Oxford Guide to English Grammar
1 English grammar

1 Summary

Grammatical units • 2
The grammatical units of English are these: word, phrase, clause and sentence.

Word classes • 3
The main word classes are these: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, determiner, pronoun and conjunction.

Phrases • 4
There are these kinds of phrase: verb phrase, noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase.

Sentence elements • 5
The sentence elements are these: subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial.

English compared with other languages • 6
English words do not have a lot of different endings for number and gender. Word order is very important in English. The verb phrase can have a complex structure. There are many idioms with prepositions.

2 Grammatical units

A FLIGHT ANNOUNCEMENT
'Good evening, ladies and gentlemen. On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Star Herald Flight to Southampton. Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes, and we shall be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet and cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles per hour.'

(from M. Underwood and P. Barr Listeners)

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

1 Words
The words in the announcement are good, evening, ladies, and, gentlemen, on etc.

NOTE For word-building, e.g. air + ways = airways, • 282.
5 Sentence elements

1 Each phrase plays a part in the clause or sentence. Here are some examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Adverbial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>flight</td>
<td>is leaving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>weather</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My father</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>a pilot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was reading</td>
<td>a newspaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two stewards</td>
<td>served</td>
<td>lunch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Adverbial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The aircraft</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>at three o'clock.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>must book</td>
<td>the tickets</td>
<td>next week.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 These are the parts of an English sentence and the kinds of phrase that we can use for each element.

- **Subject:** Noun phrase: *the flight, I, two stewards*
- **Verb:** Verb phrase: *is, served, must book*
- **Object:** Noun phrase: *a newspaper, lunch*
- **Complement:** Adjective phrase: *very good*
  Noun phrase: *a pilot*
- **Adverbial:** Adverb phrase: *shortly*
  Prepositional phrase: *at three o'clock*
  Noun phrase: *next week*

**NOTE**

a The verb is central to the sentence and we use the word 'verb' for both the sentence element - 'The verb follows the subject' - and for the word class - 'Leave is a verb.'

For more details about sentence patterns, • 7.

b The word *there* can be the subject. • 50

*There* was a letter for you.

6 English compared with other languages

1 Endings

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

*The man stole a coat.*

Everyone *enjoyed the conference.*

The driver *saw the hitch-hiker* at the side of the road.

The man *had no money.*

Transitive verbs can express not only actions (*stole*) but also feelings (*enjoyed*),

perception (*saw*) and possession (*had*).

After some transitive verbs we can leave out the object when it would add little or

nothing to the meaning.

*The man opposite was reading* (*a book*).  

*We’re going to eat* (*a meal*).

We can also leave out the object after these verbs:

*ask/answer* (*a question*),  

*draw/paint* (*a picture*),  

*enter/leave* (*a room/building*),

*pass/fail* (*a test/exam*),  

*play/win/lose* (*a game*),  

*practise* (*a skill*),  

*sing* (*a song*),  

*speak* (*afew words*),  

*study* (*a subject*).

The following verbs can also be without an object if the context is clear:  

*begin*,  

*choose*,  

*decide*,  

*hear*,  

*help*,  

*know*,  

*notice*,  

*see*,  

*start*.

NOTE

There must be an object after *discuss* and deny.

*The committee discussed the problem.*  

*He denied the accusation.*

3 Many verbs can be either transitive or intransitive.

Transitive

*The driver stopped the coach.*

*He opened the door.*

*I broke a cup.*

*Someone rang the bell.*

Intransitive

*The coach stopped.*

*The door opened.*

*The cup broke.*

*The bell rang.*

The two sentences can describe the same event. The transitive sentence has as its

subject the agent, the person who made the event happen (*the driver*). The

intransitive sentence describes the event but does not mention the agent.

Here are some common verbs that can be transitive or intransitive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Intransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alter</td>
<td>develop</td>
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<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>divide</td>
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<td>bend</td>
<td>drive</td>
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<td>boil</td>
<td>dry</td>
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<td>break</td>
<td>end</td>
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<td>burn</td>
<td>finish</td>
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<td>change</td>
<td>fly</td>
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<td>close</td>
<td>freeze</td>
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<td>cook</td>
<td>hang</td>
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<tr>
<td>combine</td>
<td>harden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue</td>
<td>hurt</td>
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<td>crash</td>
<td>improve</td>
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<td>increase</td>
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<td>join</td>
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<td>stop</td>
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<td>strengthen</td>
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<td></td>
<td>swing</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

NOTE

*Raise* is transitive, and *rise* is intransitive.

*The oil companies will raise their prices.*

*The price of oil will rise.*

For *lay* and *lie*, •11(2) Note b.
3 Which pattern?

In a clause with *give, send* etc, there is a choice of pattern between *give the customs officer the form* and *give the form to the customs officer*. The choice depends on what information is new. The new information goes at the end of the clause.

*I’ll give you this envelope.*

In the conversation *Claiming back tax, this envelope* is the point of interest, the new information, so it comes at the end.

Compare the patterns in these sentences.

*He left his children five million pounds.*
(The amount of money is the point of interest.)

*He left all his money to a dog’s home.*
(Who receives the money is the point of interest.)

4 Pronouns after *give, send* etc

When there is a pronoun, it usually comes before a phrase with a noun.

*We send you a cheque.*

*He had lots of money, but he left it to a dog’s home.*

When there are two pronouns after the verb, we normally use *to* or *for*.

*We’ll send it off to you straight away.*

*I’ve got a ticket for Wimbledon. Norman bought it for me.*

5 *To* or *for*?

Some verbs go with *to* and some with *for*.

*He handed the receipt to the customer.*

*Tom got drinks for everyone.*

With *to*: award, bring, feed, give, grant, hand, leave (in a will), lend, offer, owe, pass, pay, post, promise, read, sell, send, show, take, teach, tell, throw, write.

With *for*: bring, buy, cook, fetch, find, get, keep, leave, make, order, pick, reserve, save, spare.

NOTE

a *Bring* goes with either *to* or *for*.

b For meaning ‘to help someone’ can go with very many verbs.

*I’m writing a letter for my sister. (She can’t write.)*
5 The imperative with a subject

We can mention the subject you when it contrasts with another person.

*I'll wait here. You go round the back.*

You can also make an order emphatic or even aggressive.

*You be careful what you're saying.*

**NOTE**

a) A few other phrases can be the subject.

*All of you sit down! Everyone stop what you're doing.*

b) The negative *don't* comes before the subject.

*Don't you talk to me like that.*

6 *Let*

a) *Let's (= let us) + base form of the verb expresses a suggestion.*

*It's a lovely day. Let's sit outside.*

*Let's have some coffee (shall we?).*

Let's suggests an action by the speaker and the hearer. *Let us* used alone means that we should sit outside.

The negative is *let's not* or *don't let's*, and for emphasis we use *do let's*.

**Negative:** *Let's not waste any time.*

**Emphatic:** *Do let's get started. We've wasted enough time already.*

**NOTE**

a) For American usage, *let us*.

b) The long form is formal and old-fashioned.

*Let us give thanks to God.*

b) *Let me* means that the speaker is telling him/herself what to do.

*Let me think. Where did I put the letter? Let me see what's in my diary. Let me explain.*

Let me think means 'I'm going to think./Give me time to think.'

**NOTE**

Let can also have the meaning 'allow'.

*Oh, you've got some photos. Let me see./May I see?*

c) After *let* we can put a phrase with a noun.

*Let the person who made this mess clean it up.*

*Let the voters choose the government they want. Let them decide.*

Let them decide means 'they should decide'.

**NOTE**

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

*God save the Queen.*

*May your dreams come true.*

These patterns are rather formal and used only in limited contexts.
a A question can sometimes be just a question word. • 40

I'm going to London. ~ When?

b A question word can be part of a sub clause.

What did you think I said? (You thought I said something.)
When would everyone like to leave? (Everyone would like to leave some time.)

c A question can have two question words.

When and where did this happen? Who paid for what?

2 Compare who as subject and object of a question.

Subject: Who invited you to the party? ~ Laura did.
(Someone invited you.)

Object: Who did you invite to the party? ~ Oh, lots of people.
(You invited someone.)

Who saw the detective? Who did the detective see?
(Someone saw him.) (He saw someone.)

Here are some more examples of question words as subject.

What happens next? Which came first, the chicken or the egg?
Who is organizing the trip? Which biscuits taste the best?
Whose cat has been run over, did you say?
How many people know the secret?

3 A question word can also be the object of a preposition.

Who was the parcel addressed to?
(The parcel was addressed to someone.)

Where does Maria come from?
(Maria comes from somewhere.)

What are young people interested in these days?
(Young people are interested in something these days.)

In informal questions, the preposition comes in the same place as in a statement (addressed to, come from). But in more formal English it can come before the question word.

To whom was the parcel addressed?
On what evidence was it decided to make the arrest?

NOTE
a For who and whom, • 26(3).

b Since comes before when even in informal English.

Since when has this area been closed to the public?
This often expresses surprise. A question with How long... ? is more neutral.
2  *There + be: more details*

a  We use the pattern in sentences with adverbials of place, time and other meanings.

*There was a furniture van outside the house.*
*There’s a concert next week.*
*There are some letters for you.*

**NOTE**  For *The house had a furniture van outside it,* • 85(1) Note d.

b  We can use *there + be* without an adverbial. This happens with nouns expressing a situation or event.

*I’m afraid there’s a problem.* (= A problem exists.)
*There’s been an accident.* (= An accident has happened.)

**NOTE**  The adverbial is sometimes understood from the context.

You know this party we’re going to. Will there be any food (at the party)?

c  We normally use *there + be* before a noun phrase which is new information. This noun phrase has an indefinite meaning. It can have *a/an, some, any, no* or *a number, or it can be a noun on its own. It can also be one of these quantifiers: lot of/lots of many, much, few, little; a good/great deal of, a number of, several; more, another, other, others; enough, plenty of.*

*There are some drawing-pins in my desk.*
*There are seven days in a week.*
*There was dust everywhere.*
*There’s far too much traffic on the roads.*
*There will be a number of tasks to carry out.*
*Is there any more tea in the pot?*
*There isn’t enough memory in the computer.*

The noun phrase does not usually have *the, this/that* etc or *my/your* etc, which refer to definite things known from the context.

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

*What can I stand on to reach the light bulb? ~ Well, there’s the stepladder.*

d  We form negatives and questions in the normal way.

*There wasn’t a van outside the house.*
*Are there any letters for me?*

e  We can use *there* in a question tag.

*There’s a concert next week, isn’t there?*

f  After *there*, the verb agrees with its complement. (But • 153(6) Note.)

*There is a letter/There are some letters for you.*

g  *There* is not stressed and is normally spoken in its weak form /ðə/ (like *the*). The subject *there* is not the same as the adverb *there* (=in that place). The adverb is pronounced /ðeə/.

*There/ðə/ was a van there /ðeə/, outside the house.*
With a gerund clause we use both patterns.

Making new friends is difficult. It's difficult making new friends.

b It can also be an empty object in the pattern subject + verb + it + complement + clause.

If I find it difficult to make new friends.
We all thought it a pity so few people came.
The government has made it clear that no money will be available.

c It can also be an empty subject before seem, appear, happen, chance, turn out and prove.

It seems the phone is out of order.
(= The phone seems to be out of order.)
It happened that I had my camera with me at the time.
(= I happened to have my camera with me at the time.)
This pattern with it is a little formal.

There is also the pattern it looks/seems as if/as though.

It looks as if we're going to get some snow.

For It is said that..., • 109.

d We can use it+ be before a phrase in order to emphasize it. • 51(3)

It's the phone (not the doorbell) that's out of order.

e It can also refer to the environment, the weather, the time or distance.

It's getting dark.
It was cold yesterday.
Is it five o'clock yet? It's only a short walk to the beach.

6 There or it?

There + be expresses the fact that something exists or happens. It + be identifies or describes something, says what it is or what it is like. We use there with a noun phrase of indefinite meaning, e.g. a young lady, something. It refers to something definite, e.g. the young lady, something known in the situation. It can also refer forward to a clause.

there                          it

There's a young lady at the door. It's Lorraine.
(= A young lady is at the door.) (= The young lady is Lorraine.)
There's a wind today. Yes, it's windy.
(= A wind is blowing.) (= The weather is windy.)
There weren't any classes. It was Saturday.
(= No classes took place.) (= The day was Saturday.)
There isn't any truth in the story. It isn't true what they say.
(= The story has no truth in it.) (= What they say isn't true.)
55 Weak forms and short forms

A weak form is a spoken form such as the pronunciation of *am* as */m/* instead of */æm/*. Weak forms are normal in speech. A short form is a written form, such as *‘m* instead of *am* in the sentence *I’m sorry*. We use short forms in informal writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spoken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æm/</td>
<td>/m/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>am</em></td>
<td><em>‘m</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Strong and weak forms

a In speech many words have both strong and weak forms. We use the strong form only in very careful speech, or when the word is stressed.

Strong form */ænd/*

Weak form */en/*

*Have you got a dog or a cat?* ~ *Have you got any cats?* ~ *We’ve got a dog and a cat.*

b These are the main weak forms:

Forms of *be, have, and the auxiliary do*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>am</em></td>
<td><em>‘m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>be</em></td>
<td><em>‘b</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>has</em></td>
<td><em>‘h</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>are</em></td>
<td><em>‘ɔ</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>do</em></td>
<td><em>‘d</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modal verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>‘k</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td><em>‘l</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>shall</em></td>
<td><em>‘ʃ</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>must</em></td>
<td><em>‘m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>could</em></td>
<td><em>‘k</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>would</em></td>
<td><em>‘w</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>should</em></td>
<td><em>‘ʃ</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>a</em></td>
<td><em>‘ə</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>an</em></td>
<td><em>‘ən</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>the</em></td>
<td><em>‘ð</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>some</em></td>
<td><em>‘s</em></td>
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<td><em>or</em></td>
<td><em>‘ɔ</em></td>
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</table>

Pronouns and possessives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>me</em></td>
<td><em>‘mi</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>you</em></td>
<td><em>‘j</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>he</em></td>
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<td><em>she</em></td>
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<td><em>‘h</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>his</em></td>
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Prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Weak</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>at</em></td>
<td><em>‘æt</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>of</em></td>
<td><em>‘ɔf</em></td>
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<td><em>as</em></td>
<td><em>‘æz</em></td>
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<td><em>from</em></td>
<td><em>‘fræm</em></td>
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<td><em>to</em></td>
<td><em>‘tɔ</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>for</em></td>
<td><em>‘fɔ</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>than</em></td>
<td><em>‘ðæn</em></td>
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Other words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>that</em></td>
<td><em>‘ð</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>and</em></td>
<td><em>‘ɔnd</em></td>
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<td><em>or</em></td>
<td><em>‘ɔ</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>not</em></td>
<td><em>‘nɔt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>there</em></td>
<td><em>‘ðæ</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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

Preview from Notesale.co.uk

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Most action verbs refer to physical actions, but some are verbs of reporting (say) or verbs of thinking (decide). State verbs express meanings such as being, having, opinions and feelings.

2 We can use action verbs with the continuous, but state verbs are not normally continuous.
We are decorating the flat, but NOT We are owning the flat.
Some state verbs cannot be passive. • 104(6b)

3 Some verbs have different meanings. One meaning can be an action and another meaning can be a state.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We're having lunch now.</td>
<td>We have a big kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(action - 'eating')</td>
<td>(state - 'own')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We're thinking about moving.</td>
<td>I think we ought to move.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(action - 'deciding')</td>
<td>(state - 'believe')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeff tasted the soup.</td>
<td>The soup tasted like water.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expect/expecting trouble</td>
<td>expect so (= believe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imagine/imagining the result</td>
<td>imagine so (= believe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>care/caring for the sick</td>
<td>not care what happens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(= looking at it with pleasure)</td>
<td>(= approve of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look/looking at a picture</td>
<td>look lovely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smell/smelling the powder</td>
<td>smell strange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appear/appearing in a film</td>
<td>appear perfectly calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measure/measuring the door</td>
<td>measure two metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weigh/weighing the luggage</td>
<td>weigh ten kilos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit/fitting a new switch</td>
<td>fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cost/costing a project</td>
<td>cost a lot of money</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can use the continuous with some state verbs if we see something as active thinking or feeling for a period of time, rather than a permanent attitude.
I love holidays. (permanent attitude)
I'm loving every minute of this holiday. (active enjoyment)

Here are some more examples.
How are you liking the play? ~ Well, it's all right so far.
We were expecting visitors. You're looking pleased with yourself.
This holiday is costing me a lot. I'm hoping to get a job.

Be can be an action verb meaning 'behave'. • 84(3)
The dog was being a nuisance, so we shut him out.

NOTE
a Mean (= have the meaning) is always a state verb.
What does this word mean?
b Enjoy expresses an action.
I'm enjoying the party. NOT I enjoy the party.
The future

Summary

This news item is about something in the future.

CINEMA TO CLOSE

The Maxime Cinema is to close in November, it was announced yesterday. The owner of the building, Mr Charles Peters, has sold it to a firm of builders, who are going to build a block of old people's flats on the site. 'The cinema has become uneconomic to run,' said Mr Peters. The last performance is on Saturday 17th November, and after that the cinema will finally close its doors after sixty years in business. 'This town won't be the same again,' said camera operator Bert Dudley, who has worked at the cinema for eighteen years. Mr Dudley is retiring when the cinema closes. In future, cinema goers will have to travel ten miles to the nearest cinema.

There are different ways of expressing the future.

Will and shall • 71

The cinema will close in November.
We shall close the doors for the last time.

Be going to • 72

The cinema is going to close soon.

Present tense forms • 73

The cinema is closing in November.
The cinema closes on November 17th.

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

The choice of form depends on whether we are making a prediction about the future, expressing an intention, or talking about a plan for the future, and so on.

The future continuous • 75

The cinema is sold and will be closing in November.

Be to • 76

The cinema is to close in November, it was announced.

The present simple in a sub clause • 77

It will be a sad day when the cinema closes.
Won’t can express unwillingness or an emphatic refusal.

The doctor won’t come at this time of night.
I won’t put up with this nonsense.

NOTE
We can also use won’t when the subject is not a person.
The car won’t start. This screw won’t go in properly.

6 We can use I’ll/we’ll and will/won’t you in offers, promises, etc.
Offer: I’ll hold the door open for you. ~ Oh, thanks.
Promise: (I promise) I’ll do my best to help you.
Invitation: Won’t you sit down?
Request: Will you do something for me?

7 When we can’t decide, we use shall I/we to ask for advice or suggestions.
Where shall I put these flowers? ~ I’ll get a vase.
What shall we do this weekend?
We can also use shall I/we for an offer.
Shall I hold the door open for you? ~ Oh, thanks.

8 We can use you shall for a promise.
You shall be the first to know. (I promise).

9 Will is sometimes used in formal orders. It expresses the order as a definite future action. This emphasizes the authority of the speaker.
You will leave the building immediately. Uniform will be worn.
Shall is sometimes used for formal rules.
The secretary shall give two weeks’ notice of such a meeting.

72 Be going to

We use be going to + base form for a present situation which points to the future.
It’s ten already. We’re going to be late. This fence is going to fall down soon.

We can see from the time that we are going to be late, and we can see from the condition of the fence that it is going to fall down. Be going to expresses a prediction based on these situations.

NOTE In informal speech going to is sometimes pronounced /’g ʊnt/.

We can also use be going to for a present intention.
I’m going to start my own business. I’m not going to live here all my life.
They’re going to build some old people’s flats here.

Here the intention points to a future action. I’m going to start means that I intend to start/I have decided to start.

For a comparison of be going to and will, • 74.

NOTE
a We can use be going to without mentioning the person who has the intention.
The flats are going to be for old people.
b With verbs of movement, especially go and come, we often use the present continuous rather than be going to.
I’m going out in a minute. I’ve got some shopping to do.
Barbara is coming round for a chat tonight.
I’m going to go out and Barbara is going to come round are possible but less usual.
73 Present tense forms for the future

1 We use the present continuous for what someone has arranged to do.

*I'm meeting Gavin at the club tonight.*  
What are you doing tomorrow?  
*Julie is going to Florida.*

This suggests that Julie has made arrangements such as buying her ticket.

The meaning is similar to *be going to* for an intention, and in many contexts we can use either form.

*We're visiting/ We're going to visit friends at the weekend.*

NOTE
a An 'arrangement' need not be with another person.

*I'm doing some shopping this afternoon.  I'm having an early night.*

This means that I have arranged my day so that I can do these things,

b We cannot use a state verb in the continuous.

*Gavin will be at the club tonight.*

NOT *Gavin is being at the club tonight.*

2 We can sometimes use the present simple for the future, but only for what we see as part of a timetable.

*The Cup Final is on May 7th.  The train leaves at 16.40.  We change at Birmingham.  What time do you arrive in Helsinki?*

We do not use the present simple for decisions or intentions.

NOT *I carry that bag for you.*

NOT *They build some flats here soon.*

NOTE For the present simple in sub clauses, • 77.

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

1 Both *will* and *be going to* can express predictions.

*It'll rain, I expect.  It always rains at weekends.  It's going to rain.  Look at those clouds.*

A prediction with *be going to* is based on the present situation.

Sometimes we can use either form with little difference in meaning.

*One day the sun will cool down.*

*One day the sun is going to cool down.*

The sentence with *be going to* suggests that there is some present evidence for the prediction.

We often use *will* with *I'm sure, I think, I expect and probably.*

*I think we'll have time for a coffee.*

*There'll probably be lots of people at the disco.*

We use *be going to* (not *will*) when the future action is very close.

*Help! I'm going to fall!  I'm going to be sick!*

NOTE
Compare the meanings of these verb forms.

*The cinema closed last year.*  
*The cinema has closed.*  
(in the past)  
(past action related to the present)

*The cinema will close in November.*  
*The cinema is going to close soon.*  
(in the future)  
(future action related to the present)
3 Could and was/were able to

a In the past, we make a difference between a general ability and an ability which resulted in an action. For a general ability we use could or was/were able to.

Kevin could walk/was able to walk when he was only eleven months old.

But we use was/were able to to talk about an action in a particular situation, when someone had the ability to do something and did it.

The injured man was able to walk to a phone box.

NOT The injured man could walk to a phone box.

We can also express the meaning with managed to or succeeded in.

Detectives were able to/managed to identify the murderer.

Detectives succeeded in identifying the murderer.

b But in negatives and questions we can use either was/were able to or could because we are not saying that the action really happened.

Detectives weren't able to identify/couldn't identify the murderer.

Were you able to get/Could you get tickets for the show?

NOTE It is safer to use was/were able to when the use of could might be understood as a request. Could you get tickets? can be a request meaning ‘Please get tickets’.

c We normally use could (not was/were able to) with verbs of perception and verbs of thinking.

I could see smoke on the horizon.

We could understand that Emily preferred to be alone.

d To say that someone had the ability or the chance to do something but didn't do it, we use could have done.

He could have walked there, but he decided to wait where he was.

I could have got tickets, but there were only very expensive ones left.

NOTE Could have done can also express a past action that possibly happened. • 97(3)

The murderer could have driven here and dumped the body. We don’t know yet if he did.

e Could can also mean ‘would be able to’.

I couldn't do your job. I'd be hopeless at it.

The factory could produce a lot more goods if it was modernized.

99 Unreal situations: would

1 Compare these sentences.

We’re going to have a barbecue. ~ Oh, that’ll be nice.

We’re thinking of having a barbecue. ~ Oh, that would be nice.

Here will is a prediction about the future, about the barbecue. Would is a prediction about an unreal situation, about a barbecue which may or may not happen.
For and of with a to-infinitive • 126

It's usual for guests to bring flowers.
It was kind of you to help.

Patterns with the bare infinitive • 127

You could walk round the earth in a year.
I'd better put this cream in the fridge.
The ride made me feel sick.

116 Infinitive forms

1 Bare infinitive To-infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>play</th>
<th>to play</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>have played</td>
<td>to have played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>be playing</td>
<td>to be playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect + continuous</td>
<td>have been playing</td>
<td>to have been playing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the passive, e.g. to be played • 112.

2 A simple infinitive is the base form of a verb, with or without to.

Bare infinitive: I'd rather sit at the back.
To-infinitive: I'd prefer to sit at the back.

There is no difference in meaning here between sit and to sit. Which we use depends on the grammatical pattern.

3 Here are some examples with perfect and continuous forms.

It's a pity I missed that programme. I'd like to have seen it.
You'd better have finished by tomorrow.
The weather seems to be getting worse.
I'd rather be lying on the beach than stuck in a traffic jam.
The man appeared to have been drinking.
We cannot use a past form.
NOT I'd like to saw it.

4 A simple infinitive refers to the same time as in the main clause.

I'm pleased to meet you.
(The pleasure and the meeting are both in the present.)
You were lucky to win.
(The luck and the victory are both in the past.)

We use a perfect infinitive for something before the time in the main clause.
I'd like to have seen that programme yesterday.
(The desire is in the present, but the programme is in the past.)

We use a continuous infinitive for something happening over a period.

You're lucky to be winning.
(You're winning at the moment.)
To-infinitive or gerund after a verb

+ to-infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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<tr>
<td>afford</td>
<td>Note a</td>
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<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>Note b</td>
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<td>appear</td>
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<td>arrange</td>
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<td>be</td>
<td>76</td>
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<td>be dying</td>
<td>Note c</td>
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<td>beg</td>
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<td>can't wait</td>
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<td>care (= want)</td>
<td>Note d</td>
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<td>choose</td>
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+ gerund

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<th>Verb</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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<td>admit</td>
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<td>advise</td>
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<td>allow</td>
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<td>excuse</td>
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<td>face</td>
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<td>fancy (= want)</td>
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<td>finish</td>
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<td>give up</td>
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<td>imagine</td>
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<td>involve</td>
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<td>justify</td>
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<td>keep (on)</td>
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<td>leave off</td>
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<td>mention</td>
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<td>mind</td>
<td>Note d</td>
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<td>put off</td>
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<td>quit</td>
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<tr>
<td>recommend</td>
<td>Note f</td>
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<td>resent</td>
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<td>resist</td>
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<td>save</td>
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<td>stand</td>
<td>Note a</td>
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<tr>
<td>suggest</td>
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<tr>
<td>tolerate</td>
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</table>

**NOTE**

a *Afford* (= have enough money/time) and *stand* (= tolerate) go after *can/could* or *be able to*. They are often in a negative sentence or a question.

*Do you think we'll be able to afford to go to India?*

*I can't stand sitting around doing nothing.*

b We can use *agree* with a to-infinitive but not *accept*.

*Brian agreed to pay half the cost. NOT Brian accepted to pay half.*

c We use *be dying* (= want very much) only in the continuous.

*I'm dying to have a swim. I'm dying for a swim.*

d *Care* and *mind* are normally in a negative sentence or a question.

*Would you care to come along with us? Do you mind carrying this bag for me?*

e After *help* we can leave out *to*.

*We all helped to put up the tent.*

f When advise, recommend, allow or permit has another object, it takes a to-infinitive.

*I advised taking a taxi.* ~ *They don't allow sunbathing here.*

*I advised the girls to take a taxi.* ~ *They don't allow people to sunbathe here.*
We can use many adjectives in this pattern, for example:

- anxious
- eager
- marvellous
- silly
- awful
- easy
- necessary
- stupid
- better/best
- essential
- nice
- terrible
- cheap
- expensive
- ready
- willing
- convenient
- important
- reluctant
- wonderful
- dangerous
- keen
- safe
- wrong

3 Patterns with *too* and *enough*

Before the *for* pattern, we can use *too* or *enough* with a quantifier, adjective or adverb.

*There's too much work for you to finish today.*
*The kitchen is too small for the whole family to eat in.*
*The light wasn't shining brightly enough for anyone to notice it.*

4 The pattern *It's a good idea for you to finish*

*It's a good idea for you to finish* the course and get a qualification.
*It's a nuisance for tourists to have to get visas.*

We can use some nouns, e.g. advantage, demand, disadvantage, disaster, idea, mistake, nuisance, etc.

**NOTE**

We can also use some nouns related to the verbs and adjectives in Patterns 1 and 2.

*I've made arrangements for someone to take photos.*
*He couldn't hide his anxiety for the matter to be settled.*

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

*It's nice of you to finish* the job for me.
*It was rude of your friend not to shake hands.*
*It was clever of Tina to find that out.*

We can use adjectives expressing personal qualities, e.g. brave, careless, clever, foolish, generous, good, helpful, honest, intelligent, kind, mean, nice, polite, rude, sensible, silly, stupid, wrong.

**NOTE**

Compare these sentences.

*It was nice of Tom to take the dog for a walk.*
(*Nice expressing a personal quality: it was a kind action by Tom.*)
*It was nice for Tom to take the dog for a walk.*
(*It was a pleasant experience for Tom.*)

6 *For* expressing purpose

*There are telephones for drivers to call for help if they break down.*
*For plants to grow properly, you have to water them regularly.*
127 Patterns with the bare infinitive

1 After a modal verb

Nothing can go wrong. They must be having a party next door.
You should be more careful. You could have made the tea.

But note ought to, have to, be able to, be allowed to and be going to.
You ought to be more careful. You have to put some money in.
I was able to get home OK. We aren’t allowed to walk on the grass.

2 After had better, would rather/would sooner and rather than

We’d better not be late.
I didn’t enjoy it. I’d rather have stayed at home.
They decided to accept the offer rather than go/going to court.

3 Verb + object + bare infinitive

a Make, let and have can take an object + bare infinitive.
The official made me fill in a form.
The headmaster let the pupils go home early.
I’ll have the porter bring up your luggage.

NOTE
Force, allow and get take a to-infinitive.
The official forced me to fill in a form.
The headmaster allowed the pupils to go home early.
I’ll get the porter to bring up your luggage.

b A verb of perception can take an object + bare infinitive.
Someone saw the men leave the building.
I thought I heard someone knock on the door.

For more details, • 140(1b).

c When the pattern with the bare infinitive is made passive, we always use a to-infinitive. • 110(1b)

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

4 Other patterns

a After except and but (= except) we normally use a bare infinitive.
As for the housework, I do everything except cook.
You’ve done nothing but grumble all day.

b We sometimes put an infinitive after be when we are explaining what kind of action we mean.
The only thing I can do is (to) apologize.
What the police did was (to) charge into the crowd.

c For Why worry?, • 26(5).
### 7 The pattern *my success in finding out*

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

*I noticed Jeff's success in getting the price reduced.*

*We expressed our gratitude for having had the opportunity.*

Some other nouns can also take a preposition + gerund.

*How would you like the idea of living in a caravan?*  
*There's a small advantage in moving first.*

We can use these expressions:

- advantage of/in
- aim of/in
- amazement at
- anger about/at
- annoyance about/at
- anxiety about
- apology for
- awareness of
- belief in
- boredom with
- danger of/in
- difficulty in
- effect of
- excitement about/at
- expense of/in
- par of
- gratitude for
- idea of
- insistence on
- interest in
- job of
- matter of
- objection to
- point of
- prospect of
- purpose of/in
- question about/of
- reason for
- satisfaction with
- success in
- surprise at
- task of
- work of
- worry about

### 8 The pattern *before leaving*

#### a

*Please switch off the lights before leaving.*

*Instead of landing at Heathrow, we had to go to Manchester.*

*The picture was hung upside down without anyone noticing it.*

*She succeeded in business by being completely single-minded.*

*How about coming round this evening?*  
*I still feel tired in spite of having slept eight hours.*

*Despite your reminding me, I forgot.*

We can use a gerund after these prepositions:

- after
- besides
- in
- on account of
- against
- by
- in addition to
- since
- as a result of
- by means of
- in favour of
- through
- as well as
- despite
- in spite of
- what about
- because of
- for
- instead of
- with
- before
- how about
- on
- without

#### NOTE

a A similar pattern is conjunction + participle. • 139(3)

*Although having slept eight hours, I still feel tired.*

b *On turning the corner, I saw a most unexpected sight.*  
(=As soon as I had turned the corner,....)

*In building a new motorway, they attracted new industry to the area.*  
(= As a result of building a new motorway,....)

c We cannot use a passive participle.

*The new drug was put on the market after being approved by the government.*

NOT after approved and NOT after been approved
16 Participles

134 Summary

Participle forms • 135
A participle can be an ing-form like playing (active participle), or a form like played, written (past or passive participle).

Participle clauses • 136
We can put an object or adverbial after the participle.
Kate fell asleep watching television last night.
A participle can also have a subject.
I waited, my heart beating fast.

Participle + noun • 137
flashing lights recorded music

Verb + participle • 138
Well, I mustn't stand chatting here all day.

Participle clauses of time, reason etc • 139
I went wrong adding up these figures.
Having no money, we couldn't get in.

Verb + object + participle • 140
I saw you talking to the professor.

NOTE
For participles in finite verb phrases, • 60.
have + past participle: My watch has stopped.
be + active participle: The train was stopping.
be + passive participle: We were stopped by a policeman.
For There was a bag lying/left on the table, • 50(3).
For The bag lying/left on the table is Sadie's, • 276.

135 Participle forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>playing</td>
<td>played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>having played</td>
<td>being played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>played</td>
<td>having been played</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
143 Noun phrases

1 A noun phrase can be one word.
   Whisky is expensive. (uncountable noun)
   Planes take off from here. (plural noun)
   They landed at Berlin. (name)
   She alerted the pilot. (pronoun)

   It can also be more than one word.
   Someone was stealing the whisky.
   A lot of planes take off from here.
   Security guards set a trap.

2 In a noun phrase there can be determiners, quantifiers and modifiers, as well as a noun.

   a Determiners
   These come before the noun.
   a bomb the result this idea my bag
   The determiners are the articles (a, the), demonstratives (this, that, these, those) and Possessives (e.g. my, your).

   b Quantifiers
   These also come before the noun.
   a lot of money two people every photo half the passengers
   Quantifiers are a lot of, many, much, a few, every, each, all, most, both, half, some, any, no etc. • 176

   c Modifiers
   A noun can be modified by an adjective or by another noun.
   Adjective: small bottles the exact time
   Noun: glass bottles an emergency landing
   A prepositional phrase or adverb phrase can come after the noun and modify it.
   the summer of 1978 the people inside • 148

   d Overview
   This is the basic structure of a noun phrase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantifier (+ of)</th>
<th>Determiner</th>
<th>Adjective modifier</th>
<th>Noun modifier</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Other modifiers</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>hot</td>
<td></td>
<td>bomb meal door for two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>meal door for two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all</td>
<td>these</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bottles here</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>empty</td>
<td></td>
<td>bottles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>empty</td>
<td></td>
<td>friends exits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enough</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>exits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td></td>
<td>nice soup</td>
<td></td>
<td>dishes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each of</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>heavy glass</td>
<td></td>
<td>doors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>of the building</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 A noun phrase can be a subject, an object, a complement or an adverbial. It can also be the object of a preposition.

Subject:  
Object:  
Complement:  
Adverbial:  
Prepositional object:  

Security guards set a trap.  
The stewardess alerted the pilot.  
The cost of a bottle was 17 pence.  
That day something unusual happened.  
The passengers left in a hurry through fire exits.

144 Countable and uncountable nouns

1 Introduction

a Countable nouns can be singular or plural: book(s), hotel(s), boat(s), day(s), job(s), mile(s), piece(s), problem(s), dream(s). Uncountable nouns are neither singular nor plural: water, sugar, salt, money, music, electricity, happiness, excitement.

We use countable nouns for separate, individual things such as books and hotels, things we can count. We use uncountable nouns for things that do not naturally divide into separate units, such as water and sugar, things we cannot count.

b Many countable nouns are concrete: table(s), car(s), shoe(s). But some are abstract: situation(s), idea(s). Many uncountable nouns are abstract: beauty, love, psychology. But some are concrete: butter, plastic.

Many nouns can be either countable or uncountable.

c An uncountable noun takes a singular verb, and we use this/that and it.  
This milk is off. I’ll pour it down the sink.

2 Words that go with countable/uncountable nouns

Some words go with both countable and uncountable nouns: the boat or the water. But some words go with only one kind of noun: a boat but NOT a water, how much water but how many boats.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countable</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Uncountable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>the boat</td>
<td>the water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/an</td>
<td>a boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>(some boat)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>no boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this/that</td>
<td>this boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>these/those</td>
<td>these boats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our</td>
<td>our boat</td>
<td>our water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>one boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>two boats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>a lot of boats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many/few</td>
<td>many boats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much/little</td>
<td>much water</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all</td>
<td>all the boat</td>
<td>all (the) boats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each/every</td>
<td>every boat</td>
<td>all (the) water</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
e Kind, sort, type and make go with either a countable or an uncountable noun.
what kind of sugar this make of computer

4 Countable or uncountable noun?

a It is not always obvious from the meaning whether a noun is countable or uncountable. For example, information, news and furniture are uncountable.
I've got some information for you. NOT an information
There was no news of the missing hiker  NOT There were no news.
They had very little furniture, NOT very few furniture.

But we can use piece(s) of, bit(s) of and item(s) of with many such nouns.
I've got a piece of information for you.
They had very few items of furniture.

b Here are some uncountable nouns which may be countable in other languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>accommodation</th>
<th>English (the language)</th>
<th>land</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advice</td>
<td>equipment</td>
<td>laughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>applause</td>
<td>evidence</td>
<td>leisure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baggage</td>
<td>fruit</td>
<td>weather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behaviour</td>
<td>fun</td>
<td>liter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>furniture</td>
<td>luck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>camping</td>
<td>jump</td>
<td>page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cash</td>
<td>harm</td>
<td>pay (= wages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothing</td>
<td>health</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>countryside</td>
<td>help (• Note c)</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crockery</td>
<td>homework</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cutlery</td>
<td>housework</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>damage</td>
<td>housing</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(• Note b)</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following nouns are countable. Their meanings are related to the uncountable nouns above. For example, suitcase is countable, but luggage is uncountable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bag(s)</th>
<th>house(s)</th>
<th>permit(s)</th>
<th>suitcase(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>camp(s)</td>
<td>jewel(s)</td>
<td>rumour(s)</td>
<td>thing(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothes</td>
<td>job(s)</td>
<td>shop(s)</td>
<td>vegetable(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clue(s)</td>
<td>journey(s)</td>
<td>shower(s)</td>
<td>vehicle(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coin(s)</td>
<td>laugh(s)</td>
<td>sight(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fact(s)</td>
<td>loaf/loaves</td>
<td>storm(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hobby/hobbies</td>
<td>machine(s)</td>
<td>suggestion(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE

a Damages means 'money paid in compensation'.
He received damages for his injuries.
b Knowledge and education can be singular when the meaning is less general.
I had a good education. A knowledge of Spanish is essential.
c A help means 'helpful'.
Thanks. You've been a great help.
d Work can be countable: a work of art, the works of Shakespeare. Works can mean 'factory': a steel works. • 154(3)
e We cannot use clothes in the singular or with a number. We can say some clothes but NOT four clothes. We can say four garments or four items of clothing.
2 Use

We use the possessive form to express a relation, often the fact that someone has something or that something belongs to someone.

- Julia's coat
- Emma's idea
- my brother's friend
- the workers' jobs

The possessive usually has a definite meaning. Julia's coat means 'the coat that belongs to Julia'. But we do not say the with a singular name.

NOT the Julia's coat

For a coat of Julia's, • 174(5).

3 Possessive form or of?

a There is a pattern with of which has the same meaning as the possessive.

- my friend's name/the name of my friend

Sometimes we can use either form. But often only one form is possible.

- your father's car NOT the car of your father
- the beginning of the term NOT the term's beginning

In general we are more likely to use the possessive form with people rather than things and to talk about possession rather than about other relations.

b We normally use the possessive with people and animals.

- my friend's sister
- the dog's bone
- the Atkinsons' garden

But we use the of-pattern with people when there is a long phrase or a clause.

- It's the house of a wealthy businessman from Saudi Arabia.
- In the hall hung the coats of all the people attending the reception.

Sometimes both patterns are possible.

- the Duchess of Glastonbury's jewellery
- the jewellery of the Duchess of Glastonbury

**NOTE**

The of-pattern is sometimes possible for relations between people.

- the young man's mother/the mother of the young man

c We normally use the of-pattern with things.

- the start of the match
- the bottom of the bottle
- the day of the carnival
- the end of the film

d We can use both patterns with nouns that do not refer directly to people but suggest human activity or organization, for example nouns referring to places, companies or newspapers.

- Scotland's rivers
- the rivers of Scotland
- the company's head office
- the head office of the company
- the magazine's political views
- the political views of the magazine

4 Some other uses of the possessive

a There's a children's playground here.

You can use the customers' car park.

The possessive form can express purpose. A children's playground is a playground for children. Other examples: a girls' school, the men's toilet, a boy's jacket.
Two nouns together

1. We often use one noun before another.
   
   - *a tennis club* 
   - *money problems* 
   - *a microwave oven* 

   The first noun modifies the second, tells us something about it, what kind it is or what it is for.

   - *a tennis club* = a club for playing tennis
   - *vitamin pills* = pills containing vitamins
   - *a train journey* = a journey by train
   - *a phone bill* = a bill for using the phone

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

2. Sometimes there is a hyphen (e.g. *waste-bin*), and sometimes the two nouns are written as one (e.g. *armchair*). There are no exact rules about whether we join the words or not. • 56(5c)

3. The stress is more often on the first noun.
   
   - *tennis club* 
   - *machine-gun* 
   - *car park* 
   - *fire engine* 

   But sometimes the main stress comes on the second noun.

   - *cardboard box* 
   - *microwave oven* 
   - *town hall* 

   There are no exact rules about stress. But for more details, • (5).

4. The first noun is not normally plural.
   
   - *The Sock Shop* 
   - *a picture gallery* 
   - *an eye test* 
   - *a book case*

   **NOTE**
   Some exceptions are *a sports shop, careers information, customs regulations, a clothes rack, a goods train, systems management, an arms dealer*. For American English, • 304(2).

5. Here are some examples of the different kinds of noun + noun pattern.

   a. *a coffee table* (= a table for coffee) 
   - *a car park* 
   - *security cameras* 
   - *a cricket ball* 
   - *an oil can* (= a can for holding oil) • (6)

   **NOTE**
   a. The stress is on the first noun: *a ‘coffee table*.
   b. We can use a gerund, e.g. *a sewing-machine* (= a machine for sewing). • 283(2)

   b. *a war film* (= a film about war) 
   - *a crime story* 
   - *pay talks* 
   - *a gardening book* 
   - *a computer magazine*

   **NOTE**
   The stress is on the first noun: *a ‘war film*.

   c. *a chess player* (= someone who plays chess) 
   - *a lorry driver* 
   - *music lovers* 
   - *a concrete mixer* (= a machine that mixes concrete) 
   - *a potato peeler* 
   - *a food blender* 
   - *a sweet shop* (= a shop that sells sweets) 
   - *a biscuit factory* 
   - *steel production* (= the production of steel) 
   - *life insurance* 
   - *car theft*

   **NOTE**
   The stress is usually on the first noun: *a ‘chess player*.
   Compare these two phrases.
   - Noun + noun: *an ‘English teacher* (= someone who teaches English)
   - Adjective + noun: *an English ‘teacher* (= a teacher who is English)
2 Plural form - singular verb

The news isn't very good, I'm afraid.
Gymnastics looks difficult, and it is.

Nouns like this are news; some words for subjects of study: mathematics, statistics, physics, politics, economics; some sports: athletics, gymnastics, bowls; some games: billiards, darts, dominoes, draughts; and some illnesses: measles, mumps, shingles.

NOTE
Some of these nouns can have normal singular and plural forms when they mean physical things.
Tom laid a domino on the table.
These statistics are rather complicated. (= these figures)
Politics takes a plural verb when it means someone's views.
His politics are very left-wing. (= his political opinions)

3 Nouns with the same singular and plural form

A chemical works causes a lot of pollution.
Chemical works cause a lot of pollution.
Works can mean 'a factory' or 'factories'. When it is plural we use a plural verb.
Nouns like this are barracks, crossroads, headquarters, means, series, species, works.

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

155 Pair nouns

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

2 A pair noun is plural in form and takes a plural verb.
These trousers need cleaning. Your new glasses are very nice.
I'm looking for some scissors. Those tights are cheap.

We cannot use a or numbers, NOT a trouser and NOT two trousers

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

3 We can use pair(s) of.
This pair of trousers needs cleaning.
How have three pairs of scissors managed to disappear?
Some pair nouns are: binoculars, glasses, jeans, pants, pincers, pliers, pyjamas, scales (for weighing), scissors, shorts, spectacles, tights, trousers, tweezers.

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

156 Group nouns

1 Group nouns (sometimes called 'collective nouns') refer to a group of people, e.g. family, team, crowd. After a singular group noun, the verb can often be either singular or plural.

The crowd was/were in a cheerful mood.

There is little difference in meaning. The choice depends on whether we see the crowd as a whole or as a number of individuals.

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

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

The government wants to improve its image.
The government want to improve their image.
The crowd which has gathered here is in a cheerful mood.
The crowd who have gathered here are in a cheerful mood.

3 We use the singular to talk about the whole group. For example, we might refer to the group's size or make-up, or how it compares with others.

The class consists of twelve girls and fourteen boys.
The union is the biggest in the country.

The plural is more likely when we talk about people's thoughts or feelings.

The class don't/doesn't understand what the teacher is saying.
The union are/is delighted with their/its pay rise.

4 Some group nouns are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>army</th>
<th>company</th>
<th>group</th>
<th>population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>association</td>
<td>council</td>
<td>jury</td>
<td>press</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audience</td>
<td>crew</td>
<td>majority</td>
<td>public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>board</td>
<td>crowd</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choir</td>
<td>enemy</td>
<td>military</td>
<td>society (= club)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td>family</td>
<td>minority</td>
<td>staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>club</td>
<td>firm</td>
<td>navy</td>
<td>team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college</td>
<td>gang</td>
<td>orchestra</td>
<td>union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>committee</td>
<td>government</td>
<td>(political) party</td>
<td>university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE Military, press and public do not have a plural form. NOT the publics
We use *the* here even though this is the first mention of the captain. Because we are talking about a hovercraft, it is clear that *the captain* means the captain of the hovercraft. We use *the* for something unique in the context - there is only one captain.

A car stopped and *the* driver got out.

*You'll see a shop with paintings in the window.*

We know which window - the window of the shop just mentioned.

Now look at these examples.

A hovercraft crossing the *English Channel* was halted in rough seas.

*The* Prime Minister is to make a statement.

*The* sun was shining. *We were at home in the garden.*

*I'm just going to the post office.*

*Could I speak to the manager?* (spoken in a restaurant).

*I can't find the volume control.* (spoken while looking at a stereo)

There is only one English Channel, one Prime Minister of a country, one sun in the sky, one garden of our house and one post office in our neighbourhood. So in each example it is clear which we mean.

We often use *the* when a phrase or clause comes after the noun and defines which one is meant.

*Ours* is *the house on the corner.*

*I'd like to get hold of the idiot who left this broken glass here.*

But if the phrase or clause does not give enough information to show which one, we use *a/an.*

*He lives in a house overlooking the park.*

We cannot use *the* if there are other houses overlooking the park.

We often use *the* when an *of*-phrase follows the noun.

*We came to the edge of a lake.*

*The roof of a house was blown off in the storm.*

*Steve heard the sound of an aircraft overhead.*

**NOTE**

But we can use *a/an* before a phrase of quantity with *of.*

*Would you like a piece of toast?*

We normally use *the* in noun phrases with superlative adjectives and with *only, next, last, same, right and wrong.*

*The Sears Tower is the tallest building in the world.*

*You're the only friend I've got.*

*I think you went the wrong way at the lights.*

**NOTE**

a An *only child* is a child without brothers or sisters.

b For *next* and *last* in phrases of time, e.g. *next week*, • 169(8).

We use *the* in a rather general sense with some institutions, means of transport and communication, and with some jobs.

*This decade has seen a revival in the cinema.*

*I go to work on the train.* *Your cheque is in the post.*

*Kate has to go to the dentist tomorrow.*

Here *the cinema* does not mean a specific cinema but the cinema as an institution. *The train* means the train as a means of transport.
This paragraph contains some generalizations about animals.

**ANIMAL NOSES**

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

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

For generalizations we can use a plural or an uncountable noun on its own, or a singular noun with *a/an* or *the*.

- **Camels** can close their noses.
- **A camel** can close its nose.
- **The camel** can close its nose.

These statements are about all camels, camels in general, not a specific camel or group of camels. We do not use *the camels* for a generalization.

1. **Plural/uncountable noun on its own**

   - **Blackbirds** have a lovely song.
   - **Airports** are horrible places.
   - **People** expect good service.
   - **Time** costs **money**.

   This is the most common way of making a generalization.

2. **Alan + singular noun**

   - **A blackbird** has a lovely song.
   - **A computer** will only do what it's told to do.
   - **An oar** is a thing you row a boat with.

   Here *a blackbird* means any blackbird, any example of a blackbird. We also normally use *a/an* when explaining the meaning of a word such as *an oar*.

3. **The + singular noun**

   - **The blackbird** has a lovely song.
   - **What will the new tax mean for the small businessman?**
   - **Nobody knows who invented the wheel.**
   - **Can you play the piano?**

   Here *the blackbird* means a typical, normal blackbird, one which stands for blackbirds in general.

   We also use *the* with some groups of people described in economic terms (*the small businessman, the taxpayer, the customer*), with inventions (*the wheel, the word processor*) and with musical instruments.

   **NOTE**

   - **Sports and games** are uncountable, so we use the noun on its own: *play tennis, play chess.*
   - Compare *play the piano and play the guitar.* For American usage, • 304(3).
c In negative sentences we almost always use *any* and not *some*. This includes sentences with negative words like *never* and *hardly*.

*I can't find any nails.*  *I never have any* spare time.
We've won *hardly any* games this season.
*I'd like to get this settled without any* hassle.

d *Any* is more usual in questions, and it leaves the answer open.

*Have you got any nails?* ~ *Yes./No./I don’t know.*
*Did you catch any fish?* ~ *Yes, a few./No, not many.*

But we use *some* to give the question a more positive tone, especially when making an offer or request. It suggests that we expect the answer *yes*.

*Did you catch some fish?* (I expect you caught some fish.)
*Would you like some cornflakes?* (Have some cornflakes.)
*Could you lend me some money?* (Please lend me some money.)

e In an if-clause we can choose between *some* and *any*. *Some* is more positive.

*If you need some/any help, do let me know.*

We can use *any* in a main clause to express a condition.

**Any problems will be dealt with by our agent.**

(= *If there are any problems, they will be dealt with by our agent.*)

f We choose between *any* and *some* in the same way.

*There was someone in the phone box.*
*There isn’t anywhere to leave your coat.*
*Have you got anything/something suitable to wear?*
*Could you do something for me?*

2 **No**

a *No* is a negative word. We can use it with both countable and uncountable nouns.

*There is no alternative.*
*There are no rivers in Saudi Arabia.*
*The driver had no time to stop.*

*There is no alternative* is more emphatic than *There isn’t any alternative.*

b We can use *no* with the subject but we cannot use *any*.

*No warning was given.* *A warning was not given.*
*NOT Any warning was not given.*

c We cannot use the quantifier *no* without a noun. For *none*, • 181 (3).

3 **Some** expressing part of a quantity

We can use *some* to mean 'some but not all'.

*Some fish can change their sex.*
*Some trains have a restaurant car.*
*Some of the fish in the tank were a beautiful blue colour.*
*Some of the canals in Venice have traffic lights.*
### Half • 178(2)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Half</th>
<th>of the letter(s)/money</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>several letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>several of those letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 177(2a)</td>
<td>a few letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a few of the letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a small number of letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a little money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a bit of money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a small amount of money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>few letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>few of our letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 177(2b)</td>
<td>not many letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not many of these letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>little money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>little of the letter(s)/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not much money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not much of that letter(s)/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hardly any letters/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hardly any of the letter(s)/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>no letter(s)/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 179(2)</td>
<td>none of the letters/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>none of this letter(s)/money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Of two • 178(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neither letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neither of the letters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
23
Numbers and measurements

190 Summary

Cardinal numbers • 191
one, two, three etc

Ordinal numbers • 192
first, second, third etc

Fractions, decimals and percentages • 193
three quarters point seven five per cent

Number of times • 194
once, twice, three times etc

Times and dates • 195
We use numbers when giving the time and the date.
twenty past six October 17th

Some other measurements • 196
We also use numbers to express an amount of money, length, weight etc.

191 Cardinal numbers

1 one 11 eleven
2 two 12 twelve
3 three 13 thirteen
4 four 14 fourteen
5 five 15 fifteen
6 six 16 sixteen
7 seven 17 seventeen
8 eight 18 eighteen
9 nine 19 nineteen
10 ten 20 twenty
24 Adjectives

197 Summary

Introduction to adjectives • 198
Adjectives are words like short, old, cheap, happy, nice, electric. Most adjectives express quality; they tell us what something is like.

An adjective always has the same form, except for comparison (shorter, shortest).

The position of adjectives • 199
An adjective can come before a noun.  
a cheap shirt
It can also be a complement after be.  
This shirt is cheap.

Adjectives used in one position may change
A few adjectives can go in one position but not in the other. Some adjectives have different meanings in different positions.  
at a certain time (= specific) Are you certain? (= sure)

Adjectives after nouns and pronouns • 201
Sometimes an adjective can go after a noun or pronoun.  
shoppers eager for bargains

The order of adjectives • 202
There is usually a fixed order of adjectives before a noun.  
a nice old house

Amusing and amused, interesting and interested • 203
Adjectives in ing express the effect something has on us.  
The delay was annoying.  
Adjectives in ed express how we feel.  
The passengers were annoyed.

The + adjective • 204
We can use the + adjective for a social group.  
There's no work for the unemployed.

NOTE
There can be a phrase or clause after some adjectives.  
Adjective + prepositional phrase: I'm afraid of heights. • 236  
Adjective + to-infinitive: It's nice to have a bit of a rest. • 123
Adjective + clause: The passengers were annoyed that no information was given. • 262(6)
198 Introduction to adjectives

1 Use

PARADISE APARTMENTS

An excellent choice for an independent summer holiday, these large apartments are along an inland waterway in a quiet residential area. The friendly resort of Gulftown with its beautiful white sandy beach is only a short walk away. Restaurant and gift shop nearby.

An adjective modifies a noun. The adjectives here express physical and other qualities (large, quiet, friendly) and the writer's opinion or attitude (excellent, beautiful). The adjective residential classifies the area, tells us what type of area it is.

Adjectives can also express other meanings such as origin (an American writer), place (an inland waterway), frequency (a weekly newspaper), degree (a complete failure), necessity (an essential safeguard) and degrees of certainty (the probable result).

NOTE
a We use adjectives of quality to answer the question What... like?
   What's the area like? ~ Oh, it's very quiet.
   Adjectives of type answer the question What kind of...?
   What kind of area is it? ~ Mainly residential.
b A modifier can also be a noun, e.g. a summer holiday, a gift shop.

2 Form

a An adjective always has the same form. There are no endings for number or gender.
   an old man an old woman old people
   But some adjectives take comparative and superlative endings. • 218
   My wife is older than I am. This is the oldest building in the town.

b Most adjectives have no special form to show that they are adjectives. But there are some endings used to form adjectives from other words. • 285(5)
   careful planning a salty taste global warming artistic merit

199 The position of adjectives

1 An adjective phrase can have one or more adjectives.
   a large stadium a large, empty stadium
   For details about the order of adjectives, • 202.
   An adverb of degree can come before an adjective. • 212
   a very large stadium an almost empty stadium
   a very large, almost empty stadium

NOTE
a The adverb enough follows the adjective.
   Will the stadium be large enough?
b We can put a phrase of measurement before some adjectives.
   The man is about forty years old and six feet tall.
b Old and young referring to people often come next to the noun.
   a dignified old lady a pale young man
   Here old and young are unstressed.

  c Words for material are mostly nouns (brick), but some are adjectives (wooden).
Words for type can be adjectives (chemical) or nouns (money problems). Words for purpose are nouns (alarm clock) or gerunds (walking boots).

b In general, the adjective closest to the noun has the closest link in meaning with the noun and expresses what is most permanent about it. For example, in the phrase two excellent public tennis courts, the word tennis is closely linked to courts, whereas excellent is not linked so closely. The fact that the courts are for tennis is permanent, but their excellence is a matter of opinion.

c When two adjectives have similar meanings, the shorter one often comes first.
   a bright, cheerful smile a soft, comfortable chair
Sometimes two different orders are both possible.
   a peaceful, happy place/a happy, peaceful place

2 And and but with attributive adjectives

  a We can sometimes put and between two adjectives.
     a soft, comfortable chair a soft and comfortable chair
     But we do not normally use and between adjectives with different kinds of meanings.
     beautiful golden sands (opinion, colour)

b We use and when the adjectives refer to different parts of something.
   a black and white sweater (partly black and partly white)

We use but when the adjectives refer to two qualities in contrast.
   a cheap but effective solution

3 Predicative adjectives

  a The order of predicative adjectives is less fixed than the order before a noun.
Except sometimes in a literary style, we use and before the last adjective.
   The chair was soft and comfortable.

Adjectives expressing an opinion often come last.
   The city is old and beautiful.

NOTE
We can use nice and lovely in this pattern with and.
   The room was nice and warm. (= nicely warm)

b We can use but when two qualities are in contrast.
   The solution is cheap but effective.
203 Amusing and amused, interesting and interested

Compare the adjectives in ing and ed.

The show made us laugh. It was very amusing.
The audience laughed. They were very amused.
I talked to a very interesting man.
I was interested in what he was telling me.
I find these diagrams confusing.
I’m confused by these diagrams.
This weather is depressing, isn’t it?
Don’t you feel depressed when it rains?

Adjectives in ing express what something is like, the effect it has on us. For example, a show can be amusing, interesting or boring. Adjectives in ed express how we feel about something. For example, the audience can feel amused, interested or bored.

Some pairs of adjectives like this are:

- alarming/alarmed
- amusing/amused
- annoying/annoyed
- confusing/confused
- depressing/depressed
- disappointing/disappointed
- exciting/excited
- fascinating/fascinated
- puzzling/puzzled
- relaxing/relaxed
- surprisingly/surprised
- tiring/tired

NOTE: These words have the same form as active and passive participles.

204 The + adjective

1 Social groups

a We can use the + adjective to refer to some groups of people in society.

In the England of 1900 little was done to help the poor. (= poor people)
Who looks after the old and the sick? (= old people and sick people)
The poor means 'poor people in general'. It cannot refer to just one person or to a small group. Here it means 'poor people in England in 1900'. The poor is more impersonal than poor people.

The + adjective takes a plural verb.
The old are greatly respected.

b Here are some examples of adjectives used in this way.

Social/Economic: the rich, the poor, the strong, the weak, the hungry,
- the (under)privileged, the disadvantaged, the unemployed, the homeless
Physical/Health: the blind, the deaf, the sick, the disabled, the handicapped,
- the living, the dead
Age: the young, the middle-aged, the elderly, the old
c We sometimes put an adverb after the subject and before the verb phrase. This happens especially with a negative (probably doesn’t) or when there is stress (really ‘are).

- It probably doesn’t matter very much.
- You really are serious, aren’t you?
- An adverb also goes before have to, used to and ought to.

I never have to wait long for a bus.

Sometimes the position can affect the meaning. Compare these sentences.

- They deliberately didn’t leave the heating on. (They left it off on purpose.)
- They didn’t deliberately leave the heating on. (They left it on by mistake.)

5 End position

a I hadn’t had a drink for days.
The police were driving very slowly.
They’re doing this on purpose.

Most types of adverbial can come here, especially prepositional phrases.

b If there is an object, then the adverbial usually goes after it.

- I wrapped the parcel carefully, NOT I wrapped carefully the parcel.
- We’ll finish the job next week, NOT We’ll finish next week’s job.
- But a short adverbial can go before a long object.

I wrapped carefully all the glasses and ornaments.
- Here the adverb of manner can also go in mid position.

- I carefully wrapped all the glasses and ornaments.

We often put an adverbial in end position when it is new and important information.

- There was a police car in front of us. It was going very slowly.

NOTE
When there are two clauses, the position of the adverb can affect the meaning.

- They agreed immediately that the goods would be replaced. (an immediate agreement)
- They agreed that the goods would be replaced immediately. (an immediate replacement)

6 Order in end position

a Sometimes there is more than one adverbial in end position. Usually a shorter adverbial goes before a longer one.

- Sam waited impatiently outside the post office.
- We sat indoors most of the afternoon.
- They inspected the car thoroughly in a very officious manner.

b When there is a close link in meaning between a verb and adverbial, then the adverbial goes directly after the verb. For example, we usually put an adverbial of place next to go, come etc.

- I go to work by bus. Charles came home late.

c Phrases of time and place can often go in either order.

- There was an accident last night on the by-pass.
- There was an accident on the by-pass last night.

NOTE
A smaller place usually comes before a larger one.

- They live in a bungalow near Coventry.
3 Position

a We put an adverbial of manner mainly in end position, • 208(5). These are real examples from stories.
   'I didn't know whether to tell you or not,' she said anxiously.
   The sun still shone brightly on the quiet street.
   We continued our labours in silence.

NOTE
An adverb of manner can also modify an adjective.
   The team were quietly confident. The dog lay peacefully asleep.

b The adverbial can sometimes come in front position for emphasis. • 49(1c)
   Without another word, he walked slowly away up the strip.

210 Place and time

1 Position

a Adverbials of place and time often go in end position.
   The match will be played at Villa Park.
   The President made the comment to reporters yesterday.
   A Norwegian ferry was being repaired last night after running aground in the Thames.
   The office is closed for two weeks.
   For more than one adverbial in end position, • 208(6).

b They can also go in front position.
   I've got two meetings tomorrow. And on Thursday I have to go to London.
   For more details and an example text, • 49(1).

c Some short adverbials of time can go in mid position.
   I've just seen Debbie. We'll soon be home.
   These include now, then, just (= a short time ago), recently, soon, at once, immediately, finally, since, already, still and no longer.

d An adverbial of place or time can modify a noun.
   The radiator in the hall is leaking.
   Exports last year broke all records.

2 Yet, still and already

a We use yet for something that is expected.
   Have you replied to the letter yet? ~ No, not yet.
   I got up late. I haven't had breakfast yet.
   Yet comes at the end of a question or negative statement.

NOTE
We can use yet in mid position, but it is a little formal.
   We have not yet reached a decision on the matter.
211 Adverbs of frequency

5 After

We do not often use after on its own as an adverb.

We all went to the cinema and then afterwards to a pizza restaurant.
The talk lasted half an hour. Then/After that there was a discussion.
But we can say the day/week after.
I sent the form off, and I got a reply the week after/week later.

211 Adverbs of frequency

1 An adverb of frequency usually goes in mid position.
The bus doesn't usually stop here. I can never open these packets.
It's always cold up here. I often get up in the night.
Some adverbs of frequency are always; normally, generally, usually; often, frequently; sometimes, occasionally; seldom, rarely; never.

NOTE
a The adverb can sometimes go after the subject and before a negative auxiliary. Compare these sentences.
I don't often have breakfast. (= I seldom have breakfast.)
I often don't have breakfast. (= I often go without breakfast.)
Sometimes goes before a negative auxiliary.
You sometimes aren't here.

b Seldom and rarely are a little formal. In informal speech we use not often.
I don't often play cards.

Never is a negative word.

I've never felt so embarrassed in my life. Will you never learn?
We use ever mainly in questions.
Have you ever done any ballroom dancing? ~ No, never.
But we can also use ever with negative words.
I haven't ever felt so embarrassed.
You hardly ever buy me flowers.
Ever can add emphasis to the negative.
No one ever said that to me before.
Nothing ever happens in this place.
I never ever want to see that awful man again.
We can also use ever in conditions and comparisons.
If you ever feel like a chat, just drop in.
James swam faster than he'd ever done before.
If ever can go before the subject.
If ever you feel like a chat, just drop in.
We do not normally use ever in positive statements.
I always have lots to do. NOT I ever have lots to do.

2 Normally, generally, usually, frequently, sometimes and occasionally also go in front or end position.

Normally I tip taxi-drivers. My sister comes to see me sometimes.
Often, seldom and rarely can go in end position, especially with e.g. very or quite.
Doctors get called out at night quite often.
A lot (= often) goes in end position.
We go out a lot at weekends.

NOTE
a Always, never and often in front position are emphatic.
Always the ghost appeared at the same time.
We can use always and never in instructions.
Never try to adjust the machine while it is switched on.
b For never, seldom and rarely with inversion. • 17(6c).
c We often use very with a negative.
    These photos aren't very good.
This is more usual than These photos aren't good or These photos are bad.
d Instead of really we can use real in informal speech, especially in American English.
    It's real cold today.
e Pretty and a bit are informal.
f Somewhat, a little, a bit and slightly have an unfavourable sense.
    The carriage was somewhat crowded.
    I felt a bit sick.
But we can use them with comparatives in a favourable sense.
    I felt a bit better/somewhat more cheerful.
g At all can also go in end position.
    It wasn't interesting at all.
For phrases used to emphasize a negative, • 17(6b).
h Instead of really we can use real in informal speech, especially in American English.
    It's real cold today.
i We can use much, far or rather to modify too.
    This coat is much too big for me.
j For twice/three times as expensive, • 194(2).

b Enough comes after the adjective or adverb it modifies.
    Are you warm enough?
    Steve didn't react quickly enough.

Compare too and enough.
    It's too small (for me)/It isn't big enough (for me).

NOTE
    Compare enough as adverb and as quantifier.
    I'm not rich enough./I haven't enough money.

2 Modifying a comparative adjective or adverb

    This new sofa is much nicer than the old one. NOT very nicer
    Come on. Try a bit harder.
    The alternative route was no quicker.
Before a comparative we can use (very) much, a lot; rather, somewhat; a little, a bit, slightly; three times etc.

3 Modifying a superlative

    It was just about the nicest holiday I could have imagined.
    We offer easily the best value/by far the best value.

NOTE
    The adverb can sometimes come after the phrase with a superlative.
    We offer the best value by far.

4 So/such, quite and too

We can use most adverbs of degree with an attributive adjective.
    that very tall girl my fairly low score a rather nice restaurant
But after a/an we do not normally use so or quite.
    She's such a tall girl. NOT a so tall girl
    It's quite an old book. (a quite old book is less usual)
2 Only and even

a In rather formal or careful English we put only and even before the word or phrase we want to focus on.

_I knew only one of the other guests._
_Alan always wears shorts. He wears them even in winter._

But in informal English only and even can be in mid position.

_I only knew one of the other guests._
_Alan even wears shorts in winter._

We stress the word we want to focus on, e.g. one, winter.

**NOTE**
a Only can be an adjective.
_Saturday is the only day I can go shopping._
b We can use the adverb just (= only).
_I knew just one of the other guests._

b When we focus on the subject, we put only and even before it.

_Only you would do a silly thing like that._ (No one else would.)
_Even the experts don’t know the answer._

**NOTE** For Only then did I realize. • 17(6c).

c In official written English, e.g. on notices, only comes after the word or phrase it focusses on.

_Waiting limited to 30 minutes only._

3 Viewpoint adverbials

These express the idea that we are looking at a situation from a particular aspect or point of view.

_Financially, things are a bit difficult at the moment._
_Can you manage transport-wise, or do you need a lift?_ 
_The building is magnificent from an architectural point of view, but it’s hell to work in._

_As far as insurance is concerned, we can fix that up for you._

**NOTE**
A viewpoint adverb can also modify an adjective.
_The scheme is economically beneficial but environmentally disastrous._

214 Truth adverbs

1 A truth adverb expresses what the speaker knows about the truth of a statement: how likely it is to be true, or to what degree it is true.

_Perhaps/Maybe Mandy has missed the bus._
_You’ve certainly/undoubtedly made a good start._
_I agree with you basically._ Service isn’t included, _presumably._
_Clearly the matter is urgent._ The boxer _allegedly_ took drugs.
219 The comparative and superlative of adverbs

1. Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives, • 207(3-5). They take er/est.
   - You'll have to work harder if you want to pass the exam.
   - Let's see who can shoot the straightest.
   - Tim got to work a few minutes earlier than usual.

   **NOTE**
   - Soon also takes er/est.
     - If we all help, we'll get the job finished sooner.

2. There are a few irregular forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>well</td>
<td>better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badly</td>
<td>worse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther/further</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   **I find these pills work best.**
   - My tooth was aching worse than ever.

   **NOTE**
   - For comparison with far, • 218(5a).

3. Other adverbs take more/most. This includes almost all adverbs in ly.
   - You'll have to draw the graph more accurately than that.
   - The first speaker presented his case the most convincingly.
   - I wish we could meet more often.

   **NOTE**
   - Some adverbs can be with or without ly. • 207(4)
     - I got the bike fairly cheap/cheaply.
   - Such adverbs have two different comparative and superlative forms.
     - You could get one cheaper/more cheaply secondhand.

220 More, most, less, least, fewer and fewest

We can use these words to compare quantities.

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>more (= a larger number)</th>
<th>fewer (= a smaller number)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You've got more cassettes than me.</td>
<td>I buy fewer cassettes these days.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>most (= the largest number)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You've got the most cassettes of anyone I know.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Uncountable**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>more (= a larger amount)</th>
<th>less (= a smaller amount)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They play more music at weekends.</td>
<td>There's less music on the radio at weekends.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>most (= the largest amount)</th>
<th>least (= the smallest amount)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This station plays the most music.</td>
<td>This station plays the least music.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NOTE
The rule is that we use fewer/fewest with a plural noun.

There are fewer cars on the road in winter.
But less/least with a plural noun is common, especially in informal speech.

There are less cars on the road in winter.
It is safer for the learner to avoid this usage.

221 Patterns expressing a comparison

MOTELS IN THE USA

Many motels are every bit as elegant, comfortable, and well-equipped as the most modern hotels. Many have bars, fine restaurants and coffee shops for casual meals and breakfast. If the motel does not have a restaurant, there are always restaurants nearby. Most rooms are furnished with television. Even less expensive motels often have a swimming pool. The price for rooms in motels is usually slightly less than for hotels.

(from USA Travel Information)

1 More, as and less

We can say that something is more than, equal to or less than something else.

Most hotels are more comfortable than motels.
Some motels are as comfortable as hotels.
Some motels are less comfortable than a modern hotel.

NOTE
We can make comparisons with same, like, similar and different.

Motels are the same as hotels. Motels are like hotels.
Motels are similar to hotels. Motels are not very different from hotels.
The following words can also express a comparison.

Paris is my favourite city. (= I like it best.)
Wood is superior to plastic as a material. (= better)
The car’s speed exceeded ninety miles an hour. (= was more than)

2 Less and least

a Less and least are the opposites of more and most.

Motels are usually less expensive than hotels.
A motel will cost you less.
The subway is the least expensive way to get around New York.
We go out less often these days.

NOTE
We use less with both long and short adjectives.

It's cheaper/less expensive. It's more expensive/less cheap.

b Whether we say, for example, warmer or less cold depends on our point of view.

It was cold in the house, but it was less cold than outside.
We choose less cold here because we are talking about how cold the house was, not how warm it was. We can express the same thing using a negative sentence with as.

It was cold, but it wasn't as cold as outside.
In informal English this pattern is more usual. Less + adjective can be a little formal.
27
Prepositions

223 Summary

Introduction to prepositions • 224
A preposition is a word like in, to, for, out of.

Prepositions of place • 225
in the office under my chair across the road

Prepositions of place: more details • 225

Prepositions of time • 227
at six o'clock before dark for three weeks

Prepositions: other meanings • 228
a present for my sister a man with a beard

Idiomatic phrases with prepositions • 229
There are many idiomatic phrases.
for sale in a hurry by mistake

NOTE
There are also many idioms where a preposition comes after a verb, adjective or noun. • 230
wait for a bus afraid of the dark an interest in music
For prepositions in American English. • 306.

224 Introduction to prepositions

1 A preposition usually comes before a noun phrase.
   into the building at two o'clock without a coat
Some prepositions can also come before an adverb.
   until tomorrow through there at once

We can also use some prepositions before a gerund.
   We’re thinking of moving house.
   NOT We’re thinking of to move house.
6 Near, close and by

a Near, near to and close to mean 'not far from'.
Motherwell is near Glasgow, NOT by Glasgow
We live near (to) the hospital/ close to the hospital.

NOTE
Near (to) and close to have comparative and superlative forms.
You live nearer (to) the hospital than we do.
I was sitting closest to the door.

b Near and close can be adverbs.
The animals were very tame. They came quite near/close.

Nearby means 'not far away'.
There's a post office near here/nearby.

The preposition by means 'at the side of' or 'very near'.
We live (right) by the hospital. Come and sit by me.

d Next to means 'directly at the side of'.
We live next to the fish and chip shop.
At dinner I sat next to/beside Mrs Armstrong.

7 In front of, before, behind, after and opposite

a When we talk about where something is, we prefer in front of and behind to before and after.
There's a statue in front of the museum, NOT before the museum
The police held their riot shields in front of them.
The car behind us ran into the back of us. NOT the car after us

b Before usually means 'earlier in time', and after means 'later in time'. But we also use before and after to talk about what order things come in.
J comes before K. K comes after J.
We also use after to talk about someone following or chasing.
The thief ran across the road with a policeman after him.

c Opposite means 'on the other side from'. Compare in front of and opposite.
People were standing in front of the theatre waiting to go in.
People were standing opposite the theatre waiting to cross the road.
Gerald was standing in front of me in the queue.
Gerald was sitting opposite me at lunch.
8 Between and among

a We use *between* with a small number of items that we see as separate and individual.

*The ball went between the player's legs.*

*Tom lives somewhere in that area between the hospital, the university and the by-pass.*

For expressions such as *a link between*, • 237(2c).

b *Among* suggests a larger number.

*I was hoping to spot Marcia among the crowd.*

227 Prepositions of time

1 At, on and in

We use these prepositions in phrases saying when.

*See you at one o'clock.* *They arrived on Friday.* *We met in 1985.*

a We use *at* with a particular time such as a clock time or meal time.

*at half past five* *at breakfast (time)* *at that time* *at the moment*

We also use *at* with holiday periods of two or three days.

*at Christmas* *at Thanksgiving* *at the weekend*

*NOTE*

a USA: *on the weekend*

b We use *at* with someone's age.

*A sporting career can be over at thirty.*

b We use *on* with a single day.

*on Tuesday* *on 7th August* *on that day* *on Easter Sunday*

*NOTE*

*On* can also mean 'immediately after'.

*On his arrival, the President held a press conference.*

c We use *in* with longer periods.

*in the next few days* *in the summer holidays* *in spring* *in July* *in 1992* *in the 19th century*

We also use *in* with a part of the day.

*in the afternoon* *in the mornings*

But we use *on* if we say which day.

*on Tuesday afternoon* *on Friday mornings* *on the evening of the 12th*

*NOTE*

An exception is *at night*. Compare these sentences.

*I heard a noise in the night.* (= in the middle of the night)

*The windows are shut at night.* (= when it is night)
6 Till/until and by

a. We use till/until to say when something finishes.
   Jim will be working in Germany till/until next April.
   We sat in the pub till/until closing-time.

   NOTE
   a. Till is more informal.
   b. For from now to next April, • (7b). But NOT He'll be working there to next April.
   c. We can use up to in a positive sentence.
      He'll be working there up to next April.
   d. Till/until does not express place.
      We walked to the bridge/as far as the bridge. NOT till/until the bridge
      But it can be a conjunction.
      We walked on till/until we got to the bridge.

b. We can use not... till/until when something is later than expected.
   Sue didn't get up till/until half past ten.

c. By means 'not later than'.
   I'm always up by eight o'clock. (= at eight or earlier)
   Can you pay me back by Friday? (= on Friday or earlier)
   They should have replied to my letter by now.
   Compare before.
   Can you pay me back before Friday? (= earlier than Friday)

   NOTE For by the time as a conjunction, • (306(3))

7 From and between

a. We use from for the time when something starts.
   Tickets will be on sale from next Wednesday.
   From seven in the morning there's constant traffic noise.

   NOTE
   Compare since with the perfect.
   Tickets have been on sale since last Wednesday.

b. After the phrase with from we can use to or till/until for the time when something finishes.
   The cricket season lasts from April to September.
   The road will be closed from Friday evening till/until Monday morning.

   NOTE Americans can use through, e.g. from Friday through Monday. • 306(3)

c. We can use between for a period after one time and before another.
   Not many people work between Christmas and New Year's Day.
228 Prepositions: other meanings

1. Prepositions can have meanings other than place or time.
   
   * We were talking about the weather.
   * According to the BBC, the strike is over. (= The BBC says …)
   * Most people are against these changes. (= opposing)
   * We can have this pizza for tea. As for lunch, I’ll get a sandwich.
   * I’m reading a book by Iris Murdoch.
   * You need a pullover, so I’m knitting one for you.
   * You’d do anything for the sake of peace and quiet. (= in order to have)
   * Are you in favour of the plan? (= supporting)
   * Mrs Peterson is in charge of the department. (= head of the department)
   * Can I use a pencil instead of a pen?
   * I went to a lecture on Einstein.
   * On behalf of everyone here, I’d like to say thank you.
   * This car does at least fifty miles to the gallon.
   * It’s up to you to make your own decision.

2. With has these meanings.
   * I went to the party with a friend. (= We were together.)
   * Pete is the man with long hair. (= He has long hair.)
   * I’ll cut the wood with my electric saw. • (5)
   * They set to work with enthusiasm. (= work is done locally)
   * With people watching, I felt embarrassed. (= Because people were watching…)

   Without is the opposite of with.
   * Who’s the man without any shoes on?
   * They set to work, but without enthusiasm.

   **NOTE**
   We can leave out any after without.
   * Who’s the man without shoes on?
   But we do not normally leave out a/an after with or without. NOT I went with friend.

3. Of has a number of different meanings.
   * the handle of the door • 146(3) a tin of soup • 144(3)
   * some of my friends • 178(1c) our first sight of land • 149(3)

   We can also use of in the following pattern.
   * She’s an actress of great ability. (= She has great ability.)
   * These souvenirs are of no value.
   * He was a man of medium build.

4. Some prepositions have the same meaning as a conjunction.
   * We decided against a picnic in view of the weather.
     (= because the weather was bad)

   Such prepositions are as well as, in addition to, besides, • 244(3); in spite of, despite, • 246(4); as a result of, in consequence of, • 247(2); because of, due to, in view of, on account of, • 251(3).
7 We use except (for), apart from and but to talk about an exception.

Everyone was there except (for)/apart from Nigel, who was ill.
I hate fish. I can eat anything except/but fish.

229 Idiomatic phrases with prepositions

1 There are very many idiomatic phrases beginning with a preposition. Most of them are without a/an or the. Here are some examples.
All the money paid by investors is now at risk.
Mark always drives at top speed.
I dialled the wrong number by mistake.
I’d like to buy this picture if it’s for sale.
Try to see it from my point of view.
You have to pay half the cost of the holiday in advance.
I can’t stop. I’m in a hurry.
I drive about ten thousand miles a year, on average.
Did you go there on holiday or on business?
Mr Jones is on leave this week. He’ll be in the office next Monday.
There are so many different computers on the market.
I saw it on television.
I heard it on the radio.
I’m afraid the machine is out of order.

2 These pairs are different in meaning.

a In time (for/to) means 'early enough'; but on time means 'punctually'.
We arrived at the hotel in time for dinner/to have dinner.
The train left on time at 11.23.

NOTE
We arrived in good time for dinner. (= with plenty of time to spare)
We arrived just in time for dinner. (= with not much time to spare)

b In the end means 'finally'; but at the end (of) means 'when it finishes'.
There were many arguments, but in the end/at last we reached agreement.
No one wanted to go home at the end of the holiday.

NOTE
Compare in the beginning and at the beginning.
In the beginning/At first the company struggled to survive, but now it is extremely successful.
The students return to Oxford at the beginning of the academic year.

c In the way means 'blocking the way'; but on the way means 'on a journey'.
I couldn’t get the car out. Someone had parked right in the way.
It’s a long journey. We’d better stop for a meal on the way.
c Some verbs can take a number of different adverbs.
The child took two steps and fell down.
Enthusiasm for the project has fallen off. (= become less)
Kevin and Diana have fallen out. (= quarrelled)
I'm afraid the deal fell through. (= didn't happen)

And the most common adverbs go with many different verbs.
The cat got up a tree and couldn't climb down.
I can't bend down in these trousers.
A pedestrian was knocked down by a car.
Interest rates may come down soon.

d A phrasal verb can have more than one meaning, often a concrete and an abstract meaning.
We've been to the supermarket. Gavin is bringing in the groceries.
The government are bringing in a new law. (= introducing)

2 Some common adverbs
Here are some adverbs used in phrasal verbs.

back = in return
  ring/phone you back later, invite someone back, get your money back

down = to the ground
  knocked down, cut down a tree, break down a door

down = on paper
  write down the number, copy down, note down, take down

down = becoming less
  turn down the volume, slow down, let down the tyres

down = stopping completely
  a car that broke down, a factory closing down

down = away, departing/removing
  start off, clear off, take a day off

off = disconnected
  put off, turn off, switch off the heating, cut off your water, ring off

off = succeeding
  the plan didn't come off, managed to pull it off

on = wearing
  trying a coat on, had a sweater on, put my shoes on

on = connected
  put/turned/switched the cooker on

on = continuing
  go on, work on, hang on, keep on doing something

out = away, disappearing
  rub out these pencil marks, cross out, wipe out, put out a fire, turn out the light,
blow out a candle, iron out the creases
b We can sometimes use of meaning about, but this is rather formal.

*The Prime Minister spoke of/about prospects for industry.*

*Of* can have a different meaning from *about.*

*I was thinking about that problem.* (= turning it over in my mind)

*I couldn’t think of the man’s name.* (= it wouldn’t come into my mind)

*We’re thinking of/about taking a holiday.* (= deciding)

*What did you think of the hotel?* (= your opinion)

*I heard about your recent success.* Congratulations.

*I’ve never heard of Woolavington. Where is it?*

*Last night I dreamt about something that happened years ago.*

*I wouldn’t dream of criticizing you.* (= it wouldn’t enter my mind)

**NOTE** I’ve *heard from* Max means that Max has written to me or phoned me.

c We use *to* before a person.

*We were talking to our friends.* *They complained to the neighbours.*

**NOTE**

*a* Ring and *phone* take an object. We do not use *to.*

*I had to phone my boss.*

*b* We say laugh at, smile at and argue with.

*The children laughed at the clown.* *Are you arguing with my children?*

*c* Shout at suggests anger.

*The farmer shouted at us angrily.*

*Bruce shouted to his friends across the street.*

4 We do not normally use a preposition after these verbs: accompany, answer, approach, control, demand, desire, excuse, enter, expect, influence, lack, marry, obey, reach, remember, request, resemble, seek, suit.

*Elizabeth Taylor entered the room.* NOT She entered into the room.

*The rebels control the city.* NOT They control over the city.

**NOTE**

*a* But a noun takes a preposition.

*her entry into the room* *their control over the city*

*b* Compare *leave* (= depart) and *leave for* (a destination).

*The train leaves Exeter at ten fifteen.* (= goes from Exeter)

*The train leaves for Exeter at ten fifteen.* (= departs on its journey to Exeter)

*For* has the same meaning in this example.

*The walkers were heading for/making for the coast.*

*c* Compare *search* and *search for*.

*The police searched the whole house.* They were *searching for/looking for* drugs.

---

**234 Verb + object + preposition**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some companies</td>
<td>spend</td>
<td>a lot of money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They’ve</td>
<td>invited</td>
<td>us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you</td>
<td>regard</td>
<td>this building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the passive, the preposition comes directly after the verb.

*A lot of money is spent on advertising.*

*We’ve been invited to the wedding.*
f Method, answer etc
   a way/method of improving your memory the question of finance
   the answer/solution/key to the problem a scheme for combating crime
   the cause of/reason for the accident

g Need, wish etc
   These nouns take for: appetite, application, demand, desire, need, preference,
   request, taste, wish.
   a need for low-cost housing a desire for peace and quiet

   NOTE
   Hope takes of or for.
   There's no chance/hope of getting there in time.
   Our hopes of for a good profit were disappointed.

h Opinion, belief etc
   your opinion of the film his attitude to/towards his colleagues
   a belief in conservative values an attack on the scheme
   no regard/respect for our institutions sympathy for the losers
   people's reaction to the news

i Report, complaint etc
   a report on/about agriculture a comment on/about the situation
   an interview with the President about the military action
   a complaint about the noise

j Student, ability etc
   a student of law great ability in/at music
   a knowledge of the rules research into waste-recycling
   her skill at handling people an expert on/at/in work methods
   some experience of/in selling

   NOTE
   Compare success in, success at and make a success of.
   We had some success in our attempts to raise money.
   I never had any success at games.
   Alan made a success of the taxi business.

k Trouble etc
   having trouble with the computer What's the matter with it?
   some damage to my car a difficulty over/with the arrangements
   a lack of money
243 Summary

We can use a conjunction to link two main clauses together in a sentence.

*Tom had no food, and he had to pay the rent.*

We can use an adverb or a prepositional phrase to link the meaning of two main clauses or two sentences.

*Tom had no food, and he also had to pay the rent.*

*Tom had no food. He also had to pay the rent.*

*Tom had to buy some food. Besides that, there was the rent.*

Words meaning 'and'

- and, too, as well (as), either, also, in addition (to), besides, furthermore, moreover, both... and..., not only... but also...

Words meaning 'or'

- or, either ... or..., neither... nor...

Words meaning 'but'

- but, though, however, nevertheless, even so, all the same, although, even though, in spite of, despite, whereas, while, on the other hand

Words meaning 'so'

- so, therefore, as a result (of), in consequence (of)

244 Words meaning 'and'

1. We can use *and* to link two clauses.

   *Gene Tunney was a boxer, and he lectured on Shakespeare.*

The adverbs *too* and *as well* are more emphatic than *and.*

   *Gene Tunney was a boxer. He lectured on Shakespeare, *too/as well.*

These adverbs usually come in end position.

The negative is *either.*

   *I haven't got a car, and I haven't got a bike *either.*

   *NOT I haven't got a bike too/as well.*

Also usually goes in mid position.

   *Gene Tunney was a boxer, and he *also* lectured on Shakespeare.*
Librarian: No, that's the class number. The number - the accession number - you'll find if you open the book on the fly-leaf. It's usually about six numbers at least. And if you'd give us that, the date that is stamped on the date label - the last date stamped - and your name and address.

Reader: Uh-huh. If I do that, how do I know that it's all right? I mean, if you want the book back, do you write to me?

Librarian: Yes, we would do that if you had written in, but of course, if you'd telephoned or called in we could tell you then.

(from M. Underwood Listen to This!)

Conditions express different degrees of reality. For example, a condition can be open or unreal.

Open: If you join the library, you can borrow books.

Unreal: If you'd arrived ten minutes later, we would have been closed.

An open condition expresses something which may be true or may become true. (You may join the library). An unreal condition expresses something which is not true or is imaginary. (You did not arrive later.)

NOTE
A condition can also be definitely true.

I'm tired. ~ Well, if you're tired, let's have a rest.

The meaning here is similar to You're tired, so let's have a rest.

2 We can use conditional sentences in a number of different ways, for example to request, advise, accept, suggest, offer, warn or threaten.

If you're going into town, could you post this letter for me?

If you need more information, you should see your careers teacher.

If you hadn't forgotten your passport, we wouldn't be in such a rush.

We can go for a walk if you like.

If I win the prize, I'll share it with you.

If you're walking along the cliff top, don't go too near the edge.

If you don't leave immediately, I'll call the police.

257 Verbs in conditional sentences

1 Introduction

a We can use many different verb forms in conditional sentences. Here are some real examples.

If you haven't got television, you can't watch it.
If you go to one of the agencies, they have a lot of temporary jobs.
If someone else has requested the book, you would have to give it back.
If you lived on the planet Mercury, you would have four birthdays in a single Earth year.

In general we use verb forms in conditional sentences in the same way as in other kinds of sentences. In open conditions we use the present to refer to the future (if you go to one of the agencies). When we talk about something unreal we often use the past (if you lived) and would (you would have four birthdays).

NOTE
When the condition is true, we use verb forms in the normal way.

Well, if your friends left half an hour ago, they aren't going to get to Cornwall by tea time.
2 But we can use *tell* without an indirect object in these expressions.

Paul *told* (us) a very funny *story/joke.* You must *tell* (me) the truth.

You mustn’t *tell* (people) lies. The pupils have learnt to *tell* the time.

3 After *say* we can use a phrase with *to,* especially if the information is not reported.

*The mayor will say* a few words *to* the guests. *What did the boss say* to you?

But when the information is reported we use these patterns.

*The boss said* he’s leaving/told us he’s leaving.

This is much more usual than *The boss said* to me he’s leaving.

**NOTE**

With direct speech we can use *say* to.

‘I’m OK,’ Celia *told* me. ‘I’m OK,’ Celia *said* (to me). ‘Are you OK?’ Celia asked (me).

## 267 Changes in indirect speech

### 1 People, place and time

Imagine a situation where Martin and Kate need an electrician to do some repair work for them. Kate rings the electrician.

Electrician: *I’ll be at your house at nine tomorrow morning.*

A moment later Kate reports this to Martin.

Kate: *The electrician says he’ll be here at nine tomorrow morning.*

Now the speaker is different, so *I* becomes the electrician or *he.* The speaker is in a different place, so *at your house* becomes *here* for Kate.

But next day the electrician does not come. Kate rings him later in the day.

Kate: *You said you would be here at nine this morning.*

Now the time is a day later, so *tomorrow morning* becomes *this morning.* And the promise is now out of date, so *will* becomes *would.* (For the tense change, • 268.)

Whenever we report something, we have to take account of changes in the situation - a different speaker, a different place or a different time.

### 2 Adverbials of time

Here are some typical changes from direct to indirect speech. But remember that the changes are not automatic; they depend on the situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct speech</th>
<th>Indirect speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>then/at that time/immediately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
<td>yesterday/that day/on Tuesday etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td>the day before/the previous day/on Monday etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tomorrow</td>
<td>the next day/the following day/on Wednesday etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this week</td>
<td>last week/that week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last year</td>
<td>the year before/the previous year/in 1990 etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>next month</td>
<td>the month after/the following month/in August etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an hour ago</td>
<td>an hour before/an hour earlier/at two o’clock etc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE**

When we are talking about something other than time, *this*/*that* usually changes to *the* or *it.*

‘This steak is nice.’ Dan said the steak was nice.

‘I like that.’ Paula saw a coat. She said she liked it.
268 Tenses in indirect speech

1 Verbs of reporting

a A verb of reporting can be in a present tense.

*The forecast says it's going to rain.*

*Karen tells me she knows the way.*

*I've heard they might close this place down.*

Here the present tense suggests that the words were spoken only a short time ago and are still relevant. For written words, • 64(2f).

After a present-tense verb of reporting, we do not change the tense in indirect speech.

*I'm hungry.* Robert says he's hungry.

**NOTE**

After a present-tense verb of reporting, the past tense means past time.

*The singer says he took drugs when he was younger.*

b When we see the statement as in the past, the verb of reporting is in a past tense.

*Robert said he's hungry.*

*Karen told me yesterday that she knows the way.*

We can use the past even if the words were spoken only a moment ago.

2 The meaning of the tense change

When the verb of reporting is in a past tense, we sometimes change the tense in indirect speech from present to past.

a If the statement is still relevant, we do not usually change the tense, although we can do.

*I know the way.* Karen told me she knows/knew the way, so there's no need to take a map.

*I'm hungry.* Robert said he's/he was hungry, so we're going to eat.

b We can change the tense when it is uncertain if the statement is true. Compare these examples.

*We'd better not go out. The forecast said it's going to rain.*

*I hope it doesn't rain. ~ It might. The forecast said it was going to rain.*

The present tense *(is)* makes the rain sound more likely. We are more interested in the fact of the rain than in the forecast. The past tense *(was)* makes the rain less real. We are expressing the idea that it is a forecast, not a fact.

c We use the past tense when we are reporting objectively, when we do not want to suggest that the information is necessarily true.

*I'm not interested in money.* Tom told me he wasn't interested in money.

*Our policies will be good for the country.* The party said its policies would be good for the country.

d When a statement is untrue or out of date, then we change the tense.

*Karen told me she knew the way, but she took the wrong turning.*

*The forecast said it was going to rain, and it did.*
Relative clauses with commas • 274
In an adding clause or connective clause we cannot use that, and we cannot leave out the pronoun.

The first bus, which came after five minutes, was a seven.

Whose • 275
The player whose goal won the game was Jones.

Participle relative clauses • 276
The bus coming now is ours.
The player injured in the leg had to leave the field.

Infinitive relative clauses • 277
United were the first team to score.

Which relating to a clause • 278
United won easily, which pleased their fans.

Relative adverbs • 279
That’s the stop where we catch the bus.

The relative pronoun what • 280
United’s fans got what they wanted.

Whoever, whatever and whichever • 281
Whoever used the pans should wash them up.

272 Introduction to relative clauses

SEVERN BODY CLUE

A body recovered from the River Severn at Tewkesbury at the weekend is thought to be a man who disappeared from the Midlands in January, police said yesterday.

(from The Guardian)

There are two relative clauses. Each clause relates to a noun (body, man). The second clause begins with a relative pronoun (who). The pronoun joins the relative clause to the main clause.

The body is that of a man. He disappeared in January.
The body is that of a man who disappeared in January.
6 Overview: who, whom, which and that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People</th>
<th>Things</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Object of verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the man who was talking</td>
<td>the man who we met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the man that was talking</td>
<td>the man that we met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the man we met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the man whom we met</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Object of preposition: the man who we talked to
the man that we talked to
the man whom we talked to
the man to whom we talked

the music which was playing
the music that was playing
the music which we heard
the music that we heard
the music we heard

274 Relative clauses with commas

1 An adding clause (or 'non-identifying clause') adds extra information. This news item contains a sentence with an adding clause.

A bank robber escaped from prison last week, after climbing aboard a helicopter that had been hijacked by an armed accomplice, in Brittany. Claude Riviere, who was sentenced to 15 years imprisonment in 1987, leapt into the helicopter while on an exercise period. (from Early Times)

The clause adds extra information that the reader may not know. But if we leave out the adding clause, the sentence still makes sense.

There are often adding clauses in informative texts. They are rather formal and typical of a written style.

For the difference between identifying and adding clauses, • 272(5).

2 We separate the adding clause from the main clause, usually with commas. We can also use dashes or brackets.

Einstein, who failed his university entrance exam, discovered relativity.

The new manager is nicer than the old one - whom the staff disliked.

The cat (whose name was Molly) was sitting on the window-sill.

The drugs, which were hidden in bars of chocolate, have a street value of £20 million.

In an adding clause we use who, whom, whose or which but not that. And we cannot leave out the pronoun from an adding clause.

3 A preposition can go before the pronoun, or it can stay in the same place as in a main clause.

Tim’s hobby is photography, on which he spends most of his spare cash.

Tim’s hobby is photography, which he spends most of his spare cash on.

It is more informal to leave the preposition at the end.
Word-building

282 Summary

Compounds • 283
Some words are formed by combining two different words to make a compound.
\[\text{bath} + \text{room} = \text{bathroom}\]
It is usually shorter and neater to say \textit{a bathroom} than \textit{a room with a bath in it}.

Prefixes • 284
We can add a prefix to a word. For example, we can add the prefix \textit{inter} in front of the adjective \textit{national}. A prefix adds something to the meaning.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{Is it a flight between different countries?}
  \item \textit{Is it an international flight?}
\end{itemize}
Here the pattern with the prefix is neater.

Suffixes • 285
We can add a suffix to a word. For example, we can add the suffix \textit{ness} to the adjective \textit{kind} to form the noun \textit{kindness}.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{We won\'t forget the fact that you\'ve been so kind.}
  \item \textit{We won\'t forget your kindness.}
\end{itemize}
The pattern with the abstract noun is neater.

Vowel and consonant changes • 286
Some related words have a different sound, e.g. \textit{hot} and \textit{heat}.

Words belonging to more than one class • 287
Some words belong to more than one class. For example, \textit{cost} is both a verb and a noun.

\begin{itemize}
  \item The shoes \textit{cost} £50.
  \item the \textit{cost} of the shoes
\end{itemize}

Nationality words • 288
We can use most nationality words as adjectives and as nouns.

\begin{itemize}
  \item a \textit{Canadian} town
  \item He\'s a \textit{Canadian}.
\end{itemize}
**WORD-BUILDING PAGE 372**

h Noun + ly: friendly, costly, cowardly, neighbourly, monthly

i Verb + able/ible: eatable, manageable, excusable, acceptable, comprehensible, defensible
These mean that something 'can be done'.

This sweater is washable. (= It can be washed.)
But not all adjectives in able/ible have this meaning, e.g.
pleasurable (= giving pleasure), valuable (= worth a lot).

j Verb + ing: exciting, fascinating • 203

k Verb + ed: excited, fascinated • 203

6 Adverbs

We form many adverbs from an adjective + ly, e.g. quickly. • 207

286 Vowel and consonant changes

1 Sometimes two related words have a different vowel sound.

It was very hot. We could feel the heat.
Also: blood bleed, food feed, full feel, lose loss, proud pride, sell sale, shop shop, sing song, sit seat, tell tale

2 There can be a different consonant sound.

That's what I believe. That's my belief.
Also: advise advice, descend descent, prove proof, speak speech

3 Sometimes more than one sound changes: choose choice, lend loan, live live, life life, succeed success, think thought

287 Words belonging to more than one class

1 Many words can be both verbs and nouns.

Verb: You mustn't delay. I hope I win.
Noun: a short delay my hope of victory

Some words of this kind are answer, attack, attempt, call, care, change, climb, control, copy, cost, damage, dance, delay, doubt, drink, drive, experience, fall, help, hit, hope, interest, joke, laugh, look, love, need, promise, rest, ride, run, search, sleep, smile, sound, swim, talk, trouble, visit, wait, walk, wash, wish.

NOTE For We swim/We have a swim, • 87.

2 Some verbs and nouns differ in their stress. The verb is usually stressed on the second syllable, and the noun is stressed on the first.

Verb: How do you trans'port the goods?
Noun: What 'transport do you use?
Summary

Some words have grammatical endings. A noun can have a plural or possessive form: *friends, friend's*. A verb can have an s-form, ed-form or ing-form: *asks, asked, asking*. Some adjectives can have a comparative and superlative form: *quicker, quickest*. A word can also end with a suffix: *argument, idealist, weekly, drinkable*. When we add these endings to a word, there are sometimes changes in pronunciation or spelling.

The *s/es* ending

To form a regular noun plural or the s-form of a verb, we usually add *s*.

- *rooms*  *games*  *looks*  *opens*  *hides*  
- *kisses*  *watches*  *bushes*  *taxes*  

After a sibilant sound we add *es*.

But if the word ends in *e*, we add *s*.

- *places*  *supposes*  *prizes*  

The *ed* ending

Leaving out *e*

- *make*  *making*  *insure*  *insurance*  

The doubling of consonants

Consonant + *y*

- *big*  *bigger*  *regret*  *regrettable*  
- *easy*  *easily*  *beauty*  *beautiful*  

290 The *s/es* ending

To form a regular noun plural or the s-form of a verb, we usually add *s*.

- *rooms*  *games*  *looks*  *opens*  *hides*  
- *kisses*  *watches*  *bushes*  *taxes*  

But if the word ends in *e*, we add *s*.

- *places*  *supposes*  *prizes*  

The *ed* ending

Leaving out *e*

- *make*  *making*  *insure*  *insurance*  

The doubling of consonants

Consonant + *y*
The usual plural of penny is pence, e.g. fifty pence. Pennies are individual penny coins.

297 Nouns which do not change in the plural

Some nouns have the same form in the singular and plural.

Singular: One aircraft was shot down.

Plural: Two aircraft were shot down.

These nouns are aircraft, hovercraft, spacecraft, some animals, e.g. sheep, deer, some kinds of fish, e.g. cod, salmon; and some nouns ending in s, e.g. headquarters, means.

NOTE
a Some measurements (e.g. pound, foot) can be singular after a plural number, e.g. two pound/pounds fifty.
b For six hundred and twenty, • 191(1) Note c.

298 Irregular plural endings

1 en/ ən/
   child /tʃaɪld/     children /ˈtʃɪldrən/     ox     oxen

2 a /ə/
   criterion     criteria     phenomenon     phenomena     medium     media
   curriculum     curricula

NOTE Some nouns in on and um are regular, e.g. electrons, museums.

3 i /ai/  
   stimulus     stimuli     cactus     cacti /cactuses
   nucleus     nuclei / nucleuses

NOTE Some nouns in us are regular: choruses, bonuses.

4 ae /i:/
   formula     formulae / formulas

5 es /ɪz/  
   analysis     analyses     crisis     crises     hypothesis     hypotheses
Irregular verb forms

Summary

A regular verb takes the endings *s*, *ed* and *ing*. For example, base form *look*, *s*-form *looks*, past tense *looked*, *ing*-form *looking* and past/passive participle *looked*. For more details, • 58.

List of irregular verbs • 300

Some verbs have an irregular past tense and participle:

Base form:  
Past tense: 
Past participle:

We also use the irregular forms after a prefix such as *re*, *un*, *out*, *mis*.

Special participle forms • 301

Some special participle forms come before a noun.

List of irregular verbs

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Glossary

abstract noun  See concrete noun.

action verb  a verb that refers to something happening or changing, e.g. do, walk, buy, speak • 62

active  See passive.

active participle  the ing-form of a verb used after be in the continuous (I was watching) and in other patterns • 134

adding relative clause  a clause with commas around it that adds extra information, e.g. Bernard, who was feeling unwell, left early. • 274

adjective  a word like big, new, special, famous • 197

adjective phrase  An adjective phrase is either an adjective on its own, e.g. sweet, tall, hopeful, or an adjective with an adverb of degree, e.g. very sweet, a lot taller, quite hopeful.

adverb  In the sentence The time passed slowly, the word slowly is an adverb. Adverbs are words like easily, there, sometimes, quite, hardly. They express ideas such as how, when or where something happens, or how true something is.

adverb phrase  An adverb phrase is either an adverb on its own, e.g. carefully, often, probably, or a phrase which is modified by an adverb of degree, e.g. very carefully, more often, quite probably.

adverbial  The adverb late, the phrase in a hurry and the clause because I was cold all function as adverbials in these sentences: The show started late. We did everything in a hurry. I put a coat on because I was cold.

adverbial clause  In the sentence I’ll ring you when I get home, the clause when I get home functions as an adverbial. Compare I’ll ring you later. • 248

agent  The agent is the person, animal or thing doing the action. In an active sentence it is the subject: Max told me the news. In a passive sentence there is sometimes an agent after by: I was told the news by Max.

agreement  the choice of the correct verb form after a subject: My ear torts but My ears hurt. •150

apostrophe  In the phrase Karen's friend there is an apostrophe between Karen and s.

apposition  In the sentence The Chairman, Mr Byers, was absent, the two noun phrases are in apposition. • 14

article  A/an is the indefinite article, and the is the definite article.

aspect  A verb can have continuous aspect (is walking, was looking) or perfect aspect (has walked, had looked), or both (have been waiting).

attributive  the position of an adjective before a noun, e.g. a cold day

auxiliary verb  a verb such as be, have, do, will, can which we use with an ordinary verb • 60 (2)

bare infinitive  an infinitive without to, e.g. come, drive •115

base form  the form of a verb without an ending, e.g. come, call, decide

classifying relative clause  a relative clause that tells us what kind is meant, e.g. a computer that will correct my spelling • 272 (3b)

clause  The sentence We stayed at home is a single clause. The sentence We stayed at home because it rained has two clauses. We stayed at home is the main clause,
ing-form  the form of a verb with ing added, e.g. making, flying, used as gerund or active participle.

intonation  the rise and fall of the voice • 54

intransitive verb  a verb that cannot take an object, although it may have a prepositional phrase after it, e.g. Something happened. You must listen to me.
• 8

invert/inversion  Inversion means changing the order. In the question Has the play started? there is inversion of subject and auxiliary verb (The play has started.).

irregular  See regular.

linking adverb  e.g. also, however, finally • 216

linking verb  a verb like be, seem, become, look, feel that can take a complement • 9

literary  A literary style is a formal style typical of literature, of writing.

main clause  A sentence has one or more main clauses, e.g. It rained or It rained and I got wet. A main clause can have a sub clause, e.g. I woke up when the door went off. Here I woke up is the main clause, and when the door went off is a sub clause. A main clause can stand on its own, but a sub clause is part of the main clause. •239(2)

main verb  the finite verb in a main clause, e.g. I like classical music. Hearing a knock, he jumped up. Your friend will expect us to be ready.

manner  An adverb or a preposition tells us how something happens, e.g. sadly, in a hurry. • 209

mid position  in the middle of the sentence, after an auxiliary verb but before an ordinary verb, e.g. I was just writing a note. For details • 208(4).

modal (auxiliary) verb  The modal verbs are will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, need, ought to, dare.

modifier/modify  In the phrase a narrow street, the adjective narrow is a modifier. It modifies the noun street. It changes our idea of the street by giving more information about it. Other kinds of words can modify: I’ve got a tennis ball. We stopped suddenly.

nationality word  e.g. English, French, Japanese, Mexican • 288

negative  A negative sentence has n’t or not or a negative word such as never, nothing. • 17

nominalization  expressing the meaning of a clause (e.g. They are enthusiastic) in a noun phrase (Their enthusiasm is obvious.) • 149

non-finite  See finite.

noun  a word like desk, team, apple, information •141

noun clause  In the sentence I knew that England had won, the noun clause that England had won functions as the object. Compare I knew the result. • 260

noun phrase  a noun or pronoun on its own, e.g. butter, Helen, you, or a group of words that can function as a subject, object or complement, e.g. a shop, my bag, a lot of spare time • 143

object  In the sentence He was wearing a sweater, the noun phrase a sweater is the object. The object usually comes after the verb. See also indirect object, prepositional object.

object complement  a complement that relates to the object of the sentence, e.g. The quarrel made Al unhappy. They voted her their leader. • 11

ordinary verb  a verb such as write, stay, invite, sell, not an auxiliary verb
present perfect  a form with the present of have and a past participle, e.g. *it has arrived*, *we have begun* • 65

present perfect continuous  a form with the present of have + been + active participle: *she has been working all day* • 67

present simple  the present tense without an auxiliary, e.g. *we know*, *she travels* • 64

pronoun  A pronoun is a word that functions like a noun phrase, e.g. *you*, *he*, *ourselves*, *someone* • 183

quantifier  a word saying how many or how much, e.g. *all*, *some*, *half*, *a lot of*, *enough*

question  a sentence which asks for information • 21

question phrase  a phrase with *what* or *how*, e.g. *what time*, *how long* • 28

question tag  a short question added to the end of a statement, e.g. *That was nice, wasn’t it?* • 34

question word  These words can be used as question words: *who*, *whom*, *what*, *which*, *whose*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *how*. • 27

reflexive pronoun  a pronoun such as *myself* or *themselves* referring to the subject, e.g. *David blamed himself for the accident*. • 186

regular  A regular form is the same as most others; it follows the normal pattern. The verb *call* has a regular past tense *called*. But the verb *sing* has an irregular past tense *sang*.

relative adverb  *where*, *when* and *why* in a relative clause, e.g. *the hotel where we stayed* • 279

relative clause  a clause that modifies a noun, e.g. *the woman who called yesterday*, *the car you were driving*, *people going home from work* • 271

relative pronoun  a word like *who*, *which*, *that* in a relative clause, e.g. *the person who started the argument*

s-form  the form of a verb with *s* or *es* added, e.g. *The weather looks good.*

sentence  A sentence can be a statement, question, imperative or exclamation; • 15. It consists of one or more clauses. A written sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (.) or question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!).

sequence of tenses  the use of the same tense in the main clause and sub clause, e.g. *I’m going to Greece because I like it there*. (both present), *I realized I had given the wrong answer*. (both past)

short answer  a subject + auxiliary used to answer a question, e.g. *Who’s winning? ~ You are*. • 29(4) See also yes/no short answer.

short form  Some words can be written in a full form or a short form, e.g. *have* or ‘*ve’. In the short form we use an apostrophe in place of part of the word. • 55(2)

sibilant  the sounds /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ /ts/ and /ðʒ/.

simple tenses  the present simple or past simple tense without an auxiliary, e.g. *it opens*, *it opened*

singular  A singular form refers to one thing only. *Car* is singular; *cars* is plural.

state verb  a verb that refers to something staying the same, not an action, e.g. *be*, *belong*, *remain*, *know* • 62

statement  a sentence which gives information, not a question or request • 16

stress  speaking a word or syllable with more force and so making it sound more important

strong form  See weak form.
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