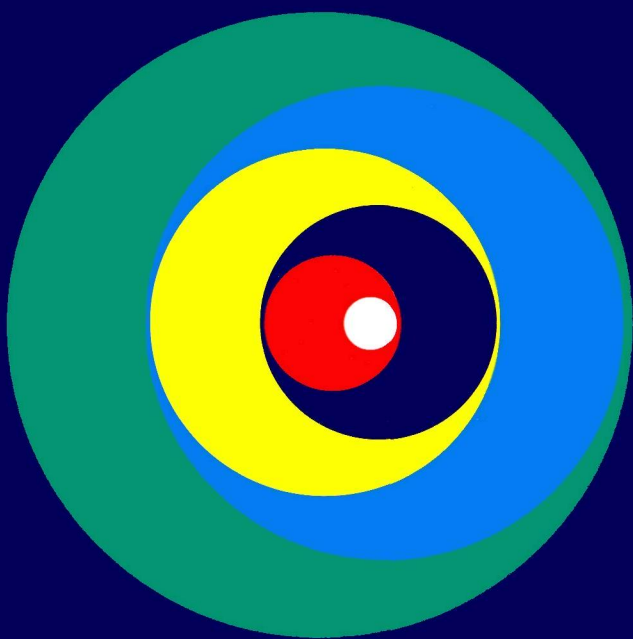


John Eastwood

OXFORD GUIDE TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Preview from Notesale
Page 1 of 453



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 phrases: 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.

Subject	Verb	Adverbial
---------	------	-----------

<i>The flight</i>	<i>is leaving</i>	<i>shortly.</i>
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Subject	Verb	Complement
---------	------	------------

<i>The weather</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>very good.</i>
<i>My father</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>a pilot.</i>

Subject	Verb	Object
---------	------	--------

<i>I</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>reading a newspaper.</i>
<i>Two stewards</i>	<i>served</i>	<i>lunch.</i>

Subject	Verb	Object	Adverbial
---------	------	--------	-----------

<i>The aircraft</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>London</i>	<i>at three o'clock.</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>must book</i>	<i>the tickets</i>	<i>next week.</i>

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

Subject	Noun phrase: <i>the flight, I, two stewards</i>
---------	---

Verb	Verb phrase: <i>is, served, must book</i>
------	---

Object	Noun phrase: <i>a newspaper, lunch</i>
--------	--

Complement	Adjective phrase: <i>very good</i> Noun phrase: <i>a pilot</i>
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Adverbial	Adverb phrase: <i>shortly</i> Prepositional phrase: <i>at three o'clock</i> Noun phrase: <i>next week</i>
-----------	---

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).*

*A woman was **driving** (the coach).*

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 (a few 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

Intransitive

*The driver **stopped the coach**.*

*The coach **stopped**.*

*He **opened the door**.*

*The door **opened**.*

*I **broke a cup**.*

*The cup **broke**.*

*Someone **rang the bell**.*

*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:

<i>alter</i>	<i>develop</i>	<i>increase</i>	<i>shine</i>	<i>tear</i>
<i>begin</i>	<i>divide</i>	<i>join</i>	<i>shut</i>	<i>turn</i>
<i>bend</i>	<i>drive</i>	<i>melt</i>	<i>slide</i>	<i>weaken</i>
<i>boil</i>	<i>dry</i>	<i>mix</i>	<i>smash</i>	<i>unite</i>
<i>break</i>	<i>end</i>	<i>move</i>	<i>soften</i>	
<i>burn</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>open</i>	<i>sound</i>	
<i>change</i>	<i>fly</i>	<i>pour</i>	<i>spread</i>	
<i>close</i>	<i>freeze</i>	<i>ring</i>	<i>stand</i>	
<i>cook</i>	<i>hang</i>	<i>roll</i>	<i>start</i>	
<i>combine</i>	<i>harden</i>	<i>sail</i>	<i>stop</i>	
<i>continue</i>	<i>hurt</i>	<i>separate</i>	<i>strengthen</i>	
<i>crash</i>	<i>improve</i>	<i>shake</i>	<i>swing</i>	

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.)

NOTE

- a The adverbial or indirect object is often necessary to complete the meaning.

*He handed the receipt **to the customer**.*

But sometimes it is not necessary to mention the person receiving something.

*You'll have to **show your ticket** on the train.*

(It is obvious that you show it to the ticket inspector.)

*I'm writing **a letter**.*

(You don't want to say who you are writing to.)

- b Most verbs of speech cannot take an indirect object, but we can use a phrase with *to*.

*The man said nothing **to the police**.*

But *to* is almost always has an indirect object. 66

*The man told **the police** nothing.*

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 dogs' 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's sit outside* 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. **Don't let's** waste any time.*

Emphatic: ***Do let's** be seated. We've wasted enough time already.*

NOTE

a For American usage, • 303(3).

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.

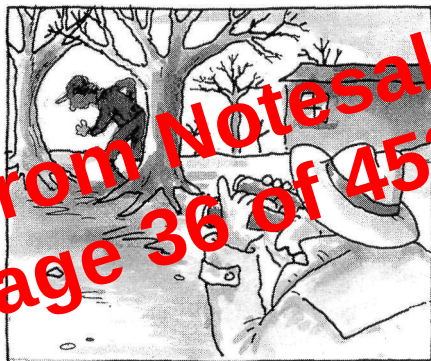
NOTE

- 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?
(Someone saw him.)

Who **did** the detective **see**?
(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*, *many* or a number, or it can be a noun on its own. It can also have 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 on my desk.*

*There are **several** vans in a week.*

*There was **a taste** 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.

*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. • 5(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

***There's** a young lady at the door.*

(= A young lady is at the door.)

***There's** a wind today.*

(= A wind is blowing.)

***There** weren't any classes.*

(= No classes took place.)

***There** isn't any truth in the story.*

(= The story has no truth in it).

it

***It's** Lorraine.*

(= **The** young lady is Lorraine.)

*Yes, **it's** windy.*

(= **The** weather is windy.)

***It** was Saturday.*

(= **The** day was Saturday.)

***It** isn't true what they say.*

(= **What they say** isn't true.)

Preview from Notesale
Page 67 of 453

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.

	Strong	Weak
Spoken	/æm/	/m/
Written	Full <i>am</i>	Short <i>'m</i>

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 /ən/
<i>Have you got a dog or a cat?~</i>	<i>Have you got any dogs?~</i>
<i>We've got a dog <u>and</u> a cat.</i>	<i>Yes, we've got a dog <u>and</u> a cat.</i>

- b These are the main weak forms.

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

<i>am</i> /əm/ or /m/	<i>be</i> /bɪ/	<i>have</i> /həv/ or /v/	<i>do</i> /dʊ/ or /də/
<i>is</i> /z/	<i>been</i> /bɪn/	<i>has</i> /həz/, /əz/ or /z/	
<i>are</i> /ə(r)/	<i>was</i> /wəz/	<i>had</i> /həd/, /əd/ or /d/	
	<i>were</i> /wə(r)/		

Modal verbs

<i>can</i> /kən/	<i>will</i> /l/	<i>shall</i> /ʃəl/ or /ʃl/	<i>must</i> /məst/ or /məs/
<i>could</i> /kd/	<i>would</i> /wəd/, /əd/ or /d/	<i>should</i> /ʃd/	

Articles

<i>a</i> /ə/	<i>an</i> /ən/	<i>the</i> /ði/ or /ðə/	<i>some</i> /səm/ or /sm/ ▷ 179(3)
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Pronouns and possessives

<i>me</i> /mi/	<i>you</i> /jʊ/	<i>he</i> /hi/ or /ɪ/	<i>she</i> /ʃɪ/	<i>them</i> /ðəm/ or /m/
<i>we</i> /wɪ/	<i>your</i> /jə(r)/	<i>him</i> /ɪm/	<i>her</i> /hə(r)/ or /ə(r)/	
		<i>his</i> /ɪz/		

Prepositions

<i>at</i> /ət/	<i>of</i> /əv/ or /v/	<i>as</i> /əz/	<i>from</i> /frəm/
<i>to</i> /tʊ/ or /tə/	<i>for</i> /fə(r)/	<i>than</i> /ðən/	

Other words

<i>that</i> /ðət/ (as conjunction or relative pronoun)	<i>and</i> /ænd/, /ən/ or /n/
<i>there</i> /ðə(r)/ ▷ 50(2g)	<i>not</i> /nt/

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*.

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.

Actions

*We're **having** lunch now.*

(action-'eating')

*We're **thinking** about moving.*

(action - 'deciding')

*Jeff **tasted** the soup.*

expect/expecting trouble

imagine/imagining the result

care/caring for the sick

admire/admiring the view

(= looking at it with pleasure)

look/looking at a picture

smell/smelling the powder

appear/appearing in a film

measure/measuring the door

weigh/weighing the luggage

fit/fitting a new switch **fit**

cost/costing a project

States

*We **have** a big kitchen.*

(state-'own')

*I **think** we ought to move.*

(state - 'believe')

*The soup **tasted** like water*

expect so (= believe)

imagine so (= believe)

*not **care** what happens*

***admire** someone's courage*

(= approve of)

***look** lovely*

***smell** strange*

***appear** perfectly calm*

***measure** two metres*

***weigh** ten kilos*

perfectly

***cost** a lot of money*

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.*

10

The future

70 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 Brian Dudley, who has worked at the cinema for eighteen years. Mrs Dudley (72) **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 an 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 n /.

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 11:40.*

*We **change** at Birmingham. What time **do** you **arrive** in Helsinki?*

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

NOT *I **am** moving to London for you.*

NOT *They **will** 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.*

(in the past)

*The cinema **will close** in November.*

(in the future)

*The cinema **has closed**.*

(past action related to the present)

*The cinema **is going to close** soon.*

(future action related to the present)

But we normally use *can* to suggest a possible future action. • 97(2a)
*We **can** discuss the details later.*

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 question with *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
Simple	<i>play</i>	<i>to play</i>
Perfect	<i>have played</i>	<i>to have played</i>
Continuous	<i>be playing</i>	<i>to be playing</i>
Perfect + continuous	<i>have been playing</i>	<i>to have been playing</i>

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

afford • Note a

agree • Note b

aim

appear • 120(2)

arrange

ask

attempt

be • 76

be dying • Note c

beg

can't wait

care (= want) • Note d

choose

claim

come • 120(2)

dare • 101

decide

demand

expect

fail

get (= succeed)

grow • 120(2)

guarantee

happen • 120(2)

hasten

have • 92

help • Note e

hesitate

hope

learn

long

manage

neglect

offer

omit

ought • 93

plan

prepare

pretend

promise

prove • 120(2)

refuse

seek

seem • 120(2)

swear

tend • 120(2)

threaten

train

turn out • 120(2)

undertake

used • 100(2)

with

+ gerund

admit

advise • Note f

allow • Note f

anticipate

appreciate

avoid

can't help

confess

consider

delay

deny

detest

dislike

enjoy

escape

excuse

face

fancy (= want)

finish

give up

imagine

involve

justify

keep (on)

leave off

mention

mind • Note d

miss

permit • Note f

postpone

practise

put off

quit

recommend • Note f

resent

resist

resume

risk

save

stand • Note a

suggest

tolerate

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.*

Preview from Notesale
Page 156 of 453

We can use many adjectives in this pattern, for example:

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

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. *challenge, demand, disadvantage, disaster, idea, mistake, nuisance, plan*.

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. • 11(1)

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

pleasure of/in

point of/in

possibility of

problem of/in

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 and in have special meanings in this pattern.

***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 light** **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

1	Active		Passive
	<i>playing</i>	Simple	<i>played</i>
		Continuous	<i>being played</i>
Perfect	<i>having played</i>		<i>having been played</i>
Past	<i>played</i>		

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*), 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.

Quantifier (+ of)	Determiner	Adjective modifier	Noun modifier	Noun	Other modifiers
	<i>a</i>			<i>bomb</i>	
	<i>a</i>	<i>hot</i>		<i>meal</i>	<i>for two</i>
	<i>the</i>			<i>door</i>	
<i>all</i>	<i>these</i>			<i>bottles</i>	<i>here</i>
<i>a lot of</i>		<i>empty</i>		<i>bottles</i>	
<i>a lot of</i>	<i>her</i>			<i>friends</i>	
<i>enough</i>				<i>exits</i>	
<i>some</i>		<i>nice</i>	<i>soup</i>	<i>dishes</i>	
<i>each of</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>heavy</i>	<i>glass</i>	<i>doors</i>	<i>of the building</i>

- 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: **Security guards** set a trap.
 Object: The stewardess alerted **the pilot**.
 Complement: The cost of a bottle was **17 pence**.
 Adverbial: **That day** something unusual happened.
 Prepositional object: 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, paint*.

Many nouns can be either countable or uncountable. • (5)

- 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.

	Countable		Uncountable
	Singular	Plural	
<i>the</i>	the boat	the boats	the water
<i>a/an</i>	a boat		
<i>some</i>	(some boat)	some boats	some water
Noun on its own		boats	water
<i>no</i>	no boat	no boats	no water
<i>this/that</i>	this boat		this water
<i>these/those</i>		these boats	
Possessives	our boat	our boats	our water
Numbers	one boat	two boats	
<i>a lot of</i>		a lot of boats	a lot of water
<i>many/few</i>		many boats	
<i>much/little</i>			much water
<i>all</i>	all the boat	all (the) boats	all (the) water
<i>each/every</i>	every boat		

- 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 furnitures*

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.

<i>accommodation</i>	<i>English (the language)</i>	<i>land</i>	<i>research</i>
<i>advice</i>	<i>equipment</i>	<i>laughter</i>	<i>steel</i>
<i>applause</i>	<i>evidence</i>	<i>leisure</i>	<i>rubbish</i>
<i>baggage</i>	<i>fruit</i>	<i>lighting</i>	<i>scenery</i>
<i>behaviour</i>	<i>fun</i>	<i>litter</i>	<i>shopping</i>
<i>bread</i>	<i>furniture</i>	<i>luck</i>	<i>sightseeing</i>
<i>camping</i>	<i>soap</i>	<i>luggage</i>	<i>stuff</i>
<i>cash</i>	<i>harm</i>	<i>machinery</i>	<i>thunder</i>
<i>clothing</i>	<i>health</i>	<i>money</i>	<i>toast</i>
<i>countryside</i>	<i>help (• Note c)</i>	<i>news</i>	<i>traffic</i>
<i>crockery</i>	<i>homework</i>	<i>pay (= wages)</i>	<i>transport</i>
<i>cutlery</i>	<i>housework</i>	<i>permission</i>	<i>travel</i>
<i>damage</i>	<i>housing</i>	<i>pollution</i>	<i>violence</i>
(• Note a)	<i>jewellery</i>	<i>progress</i>	<i>weather</i>
<i>education</i>	<i>knowledge</i>	<i>proof</i>	<i>work</i>
(• Note b)	(• Note b)	<i>rain</i>	(• Note d)

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

<i>bag(s)</i>	<i>house(s)</i>	<i>permit(s) /'pɜːmit/</i>	<i>suitcase(s)</i>
<i>camp(s)</i>	<i>jewel(s)</i>	<i>rumour(s)</i>	<i>thing(s)</i>
<i>clothes (• Note e)</i>	<i>job(s)</i>	<i>shop(s)</i>	<i>vegetable(s)</i>
<i>clue(s)</i>	<i>journey(s)</i>	<i>shower(s)</i>	<i>vehicle(s)</i>
<i>coin(s)</i>	<i>laugh(s)</i>	<i>sight(s)</i>	
<i>fact(s)</i>	<i>loaf/loaves</i>	<i>storm(s)</i>	
<i>hobby/hobbies</i>	<i>machine(s)</i>	<i>suggestion(s)</i>	

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.*

147 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 to join the words or not. • 56(5c)

- 3 The stress is more often on the first noun.

'tennis club ma'chine-gun ca'rpark 'fire alarm

But sometimes the main stress comes on the second noun.

cardboard 'box microwave 'oven taw'ny 'tail

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 warfilm* (= 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 biscuitfactory*
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*.

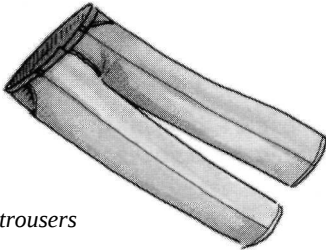
NOTE

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

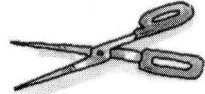
- 1 We use a pair noun for something made of two identical parts.



trousers



glasses/spectacles



scissors

- 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, e.g. *a crowd of people, a team of no hopes*.

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

*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:

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

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.

162 The article in generalizations

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 *some* or *any* in the same way.

*There was **some** one 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) **half** (**of**) the letter(s)/money

Small **several** letters **several of** those letters

(positive) **a few** letters **a few** of the letters

• 177(2a) **a small number of** letters

a little money

a little of his letter/our money

a bit of money

a bit of that letter/money

a small amount of money

Small **few** letters

few of four letters

(negative) **not many** letters

not many of these letters

• 177(2b) **little** money **little of** the letter/money

not much money

not much of that letter/money

hardly any letters/money

hardly any of the letter(s)/money

Zero **no** letter(s)/money **none of** the letters/money • 178(2)

• 179(2) **no part of** this letter/money

Of two • 178(4)

neither letter

neither of the letters

Preview from Notesale
Page 239 of 453

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

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 only • 200

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 (*a 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. • 147

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 *and* 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

exciting/excited

amusing/amused

fascinating/fascinated

annoying/annoyed

puzzling/puzzled

confusing/confused

relaxing/relaxed

depressing/depressed

surprisingly/surprised

disappointing/disappointed

tiring/tired

NOTE These words have the same form as active and passive participles. • 137

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 the 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.*

- c 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 can 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 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.*

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 halfan hour. Then/After **that** there was a discussion.*

We but we can say *the day/week after*.

*I sent the form off, and I got a reply the week **after**/a 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** **don't** get up late here.*

- b *Seldom* and *rarely* are a little formal. In informal speech we use *not often*.

*I **don't often** play cards.*

- c *Never* is a negative word. • 17(4)

*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 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 bitsick**.*
 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 In informal English we can use *that* instead of *so* in a negative sentence.
*No, they don't own an aeroplane. They aren't **that** rich.*
- 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 an adverb and as a 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, • 17/60.

- 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.

	Comparative	Superlative
<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther/further</i>	<i>farthest/furthest</i>

*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

more (= a larger number)

*You've got **more** cassettes than me.*

most (= the largest number)

*You've got the **most** cassettes of anyone I know.*

fewer (= a smaller number) • Note

*I buy **fewer** cassettes these days.*

fewest (= the smallest number) • Note

*You've got the **fewest** cassettes of anyone I know.*

Uncountable

more (= a larger amount)

*They play **more** music at weekends.*

most (= the largest amount)

*This station plays the **most** music.*

less (= a smaller amount)

*There's **less** music on the radio at weekends.*

least (= the smallest amount)

*This station plays the **least** music.*

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 *greater than*, *equal to* or *less than* something else.

*Most hotels are **more** comfortable than motels.*

*Some motels are **less** comfortable than 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 **preferable** 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.*

Preview from Notesale.
Page 301 of 453

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 arrive **on** Friday. We met **in** 1985.*

- a We use *at* with a particular time such as a clock time or a specific 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** halfpast 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(1).

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 **for** the plan/**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 went 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. (= enthusiastically)*

***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**, **pull** **down** the old hospital, **burn** **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**, **afire** **dying** **down**, **let** **down** the tyres*

down = stopping completely

*a car that **broke** **down**, a factory **closing** **down***

off = away, departing/removing

***start** **off**/**set** **off** on a journey, **clear** **off**, a plane **taking** **off**, **see** someone **off**, **sell** goods **off** cheaply, **strip** **off** wallpaper*

off = away from work

knocking** **off** at five (informal), **take** a day **off

off = disconnected

put** **off**/**turn** **off**/**switch** **off** the heating, **cut** **off** our 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**/**carry** **on** a bit longer, **work** **on** late, **hang** **on**/**hold** **on** (= wait), **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** me?*

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*, *discuss*, *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

	Verb	Object	Preposition
<i>Some companies</i>	spend	<i>a lot of money</i>	on advertising.
<i>They've</i>	invited	<i>us</i>	to the wedding.
<i>Do you</i>	regard	<i>this building</i>	as a masterpiece?

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

30

And, or, but, so etc

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' • 244

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

Words meaning 'or' • 245

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

Words meaning 'but' • 246

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' • 247

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

244 Words meaning 'and'

- 1 We can use *and* to link two clauses. • 239(1)

*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, indicate, 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 me** 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 the electrician to Martin.

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

Now the speaker is different, so *I* becomes *he*, 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.

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

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 got on 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

1 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*

	People	Things
Subject	<i>the man who was talking</i> <i>the man that was talking</i>	<i>the music which was playing</i> <i>the music that was playing</i>
Object of verb	<i>the man who we met</i> <i>the man that we met</i> <i>the man we met</i> <i>the man whom we met</i>	<i>the music which we heard</i> <i>the music that we heard</i> <i>the music we heard</i>
Object of preposition	<i>the man who we talked to</i> <i>the man that we talked to</i> <i>the man we talked to</i> <i>the man whom we talked to</i> <i>the man to whom we talked</i>	<i>the music which we listened to</i> <i>the music that we listened to</i> <i>the music we listened to</i> <i>the music to which we listened</i>

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.

36

Word-building

282 Summary

Compounds • 283

Some words are formed by combining two different words to make a compound.

bath + room = bathroom

It is usually shorter and neater to say *a bedroom* than *a room with a bath in it*.

Prefixes • 284

We can add a prefix to a word. For example, we can add the prefix *inter* in front of the adjective *national*. A prefix adds something to the meaning.

*Is it a flight **between** different countries?*

*Is it an **international** flight?*

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 *ness* to the adjective *kind* to form the noun *kindness*.

*We won't forget **the fact that you've been so kind**.*

*We won't forget **your kindness**.*

The pattern with the abstract noun is neater.

Vowel and consonant changes • 286

Some related words have a different sound, e.g. *hot* and *heat*.

Words belonging to more than one class • 287

Some words belong to more than one class. For example, *cost* is both a verb and a noun.

*The shoes **cost** £50. the **cost** of the shoes*

Nationality words • 288

We can use most nationality words as adjectives and as nouns.

*a **Canadian** town He's a **Canadian**.*

preview from Notesale
Page 374 of 453

- 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, lose loss, proud pride, sell sale, shout, song, sit seat, tall tale*
- 2 There can be a different consonant sound.
*That's what I **b**elieve. That's my **f**elief.*
 Also: *advise advice, descend descent, prove proof, speak speech*
- 3 Sometimes more than one sound changes: *choose choice, lend loan, live /lɪv/ life /laɪf/, 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?*

37

Word endings: pronunciation and spelling

289 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: *sings*, *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 • 290

match *matches* /ɪz/

The ed ending • 291

wait *waited* /ɪd/

Leaving out e • 292

make *making* *insure* *insurance*

The doubling of consonants • 293

big *bigger* *regret* *regrettable*

Consonant + y • 294

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*

After a sibilant sound we add *es*.

kisses *watches* *bushes* *taxes*

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

places *supposes* *prizes*

- 3 Some nouns have a regular written plural in *ths*, but the pronunciation of *th* changes.

path /θ/ *paths* /ðz/

Also: *mouths*, *youths* (= young people)

NOTE

Some other nouns in *th* are regular: *months*, *births*, *deaths* /θs/. Some have alternative forms, e.g. *truths* /ðz/ or /θs/.

- 4 The plural of *house* is *houses* /zɪz/.
- 5 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*, etc., some animals, e.g. *sheep*, *deer*, some kinds of fish, e.g. *cod*, *salmon*, and some nouns ending in *s*, e.g. *headquarters*, *means*. • 154(3)

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/aɪ/

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 /i:z/

analysis *analyses* *crisis* *crises* *hypothesis* *hypotheses*

39

Irregular verb forms

299 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: *Did you **write** the letter?*
Past tense: *I **wrote** the letter yesterday.*
Past participle: *I've **written** the letter.*

We also use the irregular forms after a prefix such as *re*, *un*, *out*, *mis*.
*I've **rewritten** the letter. He **undid** the knot.*

Special participle forms • 301

Some special participle forms come before a noun.
*a **drunken** riot*

300 List of irregular verbs

Base form	Past tense	Past/passive participle
arise / ə'raɪz/	arose / ə'rəʊz/	arisen / ə'rɪzn/
awake / ə'weɪk/	awoke / ə'wəʊk/	awoken / ə'wəʊkən/
be / bi:/ ▷ 84(2)	was / wɒz / were / wɜ:(r)/	been / bi:n/
bear / beə(r)/	bore / bɔ:(r)/	borne / bɔ:n/
beat / bi:t/	beat / bi:t/	beaten / 'bi:tn/
become / bɪ'kʌm/	became / bɪ'keɪm/	become / bɪ'kʌm/
begin / bɪ'ɡɪn/	began / bɪ'ɡæn/	begun / bɪ'ɡʌn/
bend / bend/	bent / bent/	bent / bent/
bet / bet/	bet / bet/	bet / bet/
bid / bɪd/ (= offer money)	bid / bɪd/	bid / bɪd/

Base form	Past tense	Past/passive participle
bid /bɪd/ (= order)	bade /bæd/	bidden /'bɪdn/
bind /baɪnd/	bound /baʊnd/	bound /baʊnd/
bite /baɪt/	bit /bɪt/	bitten /'bɪtn/
bleed /bli:d/	bled /bled/	bled /bled/
blow /bləʊ/	blew /blu:/	blown /bləʊn/
break /breɪk/	broke /brəʊk/	broken /'brəʊkən/
breed /bri:d/	bred /bred/	bred /bred/
bring /brɪŋ/	brought /brɔ:t/	brought /brɔ:t/
broadcast /'brɔ:dka:st/	broadcast /'brɔ:dka:st/	broadcast /'brɔ:dka:st/
build /bɪld/	built /bɪlt/	built /bɪlt/
burn /bɜ:n/	burnt /bɜ:nt/	burnt /bɜ:nt/
	burned /bɜ:nd/	burned /bɜ:nd/
burst /bɜ:st/	burst /bɜ:st/	burst /bɜ:st/
bust /bʌst/	bust /bʌst/	bust /bʌst/
	busted /'bʌstɪd/	busted /'bʌstɪd/
buy /baɪ/	bought /bɔ:t/	bought /bɔ:t/
cast /kɑ:st/	cast /kɑ:st/	cast /kɑ:st/
catch /kætʃ/	caught /kɔ:t/	caught /kɔ:t/
choose /tʃu:z/	chose /tʃəʊz/	chosen /'tʃɒzn/
cling /klɪŋ/	clung /klɪŋ/	clung /klɪŋ/
come /kʌm/	came /keɪm/	come /kʌm/
cost /kɒst/ ▷ Note b	cost /kɒst/	cost /kɒst/
creep /kri:p/	crept /krept/	crept /krept/
cut /kʌt/	cut /kʌt/	cut /kʌt/
deal /di:l/	dealt /delt/	dealt /delt/
dig /dɪg/	dug /dʌg/	dug /dʌg/
dive /daɪv/	dived /daɪvd/	dived /daɪvd/
	dove /dəʊv/ (USA)	
do /du:/ ▷ Note c	did /dɪd/	done /dʌn/
draw /drɔ:/	drew /dru:/	drawn /drɔ:n/
dream /dri:m/	dreamt /dremt/	dreamt /dremt/
	dreamed /dri:md/	dreamed /dri:md/
drink /drɪŋk/	drank /dræŋk/	drunk /drʌŋk/
drive /draɪv/	drove /drəʊv/	driven /'drɪvn/
dwell /dwel/	dwelt /dwelt/	dwelt /dwelt/
eat /i:t/	ate /et/	eaten /'i:tn/
fall /fɔ:l/	fell /fel/	fallen /'fɔ:lən/
feed /fi:d/	fed /fed/	fed /fed/
feel /fi:l/	felt /felt/	felt /felt/
fight /faɪt/	fought /fɔ:t/	fought /fɔ:t/
find /faɪnd/	found /faʊnd/	found /faʊnd/
fit /fɪt/ ▷ Note d	fitted /'fɪtɪd/	fitted /'fɪtɪd/
	fit /fɪt/	fit /fɪt/

Preview from Notesale
Page 390 of 453

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, possibly*. 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 an adverb 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 alarm went off*. Here *I woke up* is the main clause, and *when the alarm 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 adverbial of manner tells us how something happens, e.g. *sadly, in a hurry*. • 205

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 of the s; 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/, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/

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**.

ashamed

- comparison 218(4b)
- ashamed of* 236(2)
- ashamed of* + gerund 132(5b) **Note g**
- position 200(2)
- + to-infinitive 123(5), 132(5b) **Note g**

aside from 306(2)**ask**

- ask about* 233(3a) **Note a**, 262(5) **Note**
- ask for* 233(1) **Note a**, 233(3a) **Note a**, 234(2)
- ask for* with to-infinitive 126(1)
- + noun clause 262(1c)
- with/without object 8(2)
- passive pattern 108(3)
- + preposition 233(3a) **Note a**
- verb of reporting 266
- reporting orders 270(1)
- + subjunctive 242(1)
- + to-infinitive 121(1)
- ask what to do* 125(3)

asking for information

- indirect question 33
- intonation 54(2b)
- negative question 30(1d)
- question 22
- question tag 34(3)
- statement 16(2)

asking permission 94(2)**asleep:** position 200(2)**aspects** 61(3), 114(1)

- overview 69, 114(1)
- passive 105(1), 114(1)

assistance: uncountable 144(4b)**association:** group noun 156(4)**assume**

- assume so/not* 43(3)
- + noun clause 262(1c)
- + object + to-infinitive 122(2c)
- passive patterns 109

assure with noun clause 265(2,3)**astonished at/by** 236(2)**at**

- after adjective 236
- and *in*, *on* (place) 226(1)
- and *in*, *on* (time) 227(1)
- laugh/shout at* 233(3c) **Note b, c**
- place 225(1,2b)
- time 227(1a)
- weak form 55(1b)

at all 17(6b), 212(1a) **Note g****at least** 191(4)**at/in the end** 229(2b)**athletics** 154(2)**attack**

- attack on* 237(2h)
- verb and noun 287(1)

attempt: *make an attempt* 87(2)

- + to-infinitive 121(1), 124(1a)
- verb and noun 287(1)

attend to 233(2)**attitude to/towards** 237(2h)**attributive adjective** 199(2,3) 200(1)

- comparison 218(3)
- order 202(1, 2)
- with *quite*, *so/such*, *too* 212(4)

audience: group noun 156(4)**authorize** 122(2b)**auxiliary verbs** 60, 83

- followed by adverb 208(4)
- in co-ordinate clause 239(1a) **Note b**
- modal auxiliary verbs 90
- + *not* 17(2)

available

- available for/to* 236(4)
- position 201(2) **Note a**

avoid

- with gerund 121(1), 131(5)
- negative meaning 17(4) **Note a**, 252(2) **Note c**

awake: position of adjective 200(2)**award**

- passive pattern 108
- with *to* 10(5)

aware

- + noun clause 262(5) **Note**, 262(6)
- aware of* 236(4)
- aware of*+ gerund 132(4)

awareness of

- + gerund 132(7)

away 232(4)**awful** 212(1)

- quite awful* 212(6)
- with to-infinitive 123(5), 126(2)
- with *very* 212(1a) **Note a**
- awfully* 212(1a, 7c)

back

- back of* 147(5f) **Note b**
- in phrasal verb 232(2)

backshift of tenses 268**bad**

- bad at* + gerund 132(4)
- comparison 218(2b)

badly: comparison 219(2)**baggage:** uncountable 144(4b)**bar of** 144(3b)**bare infinitive** 116(1)

- patterns 127
- after verb + object 140(1b)

barracks 154(3)**base form** 58**bath**

- have a bath* 87(2)
- not reflexive 186(2e)

be

- + adverb 232(4)
- agreement 151
- auxiliary verb 83
- continuous 84(3)
- form 84(2)
- linking verb 9,84
- ordinary verb 84
- not passive 104(6b)
- in questions 23(3)
- state verb 62(1)
- + to-infinitive 76,127(4b)
- weak form 55(1b)
- be able to** 98(2, 3)

fine (verb): *fine*. ..for 234(2)

finish

+ gerund 121(1)

with/without object 8(3)

finite clause 239(3a)

finite verb 59

firm: group noun 156(4)

first

and **firstly** 207(4) **Note c**, 216(4)

ordinal number 192

fit (adjective): *fit for* 236(4)

fit (verb)

action/state 62(3)

fit in with 235(2)

irregular in US **303(11)**

passive 104(6b)

fix up 232(1b)

fly with/without object 8(3)

focus adverbials 213(1, 2)

follow: there follows 50(4)

following

in indirect speech 267(2)

in phrase of time 169(8), 227(2b)

fond of 236(1)

+ gerund 132(4)

foolish

comparison 218(4b)

with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(5)

foot, feet 296(1), 297 **Note**

for

after adjective 236(5)

= because 25(1) **Note e**

for example 216(2)

+ gerund 132(8a), 252(3)

= in favour of 228(1)

for doing and to do 132(5)

leave/make for 233(4) **Note b**

need for 237(2g)

with present perfect/past 65(5d)

purpose 126(6), 252(3)

for the sake of 228(1)

and since 227(5)

and to 10(5)

with to-infinitive 126

weak form 55(1b)

forbid

performative 16(3)

verb of reporting 265(2)

+ object + to-infinitive 122(2b)

force

and *make* 127(3a)

+ object + to-infinitive 122(2b)

forecast

+ noun clause 262(1c)

verb of reporting 265(2)

foreign plurals 298(2-5)

forget

clause pattern 11(2) **Note a**

+ object + gerund 131(5)

+ noun clause 262(1c)

+ to-infinitive/gerund 121(3a)

forget what to do 125(2)

forgive: performative 16(3)

formal: comparison 218(4b)

formation of words 282

former: position 200(1)

formulae/formulas 298(4)

fortunate + to-infinitive 123(5)

fraction 193(1)

adverb of degree 212(1a)

agreement 153(2) **Note c**

free

comparison 218(4a)

and *freely* 207(5)

freeze with/without object 8(3)

frequency adverb: see adverb of frequency

frequent: comparison 218(4b)

friendly 207(2)

frightened of 236(2)

from

place 225(1, 3b)

from ... point of view 213(3)

time 227(7)

weak form 55(1b)

front position 208(3)

for emphasis 49, 231(6)

fruit: uncountable 144(4b)

full of 236(4)

full stop 56(1)

fully 293(4)

fun

ing gerund 131(2)

uncountable 144(4a)

funny: comparison 218(4b)

furious: preposition 236(2) **Note b**

future: uncountable 144(4a)

farther furthest 218(2b), 219(2)

and *farther, farthest* 218(5a)

further(more) 244(2)

future 70

overview 81

future continuous 75

future perfect 79

future perfect continuous 79 **Note c**

future progressive 79

gang: group noun 156(4)

garage (verb) 287(3)

gaze up at 235(1)

gender 6(1)

ess ending 285(3e)

he/she/it 184(3b)

generalizations

all, most 178(2a)

articles 162, 164(2), 165

overview of articles 166

the + adjective 204

generally 211(1, 2)

generous with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(5)

genitive: see possessive form of nouns

gentle: comparison 218(4b)

geographical names and the 171

gerund

summary 128

after *do* 138(2)

after *need* etc 113(1)

+ noun 283(2)

noun + gerund 283(3)

passive 112, 114(3)

- mustn't** 92(4)
 indirect speech 268(3d)
 and *needn't* 92(4b)
 US 303(10)
- mutter:** verb of reporting 265(2)
- my** 174(3)
- myself** 186
- mysterious:** *the mysterious* 204(2a)
- name:** clause pattern 11(1)
- names**
 agreement 152(3), 156(5)
 subject of gerund 130(2)
 months, days without article 169
 of people 56(6c), 170
 of places and *the* 171
- narrow**
 comparison 218(4b)
 verb 287(4)
- nationality word** 288
 with *a/an* 161(2)
- natural** + to-infinitive 123(1)
- navy:** group noun 156(4)
- near** 225(1), 226(6)
- nearly** 212(7a)
nearly all/every 212(8d)
 and *near* 207(5)
- nearest** and *next* 218(5d)
- necessary**
as/than necessary 169(5b)
 + subjunctive 242(1)
 with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(2)
- necessity** 92
 in indirect speech 268(3d)
- need** 92(3b)
need for 237(2g)
 + gerund 113(1)
 passive 104(6b)
 + object + passive participle 140(5)
 state verb 62(1)
 + to-infinitive 121(3h), 124(1a)
 US 303(9)
 verb and noun 287(1)
- needn't** 92(3)
 in indirect speech 268(3d)
 and *mustn't* 92(4)
- needn't have done** 93(3c)
- negative** 17
 in passive 105(2)
 with truth adverb 214(1)
 see also *not*
- negative gerund** 129(4)
- negative imperative** 19(1)
- negative infinitive** 116(5)
- negative participle** 135(6)
- negative prefix** 284(2)
 and comparison 218(4b) Note
 after *not* 17(3) Note b
 with participle 137(2) Note
- negative question** 30
 as exclamation 20(3)
- negative statement** 17
- negative word** 17(4)
 adverbial in front position 17(6c)
 + *any* 179(1c)
- neglect** + to-infinitive 121(1)
- neither**
 in short addition 43(1c)
 agreement 153(5)
 negative word 17(4)
neither... nor 245(2)
 quantifier 178(4)
- nervous of** 132(4), 236(2)
- never** 211(1,2)
 and *ever* 211(1) Note c
 negative word 17(4)
 with past 303(6)
- nevertheless** 246(2)
- new:** *the new* 204(2a)
- news**
 + noun clause 262(7)
 with singular verb 154(2)
 uncountable 144(4a)
- newspaper headlines:** see headlines
- newspaper** with *the* 160(5)
- next**
 indirect speech 267(2)
 and *nearest* 218(5d)
 with past 65(3a)
 with *the* 160(4)
 in phrase of time 169(2), 237(2)
next to 225(1), 226(6d)
 + to-infinitive 27(2)
- nic**
and + adjective 202(3a) Note
 with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(2, 5)
- night**
 with/without article 169(6)
 with *at/in* 227(1c) Note
- no**
 answering negative question 30(3)
 + comparative 212(2, 8f)
 + gerund 133(1)
 negative word 17(4), 179(2)
 and *none* 181(2)
 and *not* 17(2c)
 quantifier 179(2)
 as question tag 34(1) Note f
 refusing permission 94(1b) Note, 133(1)
 + singular noun 145(2c) Note
- no good** + gerund 131(2a)
- no longer** 210(3a)
- no matter** 245(2)
- no one** 189(1a)
 negative word 17(4)
- no sooner... than** 250(5)
- no way** 17(6c)
- nobody:** see *no one*
- noise:** countable/uncountable 144(5d)
- nominal:** see noun
- nominalization** 149
- non-count noun:** see uncountable noun
- non-defining relative clause:** see non-identifying
- non-finite clause** 239(3b), 240(3), 249(4)
- non-finite verb** 59
- non-gradable adjective**
 with *quite* 212(5c)
 not with *very* 212(1a) Note a

past simple 65

- in conditionals 257(4, 5)
- irregular 300
- passive 105(1a)
- and past continuous 66(2)
- and past perfect 68(3)
- and present perfect 65(4)
- unreal present 241 (3a)
- US 303(6)

past subjunctive 242(3)**past tense**

- in indirect speech 268
- sequence of tenses 241
- past simple 65

paths 296(3)**pay: uncountable noun 144 (4b)****pay (verb)**

- and *pay for* 233(1) **Note b**
- pay for* + gerund 132(2, 5a)
- passive pattern 108(3)
- with *to* 10(5)
- + to-infinitive 132(5a)

peaceful: comparison 218(4b)**pennies and pence 296(5)****people 296(1) **Note b****

- with plural verb 156(6)
- and *they* 185(4)

per 172(1) **Note**

- per cent* 192(1)

perception: verb of perception**perfect 61(3)**

- with modal verb 91(4), 95(3), 97(1c), 97(3), 106(2)
- passive 105(1b), 106(2), 114(1)
- see also present perfect etc

perfect

- position 200(3)
- quite perfect* 212(5c)
- + to-infinitive 123(1)
- not with *very* 212(1a) **Note a**

perfect gerund 129

- passive 112

perfect infinitive 116(1)

- passive 112

perfect participle 135(1, 5)

- in clause of time 139(1d)

performative verb 16(3)**period (full stop) 56(1)****permission 22(2), 94****permit: uncountable 144(4b)****permit**

- + gerund 121(1) **Note f**
- stress 287(2)
- + object + to-infinitive 122(2b)

person: suffix 285(3e) **Note b****personal pronoun 184**

- before gerund 130(2)
- + relative clause 272(2) **Note**
- and relative pronoun 272(7)

persons 296(1) **Note b****persuade**

- verb of reporting 265(3)
- + object + to-infinitive 122(2a)

phenomena 298(2)**phone (noun) after preposition 228(5c)****phone (verb)**

- phone back* 232(2)
- + object 233(3c) **Note**

phonetic symbols: page ix**phrasal-prepositional verb 235**

- passive 105(3)

phrasal verb 230

- passive 105(3), 231(5)
- and prepositional verb 231 (4)

phrase 4

- after adjective 201(1)
- after noun 148, 149(3), 165
- after pronoun 184(1e) **Note d**
- as subject 152(6)

phrase of time 210(1)

- and articles 169

physics 154(2)**pick**

- with *for* 10(5)
- pick out* 232(2)

piece of 144(3b, 4a)**pincers 155(4)****pity (noun)**

- cut it off* 144(5e)

plus: for 231(1)**pity: state verb 62(1)****place: preposition 235****place: adverbial 210**

- see also adverbial of place

place names and the 171**plan with to-infinitive 78(3), 121(1), 124(1a), 126(4)****play with/without object 8(2)****pleasant**

- comparison 218(4b)
- + to-infinitive 123(1)

pleased

- + noun clause 262 (6a)
- position 200(2)
- + preposition 236(2) **Note a**
- + preposition + gerund 132(4), 132(5b) **Note d**
- + to-infinitive 123(5), 132(5b) **Note d**

pleasing: comparison 218(4b)**pleasure**

- countable 144(5e)
- pleasure in* 237(1)
- + preposition + gerund 132(7)

plenty 180(1)**pliers 155(4)****plural name 171(1)****plural noun**

- after fraction 193(1c)
- generalization 162(1)
- irregular 295
- pronunciation, spelling 290
- regular 145
- with/without *the* 165

plural or singular verb 150**plus: conjunction 244(2) **Note******pm (time) 195(1) **Note a, c******pocket (verb) 287(3)**

point

- point...* at 234(2)
- point at/to* 233(2)
- + preposition + gerund 132(7)
- point out* 232(2), 262(1c, 1d), 265(2)

police

- with plural verb **156(6)**
- the police* 160(5)

polite

- comparison 218(4b)
- polite to* 236(3)
- with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(5)

politics 154(2)**pollution:** uncountable 144(4b)**poor**

- position **200(3)**
- the poor* 204(1b)

population: group noun 156(4)**popular with** 236(4)**position of adjectives** 200-2**position of adverbials** 208**possess:** state verb 62(1, 5)**possessive form of noun** 146

- as determiner **143(3d)**, 165(2) Note
- before gerund **130(2)**
- pronunciation **290(4)**
- expressing time and place **146(5)**

Possessives 174

- each/one another's* **186(4)**
- else's* **189(4)** Note b
- one's* **185(2b)**
- someone's* etc **189(3)**

possibility 97

- if-clause **257(4c)**

possibility 97(1a) Note b

- possibility of* 132(7), 237(2b)

possible 97(1a) Note b

- as possible* 199(5b)
- position **201(2)** Note b
- + to-infinitive 123(1), 123(2) Note

post (noun): *the post* 160(5)**post** (verb) with to 10(5)**postpone** + gerund 121(1)**potatoes** 290(2)**poultry** 156(6)**pound** **196(1)**, 297 Note a**pour** with/without object 8(3)**practise**

- + gerund 121(1)
- with/without object 8(2)
- and *practice* **308(5)**

praise... for 234(2)**pray:** verb of reporting 265(2)**predicative adjective** **199(2, 4)**, **200(2)**

- comparison 218(3)
- order **202(3)**

predict

- + noun clause 262(1c)
- performative 16(3)
- verb of reporting 265(2)

prediction

- be going to* **72(1)**, **74(1)**
- could* **97(2d)**
- I predict* 16(3)
- may/might* **97(1a)**, 97(2d)
- , **74(1)**, 95(1)

prefer

- clause pattern 11(1)
- with gerund 121(1), 131(5), 132(6)
- + noun clause 262(1c)
- state verb 62(1, 5)
- prefer...* to 132(6), 234(2)
- with to-infinitive 121(2), 122(2d)

preferable

- + subjunctive 242(1)
- preferable to* **221(1)** Note

preference: see *prefer*, *would rather***preference for** 237(2g)**prefix** 284

- hyphen **56(5d)**

premises 154(1a)**preparations** + to-infinitive 124(1a)**prepare**

- prepare for* 126(1), 233(2)
- with to-infinitive 121(1), 126(1)

prepared

- prepared for* 236(4)
- + to-infinitive 123(5)

preposition

- summary 221
- after adjective/noun/verb 230
- + gerund 132
- after infinitive 117(4)
- modifier 224(2)
- in passive **105(3)**, 234(1)
- + personal or reflexive pronoun **186(2b)**
- in question **25(3)**, 26(3)
- + question word + to-infinitive **125(2)**
- in relative clause **273(4)**, **274(3)**
- + wh-clause **262(5)**
- + whose **275(3)**

prepositional adverb (particle): see phrasal verb**prepositional phrase** 224(2)

- after adjective **201(2)**
- idiomatic **229**
- manner **209(2)**
- after noun **148(2)**
- as subject **208(3)** Note
- truth adverbial **214(2)**

prepositional verb 231(2), 233

- + gerund **132(2)**
- passive **105(3)**, **231(5)**
- and phrasal verb **231(4)**

present (adjective)

- present at* 236(4)
- position **200(3)**, **201(2)**

present (verb) with preposition 234(3)**present continuous** 64

- in conditionals 257(2b) Note, 257(3b, 3c)
- future meaning **73(1)**, **74**
- passive **105(1c)**
- performative verbs **16(3)** Note c

present perfect 65

- in conditionals 257(3b)
- passive **105(1b)**
- and past simple **65(4)**
- and present perfect continuous **67(2)**
- US **303(6)**

Preview from Notesale
 Page 439 of 453

would have done in conditional 257(6)

would have to 268 (3d) Note

would like

in conditional 257(4e)

and *like* 39(2) Note, **99(3a)**, 121(2) Note a

+ object + passive participle **140(5)**

+ to-infinitive **121(2) Note a**

+ object + to-infinitive **122(2d)**

would love/hate

+ object + passive participle 140(5)

+ to-infinitive **121(2) Note a**

+ object + to-infinitive 122(2d)

would prefer

+ object + passive participle 140(5)

+ object + to-infinitive 122(2d)

would rather 99 (3b)

with present/past 241(3a)

with *were* 242(3)

would sooner 99(3b) Note

write

write down 232(2)

+ noun clause 262(1c, 1d)

write out 232(2)

verb of reporting 265(2)

with *to* 10(5)

US 306(4)

written English 53(2)

wrong

comparison 218(4a)

and *wrongly* 207(4) Note b

quite wrong 212(5c)

with to-infinitive 123(1), 126(2, 5)

wrong with 236(4)

wrong with + gerund 132(4)

y and i: spelling 294

year without article **169(1)**

yes

after negative question 30(3)

as question tag **34(1) Note f**

yes/no question 24(1)

leaving out auxiliary 42(2)

as echo question **35(1) Note b**

intonation **54(2b)**

yes/no short answers 29(2)

yesterday

indirect speech 267(2)

with past 65(5a)

yet 210(2a)

= but **246(2) Note**

with past 303 (6)

you 184(1)

and *one* **185(2a)**

people in general **185(1)**

with short form 55 (2b)

weak form **55(1b)**

you know in speech 53(1c)

young

position 202(1a) Note b

the young 204(1b)

your 174(3)

weak form 55(1b)

yours 174(3)

yourself/selves 186

youths 296(3)

zero 191(5) Note, 196(5) Note

zero article (noun without article) 162(1),
164, **165, 167**

Preview from Notesale
Page 453 of 453