking to him.</i>
5	<i>It's</i>	<i>no good</i>	<i>crying over spilt milk.</i>
6	<i>it was</i>	<i>a difficult business</i>	<i>getting everything ready in time.</i>
7	<i>It's</i>	<i>wonderful</i>	<i>lying on the beach all day.</i>
8	<i>It wasn't</i>	<i>much use</i>	<i>my pretending I didn't know the rules.</i>
9	<i>It's not</i>	<i>worth while</i>	<i>losing your temper.</i>
10	<i>It was really</i>	<i>worth while</i>	<i>running that youth club last year.</i>
11	<i>It isn't</i>	<i>much fun</i>	<i>being a lighthouse keeper.</i>

Note

Some of these sentences may be recomposed in the construction: *for + noun/pronoun + to*-infinitive, as illustrated in Table 13.

- 4 *It wouldn't be any good for me to talk to him.*
 8 *It wasn't much use for me to pretend (that) I didn't know the rules.*

- 1.41 The subject complement of the sentence may be a clause.

Table 10

	subject + BE	clause
1	<i>The trouble is</i>	(<i>that</i>) <i>all the shops are shut.</i>
2	<i>Is this</i>	<i>what you're looking for?</i>
3	<i>What delighted me</i>	<i>that they were singing for the pure joy of it.</i>
	<i>most was</i>	
4	<i>Everything was</i>	<i>as we had left it.</i>
5	<i>This is</i>	<i>where I work.</i>
6	<i>My suggestion is</i>	(<i>that</i>) <i>we should plant more trees in the streets.</i>

Note

6 may be recomposed: *My suggestion is for more trees to be planted in the streets.*

Another example of this subject + BE + *for* + noun + *to*-infinitive construction: *The tendency is for certain vowels to be weakened in rapid speech.*

- 1.42 When a clause is the subject of a sentence, introductory *it* is used. *That* is often omitted. The examples have nouns and adjectives as the nominal parts of the predicate.

Table 11

	<i>it</i> + BE	noun/adjective	clause
1	<i>It was</i>	<i>a pity</i>	<i>(that) you couldn't come.</i>
2	<i>It was</i>	<i>lucky</i>	<i>(that) you left when you did.</i>
3	<i>It's</i>	<i>strange</i>	<i>he should have said that.</i>
4	<i>It's</i>	<i>possible</i>	<i>he didn't get your message.</i>
5	<i>It's</i>	<i>splendid news</i>	<i>that you've found a job.</i>
6	<i>It's</i>	<i>likely</i>	<i>(that) they'll announce their engagement soon.</i>
7	<i>It was</i>	<i>a mystery</i>	<i>how the burglars got in.</i>
8	<i>It's</i>	<i>doubtful</i>	<i>whether he'll be able to come.</i>
9	<i>It'll be</i>	<i>a great day</i>	<i>when the peace treaty is signed.</i>
10	<i>It'll be</i>	<i>a long time</i>	<i>before we ask him round again.</i>
11	<i>It would be</i>	<i>sad</i>	<i>if that happened.</i>
12	<i>It's</i>	<i>time</i>	<i>you started.</i>
13	<i>It's</i>	<i>high time</i>	<i>the children were in bed.</i>
14	<i>It's</i>	<i>time</i>	<i>you did some work.</i>

Note

That is normally omitted after *(high) time*, as in 12, 13 and 14.

- 1.43 The verb *be* may be followed by an infinitive or an infinitive phrase (active or passive) as the nominal part of the predicate.

Table 12

	subject + BE	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>This house is</i>	<i>to let.</i>
2	<i>The best is yet</i>	<i>to come.</i>
3	<i>What's</i>	<i>to pay?</i>
4	<i>Who's</i>	<i>to blame?</i>
5	<i>The causes are not far</i>	<i>to seek.</i>
6	<i>You're</i>	<i>to be congratulated.</i>
7	<i>My aim was</i>	<i>to help you.</i>
8	<i>To know her is</i>	<i>to like her.</i>

- 9 *All you have to do is* *to fit the pieces together.*
 10 *The thing to do is* *to pretend you didn't hear.*
 11 *His greatest pleasure is* *to sit in the pub talking to his friends.*

Note

- 1 *To let* has a passive meaning—'to be let'.
 3 More usually: *How much is there to pay?*
 4 Also: *Who's to be blamed?*
 5 = *One need not go far to find the causes.*

- 1.44 Introductory *it* is used when the subject is the *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive construction.

Table 13

	<i>it</i> + BE	adjective/noun	<i>for</i> + noun/ pronoun	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>It was</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>for him</i>	<i>to live on his small pension.</i>
2	<i>Is it</i>	<i>easy</i>	<i>for a rich widow</i>	<i>to find a handsome husband?</i>
3	<i>It was</i>	<i>unusual</i>	<i>for a Victorian lady</i>	<i>to earn her own living.</i>
4	<i>It's</i>	<i>no uncommon thing</i>	<i>for her husband</i>	<i>to be away for weeks at a time.</i>
5	<i>It was</i>	<i>the rule</i>	<i>for men and women</i>	<i>to sit apart.</i>
6	<i>Isn't it</i>	<i>a relief</i>	<i>for us</i>	<i>to be alone together at last!</i>
7	<i>It'll be</i>	<i>quite all right</i>	<i>for you</i>	<i>to leave early.</i>
8	<i>It's</i>	<i>impossible</i>	<i>for there</i>	<i>to be a happier family.</i>
9	<i>Isn't it</i>	<i>more reasonable</i>	<i>for young people</i>	<i>to wear what they like?</i>
10	<i>It's</i>	<i>difficult</i>	<i>for anyone</i>	<i>to be angry with her.</i>
11	<i>It would be</i>	<i>wrong</i>	<i>for these first offenders</i>	<i>to be sent to a prison where there are hardened criminals.</i>

Note

The construction with introductory *it* is generally used when the subject (*for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive) is long. This form of subject may, however, have front position. Compare:

- Isn't it only right for women to receive the same pay as men for the same work?*
For women to receive the same pay as men for the same work is only right.

When the nominal part of the predicate is an adjective, exclamatory *how* may be used; when it is a noun, exclamatory *what a* may be used.

- 1 *How hard it was for him to live on his small pension!*
 6 *What a relief it is for us to be alone together at last!*
 10 *How difficult it is for anyone to be angry with her!*

Verb Pattern 2

Many verbs may be used without a complement or adjunct. In the sentence *Fishes swim*, the finite *swim* is the complete predicate. The pattern is subdivided.

- [VP2A] 1.45 There are no adjuncts in the sentences in this table. Adjuncts are optional. Compare:

We all breathe.
He was breathing heavily.

Table 14

subject	vi
1 <i>We all</i>	<i>breathe, drink and eat.</i>
2 <i>The sun</i>	<i>was shining.</i>
3 <i>The moon</i>	<i>rose.</i>
4 <i>It</i>	<i>was raining.</i>
5 <i>That</i>	<i>will do.</i>
6 <i>Who</i>	<i>cares?</i>
7 <i>A period of political unrest</i>	<i>followed.</i>
8 <i>Everything</i>	<i>fits.</i>
9 <i>The car</i>	<i>won't start.</i>
10 <i>Whether we start now or later</i>	<i>doesn't matter.</i>

Note

See Table 16 for conversions with introductory *it*.

- 1.46 Inversion of subject and finite after introductory *there* is common when the subject is indefinite and is a long noun phrase.

Table 15

<i>there + vi</i>	subject
1 <i>There followed</i>	<i>a long period of peace and prosperity.</i>
2 <i>At a later stage there arose</i>	<i>new problems which seemed insoluble.</i>
3 <i>There comes</i>	<i>a time when we feel we must make a protest.</i>
4 <i>Later there developed</i>	<i>a demand for new and improved methods.</i>
5 <i>There entered</i>	<i>a strange little man.</i>

Note

1 Cf *A period of peace followed*. The subject has four words. The subject in the Table has eight words, so the construction with *there* is preferred.

5 *A strange little man entered* is normal. The inversion is more typical of literary style.

- 1.47 When the subject is a clause or an infinitive phrase introductory *it* may be used.

Table 16

<i>it + vi</i>	subject (clause/to-infinitive phrase)
1 <i>Does it matter</i>	<i>when we start?</i>
2 <i>It does not matter</i>	<i>whether we start now or later.</i>
3 <i>It only remains</i>	<i>to wish you both happiness.</i>
4 <i>It only remains</i>	<i>for me to thank all those who have helped to make this re-union such a happy occasion.</i>
5 <i>It wouldn't have done</i>	<i>to turn down his request.</i>

Note

5 *do* here means 'be fitting or tolerable'.

- 1.48 *That*-clauses occur after *seem*, *appear*, *happen*, *chance* and *follow*, with introductory *it*. Instead of **That he has been ill appears*, we have *It appears that he has been ill*. *It seems / seemed / appears / appeared* may have mid position, or occasionally end position, equivalent to the adverbs *seemingly* and *apparently*.

Table 17

<i>it + vi</i>	subject (<i>that</i> -clause)
1 <i>It would seem</i>	<i>(that) the rumours have some truth in them.</i>
2 <i>It seemed</i>	<i>(that) the day would never end.</i>
3 <i>It seems</i>	<i>(that) the socialists will be elected.</i>
4 <i>It appears</i>	<i>(that) the plane did not land at Rome.</i>
5 <i>It seems (to me)</i>	<i>(that) you're not really interested.</i>
6 <i>It (so) happened</i>	<i>that I was not in London at the time.</i>
7 <i>It (so) chanced</i>	<i>that we weren't in when she called.</i>
8 <i>It doesn't follow</i>	<i>that he's to blame.</i>

Note

- 3 An alternative is: *The socialists will be elected, it seems.*
 4 An alternative is: *The plane, it appears, did not land at Rome.*

The verbs *seem*, *appear*, *happen* and *chance* may also be used in VP4D, i.e. with a *to*-infinitive.

- 3 *The socialists seem to have been elected.*
 5 *You don't seem to be really interested.*
 6 *I happened to be out of London at the time.*
 7 *We chanced to be out when she called.*

- [VP2B] 1.49 In the sentences in this table the verb is used with an adverbial adjunct of distance, duration, weight, price, etc. Before adverbials of distance and duration *for* may occur, but is often omitted. In the sentence *We weighed and measured the box* both verbs are transitive. In the sentence *The box weighs 1.6 kilos and measures 35 cm x 25 cm*, the verbs are intransitive. In the sentence *The book costs £1.50*, the verb is intransitive. *Cost* is transitive in commercial use, as in *to cost a book*, i.e. estimate and determine the cost of producing it. With *cost*, *take* (meaning 'require' or 'need') and *last* (meaning 'continue to be usable or adequate for'), an indirect object may occur after the verb, as in sentences 10, 15, 18 and 19.

Table 18

subject + <i>vi</i>	(<i>for</i>) + adverbial adjunct
1 <i>We walked</i>	(<i>for</i>) <i>five miles.</i>
2 <i>He has travelled</i>	<i>thousands of miles.</i>
3 <i>They had come/gone</i>	<i>a long way.</i>
4 <i>The forests stretch</i>	(<i>for</i>) <i>hundreds of miles.</i>
5 <i>He jumped</i>	<i>two metres.</i>
6 <i>The meeting lasted</i>	<i>two hours.</i>
7 <i>The play ran</i>	(<i>for</i>) <i>more than two years.</i>
8 <i>We waited</i>	(<i>for</i>) <i>half an hour.</i>
9 <i>Won't you stay</i>	(<i>for</i>) <i>the night?</i>
10 <i>The flowers cost (me)</i>	<i>fifty pence.</i>
11 <i>This box weighs</i>	<i>five kilos.</i>
12 <i>The thermometer rose</i>	<i>ten degrees.</i>
13 <i>The temperature fell</i>	<i>several degrees.</i>
14 <i>A little kindness goes</i>	<i>a long way.</i>
15 <i>Tuning the piano took (him)</i>	<i>three hours.</i>
16 <i>The top of the desk measures</i>	<i>one metre by two metres.</i>
17 <i>My watch loses</i>	<i>two minutes a day.</i>
18 <i>Will our stock of coal last (us)</i>	<i>the winter?</i>
19 <i>'Your heart is not strong', said the doctor, 'but it will last you</i>	<i>your lifetime.'</i>

Note

Be may replace *measure*, *weigh* and *cost*.

- 10 *The flowers are fifty pence.*
 11 *This box is five kilos.*
 16 *The top of the desk is one metre by two metres.*

- [VP2C] 1.50 This table provides examples of the many intransitive verbs (other than *be*, illustrated in Table 4) used with adverbial adjuncts, including adverbial clauses. The simplest form of the pattern is seen when the verb is used with an adverb or adverbial particle, as in sentences 1 to 5. The adverb may be followed by a preposition, as in sentences 6 to 10. When two or more adverbials occur (e.g. of time and place), their order has to be chosen. There are some sequences which are more usual than others. These are dealt with in Part Four (see 4.20-1). Adverbials of place and direction usually precede adverbials of time, as in: *We arrived here yesterday*. Cf VP3A in which the preposition is fixed.

Table 19

subject + <i>vi</i>	adverbial adjunct
1 <i>My hat blew</i>	<i>off.</i>
2 <i>Go</i>	<i>away!</i>
3 <i>Won't you sit</i>	<i>down?</i>
4 <i>Please come</i>	<i>in.</i>
5 <i>We must turn</i>	<i>back.</i>
6 <i>Go on—I'll soon catch</i>	<i>up with you.</i>
7 <i>It's getting</i>	<i>on for midnight.</i>
8 <i>He looked</i>	<i>up from his book.</i>
9 <i>Don't turn</i>	<i>aside from your chosen path.</i>
10 <i>I must push</i>	<i>on with my work.</i>
11 <i>She went</i>	<i>upstairs.</i>
12 <i>We didn't go</i>	<i>anywhere last week.</i>
13 <i>The toys were lying</i>	<i>all over the floor.</i>
14 <i>We talked</i>	<i>face to face.</i>
15 <i>I shall go</i>	<i>by train/car/on foot.</i>
16 <i>He backed</i>	<i>into/out of the garage.</i>
17 <i>Consumption averaged</i>	<i>out at 200 gallons a day.</i>
18 <i>They were fighting</i>	<i>tooth and nail.</i>
19 <i>It looks</i>	<i>like rain.</i>
20 <i>It looks</i>	<i>as if it were going to rain.</i>
21 <i>He looks</i>	<i>as though he had seen a ghost.</i>
22 <i>He behaves</i>	<i>as if he owned the place.</i>
23 <i>She's working</i>	<i>as a tourist guide.</i>
24 <i>Do you think I could pass</i>	<i>as a Frenchman?</i>

Note

When the subject is long and indefinite, a construction with introductory *there* may be preferable. Compare:

- A feeling of affection grew up between them.*
There grew up between the two men a feeling of warm affection.

In some combinations, the adverbial particle may have front position, resulting in an exclamatory sentence or a lively (informal) imperative. Compare:

- They went off. Off they went!*
She went away. Away she went!
Please go in. In you go!
Please come out. Out you come!

This alternative pattern is dealt with in 4.23.

Not all combinations of verb and adverbial particle can be used in this alternative pattern. *He looked out* is normal, **Out he looked* is not. *He waited about* is normal, **About he waited* is not. In the examples above, with the adverbial particle in front position, the verbs indicate movement. The verbs *look* and *wait* do not indicate movement.

The adverbs *here* and *there* have front position in exclamatory sentences.

When the subject is a personal pronoun, it precedes the verb:

- Here they come! There she goes! There they go!*

When the subject is not a personal pronoun, it follows the verb:

- Here comes the station bus!*
Here come the other members of the party!

After verbs indicating movement, e.g. *come, go, walk, run*, the adverb *home* is used:

- They went/ran all the way home.*

After verbs which do not indicate movement, *at home* is needed:

- I'll stay/remain at home this evening.*

- [VP2D] 1.51 Inchoative verbs are used in this pattern with an adjective as complement or predicative of result. A small number of examples is given here. For a fuller treatment of these verbs, see 2.69-70.

Table 20

subject + <i>vi</i>	adjective
1 <i>The leaves are turning</i>	<i>brown.</i>
2 <i>Don't get</i>	<i>angry.</i>
3 <i>He's growing</i>	<i>old.</i>
4 <i>Her dreams have come</i>	<i>true.</i>
5 <i>The meat has gone</i>	<i>bad.</i>

6 <i>The milk turned</i>	<i>sour.</i>
7 <i>The well has run</i>	<i>dry.</i>
8 <i>She fell</i>	<i>ill.</i>
9 <i>The position of headmaster has fallen</i>	<i>vacant.</i>
10 <i>His jokes are becoming</i>	<i>boring.</i>
11 <i>The material is wearing</i>	<i>thin.</i>

Note

After *come*, past participles in *un-* occur in this pattern:

- My shoelace/This knot has come undone.*
The flap of the envelope came unstuck.

- 1.52 The verbs of the senses (*smell, taste, feel*) are used in this pattern.

Table 21

subject + <i>vi</i>	adjective
1 <i>The dinner smells</i>	<i>good.</i>
2 <i>These roses do smell</i>	<i>sweet!</i>
3 <i>Silk feels</i>	<i>soft and smooth.</i>
4 <i>The pheasant tasted</i>	<i>delicious.</i>
5 <i>This medicine tastes</i>	<i>horrible.</i>

- 1.53 The sentences in this Table illustrate some of the many other verbs used in this pattern.

Table 22

subject + <i>vi</i>	adjective
1 <i>She married</i>	<i>young.</i>
2 <i>Please keep</i>	<i>quiet.</i>
3 <i>Do lie/stand/sit</i>	<i>still!</i>
4 <i>You're looking</i>	<i>lovely.</i>
5 <i>Everything looks/appears</i>	<i>different.</i>
6 <i>The door blew</i>	<i>open/shut.</i>
7 <i>I'm feeling</i>	<i>fine.</i>
8 <i>He remained</i>	<i>silent.</i>
9 <i>One of the tigers broke</i>	<i>loose.</i>
10 <i>The coin rang</i>	<i>true/false.</i>

Note

Many collocations of verb and adjectives are fixed, e.g. *marry young*, (never **marry old*), *sit tight* and *be sitting pretty* (both colloquial), *make certain/sure (of something)*.

- 1.54 The sentences in this table illustrate the use of past participles as adjectives in this pattern.

Table 23

	subject + <i>vi</i>	adjectival past participle
1	<i>You look</i>	<i>tired.</i>
2	<i>How did they become</i>	<i>acquainted?</i>
3	<i>You sound</i>	<i>surprised.</i>
4	<i>She looked</i>	<i>delighted/annoyed.</i>
5	<i>He appeared</i>	<i>perplexed.</i>

Note

The past participle is not used unless it is adjectival. *Tired* is adjectival, as in *a tired look*. *Killed* is not adjectival, and **He looked killed* is not English.

- 1.55 In this table the nominal part of the predicate is a noun, or, in a few cases, a reflexive pronoun. The inchoative verbs *fall*, *come* and *turn* are used in this pattern.

Table 24

	subject + <i>vi</i>	noun/ reflexive pronoun
1	<i>He died</i>	<i>a millionaire.</i>
2	<i>He lived and died</i>	<i>a bachelor.</i>
3	<i>Let us part</i>	<i>good friends.</i>
4	<i>He fell</i>	<i>(a) victim to her charms.</i>
5	<i>She will make</i>	<i>a good wife.</i>
6	<i>Peter and Eva make</i>	<i>a handsome couple.</i>
7	<i>The story of his adventures makes</i>	<i>fascinating reading.</i>
8	<i>He proved</i>	<i>a true friend.</i>
9	<i>She doesn't look</i>	<i>her age.</i>
10	<i>You're not looking</i>	<i>yourself today.</i>
11	<i>From these heated debates the Prime Minister emerged</i>	<i>victor.</i>
12	<i>On leaving school he became</i>	<i>a sailor.</i>
13	<i>Is it wise for a general to turn</i>	<i>politician?</i>

Notes

The first three examples may be recomposed with *be*.

- 1 *He was a millionaire when he died.*
- 2 *He was a bachelor all his life.*
- 3 *Let us be good friends as we part.*

Fall, in 4, is an inchoative verb. Cf *fall ill*, meaning 'become ill'. *Make*, in 5, 6 and 7, means 'prove to be', 'turn out to be', or simply 'be', so is included in this pattern, though many dictionaries mark *make* when used in this sense as a transitive verb.

Note that after *turn* (as in 13) no article is used before the noun.

- [VP2E] 1.56 This table illustrates the use of present participles or present participial phrases as predicative adjuncts.

Table 25

	subject + <i>vi</i>	present participle (phrase)
1	<i>The children came</i>	<i>running to meet us.</i>
2	<i>The birds came</i>	<i>hopping round my window.</i>
3	<i>He came</i>	<i>hurrying to her bedside as soon as he knew she was ill.</i>
4	<i>She lay</i>	<i>smiling at me.</i>
5	<i>Do you like to go</i>	<i>dancing?</i>
6	<i>He stood</i>	<i>addressing the strikers at the factory gate.</i>
7	<i>We soon got</i>	<i>talking.</i>
8	<i>The sunshine came</i>	<i>streaming through the window.</i>

Verb Pattern 3

- 1.57 There are many verbs which are used with prepositions so that the verb and preposition function as a unit. They may be called prepositional verbs. *Succeed* (like the noun *success* and the adjective *successful*) is used with *in*. *Rely* and *depend* are used with *on/upon*. Some verbs may be used with two or more prepositions: *complain to somebody about something*; *compare one thing to/with another thing*.

This pattern must be distinguished from VP2C (as in Table 19), where there may be an adverbial adjunct which is a prepositional phrase, as in: *The dog was lying on the floor/under the table/near the door/by the window, etc.*

[VP3A] 1.58 In this pattern the preposition may be followed by a noun, a pronoun, or a gerund.

Table 26

	subject + <i>vi</i>	preposition	noun/pronoun/gerund
1	<i>You can rely</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>me.</i>
2	<i>You can rely</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>my discretion.</i>
3	<i>You can rely</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>my being discreet.</i>
4	<i>Can I count</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>your help?</i>
5	<i>The success of the picnic will depend</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>the weather.</i>
6	<i>He succeeded</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>solving the problem.</i>
7	<i>Do you believe</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>getting up early?</i>
8	<i>He failed</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>his attempt.</i>
9	<i>What has happened</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>them?</i>
10	<i>We must send</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>a doctor.</i>

Note

When the verb is in the passive, the preposition follows the past participle.

- 1 *I can be relied on.*
10 *A doctor must be sent for.*

1.59 The preposition may be followed by a noun or pronoun and an infinitive complement.

Table 27

	subject + <i>vi</i>	preposition	noun/pronoun	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>They advertised</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>a young girl</i>	<i>to look after the children.</i>
2	<i>We're waiting</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>our new car</i>	<i>to be delivered.</i>
3	<i>They're hoping</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>the dispute</i>	<i>to be settled.</i>
4	<i>I rely</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>to be discreet.</i>
5	<i>I'll arrange</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>a taxi</i>	<i>to meet you at the station.</i>
6	<i>Everyone was longing</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>the holidays</i>	<i>to begin.</i>
7	<i>She always wished</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>to be happy.</i>
8	<i>I'll vote</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>to captain the team.</i>
9	<i>I appealed</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>the children</i>	<i>to make less noise.</i>
10	<i>She pleaded</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to give up the plan.</i>

Note

Verbs with *for* and an infinitive include *apply, arrange, ask, call, long, plan, plead, pray, prepare, provide, ring, send, telephone, vote, wait.*

This pattern may be compared with VP17 (transitive). By substituting a transitive verb for the prepositional verb, some of the sentences in this table may be recomposed in VP17.

- 3 *They want the dispute to be settled.*
5 *I'll order a taxi to meet you at the station.*
9 *I begged the children to make less noise.*
10 *She urged me to give up the plan.*

By substituting a noun (phrase) for the noun + infinitive phrase, some of the sentences may be recomposed in the simpler pattern of Table 26.

- 1 *They advertised for a nursemaid.*
2 *We're waiting for the delivery of our new car.*
3 *They're hoping for the settlement of the dispute.*
4 *I rely upon your discretion.*

When, in VP3A, the subject is a *that*-clause, introductory *it* is used.

It occurred to me that you might like to know what has been planned.

Has it ever occurred to you that she might not wish to marry you?

Note the order in relative clauses.

- I can rely on that man.*
He is a man I can rely on.
He is a man on whom I can rely.

- What was the proposal you consented to?*
What was the proposal to which you consented?

[VP3B] 1.60 In some cases a verb which is used with a preposition followed by a noun may be used with a *that*-clause, the preposition being omitted. Compare:

- He insists on his innocence.*
He insists that he is innocent.

So far as word order is concerned VP3B is like VP9 for transitive verbs. Some dictionaries and grammar books list some of the verbs in this table, in the senses used here, as transitive verbs.

With the exception of such conjunctive phrases as *in that, save that, notwithstanding that* (meaning 'except for the fact that', rarely used except in legal style), prepositions do not take *that*-clauses as objects. In the table there are examples in which the preposition is retained, followed by *it*, (see 5 to 9).

The preposition may be followed by a dependent question or a clause introduced by *what*. In such cases the preposition may be omitted or retained. It is usually omitted in colloquial and informal style.

Table 28

subject + <i>vi</i>	(preposition) (+ <i>it</i>)	clause
1 <i>He insists</i>		<i>that he was nowhere near the scene of the crime.</i>
2 <i>I agree</i>		<i>that it was a mistake.</i>
3 <i>He complained</i>		<i>that he had been underpaid.</i>
4 <i>He boasted</i>		<i>that he had never had a serious illness.</i>
5 <i>We'll see</i>	(<i>to it</i>)	<i>that she gets home early.</i>
6 <i>We'll see</i>	(<i>to it</i>)	<i>that these old folk get better pensions.</i>
7 <i>Can you swear</i>	(<i>to it</i>)	<i>that the accused man was at your house that evening?</i>
8 <i>You may depend</i>	<i>upon it</i>	<i>that the newspaper accounts are exaggerated.</i>
9 <i>I'll answer</i>	<i>for it</i>	<i>that this man is honest.</i>
10 <i>Have you decided</i>	(<i>on</i>)	<i>where you'll spend your holidays?</i>
11 <i>Everything depends</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>whether they've got the courage of their convictions.</i>
12 <i>I don't care</i>		<i>whether he approves or disapproves.</i>
13 <i>Who cares</i>		<i>what the neighbours might say?</i>
14 <i>I'm worried</i>	(<i>about</i>)	<i>how the money was spent.</i>
15 <i>They couldn't agree</i>	(<i>about</i>)	<i>who should do the work.</i>
16 <i>I hesitated</i>	(<i>about</i>)	<i>whether to accept the invitation.</i>
17 <i>It was hard to decide</i>	(<i>on</i>)	<i>where to go for help.</i>
18 <i>Just look</i>	(<i>at</i>)	<i>what you've done!</i>

Note

Compare the sentences below, in which the verbs are clearly VP3B.

- 2 *I agree with you about its being a mistake.*
- 3 *He complained of being underpaid.*
- 4 *He boasted of never having had a serious illness.*
- 7 *Can you swear to his having been in your house that evening?*
- 9 *I'll answer for this man's honesty.*
- 11 *Everything depends on their having the courage of their convictions.*

Say is a transitive verb, so the sentence *Please say where you want to go* is an example of VP10. *Wonder* is used with the preposition *about*, as in *I'm wondering (about) where to go for the holidays.*

Wonder may be considered a borderline case, either VP3 or VP10.

Mr A: *I wonder why Jane hasn't come.*

Mrs A: *I was wondering about that, too.*

The use of *about* before a dependent question is not usual.

Verb Pattern 4

- 1.61 Transitive verbs are used with a *to*-infinitive; this is VP7. Intransitive verbs are also used with a *to*-infinitive, as in VP4. The pattern is subdivided.

- [VP4A] 1.62 The infinitive is one of purpose, outcome, or result.

Table 29

subject + <i>vi</i>	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>We stopped</i>	<i>to have a rest.</i>
2 <i>We went</i>	<i>to hear the concert.</i>
3 <i>He got up</i>	<i>to answer the phone.</i>
4 <i>She stood up</i>	<i>to see better.</i>
5 <i>Someone has called</i>	<i>to see you.</i>
6 <i>They ran</i>	<i>to help the injured man.</i>
7 <i>I come</i>	<i>to bury Caesar, not to praise him.</i>
8 <i>He came</i>	<i>to see that he was mistaken.</i>
9 <i>How do you come</i>	<i>to know that?</i>
10 <i>Now that I come</i>	<i>to think of it . . .</i>
11 <i>How can I get</i>	<i>to know her?</i>
12 <i>The swimmer failed</i>	<i>to reach the shore.</i>
13 <i>Will he live</i>	<i>to be ninety?</i>
14 <i>I hope I live</i>	<i>to see men on Mars.</i>
15 <i>The people grew</i>	<i>to believe that she was a witch.</i>
16 <i>We stand</i>	<i>to lose a large sum of money.</i>
17 <i>It was so dark we couldn't see</i>	<i>to read.</i>

Note

In sentences 1 to 7, *to* = *in order to*, indicating purpose.

8 may be paraphrased: *He eventually saw that he was mistaken, or The time came when he saw that he was mistaken.*

11 means *How can I make her acquaintance?*

16 means *We are in a position where we may lose a large sum of money.*

[VP4B] 1.63 The infinitive adjunct may be equivalent to a clause (co-ordinate or subordinate).

Table 30

	subject + <i>vi</i>	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>He turned</i>	<i>to see the sun setting.</i>
2	<i>The drunken man awoke</i>	<i>to find himself in a ditch.</i>
3	<i>The good old days have gone</i>	<i>never to return.</i>
4	<i>Electronic music has come</i>	<i>to stay.</i>
5	<i>He glanced up</i>	<i>to see the door slowly opening.</i>

Note

2 = *He awoke and found . . . or When he awoke he found . . .*

3 = *The good old days have gone and will never return.*

4 = *. . . has come and will stay.*

[VP4C] 1.64 The infinitive adjunct also follows some verbs which are otherwise used with prepositions (as in VP3A). The word order is the same as that in VP7.

Table 31

	subject + <i>vi</i>	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>Don't bother/trouble</i>	<i>to meet me.</i>
2	<i>She hesitated</i>	<i>to tell anyone.</i>
3	<i>They agreed</i>	<i>not to oppose my plan.</i>
4	<i>She was longing</i>	<i>to see her family again.</i>
5	<i>Would you care</i>	<i>to go/come for a walk with me?</i>
6	<i>Harry aims</i>	<i>to become a computer expert.</i>
7	<i>Will she consent/agree</i>	<i>to marry him?</i>
8	<i>She shuddered</i>	<i>to think of it.</i>
9	<i>We all rejoiced</i>	<i>to hear of your success.</i>

Notes

Here are alternative constructions (VP3A) with prepositions.

1 *Don't bother/trouble about meeting me.*

2 *She hesitated about telling anyone.*

3 *They agreed to my plan.*

5 *Would you care for a walk with me?*

6 *Harry aims at becoming a computer expert.*

8 *She shuddered at the thought of it.*

9 *We all rejoiced at the news of your success.*

[VP4D] 1.65 The verbs *seem*, *appear* and *prove* are used with a *to*-infinitive. If the infinitive is *be*, with an adjective or noun as subject complement, *to be* may be omitted, as in:

This seems (to be) important.

This appears (to be) an important matter.

The wound proved fatal.

Their inquiries proved hopeless.

If, however, the adjective is used only predicatively, *to be* is not omitted.

The baby seems to be asleep/awake.

He seems to be afraid. (Cf He seemed frightened.)

A past participle may follow if it is adjectival.

He seemed (to be) disappointed.

When the *-ing* form of a verb occurs in this pattern, it is the verbal present participle, not the participial adjective, and *to be* is not omitted. For examples of this pattern, see VP4E, Table 34.

In VP4D *to* and a noun or pronoun may occur, either after the verb (as in sentence 4), or, for prominence, in front position (as in sentence 5).

Table 32

	subject + <i>seem/appear</i>	(<i>to be</i>) + adjective/noun
1	<i>He seemed</i>	<i>(to be) surprised at the news.</i>
2	<i>She seems</i>	<i>(to be) so young.</i>
3	<i>This seems</i>	<i>(to be) a serious matter.</i>
4	<i>The situation seemed (to us)</i>	<i>(to be) quite hopeless.</i>
5	<i>(To me) his new book doesn't appear</i>	<i>(to be) as interesting as his others.</i>
6	<i>His happiness seems</i>	<i>(to be) complete.</i>
7	<i>He doesn't seem</i>	<i>(to be) able to cope any more.</i>
8	<i>I seem</i>	<i>(to be) unable to solve this problem.</i>
9	<i>He seemed</i>	<i>(to be) unable to get out of the habit.</i>

The last two sentences can be recomposed, colloquial style, with *can/could*.

8 *I can't seem to solve this problem.*

9 *He couldn't seem to get out of the habit.*

1.66 Introductory *it* is used with *seem* and *appear* when the subject is an infinitive or gerundial phrase, a clause, etc. *To be* is, in this pattern, usually omitted.

Table 33

<i>it + seem/appear</i>	adjective/noun	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)/ gerund (phrase)/ clause
1 <i>It seemed</i>	<i>pointless</i>	<i>to go any farther.</i>
2 <i>It seems</i>	<i>a pity</i>	<i>to waste them.</i>
3 <i>It seemed (to me)</i>	<i>wise</i>	<i>not to ask too many questions.</i>
4 <i>It doesn't seem</i>	<i>much good/use</i>	<i>going on.</i>
5 <i>It appears</i>	<i>unlikely</i>	<i>that we shall arrive in time.</i>
6 <i>It seems</i>	<i>probable</i>	<i>that I'll be sent abroad next year.</i>

- [VP4E] 1.67 The verbs *seem*, *appear*, *happen* and *chance* are used with a *to*-infinitive. Table 32 (for VP4D) illustrates the use of *seem* and *appear* with the (usual) omission of *to be* when followed by a complement which is an adjective or noun. If, however, the adjective is used only predicatively (as *awake*, *afraid*, etc), *to be* is not omitted. Table 34 illustrates the use of *seem* and *appear* followed by *to be* and a predicative adjective of this class (e.g. *to be asleep*), a verbal present participle (e.g. *to be sleeping*), a verbal past participle (e.g. *to be expected*), a perfect infinitive (e.g. *to have enjoyed*) or a perfect passive infinitive (e.g. *to have been enjoyed*). It also illustrates *seem* and *appear* with infinitives other than *be*, and the use of *happen* and *chance* in this pattern.

Table 34

subject + <i>seem/appear/happen/chance</i>	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>The baby seems</i>	<i>to be asleep.</i>
2 <i>You seem</i>	<i>to be enjoying the party.</i>
3 <i>The electorate seems</i>	<i>to be swinging against Labour.</i>
4 <i>Some sort of answer seems</i>	<i>to be expected of me.</i>
5 <i>The survey appears</i>	<i>to have revealed some interesting facts.</i>
6 <i>My inquiries appear</i>	<i>to have been resented.</i>
7 <i>Some members of the Committee seem</i>	<i>to have been bribed.</i>
8 <i>I seem</i>	<i>to remember meeting him somewhere.</i>
9 <i>He appears</i>	<i>to have many friends.</i>
10 <i>She happened</i>	<i>to be out when I called.</i>
11 <i>If you ever happen</i>	<i>to be in Leeds, come and see me.</i>
12 <i>We chanced</i>	<i>to meet in the park that morning.</i>

Note

The sentence **The baby seems asleep* is not English. Cf *The baby seems quite happy/satisfied*, which is VP4D. Conversion to VP2A (Table 17) is possible in some cases.

- 7 *It seems that some members of the committee have been bribed.*
9 *It appears that he has many friends.*

With *happen*, *so* may be used.

- 10 *It (so) happened that she was out when I called.*

- [VP4F] 1.68 The finites of *be* are used with a *to*-infinitive to indicate an arrangement either by agreement or as the result of a request or an order. The interrogative may be equivalent to a question about someone's wishes.

Table 35

subject + BE	<i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>John and I are</i>	<i>to meet at the station at six o'clock.</i>
2 <i>We're</i>	<i>to be married in May.</i>
3 <i>We were</i>	<i>to have been married last year.</i>
4 <i>At what time am I</i>	<i>to come?</i>
5 <i>When am I</i>	<i>to ring you up?</i>
6 <i>Am I</i>	<i>to stand here for ever?</i>
7 <i>You're</i>	<i>always to think of me as your friend.</i>
8 <i>I am</i>	<i>to inform you that ...</i>
9 <i>Nobody is</i>	<i>to know.</i>
10 <i>How am I</i>	<i>to pay my debts?</i>
11 <i>The waiter was</i>	<i>not to be seen.</i>
12 <i>As I was</i>	<i>about to say ...</i>
13 <i>This I was</i>	<i>only to learn later.</i>
14 <i>The new building is</i>	<i>to be six storeys high.</i>
15 <i>He was</i>	<i>never to see his wife and children again.</i>

Note

- 1, 2 and 3 indicate what has been arranged or agreed.
4 and 5 ask about the wishes of the persons addressed.
6 suggests impatience: *Do you expect me to (or Must I) stand here for ever?*
7 is a strong assurance: *You must always think of me as your friend.*
8 *I have been instructed to inform you that ...*
9 *Nobody must know.*
10 *How can I pay my debts?*
11 *The waiter could not be seen.*
12 *As I was on the point of saying, ...*
13 *I did not learn this until later.*
14 *The new building will be (or is designed to be) six storeys high.*
15 *It was his destiny never to see his wife and children again.*

Verb Pattern 5

[VP5] 1.69 In this pattern the finite verbs are the anomalous finites *will/would, shall/should, can/could, may/might, must, dare, need, and do/does/did* when used for the interrogative and negative forms and the emphatic affirmative.

These finites are followed by a bare infinitive (i.e. without *to*) and are dealt with in 1.6-29.

In addition the phrases *had better, had/would rather* and *would sooner* are used in this pattern.

Table 36

subject + anomalous finite	infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>You may</i>	<i>leave now.</i>
2 <i>You mustn't</i>	<i>do that.</i>
3 <i>Can you</i>	<i>come early?</i>
4 <i>You needn't</i>	<i>wait.</i>
5 <i>Don't you</i>	<i>like her?</i>
6 <i>Does he</i>	<i>want anything?</i>
7 <i>Oh, but you 'dld</i>	<i>say so!</i>
8 <i>You will</i>	<i>find it in that box.</i>
9 <i>I didn't dare</i>	<i>tell anyone.</i>
10 <i>You had better</i>	<i>start at once.</i>
11 <i>I had rather not</i>	<i>go.</i>
12 <i>He said he'd sooner</i>	<i>die than betray his friend.</i>

Verb Patterns 6 to 10

1.70 These are patterns for transitive verbs (*vt*). In VP6 a complement or adjunct may occur but is not essential. The sentence *I enjoyed the concert* is complete in itself. In the sentence *I put the book down* there is an adverbial adjunct. **I put the book* is incomplete. It is not English.

Verb Pattern 6

In this pattern the verb has a direct object which is a noun or pronoun, or a gerund. The pattern is subdivided.

[VP6A] 1.71 The object is a noun or a pronoun. *Do*, as a full verb, is typical. No adjunct is obligatory, but adverbials of time, frequency, duration, etc may be added.

Table 37

subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun
1 <i>They did</i>	<i>very little work that day.</i>
2 <i>Nobody answered</i>	<i>my question.</i>
3 <i>We all enjoyed</i>	<i>the film.</i>
4 <i>I've lost</i>	<i>my way.</i>
5 <i>The company has bought</i>	<i>several new aircraft.</i>
6 <i>You've boiled</i>	<i>the rice (for) too long.</i>
7 <i>We all had</i>	<i>a good time.</i>
8 <i>We shall make</i>	<i>an announcement tomorrow.</i>
9 <i>Have you made</i>	<i>your bed yet?</i>
10 <i>Has anybody here seen</i>	<i>Kelly?</i>
11 <i>I love</i>	<i>you.</i>
12 <i>In recent years our farmers have been producing</i>	<i>more food than the country needs.</i>
13 <i>An idea struck</i>	<i>me.</i>
14 <i>The news that Tom had failed his exams surprised</i>	<i>us.</i>
15 <i>Jane's reckless driving angered</i>	<i>her father.</i>
16 <i>The workmen dug</i>	<i>a deep hole.</i>
17 <i>Have you ever climbed</i>	<i>that mountain?</i>
18 <i>The car turned</i>	<i>the corner too fast.</i>
19 <i>Can your horse jump</i>	<i>that gate?</i>

Note

Conversion to the passive voice is possible.

1 *Very little work was done that day.*

9 *Has your bed been made yet?*

12 *In recent years more food has been produced than the country needs.*

A conversion with introductory *there* is possible.

In recent years there has been produced more food than the country needs.

If the noun in the subject may be replaced by an infinitive (as 14 and 15), a conversion with preparatory *it* is often possible and sometimes preferable.

14 *To hear that Tom had failed his exams | surprised us.*

It surprised us | to hear that Tom had failed his exams.

15 *To see Jane driving recklessly | angered her father.*

It angered Jane's father | to see her driving recklessly.

16 This is an example of an object of result: *The workmen made a deep hole by digging.* (Cf *He was digging his garden.*)

17, 18, 19 These are examples in which a preposition is optional: *climb up a mountain; turn round a corner; jump over a fence.*

[VP6B] 1.72 In VP6B conversion to the passive voice is not possible. *Have* meaning 'experience' is VP6A, as in Table 37, sentence 7, *We all had a good time*, (convertible to *A good time was had by all*). When *have* means 'possess, take, eat, drink,' etc, as in sentences 1 to 3 below, conversion to the passive is not possible. Reflexive verbs, and verbs with cognate objects, are placed here.

Table 38

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun
1	<i>He's got</i>	<i>great charm.</i>
2	<i>She has</i>	<i>blue eyes.</i>
3	<i>Have you had</i>	<i>breakfast yet?</i>
4	<i>Please behave</i>	<i>yourselves.</i>
5	<i>Have you hurt</i>	<i>yourself?</i>
6	<i>He dreamed</i>	<i>a most extraordinary dream.</i>
7	<i>She laughed</i>	<i>a merry laugh.</i>
8	<i>She smiled</i>	<i>her thanks.</i>
9	<i>He nodded</i>	<i>(his) approval.</i>
10	<i>The girls giggled</i>	<i>their appreciation of my compliments.</i>

Note

In colloquial style the cognate object is usually replaced by an adverbial.

7 *She laughed merrily.*

9 *He nodded approvingly (or in approval).*

[VP6C] 1.73 In this pattern and in VP6D below the object is a gerund. Two patterns are given because for verbs in VP6D there is the possibility of conversion to VP7.

VP6C: *She enjoys going to concerts.*

VP7: **She enjoys to go to concerts.*

VP6D: *She loves going to concerts.*

VP7: *She loves to go to concerts.*

Verbs in VP6C are not convertible to VP7 except in some cases where the verbs have a change of meaning, as in sentences 14 to 16 in the table below.

Table 39

	subject + vt	gerund (phrase)
1	<i>She enjoys</i>	<i>playing tennis.</i>
2	<i>Have you finished</i>	<i>talking?</i>
3	<i>I couldn't help</i>	<i>laughing.</i>
4	<i>Would you mind</i>	<i>coming earlier?</i>
5	<i>Do you mind</i>	<i>waiting a bit longer?</i>

6	<i>You should practise</i>	<i>speaking English whenever you can.</i>
7	<i>He grudged</i>	<i>having to pay such high taxes.</i>
8	<i>How could he avoid</i>	<i>paying so much?</i>
9	<i>She resented</i>	<i>being spied on when she was sun-bathing in the garden.</i>
10	<i>To persuade him took</i>	<i>some doing.</i>
11	<i>It won't stand</i>	<i>being handled roughly.</i>
12	<i>I can't stand</i>	<i>travelling in the rush-hour.</i>
13	<i>Please stop</i>	<i>talking.</i>
14	<i>I shall never forget</i>	<i>hearing Maria Callas sing the part of Madame Butterfly.</i>
15	<i>I remember</i>	<i>going to Convent Garden to hear her.</i>
16	<i>Try</i>	<i>cleaning it with petrol.</i>

Note

10 *Take* here means 'need'.

11, 12 *Stand* here means 'endure', 'bear'.

13 Cf *We stopped to talk*, in which *stop* is intransitive, VP4A.

14, 15 *Forget* and *remember* are used in VP7A with a change of meaning. See the note to Table 42.

16 *Try* with a gerund means 'experiment with in order to learn'. It is also used with a *to*-infinitive (VP7A): *I tried to clean it.*

Among the verbs used in VP6C are: *admit, advise, advocate, avoid, begin, begrudge, consider, contemplate, continue, defend, defer, deny, describe, discontinue, dislike, enjoy, entail, excuse, face, fancy, finish, forbid, forget, grudge, hate, (can't) help, imagine, intend, involve, justify, like, love, mean, mind, miss, necessitate, postpone, prefer, prevent, propose, recall, recollect, recommend, regret, remember, report, resist, start, suggest, try, understand.*

Some phrasal verbs, e.g. *give up (smoking), go on (working), leave off (raining), and set about (doing something)*, are used in this pattern.

[VP6D] 1.74 In this pattern the verbs are used with a gerund. For the difference between *like swimming* and *like to swim*, see the note.

Table 40

	subject + vt	gerund (phrase)
1	<i>She likes</i>	<i>swimming.</i>
2	<i>He began</i>	<i>talking about his family.</i>
3	<i>Don't start</i>	<i>borrowing money.</i>
4	<i>She loves</i>	<i>having breakfast in bed.</i>
5	<i>I hate</i>	<i>having to refuse every time.</i>
6	<i>He prefers</i>	<i>walking to going by car.</i>
7	<i>She can't bear</i>	<i>seeing animals treated cruelly.</i>
8	<i>He can't endure</i>	<i>being disturbed in his work.</i>
9	<i>I shall continue</i>	<i>working while my health is good.</i>
10	<i>The child dreads</i>	<i>going to bed in the dark.</i>

Note

After verbs which indicate likes and preferences, and their opposites, VP6D (with gerunds) is used for general statements. VP7 (with *to*-infinitives) is preferred for statements or questions about particular occasions, especially when the verb is used with *would* or *should*. Compare:

I like swimming.

I shouldn't like to swim in that cold lake.

Would you like to go for a swim this afternoon?

They prefer staying indoors when the weather is cold.

Would you prefer to stay at home this evening?

I should prefer not to go out.

I don't like going to the theatre alone.

I'd like to go to the theatre if you'll go with me

Begin and *start* are used in both patterns.

He began/started borrowing money.

He began/started to borrow money.

When these verbs are used in the progressive tenses, VP7 is preferred.

*It's beginning to rain. (*It's beginning raining.)*

*He's beginning to learn English. (*He's beginning learning English.)*

After *begin* the verbs *understand*, *see* (meaning 'understand') and *realize* are used in the infinitive.

*I begin to see/understand how it works. (*I begin seeing how it works.)*

Some phrasal verbs are used in VP6D and some in VP7. *Set about* (meaning 'begin', 'make a start on') is used with gerunds.

As soon as the storm ended, we set about repairing the damage.

Start out is used with infinitives.

He started out to write his report.

Like and *continue* are used in both VP6D and VP7. Their opposites, *dislike* and *discontinue*, are used only in VP6D.

*That horse dislikes wearing blinkers. (*That horse dislikes to wear blinkers.)*

Keep, and the phrasal verbs *keep on* and *go on* (meaning 'continue') are used with the *-ing* form of the verb. This is not the gerund; it is the present participle.

Why do they keep/keep on/go on laughing all the time?

Among the verbs used in VP6D are: (*can't*) *bear*, *commence*, *continue*, *dread*, *endure*, *hate*, *intend*, *like*, *love*, *prefer*, *regret*, *start*.

[VP6E] 1.75 After *need*, *want*, and *won't/wouldn't bear*, the gerund has a passive meaning.

Table 41

subject + <i>need/want</i> , etc.	gerund (phrase) (with passive meaning)
1 <i>The garden needs</i>	<i>watering</i> (= to be watered).
2 <i>He will need</i>	<i>looking after</i> (= to be looked after, cared for).
3 <i>My shoes want</i>	<i>mending</i> (= need to be repaired).
4 <i>His wife needs</i>	<i>tactful handling</i> (= to be handled tactfully).
5 <i>It won't bear</i>	<i>thinking of</i> (= to be thought about).
6 <i>His language wouldn't bear</i>	<i>repeating</i> (= was too bad to be repeated).

Note

5 *Won't bear* is used with gerunds. *Can't bear* is also used with gerunds, as in VP6D, and also in VP7.

She can't bear seeing/to see animals treated cruelly.

Verb Pattern 7

1.76 In this pattern the verb is followed by a *to*-infinitive, which may be preceded by *not* where this makes sense. (*I am not learning to swim* makes sense, but **I am learning not to swim* is an unlikely statement.) For intransitive verbs used with a *to*-infinitive (e.g. *come*, *seem*, *happen*), see VP4. Some verbs may be either VP4C or 7A, e.g. *agree*.

[VP7A] 1.77 The pattern is subdivided. *Have* and *ought* are placed in VP7B.

Table 42

subject + <i>vt</i>	(<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>I prefer</i>	(<i>not</i>) <i>to start early.</i>
2 <i>Do they want</i>	<i>to go?</i>
3 <i>It's begun/started</i>	<i>to rain.</i>
4 <i>What do you intend</i>	<i>to do about it?</i>
5 <i>He pretended</i>	<i>not to see us.</i>
6 <i>He's agreed</i>	(<i>not</i>) <i>to let the family know.</i>
7 <i>Would you like</i>	<i>to come with me?</i>
8 <i>Did you remember</i>	<i>to post my letters?</i>

- 9 *Sorry, but I forgot* to post them.
 10 *We hope/expect/propose* to organize a youth club.
 11 *He promised* never to get drunk again.
 12 *I never thought* to see you here.
 13 *He thinks* to deceive us.

Note

Remember and *forget* are used in both VP6C and VP7A. When *remember* means 'have in the memory' it is VP6C, as in *I remember posting your letters* or *I remember meeting you in Rome two years ago*. When *remember* means 'keep something consciously in the mind' it is VP7A, as in *Please remember to post my letters*. When *forget* means 'lose the memory of' it is VP6C, as in *I shall never forget hearing him play Chopin*. When it means 'neglect or fail to do something, because of a poor memory', it is VP7A, as in *I forgot to buy you flowers for your birthday*. *Think* is most often used in VP9 (*think that . . .*). Sentence 12 of this Table may be paraphrased: *I didn't expect to see you here*. 13 may be paraphrased, loosely: *He has the idea that he may deceive us*. In informal English *ask* and *say* are used in VP7A:

She asked to come with us (i.e. asked that she might come with us).
Mother says to come in at once (i.e. says that you/we are to come in at once).

- [VP7B] 1.78 The verb *have* is used in this pattern to indicate obligation. In colloquial style *have got to* is more usual than *have to*. *Had got to* is less frequently used for *had to*. For the use of *have we to/do we have to, we haven't to/we don't have to*, etc, see 1.23 and 5.54-5. *Ought* is placed in this pattern. It could equally well be placed in VP7A.

Table 43

subject + <i>have/ought</i>	(<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>You'll have</i>	<i>to go.</i>
2 <i>Have we</i>	<i>to answer all these questions?</i>
3 <i>Do you often have</i>	<i>to work overtime?</i>
4 <i>You don't have</i>	<i>to go to school on Saturdays, do you?</i>
5 <i>You ought</i>	<i>(not) to complain.</i>

Note

Among many verbs used in VP7 are: *ache* (= long), *afford*, *arrange*, *attempt*, (*can/could*) *bear*, *begin*, *bother*, *cease*, *choose*, *claim*, *continue*, *contrive*, *dare*, *decide*, *decline*, *deserve*, *determine*, *dread*, *endeavour*, *expect*, *fail*, *forbear*, *forget*, *hate*, *help*, *hesitate*, *hope*,

intend, *learn*, *like*, *long*, *love*, *manage*, *mean* (= intend), *need*, *omit*, *plan*, *prefer*, *presume* (= venture), *pretend*, *profess*, *promise*, *propose*, *purport*, *reckon*, *refuse*, *resolve*, *seek*, *start*, *swear* (= promise, make an oath), *threaten*, *trouble*, *undertake*, *want*, *wish*.

Verb Pattern 8

- [VP8] 1.79 In this pattern the object of the verb is an interrogative pronoun or adverb, or *whether*, followed by a *to*-infinitive.

Table 44

subject + <i>vt</i>	interrogative pronoun/adverb + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>I don't know</i>	<i>who to go to for advice.</i>
2 <i>She couldn't decide</i>	<i>what to do next.</i>
3 <i>She couldn't think</i>	<i>what to give the children for Christmas.</i>
4 <i>Have you settled</i>	<i>where to go for your holidays?</i>
5 <i>You must learn</i>	<i>when to give advice and when to be silent.</i>
6 <i>I'll ask/inquire</i>	<i>how to get there.</i>
7 <i>Do you know/see</i>	<i>how to do it?</i>
8 <i>She didn't know</i>	<i>whether to laugh or to cry.</i>
9 <i>I was wondering</i>	<i>whether to stay here another week.</i>
10 <i>How can you tell</i>	<i>which button to press?</i>

Note

When the subject of the infinitive is different from the subject of the main verb, VP10 is used. Compare:

Do you know how to do it? (VP8)
Do you know how he did it? (VP10)

Among the verbs used in VP8 are: *ask*, *consider*, *debate*, *decide*, *discover*, *explain*, *forget*, *guess*, *inquire*, *know*, *learn*, *observe*, *perceive*, *remember*, *see*, *settle*, *tell* (= ascertain, decide about), *think* (= form an opinion about), *understand*, *wonder*. The phrasal verb *find out* is also used in this pattern.

Verb Pattern 9

- 1.80 In this pattern the object of the verb is a *that*-clause. After such frequently used verbs as *say*, *wish*, *hope*, *think*, *expect* and *believe*, *that* is often (or even usually) omitted. After less frequently used verbs such as *decide*, *suggest* and *intend*, *that* is rarely omitted in formal style. *Feel* is used in this pattern when it indicates non-physical perceptions. *Hear* is used when it means 'learn' or 'be informed'.

[VP9] Table 45

subject + <i>vt</i>	<i>that</i> -clause
1 <i>I suppose</i>	<i>you'll be there.</i>
2 <i>I wish</i>	<i>you wouldn't interrupt.</i>
3 <i>We all hope</i>	<i>you'll be able to come.</i>
4 <i>Do you think</i>	<i>it'll rain?</i>
5 <i>He said</i>	<i>he was busy.</i>
6 <i>I hear</i>	<i>you've been abroad.</i>
7 <i>I don't think</i>	<i>there'll be time to visit the museum.</i>
8 <i>I see</i>	<i>you've broken the teapot.</i>
9 <i>We felt</i>	<i>you'd like to know.</i>
10 <i>I see</i>	<i>there has been another bank robbery.</i>
11 <i>He doesn't believe</i>	<i>(that) my intentions are serious.</i>
12 <i>She suggested</i>	<i>(that) we should start early.</i>
13 <i>Do you doubt</i>	<i>that I can do it?</i>
14 <i>The students decided</i>	<i>(that) they would support the demonstration.</i>
15 <i>He admitted</i>	<i>(that) he was wrong.</i>
16 <i>We intended</i>	<i>that you should be invited.</i>
17 <i>He hinted (to me)</i>	<i>that I was being cheated.</i>

Note

There are alternative word orders.

We may say that this is an exceptional case.

This, we may say, is an exceptional case.

He believed that the educational system was in need of reform.

The educational system, he believed, was in need of reform.

Note that *that* does not occur in the alternative versions.

That is normally omitted before introductory *there*, as in 7 and 10.

Some of the verbs used in VP9 are also used in VP14, e.g. *admit*, *confess*, *explain* and *suggest*.

He confessed that he had been wrong. (VP9)

He confessed his mistake to me. (VP14)

Among the verbs used in VP9 are: *acknowledge*, *add*, *admit*, *allege*, *allow* (= concede), *argue*, *believe*, *command*, *confess*, *decide*, *declare*, *demand*, *demonstrate*, *deny*, *desire*, *doubt*, *expect*, *explain*, *fancy* (= think), *fear*, *feel*, *hear*, *hope*, *imagine*, *intend*, *know*, *mean*, *mind* (= take care), *move* (= propose as a resolution), *notice*, *object*, *perceive*, *prefer*, *promise*, *propose*, *prove*, *realize*, *recommend*, *regret*, *require*, *report*, *resolve*, *say*, *see* (= perceive, understand), *show*, *specify*, *state*, *suggest*, *suppose*, *think*, *understand*, *urge*, *wish*.

There are some intransitive verbs which are used with a *that*-clause, as illustrated in VP3B, Table 28, sentences 1 to 4. The verbs in these sentences are used with prepositions: *insist upon*, *agree to*, *complain of/about*, *boast of/about*. In practice the question of *vi/vt* for such verbs is not important.

Note also the occurrence of a *that*-clause after intransitive verbs with introductory *it*, as in VP2A, Table 17: *It seems/appears/follows that ...*

With some verbs (e.g. *believe*, *expect*, *hear*, *hope*, *notice*, *see*, *suppose*, *think*) an affirmative *that*-clause may be replaced by *so* and a negative *that*-clause by *not*. This pattern is used as a response to or a comment on a statement or question. Thus, in response to the statement *It's going to rain*, the response could be *I hope not* or *Yes, I think so*.

So, with some of these verbs, may have either front position or end position, e.g. *So I believe* and *I believe so*. But we do not say **I see/notice so*.

Constructions commonly used are:

So I see/notice/believe/hear.

So I said/saw/thought/believed.

So I've heard/noticed.

I believe/hope/suppose/expect/think so.

I believe/hope/think not.

I don't think/didn't say so.

Verb Pattern 10

[VP10] 1.81 In this pattern the object of the verb is a dependent clause or question. The clause may be introduced by a relative pronoun or adverb, by *what* (meaning 'that which'), or by *whether*.

Table 46

subject + <i>vt</i>	dependent clause/question
1 <i>I don't know</i>	<i>who she is.</i>
2 <i>I wonder</i>	<i>where that music is coming from.</i>
3 <i>The judge has to decide</i>	<i>who the money belongs to.</i>
4 <i>How can anyone tell</i>	<i>who was responsible for the accident?</i>
5 <i>I wonder</i>	<i>which of them will win.</i>
6 <i>Do you know</i>	<i>whose car this is?</i>
7 <i>We were debating/ discussing</i>	<i>where we should go for our holidays.</i>
8 <i>Come and see</i>	<i>what we've found.</i>
9 <i>I wonder</i>	<i>why he's always late.</i>
10 <i>I'll ask/find out</i>	<i>when the train leaves.</i>
11 <i>Could you suggest</i>	<i>where I can park the car?</i>
12 <i>Does anyone know</i>	<i>how it happened?</i>
13 <i>Does anyone know</i>	<i>how many people are likely to come?</i>
14 <i>She asked</i>	<i>whether I took sugar in my tea.</i>
15 <i>No one seems to know</i>	<i>whether the plane will leave on time.</i>
16 <i>This shows</i>	<i>how wrong you were.</i>

Note

The dependent question may, in some cases, have front position for prominence.

15 *Whether the plane will leave on time, no one seems to know.*

The dependent question may be an adjunct to a noun which is understood.

I remember (the time) when cigarettes were one third of the price they are now.

Some intransitive verbs are used in a pattern that is like VP10 so far as word order is concerned. See VP3B, Table 28, sentences 10, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17 and the *Note*.

Among the verbs used in VP10 are: *ask, debate, decide, deliberate, determine, discover, discuss, doubt, imagine, know, reveal, say, show, suggest, tell (= ascertain), understand, wonder.*

Verb Patterns 11 to 25

- 1.82 These patterns are of transitive verbs used with a complement or with an indirect object.

Verb Pattern 11

- [VP11] 1.83 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun (which must be animate) and a *that*-clause.

Table 47

subject + vt	noun/pronoun	that-clause
1 <i>He warned</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>that the roads were icy.</i>
2 <i>I convinced</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>that I was innocent.</i>
3 <i>She assured</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>that she intended to come.</i>
4 <i>They told</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>that there had been an accident.</i>
5 <i>We must remind</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>that there's a party on Saturday night.</i>
6 <i>He satisfied</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>that he'd tried all the keys.</i>
7 <i>The workers told</i>	<i>their employers</i>	<i>that they wanted more money.</i>

Note

Alternative patterns are often possible. The sentences in this table may be recomposed in VP14.

- 1 *He warned us of the icy state of the roads.*
- 2 *I convinced him of my innocence.*
- 3 *She assured me of her intention to come.*
- 7 *The workers told their employers of their wish for more money.*

Some verbs used in VP9 may occur in VP11.

I promised (her) that I would write regularly.

Verb Pattern 12

- 1.84 Verbs in this pattern are followed by a noun or pronoun which is the indirect object, and a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase which is the direct object. The indirect object is equivalent to a prepositional adjunct with *to* or *for*, as in VP13. It must be animate.

- [VP12A] 1.85 The verbs in this pattern are also used in VP13A with *to*.

Table 48

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (IO)	noun/pronoun (phrase) (DO)
1 <i>Have they paid</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>the money?</i>
2 <i>Will you lend</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>your pen, please?</i>
3 <i>He handed</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>the letter.</i>
4 <i>Will you please</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>the salt.</i>
	<i>pass</i>	
5 <i>Won't you tell</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>a story?</i>
6 <i>A holiday by the sea will do</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>a lot of good.</i>
7 <i>They all wished</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>a safe journey.</i>
8 <i>She blew</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>a kiss.</i>
9 <i>He denied/</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>nothing.</i>
	<i>grudged</i>	
10 <i>He left</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>everything he possessed.</i>
11 <i>Don't give</i>	<i>yourself</i>	<i>airs.</i>
12 <i>He gave</i>	<i>the dog</i>	<i>a bone.</i>
13 <i>I will read</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>the letter.</i>
14 <i>He doesn't owe</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>anything.</i>
15 <i>Put</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>this question.</i>
16 <i>He allows</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>no rest.</i>
17 <i>He made</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a good offer.</i>

Note

As the examples show, the indirect object is usually short. In VP13A the preposition is followed, usually, by a long noun phrase. Compare:

He told | us | the news. (VP12A)

He told | the news | to everybody in the village. (VP13A)

Reflexive verbs are invariable, so sentence 11, *give oneself airs*, is not convertible to VP13A, and 16 is not convertible to **He allows no rest to himself*.

The IO normally precedes the DO, but there are occasional exceptions (colloquial style) when the IO is a personal pronoun and the DO is *it* or *them*. *Give me it/them* and *Give it/them me* are both used. For verbs used in VP12A, see the list given with VP13A.

[VP12B] 1.86 The verbs in this pattern are also used in VP13B with *for*.

Table 49

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (IO)	noun/pronoun (phrase) (DO)
1 <i>Are you going to buy</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>some?</i>
2 <i>Did you leave</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>any?</i>
3 <i>Can you get/find</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a copy of that book?</i>
4 <i>I've found</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>a new flat.</i>
5 <i>She cooked</i>	<i>her husband</i>	<i>a delicious meal.</i>
6 <i>Her dress-making earns</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>enough to live on.</i>
7 <i>He ordered</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>a bottle of champagne.</i>
8 <i>She made</i>	<i>herself</i>	<i>a new dress.</i>
9 <i>Will you do</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a favour?</i>
10 <i>His parents chose</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>a sensible but plain-looking wife.</i>
11 <i>Can you spare</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a few minutes of your valuable time?</i>
12 <i>Save</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>some of them.</i>
13 <i>Will you please call</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a taxi?</i>

Note

1 In VP13B, in which the preposition is followed by a long noun phrase, this might be

Are you going to buy some for your brothers and sisters?

3, 4 The indirect objects (*me, us*) are animate. In the sentence *I've found a place on my bookshelves for this huge dictionary*, the indirect object (a position) is inanimate. This cannot be converted to **I've found this huge dictionary a place in the shelf*. See VP12C for examples with inanimate objects.

10 Compare *make* in VP23B:

Jane has made Harry an excellent wife.

In this sentence *an excellent wife* is a subject complement.

11 There is no ambiguity in this sentence, but compare:

Can you spare me a few minutes?

This might mean:

(a) *Have you a few minutes to spare for me?*

(b) *Can you do without me for a few minutes?*

The use of *for* in (b) makes *me* the DO (of *do without = spare*), and *for a few minutes* is adverbial.

12 Cf VP13B:

Save some of them for me.

13 Cf VP23A:

She called him a fool (ie said 'You're a fool').

For the verbs used in VP12B, see the list given with VP13B.

[VP12C] 1.87 This table illustrates a variety of sentences in which the terms *indirect object* and *direct object* are not used. Instead, the columns are both headed *noun/pronoun*.

In VP12A and VP12B, the term *indirect object* is used to indicate the recipient of the action, etc expressed by the verb, and this indirect object is animate, as in *give somebody something, get somebody something*. These are convertible to VP13 (with *to* and *for*).

Some verbs in VP12 are not convertible to VP13 (with *to* or *for*). *He bears me a grudge* is convertible to *He bears a grudge against me*. *Will you play me a game of chess?* is convertible to *Will you play me at chess?* or *Will you play a game of chess with me?* *Give something a brush* is convertible to *brush something*.

This table illustrates a number of verbs which do not fit into VP12A and VP12B but which have the same word order.

Table 50

subject + vt	noun/pronoun	noun/pronoun (phrase)
1 <i>He struck</i>	<i>the door</i>	<i>a heavy blow.</i>
2 <i>He gave</i>	<i>the door</i>	<i>a hard kick.</i>
3 <i>I must give</i>	<i>the room</i>	<i>a good airing.</i>
4 <i>She gave</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>a warm smile.</i>
5 <i>Give</i>	<i>your hair</i>	<i>a good brushing.</i>
6 <i>I never gave</i>	<i>the matter</i>	<i>a thought.</i>
7 <i>May I ask</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>a favour?</i>
8 <i>Ask</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>his name.</i>
9 <i>I envy</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>your fine garden.</i>
10 <i>May God forgive</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>our sins.</i>
11 <i>His books bring</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>£1000 a year.</i>
12 <i>She caught</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>one in the eye.</i>
13 <i>He bears</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a grudge.</i>
14 <i>Will you play</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a game of chess?</i>
15 <i>That will save</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a lot of trouble.</i>
16 <i>Can't I save</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>the trouble of doing that?</i>
17 <i>He took</i>	<i>the dog</i>	<i>a long walk.</i>
18 <i>This heroic deed cost</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>his life.</i>

Note

Alternative sentences for 1 to 6 are:

- 1 *He struck the door heavily.*
- 2 *He kicked the door hard.*
- 3 *I must air the room well.*
- 4 *She smiled warmly at him.*
- 5 *Brush your hair well.*
- 6 *I never thought about the matter.*

7-8 *Ask* may be used with only one object:

- Why don't you ask a policeman?*
Don't ask so many silly questions.

It may also be used with two objects:

I asked the policeman the way to the museum.

7 may be converted to:

May I ask a favour of you?

But **Ask his name of him* for 8 is not acceptable.

9 *Envy*, like *ask*, may have only one object.

- She envies Jane.*
She envies her success.

These may be combined:

She envies Jane her success.

10 This is biblical style. The usual pattern for *forgive* is VP14:
forgive someone for something.

- 11 *His books bring in (= earn) £1000 a year.*
- 12 *She gave him a blow in the eye.*
- 13 *He bears a grudge against me.*
- 14 *Will you play a game of chess with me?*

15, 16 *Save somebody trouble* has to be distinguished from *save* as used in VP14 (eg *save a child from drowning*).

17 The more usual pattern is: *He took the dog (out) for a long walk.*

18 Compare *cost* in VP2B (Table 18).

Conversion to the passive is possible with *ask* and *save*.

- They asked me a lot of questions.*
I was asked a lot of questions.

That will save her a lot of trouble.
She will be saved a lot of trouble.

There are numerous other occurrences of verbs in this pattern, most of them fixed phrases, as *lead somebody a (pretty) dance*, *kiss somebody goodbye/goodnight*. In the sentence *He bet me £5 that Python would win the Derby*, *me* is an indirect object followed by two direct objects.

Verb Pattern 13

- 1.88 Verbs in this pattern are followed by a noun or pronoun and a prepositional group with *to* or *for*. The examples show that the object of the preposition is animate.

[VP13A] 1.89 The preposition is *to*. *Give something to somebody* is typical. This may be converted to VP12A as *Give somebody something*. VP13A is preferred when the prepositional group is longer than the direct object, or when the noun or pronoun, although short, is stressed, as in *Give the book to me, please*.

Table 51

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	to + noun/pronoun (phrase)
1 <i>She read</i>	<i>the letter</i>	<i>to all her friends.</i>
2 <i>He sold</i>	<i>his old car</i>	<i>to one of his neighbours.</i>
3 <i>He still owes</i>	<i>a lot of money</i>	<i>to the tax office.</i>
4 <i>He won't lend</i>	<i>money</i>	<i>to anyone.</i>
5 <i>Please pass</i>	<i>this note</i>	<i>to the man in the corner.</i>
6 <i>He offered</i>	<i>drinks</i>	<i>to everyone in the bar.</i>
7 <i>They told</i>	<i>the news</i>	<i>to everyone in the village.</i>
8 <i>Don't show</i>	<i>the letter</i>	<i>to any of your friends.</i>
9 <i>I've sent</i>	<i>presents</i>	<i>to most of my family.</i>
10 <i>They offered</i>	<i>the job</i>	<i>to Peter.</i>
11 <i>They awarded</i>	<i>the first prize</i>	<i>to Christina.</i>
12 <i>The prisoner wrote</i>	<i>a long letter</i>	<i>to the President.</i>
13 <i>They gave</i>	<i>quite a lot of publicity</i>	<i>to the Minister's speech.</i>
14 <i>He reads</i>	<i>his poems</i>	<i>to anyone who'll listen.</i>
15 <i>(The) Management has made</i>	<i>a new offer</i>	<i>to the workers.</i>

Note

Here are examples of some of these sentences in VP12A, with a short IO instead of *to* + a prepositional object.

- 1 *She read | me | the letter.*
- 2 *He sold | me | his old car.*
- 3 *He still owes | me | a lot of money.*
- 7 *They told | her | the news.*
- 9 *I've sent | Jane | a present.*

The prepositional group may have front position for contrast or prominence.

To his favourite daughter he sent a cheque for £50, but to his son he sent only a cheap fountain-pen.

The prepositional group may follow the verb immediately if it is much shorter than the direct object:

He gave | to his friends | much of the time he should have given to his wife and children.

They hoped that the United Nations Organization would bring | to smaller countries | freedom from colonialism and imperialism, and peace instead of war.

Passive constructions are possible. The prepositional object is usually preferred as the subject of the passive, but the direct object may also be the subject.

*Peter was offered the job.
The job was offered to Peter.*

*The Minister's speech was given quite a lot of publicity.
Quite a lot of publicity was given to the Minister's speech.*

Among the verbs used in VP13A are: *allot, allow, award, bring, cause* (e.g. pain to one's friends), *deal* (e.g. playing cards), *deny, do* (as in *do good to somebody*), *fetch, give, grant, hand, lend, offer, owe, pass, proffer, promise, read, recommend, refuse, render, restore, sell, send, show, teach, tell, throw, write*.

A few of these verbs are used with *for*, in a prepositional phrase. This is VP3B.

*I've broken my right wrist. Will you please write | a letter | for me.
I've asked my dealer to sell | my old car | for me.*

[VP13B] 1.90 The preposition is *for* and, as in VP13A, the noun/pronoun after the preposition is animate. *Buy* is typical: *Buy something for somebody*. This may be converted to VP12B as *Buy somebody something*. As in VP12A, VP13B is preferred when the prepositional group is longer than the direct object.

Table 52

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun (DO)	<i>for</i> + noun/pronoun (phrase)
1	<i>I've bought</i>	<i>some chocolate</i>	<i>for you.</i>
2	<i>She has made</i>	<i>coffee</i>	<i>for all of us.</i>
3	<i>She made</i>	<i>a new party dress</i>	<i>for her youngest daughter.</i>
4	<i>Please boil</i>	<i>enough rice</i>	<i>for ten people.</i>
5	<i>Please leave</i>	<i>some of the strawberries</i>	<i>for your sister.</i>
6	<i>I'll get</i>	<i>what I can</i>	<i>for you.</i>
7	<i>Won't you play</i>	<i>a Beethoven sonata</i>	<i>for me?</i>
8	<i>We must choose</i>	<i>suitable presents</i>	<i>for your nephews and nieces.</i>
9	<i>Can you cash</i>	<i>this cheque</i>	<i>for me?</i>
10	<i>Will you do</i>	<i>a favour</i>	<i>for a friend of mine?</i>
11	<i>If you're going to the public library, please bring</i>	<i>two or three good novels</i>	<i>for your mother.</i>
12	<i>Save</i>	<i>some of them</i>	<i>for me.</i>
13	<i>Please ask Bill to call</i>	<i>a taxi</i>	<i>for Mrs Robinson.</i>

Note

Here are examples of some of these sentences in VP12B.

- 1 *I've bought | you | some chocolate.*
- 3 *She made | herself | a new dress.*
- 4 *Please boil | me | an egg.*
- 6 *I'll get | you | what I can.*
- 10 *Will you do | me | a favour?*
- 11 *Bring | me | some, too.*
- 12 *Save | me | some.*
- 13 *Please call | me | a taxi.*

Among the verbs used in VP13B are *boil, bring, build, buy, call, cash, choose, cook, do, fetch, gather, get, grow, leave, make, order* (= place an order for), *paint, play, prepare, reach, save, spare, write*.

The use of some of these verbs in VP12B is typical of colloquial style. *Reach* may mean 'stretch out the hand for and take', as in *Can you reach | that book on the top shelf | for me?* The conversion to VP12B, as in *Please reach | me | that book*, is an example of colloquial style.

When the object of the preposition is inanimate, VP15A is used.

*We must buy a new carpet for this room.
(*We must buy this room a new carpet.)*

Verb Pattern 14

[VP14] 1.91 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun (the direct object), and a prepositional phrase.

The word order may be the same as that in VP13A or VP13B. In VP14 the object of the preposition cannot be replaced by an indirect object (as in VP12A and VP12B). *Give something to somebody* (VP13A) may be converted to *give somebody something* (VP12A). *Explain something to somebody* cannot be converted to **explain somebody something*.

The word order in VP14 may also be the same as that in VP15. The difference is that in VP15 the prepositional phrase is variable. It may be a phrase indicating position or direction. Or there may be an adverb such as *here, there, up, down, in or out*.

In VP14 the prepositions are closely associated with the verb, as in *congratulate someone on something* (where *on* is invariable), or as in *compare one thing to/with another*.

The number of verbs used in VP14 is large. Dictionary entries are useful for fixed phrases (e.g. *take somebody by surprise*) and such alternatives as *inspire confidence into someone/inspire someone with confidence*.

Variations in word order are possible. If the direct object is long, the prepositional phrase may have front position. Introductory *it* may be used (after the verb) when the direct object is an infinitive phrase, a clause, or a dependent question. These possibilities are illustrated in the Tables 54 and 55.

Table 53

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	preposition + noun/pronoun (phrase)
1 We congratulated	him	on his success.
2 They accused	him	of stealing the jewels.
3 He spends	a lot of money	on records.
4 Don't waste	your time	on that nonsense.
5 Thank	you	for your kind help.
6 What prevents	you	from coming earlier?
7 I explained	my difficulty	to him.
8 She speaks	English	to her husband
	and Swedish	to her children.
9 Add	these vegetables	to the stew.
10 Compare	the copy	with the original.
11 He compared	the heart	to a pump.
12 She reminds	me	of her mother.
13 He admitted	his guilt	to the police.
14 Have I asked	too much	of you?
15 I put	the question	to him.
16 He told	me	of his intention to resign.
17 They played	a trick	on their young sister.

1.92 This table gives examples in which the prepositional phrase precedes the direct object. This is usual when the direct object is long, or a *that*-clause.

Table 54

subject + vt	preposition + noun/pronoun	noun phrase/clause (DO)
1 He spends	on books	much more than he spends on clothes.
2 I explained	to him	the impossibility of granting his request.
3 Add	to the stew	all the meat and vegetables left over from last night.
4 She expressed	to her husband	her conviction that buying a new car was an unnecessary extravagance.
5 He confessed	to me	that he had fallen asleep during the meeting.
6 He admitted	to himself	that what he really needed was peace and quiet.

1.93 This table gives examples with introductory *it*, and an infinitive phrase, dependent clause, etc as the direct object.

Table 55

subject + vt	it	preposition + noun/pronoun	to-infinitive phrase, <i>that</i> -clause, etc
1 I must leave	it	to your own judgement	to decide whether you should offer your resignation.
2 Do we owe	it	to society	to help in the apprehension of criminals?
3 Why don't you bring	it	to his attention	that you're too ill to go on working?
4 You mustn't take	it	upon yourself	to spend such a large sum without the Treasurer's approval.
5 I put	it	to you	that this man could not possibly have been so cruel and heartless.

Note

Compare the sentences below, in which the word order is as in Table 53.

- 1 I must leave | the decision | to your own judgement.
- 2 Do we owe | a duty | to society?
- 3 Why don't you bring | your illness | to his attention?
- 4 You mustn't take | too much | upon yourself.
- 5 I put | the question | to you.

Verb Pattern 15

1.94 In this pattern the verb is used with an adverb or an adverbial phrase. The pattern is subdivided.

[VP15A] 1.95 In this Table there are examples of adverbials (prepositional phrases) freely formed. In VP6 an adverb or adverbial phrase may occur, but is not an essential part of the pattern. *She plays tennis* is VP6. An adverbial may be added, as *She plays tennis well/badly*, or *She often/seldom plays tennis*. *Put* is not used in VP6. **I put the book* is not English. *Put* needs the addition of an adverb or adverbial, as in *I put the book on the table*, or *I put the book down*.

Table 56

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	adverb (phrase)
1 Please put	the milk	in the refrigerator.
2 Ask David to move	these chairs	next door.
3 Don't let the child put	his head	into that plastic bag/out of the car window.
4 The secretary showed	me	into the manager's office.
5 The detective followed	the suspected man	for two hours/all afternoon.
6 This bicycle has carried	me	500 miles.
7 They kept	the child	indoors.
8 Don't get	that girl	into trouble.
9 When I called on Tom, I found	him	in/out at his desk in the garden in bed with flu.

Note

These adverbials normally have end position. *Please put on the table the book is not English. The adverbial may, in some cases (e.g. to indicate a contrast) be placed between the verb and the direct object.

Please put | in these packing cases | all the books from the shelves in my study, | and in those large packing cases | all the books from the shelves in the living-room.

9 may be paraphrased as:

Tom was in/out (i.e. at home/not at home)/at his desk/in the garden/in bed with flu when I called on him.

Cf VP19B, Table 68, sentence 1.

[VP15B] 1.98 In this Table the adverbial particles (see 4.22) are used. These are the adverbs most (but not all) of which also function as prepositions, e.g. on/off, in/out, up/down, back, away.

When the object of the verb is a noun or a short noun phrase, the adverbial particle may (except in some fixed phrases) either follow or precede the object. If the noun phrase is long, the adverbial phrase usually precedes it, as in Table 59.

Table 57

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	adverbial particle
1 Put	your shoes	on.
2 Take	your coat	off.
3 Lock	your room	up.
4 Did you wind	the clock	up?
5 She gave	them all	away.
6 Please bring	them	in.

7 He cleared	the rubbish	away.
8 Switch	the radio	on/off.
9 Don't throw	that old hat	away.
10 The mob broke	the doors	down.

Note

Passive constructions:

4 Was the clock wound up?

7 Was the rubbish cleared away?

10 The doors were broken down by the mob.

1.97 The adverbial particle may precede the direct object when this object is a noun or a short noun phrase.

Table 58

subject + vt	adverbial particle	noun/pronoun (DO)
1 Put	on	your shoes.
2 Take	off	your coat.
3 Lock	up	your room.
4 Did you wind	up	the clock?
5 She gave	away	her old books.
6 Please bring	in	those chairs.
7 He cleared	away	the rubbish.
8 Switch	on/off	the radio.
9 Don't throw	away	that hat.
10 The mob broke	down	the doors.
11 You mustn't lay	down	the law.
12 How did they bring	about	these reforms?

Note

11 and 12 are examples of phrases in which the adverbial particle normally follows the verb immediately.

1.98 When the direct object is long, the adverbial particle normally precedes.

Table 59

subject + vt	adverbial particle	noun phrase (DO)
1 Why don't you put	on	those green shoes you bought a week ago?
2 You'd better take	off	your wet overcoat and those muddy shoes.

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3	Lock	up	all the valuables in your room before you go away.
4	Did you wind	up	the clock in the dining-room?
5	She gave	away	all the schoolbooks she no longer needed.
6	Please bring	in	those chairs we left out on the lawn.
7	He cleared	away	all the rubbish that had accumulated in the front garden.
8	Don't forget to switch	off	the lights in the rooms downstairs.
9	Don't throw	away	anything that might be useful later on.
10	The mob broke	down	the doors guarding the main entrance.

Note

In the case of some phrasal verbs the adverbial particle has a fixed position: e.g. *to find in/out* (i.e. at home/not at home). Here *in* and *out* always have end position.

Verb Pattern 16

1.99 In this pattern the direct object is followed by an adverbial adjunct. The pattern is subdivided.

[VP16A] 1.100 In this pattern the adverbial adjunct is a *to*-infinitive phrase, (which may be introduced by *in order* or *so as*), which is an adjunct of purpose or intended result.

The word order is the same as that in VP17A, in which the noun/pronoun and infinitive together are the direct object of the verb.

I sent | Tom | to buy some fruit. (VP16A)
I want | Tom to buy some fruit. (VP17A)

Table 60

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	He brought	his brother	to see me.
2	I'm taking	this magazine	to read on the plane.
3	They gave	a party	to celebrate their success.
4	I shall need	at least two weeks	to finish the job.

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5	They left	me	to do all the dirty work.
6	He opened	the door	to let the cat out.
7	We make	our shoes	to last.
8	He took	the medicine	(in order) to please his wife.
9	You must do	what the doctor tells you	(so as) to get well quickly.

Note

7 = *We make our shoes so that they will last*, i.e. not wear out quickly. Cf *You must make | these shoes | last*. This is an example of VP18, in which a bare infinitive follows the direct object.

[VP16B] 1.101 The direct object is followed by *as, like, for*, or a clause introduced by *as if* or *as though*.

Table 61

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	as/like/for + noun phrase/clause
1	They've hired	a fool	as our football coach.
2	He carries	himself	like a soldier.
3	He began	his career	as a teacher.
4	I can't see	myself	as a pop singer.
5	He imagined	himself	as the saviour of his country.
6	Don't accept	everything you see on TV	as true/as if it were the truth.
7	Put	it	like this.
8	Will you take	this woman	as your wife?
9	Can we take	this document	as proof of his guilt?
10	Do you take	me	for a fool?
11	She mistook	me	for my twin sister.

Note

A construction with preparatory *it* is used when the object is long, e.g. if it is an infinitive phrase.

We regard | this | as wasteful.
We regard | this process | as wasteful.
We regard | it | as uneconomical | to use such expensive machinery for only eight hours a day.

Among the verbs used with *as* are *accept, acknowledge, class, characterize, consider, describe, know, recognize, regard, take* (= accept), *treat* and *use*.

Mistake and *take* (= think, assume) are used with *for*.

Verb Pattern 17

1.102 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun and a *to*-infinitive. The pattern is subdivided.

In VP17A a passive construction is possible.

They warned us not to be late.
We were warned not to be late.

They persuaded the drunken man to leave.
The drunken man was persuaded to leave.

In VP17B there is no passive construction.

They liked us to visit them.
**We were liked to visit them.*

This event decided me to resign.
**I was decided by this event to resign.*

[VP17A] 1.103 (Passive conversions possible.)

Table 62

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/ pronoun	(<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>I warn</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>not to believe a word he says.</i>
2	<i>The barrister urged</i>	<i>the judge</i>	<i>to be merciful.</i>
3	<i>We can't allow</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>to do that.</i>
4	<i>Didn't I ask</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>not to make so much noise?</i>
5	<i>He dared/challenged</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to jump across the stream.</i>
6	<i>They advised</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>to accept the offer.</i>
7	<i>Did he mean/intend</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>to share the cost of the dinner?</i>
8	<i>The officer ordered</i>	<i>the men</i>	<i>to advance.</i>
9	<i>His salary enabled</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>to have a holiday abroad.</i>
10	<i>They persuaded</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to go with them.</i>
11	<i>I have never known</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>to tell lies.</i>
12	<i>They led</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to believe there was no danger.</i>
13	<i>He gave</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to understand that he could help me.</i>

Note

Here are the conversions to the passive:

- I was warned not to believe a word he says.*
- The judge was urged to be merciful.*
- They can't be allowed to do that.*
- Weren't you asked not to make so much noise?*
- I was dared/challenged to jump across the stream.*

- He was advised to accept the offer.*
- Were we meant/intended to share the cost of the dinner?*
- The men were ordered to advance.*
- He was enabled to have a holiday abroad.*
- I was persuaded to go with them.*
- She has never been known to tell lies.*

12 and 13 are examples of fixed phrases: *lead somebody to believe* and *give somebody to understand*.

- I was led to believe there was no danger.*
- I was given to understand that he could help me.*

Among verbs used in VP17A are: *advise, allow, ask, beg, beseech, bribe, cause, challenge, command, compel, dare (= challenge), direct, drive (= compel), empower, enable, encourage, entice, entitle, entreat, expect, forbid, force, help, impel, implore, incite, induce, instruct, intend, invite, know, lead, mean (= intend), oblige, permit, persuade, predispose, press (= urge), request, require, teach, tell, tempt, urge, warn*. *Give* and *lead* are used in the fixed phrases noted above.

[VP17B] 1.104 (No passive conversions.)

Table 63

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun	(<i>not</i>) + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>He doesn't want</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>to know that he's going away.</i>
2	<i>He likes</i>	<i>his wife</i>	<i>to dress colourfully.</i>
3	<i>Do you wish</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to stay?</i>
4	<i>Would you prefer</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>not to come tomorrow?</i>
5	<i>She can't bear</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to be unhappy.</i>
6	<i>Will you help</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>to carry this box upstairs?</i>
7	<i>You wouldn't want</i>	<i>another war</i>	<i>to break out.</i>

Note

A passive infinitive may be used in sentence 1 with introductory *it*.

He doesn't want it to be known that he's going away.

A passive infinitive is possible in sentence 2.

He likes his wife to be colourfully dressed.

If the infinitive is *be*, introductory *there* is used (as in VP1, Table 5). Sentence 7 is normal, but

* *You wouldn't want another war to be.*

is not English. Instead, we have:

You wouldn't want there to be another war.

Other examples with *there*:

- I don't want there to be any trouble.*
He meant there to be no indiscipline.
Would you like there to be a meeting to discuss the problem?
I expect there to be no argument about this.
I should prefer there to be no discussion of my private affairs.

The small number of verbs used in VP17B are verbs indicating likes, dislikes and preferences, and the verb *help*. *Like* and *want* are the most frequent. *Help* may be used with a bare infinitive or a *to*-infinitive.

Will you help me (to) carry this box upstairs?

Like may also be used in VP19B and VP19C.

- We don't like | them | to come late.*
We don't like | them | coming late.
We don't like | their coming late.

These possibilities are dealt with in 1.112 (Table 70).

Verb Pattern 18

In this pattern the verb is used with a noun or pronoun and a bare infinitive. A *to*-infinitive is used in passive constructions. The pattern is subdivided.

[VP18A] 1.105 The verbs indicate physical perceptions. They are also used in VP19.

- I saw | the man | cross the road. (VP18)*
I saw | the man | crossing the road. (VP19)

VP18 suggests completed activity and VP19 activity in progress. The first sentence means that the man crossed the road and I saw him do this. The second means that I saw the man while he was crossing the road, but does not indicate that I saw him start or finish doing so.

Table 64

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun	infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>Did anyone hear</i>	<i>John</i>	<i>leave the house?</i>
2	<i>Did you see/notice</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>go out?</i>
3	<i>We felt</i>	<i>the house</i>	<i>shake.</i>
4	<i>I once saw</i>	<i>Olivier</i>	<i>act the part of Othello.</i>
5	<i>I have heard</i>	<i>people</i>	<i>say that ...</i>
6	<i>Watch</i>	<i>that boy</i>	<i>jump.</i>

Note

Here are the passive constructions:

- 1 *Was John heard to leave the house?*
 2 *Was anyone seen to go out?*
 5 *People have been heard to say that ...*
 (or) *I have heard it said that ...*

When *see* and *feel* are used of mental, not physical perceptions, VP9 is used, not VP18. Compare:

- I saw | him | hit the cat. (VP18)*
I saw | (that) he disliked the cat. (VP9)
I saw | him | leave the room. (VP18)
I saw | (that) he disapproved of what was happening. (VP9)

The verbs used in VP18A are *feel*, *hear*, *notice*, *observe*, *see*, *watch*, and the phrasal verbs *listen to* and *look at*.

[VP18B] 1.106 A small number of verbs which do not indicate physical perceptions is used in this pattern. Compare *make* and *force/compel* and *let* and *allow/permit*.

- They made | me | do it. (VP18B)*
They forced/compelled | me | to do it. (VP17)
Please let | me | go. (VP18B)
Please allow/permit | me | to go. (VP17)

Table 65

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun	infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>What makes</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>think so?</i>
2	<i>Let</i>	<i>justice</i>	<i>be done.</i>
3	<i>We can't let</i>	<i>the matter</i>	<i>rest here.</i>
4	<i>She bade</i>	<i>Sir Lancelot</i>	<i>rise.</i>
5	<i>Shall I help</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>carry that box upstairs?</i>
6	<i>I've never</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>sing so beautifully before.</i>
7	<i>Have you ever</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>lose her temper?</i>
8	<i>I've known</i>	<i>experts</i>	<i>make this mistake.</i>
9	<i>Can we make</i>	<i>the murder</i>	<i>look like an accident?</i>
10	<i>Can we make</i>	<i>the scheme</i>	<i>appear/seem practicable?</i>

Note

Here are the conversions to the passive:

- 7 *Has she ever been known to lose her temper?*
 8 *Experts have been known to make this mistake.*
 9 *Can the murder be made to look like an accident?*

Bid, in 4, is rare in contemporary English. *Tell*, *order* and *command* (VP17) are preferred.

She told/ordered/commanded Sir Lancelot to rise.

Let is used as an auxiliary of the imperative in *Let me go* and *Let justice be done*. There is no passive construction. For 3 instead of **The matter cannot be let to rest here* we have, with *allow*, *The matter cannot be allowed to rest here*.

Let is used with *go*, *fall* and *slip* with some irregularities. A personal pronoun takes the normal position in the pattern after *let*.

Let | *it/him/her/them* | *go*.

Don't let | *it/him/her/them* | *fall/slip*.

A noun may have end position.

(a) *Let* | *go* | *the rope*.

(b) *The ship let* | *go* | *its anchor*.

(c) *He let* | *fall* | *a hint of his intentions*.

(d) *Don't let* | *slip* | *any opportunity of practising your English*.

This close linking of *let* with the verb is normal when the noun phrase is long, as in (c) and (d). For (a) *Let the rope go* is possible.

Know is used in VP18B chiefly in the perfect tenses, occasionally in the past tense. There is often an adverb of frequency (e.g. *seldom*, *often*, *never*).

Hear tell is an idiomatic phrase with a bare infinitive, the noun/pronoun being omitted.

I've heard tell of such happenings, (i.e. heard people talk of them).

The verbs used in VP18B are *bid*, *help*, *know*, *let* and *make*.

[VP18C] 1.107 *Have* is used in this pattern when it means 'wish', 'experience' or 'cause'.

Table 66

subject + <i>have</i>	noun/pronoun	infinitive (phrase)
1 <i>What would you have</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>do?</i>
2 <i>Would you have</i>	<i>the Government</i>	<i>control our lives completely?</i>
3 <i>We like to have</i>	<i>our friends</i>	<i>visit us on Sundays.</i>
4 <i>Please have</i>	<i>the porter</i>	<i>take these suitcases to my room.</i>
5 <i>I had</i>	<i>a most extraordinary thing</i>	<i>happen to me yesterday.</i>

Note

More usual and colloquial versions of some of these sentences are:

1 *What do you want me to do?*

2 *Would you like the Government to control ...*

4 *Please tell the porter to take ...*

(or) *Please have these suitcases taken ...*

Verb Pattern 19

1.108 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun and the *-ing* form of a verb. These together form the direct object. The pattern is subdivided.

[VP19A] 1.109 In VP19A the *-ing* form is a present participle. The verbs are those used in VP18A, i.e. verbs which indicate physical perceptions of sight, hearing and touch, and also the chemical perception of smelling. (*Smell* is not used in VP18A.)

Table 67

subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun	present participle (phrase)
1 <i>They saw</i>	<i>the thief</i>	<i>running away.</i>
2 <i>They heard</i>	<i>voices</i>	<i>calling for help</i>
3 <i>Can you smell</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>burning?</i>
4 <i>She could feel</i>	<i>her heart</i>	<i>beating wildly.</i>
5 <i>Did you notice</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>standing at the gate?</i>
6 <i>We saw</i>	<i>two of the students</i>	<i>being carried off by the police.</i>
7 <i>We watched</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>being bundled into the police van.</i>
8 <i>She doesn't like to see</i>	<i>animals</i>	<i>being treated cruelly.</i>

Note

The difference between VP19A and VP18A is dealt with earlier (the Note to VP18A). Another example:

I saw | *Paul* | *go into a shop.* (VP18A)

I saw | *Mary* | *looking into a shop window.* (VP19A)

Here are some passive constructions.

1 *The thief was seen running away.*

2 *Voices were heard calling for help.*

The phrasal verbs *look at* and *listen to* are used in VP19A.

Just look at | *the rain* | *pouring down!*

We listened to | *the band* | *playing in the park.*

A noun phrase which is longer than the participial phrase may have end position. Compare:

He saw | an animal | crouching among the bushes.
He saw, | crouching among the bushes, | an animal which he thought might be a fox.

Verbs used in VP19A are: *feel, glimpse, hear, notice, observe, perceive, see, smell, watch*, and the phrasal verbs *listen to* and *look at*.

[VP19B] 1.110 Verbs which do not indicate physical perceptions are used in this pattern. The *-ing* form of the verb is a present participle.

Table 68

subject + vt	noun/pronoun	present participle (phrase)
1 <i>I found</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>dozing under a tree.</i>
2 <i>When he awoke, he found</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>being looked after by a pretty young nurse.</i>
3 <i>They found</i>	<i>the lifeboat</i>	<i>floating upside down.</i>
4 <i>We musn't keep</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>waiting.</i>
5 <i>Keep</i>	<i>the ball</i>	<i>rolling.</i>
6 <i>They left</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>waiting outside.</i>
7 <i>The news left</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>wondering what would happen next.</i>
8 <i>This set</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>thinking.</i>
9 <i>My clumsy mistake set</i>	<i>all the girls</i>	<i>giggling.</i>
10 <i>Don't let me catch</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>doing that again!</i>
11 <i>Please start/get</i>	<i>the clock</i>	<i>going.</i>
12 <i>How can we get</i>	<i>things</i>	<i>moving?</i>
13 <i>The explosion sent</i>	<i>things</i>	<i>flying in all directions.</i>
14 <i>A phone call sent</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>hurrying to London.</i>
15 <i>Jim's taken</i>	<i>the children</i>	<i>swimming.</i>

Note

A *that*-clause (VP9) may replace the noun/pronoun + present participle construction after *find*.

1 *I found that he was dozing under a tree.*

Cf *find somebody in/out* (i.e. at home, not at home)/at his desk/in bed, etc.) in VP15A, and the Note to Table 56.

Among the verbs used in VP19B are: *bring, catch, depict, discover, draw, find, get, imagine, keep, leave, paint, send, set, show, start, take*.

1.111 The verb *have* is used in this pattern (as in sentences 1, 2, 3) with *can't* and *won't* meaning 'allow' or 'permit'. It is also used, as in the other examples, to indicate a result or outcome, or an experience.

Table 69

	subject + have	noun/pronoun	present participle (phrase)
1	<i>I can't have</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>doing that.</i>
2	<i>We can't have</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>forcing their views on everyone else.</i>
3	<i>I won't have</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>banging away at your drum in my study, David.</i>
4	<i>He soon had</i>	<i>them all</i>	<i>laughing.</i>
5	<i>I'll have</i>	<i>you all</i>	<i>speaking English well within a year.</i>
6	<i>We shall soon have</i>	<i>the mists</i>	<i>coming down on us.</i>
7	<i>While he had</i>	<i>this threat</i>	<i>hanging over him, he was quite unable to work.</i>

Note

- 1 *I can't allow you to do that.*
- 3 *I won't allow you to bang away ...*
- 4 *Soon they were all laughing as the result of what he had said, done, etc.*
- 6 *The mists will soon be coming down on us.*
- 7 *Because of this threat which was hanging over him, he was ...*

[VP19C] 1.112 There are many verbs that are used in a pattern with the same word order as VP19A and VP19B, i.e. verb + noun/pronoun + *-ing* form of a verb. Compare:

- (a) *I caught | him | stealing apples from my garden.*
- (b) *Can you imagine | these fat men | climbing Mt Kenya?*

For (b) we may substitute:

- (c) *Can you imagine | their climbing Mt Kenya?*

In (c) *climbing* is a gerund.

We may also have:

- (d) *Can you imagine | them | climbing Mt Kenya?*

In (d) the pattern resembles VP19B, with *climbing* as a present participle.

If there is a personal pronoun, conversion to a possessive is simple.

- (a) *Do you remember | him | telling us about it?*
- (b) *Do you remember | his telling us about it?*

In (b) we have VP6C.

If there is a simple noun, conversion to a possessive is simple.

- (a) *Do you remember | Tom | telling us about it?*
 (b) *Do you remember | Tom's telling us about it?*

If there are two or three words instead of a single noun or a personal pronoun, the use of the apostrophe is very unlikely.

Do you remember | Tom and Mary | telling us about it?

Some grammarians insist that the *-ing* form of the verb in such sentences is a gerund and that this should be preceded by a possessive. Sweet in his *New English Grammar* suggested the term 'half gerund'. Whether the *-ing* form is called a gerund, half gerund, or present participle is not important in practice. In the Table below, the possibility of using a possessive is shown in some examples, and the term '*-ing* form of the verb' is used.

Table 70

subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/pronoun/ possessive	<i>-ing</i> form of the verb
1 <i>I can't understand</i>	<i>him/his</i>	<i>leaving so suddenly.</i>
2 <i>Can you imagine</i>	<i>me/my</i>	<i>being so stupid?</i>
3 <i>Does this justify</i>	<i>you/your</i>	<i>taking legal action?</i>
4 <i>I love this place and I want to stop</i>	<i>it/its</i>	<i>being turned into a tourist trap.</i>
5 <i>We'll fight to prevent</i>	<i>these houses</i>	<i>being torn down.</i>
6 <i>I can't remember</i>	<i>my parents</i>	<i>ever being unkind to me.</i>
7 <i>Do you mind</i>	<i>my brothers and sisters</i>	<i>coming with us?</i>
8 <i>I can't understand</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>treating children cruelly.</i>
9 <i>Do you favour</i>	<i>boys and girls of sixteen</i>	<i>being given the right to vote?</i>
10 <i>These radicals con- template</i>	<i>people of all classes</i>	<i>being reduced to the same social level.</i>
11 <i>Can you imagine</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>being so silly?</i>
12 <i>She can't bear</i>	<i>her husband</i>	<i>making fun of her.</i>

Note

In 1 to 4 alternatives are given: *him/his*, *me/my*, etc. In the other examples, the use of a noun or pronoun (e.g. *anyone*) or noun phrase only is preferred to that of a possessive.

Verb Pattern 20

[VP20] 1.113 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun, and an interrogative pronoun or adverb, or *whether*, introducing a *to*-infinitive. The pattern is comparable to VP12A. Compare:

- Tell | me | your name. (VP12A)*
Tell | me | where to put it. (VP20)

Table 71

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/ pronoun	interrogative + <i>to</i> -infinitive (phrase)
1	<i>I showed</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>how to do it.</i>
2	<i>Tell</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>whether to trust him or not.</i>
3	<i>Ask</i>	<i>your teacher</i>	<i>how to pronounce the word.</i>
4	<i>They told</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>where to shop cheaply.</i>
5	<i>I don't like people</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>what to do and what not to do.</i>
6	<i>I wonder who</i>	<i>Jane</i>	<i>how to manage her husband so cleverly?</i>
7	<i>Will you advise</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>which of them to buy?</i>
8	<i>Ask</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>what to do next.</i>

Note

Conversion to VP21 is often possible.

- 1 *I showed | them | how they should do it.*
 4 *They told | us | where we could shop cheaply.*

Verb Pattern 21

[VP21] 1.114 This pattern is similar to VP20 except that the interrogative here introduces a dependent clause or question in place of the infinitive phrase. *If* may replace *whether* here (with the same meaning) provided there is no confusion with the use of *if* to introduce a conditional clause.

Table 72

	subject + <i>vt</i>	noun/ pronoun	dependent clause/question
1	<i>Tell</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>what your name is.</i>
2	<i>Ask</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>when the next plane leaves.</i>
3	<i>Can you tell</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>how high it is?</i>
4	<i>They asked</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>whether/if I had ever been there before.</i>
5	<i>Show</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>where you used to live.</i>
6	<i>She told</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>why she had come.</i>

Note

This pattern, like VP20, is comparable to VP12A. Compare:

- Tell | me | your name. (VP12A)*
Tell | me | what your name is. (VP21)

VP12A is convertible to VP13A. VP20 and VP21 are not convertible to VP13A.

Verb Pattern 22

[VP22] 1.115 In this pattern the verb is used with a noun, pronoun or gerund followed by an adjective. The adjective may indicate result or manner.

Table 73

subject + vt	noun/pronoun/ gerund (DO)	adjective
1 <i>We painted</i>	<i>the ceiling</i>	<i>green.</i>
2 <i>Could you push</i>	<i>the door</i>	<i>shut?</i>
3 <i>She flung</i>	<i>all the windows</i>	<i>open.</i>
4 <i>The cat licked</i>	<i>the saucer</i>	<i>clean.</i>
5 <i>The Governor set</i>	<i>the prisoners</i>	<i>free.</i>
6 <i>The workman hammered</i>	<i>the metal</i>	<i>flat.</i>
7 <i>She boiled</i>	<i>the eggs</i>	<i>hard.</i>
8 <i>She dyed</i>	<i>her hair</i>	<i>green.</i>
9 <i>They beat</i>	<i>the poor boy</i>	<i>black and blue.</i>
10 <i>The drunken men shouted</i>	<i>themselves</i>	<i>hoarse.</i>
11 <i>They later slept</i>	<i>themselves</i>	<i>sober.</i>
12 <i>The barber has cut</i>	<i>your hair</i>	<i>very short.</i>
13 <i>Have I made</i>	<i>my meaning</i>	<i>clear?</i>
14 <i>The news struck</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>dumb with amazement.</i>
15 <i>The blister on my heel made</i>	<i>walking</i>	<i>painful.</i>
16 <i>I want to see</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>happy.</i>
17 <i>He wished</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>dead.</i>
18 <i>They found</i>	<i>the birdcage</i>	<i>empty.</i>
19 <i>He likes</i>	<i>his coffee</i>	<i>strong.</i>
20 <i>He bores</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>stiff.</i>
21 <i>Sing</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>loud and clear.</i>
22 <i>It's better to leave</i>	<i>some things</i>	<i>unsaid.</i>
23 <i>I drank</i>	<i>the milk</i>	<i>hot.</i>
24 <i>The speaker held</i>	<i>his audience</i>	<i>spellbound.</i>
25 <i>Don't let</i>	<i>your dog</i>	<i>loose.</i>
26 <i>We proved</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>wrong.</i>
27 <i>How did you get</i>	<i>yourself</i>	<i>so dirty?</i>

Note

When the DO is a long noun phrase the adjective may, and usually does, precede it. Compare:

The Governor set | the prisoners | free.
The Governor set | free | all those prisoners whose offences were purely political.

He made | his views | clear.
He made | clear | his views on this unusual proposal.

If the subject is an infinitive phrase, introductory *it* may be used, with the phrase at the end.

To see animals being cruelly treated | makes | her | furious.
It makes | her | furious | to see animals being cruelly treated.

When, instead of a noun or noun phrase as object, there is an infinitive or gerundial phrase, a dependent question, or a *that*-clause, introductory *it* is used, with the adjective following *it* immediately. Compare:

He made | his objection | clear.
He made | it | clear | that he objected to the proposal.

Other examples:

You have not made | it | clear | whether financial help will be forthcoming.
The blister on my heel made | it | painful | to walk.
Do you find | it | pleasant | to live in a small village?
Jane found | it | dull | working at the kitchen sink all day.

In 10 and 11 the verbs *shout* and *sleep* are used reflexively. 10 means 'They shouted until they were hoarse' and 11 'They became sober during sleep'.

The meaning of 18 is made clear by adding *when they came down to breakfast*. (The bird had escaped from the cage.) Compare this with: *They found the empty birdcage*. (This might be a cage mislaid or lost.)

Leave is used in the pattern with past participles combined with *un-*. 22 is more usual in the passive: *Some things are better left unsaid*.

The adjective is not always in end position. In *make good*, the adjective has mid position, as in *make good one's escape*, 'succeed in one's attempt to escape'; *make good a claim*, 'be successful in one's claim'. Such fixed phrases are usually to be found in dictionaries.

Among the verbs used in VP22 are: *bake* (e.g. *bake it hard*), *beat*, *burn* (e.g. *burn it black*), *colour* (e.g. *colour it red*), *cut*, *drive* (e.g. *drive someone mad*), *dye*, *eat* (e.g. *eat oneself sick*), *fill*, *find*, *get*, *hammer*, *hold* (= *consider*), *keep*, *lay* (e.g. *lay the country waste*), *leave*, *lick*, *like*, *make*, *paint*, *render*, *see*, *set*, *sleep*, *turn*, *wash*, *wipe*, *wish*.

Verb Pattern 23

In this pattern the noun or pronoun following the verb has either an object complement (VP23A) or a subject complement (VP23B), in the form of a noun or a noun phrase.

[VP23A] 1.116 Table 74

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	noun (phrase) (object complement)
1	<i>They made/declared/elected/appointed</i>	<i>Newton</i>	<i>President of the Royal Society.</i>
2	<i>Do you want to make</i>	<i>acting</i>	<i>your career?</i>
3	<i>She's made</i>	<i>the job</i>	<i>a success.</i>
4	<i>I make</i>	<i>the total</i>	<i>sixty.</i>
5	<i>It's Andrew who made</i>	<i>the group</i>	<i>what it was.</i>
6	<i>He seduced the girl but later made</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>his wife.</i>
7	<i>They wanted to crown</i>	<i>Caesar</i>	<i>King.</i>
8	<i>They named but usually call</i>	<i>the baby him</i>	<i>Richard Dick.</i>
9	<i>The team have voted</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>their new captain.</i>
10	<i>She has dyed</i>	<i>her hair</i>	<i>a beautiful shade of green.</i>
11	<i>The invaders found and left</i>	<i>the place it</i>	<i>a prosperous village a scene of desolation.</i>

Note

1 After *elect*, *declare*, etc, the definite article is omitted before the noun if it designates a unique office (e.g. *President*, *Chairman*). Preparatory *it* is used when, instead of a noun or pronoun, the direct object is an infinitive phrase or a *that*-clause.

They have made | it | an offence | to drive a motor vehicle with more than a certain percentage of alcohol in the blood.
They have made | it | a condition | that only the best materials shall be used.

Here are examples of the conversion to the passive.

- Newton was made President of the Royal Society.*
- The baby was named Richard but is usually called Dick.*

Some verbs may be used in either VP23A or VP25, the difference being the omission of *to be*.

He declared himself (to be) the leader of the organisation.
You consider yourself (to be) a genius, don't you?

[VP23B] 1.117 Table 75

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun (IO)	noun (phrase) (subject complement)
1	<i>This wool should make</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a good thick sweater.</i>
2	<i>Jill has made</i>	<i>Jack</i>	<i>an excellent wife.</i>

Note

That the noun/pronoun following the verb in this pattern is an indirect object is shown by the following re-phrasings.

- This wool should make a good thick sweater for me.*
- Jill has been an excellent wife for Jack.*

Verb Pattern 24

1.118 In this pattern the verb is followed by a noun or pronoun and a past participle.

The pattern is subdivided, as *have* needs separate treatment.

[VP24A] 1.119 Table 76

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	past participle (phrase)
1	<i>Have you ever heard</i>	<i>a pop song</i>	<i>sung in Japanese?</i>
2	<i>Have you ever seen</i>	<i>the mountains</i>	<i>covered in snow?</i>
3	<i>You must make</i>	<i>yourself</i>	<i>respected.</i>
4	<i>He couldn't make</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>heard.</i>
5	<i>You should make</i>	<i>your views</i>	<i>known.</i>
6	<i>We found</i>	<i>the house</i>	<i>deserted.</i>
7	<i>They found</i>	<i>themselves</i>	<i>stranded at the airport.</i>
8	<i>We want</i>	<i>the work</i>	<i>finished by Saturday.</i>
9	<i>I'll see</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>damned first.</i>

[VP24B] 1.120 *Have* is used in this pattern to indicate what the subject of the sentence experiences, undergoes, or suffers, as in 1-9. It also indicates what is held or possessed, as in 10-11.

Table 77

	subject + have	noun/pronoun (DO)	past participle (phrase)
1	<i>She's had</i>	<i>her handbag</i>	<i>stolen.</i>
2	<i>King Charles I had</i>	<i>his head</i>	<i>cut off.</i>
3	<i>The pilot had</i>	<i>his plane</i>	<i>hijacked.</i>
4	<i>The soldier had</i>	<i>his left leg</i>	<i>amputated.</i>
5	<i>I've recently had</i>	<i>my appendix</i>	<i>removed.</i>
6	<i>I've not yet had</i>	<i>a street</i>	<i>named after me.</i>
7	<i>Last week we had</i>	<i>all our windows</i>	<i>broken by hooligans.</i>
8	<i>This week we've had</i>	<i>the house</i>	<i>broken into by thieves.</i>
9	<i>She's having</i>	<i>her eyes</i>	<i>tested.</i>
10	<i>We have</i>	<i>your medicine</i>	<i>prepared now.</i>
11	<i>I've</i>	<i>no money</i>	<i>left.</i>

Verbs and Verb Patterns

Note

These sentences illustrate the link in meaning between *have* and *be*, as shown in:

*She has blue eyes.
Her eyes are blue.*

- 9 *Her eyes are being tested.*
10 *Your medicine is prepared now.*
11 *There's no money left.*

[VP24C] 1.121 *Have* and *get* are used in VP24 meaning 'cause to be'. See 1.24.

Table 78

subject + have/get	noun/pronoun (DO)	past participle (phrase)
1 <i>I must have/get</i>	<i>my hair</i>	<i>cut.</i>
2 <i>Let's have/get</i>	<i>our photograph</i>	<i>taken.</i>
3 <i>I'll just get</i>	<i>myself</i>	<i>tidied up.</i>
4 <i>Why don't we have/get</i>	<i>the house</i>	<i>painted?</i>
5 <i>You'll have to get</i>	<i>that tooth</i>	<i>filled.</i>
6 <i>I'll have/get</i>	<i>the matter</i>	<i>seen to.</i>
7 <i>Can we have/get</i>	<i>the programme</i>	<i>changed?</i>

Verb Pattern 25

[VP25] 1.122 Most of the verbs used in this pattern indicate an opinion, judgement, belief, supposition, declaration or mental perception. They are followed by a noun or pronoun, *to be* and an adjunct (an adjective or a noun). As shown in the examples *to be* is sometimes omitted. The perfect infinitive *to have been* is not omitted. This pattern is typical of rather formal style and is more usual in written English than in spoken English. In spoken English, informal style, VP9 (ie with a *that*-clause) is preferred. Two Tables follow. The second illustrates the pattern when long phrases are used in place of a noun or pronoun.

Table 79

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	(to be) + adjective/noun (phrase)
1 <i>Most people considered</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>(to be) innocent.</i>
2 <i>They all felt</i>	<i>the plan</i>	<i>to be unwise.</i>
3 <i>We believe</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>to have been a mistake.</i>
4 <i>Everyone reported</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>to be the best man for the job.</i>
5 <i>I should guess</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>to be about fifty.</i>

Verbs and Verb Patterns

6 <i>He declared</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>(to be) the leader of the organisation.</i>
7 <i>All the neighbours supposed</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>to be a widow.</i>
8 <i>I consider</i>	<i>what he said</i>	<i>(to be) unimportant.</i>
9 <i>I know</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>to be a fact.</i>
10 <i>I have always found</i>	<i>Jonathan</i>	<i>friendly/a good friend.</i>
11 <i>They knew</i>	<i>the man</i>	<i>to have been a spy.</i>
12 <i>The weather bulletin reports</i>	<i>the roads</i>	<i>(to be) clear of snow.</i>
13 <i>In Britain we presume</i>	<i>a man</i>	<i>(to be) innocent until he is proved guilty.</i>

Note

Conversions to VP9:

- 1 *Most people considered (that) he was innocent.*
7 *All the neighbours supposed (that) she was a widow.*

Conversions to the passive:

- 2 *The plan was felt to be unwise.*
13 *In Britain a man is presumed (to be) innocent until he is proved guilty.*

In clauses, the pattern is:

This custom, which I think barbarous, . . .
The accused man, whom I considered (to be) innocent, . . .
The visitor, who(m) I guessed to be about thirty, . . .
She's not so young as I supposed her to be.

1.123 If, instead of a noun or pronoun, the direct object is a *that*-clause, an infinitive or gerundial phrase, or the construction *for/of* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive, this has end position and introductory *it* is used.

Table 80

subject + vt	it	adjective/noun	clause/phrase, etc.
1 <i>Do you think</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>odd</i>	<i>that I should live alone?</i>
2 <i>Do you think</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>odd</i>	<i>for/of me to live alone?</i>
3 <i>People no longer consider</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>strange</i>	<i>for men to let their hair grow long.</i>
4 <i>Everyone thought</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>very foolish</i>	<i>of you to climb the mountain without a guide.</i>
5 <i>I think</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>a scandal</i>	<i>that there's so much racial prejudice still about.</i>
6 <i>Don't you consider</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>wrong</i>	<i>to cheat in examinations?</i>
7 <i>One day they may think</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>to thank us for all we've done.</i>

PART TWO

Time and Tense

- 2.1 The words **TIME** and **TENSE** must not be confused. The word **TIME** stands for a concept with which all mankind is familiar, divided into past, present and future. It is something independent of language. The word **TENSE** stands for a verb form or series of verb forms used to express a time relation. Tenses vary in different languages. Tenses may indicate whether an action, activity, or state is past, present, or future. Tenses may also indicate whether an action, activity, or state is, was, or will be complete, or whether it is, was, or will be in progress over a period of time. English verbs have only two simple tenses, the tenses called the Simple Present (e.g. *he writes*) and the Simple Past (e.g. *he wrote*). The Simple Present Tense can be used of past, present, and future time. Consider this question and answer:

A: *How does Richard earn his living?* B: *He sells books.*

The verb *sells* is Simple Present Tense. But this verb describes Richard's activities in the past, in the present, and in the future. He sold books last year, he is selling books now, and he will sell books in the future. Consider this sentence:

The plane leaves from Heathrow at three o'clock tomorrow afternoon.

The verb *leaves* is Simple Present Tense. It is used of an event in future time. Consider the verb *wrote* in these sentences:

I wrote a letter to my brother last week. (Past Tense; past time)

If I wrote to my brother now, he would receive the letter tomorrow morning. (Past Tense; present time)

If I wrote to my brother tomorrow, he would receive the letter on Tuesday morning. (Past Tense; future time)

Consider *knew* and *were* in these sentences:

I wish I knew where Polly was living now. (*knew*: Past Tense; present time; the sentence means 'I'm sorry that I don't know where Polly is living')

It's time the children were in bed. (*were*: Past Tense; present time; the sentence means 'The children ought to be in bed now')

In the sections that follow, therefore, it is important not to confuse present time and Present Tense, past time and Past Tense, future time and Future Tense. Names of tenses are printed with initial capital letters to help readers to avoid this confusion.

Compound Tenses

- 2.2 As well as the two simple tenses (Present and Past), English has many compound tenses. These compound tenses are made by combining two or more verb forms. These combinations may be concerned with time. Combinations with parts of the verbs *be* and *have* are usually concerned with time.

I am writing a letter now.

I have written three letters today.

He said he had been writing since two o'clock.

When parts of the verbs *be* and *have* are used in this way, they are auxiliary or helping verbs. (See 1.2.) The auxiliary verb *do* is used to form the expanded tenses, used in the formation of the negative and interrogative, and for the emphatic affirmative. (See 1.26.)

Other Verb Combinations

- 2.3 Other verb combinations are not concerned primarily with time. When such verbs as *may/might, must, ought, need, should* (see 1.27-30) are used in combination with other verbs, they are usually concerned with the way in which we look upon an activity or state, for example whether it is something certain, probable, or possible, whether it is real or unreal, or whether it is something likely or unlikely to be realized.

Many languages have verb forms with special endings to show these different ways of looking upon an activity or state. These changes of form in the conjugation of a verb are called **MOODS**. When such verbs as *should, would, must, and can* are used in combination with other verbs, they are called **MODAL AUXILIARIES** or **MODAL VERBS**. (*Modal* is the adjective form of *mode*, which is another word for mood.)

- 2.4 English verbs have three moods. They are called the **INDICATIVE**, the **IMPERATIVE**, and the **SUBJUNCTIVE**. The Indicative Mood is used for ordinary statements and questions. The Imperative Mood is used for making requests and for giving orders:

Shut the door, please!

Hurry up!

Don't do that!

The Subjunctive is not much used in modern written English and very rarely in modern colloquial English. It was formerly used to show such feelings as doubt and to indicate conditions. It is still used to express wishes in sentences such as:

God save the Queen!

God bless you!

Heaven forbid that...!

Grammar be damned!

The examples below illustrate the difference between the use of the subjunctive, formal style (more often in American than in British English) and the use, in informal style, of *should* and an infinitive.

There has been a proposal that Michael be dismissed. (less formal: ... *that Michael should be dismissed*; more likely: ... *a proposal to dismiss Michael*)

It's important that you arrive on time. (less formal: ... *that you should arrive on time*; more likely: ... *for you to arrive on time*)

In modern English it is more common to use a modal auxiliary (with an infinitive) or subjunctive equivalent (i.e. a verb combination that is equal to a subjunctive).

The uses of the various modal auxiliaries are dealt with and illustrated in Part 5. Here is an example of the verb *may*. One of the uses of *may* is to show that something is possible or probable.

You may remember the evening we first talked about going to London.

Instead of using the modal auxiliary *may*, it is possible to use the adverb *perhaps*.

Perhaps you remember the evening we first talked about going to London.

In the second sentence the verb *remember* is Indicative Mood. The idea of possibility or probability is shown not by means of the modal auxiliary *may* but by the use of the adverb *perhaps*.

It is because there are often numerous ways in which such ideas as possibility, condition, obligation and so on can be expressed that they are dealt with separately in Part 5.

Conjugation of the verb 'Write'

2.5 The names used for the simple and compound tenses are shown below. The conjugation of the verb *write* is given to illustrate the verb forms.

1 Simple Present Tense

I write
You write
He writes
We write
They write

2 Present Progressive* Tense

I am writing
You are writing
He is writing
We are writing
They are writing

3 Simple Past Tense

I wrote
You wrote
He wrote
We wrote
They wrote

4 Past Progressive Tense

I was writing
You were writing
He was writing
We were writing
They were writing

5 Future Tense Non-Progressive

I shall write
You will write
He will write
We shall write
They will write

6 Future Progressive Tense

I shall be writing
You will be writing
He will be writing
We shall be writing
They will be writing

7 Present Perfect Tense Non-Progressive

I have written
You have written
He has written
We have written
They have written

8 Present Perfect Progressive Tense

I have been writing
You have been writing
He has been writing
We have been writing
They have been writing

9 Past Perfect† Tense Non-Progressive

I had written
You had written
He had written
We had written
They had written

10 Past Perfect Progressive Tense

I had been writing
You had been writing
He had been writing
We had been writing
They had been writing

11 Future Perfect Tense Non-Progressive

I shall have written
You will have written
He will have written
We shall have written
They will have written

12 Future Perfect Progressive Tense

I shall have been writing
You will have been writing
He will have been writing
We shall have been writing
They will have been writing

* also called *Continuous*

† sometimes called *Pluperfect*

Ways of Indicating Time Relations

2.6 Many grammar books deal with the tenses one by one and describe the various purposes for which each tense is used. In the following sections a different procedure is used. Time relations of various sorts are used as cross headings, with section numbers. The various ways in which these time relations can be expressed are then set out. The names of the tenses, as shown above, are used for this purpose.

The Immediate (or Real) Present

- 2.7 There are several ways of indicating that an activity or state is incomplete and therefore likely to occupy a limited period of time. The activity is still continuing at the moment of speaking or writing. The Present Progressive Tense is the tense most often used for this purpose. It is the tense most closely associated with present time. There may be an adverbial of present time (e.g. *now, today*), but this is not essential. The time may be implied.

What's she doing now? She's making a cake.
The boys are playing tennis in the park.
What's the orchestra playing?

The Present Progressive Tense is used for the immediate present and also for a more general present.

Charles is writing a letter now. (i.e. at this moment)
Charles is writing another novel. (indicating that he has started it but not yet finished it; it does not suggest that Charles is, at this moment, sitting at his desk)

Cf *Charles writes novels.* (see 2.14)

Harry's playing football now.
Harry's playing in the first eleven this season. (see 2.80)

Cf *Harry plays football well.* (see 2.14)

In a few cases the active form of a verb is used in the progressive tenses with a passive meaning.

The book is reprinting. (= is now being reprinted)
'Hamlet' at the National Theatre is playing (= is being played) *to full houses.*
Where is the new film showing? (= is being shown)

- 2.8 The Simple Present Tense is sometimes used to describe an activity that is actually in progress at the moment of speaking. Its use for this purpose is much less common than the use of the Present Progressive.

The Simple Present Tense is used for this purpose chiefly in demonstrations, descriptions or explanations, step by step, of the various stages in a process of some kind, for example the way to cook something, or the way in which a scientific experiment is made.

I sift the flour, salt, and baking powder into a bowl. I mix them well. Then I break the eggs into a cup. If they are good, I add them to the mixture in the bowl. Then I beat the mixture thoroughly. . . .
 etc.

If we introduce these sentences with the words *Whenever I make this kind of batter*, we have the use of the Simple Present Tense for what is habitual or usual.

In classroom work, when tense usage is being taught by means of activity procedures, there is a choice between the Simple Present Tense and the Present Progressive Tense. The teacher may say as he performs a sequence of actions:

I'm going to the door. I'm opening it. I'm closing it. I'm going back to my desk. Where am I standing now? I'm standing at my desk.

This helps learners to form the association between the Progressive Tenses and activity in progress.

The use of the Simple Present Tense for this sequence is equally correct. It indicates a sequence of actions looked upon as a step-by-step description of a demonstration. The choice between the two tenses may depend upon the textbook used. Some textbooks introduce the Simple Present first. (*John is an English boy. He lives in London. He gets up at seven o'clock every morning, has breakfast at half-past seven, and leaves for school at half-past eight.*)

- 2.9 The Simple Present Tense is also used in commentaries, e.g. as broadcast during a sporting event such as a football match or a horse-race. If what the commentary describes is of brief duration, simultaneous with the moment of speaking, the Simple Tense is used. If, however, the activity is extended in time, before and after the moment of speaking, the Progressive Tense is preferred.

(from a football match commentary:)

Green passes the ball to Brown. Brown passes it to Black who heads it past the goalkeeper and scores!

(from a commentary on a boat race:)

Oxford are gaining on Cambridge and are only two lengths behind. They are now drawing level with Cambridge. . . .

- 2.10 The Simple Present Tense is also used in exclamatory sentences beginning with *here* and *there*. See 1.35.

Here he comes!
Here comes the bus!
There she goes!
There goes the bell!

If these statements were not exclamatory, the Progressive Tense would be used.

He's coming.
The bus is coming.
She's going.
The bell is ringing.

- 2.11 The verb *continue* (and such equivalents as *go on*) are used in the Simple Present Tense. As they contain in themselves the notion of continuity, it is less necessary to use the Progressive (or *Continuous*) Tenses.

The weather continues cold and wet. (Cf It is still raining.)
The war goes on, with all its hardships and horrors.

(Note that when *go on* means 'happen', the Progressive Tense may be used: *What's going on there?*)

- 2.12 Verbs of perception are used in the Simple Present Tense to denote an activity or state that continues.

Do you hear a strange noise?
 (**Are you hearing a strange noise?*)

For further notes and examples, see 2.61-5.

- 2.13 There are numerous other verbs for which the use of the Simple Present Tense is preferred to indicate a state, condition, feeling, etc, that continues at the moment of speaking or writing. These are listed and illustrated in examples in the article on Non-Conclusive Verbs (2.66-8). They are verbs that denote what is looked upon as continuing indefinitely, or unlikely to change, as in: *He likes fish. He knows French.*

The most important point to remember about the Present Progressive Tense is that its use indicates an activity or state that is still incomplete but whose termination may be expected, as in: *It is raining.* This is a point that should be borne in mind for all the Progressive Tenses. They indicate a continual activity or state, but not a permanent activity or state. There is always a limitation, an expectation that there was or will be an end to the activity or state. This is why these tenses are, in grammatical terminology, sometimes called the Imperfect Tenses.

All-inclusive Time

- 2.14 In general statements of what was true in past time, is true now, and is likely to be true in future time, the Simple Present Tense is used.

The sun shines during the day.
Birds fly.
The River Nile rises in Central Africa.
The earth moves round the sun.
Horses are animals.
Twice two is four.

These are examples of what are sometimes called 'eternal truths'. Other general statements, not covering all time but a vague period of time extending from past to present and presumably into the future, are also made with the Simple Present.

Your sister speaks French well.
Charles writes novels.
John prefers films to stage plays.
My cat likes fish.

See the article on Non-Conclusive Verbs (2.66-8) for other examples of the Simple Present Tense for all-inclusive time.

- 2.15 The Simple Present Tense is also used for references to what was communicated in the past. It indicates that what was communicated continues to be true or effective. The verbs *say*, *tell*, *write*, *learn*, *hear* and *see* are used.

The newspapers say it's going to be cold today.
The author of this book says that . . .
It says in the Bible, 'Thou shalt not steal'.
I see in today's 'Times' that . . .
I hear you're going to Italy soon.
My friends tell me that you've been unwell.
John writes to say that he can't visit us this week.

In the last two examples the Simple Present is not much different from the Present Perfect.

My friends have told me . . .
John has written to say . . .

Say is the usual verb when we quote from what is written or printed. *Writing* and *print* continue to exist. Compare a quotation from a radio programme:

The BBC weather report this morning said that we should have rain.

A broadcast, unlike something in print, does not continue to exist.

- 2.16 The Present Perfect Tense of *get* is used in colloquial style to indicate inclusive time. *I've got* means the same as *I have*.

Has your father got a motor-car?
How many books have you got?
What long hair you've got!

Past Time

- 2.17 To indicate activities or states in the past, without indicating any connexion with the present, the Simple Past Tense may be used. There

is often an Adverbial of Past Time in the sentence. Note, especially, the use of adverbials with *ago*. See 4.7 (Table 89). For the positions of these adverbials, see 4.9. The adverbial may indicate either a point of time (as in examples 1 to 4) or a period of time (as in examples 5 to 7). Or the time may be implied, or indicated by the context or situation (as in examples 8 to 10).

- 1 *He was born in 1906.*
- 2 *The First World War began in 1914.*
- 3 *Harry came to see me yesterday.*
- 4 *I heard the news an hour ago.*
- 5 *The Greens lived in Ireland during the war.*
- 6 *She studied music while she was in Paris.*
- 7 *Most of our cathedrals were built during the Middle Ages.*
- 8 *I bought this fountain pen in London.*
- 9 *Did you sleep well?* (This question, asked at breakfast, obviously means: Did you sleep well last night?)
- 10 *Napoleon marched his army to Moscow.*

If the situation or context is clear, each one of a succession of activities may be indicated by the use of the Simple Past Tense.

- 11 *He woke at seven, got out of bed, washed, shaved, dressed, went downstairs, had breakfast, put his overcoat on, hurried to the bus stop, and caught a bus to the station.*

If the order in which two or more activities occur is not clear from the situation, the Past Perfect Tense may be needed. See the article on the Inclusive Past (2.29–34).

- 2.18 To indicate that an activity or state was continuing at the time when another activity occurred, the Past Progressive Tense may be used.

- 1 *When George arrived home, his sister was looking at TV.*
- 2 *Where were you living when the war broke out?*
- 3 *I saw Mr Grey while I was walking to school.*
- 4 *The boy was knocked down by a bus while he was crossing the street.*
- 5 *We must have been playing tennis in the park when you phoned.*
- 6 *Was it still raining when you came in?*
- 7 *My hat blew off while I was crossing the bridge.*
- 8 *Mary fell and broke her leg while she was skating.*
- 9 *The sun was just setting as we reached home.*
- 10 *I dropped my watch while I was winding it last night.*

- 2.19 If the chief interest in a past activity is not in the point or period of past time but in the activity itself and its continuity, the Past Progressive Tense may be used. There is less interest in the completion of the activity.

- 1 *What were you doing all morning?*
- 2 *She was watching TV all evening.*
- 3 *The girls were making cakes this morning.*
- 4 *She was writing letters all afternoon.*

In these examples it is the continuous nature of the activity that is made prominent by the use of the Past Progressive Tense. If the activity itself is the chief interest, and if the completion of the activity is also to be indicated, the Simple Past Tense is to be preferred. Thus, the examples above would be:

- 1 *What did you do this morning?*
- 2 *She watched TV yesterday evening.*
- 3 *The girls made some cakes this morning.*
- 4 *She wrote some letters in the afternoon.*

The situation described below illustrates this difference. Imagine that a friend says to you:

'Did you hear about that terrible pile-up on the M1 last night?'

You might answer, using the Simple Past Tense:

- 'Yes, Brown told me about it' or
'Yes, I read about it in the newspaper.'*

Or you might answer, using the Past Progressive Tense:

- 'Oh, Brown was telling me about it this morning' or
'Yes, I was reading about it in the newspaper.'*

The second pair of answers, in the Progressive Tense, suggests that your knowledge of the accident is not yet complete. Your friend, therefore, may give you further information. The first pair of answers, in the Simple Past Tense, suggests that your knowledge is complete.

- 2.20 If we wish to indicate that two or more activities or states were continuing at the same time, and to put into prominence the continuous nature of the activities or states, the Past Progressive may be used for both or all the activities.

- 1 *While I was sowing the seeds, Harry was digging up potatoes and George was picking plums.*
- 2 *Lucy was practising the piano and Carol was baking a chocolate cake.*

If the completion of the activities is the chief interest, not their continuity, the Simple Past Tense is preferred. Thus, sentence 1 would be:

I sowed some seeds, Harry dug up some potatoes, and George picked plums.

For habitual and repeated activities in the past, see 2.55–9.

- 2.21 Completed activities in the past are sometimes indicated by the use of the Simple Present Tense. This is sometimes called the 'Historic Present'. It is used to make past events appear more vivid. It is used in English much less than in some other languages (eg French).

The messenger arrives with news of the disaster. At once preparations are made to send relief to the victims of the flood. Boxes of food and bundles of clothing are loaded on to lorries, . . .

The Simple Present Tense is also used in colloquial style to make a recital of past events more dramatic.

So she goes up to the policeman. 'There's a burglar in my house!' she says. 'Are you sure of that?' asks the policeman. 'Yes,' she says. So the policeman goes to her house and starts looking for the burglar.

The Inclusive Present

Past Activities within a Period extending to and including the Present

- 2.22 If we wish to refer to completed activities that took place within a period of time that extends to and includes the present moment, without giving a definite point or period of time for any of these activities, we may use the Present Perfect Tense. The starting-point of the period need not be indicated.

He has often been to Amsterdam.

Here the period is implied. It is the lifetime of the person of whom the statement is made. The period may, of course, be indicated, e.g. by the use of such phrases as *since the end of the war*, or *during the last ten years*.

The Present Perfect Tense, therefore, is the tense often used to refer to experiences for which no definite date(s) in the past need be given, or for which no definite date(s) are known, e.g. in questions. Adverbials of frequency may be used.

- 1 *Have you (ever) read 'David Copperfield'?*
- 2 *Have you had any serious illnesses?*
- 3 *It has been known to snow here in May!*
- 4 *Have you ever been up in a balloon?*
- 5 *I've never known her to lose her temper.*
- 6 *Mr Brown has never had to punish his children.*
- 7 *Mr White has been to Burma. (Cf Mr White has gone to Burma. This is an example of the use of the Present Perfect Tense dealt with in 2.23 below. Mr White has been to Burma indicates that Mr White once visited Burma but not that he is in Burma now. Mr White has gone to Burma means that he is now in Burma or on his way to Burma.)*

Present Result of Past Activity or Experience

- 2.23 The Present Perfect Tense is also used to refer to the present result of an activity or experience in the past. The chief interest is not in the past but in the present. In the examples below this aspect of the

Present Perfect Tense is shown by the additions in parentheses. These suggest possible present results.

- 1 *I've come to school without my glasses (so now I can't see to read).*
- 2 *She has spent many years in France (so now she probably knows a lot about France and the French.)*
- 3 *Jim has bought a car (so now he needn't use public transport).*
- 4 *Bill has been out of work for several months (so now he and his family are short of money).*
- 5 *I've finished my work (so now I can sit back and rest).*
- 6 *You haven't finished your work (so you must still go on working).*
- 7 *The man has called for the rent (so now you will have to pay him).*
- 8 *I've bought a copy of the 'Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary' (so now I can check up on difficult words).*
- 9 *Who has eaten all the cherries? (Who is to be blamed for the fact that there are now no cherries?)*
- 10 *Mr White has gone to Burma (so now his place is empty). (Cf 2.22 example 7 and the notes on it.)*

- 2.24 To indicate an activity or state that extends over a period of time that began in the past and includes the present, and to indicate that the activity or state may extend into the future, the Present Perfect Progressive Tense is used.

- 1 *She has been waiting to see you since two o'clock (and is still waiting).*
- 2 *I've been wanting to see you about several important matters.*
- 3 *They've been studying English for three years.*
- 4 *It has been raining since early morning.*
- 5 *The baby has been crying all morning.*
- 6 *He has been working late every evening this week (and will perhaps do so for the rest of the week).*
- 7 *I've been reading 'David Copperfield' this week. (This implies that I am still reading it. Cf I have read 'David Copperfield' this week. This implies that I started and finished the book during the week. Cf I have read 'David Copperfield', with no adverbial of time. This sentence, which comes under 2.22, indicates something that is part of my past experience.)*
- 8 *She has been taking violin lessons this year. (This implies that she continues to take violin lessons.)*
- 9 *They have been living in England since 1968. (This indicates that they still live in England. Cf At various times they have lived in Iran, Japan, Egypt, and Nigeria. This is an example of past experience. See 2.22.)*
- 10 *I have been writing letters all afternoon. (This may suggest that I am still writing letters or may stress the continuity, as noted in 2.25. Cf I have written half a dozen letters this afternoon. This indicates that the letters are now finished, as in 2.23.)*

Note

The Present Perfect Progressive Tense is likely to be used more especially with those verbs that denote a passive, not an active

state, e.g. *walt, sit, rest, sleep, lie (down)*. It is possible to say *I've waited here for an hour*, but *I've been waiting* is much more probable. It is (theoretically and grammatically) possible to say *These books have lain on the floor of your study all week* but *have been lying* is much more probable.

2.25 The Present Perfect Progressive Tense usually indicates that the activity or state referred to still continues and may continue in the future. This tense is sometimes used, however, of an activity that is now ended. In such cases there is emphasis on the continuity of the activity or state. The continued and uninterrupted nature of the activity is often emphasized in this way as an explanation of or excuse for something.

- 1 *I don't feel like going out this evening. I've been working in the garden all day.*
- 2 *The boys have been playing football. That's why they're so hot.*
- 3 *Please excuse my dirty clothes. I've been cleaning out the garden shed. (Cf I've cleaned out the garden shed. Now it's fit to store things in. When the result of an activity is thought of, the Simple Present Perfect Tense is preferred; see 2.23.)*
- 4 *Be careful! John has been painting the door. (John is no longer painting the door. Here, attention is called to the recent activity, a kind of warning that the paint is still wet. Cf John has painted the door. This might be said after the paint had dried.)*
- 5 *We have been building a garage on to the house. (Here the use of the Progressive Tense might be to give prominence to the activity involved, the mess and disturbance. If the speaker wished to call attention only to the existence of the new garage, the Simple Present Perfect would be preferred: We have built a garage on to the house.)*

There is no clear line of division between the use of the Simple Present Perfect and the Present Perfect Progressive, but the examples and the notes to them may give some guidance.

2.26 In older English *be* was often used with verbs that indicate motion where *have* is used in modern English. Thus, *is come* was used where today we use *has come*. The finites of *be* are still used in some cases. Their use makes it possible to mark a distinction.

The snow has melted. (This draws attention to the process or happening.)

The snow is melted. (This calls attention to the result, the fact that the streets, etc. are now clear of snow.)

Completed Activities in the Immediate Past

2.27 To indicate completed activities in the immediate past the Present Perfect Tense with the adverb *just* may be used. Or the Simple Past

Tense may be used with an adverbial such as *a moment ago* or *a few moments ago*. Note that *just* is placed between *have* (or *has*) and the past participle, and that *a moment ago* has end position. (See 4.7-9, 16.)

- 1 *George has just gone out. (George went out a moment ago.)*
- 2 *We've just finished breakfast. (We finished breakfast a few moments ago.)*
- 3 *It has just struck twelve. (The clock struck twelve a short time ago.)*
- 4 *Brian has just rung up. (Brian rang a few moments ago.)*
- 5 *The cat has just had kittens. (The cat had kittens not long ago.)*

Do not confuse this use of *just* with the use of the adverb *just* meaning 'barely' or 'merely'. With these meanings *just* may be used with verbs in various tenses.

I just (=merely) wanted to ask you about . . .

You will just (=barely, with no time to spare) catch the bus if you hurry.

See *just* in 4.14-16.

Adverbials used with the Present Perfect Tense

2.28 An examination of the adverbials used with the Present Perfect Tense will show that, with the exception of *just* (as in the examples in 2.27), they indicate periods of time that begin in the past and extend to the present. The most important are:

1 *since*-phrases and *since*-clauses (see 4.17, Table 96)

We haven't seen George since 1960.

I've had no news of him since he left for Singapore.

Do not use the Simple Present Tense with *since*.

*I have been (*I am) here since two o'clock.*

2 phrases with *for*, denoting a period of time that continues up to the present (see 4.17, Table 96)

We haven't seen Helen for several months.

There has been no rain here for over three weeks.

Have you been waiting long/for a long time?

3 the adverbs *already* and *yet*

Have the children gone to school yet?

Has Tom left yet?

I've seen that film already/I've already seen that film.

4 the adverbs *ever* and *never* when they mean 'at any (no) time up to the present'

Have you ever been to Iceland?

I have never been down a coal-mine.

(When *ever* means 'at any time during a period of time completely past' or 'at any time in the future', it may, of course, be used with other tenses.)

5 adverbials of frequency such as *often, several times, etc*

I've often been there.

I've read this book several times.

6 adverbials of present time such as *today|this week|month|year etc*

Have you done much work today?

I haven't seen Harry this week.

It has been raining all day (ie all this day).

Tom hasn't come to school this morning.

(Note that *all day, all night, etc.* may also be adverbs of past time. *This morning* may also refer to past time if one is speaking in the afternoon or evening: *Did you get to school in time this morning?*)

7 the adverbs *just, lately, recently*, and adverbials such as *during the last week|the last few days*

The cat has just had kittens.

She hasn't been well lately.

He has been away from school (during) the last few weeks.

(*Recently* and *lately* are also used with the Past Tense: *He was here quite recently.*)

8 various phrases such as *so far, up to now, up to the present*

So far we have had no trouble.

Up to the present, everything has been straightforward.

The Inclusive Past

2.29 To indicate activities that took place within a period of time that extended to and included a point or period of time completely in the past (the 'before-past'), the Past Perfect Tense may be used. The point or period of past time is either named or implied. To indicate that the activity was continuous, or that it was still going on at the named point or period of past time, the Past Perfect Progressive Tense may be used. Compare the use of the Present Perfect Tenses (Progressive and Non-Progressive) for the inclusive present (the 'before-now').

- 1 *As soon as the teacher entered the classroom, he saw that one of the boys had drawn a sketch of him on the blackboard.*
- 2 *When Ted came to the school in 1965, Mr Robinson had already been teaching there for five years.*
- 3 *By three o'clock he had answered only half the letters he had received that morning.*

- 4 *By/In 1960 he had been married (for) ten years.*
- 5 *When we arrived at the stadium, the match had already started.*
- 6 *On reaching the station, he found that his friends had just arrived.*
- 7 *When Ali came to England in 1972, he had already learnt to speak English well.*
- 8 *The bus driver was just about to start when he remembered that he had not filled the petrol tank.*
- 9 *We had got everything ready for them long before they arrived.*
- 10 *They had been to several parties during the Christmas holidays.*

2.30 The Past Perfect naturally replaces the Past Tense and the Present Perfect Tense in reported speech after a reporting verb in the Past Tense. Compare the use of *ago* with the Past Tense and *before* (or *earlier, previously*) with the Past Perfect Tense.

- 1 *'I have already read that book.'* → *She told me that she had already read that book.*
- 2 *'They left the district a few months ago.'* → *I was told that they had left the district a few months before/earlier/previously.*
- 3 *'Where have you been? What have you been doing?'* → *He asked me where I had been and what I had been doing.*
- 4 *'George died two days ago.'* → *They told me that George had died two days before.*
- 5 *'I visited Naples two years ago.'* → *Mary told me that she had visited Naples two years before.*

2.31 If the sequence of events is clear without the use of two different tenses, the Past Tense may be used to indicate two (or more) events. This is usually the case when the conjunction is *before*.

*He opened the window before he got into bed,
The bus started just before I reached the bus stop.*

With other conjunctions the Past Perfect Tense is usually needed to indicate the earlier of two events.

When he had had his supper, he went to bed.

Compare the two examples below. In the first example the two events occur together. In the second example one event follows another.

*When the Queen entered the hall, the orchestra played the National Anthem.
When the Anthem had been played, the concert began.*

2.32 The conjunctions used to join two sentences in which we indicate two past events, one of which preceded the other, are *when, before,*

after, until, once, now that, and as soon as. There are often alternative constructions. These are illustrated below.

- 1a *When I reached the station, the train had already left.*
 b *I reached the station after the train had left.*
 c *I didn't reach the station until after the train had left.*
 d *The train (had) left before I reached the station.*
- 2a *When we got to the hall, the concert had already started.*
 b *We got to the hall after the concert had started.*
 c *We didn't get to the hall until after the concert had started.*
 d *The concert (had) started before we got to the hall.*
- 3a *For several years after Dick (had) left school, he worked in a zoo.*
 b *When Dick left school, he worked for several years in a zoo.*
- 4a *As soon as they had finished breakfast, they ran out to play.*
 b *They ran out to play after they had finished breakfast.*

Note

1d and 2d: as these examples show, the Past Tense is possible instead of the Past Perfect Tense in clauses with *before*. The conjunction *before* itself indicates the difference in time.

3a and 3b: here, too, the sequence of events is clear without the use of different tenses.

- 2.33 Compare the use of *when* and *before* and of *when* and *after* in these pairs of sentences. Note the changes from negative to affirmative in the examples marked *b*.

- 1a *When the bell rang, we had finished our work.*
The bell rang after we had finished our work.
 b *When the bell rang, we had not finished our work.*
The bell rang before we had finished our work.
- 2a *When I met George, he had already heard the news.*
I met George after he had heard the news.
 b *When I met George, he had not yet heard the news.*
I met George before he had heard the news.
- 3a *When Tom called to see me, I had already had breakfast.*
Tom called to see me after I had had breakfast.
 b *When Tom called to see me, I had not had breakfast.*
Tom called to see me before I had had breakfast.
- 4a *When the thief was caught, he had already disposed of the stolen goods.*
The thief was caught after he had disposed of the stolen goods.
 b *When the thief was caught, he had not yet disposed of the stolen goods.*
The thief was caught before he had disposed of the stolen goods.
- 5a *When we reached the football ground, the game had already started.*
We reached the football ground after the game had started.
 b *When we reached the football ground, the game had not yet started.*
We reached the football ground before the game had started.

- 2.34 The Past Perfect Tense is used with such verbs as *hope, expect, think, intend, mean* (= intend), *suppose*, and *want* to indicate that a past hope, expectation, intention, desire, etc. was not realized.

- 1 *We had hoped that you would be able to visit us.*
- 2 *I had meant/intended to call on you, but was prevented from doing so.*
- 3 *She had thought of paying us a visit but the bad weather made her change her plans.*
- 4 *I hadn't expected that/That was something I hadn't expected.*
- 5 *They had wanted to help but couldn't get here in time.*
- 6 *I hadn't for a minute supposed/expected that I should get the first prize. (But my supposition/expectation was mistaken. I did get the first prize.)*
- 7 *We had intended to go to Wales this summer.*

Note

An alternative construction for unrealized or unfulfilled hopes, etc. when the main verb is used with a *to*-infinitive, is the use of the Simple Past Tense and a perfect infinitive.

- 2 *I meant/intended to have called on you, but . . .*
- 7 *We intended to have gone to Wales . . .*

Of the two constructions the first is to be preferred.

Future Time

- 2.35 There are several constructions by which future activities and states are indicated. In addition to the Future Tense (with *will* and *shall*) there are numerous Future Tense equivalents. The question of how to indicate future activities or states is complicated by the fact that intention, likelihood, willingness, and other elements may have to be considered. Many of these are dealt with in Part 5. Here, therefore, they will be dealt with only briefly, with cross-references to the appropriate sections in Part 5.

- 2.36 When future events are not influenced by willingness, intention, or likelihood, we may speak of a 'pure future'. The most obvious examples of a 'pure future' are those in which there is no personally controlled element.

- 1 *Tomorrow will be Sunday.*
- 2 *My father will be seventy-five in May.*
- 3 *I shall be fifty next birthday.*
- 4 *The holidays will soon be here.*
- 5 *On which day of the week will Christmas Day be next year?*

- 6 *Next century will begin on the first of January, 2001.*
- 7 *On June the twenty-first the sun will rise at 4.42 and set at 9.20.*
- 8 *Will there be time to visit both the Museum and the Art Gallery?*
- 9 *How long will the work take?*
- 10 *It's very late. Won't the shops be closed now?*

2.37 In the ten examples above there is no element of willingness or intention. (In 2 and 3, the subjects are persons, but our age is something we cannot change by will or intention.) When the subject is a person or persons an element of willingness, intention, etc, may often be present. If, however, there are some external circumstances that may affect the future activity or state, the Future Tense is preferred to the various Future Tense equivalents. Note, in the examples below, the temporal or conditional clauses. These make the use of the Future Tense preferable to the use of the Future Tense equivalents that are discussed in the following sections.

- 1 *If you go out in all this rain, you'll get wet.*
- 2 *If you start at once, you'll arrive by six o'clock.*
- 3 *What shall we do if it rains on the day fixed for the sports meeting?*
- 4 *Unless the train is delayed by fog, we shall arrive at three o'clock.*
- 5 *I'm sure he'll come if you ask him.*
- 6 *They'll be able to speak English well a year from now provided they work hard.*
- 7 *The fog won't clear until there's a wind to blow it away.*
- 8 *We'll never finish if we go on at this rate.*
- 9 *He'll help you if you ask him nicely.*
- 10 *You'll never save any money while you're so extravagant.*

Note

In many parts of the English-speaking world *will* is used in place of *shall* with the first person pronouns. The contracted forms *I'll* and *we'll* are common in speech. The negative *won't* is also used in place of *shan't*. As *I won't* and *we won't* are used to indicate refusal (see 5.70), *shan't* is used with the first person pronouns for the pure future. For a comparison of *shall you* and *will you*, see 5.10.

2.38 To indicate a future activity or state that will begin before and continue after a point or period of future time, the Future Progressive Tense is used. See examples 1 to 6. This tense is also used to indicate that an activity or state will extend over the whole of a future period of time. See examples 7 to 10.

- 1 *I wonder what he'll be doing (at) this time tomorrow?*
- 2 *If you don't write, everybody will be wondering what has happened to you.*
- 3 *His children will be waiting at the airport to meet him.*
- 4 *In a few days' time I shall be enjoying the sunshine of West Africa instead of shivering here in an English winter.*

- 5 *When I get home, my wife will probably be watching TV.*
- 6 *Let's hope it won't still be raining when we leave.*
- 7 *We shall be travelling all night.*
- 8 *I shall be playing tennis all afternoon.*
- 9 *He says he'll be working late every evening next week.*
- 10 *Harry will be doing his military service next year.*

2.39 The last four examples in 2.38 also illustrate the use of the Future Progressive Tense to indicate a future activity that is part of a plan or arrangement. Plans and arrangements are dealt with in 5.46-50 and only a summary is given here.

When a future event is part of a settled programme, the Simple Present Tense may be used.

- I leave for Dublin tomorrow.*
Professor Black retires next year.
We have dinner with Joe and Mary on Tuesday.

The last example could also suggest a standing arrangement (*We always have dinner with Joe and Mary on Tuesday*).

For single events that form part of a programme or that have been planned for the future, the Present Progressive is more usual.

- We're going to Dublin next week.*
I'm taking the children to the Zoo on Sunday.
What are you doing tomorrow?
Where are you spending your next summer holidays?
It's Shrove Tuesday, so we're having pancakes for supper this evening.

The Future Progressive Tense is also used for future events that are planned.

- We shall be going to Dublin next week.*

2.40 The use of the finites of *be* and a *to*-infinitive indicates something planned for the future, either by the persons concerned or by others. See 1.68 (VP4F, Table 35) and 5.50 for notes and examples.

2.41 When intention is added to the idea of futurity, *going to* is usually preferred to *will/shall*. Compare:

- I shall work harder next term.*
I'm going to work harder next term.

The first sentence makes a statement about the future; the second adds to this the idea of intention. See 5.44-5 for an account of this construction and numerous examples.

The construction *going to* is also used to indicate what seems to be likely or probable in future. The Meteorological Bureau may issue a weather forecast and state:

- There will be rain over southern England during the night.*

A person who is not a weather expert would probably say:

It's going to rain soon. Look at those black clouds.

For the use of *going to* to indicate likelihood and probability, see 5.22. For the use of *will/would* for this purpose, see 5.24.

- 2.42 Promises, threats, and refusals are usually concerned with future time. The use of *will* and *shall* to indicate these is dealt with in 5.68, 5.70.
- 2.43 *Will* and *shall* are used to indicate willingness and determination. See 5.63–6. They are also used to indicate and ask about wishes. See 5.77–8. For their use in commands, requests, invitations, and suggestions, see 5.10, 13.
- 2.44 A future activity or state can be indicated by the use of the adjectives *sure* and *certain* with a *to*-infinitive.

He's sure to be there (= He'll certainly be there).
They're certain to need help (= They'll certainly need help).
It's sure to rain (= It will certainly rain).

- 2.45 Future time is also indicated by the use of *to come* after a noun that stands for a period of time: *in the years to come* (= in future years).
- 2.46 The Present and Present Perfect Tenses may indicate future time in temporal and conditional clauses.

I'll buy it for you when/if I have the money.
We'll go home when the rain stops.
When I've talked it over with my wife, I'll come to a final decision.
I can't decide until I've discussed the matter with my wife.
I'll come as soon as I've finished writing this letter.

The Past Tense may indicate future time in conditional clauses.

If I had the money (now, or in future), I'd buy it for you.

Note also the use of the Past Tense after *It's (high) time*. This suggests that the right time for an activity, etc is now, or has passed or has been postponed too long.

It's time we started.
It's about time you stopped being so idle and did some work.
It's high time the children were in bed.

The Inclusive Future

- 2.47 To indicate activities that will or are considered likely to extend to and include a point or period of time in the future, the Future Perfect Tense may be used. The Future Tense points to the time of an activity; the Future Perfect Tense puts more emphasis on the completion of the activity and on the consequence of this. To indicate that an activity will be continuous, but that it will end, the Future Perfect Progressive Tense may be used. The examples below are not only of the Future Perfect Tenses; they compare these tenses with others. Imagine a couple who were married in 1970. Speaking in the year 1980, they might say:

- 1 *We've been married now (for) ten years.*
- 2 *In 1975 we'd been married (for) five years.*
- 3 *In the year 2000 we'll have been married (for) thirty years.*

Imagine a man who is now setting out on a tour round the world, a journey that is to take nine or ten months. He could say:

- 4 *In six months from now I shall probably be in India.*
- 5 *By this time next year I shall have crossed three oceans and (shu!!) have seen four or five continents.*

Compare the next two examples. 6 indicates the time at which an activity will end. 7 looks beyond the completion of the activity to what follows the completion of the activity.

- 6 *I shall finish this work before five o'clock.*
- 7 *I shall have finished this work by five o'clock (and shall then be able to sit back and rest).*

Imagine a student who has already been at the university for three years and who is to take his degree examination ten months from now. We might say of him:

- 8 *By this time next year George will have taken his university degree.*
- 9 *When George gets his degree, he will have been studying for four years.*

Sentence 8, non-progressive, indicates a completed act in future time. Sentence 9, progressive, indicates an activity represented as being continuous over a period of time that will end in the future.

- 2.48 For the use of the Future Perfect Tense to indicate an assumption, see Probability and Likelihood, 5.24.

You will have heard the news (= I assume that you have heard it/
 It is likely that you have heard it).

Repeated or Habitual Activities; Continuing States

- 2.49 There are several ways of indicating activities or states of this kind. The verb-groups *be in the habit of* or *have the habit of*, followed by a gerund, may be used to indicate habitual activities.

He is in the habit/has the habit of scratching his head when he is puzzled.

Mr Black is in the habit of staying up late at night to read.

Are you in the habit of reading in bed?

- 2.50 The Simple Present Tense is used, often with an adverbial of frequency. See 4.10-13 (Tables 91-3).

The 2.30 train never stops at that station.

Mary often arrives at school late.

Harry gets up at seven o'clock every day.

You take both milk and sugar in your tea, don't you?

At what time/When do you (usually) have lunch?

This magazine comes out once a week.

Why don't you shut the door quietly when you come in?

The child cries whenever she goes to the dentist.

We wear woollen clothes in winter.

I neither smoke nor drink and I never gamble.

- 2.51 The Present Progressive Tense is used with *always* (or an adverbial similar in meaning, such as *continually*, *constantly*, *perpetually*, *for ever*) to indicate frequent repetition, often with the suggestion of annoyance or irritation, or to call attention to a recent instance.

He's always complaining.

His wife is always wanting money for new clothes.

Her husband is continually complaining of being hard up.

Grumbling again! You're for ever finding fault with me!

- 2.52 The verb *can*, with *be* and a complement, indicates occasional occurrence. It is used to indicate what persons, etc, are occasionally capable of being. *Could* is used for past time.

She can/could be very sarcastic/charming, etc (i e is/was sometimes very sarcastic, etc).

Children can be a great nuisance.

The Bay of Biscay can be very rough.

The English climate can be pretty grim in winter.

Repeated or Recurrent Activities.
Present and Future

- 2.53 The verb *will*, with an infinitive, is often used to indicate that something is likely to recur or to be repeated in the future because it has

been observed in the past. The construction is generally used not of what is regular or habitual but of what occurs only occasionally. This use of *will* and an infinitive is not common with the first person pronouns *I* and *we*.

Sometimes the machine will go wrong without any apparent cause.

At times he will work for six or seven hours without stopping.

She'll sit at the window for hours at a time, looking at the passing scene.

- 2.54 *Will* and an infinitive are also used, with stress on *will*, to suggest that something must always be expected, that there can be no change.

Accidents 'will' happen. (There have always been accidents in the past and we must expect them in the future.)

Boys 'will be' boys. (Boys always have been rough, noisy, etc, and we cannot expect them to be different.)

Repeated or Habitual Activities.
Continued States, Past Time

- 2.55 When the reference is to past time only, the Simple Past Tense, usually with an adverbial or adverb clause to indicate the period, is often used. For past activities an Adverbial of Frequency may be used.

There was a cinema here before the war.

When he lived in London, he went to the theatre once a week.

Whenever I went to the theatre, I sat in the cheapest seats.

During the summer we went swimming every day.

She always invited me to her dinner parties.

- 2.56 *Used to* and an infinitive is very common. (See 1.30.)

There used to be a cinema here before the war.

He used to play football before his marriage.

People used to think/It used to be thought that the sun travelled round the earth.

Life is not so easy here as it used to be.

You used to smoke a pipe, didn't you? (or use(d)n't you?)

That's where I used to live when I was a boy.

- 2.57 The verb groups *be in the habit of* and *have the habit of*, followed by a gerund, may be used.

He was in the habit/had the habit of scratching his head when he was puzzled.

- 2.58 The Past Progressive Tense with *always*, etc (as in 2.51 for the Present Progressive) may be used.

*He was always grumbling.
She was forever asking her husband for money to buy new clothes with.*

- 2.59 The verb *would* and an infinitive may be used. This is restricted to occasional occurrences of an activity. It is not used of a state that continued in the past.

*He would cycle to school on fine days and would take the bus only when the weather was bad.
She would often come home tired out.
Sometimes the boys would play tricks on their elder brother.*

Temporarily Repeated Activities or Continued States

- 2.60 When we wish to indicate that an action or activity is, was or will be repeated over a period of time, but is not to be considered as habitual, regular, or permanent, the Progressive Tenses may be used. This use of the Progressive Tenses is to be distinguished from their use to indicate an activity actually in progress. (See 2.7 for this.)

They usually have breakfast at eight o'clock, but this week, because Mr Brown has to walk to the office instead of going by car, they're having breakfast at half past seven.

Cf *they usually have*, Simple Present Tense, for what is regular and habitual, and *they're having*, Present Progressive Tense, for what is repeated during a limited period of time.
Cf *They're having breakfast now*, also Present Progressive Tense, for an activity now in progress.

He was taking his children out for treats much oftener then.

(The use of the Progressive Tense limits the period of time.)
Cf *He took/used to take his children to the park every Sunday*, for what was habitual during a long period of time.

We're having very cold weather at present.

Cf *We usually have cold weather in January.*

We've been having a lot of rain lately. (This points to frequently repeated periods of rain.)

Cf *We've had a lot of rain.* This might refer to a single heavy fall of rain.

Verbs of Perception

- 2.61 Verbs of Perception are verbs we use when we refer to the obtaining of knowledge through the five senses or through the mind. The chief verbs of perception are *see, hear, smell, taste, feel*. A few other verbs may be placed in this class, for example, *notice, observe, recognize*. These verbs are not, as a rule, used in the progressive tenses except with a change of meaning, as illustrated below.

- 2.62 The verbs *see* and *hear* are closely associated with *look* and *listen*. *Look* and *listen* denote voluntary activities that may continue over a period of time. *Look* and *listen*, therefore, are verbs that can be used in the progressive tenses. *Seeing* and *hearing* are often involuntary. Compare *see* and *look, hear* and *listen*, in these sentences:

*I saw a man go past, but I didn't look at him.
They heard the teacher saying something, but didn't listen to him.*

An effort to perceive may be implied with *see* and *hear*. In this case *can/could* may be used. Compare *look* and *see, listen* and *hear*, in these sentences:

*I looked out of the window, but it was dark and I saw/could see nothing.
We listened carefully, but heard/could hear nothing.*

The verbs *see* and *hear* are used in the simple tenses or with *can/could*.

*Do you see that green bird near the stream?
Can you see Mary anywhere in the audience?
Do you see what they are doing?
Can you see what I have written on the blackboard?
Did you see Harry yesterday?
Can you hear what the speaker is saying?
Do you hear someone moving about in the next room?
Did you hear a strange noise?*

Compare the use of *look* and *listen*:

*He was looking at some old photographs.
Are you listening to the radio? (If not, please switch it off.)*

When *see* is used with a meaning different from that illustrated in the sentences above, the progressive tenses may be used. *See* may mean 'meet', 'have a talk or interview with'. *See* may be compounded with an adverb or preposition, as in *see somebody off/up/down/out*, or *see to* (attend to) *something*. Here are examples of *see* used with such meanings, in the progressive tenses.

*I'm seeing (paying a visit to) my dentist this afternoon.
Tom is seeing a lot of Mary (meeting her often, spending a lot of time with her) these days.
When you saw me at the airport this morning I was seeing a friend off.*

*I was just seeing a visitor out (going to the front door with him).
Who is seeing to the arrangements for the next meeting?
I'll be seeing Kate home (accompanying her to her home) after
the party tonight.*

The verb *hear* is used of legal cases meaning 'try'. So we can say:

Which judge is hearing the case?

Hear may also be used of a lesson, etc.

My brother was hearing me practise my part in the play.

- 2.63 The verb *smell* is used in several ways. When the reference is to something involuntary, the simple tenses or *can* and the infinitive may be used.

*Do you smell something burning?
The horses smelt the water a mile off.
We could smell the dinner cooking in the next room.*

When there is a conscious effort of perception, *can* is preferred.

Can you smell an escape of gas?

When the verb means 'send out an odour', the simple tenses are used:

*It smells sweet/sour/nice/disgusting, etc.
She smells of roses.*

When the verb is used of a conscious and deliberate use of the sense of smell, thus indicating an activity that may continue, the progressive tenses are possible.

*The dog was smelling the lamp-post.
She was smelling the fish to find out whether it was fit to eat.*

- 2.64 The verb *taste*, like the verb *smell*, is used in various ways.

*The milk tastes sour (has a sour taste).
Can you taste the ginger in this cake?
She was tasting the sauce to find out whether it was salt or sugar she
had put into it.*

- 2.65 Note how the verb *feel* can be used.

*These sheets feel damp (are damp when felt).
This feels like silk (is like silk to the feel).
I feel cold/warm/comfortable/ill, etc.
The doctor was feeling the boy's arm to see whether the bone
was broken. (Progressive tense for a deliberate and conscious
activity.)*

Non-Conclusive Verbs

- 2.66 When the verb *see* is used of the sense of sight, it is a verb of physical perception. We also use the verb *see* for mental perception, that is, understanding something through the mind.

*I can see the force of your argument.
I see what you mean.*

When *see* has the meaning with which it is used in these two examples, it is not used in the progressive tenses. We do not, for example, say **I am seeing what you mean*'. We can, however, say *I'm beginning to see what you mean*'.

- 2.67 There are numerous verbs, like *see*, that are used less frequently than other verbs in the progressive tenses. These verbs denote various mental perceptions, states of mind, or feelings. What the verb denotes may be a feeling such as liking or disliking, or it may be knowledge or understanding. Liking, disliking, knowing, and understanding cannot be started and stopped at will. We cannot say when they will reach an end, or a conclusion. So verbs such as *like*, *dislike*, *know*, and *understand* are sometimes called *non-conclusive verbs* or *stative verbs*. They denote a state or feeling that is assumed to have no end. Non-conclusive verbs, like verbs of perception, are rarely used in the progressive tenses except with a change of meaning. The progressive tenses indicate an activity that is in progress, in which the idea of *incompletion* may be prominent. If a man says 'I am learning French', he tells us that his knowledge of French is incomplete. If a man says 'I know French' or 'I understand French', he tells us that he already has an adequate knowledge (or what he considers to be an adequate knowledge) of French, a knowledge that will remain with him (if he continues to use the language). *Know* and *understand* are non-conclusive verbs. They are not normally used in the progressive tenses.

- 2.68 The following lists are of verbs that are in all or some of their meanings non-conclusive:

1 For mental states, perceptions, awareness: *agree, believe, differ, disagree, disbelieve, distrust, doubt, find, foresee, forget, guess, imagine, know, mean, notice, recall, recognize, recollect, regard, remember, see, suppose, think, trust, understand.*

2 For emotional states: *abhor, adore, astonish, desire, detest, dislike, displease, feel (that), forgive, hate, hope, like, love, mind (= object to), please, prefer, want, wish.*

3 Miscellaneous: *appear (= seem), belong, consist (of), contain, depend, deserve, equal, have, matter, possess, resemble, result (from), seem, suffice.*

In order to show how these verbs are used as non-conclusive verbs, and how some of them may be used, with different meanings, in the progressive tenses, examples and notes are given.

- I differ* (*I'm differing) *from you on that point.*
 Cf *He's always differing* (= disagreeing) *with his fellow teachers.*
- I doubt* (*I'm doubting) *whether he'll come.*
Do you doubt my word?
 Cf *He's always doubting my word.* (with the progressive tense to suggest repetition; see 2.51)
- I foresee* (*I'm foreseeing) *no difficulty.*
 Cf *He was always foreseeing difficulties that never arose.*
- I find* (= perceive) (*I'm finding) *that I was mistaken.*
 Cf *You're continually finding fault with me.* (see 2.51)
 Cf *I'm finding* (= discovering, realizing) *that this problem is more complicated than I had expected.*
 Cf *We're finding out* (= learning, discovering) *what really happened.*
- I have* (*I'm having) *a large library of reference books.*
 Cf *I'm having* (= experiencing) *some difficulty with this problem.*
- I forget* (*I'm forgetting) *the French word for 'ankle'.*
 Cf *He's forgetting his French.* (The use of the progressive tense suggests a gradual loss of his knowledge of French, his ability to speak French.)
 Cf *I'm forgetting* (= I nearly forgot) *that I promised to visit Smith this evening.*
 Cf *Are you forgetting your manners?* (This is a kind of reminder. It could be said to a child who has failed to perform a conventional act of politeness, such as saying 'Thank you'.)
- I don't imagine* (*I'm not imagining) *that taxes will be reduced this year.*
 Cf *He's always imagining dangers that don't exist.* (see 2.51)
- I think* (*I'm thinking) *it's going to rain.*
 Cf *We're thinking* (= considering the idea) *of going to Scotland for our holidays.*
- I distrust* (*I'm distrusting) *that man.*
 Cf *He's always distrusting his own judgement.* (see 2.51)
- I feel* (= am of the opinion) (*I'm feeling) *that you're right.*
 Cf *She's feeling/She feels better today.* (There is little to choose between the members of this pair.)
- Do you like* (*Are you liking) *fish?* (This asks about a taste assumed to have been formed and to be permanent.)
 Cf *How are you liking your new job?* (Here the progressive tense is used because the person to whom the question is put may not have arrived at a final state of either like or dislike.)
- Do you mind* (*Are you minding) *if I open the window?*
 Cf *Jack is minding* (= looking after) *the children while his wife is out shopping.*

- It depends* (*It's depending) *upon circumstances.*
 Cf *I depend/am depending* (= rely) *upon you.* (Either tense is acceptable)
- You deserve* (*You're deserving) *to succeed.*
 Cf *He's deserving of praise.* (*deserving* is adjectival, not verbal)
- Tom wants* (*is wanting) *to be a doctor.*
 Cf *What's he wanting this time?* (The use of the progressive tense suggests that the person concerned makes frequent or repeated requests.)
- Do you see* (= understand) (*Are you seeing) *what I mean?*
 Cf *I'm seeing* (= paying a visit to) *my lawyer this afternoon.*
- These books belong* (*are belonging) *to my brother.*
Do you understand (*Are you understanding) *what I say?*
How many houses does he own (*is he owning)?

Inchoative Verbs

- 2.69 The term INCHOATIVE VERB is used for a verb that denotes the beginning, development or final stage, of a change of condition. The commonest verbs in this class are *get*, *become*, and *grow*.

The old man is getting weaker.
Green has become the richest man in the town.
It is growing dark.

Other inchoative verbs are *come*, *go*, *turn*, *fall*, *run*, *wear*.

Will her dream come true?
Everything has gone wrong.
The leaves are turning brown.
He soon fell asleep.
Our supplies are running low.
The carpet is wearing thin.

In older English the verb *wax* was commonly used. It is frequent in the Authorized Version of the Bible. In modern English the use of *wax* is often humorous, as in *wax eloquent*.

- 2.70 These verbs are used in VP2C, 2D (1.50, 51, 55, Tables 19, 20, 24) and VP4A (1.62, Table 29). The predicative may be an adjective (*grow fat*), a noun (*become a lawyer*), a prepositional phrase (*fall to pieces*), or a *to*-infinitive (*come to believe that . . .*). The chief verbs in this class are dealt with below and illustrative sentences are given. In some cases there is no choice of verb (e.g. *come true*, *fall asleep*). In many contexts two or more verbs are possible (e.g. *grow/get/become dark*). Where, in the examples, alternatives are given the alternative placed first is stylistically or idiomatically preferable.

- 2.71 *Get* is the commonest of the inchoative verbs and is neutral or colourless. It is typical of colloquial style. It is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives. *Get* is more frequently used in the progressive tenses than are the other verbs in this class.

It's getting dark.
Eggs are getting scarcer.
It's getting near tea-time.
He often gets|becomes quarrelsome when he's been drinking.
We're all getting|growing older.
Do you know any get-rich-quick methods?

Get is also used with *to*-infinitives. In the progressive tenses the construction is equivalent to *become*. In the Simple Past Tense it denotes a later, or the final, stage in a development. *Got to know*, for example, means 'arrived at the stage of knowing'. See 1.62 (VP4A, Table 29).

The children didn't like living in the country when they first moved from London, but they're getting to like it (i.e. becoming fond of it) now.
He's getting to be|becoming quite a good pianist.
They got to be|became friends.
He got to be|became my best friend.
He soon got to know (i.e. learnt) the wisdom of being patient.
They got to words and then to blows (i.e. began arguing and then fighting).
Does she often get|fall ill?

Note also the common phrases *get rid of* and *get clear of*, and *get out of* (= escape from) *doing something*.

- 2.72 *Become* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives.

How did they become|get acquainted?
She became|grew suspicious.
You will become|get accustomed to the climate.
Our work is becoming more interesting.
The child became|grew pale and thin.
When it became|grew|fell dark . . .
When these sums|payments|bills become|fall due . . .
His mind is becoming unhinged.
The leaves become|turn red in autumn.

Become is also used with nouns.

On leaving school he became an acrobat.
He soon became the richest man in the town.
Mr Armstrong became a Director of the Company in 1942.
He became Chairman of the Board of Directors in 1950.

Note, in the two last examples, the use of the indefinite article before *Director* and the absence of any article before *Chairman*. When the reference is to an appointment or succession to an office or position normally held at one time by one person only, the definite article is possible but is usually omitted.

Are you likely ever to become a headmaster?
When Arnold became Headmaster of Rugby, . . .
When Churchill became Prime Minister, . . .

Become is rarely used with a prepositional phrase. *Come of age* is preferable to *become of age*. *Get out of order* is preferable to *become out of order*.

- 2.73 *Grow* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives.

Time is growing|getting short.
The air had suddenly grown|turned cold.
She trembled and grew faint.
It's growing|getting|becoming dark.
The child is growing|getting thinner.
The sea is growing calm.

Grow is used with *to*-infinitives (though *to be* is often omitted before adjectives). See 1.62 (VP4A, Table 29).

She's growing|getting to be more and more like her mother.
She's growing|getting to like him better.
He grew to believe that (i.e. gradually formed the belief that) . . .
 Cf *He came to believe that (i.e. reached the stage of believing that) . . .*

- 2.74 *Come* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and especially with past participial adjectives in *un-* that denote an undesirable or unsatisfactory condition.

Her dreams have come true.
The hinge has come loose.
Everything will come right in the end.
When his first week's wages fell|came due, . . .
My shoelaces have come undone.
The knot came untied.
The seam came unstitched|unsewn.
The door came unhinged.

Come is used with a few prepositional phrases: *come of age*, *come to pieces*, *come to grief*.

Come is used with *to*-infinitives. See 1.62 (VP4A, Table 29).

How did you come to hear the news?
When the news came to be known, . . .
She came to believe that . . .
When I came to know them better, . . .
Today the streets have come to be used as parking places for cars.

- 2.75 *Go* is used with adjectives to denote a definite or decided change, usually but not always one for the worse. (Cf *go wrong* and *come right*.)

She went/turned pale at the news.
The milk went/turned sour.
The telephone has gone dead.
The engine went dead.
His hair has gone/turned white.
He's going bald.
Fruit quickly goes rotten in hot weather.
He went mad/insane.
Her cheeks went/turned a very pretty pink.

Go is rarely used with a noun, but the example below (from an advertisement) is an exception.

Go high-speed gas! (i.e. change from coal or oil to gas, for cooking, heating, etc).

Go is used with prepositional phrases.

He went off his head.
He went to sleep. (Cf *fell asleep*)
She went to pieces (i.e. lost her control of the game) *in the second set.*

- 2.76 *Turn* is used with adjectives and their comparatives.

The weather has turned/become much colder.
The apples are turning/becoming red.
This ink turns black when it dries.
The milk has turned sour.

Turn is used with nouns. The noun is used without the indefinite article and the construction usually indicates an unexpected or undesirable change or development.

I hope you'll never turn traitor/become a traitor.
Is it wise for a great general to turn politician?
When her servant left to have a baby Lady Susan had to turn cook (i.e. become the cook for the household).

Turn is used with prepositional phrases.

When it freezes water turns to ice.
The snow soon turned to rain.
The snow turned (in) to slush.

- 2.77 *Wear* is used with adjectives and their comparatives to indicate a change that results from use.

The stone steps have worn smooth (i.e. have become smooth through being trodden on).
The material is wearing thin.

Note also the phrase *wear into holes*.

- 2.78 *Run* is used with the adjectives *dry*, *low*, and *short* to denote a change in the condition specified.

The well has run dry.
The cows are running dry (i.e. not giving milk).
Supplies are running short/low.

- 2.79 *Fall* is used with adjectives (but not their comparatives). Its use in this pattern is restricted to:

He fell ill/sick.
When do the rates/taxes fall due?
The post of headmaster fell/became vacant.
He soon fell asleep.
At the President's entry everyone fell/became silent.

Fall is used with *to* and a noun or gerund to denote the beginning of an activity or state. This is a literary use and the verb *begin* is more usual in ordinary style. The use of the preposition *on*, weakened to *a-*, is archaic.

He fell to speculating (i.e. began to speculate) *on the probable reasons for her refusal to marry him.*

All the birds of the air fell a-sighing and a-sobbing
When they heard of the death of poor Cock Robin.

Fall is used with a few prepositional phrases: *fall out of favour*, *fall behind the times*, *fall to pieces*.

PART THREE

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

3.1 Patterns for these are not set out in tables as are patterns for verbs. An attempt is made to provide in a systematic manner some guidance on the ways in which words of these classes are used. Some minor patterns, e.g. for determiners, are presented in tabular form.

Definitions

3.2 Definitions of the parts of speech are of little value. Nouns and verbs can be identified from the positions they occupy in the appropriate columns of tables.

The term **NOUN**, as used in the sections that follow, includes the verbal noun or gerund. The term **ADJECTIVE** is restricted to those which are used attributively and predicatively, are generally subject to comparison (*large, larger, largest; more/most beautiful*) to modification by adverbs of degree (*very good, too large*), and may occur as subject and object complements (*He looks/seems happy*, and *We consider him guilty*). It includes the present and past participles (*amusing, amused*) when these are used in the same ways as ordinary adjectives.

A small number of adjectives (e.g. *afraid, asleep, awake*) are used only predicatively. Some adjectives are also used as adverbs; see 4.25. Some adjectives (e.g. some in *-en*, denoting the material of which something is made) are used only attributively; see 3.83.

Noun Patterns

3.3 The sections that follow deal with the ways in which a noun may be modified by structures other than determiners, adjectives, and adjective equivalents such as nouns (*a flower garden*), prepositional phrases (*the boy in the corner*) and relative clauses (*the boy who was here yesterday*). For these see 3.80–117.

The six noun patterns are:

- NP1A Noun + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *attempt to climb*; cf *he attempted to climb*)
- NP1B Noun + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *anxiety to leave*; cf *anxious to leave*)
- NP1C Noun + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *house to live in*)
- NP2A Noun + preposition + noun/pronoun (e.g. *anxiety for news*)
- NP2B Noun (+ preposition) + conjunctive + phrase/clause (e.g. *mystery (of) why she left*)
- NP3 Noun + *that*-clause (e.g. *news that she had left*).

Noun Pattern 1

Noun + *to*-infinitive

- [NP1A] 3.4 In this pattern a *to*-infinitive is used as an adjunct to a noun. The noun is identical with a verb that can be used with a *to*-infinitive or a gerund that corresponds to a *to*-infinitive. See 1.74 and 1.77.
- 1 *Another attempt to climb Mount Everest was made in the following year.* (Cf *They attempted to climb Mount Everest in the following year.*)
 - 2 *The Prime Minister's decision to resign was welcomed by the Opposition.* (Cf *The Prime Minister decided to resign, and this was welcomed by the Opposition.*)
 - 3 *His refusal to help was disappointing.* (Cf *He refused to help and this disappointed us.*)
 - 4 *You've no need to worry.* (Cf *You needn't/don't need to worry.*)
 - 5 *You haven't kept your promise to write to me more often.* (Cf *You promised to write to me more often, but you have not done so.*)
 - 6 *The managing director announced his intention to retire.* (Cf *The managing director announced that he intended to retire/intended retiring.*)
 - 7 *Anne's desire to please her mother-in-law was clear to all of us.* (Cf *Anne clearly desired to please her mother-in-law.*)
 - 8 *Jane expressed a wish to earn her own living.* (Cf *Jane said she wished to earn her own living.*)
 - 9 *Your parents won't like your plan to live abroad.* (Cf *You plan to live abroad. Your parents won't like that.*)
 - 10 *His refusal to pay his debts landed him in prison.* (Cf *He refused to pay his debts, and this landed him in prison.*)

[NP1B] 3.5 The noun may be one that has a corresponding adjective used with a *to*-infinitive. See AP1, 3.71–6.

- 1 *His anxiety to go was obvious.* (Cf *He was obviously anxious to go.*)
- 2 *He was filled with ambition to become famous.* (Cf *He was very ambitious to become famous.*)
- 3 *Has he the ability to do the work?* (Cf *Is he able to do the work?*)
- 4 *She was dying with curiosity to know where we had been.* (Cf *She was very curious to know where we had been.*)

[NP1C] 3.6 The *to*-infinitive is used as an adjunct to nouns which have no corresponding verbs or adjectives. It is also used with pronouns and with determiners such as the ordinals and *next/last*. The infinitive is often the equivalent of a relative clause. It is often passive in meaning.

- 1 *He has a large family to support* (= which he must support).
- 2 *There are many difficulties to overcome* (= to be overcome, which will have to be overcome).

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

- 3 *He's not a man to trifle with* (= to be trifled with, who can be trifled with).
- 4 *It's time to start* (= time we/you/they, etc started).
- 5 *He was the first (man) to arrive* (= who arrived) *and the last to leave* (= who left). (see 3.78)
- 6 *You've given me much to think about* (= which I must think about).
- 7 *The Government has announced new measures to deal* (= which are intended to deal) *with inflation*.
- 8 *This is the best book to appear* (= which has appeared) *on the subject*.
- 9 *Is this the way to do it* (= the way in which it should be done)?
- 10 *The best lawyer to consult* (whom you/he/anyone, etc should consult) *is Mr Eccles*.
- 11 *We have no garden to speak of* (= no garden that is worth mention).
- 12 *If you ever have an opportunity to visit me* (= of paying me a visit), . . .

As some of the examples show, there may be more than one possible subject of the infinitive. Where necessary the infinitive may have its own subject.

- 1 *The best barrister for you/your friend/anyone to consult is Mr Eccles*.
- 2 *I'm in no hurry for him to start work*.
- 3 *There may be an opportunity for you to see the manager this afternoon*.
- 4 *It's time for the children to go to bed*.
- 5 *I will post the books in plenty of time for them to reach you before you go to Italy*.

Noun Pattern 2

Noun + preposition + noun/pronoun

- 3.7 Many nouns are used with an invariable preposition in a way that corresponds with the use of verbs and adjectives with the same preposition. The verb *specialize* and the noun *specialist* are used with *in*.

Dr Brown specializes in chest diseases.
Dr Brown is a specialist in chest diseases.

The adjective *anxious* and the noun *anxiety* may both be used with *for*.

We were anxious for news of your safe arrival.
Our anxiety for news of your safe arrival was great.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

[NP2A] 3.8 In this pattern the preposition is obligatory. The noun and the preposition form a unit. In the examples below, corresponding verbs and adjectives are given where possible for comparison.

- 1 *There's no need for anxiety* (no need to be anxious).
- 2 *Have you any use for this?* (Can you use this?)
- 3 *Harry takes (a) great delight in teasing* (Harry delights in teasing) *his little sister*.
- 4 *He expressed dissatisfaction* (He said he was dissatisfied) *with my work*.
- 5 *They have decided to hold an inquiry* (to inquire) *into the question*.
- 6 *Have they made any inquiries* (Have they inquired) *after me?*
- 7 *There was a quarrel* (They quarrelled) *about the division of the stolen goods*.
- 8 *We must make allowances* (We must allow) *for his youth and inexperience*.
- 9 *She said she had an aversion* (she was averse) *to the cat sleeping on her bed*.
- 10 *I have not the least interest* (I am not in the least interested) *in his plans*.
- 11 *In conformity* (In order to conform) *with your instructions, I am leaving for Athens at once*.
- 12 *We had a useful discussion on* (We discussed) *the question of how to raise money for the new playing fields*.
- 13 *He announced his retirement* (that he was retiring) *from the Civil Service*.

Note

The preposition used with a noun is not always used with the corresponding verb. The verb *discuss* (used in one of the examples above) is used in VP6A, with a direct object. We do not say **We discussed about the problem*. The noun *discussion* is used with *on* or *about*, *with* and *between*: *a discussion (with someone/between X and Y) on/about a problem*.

Different prepositions may be used with a noun in different contexts: *an attempt on/against someone's life* (an attempt to kill him); *an attempt at English composition/to write an essay, etc*; *to have a concern* (= interest) *in a business*; *to feel concern* (= anxiety) *for somebody's health/at what happened*.

The appropriate collocation of noun and preposition will become familiar when the learner has heard and seen it repeatedly in various contexts. Until this stage is reached the learner may refer to a dictionary which provides this information, preferably with examples.

Noun (+ preposition) + conjunctive + phrase/clause

[NP2B] 3.9 Compare these sentences:

Few people know how to do it.
Few people know how it should be done.
The knowledge of how to do it was not very common.
The knowledge of how it should be done was not very common.

The first two sentences illustrate the use of the verb *know* in VP8 and VP10. The third and fourth are examples of the noun *knowledge* in NP2B.

The preposition is often optional, as shown in the examples below, e.g. before a dependent question introduced by *whether*, and after the noun *question*.

The preposition *about* may sometimes be replaced by *concerning* or *as to*.

For some of the examples alternative constructions are given.

- 1 *You can have no idea (of) how anxious we have been* (of the anxiety we have suffered).
- 2 *I have no idea why she left* (of her reasons for leaving).
- 3 *We have no information about/as to/concerning where she has gone, what she is doing, or when she is likely to be back.*
- 4 *He was in considerable doubt about/as to whether he should accept the post* (about the advisability of accepting the post).
- 5 *There has been no news about when the lecturer will arrive* (about the date/time of the lecturer's arrival).
- 6 *The problem of how to get (of getting) the grand piano through the doorway puzzled the workmen.*
- 7 *She sometimes asked herself the question whether it was worth the effort.*
- 8 *His account/story of how he rescued the cat from the bottom of the well was quite dramatic.*
- 9 *I'm in doubt about/as to whether I should go/whether to go or not.*
- 10 *Take care how you cross these busy streets.*
- 11 *We got into an argument about whether to go by sea or by air.*

Noun Pattern 3

Noun + *that*-clause

[NP3] 3.10 *That*-clauses are used as complementary adjuncts to nouns:

The news that her son had been killed was a great shock.

In such clauses *that* is a conjunction and its use obligatory. *That*-clauses following a noun may be relative clauses:

The news (that) you brought was a great shock to her.

In relative clauses *that* is a pronoun and may be omitted, or may be replaced by *which*.

In NP3 *that* is the conjunction, not the relative pronoun.

Alternative sentences with a preposition in place of *that* are provided with the examples.

- 1 *There can be no doubt that he's intelligent* (no doubt of his intelligence).
- 2 *Rumours that rioting was probable* (rumours of probable rioting) *caused a panic among shopkeepers.*

- 3 *Is there any likelihood/possibility that the Government will be defeated* (any likelihood/possibility of the Government('s) being defeated)?
- 4 *The thought that she might lose* (The thought of losing) *her husband worried Mrs Brown.*
- 5 *The fact that her husband had* (The fact of her husband('s) having) *a life assurance policy for £20,000 was a consolation to her.*
- 6 *He expressed a hope that you would soon be well again* (a hope for your quick recovery).
- 7 *There is little possibility that they will succeed* (little possibility of them/their succeeding).
- 8 *Is there any certainty that they will carry out* (any certainty of them/their carrying out) *their undertakings?*
- 9 *There was unmistakable evidence that Jimmy had been eating* (evidence of Jimmy('s) having eaten) *the jam.*
- 10 *Instructions were given that warm clothing should be distributed* (There were instructions for the distribution of warm clothing) *to the flood victims.*
- 11 *Your proposal/suggestion that the money should be used* (for using the money) *to build a nursery school is admirable.*
- 12 *The news that our team had won* (The news of our team's victory/success) *thrilled us all.*

Determiners

3.11 The term *determiner* is used in this new edition instead of the term *determinative* used in the first edition. *Determiner* has established itself in recent years.

The term *determiner* embraces several classes of words which, in dictionaries and older grammar books, are called adjectives and pronouns. The definite and indefinite articles, the partitive articles, the demonstratives, adjectives and pronouns of indefinite number and quantity, are dealt with in the sections that follow.

The most common determiners are, in alphabetical order: *a(n), all, another, any, both, certain, each, either, enough, every, few, half, last, least, less, little, many, more, most, much, neither, next, no, other, own, plenty, same, several, some, such, that/those, the, this/these, whole*. To these must be added the numerals (cardinal and ordinal) and the possessives (e.g. *my/mine, our/ours, John's*).

Where useful, we may distinguish between the adjectival use of a determiner (as in '*This pen is mine*' and '*My house is small*') and the pronominal use (as in '*This is my pen*' and '*That small house is mine*').

A determiner may identify a person or thing, or two or more persons or things, as in *this book, those pens, John's/my brother's car*. A determiner may indicate a quantity or amount (affirmatively or negatively), as in *three/several/some/a few men; some/no/a little/not much water*.

3.12 For the purpose of setting out the ways in which determiners are used (or *not* used) with nouns, the distinction between what are now often called 'countables' or 'count nouns' and 'uncountables' or 'mass nouns' is useful. Nouns such as *book, pen, apple* and *toy* are countable nouns. They can be used with the articles, with numerals, and in the plural.

Nouns such as *bread, knowledge, traffic, music, milk* and *homework* are uncountable nouns. Such nouns are not normally used in the plural (and therefore not with numerals). Some nouns belong to both classes. *Time* may mean 'occasion', as in 'How many times have you been absent this term?'. It is, in this context, a countable noun. 'I've been absent three/several/many times'. In the question 'How much time did you spend on your homework', *time* is an uncountable noun.

Uncountable nouns can be used with or without determiners. In the sentence, 'Bread is made of flour', *bread* is said to be used with zero article (i.e. no article—see 3.45). Cf 'a loaf of bread': *loaf* is a countable noun and must have a determiner.

Uncountable nouns may be used with determiners to indicate quantity and measurement, as in *half a litre of milk, three metres of cloth, two kilogrammes of flour* or by various phrases, as *a piece/bit of glass, a sheet of paper, a blade of grass, a pile/heap of books, an item of news/information*.

The symbols [C] and [U] stand for countable and uncountable nouns, and are used in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* with noun entries to show which nouns, and, where appropriate, which meanings of nouns, are used as countables and uncountables.

The Personal Pronouns

3.13

	First Person		Second Person	Third Person	
	Singular	Plural	Singular and Plural	Singular	Plural
Subject	I	we	you	he, she, it	they
Object	me	us	you	him, her, it	them
Possessive	my	our	your	his, her, its	their

Gender

3.14 Gender is distinguished only in the third person singular pronouns *he, she, it; him, her, it; his, her, its*.

If the sex of a person or animal is unknown *it/its* may be used.

*She's expecting another child and hopes it will be a girl.
Look at that long-haired child! Is it a boy or a girl?
The child was so happy that its face lit up with pleasure.*

If the sex is known, the appropriate pronoun is used.

*The baby has thrown her/his rattle out of the pram.
The singer was wildly cheered by his/her audience.*

The use of the alternatives *he or she/him or her/his or her* is formal, never colloquial.

Every candidate must write his or her name in full.

In informal style such alternatives are usually avoided.

One of the passengers has lost his passport.

3.15 Persons closely associated with ships, aircraft, cars, locomotives (or other objects for which they feel affection) often use the feminine pronouns. A sailor will use *she/her* when referring to a boat or ship. So will the owner of a car, or a salesman hoping to sell a car. Gardeners may even refer to a rose as *she*.

Isn't she a beauty!

The feminine pronouns are also used for countries. This use is not limited to emotive contexts.

Britain is proud of her great poets and dramatists, just as Italy is proud of her painters and sculptors, and Germany of her composers.

Number

3.16 The plural pronouns *they/them* are often used to refer to persons in authority in a group to which neither the speaker nor his listener belongs, and *we/us* are used for those over whom others have authority.

*What a lot of questions they ask us in these census forms!
We'd like to build a garage on to the house. Will they give us permission, I wonder? (they = the planning authorities)*

You is often used with an indefinite meaning.

It's much easier to cycle with the wind behind you.

This is much more usual than:

One finds it much easier to cycle with the wind behind one.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

- 3.17 The indefinite pronouns *anybody/anyone*, *everybody/everyone* and *somebody/someone* are used with verbs in the singular. The pronoun may be *his* or *her* (or formally *his or her*), or the plurals *they*, *them* and *their* may be used.

When everyone has taken his seat/their seats, the concert will begin.

Everyone seemed to be in Oxford Street, busy with their holiday shopping.

Everyone wants higher wages, don't they?

If anyone calls, tell them I'll be back about four o'clock.

It's unwise to blame anyone for their mistakes until you know all the circumstances.

This common usage evades the problem of *his/her*. In contexts where grammatical 'correctness' is desirable, the dilemma may be avoided by the use of *we*, *you* or *people*.

We all/All of us want higher wages, don't we?

When you've all taken your seats, the concert can begin.

It's unwise to blame people for their mistakes until . . .

Case

- 3.18 The forms *me*, *us*, *him*, *her* and *them* are required after a preposition and are common in colloquial style when they are the complement after the verb *be*.

A: 'Who's there?' B: 'It's me'.

What would you do in these circumstances if you were me (= if you were in my place)?

A: 'Do you think Tom did it?' B: 'I can't be sure. It may have been him, but it may have been Dick'.

In formal style *It may have been he* is preferred.

After prepositions the object forms are used. *Between you and me* is correct. **Between you and I* is incorrect.

- 3.19 After the conjunction *than*, when there is no likelihood of misunderstanding, e.g. after a finite of *be*, the object forms are often used in colloquial style.

John's several years older than me (= than I am).

With transitive verbs, the choice between the subject and object forms depends upon what is to be understood.

I know you better than he (= better than he knows you).

I know you better than him (= better than I know him).

It is preferable to avoid the ellipsis by giving the complete statement, as in the parentheses in the examples above.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

- 3.20 After *such as* the subject form is usual when a finite of *be* is to be understood.

You wouldn't marry a man such as he (= such as he is), would you?

Because *such as* may be replaced by *like*, the object form is sometimes used.

For men such as us/men like us (= men such as we are), the new regulations are irksome.

Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns

- 3.21 The possessive adjectives are *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its* and *their*. The possessive pronouns are *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers* and *theirs*. *Its* does not occur as a pronoun. The notes that follow deal only with the possessive adjectives and pronouns listed in 3.13.

The possessive adjectives are used for parts of the body when the reference is to the subject of the sentence.

Jane has broken her left arm.

Harry shrugged his shoulders.

He snapped his fingers at me.

They stood there with stupid grins on their faces.

In prepositional adjuncts referring to a part of the body of the person indicated by the object of the verb, the definite article, not the possessive adjective, is used.

He took the girl by the hand and patted her on the head. (Cf He took the girl's hand and patted her head.)

I seized the thief by the collar. (Cf I seized the thief's collar.)

He had been shot through the head.

His face was covered with blood; somebody had punched him violently on the nose. (Cf Somebody had punched his nose violently.)

- 3.22 The possessive adjectives cannot follow the demonstratives. **That your story* is not English. The demonstrative precedes the noun and an *of*-phrase (*of* + possessive pronoun) follows.

That story of yours doesn't sound very likely.

Those relations of his are boring people.

For other examples, see 3.97.

- 3.23 The possessive pronouns normally occur in the predicate but may also have front position with the noun following.

This guitar is mine, not yours. Yours is the one with the broken string.

Is that old black car yours? Mine is the new one parked over there. Yours has not been an easy life.

Interrogative Adjectives and Pronouns

- 3.24 The interrogative adjectives are *what*, *which* and *whose*. The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *what* and *which*. *Whose* is also used as a pronoun.

What is used with singular and plural nouns, subject or object. It is used of anything non-personal. *Which* is selective, used when there is a limited choice.

What's your name?
What does he want?
I don't know what he wants.

Prepositions usually have end position.

What do you want it for?
What's this tool used for?
What's it made of?
What are you laughing at?

A preposition may precede *what* in formal style.

To what do I owe this discriminatory treatment? (= Why am I being discriminated against?)

- 3.25 Compare *what* and *which* in these examples:

What books have you read on this subject? (This asks for titles from an indefinite number of books.)
Which of these books have you found most useful? (This asks for a limited number, a selection.)

What languages do you know?
Which of these languages do you speak fluently?

What's the capital of Turkey?
Which city is larger, Ankara or Istanbul?

What university did you go to? (This suggests a wide choice.)
Which university did you go to, Oxford or Cambridge? (A limited choice, suggesting that the questioner considers these two universities as the most probable, or, perhaps, as the only two possible.)

- 3.26 The pronoun *who* is the subject form, singular and plural.

Who is that man? Who are these men?

It occurs in dependent questions.

Does anyone know who that man is/who those men are?

Whom is the object form and is used after prepositions. It is used in formal style. In informal style, and normally in colloquial style, *who* is common.

Who(m) do you want to see?
Who(m) do you think I met in the park this morning?
I don't know who(m) you mean.

With prepositions:

Who did you give it to? (formal: *To whom did you give it?*)
Who were they talking about?
Who ought I to address my request to? (formal: *To whom ought I to address my request?*)
 A: 'I'm writing a letter'. B: 'Who to?' (formal and rare: *To whom?*)

- 3.27 *Whose* is the possessive form, singular and plural.

Whose house is that? Whose is that house?
Whose books are these? Whose are these books?
Do you know whose hat this is? (less usual: *Do you know whose is this hat?*)

Note the difference between *who* and *what* in these questions:

A: 'Who's that man?' B: 'He's Harry Green.'
 A: 'What is he?' B: 'He's our local doctor.'

Reflexive Pronouns

- 3.28 These are *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself* and *themselves*. (For *oneself*, see 3.51 below.) They are used as direct objects.

He hurt/cut/shaved himself.

They are used as indirect objects.

She cooked herself a good meal/made herself a party dress.

They are used as prepositional objects.

I don't like looking at myself in the mirror now—I'm getting old.
Take good care of yourself/yourselves.
Do you ever talk to yourself when you're all alone?

They are sometimes used as subject complements.

Why don't you be yourself? (i.e. behave naturally or normally)
She doesn't look quite herself today. (i.e. as well as she usually does)

- 3.29 They are used in apposition for emphasis. They may also be placed after the verb.

The letter was not from the manager himself; it had been written by his secretary.

I can't come myself, but I'll send someone to help you.

The paintings themselves are magnificent, but what ugly frames!

They occur after prepositions, and after *like, than, as, but*.

Are you all by yourself? (i.e. alone)

Did you do your homework by yourself? (i.e. unaided, without help)

You should see what's happening for yourself. (i.e. not be content merely to hear what others say about it)

It's nice to travel with expenses paid by your employers, at no cost to yourself.

My brother is a teacher like myself.

Bobby doesn't like playing with children younger than himself. (i.e. younger than he is)

No one but myself knows what really happened. (No one but me is also possible)

Compare the use and non-use of the reflexive pronoun in:

The child is still too young to dress itself.

I got up, washed, dressed, and went down to breakfast.

Demonstrative Adjectives and Pronouns

- 3.30 *This/that* and *these/those* are determiners, like the possessives. Notes on word order when used with other determiners (as in *all these, both these*) are given below (see 3.55–6). They may precede *one/ones*. The use of *one/ones* is optional when there is no adjective and obligatory when an adjective follows the demonstrative.

I don't like this/that (one).

I don't like this/that green one.

Which will you have, these or those?

Which will you have, these large ones or those small ones?

See *one*, 3.52–3.

The Indefinite Article

- 3.31 The determiner *a/an* is used with singular countable nouns. Two meanings have to be distinguished.

The indefinite article may be used meaning 'any' or 'every'. A noun preceded by *a(n)* picks out one individual, object, etc as representative of a class.

A horse is an animal.

The plural of *a(n)*, used in this sense, is zero (-).

(-) *Horses are (-) animals.*

Proverbs are usually invariable, but if we change from singular to plural in the proverb

A cat may look at a king,

it becomes

Cats may look at kings.

The reference is not to one particular cat but to any cat, all cats. Further examples with zero plural:

This is a box/bag/desk/book.

These are (-) boxes/bags/desks/books.

- 3.32 A much commoner use of the indefinite article is to call attention to a single specimen, after which further information is given. When the individual or article, etc is first mentioned, the indefinite article is used. Subsequently the noun may be preceded by *the* or *this/that*.

This is a pen. This is a pencil. The pen is in my left hand. The pencil is in my right hand.

I have a red book and a green book. This red book is mine. This green book is not mine.

I saw a man and a woman in the park yesterday. The man was fat and short. The woman was slim and tall.

- 3.33 The indefinite article, used in this sense, has various plurals, the commonest being *some, any, several, a few*, or a numeral or numeral phrase.

There's a cat in the garden.

There are some/several/two or three cats in the garden.

I have a good book on this subject.

I have several/a few good books on this subject.

Have you got a good book on geology?

Have you any good books on geology?

The link between *a(n)* and the numeral *one* is seen in the pairs *a friend of mine/one of my friends*, (plural *some friends of mine/some of my friends*). See 3.96.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

- 3.34 The distinction between *a(n)* used to mean 'any' or 'every' and the numeral *one* is seen in these pairs:

*A spanner is a useful tool. (= Spanners are useful tools.)
One spanner is not enough. I need several of different sizes.*

- 3.35 The indefinite article is used in such word groups as *a great/good number/many (of)*, *a great/good deal (of)*, *a large/great/huge, etc number/quantity/amount, etc (of)*, *a lot (of)*. It is used with *good* and a numeral. It is not used with *plenty (of)*.

*I've done a great deal of work today.
I shall need a good deal more money.
What a lot/large number of books you have!
A great many of them couldn't find work.
It's a good five miles (i.e. at least five miles, perhaps more) to the station.*

- 3.36 The indefinite article is used meaning 'each' or 'every', as in *twice a month*, *sixty kilometres an hour*, *fifty cents a kilo*.

It is used meaning 'the same' after *of* and *at* in phrases such as *all of a size* (i.e. all the same size); *three at a time* (i.e. three together, three at the same time) and in the proverb *Birds of a feather* (= Birds of the same kind) *flock together*.

- 3.37 When two nouns are used together and are thought of as a unit, the indefinite article is not repeated with the second noun: *a cup and saucer*; *a knife and fork* (cf *a pen and a pencil*; *a dog and a cat*).

- 3.38 The indefinite article may follow *many*, *such*, *quite*, *rather*, and exclamatory *what*.

*Many a man would welcome such a chance.
It's rather a pity, I think.
What an opportunity you've missed!*

It may follow an adjective preceded by *so*, *as*, *too*, *how*, *quite*:

*He's not so big a fool as you think.
She's as clever a girl as you're ever likely to meet.
This is too heavy a bag for me to carry.
How serious a crime had been committed was not realized until later.*

The Definite Article

- 3.39 The definite article *the* may be used with countable nouns, singular and plural, and with uncountable nouns.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

The commonest use is to indicate that what is expressed by the noun has been mentioned already and to refer back to it, as in the example in 3.32 above:

I saw a man and a woman in the park yesterday. The man was fat and short. The woman was slim and tall.

Another example:

Near my house there's a petrol station and a church. The petrol station is new and ugly; the church is old and beautiful.

- 3.40 The definite article is also used with nouns when the reference is clearly to something definite, something clear from the context.

This is the room I work in. The ceiling is high. There's a carpet on the floor. The windows on one side give me a view of the garden. The windows on the other side look out on the road.

The nouns *ceiling*, *window* and *floor* are clearly defined, those in my room. *Road* is clearly defined, the road on which my house is situated. *Garden* is defined; it is the garden of my house.

Other examples in which the context makes the reference clear:

Let's go for a walk by the river.

This refers to the river in the district, e.g. in London, the Thames.

I'm going to the library to get some books.

This may refer to the library in the building (e.g. a college) or to a local public library (e.g. in a town).

- 3.41 The definite article is not used before a noun which denotes a building, place, etc if its purpose or use is referred to. If the reference is to the building, place, etc itself, a determiner is needed.

*David has been in hospital for three weeks.
There's a good hospital in this town.
I'm going to the hospital to visit a friend who's ill.*

*Robert goes to church regularly.
We have a very old church in our village.
Turn right when you've passed the church.*

*The farmer took his sheep to market. (market here = a place for the buying and selling of sheep)
We have a good market in the town where we buy our fruit and vegetables.*

*He was sent to prison for three years.
The prison in this town is a grim-looking building.*

*What time do you go to bed?
She was putting clean sheets on the bed.*

3.42 There are many other instances of the use or non-use of the definite article in phrases, e.g. *at night/during the night; in winter/during the winter of 1975; to go to sea/to sail the sea; to reach land* (e.g. at the end of a voyage)/*to work on the land* (e.g. as a farmer or farm worker); *to sit down to table* (e.g. to have a meal)/*to lay the table* (i.e. put out cutlery, dishes, etc. ready for a meal). These uses are too numerous to be listed here. A good dictionary will supply information and examples.

3.43 Names of relations (e.g. *father, uncle*) and such nouns as *teacher* and *doctor*, indicating an occupation or profession, are used without a determiner in the same way as titles (e.g. Mr Green, Professor Green) are used.

*Mother told us to go to bed.
Waiter, bring me some mustard, please.
All right, doctor, I'll do what you say.*

3.44 The definite article is used with nouns indicating what is unique, as *the sun, the moon, the universe*, and with nouns modified in such a way that uniqueness is indicated, as in *the top/bottom/left side of the blackboard; the front/back of my house; the books on my desk; the year 1974; the year in which I was born*. It is used with superlatives, as in *the tallest of the five boys; the best book on this subject; the most useful tool for the job*. Note, however, that *most* may mean 'very' and be preceded by the indefinite article.

*This is a most useful reference book.
Cf This is the most useful reference book I have on this subject.*

3.45 Material and abstract nouns are used without a determiner.

*Copper is a good conductor of electricity.
Wood is used for making furniture.
Her heart was filled with joy.
Faith is unquestioning confidence in someone or something.*

The definite article may precede such nouns if they are used with an adjunct which makes them definite.

*The copper we use in Britain is all imported.
The wood this table is made of is oak.
The joy she experienced was almost overwhelming.
The faith I placed in my doctor's treatment perhaps helped in its effectiveness.*

3.46 The definite article is used with a singular countable noun meaning 'the kind of (animal/object etc) called a . . .', a use which is similar to the use of the indefinite article in 3.31.

*The tiger is a fierce animal. (plural: Tigers are fierce animals.)
The bat, they say, judges distances by a kind of echo-location.
(plural: Bats, they say, judge distances by . . .)*

In colloquial style the plural is more usual.

Some, Any, No, None

3.47 *Some* and *any* are used as adjectives and pronouns. *No* is used as an adjective. *None* is used as a pronoun. Their positions relative to other determiners are shown in 3.63–8.

Some (in the weak forms /səm, sm/) and *any* are used as adjectives with plural countable nouns and singular uncountable nouns.

*There's a [ðəz ə] dog in the garden.
There are some [ðə ə səm] dogs in the garden.
Have you a good book on botany you can lend me?
Have you any good books on botany you can lend me?
I must write some [səm] letters, so I need some [səm] paper.*

When *some* is used pronominally the strong form /səm/ is used.

*I need some [səm] money. You need some [səm] too, I expect.
Some [səm] of these books are quite interesting.
Scotland has some [səm] of the finest scenery in the world.*

Some and *any* are used with *more* (of).

*Please give me some more of [səm ˈmɔːr əv] these.
Have you any more of those?*

3.48 *No* is used adjectivally with plural nouns and uncountable nouns. See 3.65–6. It may be replaced by *not . . . any*.

*There were no/weren't any eggs in the shops.
I've no/I haven't any money.
There's no/There isn't any food in the house.
There are no/aren't any flights to Dublin this morning.
There's no time to lose.*

3.49 *None* is used pronominally and means 'not one' or 'not any'. As shown in 3.63–4, it is used with *of*.

*None of this meat is fit to eat.
None of them offered to help me.*

Not any may replace *none*.

'Is there any beer in the house?' 'No, I'm afraid there's none [nɒn] there isn't any left.'

- 3.50 *Some, any, no* and *every* combine with *one, body* and *thing*. *Someone, anyone, somebody, anybody, something, anything, everything* and *nothing* are written as one word. *No* and *one* in combination are written *no one* or *no-one*. The stress is on the first syllable, as 'someone, 'nothing, 'everybody.

These compounds must be distinguished from such pairs as *some/any/every/no + one*, with stress on *one*, as in:

These incidents, any one of which might have led to a strike, were caused by increasing unemployment.

I have many valuable books, every one of which I borrowed from friends and did not return.

These compound indefinite pronouns may be followed by adjectives, *to*-infinitives, or relative clauses.

We met nobody/didn't meet anybody new at the party.

Show me something new.

She won't marry until she finds someone rich and handsome.

I want something to eat.

Can't you find something useful to do?

She wants someone to talk to.

There's nothing/There isn't anything to be done about it.

If only I could find someone I could trust!

The *for + noun/pronoun + to*-infinitive construction may follow these compounds.

There's nothing/There isn't anything suitable for children to read in this library.

Haven't you anything/Have you nothing for me to do?

I must find someone for you to play tennis with.

One, Oneself

- 3.51 The indefinite pronoun *one* has the possessive form *one's* and the reflexive form *oneself*. It is to be distinguished from the numeral *one* (as in the series *one, two, three*). (See 3.34 and 3.54.)

The indefinite pronoun *one* is used in formal style meaning 'a person'. It may refer to the speaker or to the person spoken to.

One mustn't take oneself too seriously.

In this example *you* or *people* would be more likely in colloquial style.

One is usually over-sensitive about one's own family.

In this example, too, *you* is more likely in colloquial style.

One should always give a suspected criminal the benefit of the doubt.

You or *we* is more likely in colloquial style.

The indefinite pronoun *one* is followed by *one's* and *oneself* in British usage and by *his/her, himself/herself* in American usage.

One does not like to have one's word doubted.

One does not like to have his word doubted.

- 3.52 The pronoun *one*, with plural *ones*, may be used in place of a countable noun. When used in this way it may be preceded by *this, that, these/those* and *which*.

This is the one I prefer.

These are the ones I prefer.

Add these examples to the ones (= those) you have already noted.

This one is better than that.

These ones are better than those.

Which one(s) do you like best?

One may be used, or omitted, after ordinals and after *either/neither, next/last* and *other*.

The first three books are novels, the next two are biographies and the last (one) is a guidebook.

I arrived first. The next (one) to arrive was James.

This is a left-hand glove and so's the other (one)! Neither (one) fits me, so they can't be mine.

As shown in the examples, *one* may be omitted.

- 3.53 The indefinite article may precede *one* only when there is an adjective.

Look at these pears. This seems to be a nice ripe one.

Your plan is a good one but mine's a better one/mine's better.

I asked for a short essay, and you've written a long one.

One is not used after a possessive adjective or an *s*-genitive unless there is also an adjective.

*This is my desk and that's my brother's. (*my brother's one)*

*Tom's desk is neater than John's. (*John's one)*

If an adjective occurs after a possessive adjective or an *s*-genitive, *one* is obligatory.

My cheap camera seems to be just as good as John's expensive one.

Cf *My camera seems to be as good as John's. (*as John's one)*

Your old suit looks as smart as my new one.

- 3.54 *One* as a numeral has to be distinguished from the indefinite pronoun. The numeral *one* is used with an *of*-adjunct and has the plural *some/any*.

One of my friends arrived late.

I'd like to borrow one/some of your books on European history.

One of the men lost his passport.

One of the girls hurt herself.

All, Both

- 3.55 *All* is used with countable and uncountable nouns. It precedes possessives and other determiners.

All wines are not sweet.
Is all (of) this money yours?
Are all (of) these books yours?
All (of) my sister's children are good at sport.
All (of) these students passed the examination.

If a noun is preceded by a cardinal number with no other determiner, *of* is not used.

All six boys arrived late.

Of is obligatory between *all* and a personal pronoun.

All of us|them|you want to go.

Of is not obligatory between *all* and the determiners *the, this|that, these|those* and the possessives. See the examples above, in which *of* is in parentheses.

- 3.56 *Both* is used with countable nouns. It precedes possessives and other determiners. As with *all* (see 3.55), *of* is not obligatory with *the, this|that, these|those* and the possessives. It is obligatory with personal pronouns.

Both (of) the|these|those books are mine.
Both (of) John's sisters are tall.
Both of them|us|you arrived late.

Both|all of and a plural personal pronoun may be replaced by the pronoun followed by *both|all*.

John wrote to `both of us|to us `both.
Mother sent `both of them|them `both to bed.
He visited `all of us|us `all.
The teacher praised `all of them|them `all.

- 3.57 *All* and *both* may be placed after the verb. They have the same positions as mid-position adverbs (see 4.4) i.e. before non-anomalous finites and after anomalous finites.

With non-anomalous finites:

We|They `both want to go.
We|You `all think so.

With unstressed anomalous finites:

They can `both play well.
They were `both absent.
You'll `both be late.
They've `all gone to Wales.

With stressed anomalous finites:

I asked `neither of them to come, but they both `did (come).
I asked `all of them to help, and they all `did (help).

Half

- 3.58 *Half* may be included with the determiners because it is a measure of number or quantity, like *all, both* and the numerals. Like *both* and *all* it may be used with or without *of*, except before personal pronouns, where *of* is obligatory.

Half (of) the meat was bad.
Half (of) these apples are rotten.
He lived half (of) his life in India.
Half of it is unfit to eat.
Half of them are women.

Each, Either, Neither, Every

- 3.59 *Each, either* and *neither* are used adjectivally with singular countable nouns, and pronominally with *of* and a plural countable noun or pronoun.

The Prime Minister invited each member of the cabinet|each of them to state his views.
Each of the Ministers was invited to state his views and each of them did so.
Either proposal|Either of these proposals will have my support.
There's nothing that either of us can do to help.
Neither sister|Neither of the two sisters|Neither of them was willing to nurse the sick child.

Every is used only adjectivally.

Every member of the cabinet was present.
Every room in this hotel has a private bathroom.

Every may be used with the pronoun *one*. The words are written separately.

Examine every one of the glasses carefully as you unpack them.

Distinguish this use from the use of the pronoun *everyone* (= everybody).

In this small village everyone knows everyone else.

Each may have mid-position. (Cf *both* and *all*, 3.57)

Tom, Dick and Harry each made different suggestions.
They were each praised for their suggestions.

Enough

3.60 This determiner is used with plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns.

Have we (got)/Are there enough knives and forks for twenty people?
Have we (got)/Is there enough food for twenty people?

3.61 The order in which a number of determiners is arranged is not variable. The definite article and the demonstratives may be preceded by *all* and *both* but not by ordinals, cardinals or possessives. Determiners followed by *of* may precede the definite article, the demonstratives and possessives. When the order in which determiners are used (both adjectively and pronominally) can be illustrated in tabular form tables are used. In some cases, a selection of sentences is clearer.

3.62 This table illustrates the use of determiners used adjectively with countable nouns.

Table 81

The	first second next last		house	is	small.
			car		large.
This That My/Your/John's			desk		old.
The	first second next last	two three etc	houses cars desks	are	new.

Examples from this Table:

The second car is new.
The last house is large.
The first two houses are old.
The next three desks are small.

Note

- 1 Ordinals follow the definite article.
- 2 Cardinals follow ordinals.

3.63 This table illustrates the uses of determiners used pronominally with countable nouns.

Table 82

One Each The first/second, etc Neither	of	them		is	bad.
All/Both		these those			
Several Two or three None The first/next/last two or three Few/A few A large/small number Some/Half Many/Most A lot/Lots		the these those my/his, etc John's	eggs	are	

Note

1 *Of* is often omitted after *all/both*. See 3.55-6 for further examples.

Both/All the boys are tall.
Both/All of the boys are tall.

2 After *none of* the verb may be singular or plural.

None of my friends was/were there.

3 *Not* may precede *all, both, many* and *a few, a lot*.

Not many of them are bad.

4 The difference between *a few* and *few* depends upon the situation.

A few is affirmative and means 'a small number'. *Few* is negative and means 'not many'.

A few: Although Jack is not very sociable, people like him and he has (quite) a few friends.
Few: Nobody likes Harry; he has (very) few friends.

5 *Some* is usually replaced by *any* in negative and interrogative sentences.

*Don't give me any more of that.
Would you like any more of this?*

Some is used in questions that invite or expect the answer 'Yes'.

Would you like some more of this brown bread?

6 There are further notes on *all* and *both* in 3.55-7.

3.64 This table illustrates the use of determiners used pronominally with uncountable nouns, here the noun *land*.

Table 83

<i>All/Not all Most Some Half None Enough/Not enough Much/Not much A great/good deal Little/A little A lot/Lots</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>it this that</i>		<i>is fertile.</i>
		<i>the this that our/their, etc Mr Green's</i>	<i>farm land</i>	

Note

- 1 *Much* may be preceded by *how*.
- 2 For the use of *all* and *half* without *of* see 3.55-6 and 3.58.
- 3 The difference between *a little* and *little* is like that between *a few* and *few*. *A little* is affirmative and means 'some', 'a small amount'. *Little* means 'not much'.

*He earns only £20 a week and has only a little money for amusements.
He earns only £12 a week and has little or no money for anything except essentials.*

3.65 This table illustrates the use of *more* after determiners used with countable nouns.

Table 84

<i>There are</i>	<i>plenty of a lot of a large/good number of enough</i>		<i>books</i>	<i>in the next room.</i>
	<i>some several a few/few two or three many no</i>	<i>(more)</i>		
<i>We have</i>	<i>a lot/lots plenty</i>	<i>more</i>		

Note

- 1 *More* does not occur after *enough* or with determiners used with *of*.
- 2 *More* is optional after determiners used without *of* except for *a lot*, *lots* and *plenty*.
- 3 *Many* may be preceded by *a great/good*.

We have a great/good many (more) books in the next room.

3.66 This table illustrates the use of *more* after determiners used with uncountable (or mass) nouns.

Table 85

<i>There is</i>	<i>some no (not) much a little</i>	<i>(more)</i>	<i>tea coffee</i>	<i>in the store room.</i>
	<i>a great/good deal a lot/lots plenty</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>bread sugar</i>	
<i>We have</i>	<i>a lot of a large quantity/amount of plenty of (not) enough</i>		<i>meat salt</i>	

Note

- 1 *More* may be omitted after *some*, *no* and *not much*.
- 2 If *more* occurs after *a great/good deal*, *a lot*, *lots* and *plenty*, *of* is not used unless the uncountable noun is preceded by a demonstrative or possessive determiner, as in the Tables with 3.67–8.
- 3 If *more* does not occur after these determiners, *of* is needed.
- 4 *Any* usually replaces *some* in negative and interrogative sentences. See 3.63 (note 5).

- 3.67 Determiners used pronominally require *of* before demonstratives and possessives. *More* may be used. In this table the nouns are countable nouns, plural.

Table 86

<i>I should like</i>	<i>one some several a few two or three</i>	(more) of	<i>these. those. these small apples.</i>
<i>Please give me</i>	<i>many a lot/lots plenty two kilos</i>		<i>those oranges. your best plums.</i>

Note

- 1 Compare:

*I should like some (more) of these/these apples/your apples.
I should like some apples.*

- 2 Measures of quantity are not determiners but are used in a similar way.

I should like two kilos/a sack/a crate of potatoes.

- 3 For the use of *any* in place of *some*, see 3.63 (note 5).

- 3.68 In this table the nouns are uncountable or mass nouns.

Table 87

<i>I should like</i>	<i>some a little a good deal much</i>	(more) of	<i>this. that. the brown flour.</i>
<i>Please give me</i>	<i>a lot plenty two kilos</i>		<i>your white flour.</i>

As in the table in 3.67, *of* is needed before the demonstratives *this/that*, possessives and the mass noun *flour* which must be preceded here by the definite article.

Adjective Patterns

- 3.69 Three adjective patterns are described and illustrated in the following sections.

- AP1A Adjective + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *easy to please; It's easy to please Jim*)
 AP1B Adjective + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *eager to please; Jim is eager to please everyone*)
 AP1C Adjective + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *wrong to leave; It's wrong of Jim to leave*)
 AP1D Adjective + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *certain to win; It's certain that Jim will win*)
 AP1E Adjective + *to*-infinitive (e.g. *first to arrive; Jim was the first to arrive*)
 AP2 Adjective + preposition + noun/pronoun (e.g. *anxious for news*)
 AP3 Adjective (+ preposition) + clause (e.g. *glad that you succeeded, anxious about how they got on*)

Adjective Pattern 1

- 3.70 The adjectives used in this pattern are followed by a *to*-infinitive. They are divided into various classes according as the sentences in which they occur may be recomposed.

- [AP1A] 3.71 Typical adjectives in this class are *easy*, *difficult*, *hard* (= difficult), *safe* and *dangerous*.

John is easy to deceive.

The house was difficult to find.

The grammatical subjects (*John*, *The house*) are the grammatical objects of the infinitives (*to deceive*, *to find*). The sentences may be recomposed in two ways:

- (a) by using the infinitive as the subject:

To deceive John is easy.

To find the house was difficult.

- (b) by using preparatory *it*:

It's easy to deceive John.

It was difficult to find the house.

If the adjective has an adverb form with the suffix *-ly* (*easy/easily*), a passive construction is possible.

John is easily deceived.

If there is no adverb form in *-ly*, a passive construction may be possible with an adverbial phrase, which will normally have end-position.

The house was to be found (only) with difficulty.

Further conversions in exclamatory style are possible with *how*.

How easy it is to deceive John!
How difficult it was to find the house!

The interrogative-negative may be used.

Isn't it easy to deceive John!
Wasn't it difficult to find the house!

Further examples (with, in some cases, a gerund replacing the infinitive as subject):

- 1 *This room is pleasant to work in.*
To work/Working in this room is pleasant.
It's pleasant to work in this room.
How pleasant it is to work in this room!
Isn't it pleasant to work in this room!
- 2 *The story of her sufferings was painful to listen to.*
To listen to the story of her sufferings was painful.
It was painful to listen to the story of her sufferings.
How painful it was to listen to the story of her sufferings!
- 3 *This river is dangerous to bathe in.*
To bathe/Bathing in this river is dangerous.
It's dangerous to bathe in this river.
- 4 *Some people are hard to please.*
To please/Pleasing some people is hard.
It's hard to please some people.
Isn't it hard to please some people!
- 5 *That man is impossible to work with.*
To work/Working with that man is impossible.
It's impossible to work with that man.
How impossible it is to work with that man!
- 6 *The story of his adventures was exciting/thrilling/fascinating/interesting to listen to.*
To listen/Listening to the story of his adventures was exciting/thrilling, etc.
It was exciting/thrilling, etc to listen to the story of his adventures.
How exciting/thrilling, etc it was to listen to the story of his adventures!
- 7 *These big rooms are difficult to heat.*
To heat/Heating these big rooms is difficult.
It's difficult to heat these big rooms.

8 *She has always been easy to get along with.*
It has always been easy to get along with her.
How easy it has always been to get along with her!

9 *That girl is pleasant to talk to.*
To talk/Talking to that girl is pleasant.
Isn't it pleasant to talk to that girl!

Note

Adjectives which are antonyms (as *easy/difficult*) occur in this pattern, but not every antonym may be used. *That man is impossible to work with* is acceptable, but **That man is possible to work with* is not acceptable. For this one must use: *It's possible to work with that man.* *Our team is impossible to defeat*, and *To defeat our team is impossible* are acceptable, but **Our team is possible to defeat* is unacceptable. We must use: *It's possible to defeat our team.* If, for *defeat*, we substitute *win* or *lose*, the noun *team* cannot be used. A *team* may *win*, *lose* or *be defeated*.

Our team cannot win/lose/be defeated.

We cannot say:

**To win/lose our team is (im)possible.*
**It is (im)possible to win/lose our team.*

We may say:

It is (im)possible to defeat our team.

The adjectives in APIA may be used attributively.

This nut is hard to crack.
This is a hard nut to crack.

This question is difficult to answer.
This is a difficult question to answer.

She's impossible to live with.
She's an impossible woman to live with.

[APIB] 3.72 In APIA there is identity between subject (S) and object (O).

John (S) is easy to deceive.
To deceive John (O) is easy.

In APIB there is no such identity.

Mary (S) is anxious to please.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

Please has no object, but an object may be supplied (e.g. *her friends*). Conversion by using either the infinitive as the subject or preparatory *it* is impossible.

- **To please Mary is anxious.*
- **It's anxious to please Mary.*

The following example gives a clearer indication of the difference between AP1A and AP1B.

Mary (S) was eager to introduce John (O) to her parents.

Adjectives used in this pattern may denote an emotional state (e.g. fear, sorrow, joy) or a mental state (e.g. reluctance, surprise, (un)willingness, (dis)inclination). Participial adjectives in *-ed* are common, often modified by adverbs of degree (e.g. *very, rather, quite*).

The number of adjectives used in this pattern is large. In some of the examples below alternatives are placed together.

- 1 *We're all sorry to hear of your illness.*
- 2 *We're all glad/happy/relieved to know that you're safe.*
- 3 *You should be proud to have such a clever and beautiful wife.*
- 4 *He was angry/upset/mortified to learn that he had been left out of the team.*
- 5 *We're immensely delighted/amazed/excited/thrilled to learn of your success.*
- 6 *She was afraid/frightened to go near the big dog.*
- 7 *You were lucky/fortunate to get such a well-paid job.*
- 8 *You were unlucky/unfortunate not to win the prize.*
- 9 *Jane's father was alarmed/shocked/infuriated to see his daughter smoking.*
- 10 *The children were impatient to start.*
- 11 *I was curious to know what he would say about me.*
- 12 *Some people are prone/inclined/disposed to jump to hasty conclusions.*
- 13 *He is/seems reluctant/loath/disinclined/unwilling/hesitant to talk about the matter.*
- 14 *The boys are determined/eager/keen/anxious to have bicycles like those of the children next door.*
- 15 *I should be quite happy/content/satisfied/willing to live in the south of France.*
- 16 *You're welcome/free to use my library.*
- 17 *These clothes are not fit/are unfit to wear.*
- 18 *The train is due to arrive at 2.30.*
- 19 *He's quick/slow to make up his mind.*
- 20 *I shall be able/unable to come to the office tomorrow.*

Note

As in AP1A, there are pairs of opposites in AP1B (e.g. (un)happy, (un)lucky, (un)willing, glad/sorry). Not all such pairs may be used.

- The children were impatient to start.*
- **The children were patient to start.*

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

3.73 An extension of AP1B is used when the subject of the infinitive is different from the subject of the finite verb. In this case the *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive construction is used.

Harry is anxious to receive a good education.
Harry's parents are anxious for him to receive a good education.

The children were impatient to start.
The children were impatient for the holidays to start.

I'm quite willing to come with you.
I'm quite willing for your brother to join us.

We're anxious to get off.
We're anxious for everything to be settled.

Some conversions are possible:

1 (when there is a participle in *-ed*) conversion to the active voice:

To see Jane smoking alarmed/shocked/infuriated her father.

2 with *make*:

To hear Jane swearing made her father angry/furious.

3 by the use of a verb:

I am sorry to learn . . . I regret to learn . . .
We're glad to see . . . We rejoice to see . . .
We were eager/anxious to know . . . We wanted/longed/
yearned to know . . .
She was sad to hear . . . She grieved to hear . . .

The adjectives are much more usual. Verbs such as *grieve, rejoice* and *yearn* are not colloquial.

[AP1C] 3.74 In this pattern conversions with *it* and *how* are possible with *of* and the subject:

You were silly to make such a mistake.
It was silly of you to make such a mistake.

The subject is always animate. *Of* and the subject may be omitted:

It was silly to make such a mistake.

Compare AP1A:

The house was difficult to find.
It was difficult to find the house.

In AP1A conversion as in AP1C is impossible:

**It was difficult of you to find the house.*

In AP1A *for* and a noun/pronoun may, if the object of the preposition and the object of the verb are different, be inserted:

It was difficult for me/anyone to find the house.

A large number of adjectives is used in APIC. To illustrate as many as possible, alternatives are given. These are sometimes colloquial equivalents (e.g. *saucy* for *impudent*).

You're kind/good/decent/civil to say so. (*decent* here is colloquial, and means 'kind' or 'tolerant')

It's kind/good/decent/civil of you to say so.

How kind/good/decent/civil of you to say so.

Jane was naughty/cruel/wrong/spiteful/ill-natured to pull the kitten's tail.

It was naughty/cruel/wrong/spiteful/ill-natured of Jane to pull the kitten's tail.

You were wrong/impudent/rude/impolite/saucy/cheeky to say that to your mother.

It was wrong/impudent/rude/impolite/saucy/cheeky of you to say that to your mother.

How wrong/impudent/rude/impolite/saucy/cheeky (it was) of you to say that to your mother.

The boys were clever to solve the problem so quickly.

It was clever of the boys to solve the problem so quickly.

How clever of the boys to solve the problem so quickly.

Conversion to the interrogative-negative is also possible:

Wasn't it clever of the boys to solve the problem so quickly!

Further examples follow, without alternative versions:

You were right/wise to give up smoking.

It was careless of you to leave your umbrella in the train.

Wasn't it kind/polite of Harry to give up his seat in the bus to the old woman!

It was crazy of you to go skating on such thin ice.

How dishonest of him not to return the book he had borrowed!

Note

As in AP1A and AP1B, antonyms (e.g. *brave/cowardly*, *right/wrong*) are used in APIC. Only one of a pair is possible in some cases.

It was ungrateful of you to . . .

How ungrateful of you to . . .

But not: **It was grateful of you to . . .*

How careless of you to . . .

It was careless of you to . . .

But not: **It was careful of you to . . .*

We may, however, say:

Be careful to count your change.

The *to*-infinitive may, in some contexts, be omitted when *that* is used as the subject.

Mr X: *I've left my money at home.*

Mr Y: *It was careless of you to do that.* (or) *You were careless to do that.* (or) *That was careless of you.*

- [AP1D] 3.75 This subdivision gives examples of a small number of adjectives which may be followed by a *to*-infinitive but which do not fit into AP1A/B/C. *Likely*, *certain* and *sure* (but not *probable*) are used in this pattern to make statements or ask questions about the future. They may be called adjectives of prediction.

The weather is likely to be fine.

Our team is (un)likely to win.

Your team is certain to win.

We're sure to need help.

Conversions with introductory *it* + a *that*-clause are possible.

It's likely that the weather will be fine.

It's (un)likely that our team will win.

It's certain that our team will win.

Sure is less likely after introductory *it*, though it is appropriate in:

We shall need help, that's sure.

Probable is not used with a following *to*-infinitive. It may be used after *it* with a *that*-clause. Or the adverb may be used.

It's probable that the weather will be fine.

The weather will probably be fine.

But not: **The weather is probable to be fine.*

- [AP1E] 3.76 What we may call the infinitive of specification is used after the ordinals and after *next/last*. These adjectives are usually preceded by the definite article.

He's often the first to arrive and the last to leave.

Who will be the next to go?

The second to draw a ticket in the lottery is Mr Robinson.

A noun may occur after these words. In this case a definite article must be used before the adjective.

Who was the first man to walk on the moon? (See NPIC, at 3.6.)

Adjective Pattern 2

- 3.77 The meaning of an adjective is often completed by the use of a prepositional phrase. The preposition may govern a noun or pronoun, a gerund, or a clause. Many past participles occur in this pattern. The preposition may be fixed by idiom (as in *fond of*). There

may be a choice of preposition (e.g. *angry with someone, angry at/about something; anxious for news/about somebody's health*).

Many adjectives may be used in more than one pattern. *Anxious* is used in AP1 (*anxious to know*) and in AP2 (*anxious for/about*). Many participles in *-ed* are used in both AP1 and AP2 (*amazed/delighted to learn* and *amazed/delighted at*).

The prepositions to be used with adjectives are best learnt by observation of their use in speech and writing or by consulting a dictionary which provides examples of usage.

The examples below illustrate a selection of adjectives and participles with a variety of prepositional objects.

- 1 *Are you afraid of the dog/afraid of being bitten by the dog/afraid of what people will think if you run away from the dog?*
- 2 *The doctors say that milk is good for you/good for your health.*
- 3 *What's he looking so happy/pleased/angry/worried/aggrieved about?*
- 4 *Aren't you ashamed of yourself/of your behaviour/of what you did/of having behaved so badly?*
- 5 *You must be more accurate in your work.*
- 6 *He was not aware of having done wrong/of his failure.*
- 7 *Haste may be productive of error.*
- 8 *The supply is not adequate to the demand.*
- 9 *I'm unaware/quite ignorant of their intentions/of what they intend to do.*
- 10 *She was angry with him for having broken his promise.*

3.78 Many of the adjectives used in this pattern are often better replaced by a verb. The use of the adjective and preposition is often formal or may even be pompous. In the examples below an equivalent with a verb is given in parenthesis:

- 1 *You are forgetful of the fact (You forget) that we have very little money.*
- 2 *I am ignorant of (I do not know) what they intend to do.*
- 3 *Your work is deserving of (deserves) praise.*
- 4 *Do not be envious of (envy) your neighbours.*
- 5 *Haste may be productive of (may produce) error.*
- 6 *The old man is dependent upon (depends on) the earnings of his children.*
- 7 *He was successful (succeeded) in his efforts.*
- 8 *He is desirous of obtaining (desires/wishes/wants to obtain) a position in the Civil Service.*

The noun or noun phrase governed by the preposition may become the grammatical subject.

- 1 *He was shocked at her smoking/Her smoking shocked him.*
- 2 *He was overcome with horror/Horror overcame him.*
- 3 *We were enchanted with the performance of the opera/The performance of the opera enchanted us.*

Note that the *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive construction (dealt with in 3.73 for AP1B) may occur after many adjectives in AP2 not otherwise used with *for*. *Delighted* is normally used with *at* or *by*.

We were delighted at/by your success.

We shall be delighted for you to come (i.e. *delighted at/by your coming, delighted if you will come*).

Adjective Pattern 3

3.79 A clause or phrase may complete the meaning of an adjective. If the adjective is used in AP2 (with a preposition), the preposition may be retained before a clause or infinitive phrase introduced by a conjunctive, but is frequently omitted. A *that*-clause is never preceded by a preposition.

She was not aware of the facts.

She was not aware (of) how much her husband earned.

She was not aware that her husband earned £50 a week.

Further examples of adjectives with *that*-clauses follow, with alternatives where they are possible. *That* is normally omitted after *afraid* and *sorry*.

They were anxious that you should return/for your return.

They were disappointed that you were unable to come/at your inability to come.

I'm afraid I shall have to leave now.

I'm sorry you can't come.

Are you aware that you're sitting on my hat?

She's glad/delighted/surprised/astonished/alarmed/disappointed (that) you're going abroad.

Be careful (that) you don't drop it/how you hold it.

Are you sure/certain/confident (that) he's honest/of his honesty?

Further examples of adjectives followed by clauses other than *that*-clauses are:

I'm not quite sure how to do it/how it is done.

Be careful how you cross the street.

I'm not sure why he wants it.

We were worried about where you had got to.

He's doubtful (about) whether he can afford it.

He's very fussy (about) how his meals are cooked.

They were uncertain whether they ought to go/whether to go or not.

The pattern introductory *it* + adjective + *that*-clause is dealt with in the sections on verb patterns. See 1.42 (VP1, Table 11).

Adjective Equivalents

- 3.80 There are numerous adjective equivalents or adjuncts to nouns and pronouns. They are dealt with under the following heads:
- 1 Nouns (as in *a flower garden, the weather forecast*)
 - 2 Participles and Gerunds (as in *the coming months, settled weather, a signalling device*)
 - 3 Prepositional Phrases (as in *the boy in the corner*)
 - 4 Adverbs (as in *the above statement*)
 - 5 Genitives (as in *John's hat, a twenty minutes' walk*)
 - 6 Relative Clauses

Nouns as Adjuncts

- 3.81 A noun may be used as an attributive adjunct to another noun. Such noun groups may be formed very freely. The two nouns may be printed or written separately (as in *the 'weather forecast*), with a hyphen (as in *'pay-day*), or closed (as in *'airmail*). There are variations. The head of a school, for example, may be a *'headmaster*, *'head-master*, or a *'head 'master*. Whether these two words are printed closed, hyphenated or open, the stress pattern is the same—the secondary (or level) stress on *head* and the primary (or tonic) stress on *master*. Other noun groups using *head* may have varying stress patterns: *'headache*, *'headquarters*, *'headphones*, *'headlights*. There are no firm rules for the use or non-use of hyphens. The stress pattern may vary with the situation or context.

There's a 'brick 'wall round the garden.

This garden has a 'brick wall; that garden has a 'stone wall.

In the second example the tonic stresses on *brick* and *stone* are used to make a clear contrast.

Examples of nouns as attributive adjuncts are: the *'parish 'church*; *the 'evening 'paper*; *'garden flowers* (the kind grown in gardens, contrasted with *'wild flowers*); *a 'flower garden* (one for flowers, contrasted with a garden for vegetables or fruit); *your 'family 'tree*; *a 'school 'dictionary*; *a 'silver 'spoon*; *a re'turn ticket*; *the 'murder 'weapon* (typical of newspaper reporting, the weapon used in the murder); *'birth-control*; *'rainfall*.

When the second of the two nouns is one in *-er*, indicating the agent, the tonic stress is on the first noun: *a 'language teacher*, *a 'song-writer*, *a 'window-cleaner*, *'theatre-goers*, *a 'pipe-smoker*.

- 3.82 Singular countable nouns are used as attributive adjuncts in the singular form even though the meaning is plural: *a seed catalogue* (i.e. of seeds); *a street plan* (i.e. of town streets); *tooth decay* (i.e. of the teeth); *lady doctors* (doctors who are ladies); *boy/girl friends*; *an arm-chair* (i.e. one with arms). An exception is *man/woman: a mar/woman teacher*, pl *men/women teachers*. When the noun used as an attributive adjunct is normally plural in form (as *trousers*), the singular form is often used: *trouser buttons/pockets*; *pyjama cords*; *a billiard table/cue*. The plural form is also used: *a sports car*; *the games*

master/mistress (the teacher in charge of school games); *a savings bank*; *the arms race* (where *arms* is always plural, meaning armaments).

- 3.83 Material nouns are often used as attributive adjuncts, as illustrated in 3.81 (e.g. *a stone wall, a silver spoon*). If for the noun there is an adjective in *-y* or *-en*, as *silky/silken*, a choice has to be made according to context and meaning. The noun, if it denotes the material of which something is made, is used in some cases. In others the adjective is used.

Nouns: *silk stockings*; *lead pipes*; *a gold watch*; *brass buttons*.
Adjectives: *silky hair*, hair soft like silk; *a wooden leg/box*, made of wood; *woollen stockings*, made of wool; *a stony road*, covered with stones; *a stony (hard) heart*; *a leaden (heavy) sky*; *brazen impudence*; *a golden opportunity*.

The adjectives in *-y* and *-en* are, as the examples show, often used figuratively. *Wooden* and *woollen* are not used figuratively. *A wood fire* (never **a wooden fire*) is one on which wood is burnt. *A wooden 'box* is one of wood; *a 'wood box* could be a container, e.g. by a fireplace, for wood logs.

Participles

- 3.84 Participles used as attributive adjuncts are adjectival and are called participial adjectives. If they are completely adjectival they may also be used predicatively. They may be modified by adverbs.

This book is not very interesting.

Can you find me a more interesting book?

Mary is a charming girl.

Mary is more charming than her sister.

How charming she is!

He is the most distinguished chemist in the country.

She had a rather pleased look.

Other examples of present participles: *'running 'water*; *a 'sleeping 'child*; *a 'burning 'building*; *a 'dying 'soldier*; *'smiling 'women*; *the 'coming 'months*; *the 'following 'chapter*; *'growing 'children*; *flyng 'fish*.

Other examples of past participles, including participles with the prefix *un-*: *a surprised look*; *married men*; *hidden dangers*; *a broken teapot*; *unarmed troops*; *unsettled weather*; *an unexpected meeting*; *undeserved punishment*.

Some past participles used as attributive adjuncts have more than one form. Such uses are to be found in dictionaries. Examples are: *cloven hoof/cleft palate* (from *cleave*); *swollen lips/swelled head* (= conceit) (from *swell*); *shrunk cloth/shrunken limbs* (from *shrink*). Some past participles are used in this way only when modified by an adverb, as in *the newly-arrived guests*. Some intransitive verbs used with prepositions provide a compound participle, as in *the longed-for holidays* (the holidays we/they, etc had been longing for).

Gerunds

- 3.85 Gerunds are used as attributive adjuncts to nouns. The primary stress occurs on the gerund, not on the noun (as is the case when a present participle precedes a noun).

a sleeping child, a child who is sleeping.
a sleeping pill, one that helps a person to sleep.

growing children, children who are growing.
growing pains, pains in the limbs, said to be caused by growth, felt by children as they grow.

Examples of gerunds used attributively: *a walking-stick*; *'boiling/ freezing point*; *a ploughing match*; *'blotting-paper*; *'eating/ cooking apples*; *a dining-room*; *a dancing-master* (a teacher of dancing); *re'tiring age* (the age for retiring); *a sleeping-bag*; *a flying-field*.

There is no standard usage for the use or non-use of hyphens in these collocations. The context shows whether the *-ing* word is a participial adjective or a gerund. The stress pattern is then clear. *A flying saucer* is an unidentified object seen in the sky, and *flying* is the participial adjective. *A flying suit* is a suit of clothes worn by someone who is flying an aircraft, a suit for flying. So *flying* is the gerund.

Prepositional Phrases

- 3.86 Prepositional phrases are used as adjuncts to nouns. There are several types.

The phrase may be replaced by a preceding adjective or noun. Examples: *men of honour* (honourable men); *a walk in the evening* (an evening walk); *a swim in the moonlight* (a moonlight swim); *towns by the sea* (seaside towns).

Phrases introduced by *for*, indicating purpose, are common. The phrase may be replaced by the noun or gerund. Examples: *machines for harvesting* (harvest/harvesting machines); *expenses for travelling* (travelling expenses); *paper for writing (notes, letters) on* (writing paper/note-paper); *money for out-of-pocket expenses* (cf pocket money). Many phrases are introduced by *with* and a noun, as *the woman with a baby in her arms*; *the boy with (= wearing) glasses*; *a workman with a ladder*; *the man with a long nose*. When, as in the last example, there is an adjective with the noun, a compound may replace the phrase, as *the long-nosed man*. Other examples: *a girl with curly hair* (a curly-haired girl); *a baby with fat fingers* (a fat-fingered baby); *a workman with a white jacket* (a white-jacketed workman). Not all such phrases can be replaced by a compound. The phrase may often be considered as a shortened form of a relative clause. *People with (= People who receive) small pensions often find it difficult to make ends meet*. Here **small-pensioned people* is unacceptable.

- 3.87 Phrases may also be introduced by *without* and these may often be replaced by an adjective: *a rumour without foundation* (an unfounded rumour); *a boy without intelligence* (an unintelligent boy); *a man without money* (a penniless man); *a performance without faults* (a faultless performance). But: *a rule without exceptions* is not convertible to *an unexceptional rule*, (since *unexceptional* means 'ordinary').

As noted above, these prepositional phrases are often a shortened form of a relative clause. The relative pronoun and a finite *of be* have been dropped, as in: *the man (who is) near the door*; *a wind (that is, that blows) from the north*; *the shop (that is) opposite the post office*; *the girl (who is) between Anne and Jane*; *a child of six, who is six years old/of age* (convertible to *a six-year-old child*).

Adverbs

- 3.88 A small number of adverbs may be used as noun adjuncts. They are *above*, *then*, *after*, *up*, *down*, *away* and *home*. The last two are used of sporting events, e.g. football and cricket. Examples: *the above statement* (the statement which is above); *the then government/mayor* (then in power/office); *in after years* (in the years that came/will come afterwards); *the up/down train* (the train that goes up to/down from); *the up platform* (at which up trains stop); *home/away matches* (e.g. football) (played on the home ground/on the opponents' ground).

Of these *then* and *above* are commonly used. *The above statement* is used but not **the below statement*, for which we must use *the statement below*.

Inside and *outside* are used as adverbs, and also as noun adjuncts. They are usually, when preceding a noun (as in *the inside cover*, *an outside porter*), considered to be adjectives.

Adverb phrases may be hyphenated and used as adjuncts before nouns: *the half-past-seven train*; *an up-to-date dictionary*; *a pen-and-ink drawing*, one made with a pen and ink; *an out-and-out failure*, a complete failure.

Genitives

- 3.89 Possession (using the word in a wide sense, to include e.g. characteristics, origin, relationship) can be expressed in various ways, e.g. by the use of the verbs *have* (or more colloquially *have got*), *belong*, *own* or *possess*, or of such nouns as *owner* or *possession*.

They have a large garden.

What pretty ears you've got!

Who does this land belong to? (or more formally) *To whom does this land belong?*

He owns two houses.

Who's the owner of these houses?

Before leaving the country, you must be in possession of (formal for *must have*) *a valid passport.*

Possession is also expressed by the use of possessive adjectives and pronouns (see 3.21–23).

This car is mine. This is my car.

Nouns may be used in the genitive case.

That is John's cup. That cup is John's.

- 3.90 Adjuncts to nouns may also be prepositional phrases with *of*, and the *of*-phrase may, in some cases, be replaced by the noun in the phrase used attributively: *the top of the page* (**the page top*); *the top of the mountain*|*the mountain top*; *the foot of the mountain* (**the mountain foot*); *the legs of the table*|*the table legs*; *the City of New York*|*New York City*.

Singular nouns have *s* preceded by an apostrophe as *a woman's hat*, *the boy's bicycle*, *Tom's sister*. So do plurals not ending in *s*, as *men's shoes*, *women's hats*, *children's clothes*. Plural nouns ending in *s* have the apostrophe only, as *the boys' books*, *the girls' dolls*.

When the noun ends in /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ the genitive is /ɪz/, as in *St James's* /'dʒeɪmzɪz/ *Park*, *Alice's* /'æɪlɪsɪz/ *blue eyes*, *a witch's* /'wɪtʃɪz/ *broomstick*.

After some proper names the apostrophe without *s* is used, as *Jesus'* (seldom *Jesus's*), *Achilles' tendon*, *Mr Jones'* (or *Jones's*) *children*. The apostrophe without *s* is usual after some Greek names, as *Xerxes'*, *Socrates'*, and in a few fixed phrases, e.g. *for goodness' sake*, *for conscience' sake*, *for acquaintance' sake*.

- 3.91 The *s*-genitive is used with the pronoun *one*, and with the compounds of *one* and *body* with *some*, *any*, *no* and *every*: *one's*, *someone's*, *anyone's*, *no one's*, *anybody's* *everybody's*. When these are used with *else*, the *s*-genitive is added to *else*. *This must be somebody else's hat—it certainly isn't mine*.
- 3.92 If two or three names are joined by *and*, to indicate joint owners, the *s*-genitive is added to the last name only: *We visited Peak and Pike's factory last week*.
The *s*-genitive is added to a group of words forming a sense unit: *my son-in-law's employer*; *the Commander-in-Chief's visit*; *the Prince of Wales's birthday*; *in two or three weeks' time*.
There is a group genitive in the old puzzle: *The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the daughter of Pharaoh's son*. The group genitive is *daughter of Pharaoh's son* (= *the son of the daughter of Pharaoh*).
- 3.93 *Boys*, *boy's* and *boys'* differ in print and writing but not in pronunciation. All three are pronounced /bɔɪz/. *Doctor's* and *doctors'* are the same when spoken. The possibility of misunderstanding can be avoided by using *of*:

What's the doctor's opinion? (singular)

What's the opinion of the doctors? (plural)

- 3.94 The *s*-genitive is used with plural nouns when there is no likelihood of ambiguity. Thus we may speak of *the teachers' common room*, the room used by all the teachers in a school. *Your parents' wishes* is unlikely to be ambiguous because, for the singular, either *mother* or *father* would be preferred: *your mother's/father's wishes*.

- 3.95 The *s*-genitive is regularly used with nouns which indicate persons. It is less often used with inanimate nouns; with these the *of*-phrase is normal: *the back of his head*; *the middle of the blackboard*; *the front door of the house*; *the cap of a milk bottle*.

When the *s*-genitive is used with an inanimate noun, it may be in a traditional phrase or collocation: *out of harm's way*; *to one's heart's content*; *at one's wits' end*; *only a stone's throw (away)*, i.e. quite near; *have something at one's fingers' ends*; *get one's money's worth*; *keep somebody at arm's length*. What the noun stands for may be thought of as having life, as when sailors speak of a ship as *she*, and of *the ship's doctor/carpenter*.

Nouns indicating a point of time, or measurements of time and distance, are used with the *s*-genitive, as in: *a good day's work*; *a month's holiday*; *today's/yesterday's (news)paper*; *tomorrow's meeting of the General Assembly of the United Nations*; *this year's harvest*; *after a moment's thought*; *without a moment's rest*; *a three hours' walk*; *less than a boat's length from the ship*; *a hair's breadth*.

Such genitives may in some cases be replaced by hyphenated compounds, as *a five-mile walk*; *a twenty-minute talk*. *After several hours' delay* is normal, and so is *after a delay of several hours*.

The use of the *s*-genitive is becoming increasingly common in newspaper style, radio and TV reporting, and colloquial usage: *the citizens of London*|*London's citizens*; *the population of this country*|*this country's population*; *the leaders of the nation*|*the nation's leaders*; *the wheels of the car*|*the car's wheels*.

- 3.96 Note the construction in which both the *of*-genitive and either a possessive pronoun or a noun with the *s*-genitive are used, as in *a friend of mine*|*of John's*. In this double genitive the noun or pronoun following *of* must refer to a person, not a thing: *A friend of mine* means 'one of my friends', i.e. it is indefinite. Compare: *my friend John*, which is definite. Other examples: *some friends of my brother's*; *any friends of yours*.

My brother's friend refers to someone whose identity is clear from the situation or context, for example the friend we have been talking about. *A friend of my brother's* is indefinite, it means 'one of my brother's friends'. *Your book* refers to a definite book; *a book of yours* is indefinite. *The Prime Minister's speech* refers to a particular speech, for example one recently made and now in the news; *a speech of the Prime Minister's* is indefinite, one of his many speeches.

- 3.97 When a noun modified by a double genitive (e.g. *laugh* in 'laugh of hers') is preceded by a demonstrative (*this/that, these/those*), the reference is to something or someone presumed to be already known or familiar.

That remark of Susan's was impertinent.
We're getting tired of that bad temper of yours.
This boy of yours is a little nuisance.
Keep that big head of yours out of my light, please.
What business is that of yours? (= What business of yours is that?)

That is often emotive in such double genitives. *That bad temper of yours* suggests 'your well-known bad temper'. Cf. *your bad temper*, which could refer to a single occasion when there was an exhibition of bad temper. Compare the use of *that* in an exclamation such as *Oh! that woman*, used with the suggestion that she is well known for some special characteristic.

- 3.98 An *of*-genitive is often the equivalent of an adjective or a relative clause. Examples: *that rascal of a landlord*, that rascally landlord; *my angel of a wife*, my angelic wife, my wife who is as kind, patient, etc. as an angel; *her brute of a husband*, her husband who behaves like a brute; *in a devil of a hurry*, in a devilish, i.e. a very great, hurry.

- 3.99 A noun with the *s*-genitive may be used without the following noun when the reference is to an institution, a place of residence, business, etc. (e.g. a church, college, hospital, restaurant, hotel, theatre).

I met her at my uncle's (at my uncle's house).
I bought it at Selfridge's/Harrods (at the department store with this name).
He's vicar of St Andrew's (St Andrew's Church).
He's a Fellow of St John's (St John's College, Cambridge or Oxford).
There's a tobacconist's (shop) *in the next street.*
He's gone to the butcher's/baker's/grocer's (shop).

When a department store is widely known, the apostrophe may be dropped, as *Selfridges/Harrods*.

When one noun is in apposition to another, the apostrophe may be dropped from the first: *Smith's the grocer's* (the grocer called Smith).

Relative Clauses

- 3.100 *Jane is a brilliant swimmer.*
Jane represented Britain in the Olympic Games.

These two statements may be combined in two ways.

- 1 *Jane, a brilliant swimmer, represented Britain in the Olympic games.*
 2 *Jane, who's a brilliant swimmer, represented Britain in the Olympic Games.*

In 1 the words *a brilliant swimmer* are in apposition to the noun *Jane*. In 2 the words *who's a brilliant swimmer* are a relative clause. The clause has *who* as its subject. *Who*, in this clause, is a relative pronoun.

That boy is Tom.
He broke one of the school windows.

These sentences may be combined.

- 3 *Tom's the boy who broke one of the school windows.*

There is again a relative clause as in 2, and *who* is the relative pronoun.

In 2 the relative clause is marked off with commas. In 3 the clause is not marked off by commas.

- 3.101 In speech, intonation is the equivalent of punctuation, which may be regarded as a not very adequate substitute for intonation. There is, in 2, a rise in pitch on *Jane* and on *swimmer*, and a slight pause (indicated by two short vertical strokes) after each of these words.

'Jane, || who's a brilliant 'swimmer, || represented Britain in the Olympic 'Games.

In 3, where there are no commas, there are no rises in pitch and no pauses. There may be a fall in pitch on the word to which prominence is given, e.g. the word *Tom*.

'Tom's the boy who broke one of the school windows.

The two types of clause are distinguished. A clause marked off with commas is called a NON-DEFINING or NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE. A clause not marked off by commas is called a DEFINING or RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE.

- 3.102 A non-defining clause is not essential. *Jane represented Britain at the Olympic Games* is complete in itself. A non-defining clause is added to give additional information. The clause may be separated by means of dashes or placed in parentheses instead of by commas.

This 'boy || (who lives in Church 'Road)|| broke one of the school 'windows yesterday.
This 'boy || - who lives in Church 'Road - || broke one of the school 'windows yesterday.

- 3.103 A defining clause provides information needed to make the antecedent definite. In 3 above, *Tom's the boy* is incomplete. The clause *who broke one of the school windows* is needed to make clear who *the boy* (the antecedent) is. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which* and *that*. *When*, *where* and *why* are used as relative adverbs. Relative clauses must be distinguished from noun clauses, dependent questions, and adverbial clauses.

Do you know the man who wrote that book? (relative clause)
Can you tell me who wrote this book? (dependent question)
This is the place where the accident happened. (relative clause)
The house stands where three roads meet. (adverbial clause of place)
Sunday is a 'holiday, || when people do not go to 'work. (non-defining relative clause)
When I woke 'up, || it was raining 'hard. (adverbial clause of time)

Non-defining relative clauses occur more frequently in writing than in speech.

My 'brother-in-law, || who is a 'mining engineer, || is in 'Canada at present.

In speech, separate or co-ordinate sentences are more likely.

My brother-in-law's a 'mining engineer. He's in 'Canada at present.

WHO, subject

(a) in Defining Clauses

- 3.104 *who* is used with an antecedent which stands for a person or persons. If the antecedent is preceded by *any* or *all* (e.g. *any man*, *anyone*, *all people*, *all those*) the following clause is always a defining clause, never a non-defining clause.

The boy who broke the window is called Tom.
People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
Will all those who are in favour of the resolution please hold up their hands.
Anyone who wishes to leave early may do so.
Any man/Anyone who smokes cigarettes is, the doctors say, risking his health.

- 3.105 When the verb in the clause is a finite of *be* and the adjective is one ending in *-ble*, both the relative pronoun and the finite may be, and usually are, omitted.

The only person (who was) visible was a policeman.

When the verb in the clause is in one of the progressive tenses, the relative pronoun (subject) and the finite of *be* may be, and usually are, omitted.

The man (who was) driving the lorry was drunk.
The boy (who is) sitting in the corner is my nephew.
The woman (who is) holding a baby in her arms is waiting to see the doctor.

If the verb in the clause is one not normally conjugated in the progressive tenses (see Non-Conclusive Verbs, 2.66-8), the relative pronoun may be omitted and a present participle used.

Anyone wishing (= who wishes) to leave early may do so.
Anyone knowing (= who knows) anything about the crime is asked to communicate with the police.

The relative pronoun *who* is also omitted in colloquial speech after *There is/was*, etc and *It is/was*, etc.

There's somebody at the door wants to see you.
 (= *There's somebody who wants to see you at the door.*)
Who was that called a few minutes ago?
 (= *Who was that who called a few minutes ago?*)

- 3.106 The relative *that* in some cases may replace *who*, especially in colloquial style in informal situations.

The boy who/that broke the window is called Tom.
The man who's/that's playing the saxophone is my brother.
The girl who/that lives next door to me is getting married next week.
It wasn't me who/that broke the window.

(b) in Non-defining Clauses

The relative *that* does not replace *who* in non-defining clauses.

Mr 'Green, || who gives me 'piano lessons, || has been 'ill recently.

Compare the clauses in these sentences.

- 1 *My 'brother, || who lives in 'Birmingham, || is an engi'neer.*
- 2 *My brother who lives in 'Birmingham is an engineer.*

1, with a non-defining clause, indicates either that I have only one brother or that the reference is to a brother to whom there has been a recent reference.

My brother is an engineer. He lives in Birmingham.

2, with a defining clause, indicates that I have two or more brothers.

One of my brothers lives in Birmingham. This brother is an engineer.

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

WHOM, direct object

3.107 *Whom*, the form for the direct object, is usually omitted from defining clauses in spoken English. *Whom* is rarely used in colloquial speech.

*The people (whom) you met at my house yesterday are Muslims.
The lawyer (whom) I consulted gave me some useful advice.*

In colloquial style, *who* or *that* may replace *whom*, though the omission is more usual.

The lawyer (who/that) I consulted gave me some useful advice.

Whom is not omitted from non-defining clauses.

*'Robert, || whom you met at my 'house last week, || is my 'music teacher.
'Anne, || whom Dick hopes to 'marry, || is a 'very attractive 'girl.*

WHOM, prepositional object

3.108 *Whom* is usually omitted in a defining clause and the preposition is placed at the end of the clause.

Who's the woman you were talking to when I saw you this morning?

(Who's the woman to whom you were talking is formal, and unlikely in colloquial speech.)

That man you lent your dictionary to seldom returns the books he borrows.

(That man to whom you lent your dictionary is formal.)

Is there anyone I can go to for help?

(More usual than to whom I can go for help, formal.)

In non-defining clauses, *whom* is not omitted and the preposition precedes it.

*My 'publishers, || with whom I have 'excellent re',lations, || always give my new books 'wide pu'blicity.
The men of the 'village, || some|many|a few of whom are retired 'business-men, || have subscribed to a fund for new 'playing-fields.*

WHOSE, possessive form of WHO

3.109 *Whose* is used with reference to persons. It is also used with reference to things to indicate possession instead of *of which*, though it is often preferable, as shown in the examples, to avoid the use of *whose/of which* by means of a prepositional phrase replacing the clause.

(a) in Defining Clauses

*That's the man whose wife was on TV last night.
He's a novelist whose reputation has grown fast.*

Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

*The boy whose work I showed you is going to go far.
The surgeon on whose skill her life depended came to this country from Sweden.*

The only words in this paragraph whose spelling may cause trouble are . . . This may be recomposed using which: The only words in this paragraph the spelling of which/of which the spelling may cause trouble are . . .

The house whose windows are broken is unoccupied. This may be recomposed using which: The house of which the windows/the windows of which are broken is unoccupied. The use of a prepositional phrase is more likely: The house with the broken windows is unoccupied.

(b) in Non-defining Clauses

'Nicholas, || whose wife teaches 'singing, || is him'self a teacher of the 'piano.

*'Mozart, || whose music you have been 'listening to/to whose music you have been 'listening, || is my 'favourite com'poser.
Jane's favourite novelist is Henry 'James, || whose 'style I find for too in'volved.*

WHICH, subject

3.110

(a) in Defining Clauses

Which, as subject of a defining clause, is replaceable by that, and that is more usual.

This is one of the few really good books which/that have been published on this subject.

The cinema which/that used to stand at this corner was destroyed by bombing in 1940.

(b) in Non-defining Clauses

This 'fountain-pen, || which cost me a lot of 'money, || 'leaks badly.

'Brussels, || which is the headquarters of the 'Common 'Market, || is an at'tractive 'city.

WHICH, direct object

3.111

(a) in Defining Clauses

Which is replaceable by that, usually preferred. It is often omitted.

The books (which/that) I lent you belong to my brother.

The apple trees (which/that) we planted three years ago will probably bear fruit this year.

This is the book (which/that) I bought yesterday.

Note that when the relative pronoun, object, is omitted, a personal pronoun must not be included.

**This is the book I bought it yesterday.*

The object of *bought* is the omitted relative *which/that*, and *it* is not needed.

(b) in Non-defining Clauses

Which is not replaceable by *that* in non-defining clauses.

This fountain-pen, which I bought only a week ago, leaks badly.

He gave the girl a valuable diamond ring, which she pawned the very next day.

The clause may refer not to a single noun as antecedent but to the whole of what precedes. The relative *which* may be equivalent to 'and this', etc.

Caroline was elected by a large majority, which (= and this) was what most people had expected.

The floods destroyed several bridges, which (= and this fact) made it impossible to reach the village by road.

He has to work on Sundays, which he doesn't like.

WHICH, prepositional object

3.112

(a) in Defining Clauses

Which may be omitted, with the preposition at the end of the clause.

Is this the pan in which you make your omelettes/the pan you make your omelettes in? (more usual: *Is this your omelette pan?*)

Those photographs at which you've been looking/Those photographs you've been looking at were taken during our holidays.

In speech it is more usual to omit the relative *which*. Thus, *the book I was talking to you about* is more usual than *the book about which I was talking to you*.

After the noun *way* it is usual to omit both the relative *which* and the preposition.

That's not the way I do it (= the way in which I do it).

It isn't what he says that annoys me but the way he says it (= the way in which he says it).

That's the way the money goes! (cf That's how the money goes!)

(b) in Non-defining Clauses

This problem, to which reference has already been made, has not yet been solved.

This encyclopedia, of which the second volume/the second volume of which is missing, is quite out of date.

This long road, along which poplar trees were planted many years ago, goes to Arras.

THAT, subject

3.113 *That* is used for things, though it is occasionally used for persons. It is more usual, in defining clauses, than *which*. In the examples below, the possible use of *who* and *which* is indicated.

The boy that/who broke the window is called Tom.

The cinema that/which used to stand at this corner was destroyed by bombing in 1940.

He jests at scars that never felt a wound. (proverbial: *He who never felt a wound jests at scars.*)

The crowds that/which/who surrounded the film-star were behaving very childishly.

As noted in 3.105 above (on *who*), the relative pronoun (subject), and the finite of *be* (in one of the progressive tenses) may be, and often are, omitted.

The car (that was) following us was, I noticed, a police car.

Similar omissions occur when a finite of *be* occurs with a prepositional phrase.

The painting (that is) on that wall was a wedding present.

Such omissions also occur when a finite of *be* occurs with an adjective in *-ble*.

The explorers were confronted with gorges (that were) almost impassable and rivers (that were) often unfordable.

The decoration of the house had been done in the best style (that was) possible.

That, subject, is usually omitted when the clause has introductory *there*.

This is the only one (that) there is. (Cf *This is the only one that exists.*)

These are the only good books (that) there are on the subject.

(Cf *These are the only good books that have been written on the subject.*)

THAT, object

3.114 *That* is preferred to *which* as the object of the verb in the clause, but is often omitted. *That* is also used in place of *whom*.

The books (that) I lent you belong to my brother.

The people (that) you met (rarely whom you met) at my house yesterday are Muslims.

Where's the transistor (that) I lent you last week?

They found fault with everything (that) I said.

Many of the books (that/which) I enjoyed as a boy no longer interest me.

This is one of the few really good books (that) this prolific author has written.

THAT, prepositional object

- 3.115 The preposition is placed at the end of the clause. *That* may be, and usually is, omitted.

This is the book (that) I was telling you about. (rarely, and more formal: *about which I was telling you*)

The roses (that) you've been looking at were all planted two years ago. (rarely, and more formal: *at which you've been looking*)

She has everything (that) a woman could wish for.

WHAT, relative pronoun

- 3.116 *What* may be considered to be a relative pronoun in which the antecedent is to be understood. It may mean *that which, the thing(s) which*.

What he says is not important.

I'll do what I can to help.

What the country needs most is wise leadership.

Relative Adverbs

- 3.117 The relative adverbs are *where, when* and *why*. They are used in both defining and non-defining clauses. *Where* and *when* may replace a preposition + a relative pronoun.

the office in which he works

the office he works in

the office where he works

the restaurant at which I had lunch

the restaurant I had lunch at

the restaurant where I had lunch

the days on which you don't go to school

the days when you don't go to school

the years during which he was in the army

the years when he was in the army

When is sometimes replaced by *that*, and is occasionally dropped.

The baby was taken ill the day (that) we were to have sailed for New York. (or *the day on which . . .*)

The boys ran off the moment (= at the moment when) they saw the owner of the orchard.

The sea was, unfortunately, very rough the day (when/on which) we crossed the Channel.

Where may be preceded by *from*.

We went up to the roof, from where we had a good view of the procession.

Why is used with the noun *reason*. It may replace *for which*.

The reason for which he comes here is . . .

The reason why he comes here is . . .

Why may be omitted in this example:

The reason he comes here is . . .

Or an alternative construction may be used:

His reason for coming here is . . .

When the noun *reason* is omitted, *why* is an interrogative adverb and the *why*-clause is a dependent question. See 1.114 (VP21, Table 72).

Tell me the reason why you did it. (rare)

Tell me why you did it. (more usual)

An infinitive may replace the *why*-clause after *reason* and is often preferable, because shorter.

There's good reason why you should be displeased.

There's good reason to be displeased.

PART FOUR

Adverbials

- 4.1 The term *adverbial* is used here for such simple adverbs as *now, often, well, much, too, quite*; adverbs with a suffix, as *quickly, probably, briefly, clockwise*; phrases such as *now and again, two weeks ago, since two o'clock*; and for adverbial clauses, such as *when I was a boy*.

Adverbials may be classified according to their function (e.g. as modifying verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs; or expressing manner, time, place, direction, degree, frequency) and according to their position.

Patterns for adverbials are not in all cases set out here in tables. Tables are used to illustrate sentence position in some of the sections that follow, and to illustrate some minor patterns.

Modifying Adverbs of Degree and Manner

- 4.2 These adverbs, with the exception of *enough*, precede adjectives. The commonest are *very* and *too*. *Very* may be replaced in colloquial style by such intensifiers as *terribly, awfully, incredibly, remarkably, extremely*.

Your work is very good.
These shoes are too large.
We've been having awfully bad weather recently.
I felt incredibly embarrassed.
Lunch is nearly/almost ready.

Enough follows the adjective.

Are these shoes large enough?

Enough is often used with (*not*) *quite* or *nearly*.

This is (not) quite large enough.
Your work is not nearly/nowhere near good enough.

These adverbs also modify other adverbs.

We found your house very/quite easily.
You're walking too quickly/fast.
She plays tennis really well.

Classification by Position

Front-Position Adverbs (FPA)

- 4.3 There are numerous adverbs which have variable positions in a sentence, as *away* in these sentences:

He went away.
He's been away for six weeks.
Away they went!

Many adverbs may have front position for emphasis or contrast, though their more usual position is elsewhere.

I go there occasionally.
Occasionally we go to a concert, but we go much more often to the theatre.

The interrogative adverbs *how, when, where* and *why* are regularly in front position except in dependent clauses.

Mid-Position Adverbs (MPA)

- 4.4 This term is used here for those adverbs which are normally placed with the verb. Many of them may occupy other positions in the sentence. Notes on alternative positions are given below. When an adverb has mid position it precedes ordinary finite verbs.

He often goes there.
They still want to go.
I seldom play tennis.

This is called the pre-finite position.

An adverb with mid position is placed immediately after the unstressed finites of *be, have, do* and the other auxiliary and modal finites. See 4.12 (Table 92).

We've often been there.
He's always busy.
She's still waiting.
He can seldom find time for reading.

This is called the post-finite position.

End-Position Adverbs (EPA)

- 4.5 The term *End-Position Adverb* is used for those adverbials which are normally placed after the verb, and after any objects which may occur. There may be two or more end-position adverbials, e.g. one of place and one of time. Some guidance (not rules) on the order in which such adverbs may be placed is given below (4.20-21).

(a) with intransitive verbs:

She sings well.
He went there yesterday.

(b) with transitive verbs:

She sang that song well.
He has done that work badly.
Anne speaks French well.
 (**Anne speaks well French.*)

Note

In the (b) examples above, *well* and *badly* are opposites. When *well* is not the opposite of *badly*, it may have other positions. If it means 'with good reason', 'with justice', it is a mid-position adverb.

You may well be surprised.
We might well make the experiment.

Dictionary examples are useful for those adverbs with positions that may vary with their meanings.

Classification by Function

Adverbials of Time

4.6 The term *Adverbials of Time* is restricted here to those adverbials that answer the question 'When?', e.g. *yesterday*; *then*; *at two o'clock*; *three days ago*. Some of the adverbial phrases begin with a preposition, e.g. *on Sunday*; *in summer*; *at six o'clock*. Others have no preposition, e.g. *last night*; *two days ago*; *tomorrow evening*. The tables below illustrate the most often used adverbials of time.

Table 88

1	<i>this</i>	<i>morning afternoon evening week month term year, etc</i> <i>January February, etc</i> <i>spring summer, etc</i>
2	<i>next</i> <i>last</i>	<i>Sunday Monday, etc</i> <i>week month term year, etc</i> <i>January February, etc</i> <i>spring summer, etc</i>
3	<i>(the) next</i> <i>the following</i>	<i>day morning afternoon evening night week month year, etc</i> <i>January February, etc</i> <i>spring summer, etc</i>
4	<i>tomorrow</i> <i>last</i>	<i>evening</i> <i>night</i>

5	<i>tomorrow</i> <i>yesterday</i>	<i>morning afternoon evening night</i>
6	<i>the day</i>	<i>after tomorrow</i> <i>before yesterday</i>
7	<i>the week month year, etc</i>	<i>after next</i> <i>before last</i>
8	<i>one</i>	<i>morning afternoon evening night</i> <i>Monday Tuesday, etc</i> <i>morning afternoon evening night</i> <i>day morning, etc in May June, etc</i> <i>June spring, etc</i>
9	<i>today this day</i> <i>tomorrow</i> <i>yesterday</i>	<i>week fortnight</i>

Note

- 1 We say *this morning*, *this afternoon*, and *this evening*; but *tonight* instead of **this night*.
- 2 *next Sunday*, etc, always future time. Note that instead of *next day* (see 3, below), we say *tomorrow*; instead of *next morning*, we say *tomorrow morning*; instead of **last day*, we say *yesterday*; instead of **last afternoon*, we say *yesterday afternoon*.
- 3 In these combinations the reference is to the day, week, etc, that followed or that will follow. The reference is to the day, etc, after the day, etc, referred to, past or future.
- 4 and 5 *last night* is preferred to *yesterday night*; but *yesterday evening* is preferred to **last evening*.
- 8 No preposition is needed with adverbials in this group; *one morning in May*; *one hot July afternoon*; *one wet evening in November*. If, however, the indefinite article is substituted for *one*, the preposition *on* is needed: *on a sunny June morning*; *on a frosty morning in January*.
- 9 The adverbials *today|this day week* may point to either past or future time, as shown by the verb tense or the context.

This day week (= a week ago) we were in Wales.
I shall be seeing him today week (= in a week's time).

A week|fortnight ago yesterday is more common than *yesterday week|fortnight*. See Table 89.

4.7 This substitution table illustrates adverbials of time in which *ago* occurs. No preposition is needed. The adverbials point to a period of time measured back from the present. Compare the adverbials of duration set out in 4.17 (Table 96).

Table 89

1	<i>(not) long a short/long/considerable time/while a moment/minute/hour/week, etc</i>		<i>ago</i>
2	<i>a few several (not) many two or three, etc</i>	<i>minutes hours days weeks, etc</i>	
3	<i>a week/fortnight/ month, etc two/three/a few/several, etc weeks/months, etc</i>	<i>ago</i>	<i>(today) yesterday last Monday</i>

4.8 This substitution table illustrates some of the thousands of possible adverbials of time that begin with a preposition.

Table 90

1	<i>on</i>	<i>Sunday/Monday, etc</i>	<i>next last morning afternoon evening night</i>
	<i>before</i>		
	<i>after</i>	<i>Sunday/Monday, etc week/fortnight the first/second, etc Sunday/Monday, etc in May/June etc the first/second, etc of May/June, etc May/June, etc the first/second, etc the morning/afternoon etc of May/June the first/second, etc</i>	
	<i>by</i>		

2	<i>in during</i>	<i>May/June, etc (the) spring/summer, etc the morning/afternoon/evening/day/night (the year) 500 BC/1066/1914, etc</i>	
3	<i>at before after by</i>	<i>six o'clock noon/midday/midnight dawn/sunrise/sunset Easter/Christmas/the New Year breakfast/supper, etc time</i>	
4	<i>in</i>	<i>a few minutes/hours/days, etc</i>	
		<i>an hour's quarter of/half an hour's</i>	
		<i>a few/several two/three, etc</i>	<i>hours' days' weeks'</i>
			<i>time</i>

Note

Specimen adverbials from this table are: *on Sunday; on Monday morning; by the end of May; in the morning; on the morning of June the first; at dawn; after sunset; in a few hours; in three hours' time; in two or three years' time.*

Positions of Adverbials of Time

4.9 The adverbials of time set out in 4.7-8 (Tables 89-90) normally have end position. They may have front position for emphasis or contrast. End position:

*I wrote to her last week.
He left a few months ago.
Where are you likely to be next month?
We shall leave on Sunday morning.*

Front position:

*Last summer we went to Wales; this summer we're going to Scotland.
One cold December morning a man was walking along the Dover road.*

End position and front position:

We left London at ten o'clock. At noon the plane landed at Rome airport.

When there are two adverbials of time they may be placed together. There is no fixed order. See 4.20 below.

Adverbials

Adverbial clauses of time (introduced by *when, since, until, after, before, as soon as*, etc) have varying positions.

Come and see me as soon as you can.

When you have time, come and see me.

The crowds of shoppers, after they had heard the warning about the bomb, ran for shelter.

Adverbials of Frequency

- 4.10 The term *Adverbial of Frequency* is used for those adverbials that answer the question 'How often?', e.g. *always, often, every day, twice a week*.

These adverbials can be placed in two groups. Group 1 includes such adverbs as *always* and *often*. Group 2 is made up of such adverbial phrases as *now and again, once a week, every other day, every few weeks*.

Adverbials of Frequency, Group 1, may occupy front, mid, or end position, though the mid position is most usual. The most commonly used are: *always, regularly, usually, generally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, (ever), never*. The adverb *ever* is not used in purely affirmative sentences. It is used in questions, and in clauses expressing conditions, doubt, or ignorance. *Ever* is used in affirmative sentences with *hardly* or *scarcely* meaning 'very seldom'.

- 4.11 This table illustrates adverbs of frequency, Group 1, as mid-position adverbs in the pre-finite position. They have the pre-finite position when the finite verb is not one of the anomalous finites.

Table 91

	Subject	MPA	Finite Verb, etc
1	<i>The sun</i>	<i>always</i>	<i>rises in the east.</i>
2	<i>Simon</i>	<i>occasionally</i>	<i>goes to the cinema.</i>
3	<i>His wife</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>goes.</i>
4	<i>My brother</i>	<i>rarely</i>	<i>writes to me.</i>
5	<i>We</i>	<i>generally</i>	<i>have tea at four.</i>
6	<i>Tom</i>	<i>usually</i>	<i>cycles to school.</i>
7	<i>Larry</i>	<i>always</i>	<i>goes to school by bus.</i>
8	<i>He</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>goes to bed very late.</i>
9	<i>Jenny</i>	<i>hardly/</i> <i>scarcely ever</i>	<i>plays tennis now.</i>
10	<i>Have you</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>been to Prague?</i>
11	<i>If you</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>go there, ...</i>
12	<i>I wonder whether you</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>met my brother while</i> <i>you were in Finland?</i>

Adverbials

Note

The verb *have* in 5 is the full verb (here meaning 'take' or 'eat'), not the anomalous finite.

The adverbs may have front or end position for emphasis or contrast.

Sometimes he goes to school by bus and sometimes he cycles.

X: *'Do you generally go for a walk on Sunday mornings?'*

Y: *'No, usually I go to church.'*

Usually here has front position for emphasis.

Often, when modified by *quite* or *very*, frequently takes front or end position.

I often meet Tom on his way to school.

Quite often I meet Tom on his way to school. (emphatic)

I meet Tom quite often on his way to school.

I met Stephen quite often when I was in London.

Very often the weather was too bad for us to go out.

Quite often he prefers to watch TV at home instead of going out with friends.

When *seldom, rarely, or never* has front position for emphasis, there is inversion of the subject and the finite verb (i.e. the interrogative form is used).

We seldom hear such fine singing from school choirs.

Seldom do we hear such fine singing from school choirs.

- 4.12 This table illustrates adverbs of frequency, Group 1, as mid-position adverbs in the post-finite position. The finite verb is one of the anomalous finites (AF).

Table 92

	Subject + AF (+ not)	MPA	
1	<i>I'm</i>	<i>always</i>	<i>at home on Sundays.</i>
2	<i>I can</i>	<i>hardly ever</i>	<i>hear what that man says.</i>
3	<i>Do you</i>	<i>often</i>	<i>play tennis?</i>
4	<i>They don't</i>	<i>often</i>	<i>go to bed late.</i>
5	<i>You don't</i>	<i>usually</i>	<i>arrive late, do you?</i>
6	<i>You should</i>	<i>always</i>	<i>try to be punctual.</i>
7	<i>She will</i>	<i>occasionally</i>	<i>offer to help.</i>
8	<i>She has</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>had a holiday.</i>
9	<i>We can</i>	<i>generally</i>	<i>get there in time.</i>
10	<i>Will he</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>learn anything useful?</i>
11	<i>I wonder if he'll</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>arrive.</i>
12	<i>I have</i>	<i>rarely</i>	<i>seen better work.</i>
13	<i>They can</i>	<i>seldom</i>	<i>find time for reading.</i>
14	<i>You must</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>do that again.</i>

Note

When the anomalous finite is stressed, the adverb precedes it.

She can always /kən ˈɔ:lweɪz/ find time for a friendly chat.
She always can /ˈɔ:lweɪz ˈkæn/ find time for a friendly chat.

I'm usually /aɪm ˈju:ʒli/ here on Mondays.
I usually am /ˈju:ʒli ˈæm/ here on Mondays.

She's never /ʃi:z ˈnevə/ refused to help.
She never has /ʃi: ˈnevə ˈhæz/ refused to help.

In short answers, comments, and retorts the anomalous finite is stressed. So the adverb of frequency precedes the finite.

X: 'Why don't you stop beating your wife?'
 Y: 'But I never have beaten her!'

Cf 'I've never beaten anybody.'

When *have* is a full verb (see 1.21, 24–5), not an auxiliary, mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position.

We generally have (full verb) coffee for breakfast.
We've (aux verb) always bought the best coffee.

Mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position when used with *have to* indicating obligation. See 1.78 (Table 43).

I often have to cook my own breakfast.
I've often cooked my own breakfast.

With *used to* mid-position adverbs may have either pre-finite or post-finite position.

You always used to help me.
You used always to help me.

He often used to sit outside the door of his house.
He used often to sit outside the door of his house.

When *need* is followed by a direct object or a *to*-infinitive, mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position.

Some of the pupils often need help.
Others seldom need to come to me for help.

When *need* is followed by a bare infinitive, mid-position adverbs have post-finite position.

You needn't always bang the door when you go out, need you?
You need never invite me to go with you again!

When *dare* is followed by a *to*-infinitive, mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position.

He would never dare to be so rude to his father.

4.13 This table illustrates adverbials of frequency, Group 2.

Table 93

<i>every</i>		<i>now and then</i> <i>now and again</i> <i>so often</i>
<i>once/twice</i>		<i>an hour</i> <i>a day</i> <i>a week</i> <i>a month</i> <i>a year, etc</i>
<i>three/four, etc</i> <i>two or three/three or four, etc</i> <i>several</i>	<i>times</i>	
<i>every</i> <i>every other</i>		<i>hour/day/morning/week,</i> <i>etc</i>
<i>every two/three, etc</i> <i>every few</i>		<i>minutes/hours/days, etc</i>
<i>every second/third, etc</i>		<i>day/week, etc</i>

Note

The adverbials illustrated in the above table, together with *once*, *twice*, *again and again*, *as a rule*, have end position or (less frequently) front position.

The buses run every hour.
We have English lessons every other day.
He plays tennis three or four times a week.
We heard shots now and then.
We stopped to rest every three hours.
The furnace should be cleared of ash every third day.

Front position for emphasis:

Now and again we heard shots in the woods.
Again and again I've warned you not to arrive late.
As a rule I don't go to the office on Saturdays.
Every so often (i.e. occasionally) we stopped to look at our map.

Other Mid-Position Adverbs

- 4.14 The adverbs *almost*, *already*, *also*, *even*, *hardly*, *just* (meaning 'barely'), *merely*, *nearly*, *not*, *quite*, *rather*, *soon*, and *still* (meaning 'so far', 'up to now', 'continue to') may also be in the mid position (pre-finite and post-finite) when they modify the main verb of the sentence. Some of them may be in end position.

- 4.15 This table illustrates these adverbs in the pre-finite position. Compare the adverbs of frequency, 4.11 (Table 91):

Table 94

	Subject	MPA	Finite Verb, etc
1	You	almost	managed it that time.
2	They	already	know all about it.
3	His employers	even	offered him higher wages.
4	She	hardly	liked to ask for more.
5	He	just	caught the train.
6	Diana	merely	hinted at the possibility.
7	You	nearly	missed the bus.
8	I	only	wanted to help you.
9	I	quite	understand.
10	We	rather	like it.
11	They	soon	found what they wanted.
12	She	still	hopes to get news of him.
13	I	hardly	know what to do.
14	They	already	owe me £50.
15	David	quite	agreed with me.
16	The engine	still	makes a lot of noise.

Note

Already may have end position in example 2.

Example 12 means: 'She continues to hope . . .'

Cf *still* meaning 'without movement' (EPA):

He is still standing (continues to stand).

He is standing still (standing motionless).

- 4.18 This table illustrates these adverbs in the post-finite position. Compare the adverbs of frequency, 4.12 (Table 92).

Table 95

	Subject	AF (+ not)	MPA	Non-finite Verb, etc.
1	I	have	almost	finished.
2	The post	has	already	come.
3	They	have	also	visited Milan.
4	They	didn't	even	try to help!
5	I	need	hardly	say that he did well.
6	They	had	just	finished breakfast.
7	She	has/is	quite	changed.
8	We	shall	soon	be there.
9	We	are	still	waiting.
10	They	would	rather	stay at home.

Note

The examples below illustrate the pre-finite and post-finite positions of some of these adverbs.

We already know the answer.

We've already found the answer.

She even offered to do the work without payment.

She might even offer to do the work without payment.

I merely wanted to borrow a pencil.

I was merely wondering whether you could lend me a pencil.

Already (example 2) may have end position.

The post has come already.

Already frequently has end position when it replaces *yet* to indicate surprise.

Has the post come already?

You haven't had breakfast already, have you?

Soon may have front or end position as well as mid position.

Adverbs of this group have pre-finite position if the anomalous finite is stressed. It is stressed in short answers and retorts.

X: 'He'll certainly (unstressed will) be glad to know that his father is safe.'

Y: 'He certainly will.' (stressed will)

Adverbials of Duration

- 4.17 The term *Adverbial of Duration* is used for those adverbials that answer the question '(for) how long?'

Below is a substitution table showing possible adverbials of duration.

There are four groups: (1) with *for* (often omitted); (2) with *from . . . to . . .*; (3) with *until, till* or *up to*; (4) with *since*.

Table 96

	<i>some time/a long (short) time/half an hour/ a quarter of an hour/a week/a month/a year, etc.</i>	
(for)	<i>several a few two or three many the next/last/first few/three, etc over/under three more/less than three</i>	<i>minutes hours days weeks months years etc</i>

from	morning	to till until	night
	Sunday		Friday
	May		August
	two o'clock		six o'clock
	1901		1978
until till up to	tomorrow morning afternoon, etc June the first the second of May, etc 1939 1975, etc		
since	five o'clock half past two, etc breakfast lunch, etc Sunday Tuesday, etc the first of May June the first, etc 1970 1975, etc		

Note

Adverbials of duration usually have end position. They may have front position (seldom mid position) for emphasis or contrast.

Has he been ill long? Yes, he has been ill (for) a considerable time/since the end of May.

He was away from school (for) four or five weeks.

We were kept waiting for over/for more than half an hour.

Front position for emphasis or contrast:

From nine o'clock until noon he was working in the garden, but since then he's been lying in the sun.

For the last few days we've had cold, wet weather. (For is usually retained when the adverbial has front position.)

Adverbials of Place and Direction

- 4.18 These are so numerous, and can be formed so freely (eg in the pattern *preposition + noun*, as in *the post office, over the hill, near the church, into the lake*), that they are not shown in tables. They normally have end position.

Put the books on the table.

The map was hung on the wall.

Ring me up at my office.

He jumped into the water.

For the placing of these adverbials when there are other end-position adverbials, see 4.20–21 (Tables 97–98).

Adverbials of Degree and Manner

- 4.19 The position of adverbials of degree and manner cannot be shown simply in tables. The following notes may be helpful. See also the article on 'Adjectives and Adverbs identical in Form' (4.25–30). The adverbs *well, badly, hard*, and many other adverbs indicating manner have end position. They are not placed between a verb and its object.

With intransitive verbs:

She sings beautifully.

He's working well/hard.

He's playing badly today.

With transitive verbs:

He's done the work well/badly.

She plays tennis beautifully.

You speak English perfectly.

Hit the ball hard.

In exclamatory sentences with *how* the adverb is placed after *how*, not at the end.

How well/badly he's done the work!

How well she plays tennis!

How beautifully she sings!

How hard you work!

The adverb *much* normally has end position.

He doesn't speak much.

Does she play tennis much (= often)?

Do you like camping much?

He doesn't like wine very much.

(Note that the sentence 'He doesn't like very much wine', grammatically correct, means 'He doesn't like a large quantity of wine'.) *Much* is also used in the mid position when the verb is negative, usually when the object is something non-material.

I don't much like the idea.

Adverbs of manner in *-ly*, used with transitive verbs, occupy either the mid position or the end position. (*Badly* never has mid position.)

He quickly picked up the ball.

He picked up the ball quickly.

I deeply regret the mistake.

I regret the mistake deeply.

He frankly admitted his error.

He admitted his error frankly.

I had completely forgotten it.

I had forgotten it completely.

If such sentences are in the passive voice, adverbs in *-ly* go with the past participle, either before or after.

The work had been carefully done.
The work had been done carefully.

With verb phrases such as *go out*, *come in*, adverbs of manner in *-ly* occupy either end position or mid position.

He went out/came in quietly.
He quietly went out/came in.

Order of Two or More Adverbials

- 4.20 When two or more adverbials, of the same class or of different classes, are to be used in a sentence, the order in which they are to be placed has to be decided.

When there are two adverbials of time, the adverbial indicating a point of time (e.g. *three o'clock*) or the shorter period of time is usually, but not invariably, placed first.

I saw the film on Tuesday evening last week.
I'll meet you at three o'clock tomorrow.
We arrived at five o'clock yesterday afternoon.

Note that the adverbial indicating a period of time may have front position for emphasis, prominence or contrast.

Yesterday I met you at three o'clock, but tomorrow I'll meet you at four o'clock.
Yesterday afternoon we arrived at five o'clock, but tomorrow we'll arrive at four o'clock.

Note that when there are two such adverbials the point of time cannot have front position in isolation.

**At three o'clock I'll meet you tomorrow.*

They may have front position, however, if combined.

At three o'clock tomorrow I'll meet you outside the theatre.

If, however, the larger unit is considered to be more important, or if the smaller is an afterthought, this order may be reversed.

We arrived yesterday afternoon, about five o'clock.

When there are two adverbials of place, the smaller unit is usually, but not always, placed first. The order is often a matter of style and balance.

He lives in a small village in Kent.
We spent the holidays in a cottage in the mountains.

Cf *We spent the holidays in the mountains, in a small cottage we rented from a friend.*

When a sentence includes both an adverbial of place or direction and an adverbial of time, the adverbial of time usually comes last.

The table below illustrates such combinations.

Table 97

	Adverbial of Place or Direction	Adverbial of Time
1	<i>I went swimming in the lake</i>	<i>before breakfast.</i>
2	<i>I'll be there</i>	<i>early.</i>
3	<i>We're going to Holland</i>	<i>next month.</i>
4	<i>They landed at Dover</i>	<i>the next morning.</i>
5	<i>I expect to be back home</i>	<i>by Tuesday.</i>
6	<i>Meet me outside the post office</i>	<i>at five o'clock on Monday.</i>
7	<i>We went to a party</i>	<i>last night.</i>
8	<i>Please return the books to the library</i>	<i>before Monday.</i>
9	<i>Can you get here</i>	<i>by evening?</i>

Variations in this order are possible. The adverbial of time may have front position. The adverbial of place or direction is not normally in front position.

Last month we went to Scotland; next month we're going to Wales. (Adverbial of Time in front position for contrast)

On Monday they sailed from Southampton; on Saturday they landed in New York.

Compare these two sentences:

Please return all books to the library before Friday. (normal word order)

Please return before July 4th all books that you have borrowed from the library. (Here, exceptionally, the adverbial of time comes between the verb and its object. If the adverbial of time were placed at the end, it might be taken as modifying *borrowed* instead of *return*.)

- 4.21 Adverbials of place and direction usually precede adverbials of frequency. Adverbials of frequency usually precede adverbials of time.

This table illustrates such combinations.

Table 98

	Place or Direction	Frequency	Time
1	<i>I have been to London</i>	<i>several times</i>	<i>this year.</i>
2	<i>He walked round the park</i>	<i>twice</i>	<i>before supper.</i>
3	<i>He gave lectures at the college</i>	<i>three days a week</i>	<i>last term.</i>
4	<i>I passed her in the street</i>	<i>twice</i>	<i>last week.</i>
5	<i>He goes to Africa</i>	<i>every other year</i>	<i>nowadays.</i>

Note

Variations in this order are possible, chiefly by placing the adverbial of time in front position for emphasis or contrast.

Before supper he walked round the park twice.

Last term he gave lectures at the college three days a week; this term he is lecturing there five days a week.

Adverbial Particles

- 4.22 The term *Adverbial Particle* is used for a group of adverbs with characteristics of their own. The most important are: *up, down, in, out, on, off, away, back*.

These particles are used with verbs to form combinations with meanings that are sometimes regular and obvious (as in *take your hat off, put your hat on*) and sometimes irregular (as in *put off a meeting, = postpone it*).

Many of these particles are used as prepositions. In the sentence *I ran down the hill*, *down* is a preposition. In the sentence *The clock has run down*, *down* is an adverb. The combination *run down* here means 'stop'. *The clock has run down*, i.e. 'stopped', because it needs to be wound up. In other contexts *run down* may mean 'become exhausted': *The battery has run down*. Transitivity *run down* may mean 'hit and knock down', as in *Their car ran down a pedestrian*.

There are many hundreds of such verb-adverb combinations. The meaning is sometimes clear from the meanings of the two words taken separately. Often, however, the meaning of the combination must be learnt independently of the separate words, as in *The gun went off* (i.e. fired) *by accident*.

These particles occur in VP2C. See 1.50 (Table 19).

Won't you sit down?

My hat blew off.

We must turn back.

They also occur in VP15B. See 1.96-7 (Tables 57-8).

Don't throw that old hat away.

Don't throw away that old hat.

Did you wind the clock up?

Did you wind up the clock?

Turn the tap on/off.

Turn on/off the tap.

- 4.23 These particles may have front position in exclamatory sentences. There are two patterns.

If the subject of the sentence is a personal pronoun, the order is: particle + personal pronoun + verb.

Off they went! (= They went off.)

Away it flew! (= It flew away.)

Out it comes! (= It comes/it's coming out.)

If the subject of the sentence is a noun, or a pronoun that is not a personal pronoun, the order is: particle + verb + subject.

Off went John! (= John went off.)

Away flew my hat! (= My hat flew away.)

In came the others! (= The others came in.)

Compare the patterns for exclamatory *here* and *there*. See 1.35, (Notes to Table 4).

These particles are used in front position to form a lively (informal) imperative. The subject *you* is needed.

In you go! (= Go in, please.)

Out you come! (= Come out!)

- 4.24 The particles are also used in verbless exclamations. The pattern is: particle + *with* + noun/pronoun.

Out with it! (= Bring it out, tell us the news, the secret, etc., according to context.)

Down with the grammarians! (= Let us suppress them.)

Away with them! (= Take them away!)

Off with their heads! (= Cut their heads off.)

Adjectives and Adverbs Identical in Form

- 4.25 When we speak of 'a fast train', we use *fast* as an adjective. When we say, 'The train was travelling fast', we use *fast* as an adverb.

There are numerous adjectives, mostly short and familiar words, that can be used, without change of form, as adverbs. Some, like *fast*, have only one form. Others, for example *wrong*, can be used as adverbs without change of form but are also used with the suffix *-ly*. *Wrong* is an adjective in 'a wrong answer'. It is an adverb in 'to guess wrong'. But before a past participle it is necessary to use *wrongly*, as in 'We were wrongly informed.'

The following sections deal with adjectives and adverbs that are identical in form, and with the differences in the use of adverbs that sometimes have, and sometimes don't have, the suffix *-ly* (e.g. the difference between the adverbs *high* and *highly*). These differences are sometimes differences of usage.

- 4.26 There is a small group of adjectives formed by adding *-ly* to nouns that denote a period of time. They are: *hourly, daily, weekly, fortnightly, monthly, quarterly, yearly*. To these may be added: *bi-weekly, bi-monthly*, etc. These adjectives are also used as adverbs.

There is an hourly service of trains to London. (adj)

The buses run hourly. (adv)

We advertised for a house in several weekly periodicals. (adj)

This periodical is published weekly. (adv)

- 4.27 Note that when the suffix *-ly* is added to nouns such as *man, king, scholar* (meaning 'having the nature or qualities of'), the resulting word is always an adjective. It cannot be used as an adverb.

The chief words in this class are *beastly, brotherly, cowardly, (un)earthly, fatherly, (un)friendly, gentlemanly, heavenly, kingly, leisurely, lively* (from *life* + *-ly*), *lovely, masterly, motherly, princely, queenly, (un)scholarly, sisterly, (un)soldierly, womanly*.

If we wish to express the idea denoted by these adjectives adverbially, a phrase such as 'in a leisurely manner' or 'in a cowardly fashion' can be used.

That's a cowardly thing to say. (adj)

He behaved in a cowardly fashion/manner. (adverbial phrase)

- 4.28 The words *early, fast, half, long, and straight* are used both as adjectives and adverbs.

We had an early breakfast. (adj)

We had breakfast early. (adv)

We had breakfast earlier than usual. (adv)

We went by a fast train. (adj)

Don't speak so fast. (adv)

The post is fast in the ground. (adj)

The paper was stuck fast to the desk. (adv)

He was fast asleep. (adv)

We waited half the afternoon. (adj)

This is not half good enough. (adv)

We've had a long wait. (adj)

Have you been waiting long? (adv)

I can't stay very long. (adv)

I want a straight answer to my question. (adj)

Tell me straight what you think. (adv)

He has come straight from London. (adv)

- 4.29 The words, *cheap, clean, clear, close, dead, direct, easy, fair, false, firm, flat, high, large, loud, low, mighty, quick, right, round, sharp, short, slow, soft, sound, strong, sure, tight, wide and wrong* are used as adjectives. They are also used as adverbs, sometimes with and sometimes without the suffix *-ly*. The use of these words without *-ly* is a matter of usage and cannot be explained by giving rules. 'Guess wrong' is commoner and more idiomatic than 'guess wrongly', but before a past participle *wrongly* is always needed, as in 'I was wrongly informed'.

In some cases it may be questioned whether a word is used as an adverb or as a predicative adjective. In the phrase 'to hold one's head high', *high* may be looked upon as an adjective (see VP22 and cf 'Open your mouth wide') or as an adverb. '*Hold one's head highly' is impossible.

- 4.30 This section illustrates these words, with and without the suffix *-ly*. The entries are in alphabetical order.

cheap(ly)

Both *cheap* and *cheaply* are used as adverbs. *Cheap* is common with *buy* and *sell*.

That shopkeeper buys cheap but doesn't sell cheap.

My wife buys her clothes cheap(ly).

clean(ly)

Clean is used as an adverb meaning 'completely', 'absolutely'.

I clean forgot to ask him about it.

I'd clean forgotten it.

The prisoner got clean away.

He kicked the ball clean over the roof.

He was clean bowled in the first over.

Clean also occurs as an adverb in compounds: *clean-shaven; clean-cut*.

Cleanly /'klenli/ is an adjective replacing *clean* when it means 'habitually clean'.

Are cats cleanly animals?

Note the ordinary adverb *cleanly* /'kli:nlɪ/.

This knife cuts very cleanly (= sharply and neatly).

clear(ly)

Clear is used adverbially with the same meaning as *clean* above.

The bullet went clear through the door.

It occurs in compounds: *a clear-cut face* (with well-defined features); *clear-cut outlines*.

It is used adverbially meaning 'not touching', 'well away from':

Stand/Keep clear of the gates of the lift.

The thieves got clear away (i.e. without their pursuers getting near them).

The horse jumped clear of the hedge (i.e. without touching it).

Clearly is used to modify adjectives and with verbs.

He is clearly wrong/clearly in the wrong.

You must clearly understand that . . .

It must clearly be understood that . . .

In some cases either *clear* or *clearly* may occur in end position:

He spoke loud(ly) and clear(ly).

The moon shone clear(ly).

If an adverb of degree precedes, *clearly* is used:

He speaks quite/very clearly.

close(ly)

Close is used as an adverb meaning 'near'.

Stay close to me.

He was following close behind.

This success brings us closer to final victory.

The closer we look into the problem, the greater the difficulties appear to be.

(In the last example *more closely* is probably preferable in formal style.)

Closely is needed with other meanings.

The prisoners were closely (= strictly) guarded.

Watch closely (= carefully) what I do.

He sent me a letter of two closely written pages (i.e. with the words and lines close together).

It was a closely contested election (i.e. one in which the candidates were close in their chances of election).

dead(ly)

Dead is used adverbially meaning 'completely', 'absolutely': *dead level*; *dead straight*; *going dead slow* (= as slowly as possible, almost stopped); *dead certain*; *dead drunk*; *dead beat* (= tired out, exhausted).

The wind was blowing dead against us.

Deadly is an adjective, as in: *deadly poison*; *deadly hatred*; *the seven deadly sins*. It is used as an adverb meaning 'like death' in *deadly pale* and (figuratively) *deadly dull*.

deep(ly)

Deep is an adjective. It is used adverbially in compounds, as *deep-laid schemes*, and in phrases like *to drink deep*.

Deeply is the usual adverb, as in *to regret something deeply*; *to think deeply about a problem*; *to be deeply offended*.

direct(ly)

Direct is used adverbially meaning 'straight', 'without detours, intermediaries, etc.'

This train goes direct to London.

We went direct to the station.

I shall communicate with you direct (i.e. not through a third party, e.g. not through my solicitors).

Compare the use of *directly*:

We're not directly affected by the changes in taxation.

She's directly descended from Charles Dickens.

Directly is also used, rather ambiguously, meaning either 'at once', 'immediately', or 'after a short time', 'very soon'.

He left directly after breakfast.

I'll be with you directly.

easy, easily

Easy is used adverbially in a few phrases only, as in:

Take it easy. (= Don't work too hard or too energetically.)

Stand easy! (as a military command)

Go easy with the butter. (colloquial, meaning 'use it with moderation')

Easier (= more easily) *said than done.*

Except for these uses, *easily* is used.

He's not easily satisfied.

You can easily imagine my surprise.

He won the race easily (= with ease).

fair(ly)

Fair is used adverbially in a number of fixed phrases: *play fair*; *hit fair*; *fight fair*, and *bid fair to* (= seem likely to).

Otherwise *fairly* is used: *treat a man fairly*; *act fairly by all men*.

Fairly is used adverbially meaning 'to a certain extent'; *fairly good*; *fairly certain*; *fairly well*; *fairly soon*. Used in this way it must be distinguished from *rather*, which may be followed by a comparative or by *too*. Cf

This book is fairly difficult.

This book is rather more difficult/is rather too difficult for you.

false(ly)

False is used adverbially in *play somebody false* (= cheat or betray him). Otherwise *falsely* is needed, as in *falsely accused*.

fast(ly)

Fast is used adverbially and *fastly* is rare.

Don't run/speak so fast.

It was raining fast.

He was fast asleep.

firm(ly)

Firm is used adverbially in *stand firm*; *hold firm to one's beliefs/convictions*.

Otherwise *firmly* is used:

I firmly believe that . . .

Fix the post firmly in the ground.

I had to speak firmly to him.

flat(ly)

Flat is used adverbially in the phrase *fall flat*, meaning 'fail'.

The scheme fell flat.
His jokes all fell flat.

Otherwise *flatly* is used, corresponding to the adjective *flat* in its meaning 'absolutely', 'in a downright way', 'without qualification'.

He flatly refused my request.
The suggestions were flatly opposed (i.e. met with complete and unqualified opposition).

high(ly)

High is used adverbially in numerous phrases: *aim high*; *fix one's hopes high*; *hold one's head high*; *play high* (i.e. gamble for high stakes); *search high and low*.

It is used after *run* in:

The sea was running high.
Passions were running high.

Highly is used before participles: *highly amusing*; *highly paid*; *a highly educated/intelligent woman*.

Note also: *speak/think highly of someone*; *esteem someone highly*.

large(ly)

Large is used adverbially after *loom* and *bulk*: *to loom/bulk large*. Cf *to talk big* (= to boast)

Largely is used meaning 'to a great extent'.

His success was largely due to . . .

loud(ly)

Loud is adverbial with *talk* and *laugh*:

Don't talk so loud.
Who laughed loudest?

Loudly is also used after *talk*, etc.

He spoke loud(ly) and clear(ly).

Loudly is more usual with other verbs.

He called loudly for help.
She complained loudly of having been kept waiting.

low(ly)

Low is used adverbially after *speak*, *sing*, *bow*, *curtsey*, *buy*, *sell*, *aim* and other verbs.

He bowed/She curtseyed low (= made a low bow/curtsey) *to the Queen*.

I like to buy low and sell high (e.g. of stocks and shares).

He aimed low so as to hit the man in the leg.

Low occurs in compounds as *low-born*, *low-bred*.

Lowly is usually an adjective, and the adverbial use, as in *lowly born*, is not common.

mighty, mightily

Mighty is used in American English colloquial style as an adverb modifying adjectives.

It was mighty kind of you.

Mightily is rare.

quick(ly)

Quick is used in colloquial style in place of *quickly* after verbs indicating movement:

I ran as quick(ly) as I could.
Come quick(ly)—I need help.

Otherwise *quickly* is used:

The term passed quickly.
Retribution quickly followed.

As the examples show, *quickly* may follow or precede the verb.

right(ly)

Right is very commonly used adverbially:

It serves you right.
He guessed/answered right.
Nothing goes right with me.
I'll come right away (= at once).

Rightly, meaning 'correctly', has mid position, with the verb:

He rightly guessed that . . .
I can't rightly recollect whether . . .
They decided, rightly or wrongly, that . . .

round(ly)

The adverb *round* (and *around* in American English) is used to indicate a return to a starting point.

*Christmas will soon be round again.
I shall be glad when spring comes round again.*

It is used to indicate a place where the speaker is, was, or will be:

Come round and see me this evening.

It is used with verbs indicating movement:

*Hand these papers round (= distribute them).
The car will be round (= will be here) in a few minutes.*

Roundly has little or no link with the adjective and adverb *round*. It means 'pointedly', 'flatly'.

*I told her roundly that she was not wanted.
She cursed me roundly.*

sharp(ly)

Sharp is used adverbially meaning 'punctually', as in *at six o'clock sharp*. It is also used in *look sharp* (= be quick), *sing sharp* (= above the true pitch), and *turn sharp left/right* (= make a sharp or abrupt turn to the left/right).

The use of *sharply* is shown in: *answer sharply* and *speak sharply to someone* (= harshly, severely). Note also: *a sharply pointed pencil*.

short(ly)

Short is used adverbially in a number of fixed phrases: *stop short*; *pull up short*; *break/snap something off short*; *cut short* (an interview, the proceedings, etc); *go short of something*.

Shortly is used meaning (1) in a short time, soon, as in *shortly afterwards*; (2) briefly, curtly, abruptly, as in *answer shortly*.

slow(ly)

Slow is used adverbially with *go*.

I told the driver to go slow(er). (Here *more slowly* is an alternative.)

The workers decided to go slow (= work slowly, as a sign of protest, dissatisfaction with wages, conditions of work, etc).

You should go slow (= be less active) *until you feel really well again.*

Otherwise *slowly* is used:

*Drive slowly round these bends in the road.
How slowly the time passes!*

soft(ly)

Soft is sometimes used adverbially in the comparative, as *play* (the piano) *softer*. Otherwise *softly* is used.

Tread softly so as not to wake the baby.

sound(ly)

Sound is adverbial in *sound asleep*.

You'll sleep the sounder (= more soundly) after a day in the fresh air.

Otherwise *soundly* is used: *thrash/beat someone soundly*; *sleep soundly*.

strong(ly)

Strong is used adverbially in a few phrases, as *still going strong* (= continuing vigorously); *come/go it (rather, a bit) strong* (= exaggerate, go to unnecessary lengths).

Otherwise *strongly* is usual: *a strongly built man*; *strongly oppose a measure*.

sure(ly)

Sure is adverbial in *sure enough* and in the colloquial use *as sure as* (e.g. *as sure as my name isn't Barry Mackenzie*).

Otherwise *surely* is used: *working slowly but surely*.

tight(ly)

Tight is used adverbially except before a past participle.

*Hold it tight.
Hold tight to my hand.
Screw the nuts up tight.
The coat was made to fit tight round the waist.
We were packed tight in the bus.*

Before past participles:

*The goods were tightly packed in the crate.
The children sat with their hands tightly clasped.*

wide(ly)

Wide is often adverbial.

*'Open your mouth wide', said the dentist.
The windows were wide open/open wide.
He was wide awake.
Their views are still wide apart.
We searched far and wide for the missing child.
It fell wide of the mark.*

Widely with past participles: *widely scattered/separated/known*.

He has travelled widely.

Adverbials
wrong(ly)

Wrongly is more usual, but *wrong* is used in *get (something) wrong, go wrong, guess wrong, tell (someone) wrong*.

I got his instructions wrong (= misunderstood them).
All our plans have gone wrong.
Surely he hasn't told you wrong (= wrongly informed you) again?

Wrongly is used before a past participle.

You've been wrongly informed.

- 4.31 There are other pairs of adverbs, one without and the other with the suffix *-ly*, which differ from the pairs illustrated in 4.30. The members of these pairs differ in meaning. The difference between *speak louder* and *speak more loudly* is not a difference of meaning: *speak louder* is more colloquial and *speak more loudly* is considered 'more correct'. The adverbs *hard* and *hardly*, *just* and *justly*, *late* and *lately*, *most* and *mostly*, *pretty* and *prettily* differ in meaning.

hard, hardly

The adverb *hard* is linked in meaning to the adjective *hard*.

You must try harder.
He looked hard at me.
It's freezing hard.
He was running as hard as he could.
She was hard at work/working hard.

The most usual meaning of *hardly* is 'scarcely'.

This dress is hardly long enough.
We hardly ever (= seldom) *go to the cinema*.
I hardly know her.
You'd hardly believe it.

Compare these sentences:

He works hard (is a hard worker).
He hardly does anything nowadays (does very little).
He was hard hit by the financial crisis (was badly hit, suffered severe losses).
He was hardly affected by the financial crisis (suffered little loss because of it).

Hard-earned money is money earned through hard work.

Adverbials

just, justly

The adverb *just* has no connection with the adjective *just* and the noun *justice*. Examples of *just* are: *just now/then; just here/there; just as you say; just so*.

We only just managed to catch the train.
I've just seen him.
He earns just enough for his needs.

The adverb *justly* is linked with the adjective *just* and the noun *justice*.

As you justly (= rightly) *observe* . . .
He was justly punished.

late, lately

The adverb *late* is the contrary of the adverb *early*: *go to bed/get up/stay up late; arrive late; sooner or later; marry late in life*. *Lately* means 'recently'.

I haven't seen Green lately.

most, mostly

The adverb *most* is an irregular superlative: *much, more, most*.

What pleased me most was that . . .
The people most concerned in the business are . . .

The adverb *mostly* means 'for the most part'.

Houses in England are mostly built of brick or stone, not of wood.

pretty, prettily

The adverb *pretty* is used colloquially and means 'fairly' or 'moderately'.

The situation seems pretty hopeless.
The car is new, or pretty nearly so (= almost new).

Prettily means 'in a pretty way', 'attractively' as in *prettily dressed*.

For further examples of the above words and their different meanings the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* may be consulted.

- 4.32 After a small number of verbs, including *smell, taste, feel* and *look*, an adjective, not an adverb, is used. The verb may usually be replaced by *be*. See 1.52-3 (VP2D, Tables 21-2).

This medicine tastes (is) *horrible*.
The fish smells (is) *bad*.
Silk feels (is) *soft and smooth*.
He's feeling (is) *cheerful/happy/well this morning*.
You look (are) *very well*.

Sound is used in this way.

You don't sound (are not, from what you say) convinced by the argument.

When the verb cannot be replaced by *be*, an adverb is needed.

The man smelt strongly of whisky.

This soup tastes strongly of fish.

She felt deeply/keenly about the affair.

PART FIVE

Various Concepts and Ways in which they are Expressed

Commands, Instructions, Requests, Invitations, Suggestions, Prohibitions

5.1 These may be expressed in various ways. The verbs *command*, *order*, *request*, *tell*, *ask*, *invite*, *request*, *suggest*, *prohibit*, *forbid* and their corresponding nouns may be used. Note the verb patterns in these examples.

He commanded/instructed/ordered/told/requested/asked/invited the men to come early. (VP17)

(Note that *suggest* is not used in VP17.)

He commanded/ordered/requested/suggested that the men should come early. (VP9)

(Note that *tell* and *invite* are not used in VP9.)

Tourist class passengers are prohibited from using the first-class lounge. (VP14)

I forbid you to use that word. (VP17)

I forbid you the use of my tape recorder. (VP12C)

(Note that the use of *forbid* is formal and rare. *Must not* is commoner.)

Examples with corresponding nouns:

He gave orders/gave the command/issued instructions/made the suggestion/made a request that the prisoners (should) be set free. (NP3, noun + that-clause)

(Note the use of *should be* in the clause. The use of *be alone* is an older use and is less usual than the use of *should be*.)

He gave orders for the setting free of the prisoners/for the prisoners to be set free. (NP2, noun + preposition)

Compare the constructions in these examples:

The captain ordered his men to fire a salute.

The captain ordered that a salute should be fired.

The captain ordered a salute to be fired.

The captain gave orders that a salute should be fired.

The captain gave orders for a salute to be fired.

The captain gave orders for the firing of a salute.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.2 Other ways of expressing commands or requests range from the plain imperative to polite formulas.

Be here at nine o'clock.
Please be more patient/reasonable.
Why can't/don't you be more reasonable?
You must be here at nine o'clock.
Will you be here at nine o'clock, please.
Would you mind being here at nine o'clock.
Do you think you could be here at nine o'clock?
Will you be kind enough to be here at nine o'clock.

These various ways of expressing a command or request are dealt with below. In speaking, intonation is important. It can make a plain imperative polite.

'Come 'here. (a definite command)
'Come ,here, please. (a polite request)

The use of a falling tone can change what is normally a polite formula into an impatient command.

'Come `here, please.

- 5.3 It is usually unnecessary to indicate the subject with an imperative.

'Come `here.
'Go a`way.
'Shut the `door!

When a subject is needed, for example when commands are given to more than one person or group, the subject may have either front or end position.

'You carry the table into the ,garden, Harry, and 'you girls take out some ,chairs.
Come ,on, everybody!
`Call a ,taxi, somebody!

You may also be used for emphasis, or may express annoyance, impatience, or some other emotion.

'You mind your own `business!
'Mind your own `business, ,you!

- 5.4 The use of *please* or *will you* with the imperative softens a command to a request.

`Shut the ,door, please.
'Help me with this ,luggage, will you?

Just is used in the same way, often in addition to *will you*.

'Just come ,here a minute, will you?

Just is also used before an imperative to call attention to something considered unusual or remarkable.

'Just `listen to her! (and note how clever, perverse, silly, etc she is.)

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

The addition of *won't you* changes an imperative into an invitation.

Come `in, ,won't you?
'Have a cup of `tea, ,won't you?

- 5.5 The use of *don't* before an imperative provides a request or suggestion not to do something.

'Don't make `so much `noise!
'Don't be `silly!
`Don't be `late for `school!

You is used after *don't* for emphasis.

'Don't you `dare do that again!
And 'don't you for`get it!

- 5.6 Prohibitions are often indicated by means of brief announcements, e.g. with *no* and a gerund.

No smoking!
No parking!
Smoking not allowed.
Parking prohibited between 8 a m and 6 p m.

Must is the most usual verb in spoken English for orders and prohibitions.

You 'must be back before ,dark.
Cars must 'not/mustn't be parked in front of the ,entrance.
You 'mustn't do/mustn't `do that.

- 5.7 A common construction for conveying a command or request is the use of a finite of *be* with a *to*-infinitive. See 1.68, Table 35. Used with *not* it indicates a prohibition.

You're always to knock before you enter my room.
You're not to come into my room without knocking.
You are to write your name at the top of each sheet of paper.
Entries are to be sent in before May the third.
My mother told me I was not to speak to strange men.

- 5.8 Requests may be made by using *wish* with *would* in a *that*-clause. *That* is usually omitted.

I wish you'd be quiet.
I wish Tom wouldn't play his pop records while I'm trying to read.

Compare:

Be quiet!
Don't play your pop records while I'm trying to read.

The use of *wish* in such contexts often indicates that the speaker cannot or does not expect to exact obedience.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.9 *Let's* (always in this contracted form) is used to make suggestions, often followed by *shall we*.

Let's start early, shall we?
Let's go for a swim, shall we?

This use of *let's* has to be distinguished from the use of *let* (meaning *allow*) with a noun or pronoun. If the pronoun is *us*, the contracted form *let's* is not used.

Let us know (= please inform us) whether you can come.
Let me give you some advice.
Let me go!
Don't let your dog worry those sheep.
Let there be no more of this quarrelling.

Let is also used in the imperative with an adverbial adjunct (VP15B).

Let the window down. (i.e. lower it)
Don't let the dog out.

- 5.10 A request using the formula *will you* may be ambiguous. *Shall you* asks about future plans or intentions.

Shall you be back early this evening?
At what time shall you be back this evening?

In contemporary English *shall you* is becoming dated, and *will you* is more usual.

Will you be back early this evening?

This question might mean:

- (a) *Are you likely to be back early this evening?*
(b) *Please be back early this evening.*

(a) is the more likely meaning, and to make the request form (b) unambiguous the addition of *please* is necessary.

Will you be back early this evening, please.

The polite formula *would you* is common for requests. It often replaces *will you* and may convey a suggestion of hesitation or diffidence on the part of the speaker.

Would/Will you pass the salt, please?
Would/Will you come back a little later?

Won't you is used for invitations.

Won't you stay a little longer?
Won't you come in?
Won't you have some more?

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.11 *Will* does not normally occur in *if*-clauses.

If you help me, we shall soon finish the job.

It may occur, however, in an *if*-clause which is not purely conditional but which makes a request. *Would* is also used.

If you'll help me, we could finish this job quickly (= Please help me, so that we may finish this job quickly.)
If you'd lend me £5, I could manage until pay day.

- 5.12 *Could* (and less often *can*) are used to make informal requests.

Could you lend me £5 until tomorrow?
Could I have that dictionary for a few minutes?
Can I see your railway time-table?

May and *might* are used in the same way.

May I have the salt, please?
May/Might I borrow your pen for a minute?

Might (but not *may*) is used to make a request or suggestion in statement form.

You might make a little less noise.

(See 5.16 below, for the use of *may* for permission by authority.)

- 5.13 There are numerous other forms of polite request and suggestion.

Would you mind opening the window?
Will/Would you be so kind/good as to help me with this luggage?
Perhaps you'd like to help me with this luggage.

Note also the use of *suppose/supposing*, *how/what about* to make informal suggestions.

Suppose we try to do it my way.
Suppose you let me have a try.
How/What about trying to do it my way?

These are not much different from the use of *let's* (5.9 above.)

Let's try to do it my way.

Had better combines suggestion and advice. It conveys the idea 'it would be advisable or right to'.

We'd better start early.
You'd better do as the doctor says and stay in bed.

Permission

- 5.14 There are numerous ways in which permission may be asked for and granted. The verbs *permit*, *allow*, *let* and the noun *permission* are obvious examples.

*Will you allow/permit me to use your bicycle?
My doctor won't let me get up yet.
The manager gave his typist permission to leave early.*

Allow and permit (but not let) are used in the passive.

*During the curfew nobody was allowed/permitted to be out of doors after sunset.
Will the children be allowed/permitted to stay up late on New Year's Eve?*

Would/Do you mind are used to ask for permission.

*Would you mind my bringing a friend along too?
Do you mind if I go home early this afternoon?*

- 5.15 A more idiomatic way of expressing the idea of permission is the use of the modal verbs *may* and *might*. *May* is used for asking and giving permission. *May not* is used to deny permission.

*'May I come in?'—'Yes, you may.'
'May I borrow your pen?'—'Yes, you may.'
'May I borrow your toothbrush?'—'No, you may not!
If I may say so, your work needs revision.
He asked if he might leave the office half an hour early that afternoon. The manager replied that he might not.*

- 5.16 *May* is also used, in formal style, in statements that give authoritative permission. *May not* is similarly used in statements (not necessarily in answer to a request).

*You may borrow from the library three works of fiction and two works of non-fiction.
Borrowers may not take out more than three works of fiction.*

For a prohibition (stronger than a denial of permission) *must not* is used.

Reference books must not be removed from the Reading Room.

In colloquial style *can/could* often replace *may/might*.

*Can I go for a swim this afternoon, mother?
Can I go out and play?
Tom asked his father if (= whether) he could go to the cinema.
His father said he could.*

Cannot is used to indicate what is not permitted.

You can't (= must not, are not allowed to) play football in this park on Sundays, though you can do so on weekdays.

- 5.17 *May* is also used to indicate hesitation or apology when asking a question that could be considered impertinent.

And how much did you pay for your new car, if I may/might ask (ie if you will allow me to ask the question)?

With a fall in pitch on the noun or pronoun following *may/might* there is sometimes a suggestion of superiority or condescension on the part of the speaker.

*And who may/might 'you be?
And what may/might 'this little fellow want?
And how old may/might 'you be?*

Probability and Likelihood

- 5.18 These concepts may be expressed by the use of the adjectives *probable* and *likely*, the adverb *probably*, and the nouns *probability*, *likelihood* and *chance*. See also 5.25–32 on *Possibility*.

*It's likely/probable that he'll come.
Is there any probability/likelihood/chance of his coming?
He's likely to come.
He'll probably come.*

- 5.19 *Dare say* (rare except in the 1st person) is used to suggest likelihood. It is often written and printed as one word.

*I dare say he'll come later.
You're tired, I daresay.*

- 5.20 *Must* is used to indicate a strong likelihood or probability.

*Your father must be nearly eighty now.
You must be hungry after your long walk.
We must have taken a wrong turning.
It must be getting on for ten o'clock.
Why isn't he here? He must have missed the train.
Listen to the laughter! They must be enjoying themselves.*

- 5.21 *Ought* and *should* are used in the same way as *must*. They suggest: 'Because of the known facts, conditions, etc, it is likely that . . .'

*If he started at nine he ought to/should be here by four.
They left at nine, so they ought to/should have arrived by now.
The author is a well-known expert, so his book ought to/should be reliable.
That ought to/should please you.
Pegasus is the horse that ought to win the race.*

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.22 The construction *going to* + infinitive is used with a non-animate subject or with impersonal *it* (as in *It's raining*). It indicates what the speaker feels or considers to be probable or likely.

This table is going to collapse one of these days; the legs are very weak.

(Cf *The table will collapse if you stand on it*, where the *if*-clause requires the use of *will*.)

Be careful! The ice is going to crack.

This ice is going to melt when the sun comes out (i.e. will probably melt).

(Cf *The ice will melt if the sun comes out*.)

It's going to rain before evening; you'd better take an umbrella.

(Cf *There will be rain in the London area during the night*—as an official weather forecast.)

The sun's going to come out soon. (The speaker feels that this is likely, perhaps because the clouds already show signs of parting.)

The sun will rise at 6.35 tomorrow morning. (Will, simple future; no element of probability.)

Is this housing shortage going to continue?

This work is going to be more difficult than I (had) expected.

- 5.23 When the construction *going to* + infinitive is used with an animate subject (e.g. *Tom, that girl, she*), it may indicate intention. (See 5.45.)

I'm going to have a cup of tea.

It may also indicate the speaker's feeling of what is likely.

I think I'm going to have flu.

We're going to enjoy our day by the sea; the weather forecast says it will be warm and sunny.

I haven't worked very hard this term. I'm afraid I'm not going to pass my exams.

Tom's going to find himself in trouble one of these days.

- 5.24 *Will* and *would* are also used to indicate probability, likelihood, or conjecture.

This will be the book you're looking for. (This is probably, this is likely to be, the book you're looking for.)

That'll be the postman, I expect.

You'll have heard the news. (You have probably heard the news.)

She won't have heard the news. (It is unlikely that she has heard the news.)

That happened a long time ago—I'd have been (was probably) about twenty at the time.

She would be (is probably) about fifty now, I suppose.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

A: 'I don't understand this article in the newspaper.' B: 'No, you wouldn't.' (i.e. It's unlikely that you would understand it, perhaps because it's too difficult or perhaps because you're too stupid.)

The girl at the Information Desk will know what time the next train for Edinburgh leaves (i.e. is likely to know).

Note that the construction *be going to* is impossible in the examples in this section.

Possibility

- 5.25 There are several ways of indicating possibility. For possibility that depends upon ability or knowledge, see 5.34–35 (the use of *can*, etc.). The adjective *possible*, the noun *possibility*, and the adverbs *possibly* and *perhaps* are obvious ways.

It's possible that he'll come.

There's a possibility of his coming (that he'll come).

Possibly he hasn't heard the news yet.

Perhaps he's been ill.

- 5.26 When doubt or uncertainty is mixed with possibility, *may/might* are often used.

It may rain tomorrow.

He said he thought it might rain.

I may be away from home tomorrow.

He may need to borrow money.

That may, or may not, be true.

It's so quiet (that) one might hear a pin drop.

If I ask him again, he may refuse.

I was afraid that if I asked him again, he might refuse.

In some cases *may/might* indicate what seems possible because it is reasonable to expect or hope for something.

The weather has been excellent, so we may expect a good harvest.

He said he thought we might expect a good harvest.

With such a strong Ministry, we may hope for an improvement in the country's economic affairs.

- 5.27 *Might* is used in reported speech for past time, but is also used to indicate a future possibility if this is looked upon as more remote or uncertain. Compare:

Take an umbrella. It will rain before evening.

You'd better take an umbrella. It may rain before evening. (Rain is possible. The sky is cloudy.)

I think you should take an umbrella. It might rain before evening. (Although the sky is bright now, a change in the weather is always possible in this climate.)

Mr X: 'We might win £500 at the races.'—Mrs X: 'Yes, and pigs might fly.'

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

5.28 Note the use of *may* and *might* with perfect infinitives.

He may have been hurt. (Perhaps he was hurt. The possibility exists. We do not yet know.)

He might have been hurt. (That was a possibility in the past. But he was not hurt.)

He isn't back yet. He may have had an accident. (Perhaps he has had an accident. We do not know yet.)

You oughtn't to have driven that car with the brakes out of order.

You might have had a serious accident. (But luckily you did not.)

He might have come if we'd asked him. (But we didn't ask him.)

You might have asked me to your wedding! (This is a reproach addressed to someone for not sending an invitation.)

5.29 *May* is also used to indicate a possibility that arises naturally, or as the result of arrangement. There is, in this case, little or no element of uncertainty. For this reason *may* is replaceable by *can* or *be possible*. The negative is never *may not* but always *cannot* or *be impossible*. Even in the affirmative *can* is, in colloquial style, as frequent as, perhaps more frequent than, *may*.

You may go (You can go, it is possible to go) *from A to B by changing trains at C, or you may (can) go by way of D, but you cannot go* (it is impossible to go) *there direct.*

Specimen copies of these textbooks may be obtained on application to the publisher.

A plan of the new housing estate may be seen at the offices of the Town Council.

5.30 *May/Might*, and in colloquial style *can/could*, often indicate what is possible.

You may/might/can/could walk for miles through the forest without meeting anyone.

5.31 When possibility and uncertainty are mixed, *may* is used.

The news may, or may not, be true.
May the news be true?

In questions asking about possibility, however, *can* is used.

Can the news be true?
Could the news be true, she wondered.

Similarly *cannot* indicates a belief that something is impossible.

The news can't be true!

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

5.32 When *can* is stressed in a question introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, puzzlement or impatience is suggested.

What can he mean?

What could he mean, she wondered.

Where can he have got to?

Compare the use of *ever*, and the colloquial use of *on earth*, *the devil*, *in the name of goodness* etc.

What ever does he mean?

What on earth does he mean?

Ability and Achievement (and their Opposites)

5.33 The most important verb for denoting ability is the verb *can*. *Can* is a defective verb. It has the past tense form *could*. *Could* is also used with reference to future time (see 5.110, 112) and is not always suitable for use as the past tense of *can*. The phrase *be able + to-infinitive* is used when *can* and *could* are inadequate.

5.34 *Can* is used to denote ability resulting from physical power or capacity, or from knowledge or skill.

Can you lift this box?

He's over eighty but can still read without glasses.

The child is ten years old but can't read yet.

She can make all her own clothes.

Can you speak Swedish?

5.35 *Can* is also used to denote ability resulting from circumstances. Used for this purpose, it may be paraphrased 'be in a position to'.

Can you come to the meeting tomorrow? (Are you free to do so?)

Are you in a position to do so?

Can you lend me three pounds?

For other uses of *can* to denote possibility, see 5.29-31. For the use of *can* to indicate permission, see 5.16.

5.36 For the use of *can/could* with verbs of perception, see 2.62.

I can hear a dog barking somewhere. (*I am hearing a dog barking somewhere.)

He could smell something burning. (*He was smelling something burning.)

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.37 *Could* points to past time only when the context or situation shows that the reference is to past time. Thus, when there is another verb in the sentence, and this verb indicates that the time is past, *could* is possible.

*The box was so heavy that I couldn't lift it.
I tried to lift the box but couldn't.
She could read Latin when she was twelve!
He could speak German well when he was young, but he has forgotten most of it now.
He said he couldn't come to the meeting.
He said he was sorry he couldn't lend me the money.*

- 5.38 As *can* has no infinitive, *be able to* is used with *used to*, *seem*, and *appear*.

*He used to be able to speak German well.
He seems (to be) quite unable to give up his bad habits.
He seemed (to be) unable to give up his bad habits.*

The last two sentences may be recomposed (colloquial style) with *can't/couldn't* and the infinitive *seem*.

*He can't seem to give up his bad habits.
He couldn't seem to give up his bad habits.*

- 5.39 When there is no indication of time, *could* is ambiguous because it may be taken as conditional, with reference to present or future time. Thus, *I could help you* is a conditional sentence referring to present or future time. In the sentence *I told him I could help him*, although the main verb is past, the reference may be to help in present or future time. Alternative constructions for past, present, and future time are illustrated below.

*I was/am/shall be able to help you.
I was not/am not/shall not be able to help you.
I was/am/shall be powerless to help you.*

When *could* is used with a perfect infinitive, it indicates a past possibility that was not fulfilled or achieved. See 5.110 (iii).

*He could easily have done it.
You could have caught the train if you had hurried.*

- 5.40 To indicate the attainment or achievement of something in the past, or failure to do so, the use of the Simple Past Tense is usually satisfactory.

*Tom passed the examination.
Harry swam across the river.
Anne didn't catch her train.*

Could would be unsatisfactory in these three sentences with reference to past time.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.41 The verbs *manage* and *succeed* are used to indicate achievement. The use of *manage* suggests difficulty, need for effort. Note the patterns.

*Tom succeeded in passing (VP3) the examination.
Harry managed to swim (VPT) across the river.
Anne didn't manage to catch the train.
Did you manage to get to the top of the mountain?
How did you manage to get here in time?
I managed to get/succeeded in getting all my clothes into the suitcase.*

- 5.42 The examples below illustrate (a) achievements, facts, and (b) conditions. Note that in (a) *could* is not used.

- (a) *As he was not interrupted, he finished/was able to finish/managed to finish/succeeded in finishing by evening.
If he is not interrupted, he can/will be able to finish by evening.*
(b) *If people did not interrupt, he could/would be able to finish by evening.
If he had not been interrupted, he could have finished/would have been able to finish by evening.*

A common colloquial alternative is the construction with *get*. (See 1.121.)

- (a) *He got it done . . .*
(b) *He will get it done . . . could get it done . . . could have got it done . . .*

- 5.43 When the context does not show that past time is referred to, *could* refers to present or future time.

I could never get all these clothes into that suitcase. (Compare the similar use of *would* for a condition: *I don't think these clothes would go into that suitcase.*)

A: *'Is there anything I can do to help?' B: 'No, thank you there's nothing you could do.'*

Intention

- 5.44 *Intention* can be expressed by the use of the verbs *intend*, *plan*, *mean* and the nouns *intention*, *plan*, etc.

*I intend/plan/mean to visit India some day.
It's my intention/plan to visit India some day.
Where do you plan/intend to spend your summer holidays?
I don't intend to do it/have no intention of doing it.
He means/intends to make us respect him.
Do you think they intended/meant/planned to start another war?*

Note that in *that* clauses after *intend/intention* the finites *shall/should* are used.

We intend/Our intention is that this Bill shall become law by the end of the year.

We intended/Our intention was that the Bill should become law by the end of the year.

- 5.45 The construction *going to* + infinitive is very commonly used to indicate intention. (For other uses of this construction see 5.22-23.)

He's going to visit India.

We're not going to have this tree cut down.

This tree is not going to be cut down. (ie We don't intend to cut this tree down or We don't intend to allow anyone to cut this tree down.)

We're going to grow more vegetables this year.

Are you going to take the examination?

Note that the use of *was/were* indicates a past intention or plan that was *not* carried out.

I was going to call on you yesterday evening, but it rained (so I did *not* call on you).

Note that when *going to* is used, the idea of intention is more prominent than the idea of futurity. Note also that when there are external circumstances that may influence a person's plans, constructions with *will/shall* are preferable. Compare:

Tom's father is going to buy him a bicycle.

This is a simple statement of intention.

If Tom passes the examination, his father is going to buy him a bicycle.

Here, too, there is an intention, though the fulfilment of the intention depends upon Tom's passing the examination. But Tom's father has the intention.

If Tom asks his father to buy him a bicycle, his father will probably do so.

In this sentence *going to* is not acceptable. Tom's father is unlikely to have the intention of buying the bicycle because he has not yet been asked to do so.

In some cases, however, the idea of intention is not very obvious and the construction *going to* is used in a sense not much different from that with *will/shall*.

Now, children, I'm going to tell you a story.

This means little more than 'I am about to tell you a story'.

Plans and Arrangements

- 5.46 Plans (closely linked to intentions, as in 5.44-45) and arrangements may be stated or asked about by the use of the verbs *plan* and *arrange* and the nouns *plan* and *arrangement*.

I've planned/arranged to go to Glasgow next week.

She has made plans/arrangements to spend her holiday in Wales.

We've made plans/arranged to get married in May.

- 5.47 A simpler way of indicating or asking about something arranged, planned, or decided upon is the use of the Present or Past Progressive tenses.

I'm going to Glasgow next week.

She's spending her holiday in Wales.

We're getting married in May.

The Past Progressive is used in reported speech.

She said she was going to the theatre that evening.

He told me he was going to Glasgow.

- 5.48 The Future Progressive is also used to show that an event will occur as part of a plan or programme. In many cases there is little or no difference between the Present Progressive and the Future Progressive.

I'm seeing Bob this afternoon.

I'll be seeing Bob this afternoon.

In some cases the use of the Future Progressive shows not only that the future event or activity is part of a programme but also that, for this reason, something else is possible or likely. In the examples below there are, in parentheses, suggestions of the kind of possibility or likelihood that might be present.

Will/Shall you be getting home late this evening? (If so, it may be necessary to keep supper back.)

I'll be seeing Bob this evening. (Is there anything you'd like me to tell him?)

We'll be having supper in about twenty minutes (so don't go out).

He'll be coming to see us again soon (so we needn't trouble to send him the book he left here).

The use of the Present Progressive shows that an event has been decided upon. The use of the Future Progressive may look beyond the event to something made possible or likely by the event.

The interrogative form of the Future Progressive is often no more than a polite form used to ask about future intentions. Compare:

Are you staying in London long? (This is a simple inquiry about plans.)

Are you going to stay in London long? (This puts more emphasis on intentions.)

Will/Shall you be going to the party? (This asks, in a more polite way, about plans.)

- 5.49 Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the Simple Present Tense. There is usually an adverbial to show future time.

*I leave for Berlin on Saturday.
The plane takes off at six tomorrow morning.
Is it this evening that we have dinner with Fred and Sue?
When do the school holidays begin?
When does your father get back from his visit to Rome?*

- 5.50 Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the finites of *be* + *to*-infinitive.

*We are to be married in May.
Jim and Mary are to meet us at the station.
The new building is to be ten storeys high.*

The use of a perfect infinitive indicates an arrangement that was made but not carried out.

We were to have been married in May but had to postpone the wedding until June.

This pattern is also used to indicate obligation, an arrangement that is the result of a command or request made by a third person. See 1.68, Table 35. It should be used to indicate a voluntary arrangement only when there is no ambiguity.

*He's leaving at eight o'clock this evening.
He's to leave at eight o'clock this evening.*

The second sentence suggests an arrangement made as the result of orders.

Obligation and Necessity

- 5.51 There are many ways of expressing the ideas of obligation and necessity. The verbs *oblige* and *compel*, the nouns *obligation*, *compulsion*, *need*, and *necessity*, and the adjectives *obligatory*, *compulsory*, *needless*, and (*un*)*necessary* are obvious ways of expressing these ideas.

*In most countries the law obliges parents to send their children to school.
Is attendance at school obligatory?
If, through carelessness, someone damages your bicycle he is under a legal obligation to pay the cost of repairs.
He was compelled by illness to give up his studies.
A defeated enemy usually signs a treaty under compulsion.
Military service is compulsory in many countries.
There is no necessity/It is not necessary for you to do that.
Is there any need for haste?*

The ideas of obligation and necessity are expressed more idiomatically by the use of the verbs *must*, *ought to*, *should*, *have to*, and *be to*. Absence of necessity is expressed by *don't have to*, *haven't got to* and *needn't*.

- 5.52 *Must* is a defective verb. It can be used to express an immediate or future obligation. In reported speech *must* is used for past time. Except in reported speech a past obligation is not normally expressed by *must*. (See *have to* 5.54)

*You must do as you are told.
He said they must do as they were told.
Soldiers must obey orders without question.
As he had broken my watch he agreed that he must pay the cost of the repairs.
On the other side of the wood there was a field that he must (= had to) cross.
Candidates must (= are required to) answer at least five out of the ten questions.*

For *must not*, see 5.6.

- 5.53 Absence of obligation or necessity may be expressed by *needn't*, *need hardly/scarcely* and by constructions with the noun *need* or the adjective *needless*.

*'Must you go so soon?'—'No, I needn't go yet.'
He didn't need to be reminded about it. (It wasn't necessary to remind him about it.)
I need hardly tell you . . . (It is hardly necessary for me to tell you . . .)
You needn't have hurried. (There was no need, no necessity, for you to hurry—although, in fact, you did hurry.)
I didn't need to hurry. (It was not necessary for me to hurry—and in fact, I did not hurry.)
Need we tell him about it? (Is there any need for us to tell him? Are we obliged to tell him? Is it necessary for us to tell him?)
There's no need for you to hurry.
Needless to say, we shall refund any expenses you may incur.*

For the difference between anomalous *need* and non-anomalous *need*, see 1.28.

- 5.54 *Have to* is regularly used to express obligation and necessity. In the present tense, affirmative and interrogative, it means the same as *must*. For absence of obligation *do not have to* is used but *need not* is more usual. The construction with *have to* is very common for past and future time (because *must* is defective). In colloquial style *have got to* is used for *have to*. *Had got to* is occasionally used for *had to*. For the use of auxiliary *do*, interrogative and negative, see 1.23.

*At what time have you (got) to be there? (At what time must you be there? At what time is it necessary for you to be there?)
She had to be in the office by nine o'clock. (She was required to be there, it was necessary for her to be there, by nine o'clock.)*

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

We shall have to hurry. (It will be necessary for us to hurry.)
We had to hurry. (It was necessary for us, we were obliged or compelled, to hurry.)
We've got to be there (We must be there) *by ten o'clock.*
Have we (got) to (Must we) *answer all the questions?*
These shoes will have to be repaired. (It will be necessary to have them repaired.)

- 5.55 Absence of obligation is expressed by *don't have to* or *haven't got to*. See 1.23 and 1.78.

He's so rich that he doesn't have to work (is not obliged to work, need not work).
You don't have to go to school seven days a week, do you?
Tomorrow's a holiday, so I shan't have to get up early.
We haven't got to (are not required to) *answer all the questions in the examination paper, have we?*

- 5.56 The finites of *be* with a *to*-infinitive are also used to indicate an obligation.

We are to be there at nine o'clock.

For this construction see Commands and Requests (5.7).

- 5.57 *Ought* is used to express desirability, moral obligation and duties. *Ought* is a defective verb. It can indicate present or future time. It is used of past time in reported speech.

You ought to start at once (if you want to catch your train).
You ought to leave early tomorrow morning.
He ought to be ashamed of his ignorance.
Ought I to go?—Yes, I think you ought (to).
I told him he ought to do it, so he did (it).

- 5.58 *Should* is used in a similar way. *Should* is often used when giving or asking for advice. It is not so strong as *ought* and often indicates a recommendation rather than an obligation.

You shouldn't laugh at his mistakes.
How much should I contribute towards the relief fund?
Do you think he should apologize (that he ought to apologize)?
You shouldn't give the baby scissors to play with.

- 5.59 *Ought to have* and *should have* with a past participle are used to indicate a past obligation that was not fulfilled or carried out.

You ought to have helped him (but you did not).
He ought to have been more careful. (He was not careful enough.)
You should have used the money for paying your debts instead of for a new motor-cycle.
I think you should have told her you were sorry.
You should have put part of your salary in the bank each month.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

Ought not to have and *should not have* are used to indicate disapproval of something that was done in the past.

You oughtn't to/shouldn't have laughed at his mistakes.
She oughtn't to/shouldn't have given the baby scissors to play with.

- 5.60 The *to*-infinitive after a conjunctive may indicate or ask about desirability, obligation or duty. See 1.79 (VP8, Table 44) and 1.113 (VP20, Table 71). Sentences in VP8 and VP20 are convertible into sentences in VP10 and VP21, in which the modal auxiliaries *must*, *should*, *ought* (or *have to*, *be to*) are used.

We must find out what to do next. (VP8)
We must find out what we ought to/have to do next. (VP10)
Do you know how to do it? (VP8)
Do you know how you ought to/should/are to do it? (VP10)
Tell me how to do it. (VP8)
Tell me how I ought to/should/must do it. (VP21)
Ask your mother where to put it. (VP8)
Ask your mother where you are to/should/must put it. (VP21)

Determination and Resolve; Willingness

- 5.61 The ideas of determination and resolve can be expressed by the use of the verbs *determine*, *decide*, and *resolve*, the corresponding nouns *determination*, *decision*, and *resolve*, and the phrase *make up one's mind*. The verbs are used in VP7 and 9.

I determined/resolved/made up my mind to learn German.
He determined/resolved/made up his mind that nothing should prevent him from going.
His determination/resolve to give his children/that his children shall have a good education is most praiseworthy.

- 5.62 The idea of willingness can be expressed by *willing(ly)*.

He's quite willing to come.
Were they willing to help?
Did they do it willingly?

Note also the phrase *against one's will*.

She was married against her will.

- 5.63 The ideas of determination and willingness are more often indicated by the use of the verbs *will/would* and *shall/should*. (For their use to indicate pure future, see 2.36.)

Will is used in the first person to indicate willingness. When stressed it indicates determination.

I will/I'll lend you the book if you need it.
I 'will be obeyed (= I am determined to be obeyed, I insist on being obeyed).
I 'will (am determined to) *do as I 'like.*

In the negative, *won't* or the negative adverb *never* is stressed to indicate determination.

I will 'never (am determined never to) *'speak to that man a'gain.*

I 'won't (am determined not to) *have any 'backchat from you!*

The interrogative *will I/we* (for willingness) is used only as an echo or repetition of a question put to the speaker.

A: *'Will you lend me your 'pen?—B: 'Will I lend you my ,pen? Of 'course I will.'*

- 5.64 In the second and third persons *will* and *would* in the affirmative and negative may indicate obstinate determination, the *will* or *would* always being stressed.

If you 'will eat so much ,pastry, | you 'can't complain if you get 'fat.

He 'will (obstinately continues to) *go out without an ,overcoat | though it's 'freezing out there.*

You 'would ,go (insisted on going), *| in 'spite of my warning that it was unwise.*

- 5.65 *Will* and *would*, used in the second and third persons, interrogative, ask about willingness.

A: *'Will you sing at the concert tomorrow?—B: 'Yes, I will.'*

(Cf *are you singing* and *are you going to sing* for plans and intentions. See 5.45.)

A: *'Do you think Miss X will/would sing at the concert tomorrow evening?—B: 'Yes, I think she will/would.'*

- 5.66 When *shall* and *shan't* are used in the second and third persons, they may indicate the speaker's determination concerning the person(s) spoken about. The *shall* or *shan't* is always stressed.

You 'shall marry him! (I insist on your marrying him.)

They 'shall do what I tell them to do. (I am determined to make them do it.)

(Cf the use of *you shall* and *you shan't* to indicate a promise or a threat. See 5.88.)

Shall and *should* occur in dependent clauses after verbs and phrases indicating determination or willingness. They are used in all persons.

The officer gave orders that they should be well looked after.

He is determined that you shall obey him.

Is your father willing that you should go abroad?

The *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive construction is often preferable.

He gave orders for them to be well looked after.

Is your father willing for you to go abroad?

Promises; Threats; Refusals

- 5.67 Promises and threats can be expressed by the use of the verbs *promise* and *threaten*, and the nouns *promise* and *threat*. They can also be expressed by the use of the verbs *shall* and *will*.

Promise is used with a *to*-infinitive (VP7), with two objects (VP10 and 13), and with *that*-clauses (VP9 and 11). The indirect object is often dropped.

He promised (me) to come early.

Please promise not to tell anyone.

Didn't you promise the book to your brother?

Mr Green has promised his son a new bicycle if he passes the examination.

The foreman has promised that the work shall|will be done before Saturday.

They promised that the work should|would be done before Saturday.

Note, in the last two examples, the use of *shall* and *should* in the *that*-clause.

The noun *promise* is also used with a *to*-infinitive or a *that*-clause.

He broke his promise to help me.

I hope they will keep their promise that the work shall|will be done by the end of next week.

They didn't keep their promise that the work should|would be finished before the end of the week.

The verb *threaten* is used with a *to*-infinitive and in the pattern *threaten somebody with something*.

They threatened to punish him.

They threatened him with death if he did not tell them what he knew.

- 5.68 In the first person *will* is used to express a promise or threat.

I'll be there to help.

I'll punish you if you don't behave yourself.

In the second and third persons *shall* and *should* are used to express promises and threats.

You shall have the money back next week.

Ask and it shall be given you. (Bible, AV)

A: *'I want this luggage taken to my room.'—B: 'It shall be taken up at once, sir.'*

If he passes the examination he shall have a new bicycle.

Tom was told that if he behaved badly he should go to bed without any supper.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.69 Refusals can be indicated by the use of the verb *refuse*. This verb can be used with a direct object (VP6A), with a *to*-infinitive (VP7), or with two objects (VP12).

They refused our offer. (VP6A)
The invitation was refused. (VP6A)
He refused to help me. (VP7)
I asked him to come but he refused. (VP7)
He refuses her nothing (i.e. he gives her everything she asks for). (VP12)

- 5.70 A more colloquial way of indicating refusal is the use of *will not* (*won't*) and *would not* (*wouldn't*).

I won't (I refuse to) *do it.*
They won't (They refuse to) *accept your offer.*
Why won't she (Why does she refuse to) *agree?*
He wouldn't (He refused to) *answer any questions.*
The engine wouldn't start.
The wound wouldn't heal.

Wishes; Hopes; Preferences

- 5.71 In some languages there is an optative mood, i.e. a set of verbal forms to indicate wishes. There is no optative mood in English. In a few cases, chiefly fixed phrases or minor patterns, wishes are expressed by the use of the subjunctive.

God save the Queen!
Long live the Queen!
God bless you!
Conventlon be damned!

The subjunctive equivalent with *may* is commoner.

May God bless you!
May you have a long and happy life!
Long may you live to enjoy it!
Much good may it do you!

- 5.72 *May* and *might* are used in *that*-clauses after such verbs as *hope* and *trust*. In less formal style *may* and *might* are not much used.

I trust that this arrangement may (less formal: *will*) *meet with your approval.*
He trusted that the arrangement might (less formal: *would*) *meet with our approval.*
I hope he may succeed. (less formal: *succeeds* or *will succeed*)
I hoped he might succeed. (less formal: *would succeed*)

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

In ordinary colloquial style the imperative is often used to express a wish.

Well, have a good time!
Enjoy yourselves!

(The use of *may*, as in: *May you have a good time! May you enjoy yourselves* is less usual.)

- 5.73 The verb *wish* (or exclamatory *if only*) can be used with a *that*-clause (VP9). The conjunction *that* is almost always omitted. *That* is always omitted after *if only*. If the wish refers to present or future time, the Past Tense is used in the clause. For a wish that was not or could not be realized in the past, the Past Perfect Tense is used in the clause.

I wish I knew how to do it. (I'm sorry I don't know.)
I wish I had known how to do it. (I didn't know.)
I wish I hadn't gone. (I'm sorry I did go.)
I wish I didn't have to go. (I'm sorry I have to go.)
I wish I could help you.
He wishes his wife wouldn't spend so much time gossiping with the neighbours.
I wish I were rich.
If only the rain would stop! I wish the rain would stop!
If only I knew! If only I had known!

For the use of *wish* with *would* in the *that*-clause, see 5.8.

- 5.74 *Wish* is used with an Indirect Object and a Direct Object. See 1.85 (VP12A, Table 48).

He wished me a pleasant journey.
They wished her success in her new career.
He wished me good night.
I wish you all a merry Christmas and a happy New Year.

- 5.75 *Wish* is also used with a *to*-infinitive. See 1.77 (VP7A, Table 42) and 1.104 (VP17B, Table 63). In these patterns *want* is commoner.

Where do you wish/want me to go?
What do they wish/want me to do?

Note the use of *want* or *wish* in *if*-clauses (*will* being impossible in such clauses) to indicate a desire.

If you want to smoke, you must go into a smoking compartment.

(The use of *will* in an *if*-clause is a request, or indicates willingness or insistence: *If you will help me, we can soon finish the work.* See 5.112-3.)

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.76 *Wish* is also used with the preposition *for*. See 1.58 (VP3A, Table 26). The phrase *wish for* means 'feel or express a desire for', usually a desire for something that is considered unattainable or unlikely to be attained. If, therefore, you go into a shop, you would not say, 'I wish for a fountain pen'. You would say 'I want a fountain pen'. *Wish for* is used more often in situations where the object of the wish or desire is something that can come, or is likely to come, only through chance or unexpectedly.

'What do you wish for?' said the genie to Aladdin.
The weather was all that one could wish for/all that could be wished for.
She had everything that a woman could wish for.

- 5.77 *Shall I/we* is often used to introduce a question about a person's wishes. It may be an offer of service. Alternatives, used in those parts of the English-speaking world where *shall* is going out of use, are 'Do you want me/us to' and 'Would you like me/us to'.

Shall I thread the needle for you?
Shall I open the window?
Shall we carry the box into the house for you?

Shall with a noun or a third person pronoun asks about the wishes of the person to whom the question is put.

Shall he carry your suitcases upstairs? (Do you want, would you like, him to do this?)
Shall the messenger wait?
The hotel manager asked me whether the taxi should wait (whether I wanted the taxi to wait).

- 5.78 Instead of *shall I/we/he*, etc the construction *be + to*-infinitive may be used. This, however, asks for orders rather than about wishes. See 1.68 (VP4F, Table 35) and 5.7.

Is the messenger to wait?
The manager asked me whether the taxi was to wait.
What am I to do next?

- 5.79 *I should/would like*, often contracted to *I'd like*, is used to express a wish.

I'd like to be there. (I wish I were there.)
I'd like to have been there or I'd have liked to be there. (I wish I had been there.)

Would you like asks about a person's wishes.

At what time would you like breakfast?
Would you like me to order a taxi?

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

- 5.80 The verb *hope* is used with a *that*-clause (VP9), with a *to*-infinitive (VP7), and with *for* (VP3). *That* is usually omitted.

I hope (that) he has arrived safely.
I'm hoping to hear that he has arrived safely.
I'm hoping for news of his safe arrival.

Note the possible use of the Present Tense instead of the Future Tense in the clause.

I hope he will arrive/he arrives safely.
The time will come, I hope, when you have/you'll have more leisure.
We hope to see you in May.
We shall hope to see you in May.

The use of the Future Tense in the last example does not indicate much difference in meaning. The example might be recomposed:

We hope (that) we shall see you in May.

The use of the Past Perfect Tense indicates a past hope that was not realized.

We had hoped that she would soon be well again.

- 5.81 Preference can be indicated by the use of the verb *prefer* and the noun *preference*. *Prefer* is used in several patterns.

I prefer my meat well done. (VP22)
Would you prefer to start early? (VP7)
I should prefer you to start early. (VP17)
He preferred that nothing should be said about his generous gifts. (VP9)
I prefer walking to cycling. (VP14)

Note the use of *rather than* in the next example. *Rather* is obligatory after *prefer*.

I should prefer to start early rather than have to travel in crowded trains.

The phrase *would rather* is also used to indicate preference. It is used with a bare infinitive.

I would rather stay at home (than go for a walk).

When used with a *that*-clause, the Past Tense is used in the clause. The *that* is usually omitted.

I would rather (that) you stayed at home.
He would rather (that) people didn't know about his generous gifts.

Purpose and Result

- 5.82 There are several constructions to express purpose. As purpose is so closely connected with result, both purpose and result are treated in the following sections. See also the article on intention (5.44-45).

In answer to a question asking 'Why?', a *to*-infinitive is often used. *In order to* is rather more formal and more emphatic than *to* alone. When the idea of result is also present the infinitive is often preceded by *so as to*.

I've come here to have a talk with you.
Did you do that to annoy me?
He has gone to England (in order) to perfect his English.
I shall go on working late today so as to be free tomorrow.
 (purpose and result)
He stood up so as to see better.
The car is waiting to take you to the station.
Children go to school to learn things.
He works hard in order/so as to give his family a holiday by the sea every year.

- 5.83 The *to*-infinitive may modify a noun or a noun substitute such as *something, anything, somebody*. (See 3.50)

She bought a brown coat and skirt and a pair of brown shoes to match (i.e. shoes that were brown so that they would match the coat and skirt).
Take this book to read during the journey (i.e. in order to have a book that you may read).
Give me something to eat.
She wanted someone to take care of.

When the infinitive phrase modifies the whole sentence, it often has front position.

In order to appreciate poetry, you should read it aloud.
To get the best results, follow the directions carefully.

- 5.84 Instead of an infinitive phrase it is possible to have a dependent clause.

Children go to school to learn things.
Children go to school in order that they may learn things.

In the second sentence the pronoun *they* (subject of the dependent clause) stands for *children* (subject of the main clause). In such cases the infinitive construction is usually preferred.

Clauses of purpose are introduced by *in order that, so that*, and (more formal and literary) *that* alone. *So that* (like *so as to*) often combines the ideas of purpose and result. Several modal verbs are used in such clauses.

May, might, should are often used. In colloquial style *can* and *could* are also used.

I stepped aside so that she might/could go in.
Let the dog loose so that it can/may have a run.
We shall grow a hedge round the garden so that the neighbours may not/can't overlook us.
We put up a fence so that the neighbours might/should not overlook us.
Tie him up so that he can't escape.
Thirty copies of the book were bought so that each boy in the class should have one.
We hid it carefully so that no one should see it.
I did that in order that everyone should be satisfied.

When, in more formal or literary style, *that* is used alone, *may* and *might* are preferred to *can* and *could*.

They died that we might live. (They fought and died so that we might live in safety.)

- 5.85 *In order that . . . not* and *so that . . . not*, when used to indicate a fear or possibility, are sometimes replaced by *for fear (that)*, *in case*, or (rare except in literary style) *lest*.

We dared not move for fear the enemy might/should see us.
We hid behind some bushes for fear that/in case passers-by should see us.

- 5.86 Purpose is also expressed by the use of *for* and a noun or gerund. Note the question form 'What . . . for?'

What do you use that tool for?
We use a hammer for knocking in nails.
This tool is used for tightening bolts.

Purpose is also indicated by the construction *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive.

I stood aside for her to enter (so that she might enter).
He brought some papers for me to sign (in order that I should sign them).
The announcement was put up on the notice-board for everyone to see (so that everyone might/should/could see it).

- 5.87 The patterns *so* + adjective/adverb + *as* + *to*-infinitive; *too* + adjective/adverb (+ *for* + noun/pronoun) + *to*-infinitive; and adjective/adverb + *enough* + *to*-infinitive are used to indicate consequence or result.

You're not so foolish as/not foolish enough to believe all you read in the newspapers, I hope.

Do you know him well enough to be able to borrow money from him?

We were so fortunate as/were fortunate enough to be in Paris on Bastille Day.

I hope he won't be so weak as to yield.

She's too young to understand.

He ran too quickly for me to catch him.

- 5.88 Instead of the infinitive constructions illustrated in the last section clauses of result may be used. They are used when the subject of the clause of result is different from that of the main clause. The clause of result may be introduced by *that*, following *so* or *such* + an adjective, adverb, or noun. An adjective or adverb is preceded by *so*, a noun by *such*.

He was so quick that I couldn't catch him.

He ran so quickly that I couldn't catch him.

He was such a good runner that I couldn't catch him.

The construction may also be: main clause + *so* + *that*-clause. In this case, *that* is sometimes omitted.

He worries about his financial position all day, so (that) he can't sleep at night. (Cf He worries so much about his financial position that he can't sleep at night.)

The burglar wore gloves, so (that) there were no finger-prints to be found.

The clause sometimes has front position in colloquial style.

It was so hot (that) I couldn't sleep.

I couldn't sleep, it was so hot.

Cause; Reason; Result

- 5.89 A statement about cause or reason may be made in an independent sentence.

I'm not going out tonight, I'm tired.

She knew she had said something foolish. They all laughed.

It is more usual to place the cause or reason in a subordinate clause. Adverbial clauses of cause may be introduced by the conjunctions *because*, *as*, *since*, *considering that*, *seeing that*, *now that*, and (in literary or formal style) *in that*, *inasmuch as*.

When *because* is used, the emphasis is on the reason and the subordinate clause usually comes last.

He succeeded because he worked hard.

When a subordinate clause is placed early in the sentence for prominence after *it is*, *it was*, etc, *because* is always used (never *as* or *since*).

It is because he has behaved so badly that he must be punished.

Cf *As he has behaved badly, he must be punished.*

When the conjunction is *as*, *since*, *seeing that*, etc, the subordinate clause usually comes first. There is less emphasis on the cause and more emphasis on the result (stated in the main clause). *Since* calls more attention to the cause than *as*.

As he is working hard, he is likely to succeed.

Since I haven't much money, I can't buy it.

Since you insist, I will reconsider the matter.

As I've never met the man, I can't tell you what he looks like.

Seeing that it's raining, you had better stay indoors.

Now that we're here, we may as well see the sights.

The co-ordinating conjunction *for* is also used (in written English but rarely in spoken English) to join a statement of result to a statement of cause.

He stood his ground firmly, for he was a brave man.

- 5.90 The conjunction *that* may also introduce adverbial clauses of cause. Such clauses usually follow a main clause that is either a negative exclamation or a rhetorical question. The clause gives the reason for what is expressed in the exclamation or question.

I'm not a cow that you should expect me to eat grass!

Am I a cow that you should offer me grass?

The conjunction *that* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause after adjectives (and past participles) that express emotion. See 3.79 (AP3). The *that* is usually dropped in colloquial style.

I'm glad (that) I came.

He's sorry (that) he can't come.

Aren't you thankful (that) your life has been spared?

We're delighted (that) you can come.

They're disappointed (that) you couldn't pay them a visit.

The use of an adverbial *that*-clause after a finite of an intransitive verb expressing an emotion is literary, not colloquial.

I rejoice that they have become friends again.

(Cf, spoken English, *I'm glad they've become friends again.*)

- 5.91 Adverbial clauses of cause may sometimes be replaced, usually in written English, seldom in spoken English, by a participial construction.

As he was poor, he could not afford to buy books.

Being poor, he could not afford to buy books.

Various Concepts and Ways they are Expressed

Mr Green was unable to come because he had been asked to lecture in Leeds.

Mr Green, having been asked to lecture in Leeds, was unable to come. (or) Having been asked to lecture in Leeds, Mr Green was unable to come.

*As the rain had ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one.
The rain having ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one.*

*As there was nothing to do, we went home.
There being nothing to do, we went home.*

When the participle is *being*, it is sometimes dropped.

*As this book is written in simple English, it is suitable for beginners.
This book, (being) written in simple English, is suitable for beginners.*

*As she was tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early.
Tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early.*

Adverbial clauses of cause may in some cases be replaced by a preposition or prepositional phrase and a gerund.

*The boy was scolded because he was late.
The child was scolded for being late.*

*The criminal dared not go out because he was afraid of being recognized by the police.
The criminal dared not go out for fear of being recognized by the police.*

5.92 An infinitive construction may also indicate cause.

*What a fool I was to have expected him to help me! (I was foolish because I expected him to help me.)
We were glad to have you with us. (We were glad because we had you with us. See 3.72 (AP1B).)*

When the infinitive has a subject different from that of the main clause, the infinitive is introduced by *for* + subject.

The neighbours must have annoyed you very much for you to speak in that way about them. (As you speak in that way about the neighbours, they must have annoyed you very much.)

5.93 Cause and reason may, of course, be indicated by the use of the two nouns *cause* and *reason*.

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The cause of the accident is still not known.

Reason is used with the preposition *for*. (But note the phrase *by reason of*.)

*The reason for his absence was illness.
He was absent because he was ill.
He was absent by reason of/because of his illness.*

Reason is used with the relative adverb *why*, often omitted.

The reason (why) he was absent was that he was ill.

There is a strong link between *why* and *because*, and this explains the frequent use of *because* in place of *that*.

The reason for my behaving in this way/Why I behaved in this way is that/because I wanted to save money.

Comparisons and Contrasts

5.94 When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc, that are in some respects equal, we may use the Comparison of Equality. This is formed by the use of the adverb *as* before, and the conjunction *as* after, the adjective or adverb.

*Your house is as large as mine.
Does John work as hard as Henry?*

When the comparison is negative, the adverb *as* is often replaced by *so*. *As*, however, is often used, especially when it comes immediately after a verb to which a contracted *not* (*n't*) is joined (as in *isn't*, *wasn't*). If an adverb such as *quite* occurs between *not* and the adjective or adverb, *so* is more frequent.

*Your house is not quite so large as mine.
Your house isn't as/so large as mine.
John doesn't work as/so hard as Henry.
This box isn't as large/is not quite so large as that.*

5.95 When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc, that are in some respects unequal, we may use the comparative degree of the adjective or adverb with *than*. (Exceptions are adjectives taken from Latin: *inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior*, *prior*. These take *to*.)

*Your house is larger than mine.
My house is smaller than yours.
John works harder than Harry.
His new book is more interesting than his earlier books.*

The Comparison of Inferiority, formed by the use of *less* . . . *than* is also used.

*The new edition is less expensive than the old edition.
His new novel is less interesting than his earlier ones.*

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Often, however, it is preferable to use the Negative Comparison of Equality, thus:

*The new edition is not so expensive as the old edition.
His new novel is not so interesting as his earlier ones.*

This is particularly the case with short adjectives and adverbs.

Tom's not so tall as his brother. This is preferable to:
Tom's less tall than his brother.
Mr Green's not so old as he looks. This is preferable to:
Mr Green's less old than he looks.

- 5.96 The finite verb in a subordinate clause of comparison is often dropped. Thus, in the examples below, the finites in parentheses may be dropped.

*Your house is as large as mine (is).
John doesn't work so hard as Henry (does).*

Note the possible omissions in the examples below:

*I like him more than she (does).
I like him more than (I like) her.*

In the first sentence of this pair, the pronouns *I* and *she* are contrasted. In the second, the pronouns *him* and *her* are contrasted. Compare these sentences:

*Jane likes me more than she likes Harry.
Jane likes me more than Anne does (or than Anne likes me).*

In the first of this pair, *me* and *Harry* are contrasted. In the second, *Jane* and *Anne* are contrasted. In speech the words to be contrasted are given prominence by means of tone or stress or a combination of tone and stress. In writing there may be ambiguity:

Tom likes me better than Harry.

This should be (in writing) either

Tom likes me better than he likes Harry.
or *Tom likes me better than Harry does.*

In colloquial style speakers do not always trouble to choose the correct pronoun when there is no risk of ambiguity.

Is she as tall as me?

Grammatically, *as I (am)* is required. Here the fault is not serious. Cf the use of '*It's me,*' '*That's him/her,*' correct enough in colloquial style.

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- 5.97 In some adverbial clauses of comparison both subject and verb may be dropped.

*My uncle is better today than (he was) when I wrote to you last week.
He is more shy than (he is) unsocial.
Some people think much more about their rights than (they do) about their duties.*

Note, in the next example, the shifting of the subject to the end of the clause, for emphasis.

Nobody did more for education in this country than (did) the late Mr Green.

- 5.98 Note the use of *should* in clauses of comparison introduced by *than* *that*.

*There is nothing I want more than that you should be happy and contented.
I am ready to do the work myself rather than that you should have to do it.
It is more important that the explanation should be clear than that it should cover every possible exception.*

- 5.99 Comparison and contrast are also expressed by the use of *the . . . the . . .* with comparatives. This construction indicates a parallel increase or decrease.

*The more learned a man is, the more modest he usually is.
The longer we stayed there, the more we liked the place.
The longer he stayed there, the less he liked the people.
The sooner you start, the sooner you'll finish.
The more he read, the less he understood.*

- 5.100 An infinitive phrase may take the place of a clause.

*They say that nothing pays better than to be honest (that nothing pays so well as/better than honesty does).
He knew better than to mention the subject to her.*

Concession

- 5.101 A simple way of expressing concession is by the use of the conjunctions *although* and *though*.

*Although they're brothers, they never write to each other.
Although he has a car, he often uses buses and trains.
Though he's so rich, he has made his money honestly.
Though the restaurant was crowded, we managed to find a table.*

Though may have its place at the end of the sentence which would be the main clause if the sentence were complex. It means about the same as 'nevertheless' or 'all the same'.

*He's very rich. He's made his money quite honestly, though.
He didn't tell me where he had been, but I knew it, though.
(Although he didn't tell me, I knew where he had been.)*

- 5.102 In place of a construction with *although*, a construction with *may* is possible. The use of *may* gives a shift of emphasis, illustrated in the pairs of sentences below.

*Although Ben is only ten, he plays the guitar beautifully.
(Attention is directed chiefly to the second half of the sentence.)
Ben may only be ten, but he plays the guitar beautifully.
(Here the speaker puts more emphasis on the concession in the first part of the sentence and then draws attention to the fact that, in spite of what has been conceded, Ben plays the guitar well.)
Although James has lived for five years in France, he does not speak French well.
James may have lived for five years in France, but he does not speak French well.
Although Mrs Harris is blind, she runs her own cake-shop.
Mrs Harris may be blind, but she runs her own cake-shop.*

In these examples *may* is used to introduce a concession ('I concede that . . .', 'I grant that . . .'). This use of *may* must be distinguished from the use of *may* to suggest a possibility (see 5.26):

He may be (= is perhaps) in the garden.

- 5.103 Compounds in *-ever* are also used to introduce concessive clauses. The verb in the clause is sometimes, but not always, used with *may*. In clauses introduced by compounds in *-ever*, the idea of possibility is also present.

*However often I try (= although I often try), I cannot find the answer.
However often I tried (= although I often tried), I could not find the answer.
Whatever faults he may have (= although he perhaps has some faults), meanness is not one of them.
Whatever faults he may have had (= although he perhaps had some faults), meanness was not one of them.
However often you ring (= although/even if you ring the bell again and again), no one will answer.*

*However much Tom may admire her (= although he perhaps admires her very much), he is unlikely to ask her to be his wife.
Whatever we may think of the wisdom of his plans (= although we may have our doubts about their wisdom), no one can deny that they are bold and imaginative.
Whatever happens/may happen (= although there may be failure, disappointment, etc), you will always be glad that you tried to do your best.*

The use of compounds in *-ever* may be compared with the examples below. The construction is used especially with *will*, *would*, *may*, and *might*.

*Come what may (= whatever may come, or happen), we must remain cheerful.
Try as you will (= however hard you may try), you won't manage it.
Say what you will (= whatever you may say), I shall trust to my own judgement.*

- 5.104 The word *matter* is used in a construction that indicates concession. Both the noun and the verb are used.

*No matter what I did, no one paid any attention. (Cf Whatever I did, although I did various things . . .)
No matter how hard I tried, I couldn't manage it. (Cf Although I tried hard . . .)
It doesn't matter how hard you try . . . (Cf Although you may try very hard . . .)*

- 5.105 In another type of concessive clause with *as*, an adjective or adverb is given front position for emphasis.

*Rich as he is, I don't envy him. (Cf I don't envy him, although he is rich. However rich he may be, I don't envy him. No matter how rich he is, I don't envy him.)
Much as I admire Shakespeare's comedies (= although I admire them, however much I may admire them), I cannot agree that they are superior to the tragedies.*

For all (= in spite of all) is used to introduce a concession.

*For all his wealth (= although he is wealthy), he is not happy.
For all you say (= say what you will about him; whatever you may say; no matter what you say), I still like him.*

- 5.106 *Even if* or *if* may replace *although*. When *if* is used the concession is not so complete or is not so willingly made. The speaker grants something not as a fact but as a possibility.

*Even if he 'did say so, we can't be sure he was telling the truth.
Even if it takes me six months, I'm determined to finish the job.
I couldn't be angry with her, even if I tried.
If she 'is stupid, she's at any rate pleasant to look at.*

Conditions and Suppositions

5.107 English verbs have no forms specially inflected for conditional tenses. In place of inflected forms English uses either the tenses of the indicative mood or various auxiliary or modal verbs (e.g. *would, should, could, might*). The subjunctive mood is used in a few cases. See 5.111 below.

There is a great variety of conditional sentences. The two main divisions are: A, those with clauses that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled; B, those with clauses in which a theoretical or hypothetical condition is put forward—these are clauses in which the condition is combined with improbability or unreality.

A *What can we do if it rains?*

Don't come unless I tell you to (come).

We shall go provided the weather is fine.

If you are right, I am wrong.

B *He would come if he had time.*

You would have succeeded if you had tried harder.

If you were a bird, you could fly.

5.108 Conditional clauses may be introduced by *if (even if, if only), as/so long as, suppose or supposing (that), on condition (that), provided (that), and*, for a negative condition, *unless* (which means the same as, but is more emphatic than, *if . . . not*). To introduce a contingency or possibility against which a precaution is needed or advisable *in case* is used.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?

So long as you return the book by Saturday, I will lend it to you with pleasure.

Suppose/Supposing your friends knew how you're behaving here, what would they think?

He says he'll accept the post provided/on condition that the salary is satisfactory.

You'd better take an umbrella with you in case it rains.

Note that the subsidiary clause may either precede or follow the main clause.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?

Why don't you buy a bicycle if you have enough money?

The conditional clause is more prominent or emphatic when it is placed first.

5.109 Conditional clauses of the A type are sometimes called clauses of open condition or factual condition (contrasted with the theoretical condition in the clauses of the B type). The speaker does not declare that the condition will be realized or that it will not be realized. He leaves the question open or unanswered.

What shall we do if it rains?

The speaker here merely puts forward the possibility that it may rain.

In clauses of open condition any of the tenses of the indicative mood, except the future tense with *will/shall*, may be used. (For exceptional uses of *will/would*, see 5.112.) The various auxiliary verbs that are used in conditional clauses of the B type are not used in conditional clauses of the A type. (For exceptional uses of *should* see 5.114.)

There are many possible combinations of tenses in the main clause and the subsidiary (or conditional) clause.

(i) Present Tense in both main and subsidiary clauses:

If he comes, what are we to do?

What can we do if he doesn't come?

Provided the weather keeps like this, the farmers have no need to worry about the crops.

It doesn't matter where you put it so long as you make a note of where it is.

(ii) Future Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause. Imperatives and future tense equivalents are also used in the main clause.

If it's ready he'll bring it tomorrow.

What shall we do if it rains?

What are you going to do if it rains?

Come indoors at once if it rains.

Don't come unless I tell you to come.

I shall take an umbrella in case it rains.

Supposing the enemy wins the war, what will happen to us?

(iii) Future Perfect Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If you don't hurry and get there before five o'clock, he'll have left the office and gone home.

(iv) Future Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he has finished his work by six o'clock we shall be able to take him with us.

Unless he has done the work to my satisfaction, I shall not pay him for it.

(v) Present Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If you've been travelling all night, you probably need a rest.

If you've finished your homework, you can/may go out and play.

(vi) Future Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If she promised to be here she'll certainly come.

If he arrived only yesterday he'll probably not leave before Sunday.

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(vii) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

*If he arrived only yesterday he's unlikely to leave today.
If you spent the night on the train you probably need a rest.*

(viii) Past Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If that was what he told you he was telling lies.

(ix) Future Tense in the main clause and Past Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he hadn't come in when you arrived, he won't come in at all this morning.

(x) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he hadn't left any message when you called, he probably intends to be back before you leave.

5.110 Conditional clauses of the B type are sometimes called clauses of rejected or hypothetical condition. The condition is one that is contrary to fact, or one that is impossible (e.g. *if you were a bird*), or one that is considered unlikely to be fulfilled or has not yet been fulfilled, or, for past time, one that was not fulfilled.

The auxiliary verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, and *might* are used in this type of conditional sentence. The subjunctive *were* (see 5.111) is sometimes used in the conditional clause.

There are many possible combinations for (i) future time, (ii) present and future time combined, and (iii) past time.

(i) If the supposition refers to future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, *might*, or *ought*. The conditional clause may contain either *should* or *were to*.

*If he were to/should hear of your marriage, he would be surprised.
He wouldn't do it unless you were to specially ask him.
If you should be passing my house, you might return the book you borrowed from me. (Polite request; see 5.12.)
If you were to start early tomorrow morning, you would/could/might/ought to/should be at your destination by evening.*

(ii) If the supposition refers to present time, or to both present and future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, or *might*, and the conditional clause contains a Past Tense. This is sometimes called the imaginative use of the past tense. Cf *I wish I knew!* / *If only I knew!*

*If I had the money I should pay you.
If he heard of your marriage he would be surprised.
He wouldn't do it unless you specially asked him.
Supposing I accepted this offer, what would you say?*

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*He wouldn't be in debt if he were not so extravagant.
If you went to London you might see the Queen.
If he took his doctor's advice he might soon be well again.
I couldn't promise to be there (even if I wished to be present).
You could do it if you tried.
Supposing my father saw me with you, what might he think?*

(iii) If the supposition refers to past time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, or *might* with a perfect infinitive (or a simple infinitive if the reference is to consequence in the present). The conditional clause contains a Past Perfect Tense.

*If he had heard of your marriage, he would have been surprised.
I should never have got here in time (= I should not be here now) if you hadn't given me a lift in your car.
If you'd been at the meeting I should have seen you.
If you hadn't told me about it I should/might not know (= I should still be unaware of) the facts.
You could have done it if you had tried.
If he'd taken his doctor's advice he might not have died (= he might still be alive).*

5.111 The subjunctive form *were* (with a singular subject) is usual in literary English in conditional clauses. It is used in spoken English in the phrase *if I were you*. But *was* is also used in *if*-clauses in spoken English. When the condition is expressed without a conjunction by means of inversion of the subject and finite verb, *were* (not *was*) is used. This inversion is rare in spoken English.

Were he to see you (= if he were to see you, should he see you), he'd be surprised.

The negative *wasn't* is often preferred to *weren't* as being more emphatic.

If it wasn't that you have been ill, I should consider your work unsatisfactory.

Had and *should* also occur in this inverted construction, often in literary style, and occasionally in spoken English.

*Had I known you were ill, I'd have called to see you.
Should you need help, please let me know at once.
Should you change your mind, please let me know.*

5.112 It was stated in 5.109 that the future tense with *will* is not used in conditional clauses.

*If he comes (*if he will come) next week, what shall we ask him to do?*

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When *will* is not an auxiliary for the future tense but a verb indicating or asking about willingness, it may occur in an *if*-clause. The past tense *would* can be used. Compare:

If you help me, we can finish by six.

If you'll help me/if you'll be so kind as to help me, we can finish by six.

If you'd help me/if you'd be so kind as to help me, we could finish by six.

- 5.113 *Will* and *would* are also used (always stressed) meaning 'insist'. (See 5.64) In this case, too, they may occur in *if*-clauses.

If you 'will bet (if you insist on betting) on horse-races, you 'mustn't complain if you lose your 'money.

If he 'would bet (if he insisted on betting) on horse-races in 'spite of your 'warnings, he de'served to lose his money.

- 5.114 *Should* sometimes means 'ought to'. (See 5.58.) With this meaning it can be used in *if*-clauses of the A type (i.e. open or factual condition)

If your parents disapprove of the plan, you should (ought to) give it up.

If you shouldn't (oughtn't to) do it, don't do it.

- 5.115 Conditions are sometimes implied in a relative clause. Note the tenses in these examples.

A country that stopped working would quickly be bankrupt. (If a country stopped working, it would quickly be bankrupt.)

Imagine being married to a man who snored! (Imagine being married to a man if he snored.)

- 5.116 Instead of a sentence with a conditional clause, we sometimes have two co-ordinate clauses. Such sentences are usually proverbial.

Spare the rod and spoil the child. (If a child is spared punishment, it will be spoiled.)

See a pin and let it lie, you'll want a pin before you die. (If you see a pin and do not pick it up, you will one day find yourself in need of a pin.)

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